



Data Response Case Studies

For AS/A level Edexcel Economics A
Theme 2: The UK economy –
performance and policies

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Teacher's Introduction

This resource is designed to be used for teaching Edexcel AS/A Level Economics Theory, performance and policies. The resource consists of 12 Data Response Case Studies, each complete as homework tasks.

The case studies are presented in specification order, collectively covering each topic in the specification. Each case study contains detailed information (including diagrams and graphs) and questions.

The 'Use the data' tasks focus particularly on quantitative skills, and the 'Test your knowledge and application' questions focus on higher-level analysis and evaluation skills. Most of the questions given are in exam-style, but there are also some open-ended questions to this style except in the case of the extended-response questions, which are provided for all tasks and questions.

Reading through each study and answering the questions is expected to take 20–30 minutes. The extended-response questions at the end of each case study. One option for using this resource is to read the study in class and set the exam-style evaluation question as homework.

This resource will help prepare students for the Paper 2 component of the AS/A Level Economics examination. It is of interest in the real-world applications of macroeconomics. Each case study uses a real-world example to introduce student to a fascinating array of contemporary and historical issues relating to the economy.

I hope this resource helps you to bring economics to life for your students.

Case Study	Specification
1. Economic growth in the UK – back to business as usual?	2.1 Measures of economics performance (GDP, productivity)
2. UK inflation in the 1970s	2.1 Measures of economics performance (inflation)
3. UK unemployment – successes and challenges	2.1 Measures of economics performance (unemployment)
4. Should we be worried about the UK's current account deficit?	2.1 Measures of economics performance (current account)
5. The UK's slump in consumption during the recession	2.2 Aggregate Demand (consumption)
6. The economics of immigration	2.3 Aggregate Supply (Long-run Aggregate Supply)
7. Investigating the multiplier effect	2.4 National Income (the multiplier)
8. Patterns in the business cycle	2.5 Economic growth (trade/business cycle)
9. Monetary and fiscal policy in the Great Depression	2.6 Macroeconomic objectives and policies
10. Supply-side policies – privatisation in the UK	2.6 Macroeconomic objectives and policies
11. Policy conflicts – inflation and unemployment	2.6 Macroeconomic objectives and policies
12. When will the UK raise interest rates?	Multiple topics

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Economic growth in the UK – back to bus

This case study requires knowledge of Section 2.1.1 – econo

The financial crisis of 2008 saw the UK experience the worst recession since the Great Depression. The recession saw rising unemployment, a dramatic fall in bank lending (credit), and unprecedented stimulus measures from the UK government and Bank of England to try to steer the economy back towards positive growth.

Now that the worst of the crisis seems to be over, many commentators and external organisations (such as the IMF) are optimistic about the future of the UK economy – not least since economic growth in 2014 topped that of all the other 'G7' countries (see Figure 2).



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Figure 1: UK real growth rate

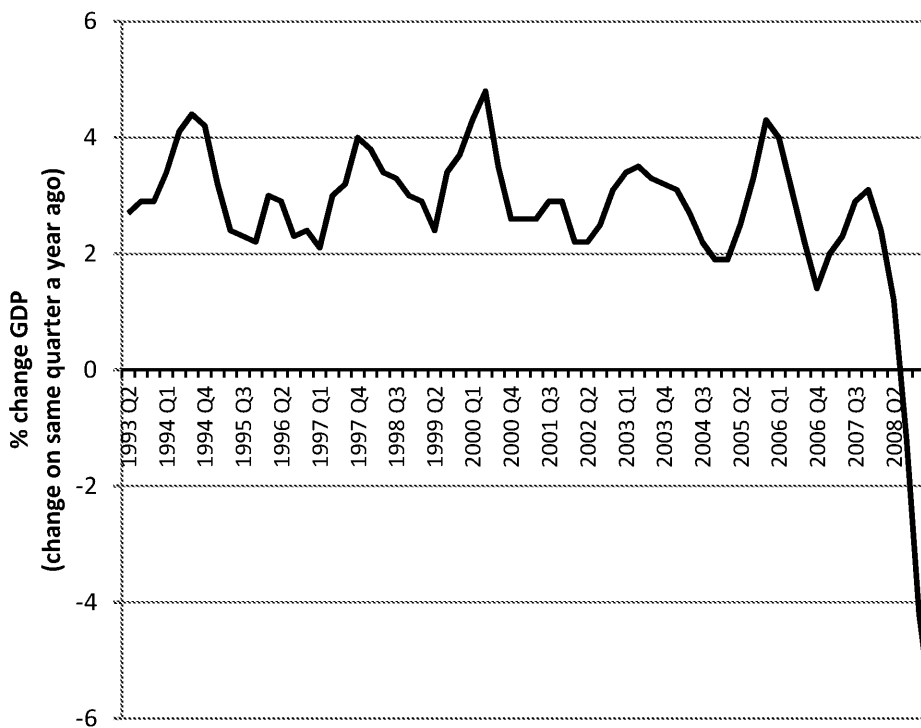


Figure 2

G7 Country	UK	Canada	USA	Germany	Fra
2014 annual real GDP growth rate	2.9	2.4	2.4	1.6	0

Many other economic indicators also seem to be showing signs of health – budget deficit is slowly narrowing (although not as quickly as the Chancellor wages are rising for the first time in several years (particularly notable since 2008). Some attribute this to sensible economics on the Chancellor's part – strong responsibility seem to have boosted market confidence (the costs of borrow

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have remained low – unlike imperilled economies such as Greece). Other government spending more gradually would have led to more reliable growth more to do with the revival of the world economy than any policy of the G20. Oil has also been an unexpected bonus for the UK as a net importer of oil.

In the 2015 Autumn Statement, the Chancellor announced relatively expansionary measures designed to boost economic growth, rather than lower the national debt) as economic growth predictions by the Office for Budget Responsibility (OBR) included postponing cuts to tax credits, and increasing the police budget and

Critics argue that predicting economic growth rates is notoriously difficult and that reliance on forecasts is a risky move. There are some clear threats to the UK and the world, including a slowdown of economic growth in China, and a chronic shortage of labour in the market. Hopefully the forecasters are right to predict that the UK will return to growth, but we can't know for sure.

Use the data

1. Estimate the average annual rate of GDP growth in the UK from 1993 to 2008.
2. Briefly describe how Figure 1 would change if nominal GDP figures were used.
3. Suppose the USA's real GDP at the start of 2014 was \$17 trillion. What would the figures in the extract be?

Test your knowledge...

1. Define real GDP.
2. Give two reasons from the passage why the UK's growth rate was relatively low.

Extended-response question

1. 'Once population size and inflation are accounted for, GDP is a good measure of a country's economy is.' Evaluate this claim.

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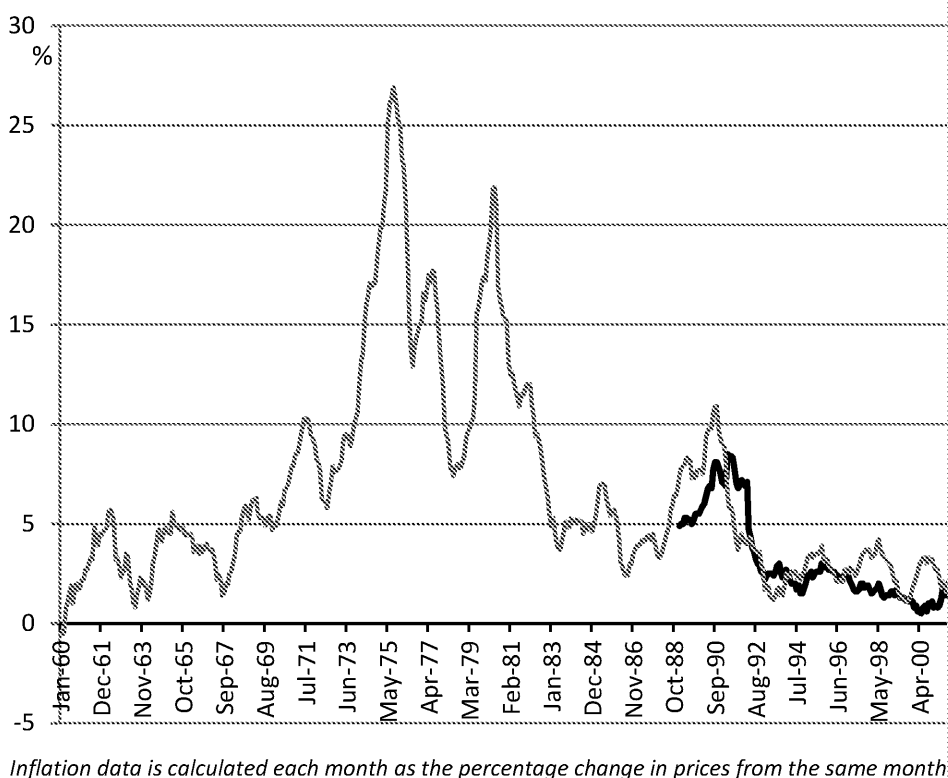


UK inflation in the 1970s

This case study requires knowledge of Section 2.1.2 – inflation

Inflation figures in the UK tend to be buried in the financial sections of newspapers. Inflation has been very modest over the past few decades (hovering close to the Bank of England target of 2%) although the near-zero rate in 2015 piqued some interest. However, in the 1970s, inflation was a serious concern.

Figure 1: UK inflation 1960–2013



High inflation is often associated with high economic growth – inflation and growth are often linked. However, in the 1970s, however, economists in the UK and US were faced with a combination of high inflation and low economic growth. This came to be known as ‘stagflation’.

One of the causes of this was a succession of oil price ‘shocks’ in the world economy – i.e. unexpected increases in the price of oil. This caused a slowdown in the UK manufacturing industry (as oil is a key cost of production) as well as an outflow of money from the UK to foreign oil producers (since the use of cars had become highly popular). These are examples of cost-push and demand-pull inflation, respectively.



It has also been observed that the government’s policy response worsened the problem. Interest rates were kept too low. Low interest rates lead to inflation if economic activity is kept at a high possible level. Unfortunately, the government had inaccurate data on the economy. It thought it had a greater capacity to grow than it actually did (they overestimated the growth gap). In retrospect, it would have made more sense to increase interest rates.

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Following this episode, policymakers tended to become more 'hawkish' – emphasis on controlling inflation, possibly at the expense of economic growth. When the UK entered a period of relatively stable inflation in the 1980s, policymakers have been more concerned with promoting economic growth than worrying about high inflation.

Use the data

1. Using Figure 1, what was the highest inflation rate experienced by the UK in the 1970s?
2. (a) In percentage points, what was the approximate change in the rate of inflation from July 1982 to July 1983?
(b) What term describes this kind of change?
3. Describe the trend in the inflation rate during the 1970s.

Test your knowledge...

1. State one reason why inflation increased in the 1970s.
2. Explain the difference between deflation and disinflation.

Extended-response question

1. Discuss the costs of inflation for an economy.

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UK unemployment – successes and

This case study requires knowledge of Section 2.1.3 – employment

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

The UK was also buffeted by a spike in unemployment following the crash, as Figures 1 and 2 show, but since 2013 the situation seems to have improved dramatically.

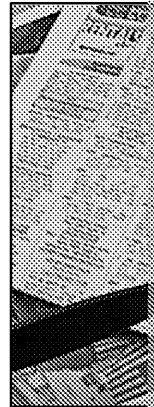


Figure 1: Measures of total unemployment (age 16+)

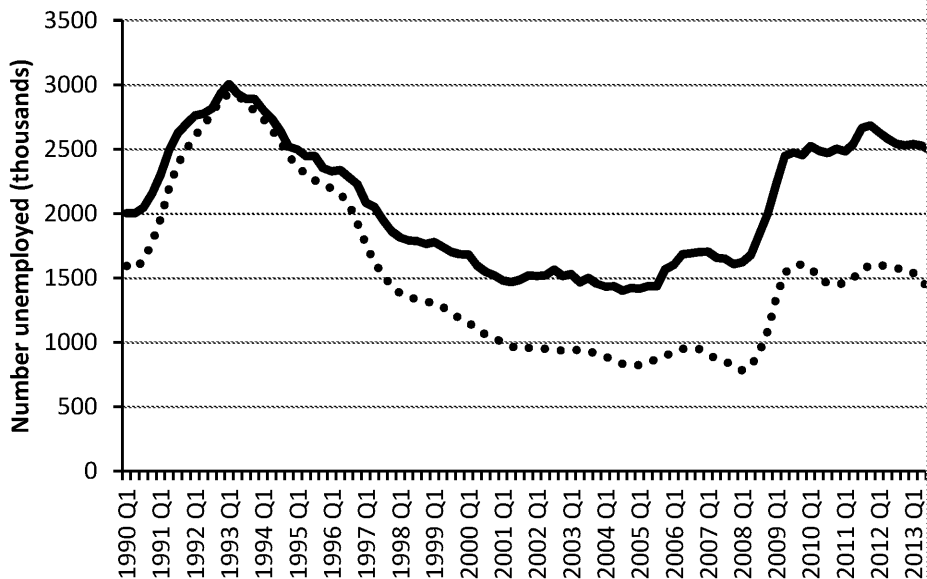
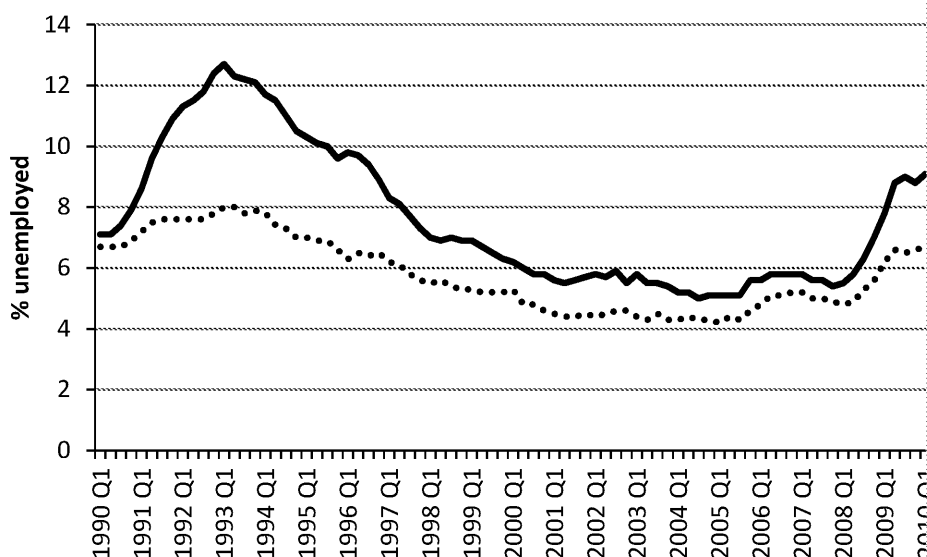


Figure 2: Unemployment rates (male/female)



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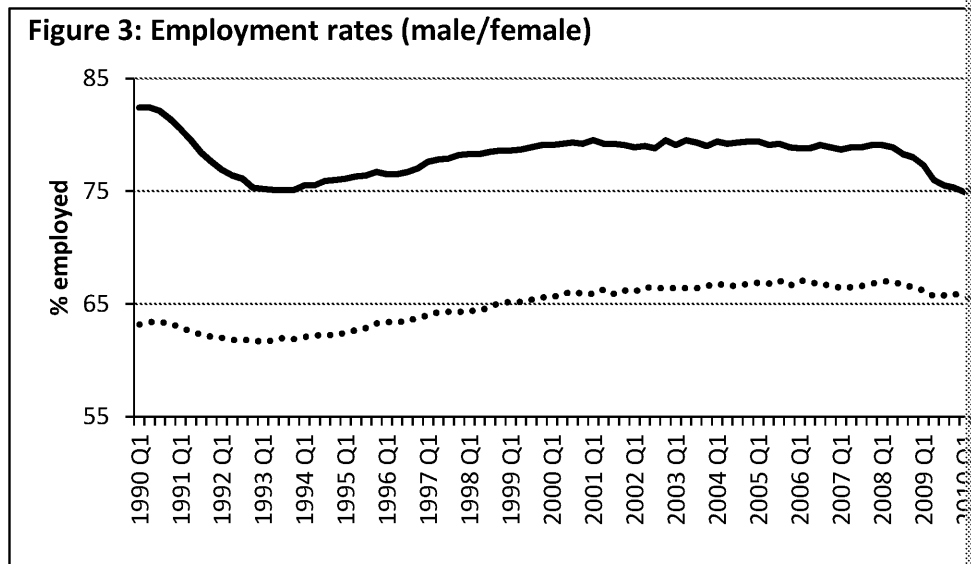
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The UK is not out of the water just yet, however. There have been heavy jobs losses in the manufacturing industry, as competition from abroad proved too fierce to make the industry viable. The government could try to prop up the industry via increased subsidies, but unless the underlying structural issues are tackled, it is feared that this would amount to signing a 'blank cheque'.

There have also been concerns that the unemployment figures only appear to mask the emergence of 'zero-hours contracts' – but hard evidence on this is difficult to come by.

Figure 3: Employment rates (male/female)



Another perplexing pattern has been observed since the crisis: even though employment has risen and unemployment figures have fallen, wage growth has been stagnant (wages tend to rise when unemployment is low).

One reason might be that inflation has been very low – if inflation were high, it would be demanding nominal wage increases. Another is that more people are having to work longer hours, as their employers cannot afford to have them work longer. A more likely reason for sluggish wage growth is that the proliferation of cheap capital goods has reduced the need for labour (e.g. the introduction of self-service machines at McDonald's). Whether this trend remains to be seen.

Use the data

- Looking at Figure 1, explain why the Claimant Count measure of unemployment is different from the Labour Force Survey measure.
- Suppose that in 2000 Q1 (quarter 1) the population of the UK was 60 million and that 55% of the total population consisted of the economically active population, use Figure 2 to estimate the number of unemployed people in the economy.
- Look at Figure 3. What can you observe about the difference between male and female employment rates? Can you think of any reasons behind the differences shown in the graph?

Test your knowledge...

- Define the term 'economically active'.
- Figure 1 shows a rise in unemployment numbers during the financial crisis of 2008. What does this tell you about unemployment that is likely to have taken effect during this time.

Extended-response question

- Discuss the consequences of unemployment for the economy and society.

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Should we be worried about the UK's current account?

This case study requires knowledge of Section 2.1.4 – balance of payments. You should be familiar with the current account component of the balance of payments and to have some understanding of how exchange rates affect the current account.

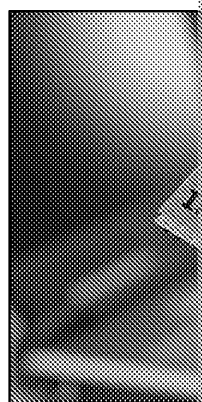
In the UK there has been much talk about the budget deficit – but less about the current account deficit. The budget deficit (which was £142 billion in 2010) seems to be falling steadily (it was £100 billion in 2014). However, the story is quite different for the current account. In the same period it jumped from £41 billion to around £92 billion.

Figure 1: UK Current Account Balances as a percentage of GDP

Quarter	Total	Trade	Primary
Q3 2012	-3.1	-1.7	-0.4
Q4 2012	-4.2	-2.5	-0.7
Q1 2013	-4.2	-1.7	-0.5
Q2 2013	-3.2	-1.6	0.1
Q3 2013	-4.6	-1.6	-1.0
Q4 2013	-6.0	-2.9	-1.1
Q1 2014	-4.5	-2.2	-1.3
Q2 2014	-4.2	-1.3	-1.1
Q3 2014	-5.4	-2.0	-2.2
Q4 2014	-6.3	-2.1	-2.2
Q1 2015	-5.2	-2.3	-1.9
Q2 2015	-3.6	-0.7	-1.9

The last columns of Figure 1 show the three components of the current account balance: net exports (or 'secondary income'), net investment income (or 'primary income') and net interest income (or 'secondary income'). The sum of these gives the total current account balance.

Current account deficits are not inherently 'bad' in the same way that running current account surpluses is not inherently 'good'. Developing countries may wish to run a current account deficit to import capital goods, with a view to improving their productivity in the future. Countries that rely too heavily on their exports may run into trouble if the price of their commodity falls unexpectedly (as with oil-producing countries in 2015/16).



Running a current account deficit is nothing new for the UK: there hasn't been a current account surplus since 1992. But some economists are concerned about the size of the deficit: the figure for Q4 2014 is the largest ever deficit in peacetime.

One of the worries about current account deficits is that they have to be funded by borrowing. If this persists over time, interest payments become a burden on the economy. They can also be funded by foreign investment in the domestic country. A recent example is the investment in building nuclear power stations in the UK. Some fear that too much foreign investment could compromise an economy's long-run growth potential.

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Others argue that if the deficit grows too large, the exchange rate will depreciate to improve the balance of payments. They also argue that investors have a lot of confidence in the UK because of many other measures it is performing strongly. Therefore, investors will not leave the UK any time soon. Furthermore, now that the UK is a net importer of oil, the low oil prices will prevent the deficit from worsening (so long as prices stay low).

It remains to be seen whether the UK government or the Bank of England will intervene to reduce the current account deficit, or whether market forces could solve the problem.

Use the data

- Look at the data in Figure 1.
 - Which of the three components of the current account appears to be stable over time?
 - Which of the three components seems to have worsened over time (i.e. increased its deficit)?
- Suppose UK GDP in 2012 was £1,600 billion (or £1.6 trillion). Using the size of the current account deficit in Q3 (quarter 3) 2012, calculate the size of the current account deficit as a percentage of GDP.
 - If UK GDP in 2014 was £1,750 billion (or £1.75 trillion), calculate the size of the current account deficit as a percentage of GDP in Q3 (quarter 3) 2014.

Test your knowledge...

- Based on the article:
 - Explain the effect on the current account balance if the value of UK exports increases.
 - Explain the effect on the UK's current account balance of an increase in the value of UK imports.

Extended-response question

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

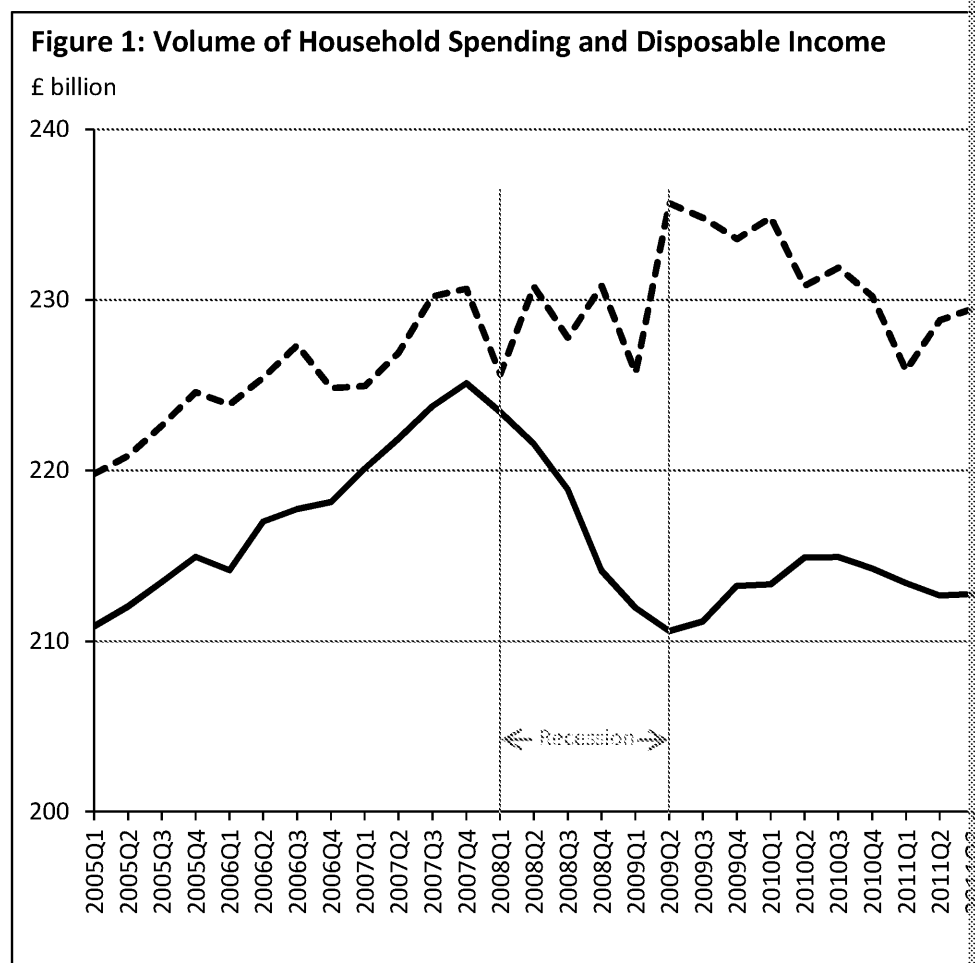
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The UK's slump in consumption during

This case study requires knowledge of Section 2.2 – Aggregate Demand. You should understand the components of aggregate demand and the influences on these components.

The 2008 global financial crisis had a pronounced effect on aggregate demand. The largest component of aggregate demand is consumption – accounting for over 60% of GDP. Figure 1 shows how household spending (which is equivalent to consumption) changed during the recession:



The Labour government at the time attempted to reverse the trend using many tools, such as adjusting taxes (e.g. lowering VAT and increasing the income tax threshold), bailing out the financial sector, and relying on the Bank of England to lower interest rates (interest rates fell steadily from 5.75% in 2007 Q3 down to 0.5% by 2009 Q2).

It is interesting to compare the trend in disposable income with the trend in household spending. Even though disposable income remained fairly constant (even increasing in 2009), household spending fell sharply. This is despite the fact that disposable income is usually believed to be the main factor affecting consumption.

The main explanation for this is that household saving increased in the early 2000s. Households chose to pay off their debts that they had accumulated during the mid 2000s. In economic terms, paying down debts is classed as saving.

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Figure 2 shows how consumer spending on different types of goods was affected by the recession.



Non-discretionary goods and services are essential products, such as staple food. Discretionary goods and services are desirable, but not necessary. Examples include luxury goods and leisure activities.

Since 2011, consumption seems to have grown slowly but steadily as the global financial crisis has improved.

Use the data

1. Is the data in Figure 1 in real or nominal terms?
2. Looking at Figure 2, estimate (in percentage terms) how much discretionary goods and services fell between 2008 Q3 and 2009 Q3.
3. In 2009 Q1 (quarter 1), was spending on discretionary goods and services higher or lower than spending on non-discretionary goods and services?

Test your knowledge...

1. What is the formula for aggregate demand?
2. By approximately how much did household spending fall between its highest point in 2008 and its lowest point in 2009?
3. Using an AD curve, show the effect of a fall in the rate of VAT.

Extended-response question

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

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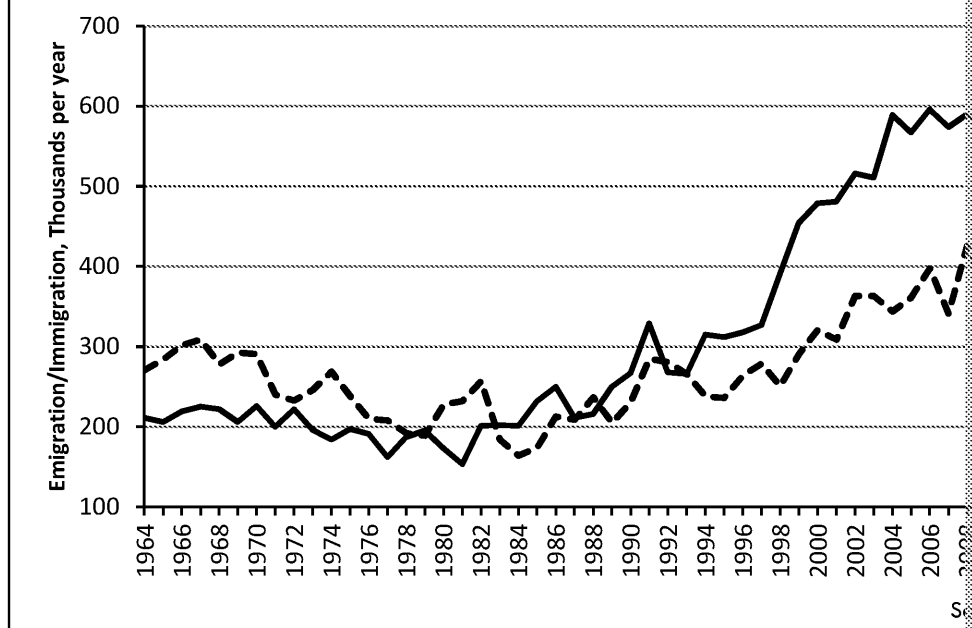


The economics of immigration

This case study requires knowledge of Section 2.3 – aggregate supply

The humanitarian crisis in Syria has revived old debates about the effects of 'host' nations. There are a plethora of arguments related to the *social* consequences of migration. Information on the *economic* effects of migration is relatively scarce.

Figure 1: UK Emigration/Immigration figures – 1964–2014

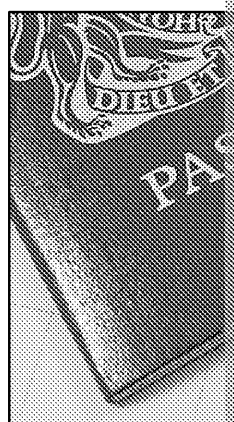


There are several different areas of the economy that migration studies may examine (one of the most common areas is the effect of migration on the wages and employment rates of natives belonging to the host nation). The concern is that the influx of labour depresses employment (using a simple demand and supply diagram, immigration is an increase in the supply of labour).

Others counter that this argument falls foul of the 'lump of labour' fallacy: the fallacy that there are only a fixed number of jobs to go around in the economy. Since migrants also contribute to greater demand for goods and services, the negative effect on employment and wages may be only temporary.

Evidence on this is mixed. In the US, some studies have found evidence of small, negative effects on native wages, but European studies have tended to produce 'statistically insignificant' results. On the other hand, there is some evidence from European studies that immigration increases the employment levels of natives (people drop out of the labour force due to the greater competition for jobs).

The differences in results may be because labour protection laws in Europe are quite inflexible (or 'sticky'), but the labour market in the US is more *laissez-faire*. One observation is that the effect on natives depends on whether the migrants are skilled or unskilled. Unsurprisingly, skilled migrants seem to benefit host nations more.



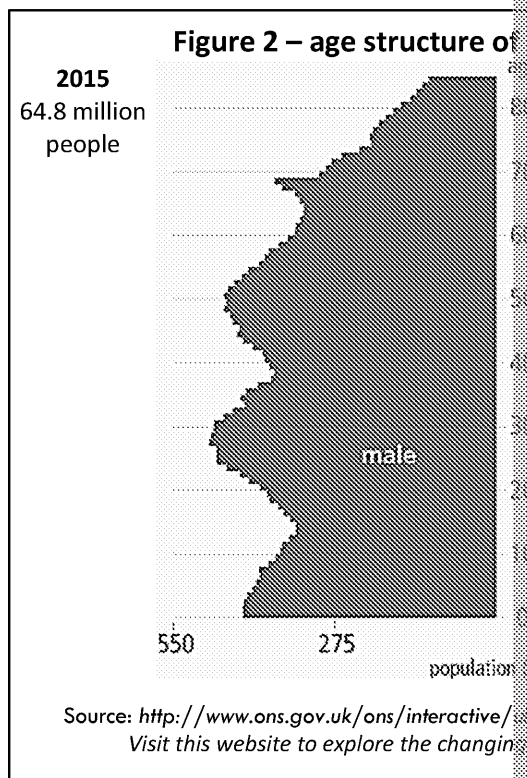
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One of the benefits supporters of migration point to is that it boosts the size of the population – since migrants tend to be young people looking for work. This increases the size of the labour force as a proportion of the total population. Figure 2 shows the UK's 'population pyramid' in 2015. The bulges show the effect of 'baby

One of the counterarguments to this is that migration simply delays the 'demographic time bomb' facing developed countries – there will still be the problem of an ageing population in the future even after migration levels tail off.

The economic arguments around migration are highly complex and often country-specific – as a discipline economics is a long way off from resolving all the nuances.



Use the data

'Net migration' is the difference between immigration and emigration – an annual net migration of 100,000 indicates that 100,000 more people immigrated into a country than emigrated.

- When did immigration figures begin to consistently overtake emigration figures?
- Estimate net migration into the UK in the years (using a ruler might be helpful):
 - 2006
 - 1979

The working age population consists of those people aged 16–64. Looking at Figure 3:

- Suppose one million migrants aged 20–29 came to the UK and gained employment. What would be the effect on the labour force participation rate?
- Now suppose that the birth rate and death rate remains constant, and no more migrants come. What would the labour force participation rate be like after 50 years?

Test your knowledge...

'Net migration' is the difference between immigration and emigration – an annual net migration of 100,000 indicates that 100,000 more people immigrated into a country than emigrated.

- Estimate net migration into the UK in 2010.
- Briefly describe the trend in net migration from 1964–2014.
- State and explain two other factors that can increase LRAS, aside from demographic change.

Extended-response question

- Using information from the extract and your own knowledge, evaluate the effectiveness of policies encouraging higher levels of migrant workers.

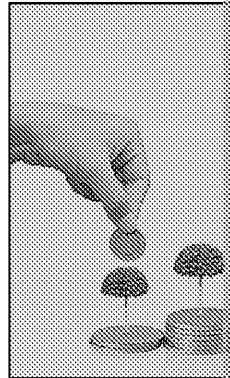
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Investigating the multiplier effect

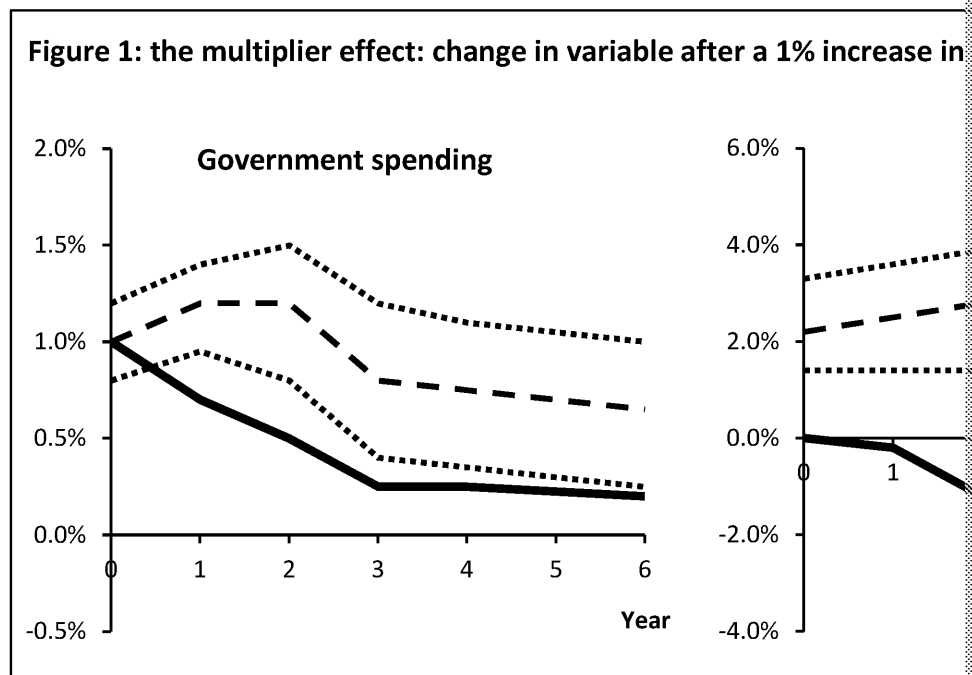
This case study requires knowledge of Section 2.4.4 – the multiplier. You should understand the relationship between savings, withdrawals and injections from the circular flow of income. It may be helpful to read the case study on page 14 of 36.

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



Since the financial crisis, there has been a renewed interest in estimating the size of the multiplier. It is not clear whether large fiscal expansions could be a good solution to the crisis. In practice, the size of the multiplier has proven to be very difficult. Many studies over the years have tried to quantify the size of the multiplier – but they often produce very different results. Recent research suggests that the size of the multiplier depends crucially on whether the economy is in a recession or not.

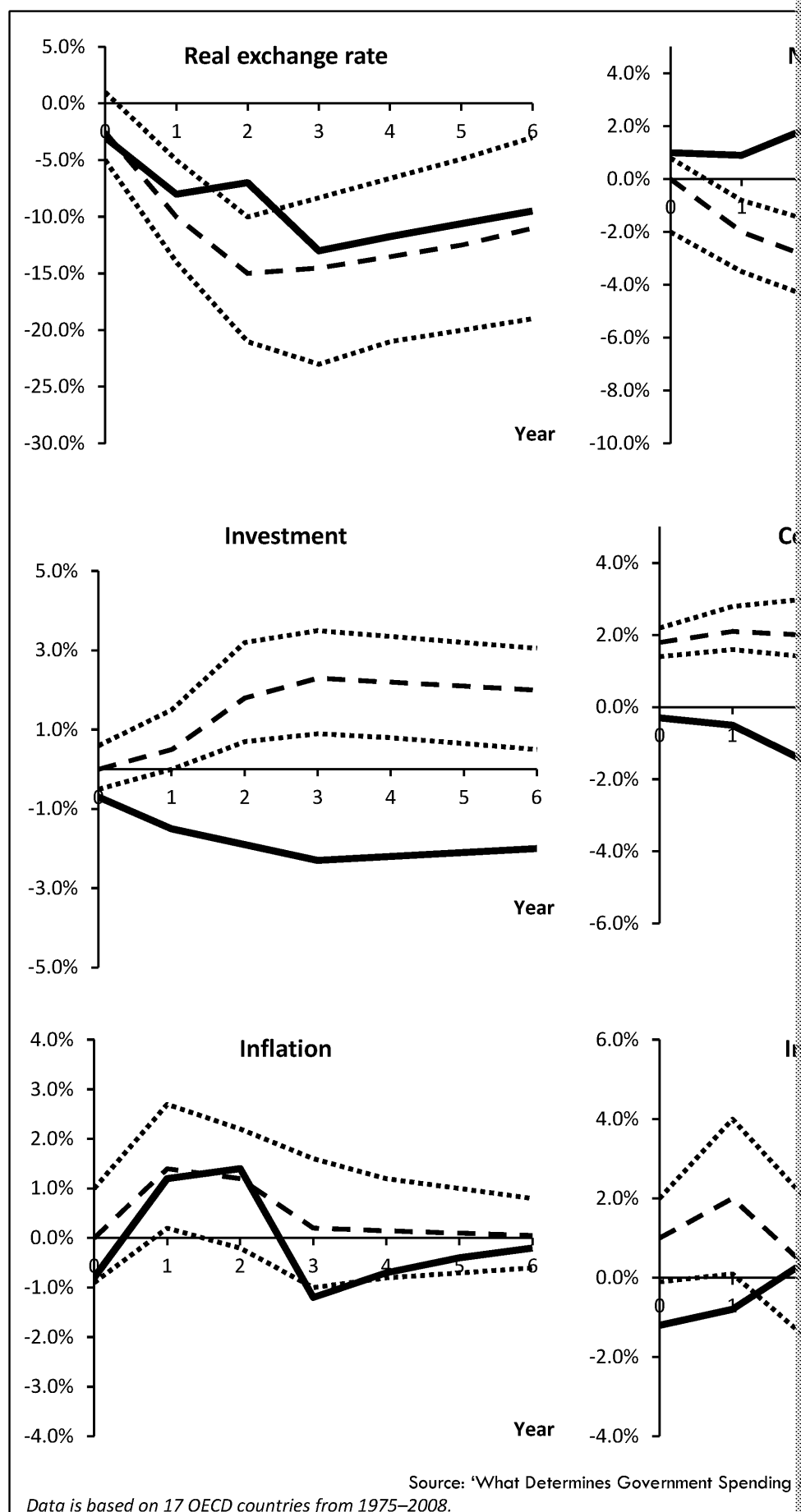
The following graphs, from IMF research, show the effect of a 1% increase in government spending on several key macroeconomic variables over time. The bold line represents the effect when accounting for the state of the economy. The middle dashed line shows the effect when the economy is in recession. The other two dotted curves show the 'upper and lower bound' estimates of the effect in a recession, so we can be confident that the actual effect is somewhere between these lines.



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So, for example, the output (or GDP) graph indicates that when the economy increases in government spending will increase output by around 2%. Thus, in the baseline case, the multiplier is estimated to be 0: this means that government spending has no effect on output!

The results seem to confirm that governments should seek to inject money during a recession. Part of the problem in the recent recession was that banks were reluctant to lend (shortage of 'liquidity') – so more government spending could help to alleviate this. A counterargument to this is that it increases the amount that the government has to borrow, which is unsustainable. This suggests that it would be a good idea for governments to inject money during economic booms, so they can afford to spend more during recessions.

Use the data

1. Look at Figure 1. Suppose government spending increased by £1.5 billion. What is the predicted change in consumption after two years, under the following?
 - (a) The standard recession scenario
 - (b) The higher estimate of the recession scenario
 - (c) The lower estimate of the recession scenario
 - (d) The baseline case
2. Can you think of one reason why the real exchange rate falls (depreciates) as government spending increases? (Hint: look at the effect on inflation.)
3. Can you explain why, in the baseline case, investment is expected to fall?

Test your knowledge...

1. Use a diagram to explain why an increase in government spending is expected to increase output.
2. Look at the graph showing the change in output. Compare the trend for the recession case with the baseline case.

Extended-response question

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

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Patterns in the business cycle

This case study requires knowledge of Section 2.5 – Economic Growth, part 1

Virtually all modern economies experience fluctuations in GDP growth around trend growth, known as business cycles (or trade/economic cycles). This is where the economy follows a pattern of boom, downturn, boom, downturn, and so on. Numerous possible explanations for this phenomenon have been posited, including:

- Bubbles in markets (e.g. housing markets)
- The multiplier effect
- The accelerator effect (this is the idea that changes in national income result in greater than proportional changes in investment)
- External shocks from innovation
- Economic policies by governments
- Stock/inventory cycle – companies accumulate stocks of goods during booms, then scale back their production, amplifying the business cycle

Economists still disagree about the exact causes of business cycles, and how to affect them (or, indeed, whether they should try to affect them at all or just let them run their course). As Labour chancellor, famously promised to tackle 'boom and bust', Gordon Brown was unable to prevent the recession following the 2008 financial crisis.

It is worth noting that slumps in the business cycle (or downturns) usually result in a fall in GDP growth, rather than actual negative growth (recession – two consecutive years of negative GDP growth). As Figure's 1 and 2 show, negative GDP growth is relatively rare. However, Figure's 1 and 2 also show that the actual pattern of business cycles is quite variable: they aren't always the same, and are sometimes presented to be in textbooks!

Some economists argue that the effect of 'automatic stabilisers' is sufficient to dampen the business cycle. In booms, tax revenues go up and welfare spending falls, dampening economic growth. In downturns, tax revenues fall and welfare spending rises, dampening the downturn. These effects occur automatically, without additional government interference.

Other economists argue that automatic stabilisers are insufficient, particularly in a deep recession. Expansionary fiscal and monetary policy is needed in these situations. These policies are sometimes referred to as 'Keynesian', as John Maynard Keynes advocated such policies in certain cases to help return an economy to full employment.

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Figure 1: UK's annual growth rates of GDP

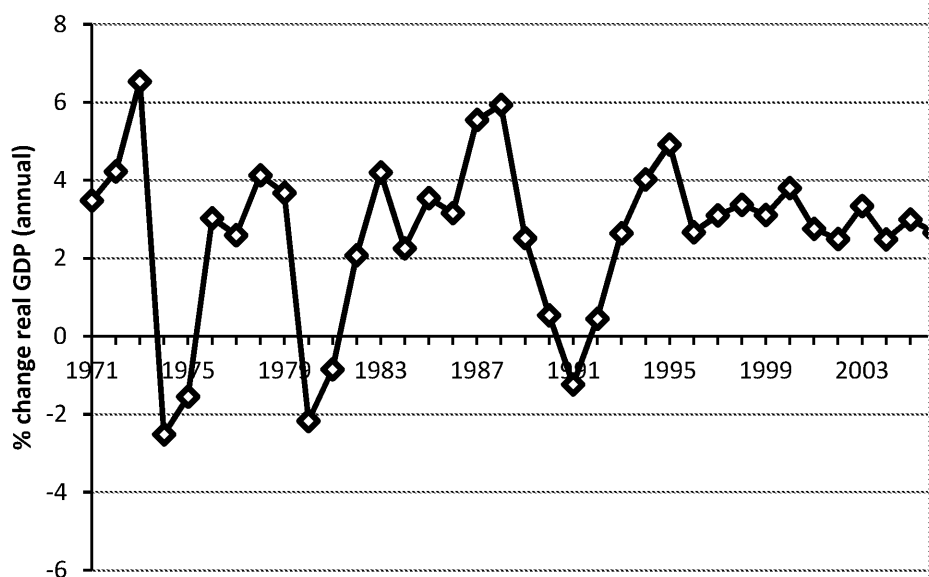
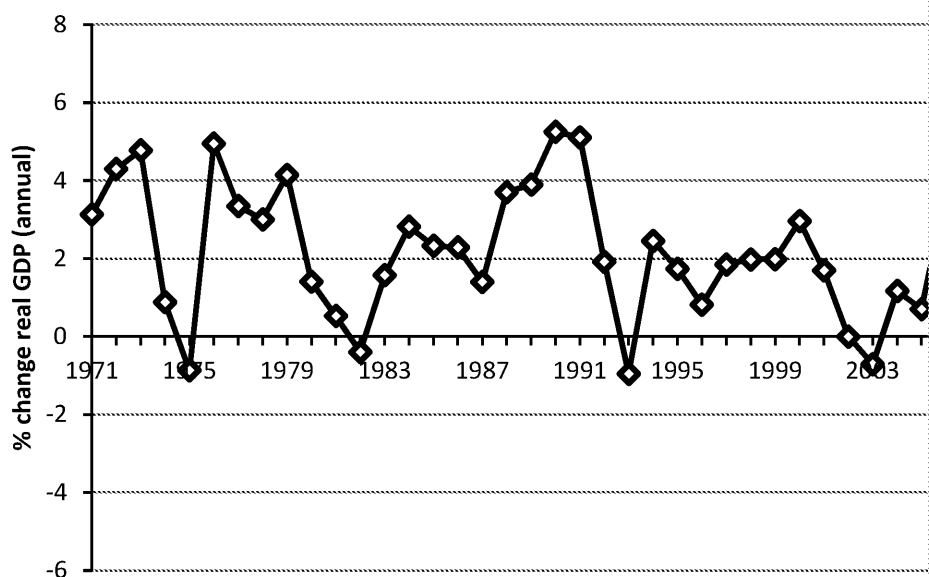


Figure 2: Germany's annual growth rates of GDP



Use the data

1. Identify a period during which GDP growth was fairly stable for both the UK
2. Using Figure 1, estimate the average annual GDP growth rate of the UK over

Test your knowledge...

1. Describe the trend in GDP growth in the UK during the 1980s.
2. Use a classical AD/AS diagram, with a SRAS, to illustrate the type of output gap
 - (a) At the peak of a boom
 - (b) At the trough of a downturn

Extended-response question

1. Assess the costs and benefits of economic booms.

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Monetary and fiscal policy in the Great Depression

This case study requires knowledge of Section 2.6.2 – demand-side policies

The Financial Crisis of 2008 was a global economic disaster, but it is still dwarfed by the Great Depression of 1929. The Great Depression was particularly damaging for the UK, which also had its fair share of economic misery. The episode provides a unique opportunity to study the effects of demand-side policies in an economic downturn. Figure 1 shows real GDP in the UK and US during the Depression:

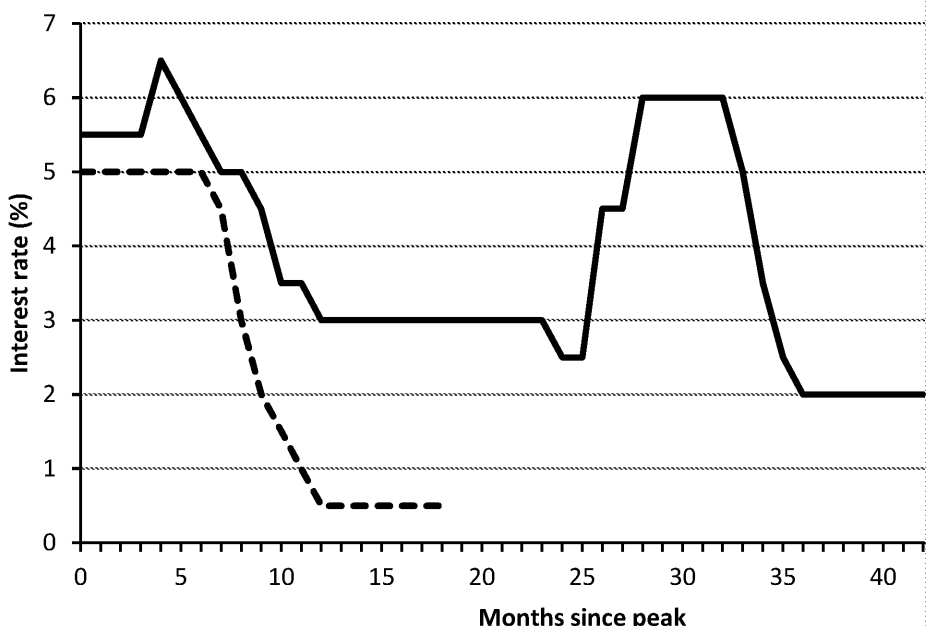
Figure 1: UK and US real GDP 1929–1940



Source: Middleton, (2010), 'British monetary and fiscal policy in the 1930s'

So what was the UK's monetary policy response to the Depression? Figure 2 shows the Bank of England's monetary policy: the interest rate.

Figure 2: Bank of England interest rates in the Great Depression (1929) and recovery



Source: Almunia et al. (2009), 'From Great Depression to Great Credit Crisis'

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It is interesting to note that interest rates were cut much more rapidly during the 2008 crisis than in the Great Depression (this is *expansionary* monetary policy – lowering interest rates should boost aggregate demand). In fact, the central bank increased interest rates in 1931. The reason for this was that the UK was trying to protect the value of its exchange rate, which at the time was tied to the Gold Standard. Decreasing interest rates in this environment would have meant that the pound would depreciate, so more pounds would have been needed to buy the same amount of gold (which would put the UK at a disadvantage with its neighbours). When the UK finally abandoned the Gold Standard in late 1931, the interest rate could safely be cut. This led to a depreciation of the pound, boosting the UK's competitiveness and hence aggregate demand.



In terms of fiscal policy, the government sought to correct the budget deficit by cutting unemployment benefits and raising taxes. These are *contractionary* policies that slow down the economy. Nevertheless, the economy did recover quite quickly. One theory is that because these policies were accepted at the time as 'the right thing to do', they were able to restore confidence in the markets. Another possibility is that the increase in government spending was enough to counteract the contractionary effects of fiscal policy. There are similarities that can be drawn between the UK's response here and the response to the Financial Crisis.

However, economists should be cautious of drawing too many conclusions from the experience of the Great Depression. The complexity of the situation means that the effect of any one policy on economic growth is almost impossible to predict. The economy was structured quite differently back then. For example, the budget deficit in 1931 was small relative to the budget deficit seen in 2007. Failing to learn from history and drawing false analogies could be just as bad.

Use the data

1. In which year did the US economy recover to its 1929 levels of GDP?
2. What is the (technical) definition of a recession? Was the UK in a recession during the 2008 Financial Crisis?
3. From Figure 2, how long did it take for the UK interest rate to fall from 5% to 1% during the 2008 Financial Crisis?

Test your knowledge...

1. Approximately how much larger (in percentage terms) was the UK economy in 2008 compared to 1929?
2. (a) Show the effect of a fall in the interest rate on AD using a Keynesian AD/AS model.
(b) Explain two reasons why the fall in interest rates has this effect on AD.

Extended-response question

1. Evaluate the effectiveness of using demand-side policies to stimulate economic growth in the UK during the 2008 Financial Crisis.

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Supply-side policies – privatisation

This case study requires knowledge of Section 2.6.3 – supply

Supply-side policies, such as improving health and education, aim to increase the productive capacity of the economy. This allows for greater long-term economic growth. One of the larger (and more controversial) supply-side projects in the UK was the privatisation of nationalised industries in the 1980s and 90s.

The idea behind privatisation is that it enhances competition in the market, increasing efficiency, as private firms (motivated by profit) run themselves more efficiently than the government can. In the UK, examples of industries include the steel, telecoms, electricity and gas industries (and more recently

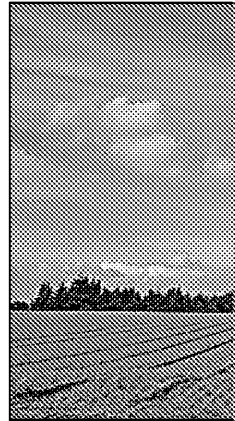


Figure 1 charts labour productivity in the electricity sector before and after a UK-wide industry index:

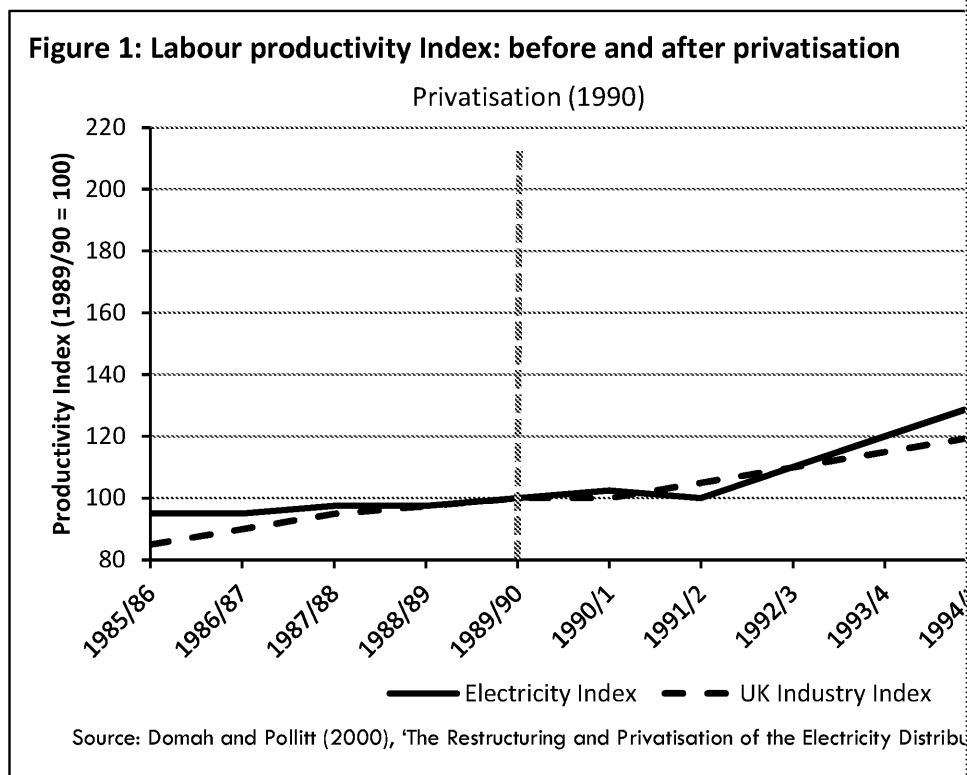


Figure 1 does seem to indicate that privatisation had a positive effect on labour productivity in the electricity sector. Some argue that this is due to reductions in employment following privatisation (as private firms automatically increase labour productivity, ceteris paribus). Supporters of privatisation argue that any loss of employment in specific industries is offset by gains in employment in other sectors.

There was fierce opposition to privatisation at the time, causing deep divisions. Critics argue that privatisation has failed, because market power has become concentrated in a few hands. At the same time, undoing any initial efficiency gains from competition (critics argue that the electricity sector in particular, where a small number of firms dominate the market).

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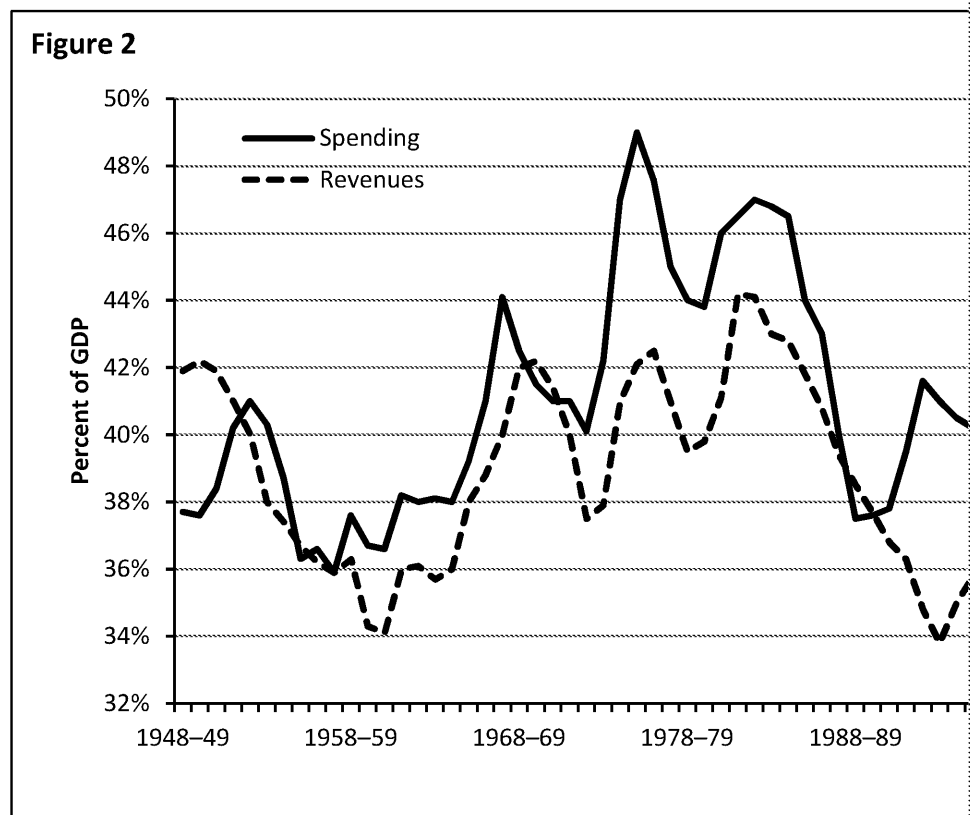
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Studying the effects of privatisation is difficult, because it's hard to tell whether downturns in industries would have happened anyway if there had been no privatisation was the cause of these changes! Most economists agree, though, that privatisation are maximised when there is a genuine competition in the industry.

The next question on this issue will be how far the NHS will move towards privatisation to depend on whether the current system can continue to support an ageing population and whether supporters of privatisation can persuade the public that it won't be profiting from people's ill health.

Figure 2 shows the pattern of government spending and tax revenues over the period 1948–1999.



Use the data

1. How much higher was the productivity of labour in the electricity sector in 1991 than in 1981, when privatisation was first introduced?
2. Look at the pattern of government spending during the 1980s in Figure 2. Is it increasing or decreasing? Justify your answer.
3. Look at Figure 2. What can you infer about the UK's tax rates during the 1980s?

Test your knowledge...

1. From the passage, identify one potential benefit and one potential cost of privatisation.
2. Show the effect of a successful supply-side policy on an AD/AS diagram.

Extended-response question

1. 'Governments should focus more on supply-side policies than demand-side policies. Supply-side policies can increase long-term economic growth'. Discuss this statement.

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Policy conflicts – inflation and unemployment

This case study requires knowledge of Section 2.6.4 – conflicts and trade-offs between

Economies rarely seem to perform exactly the way we want them to. If a government tries to correct one problem, they often end up causing another in the process – a ‘trade-off’. One of the classic economic trade-offs that has been studied extensively is the conflict between inflation and unemployment. William Phillips, a New-Zealand-born economist, proposed the short-run relationship between inflation and unemployment in the 1950s that came to be known as the Phillips curve.

Figure 1 plots UK inflation and unemployment from 1971–2000 (each dot represents a year):

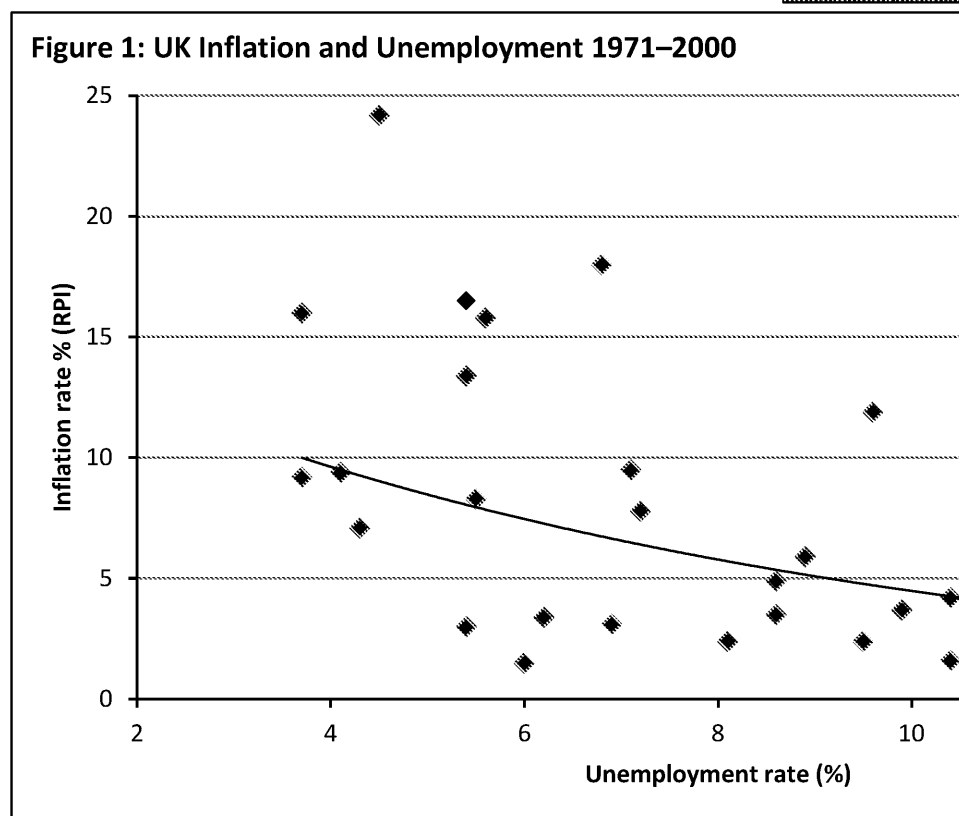
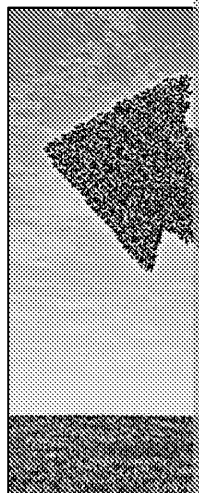


Figure 1 seems to show a rough pattern of the trade-off, although as with it is not nearly as neat as the theoretical Phillips Curve. Inflation is measured by the Retail Price Index (RPI). The RPI index doesn't stretch back that far. Data is available for after 2000, but the relationship is not as clear (particularly due to the disruption caused by the financial crisis).

How do we explain this trend line? Take the case of low unemployment and low inflation. In a low unemployment scenario almost everyone in the labour force is employed, so firms have to raise wages to attract workers. This pushes up inflation (cost-push). Furthermore, when wages increase, pushing up demand for goods and services. This pushes up the price level. The opposite happens when unemployment is high and inflation is low.

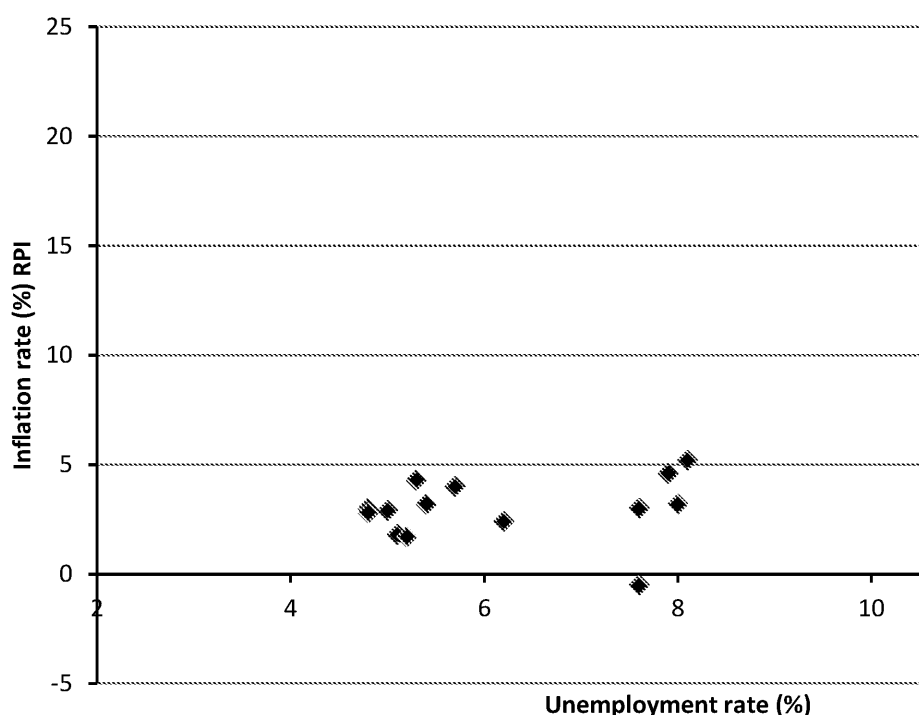
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However, it has been argued (and observed in the data) that the Phillips Curve has flattened down over time. In the UK, after the financial crisis we have seen low unemployment (see Figure 2). This could be explained by the success of supply-side policies that expand the productive capacity of the economy (limiting inflation). Tight monetary targeting policy (which only came into force in the 1990s) may be another factor affecting the relationship. This is good news for governments – as long as the trend of low inflation continues, and we don't return to the 'stagflation' seen in the UK (high inflation and high unemployment).

Figure 2: UK Inflation and Unemployment 2001–2014



Use the data

1. Sketch the Phillips Curve.
2. Look at the trend line in Figure 1. Suppose unemployment was at 9%. If unemployment increased by 1 percentage points, what would be the expected change in inflation?
3. Which of these best describes the relationship between inflation and unemployment? (a) positive relationship, (b) negative relationship or (c) no relationship?

Test your knowledge...

1. Explain why high unemployment may lead to low inflation.
2. Explain two other possible policy conflicts.

Extended-response question

1. 'Governments should prioritise low unemployment over low inflation.' Discuss this statement.

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When will the UK raise interest

This case study covers a range of Theme 2 topics

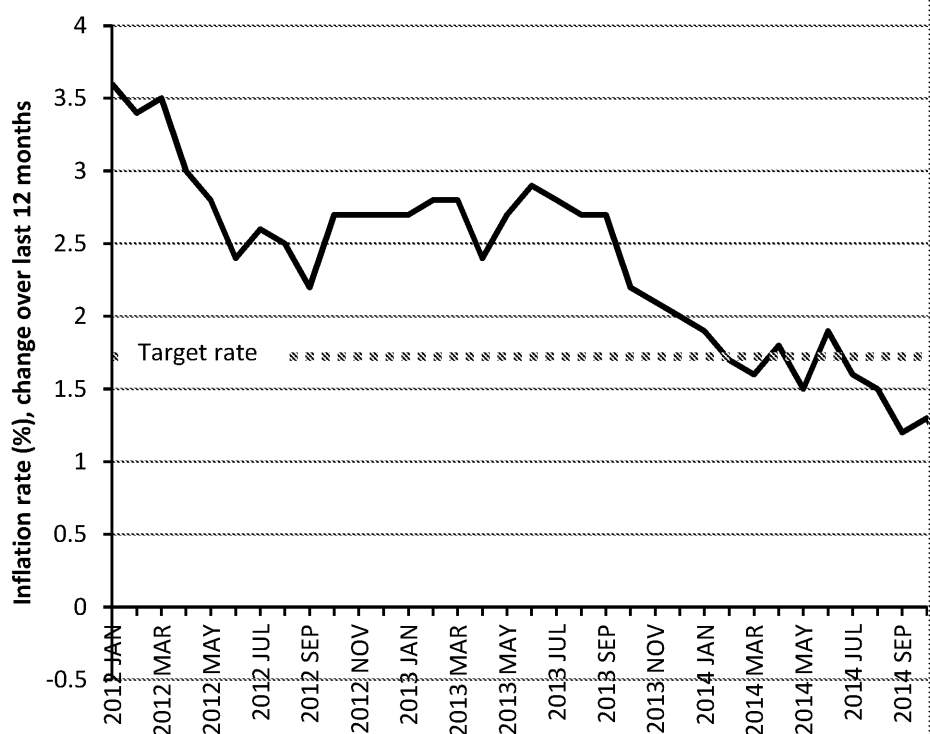
Interest rates are one of the key tools central banks use to guide the economy in the right direction. The Bank of England's Monetary Policy Committee meets every month to decide whether or not to change interest rates. In the UK, interest rates have been at a historic low of 0.5% since March 2009. Financial commentators have been continually pushing back their predictions of when rates will finally go up again.

In Japan, interest rates fell to -0.1% in January 2016 to try to stimulate growth, but the US seems more optimistic: the Federal Reserve inched up the US's interest rate in December 2015. The UK seems to have recovered from the recession, so why haven't interest rates gone up here as well? Mark Carney – the Canadian-born go – is concerned about an array of economic risks facing the country in 2016.

The main worry is that a combination of low oil prices and a fall in China's that the global economy will have a weak year. The UK is highly integrated (more so than the US), so it will certainly be affected by an economic slow

Another factor is the inflation rate. Traditionally, monetary policy is designed to target a stable, positive rate. As Figure 1 shows, the UK has seen unusually low in years.

Figure 1: UK CPI Inflation 2012–2015



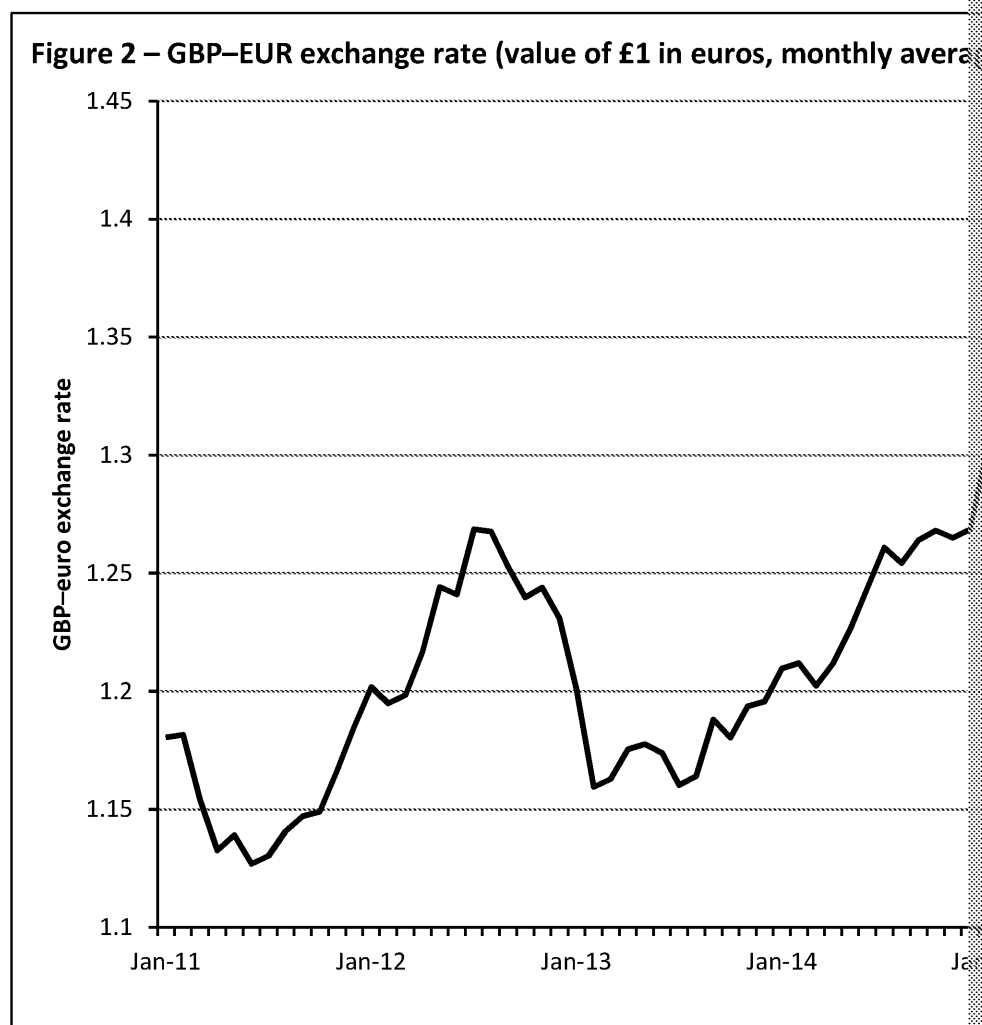
It is feared that if interest rates are hiked too soon, the result could be defl

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Related to this is the UK exchange rate (see Figure 2). The pound was relatively stable until 2013, but it has been falling because of uncertainty about the UK's referendum on EU membership.



There is another difference between the UK and US economies that may explain the difference in their inflation rates: fiscal policy. In the UK, the government is pursuing contractionary fiscal policy to reduce its budget deficit. The US, in contrast, has relatively expansionary fiscal policy.

Use the data

- Which of the following terms best describes the trend in Figure 1: (a) disinflation, (b) stagflation, or (c) deflation?
- Explain why deflation might be damaging for an economy.
- Suppose the GBP–EUR exchange rate is 1.15 (as in early 2013). In this case, how many euros would you need to buy 100 pounds?

Test your knowledge...

- Give two reasons why the UK inflation rate might have been falling (Figure 1).
- Explain how an increase in the interest rate would be expected to affect the UK inflation rate.
 - Explain the main consequences of the change in the exchange rate for the UK economy.

Extended-response question

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

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Answers

Mark scheme: extended-response questions

10 marks

Knowledge (2), application (2) and analysis (2)		
	0	No relevant answer given.
Level 1	1–2	A few concepts may be identified correctly, but inconsistently, and with little or no reasoning behind the causes and effects.
Level 2	3–4	Some knowledge of economic concepts is shown, partially linked to the question, but with limited reasoning skills, but may focus too much on one side of an argument.
Level 3	5–6	Knowledge of the economic concepts is very accurate. Links to the question are clear and supported by examples. Analysis is well reasoned and logical, and appropriate for the question.
Evaluation (4)		
	0	No evaluation.
Level 1	1–2	Limited attempt at evaluation – may be only loosely related to the question and with little or no reasoning.
Level 2	3–4	Accurate, balanced evaluative comments are made, supporting a rounded conclusion, and linked directly to the question.

15 marks

Knowledge (3), application (3) and analysis (3)		
	0	No relevant answer given.
Level 1	1–3	A few concepts may be identified correctly, but inconsistently, and with little or no reasoning behind the causes and effects.
Level 2	4–6	Some knowledge of economic concepts is shown, partially linked to the question, but with limited reasoning skills, but may focus too much on one side of an argument.
Level 3	7–9	Knowledge of the economic concepts is very accurate. Links to the question are clear and supported by examples. Analysis is well reasoned and logical, and appropriate for the question.
Evaluation (6)		
	0	No evaluation.
Level 1	1–2	Limited attempt at evaluation – may be only loosely related to the question and with little or no reasoning.
Level 2	3–4	Clear evidence of evaluative comments, though they may be unfairly weighted, supporting a rounded conclusion. Reasoning / supporting evidence is provided but may be inconsistent.
Level 3	5–6	Accurate, balanced evaluative comments are made, supporting a rounded conclusion, and linked directly to the question.

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20 marks

Knowledge (4), application (4) and analysis (6)		
	0	No relevant answer given.
Level 1	1–3	A few concepts may be identified correctly, but inconsistently, and with little thought behind the causes and effects.
Level 2	4–6	Some knowledge of economic concepts is shown, partially linked to theory or basic reasoning skills.
Level 3	7–10	Good knowledge of the relevant economic concepts is displayed, linked to evidence to support the main arguments. Analysis is well developed on one side of an argument.
Level 4	11–14	Knowledge of the economic concepts is very accurate. Links to the context and examples. Analysis is well reasoned and logical, and appropriate for the question.
Evaluation (6)		
	0	No evaluation.
Level 1	1–2	Limited attempt at evaluation – may be only loosely related to the question and reasoning.
Level 2	3–4	Clear evidence of evaluative comments, though they may be unfairly biased. Reasoning / supporting evidence is provided but may be weak.
Level 3	5–6	Accurate, balanced evaluative comments are made, supporting a rounded conclusion directly to the question.

Case Study 1: Economic growth in the UK – back to business as usual?*Use the data*

- 2.5% (accept 2–4%)
- Nominal GDP figures do not account for the effect of inflation, so GDP figures appear lower (also the real GDP figures would be higher (also the real GDP figures would be higher). Visually, the graph would appear to have shifted up.
- USA's GDP growth is given as 2.4% in the text, so from a starting point of \$17 trillion ($17 \times 102.4 / 100 = \17.408 trillion).

Test your knowledge...

- GDP is the total value of output (or goods and services) produced in an economy (with the effect of inflation has been removed (1).
- Possible answers include: market confidence, low borrowing costs, low oil price, revenue, etc. 1 mark for each identified factor. You cannot have the expansionary monetary policy (since this was after 2014).

Extended-response question

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

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In your answer you could also make reference to 'composite' indicators such as the of factors before comparing countries' performance (with respect to economic dev that GDP does not account for the size of the 'black economy' (unrecorded or illicit greatly between countries. A good answer should explain at least two or three of t

Case Study 2: UK inflation in the 1970s

Use the data

1. Around 27% (in 1975). Accept 26–28%.
2. (a) Inflation fell from around 22% to around 5%, a fall of 17 percentage points (any percentage points is acceptable).
(b) This is known as disinflation – a reduction in the rate of inflation (not to be confused with deflation).
3. Inflation in 1970 was around 5%, but increased rapidly to a peak in the middle of the decade around 7–8% before climbing again towards the end of the decade to around 22%.

Test your knowledge...

1. The passage notes the increase in oil prices and low interest rates (also known as loose monetary policy). Any two of these earns 1 mark.
2. Deflation is when the inflation rate is negative, i.e. when prices are falling (1). Disinflation (e.g. from 5% one year to 3% the next) (1).

Extended-response question

1. Your answer should explain clearly several costs of inflation, before assessing their impact (whether inflation can be beneficial in some ways). Possible costs of a high rate of inflation include:
 - **Uncertainty.** Consumers might postpone economic activity, given how rapidly prices are changing. Businesses will be unclear about their costs of production, and may have difficulties setting prices (**menu costs**).
 - **Shoe-leather costs** (cost to consumers of having to compare prices more often).
 - **Reduces value of savings / fixed incomes.** Inflation creates winners and losers. Those who have savings or fixed incomes suffer a fall in their wealth, as will those whose incomes do not automatically increase.
 - Possible **wage-price spiral** (if inflation is high, it leads to workers negotiating for higher wages, higher inflation, and so on).
 - **Fall in international competitiveness** (inflation is a sign of economic weakness, which reduces investment, and the price of exports appears inflated).

An evaluative point you could make is that the costs depend on how high the rate of inflation is (higher and more prolonged periods of inflation are more damaging).

As another evaluative point you could explain that a low and stable rate of inflation is considered beneficial since it acts as a gentle encouragement for people to spend money (which boosts economic growth).

Case Study 3: UK unemployment – successes and challenges

Use the data

1. The main explanation is that the claimant count ignores those who are unemployed but in receipt of state benefit for various reasons (e.g. too much hassle to claim, don't like the stigma of claiming). This means the claimant count is an underestimate of the true number of unemployed people.
2. 55% of 60 million is 33 million (size of the labour force). Figure 2 tells us that the male unemployment rate was around 6%, so that means that 1.98 million men were unemployed (6% of 33 million).
3. The graph shows that male employment rates are higher than female employment rates, but the gap is narrowing over time (the gap in 1990 was roughly 20 percentage points, in 2015 the gap was around 10 percentage points). The gap could be explained, for example, by the fact that women's employment has increased due to care for children. The narrowing of the gap seems to be down to greater employment opportunities for women (while male employment has remained fairly steady), perhaps due to a shift in societal attitudes.

Test your knowledge...

1. Economically active people are those that are either working (employed) (1) or looking for work (unemployed) (1). The number of economically active people is the same as the size of the labour force. You need to mention both groups of people count as economically active to get the full two marks.

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2. Possible answers include: structural unemployment, demand deficiency / cyclical unemployment, type of unemployment, 1 mark for explaining how it works.

Extended-response question

1. Your answer should discuss the significance of several consequences of unemployment and economic costs.

Possible **economic** consequences include:

- Fall in tax revenue and/or increase in unemployment benefit spending (which is a budget deficit). This has knock-on effects on the economy: it could lead to a rise in government spending in other areas.
- Loss of economic growth (lower output/GDP due to less work, plus fall in consumption).
- Costs to the unemployed themselves: economic costs (lower living standards), social costs, loss of skills). Could mention that the longer someone is out of work, the more difficult it is to get back into work. There are fears in countries such as Spain and Italy of a 'lost generation', since young people are not gaining the skills and experience they need for the future.

Social costs include crime and various health problems.

Case Study 4: Should we be worried about the UK's current account deficit?

Use the data

1. (a) Secondary income (or net international transfers)
(b) Primary income (or net investment income). Despite the fall in the deficit in 2009, it has been clearly downwards.
2. (a) £49.6 billion (3.1% of 1,600 billion)
(b) £94.5 billion (5.4% of 1,750 billion)

Test your knowledge...

1. (a) This would represent an improvement in the net investment income balance – which would improve (i.e. become closer to a surplus). 1 mark for improvement in net investment income, 1 mark for current account balance improvement.
(b) Since the extract states that the UK is a net importer of oil, an increase in price would be worsening the net trade component of the current account balance (i.e. greater cost of imports, 1 mark for worsening of current account balance).

An alternative answer could be: rising oil prices may reduce the demand for oil imports may fall (1), which may lead to no effect on the current account (or a small improvement). However, this may not be the case since oil is a necessity in most countries (1) and the elasticity of demand.

Extended-response question

1. The main benefit of this strategy is that it should boost the amount of exports from the UK (ceteris paribus). This strategy is likely to be more successful if it focuses on an industry in which the UK has a comparative advantage. A good answer should explain this clearly, before discussing some of the potential costs.
 - Opportunity cost involved
 - Possible x-inefficiency (from micro-problems with subsidies reducing the efficiency of the industry)
 - If other countries are more competitive in these markets, this strategy may not work. The UK may not compete with countries such as China, which benefit from low unit labour costs.

Other evaluation points you could mention include: success depends on the world economy, the initial size of the export sector receiving the investment.

You should come to a conclusion as to whether you think the policy would be successful or not (which it would / would not be successful). You can be for or against the idea, providing reasons.

Case Study 5: The UK's slump in consumption during the recession

Use the data

1. This data is in real terms – you can tell because 2008 is used as the base year (this means that the index is relative to 2008).
2. The index in 2009 Q3 is at about 93 – this indicates a fall of 7% from 2008 Q3. 6–8%.
3. This is a bit of a trick question – you can't tell from the graph which type of spending was affected. You can only tell the actual amounts of spending involved – only the percentage changes (Note: questions about the graph should be answered in terms of the graph).

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Test your knowledge...

1. $AD = C + I + G + (X - M)$. Answers in symbols or words are both acceptable.
2. Household spending fell from a peak of around £225 billion in 2007 Q4 to a low of around £211 billion in 2009 Q2, a fall of about £14 billion. Answers between £13 and £15 billion are acceptable.
3. Diagram should show a shift to the right in aggregate demand: this is because a fall in VAT (which is a tax on consumer goods) encourages consumption (the main component of AD). Up to 2 marks for correct labelling, up to 2 marks for showing the shift correctly.

Price
Level
(£)



Extended-response question

1. A good answer must explain how both interest rates and consumer confidence can affect aggregate demand.

Interest rates: A fall in the interest rate makes saving less attractive and borrowing cheaper. This should boost consumer spending. You could also explain that businesses will seek to invest elsewhere, rather than in interest-bearing assets), and that lower interest rates depreciate the exchange rate, since it becomes less attractive to borrow. Therefore, exports increase and imports fall – boosting aggregate demand).

Consumer confidence: If consumers are confident about the outlook for the economy, they will spend more, leading to healthy levels of spending. The same goes for business confidence and investment. Both are clearly important elements of a strategy to boost consumption. However, there are several points that can be made:

- Interest rates (usually) can't go below zero. Since the current rate of 0.5% is so low, rates can no longer be of use.
- Consumers may want to save no matter how low interest rates are if they believe the economy is high.
- Changes in interest rates have a delayed effect on aggregate demand (time lag).
- Consumer/market confidence cannot be directly controlled by the government. It depends on perceptions of how well the economy is doing, and how competent the government is.

A good conclusion should note that both of these factors are important in determining aggregate demand. It should be part of a wider approach to tackling the problem (i.e. they won't be nearly as effective if used in isolation). It can make an argument that one factor is more important than another, as long as it is well justified.

Case Study 6: The economics of immigration

Use the data

1. Around 1983 (emigration exceeded immigration in one or two years after that, but it was not a rule).
2. (a) Around 200,000 (accept 175,000–225,000)
(b) Around 0. (accept –25,000–25,000)
3. The labour force participation rate would increase.
4. The labour force participation rate would worsen, as the 'bulge' from the migration would retire).

Test your knowledge...

1. Immigration was roughly 590,000 and emigration was roughly 340,000, so net migration was roughly 250,000. An answer between 225,000 and 275,000 is acceptable for 1 mark.
2. Between 1964 and the mid 1980s, net migration was usually small and negative. Demand for labour was high and it started to climb at a faster rate than emigration, and net migration became positive and large. For a period of negative net migration, 1 mark for identifying period of positive net migration.
3. Possible answers include:
 - Technological advance
 - Improvements in productivity
 - Improvements in education and skills (human capital)
 - Regulatory changes / competition policy changes

Other answers are possible so long as they are well justified: 1 mark for stating each factor, 1 mark for explaining how it can increase LRAS.

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Extended-response question

- There are several points in the article that you can mention, both for and against the policy. Include:
 - Increasing size of the labour force (evaluation point: more effective in countries with a shortage of labour, e.g. Japan)
 - Bring broader range of skills (e.g. technical skills, language skills) – boost to host country (evaluation point: depends on skill composition of migrants)
 - Migrants may be harder workers or contribute disproportionately towards income growth compared to native workers (e.g. NHS. Evaluation point here is that migration is more beneficial in countries with labour shortages either generally, or in specific sectors.)
 - Potential to foster better trade relations between sending/host countries

Points against could include:

- Overcrowding / undesirable population growth (evaluation point: particularly in countries with a shortage of housing supply such as the UK)
- Diminish labour market opportunities for native workers through lower wages (evaluation point: only applies when there is a shortage of jobs to begin with, could be mitigated by migrants)
- 'Brain drain' effect from sending countries (when countries lose their best and brightest, and the remittance payments back to families)

Although they are not direct economic issues, you could also point out potential social issues that could arise from migration. This could be mitigated by government policies to integrate migrants. You could also draw an AD/AS diagram to show the increase in AS from migration (and a possible shift in AD).

You can be either for or against the policy in your conclusion, but for Level 3 evaluation you need to provide contexts in which the policy could be successful/unsuccessful.

Case Study 7: Investigating the multiplier effect

Use the data

- Answers can be within £0.5 billion of the answers stated here:
 - $1.5 \times 2 =$ increase of £3 billion
 - $1.5 \times 3 =$ increase of £4.5 billion
 - $1.5 \times 1 =$ increase of £1.5 billion
 - $1.5 \times -1.8 =$ decrease of £2.7 billion
- Increasing government spending is predicted to cause inflation due to a shift to the right in the AD curve. Cheaper imports and exports more expensive, reducing the demand for domestic goods (therefore reducing the value of the domestic currency) which causes the exchange rate to depreciate.

Another possible reason is that government spending crowds out private investment abroad, depreciating the exchange rate.
- The idea here is that government spending 'crowds out' private investment (i.e. reduces the number of investment opportunities available to the private sector), decreasing investment.

Test your knowledge...

- Government spending increases the G component of AD, shifting AD to the right. This should lead to inflation using the standard AD/AS framework. Note that using a classical (vertical) LRAS curve is equally valid. 2 marks for correct labelling, 2 marks for showing shift in AD and resulting increase in inflation.

	Price Level (£)
--	-----------------
- The trend for the baseline case is that output falls over the first two years, before slowly reverting back to normal. The trend for the recession case is the complete opposite: output increases (initially at 2%), before gradually falling after two years. 1 mark for correction and description of each trend.

	P ₂
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Extended-response question

- Taxes represent a withdrawal from the national flow of income, so raising taxes is likely to reduce the size of the multiplier. So, even if government spending is increased, the multiplier effect on the economy may be relatively small. You could use an AD/AS diagram to show that a tax increase shifts the AD curve to the left (via a fall in consumption and/or investment, depending on the type of tax).

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On the plus side, you could argue that the boost from government spending would be particularly if the higher taxes were well targeted, or increased only slightly (so that it was not dramatically). If the national debt or budget deficit was particularly high, you could see it as a sensible policy, inspiring market confidence.

Evaluative points could be that there is a time lag between raising taxes and seeing the effect. A policy wouldn't help fix the recession until further into the future (it may worsen the recession). That it might make more sense for the government to borrow the money, and repay when the economy improves (since borrowing money is likely to withdraw less from the economy than extending the loans).

You can conclude that the policy would be successful or unsuccessful, so long as it is consistent with the article and standard theory, the evidence seems to suggest that it would be unsuccessful.

Interestingly, raising taxes in a recession was one of the policies implemented by the UK in the 1930s – and the general consensus is that the policy was disastrous.

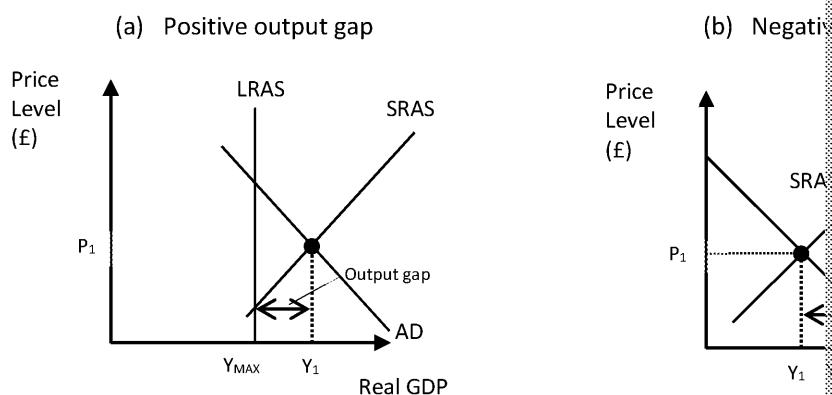
Case Study 8: Patterns in the business cycle

Use the data

1. The mid 1990s to early 2000s seems to be the most stable (continuing into the mid 2000s) period of stability in the USA, leading to some economists speculating that the natural rate of unemployment had changed. They seem to have been proved wrong by the volatility seen in the late 2000s.
2. The average annual growth rate is 2.3%. This is hard to estimate visually from the graph, but 2% and 3% is a good guess.

Test your knowledge...

1. The 1980s was a very volatile decade for growth in the UK (1), with GDP growth swinging between 2% and 10% in the space of one year in the early part of the decade. Following a recession, GDP fell by 1.5% in 1988 (1) before falling rapidly again.
2. In case (a) the economy may be experiencing a positive output gap (it is also acceptable to say it is at the maximum, i.e. output gap of zero). In case (b) the economy is likely to be experiencing a negative output gap. In the diagram, 1 mark is for labelling, 1 mark is for drawing the curves in the right places, and 1 mark is for the correct type of output gap. Note that this scenario can also be drawn using a Keynesian diagram.



Extended-response question

1. The main benefit from economic booms is higher rates of economic growth. Economic growth improves living standards. Booms are also associated with low unemployment, avoiding the costs of unemployment. Economic growth should also improve the government's finances as tax revenues increase, automatically improving a budget deficit. The country may also benefit from inflows of foreign investment if interest rates are high.

There are several potential downsides to economic booms, however. Firstly there is inflation, which can have a variety of negative effects on the economy. Furthermore there may be asset price bubbles in certain markets (e.g. housing). When these bubbles burst, the subsequent recession may be more severe. Booms may also be associated with environmental damage, depending on which industries are booming.

To get higher marks you must assess both the benefits and the costs of economic booms.

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Case Study 9: Monetary and fiscal policy in the Great Depression

Use the data

- 1936 (since the index has returned to 100)
- A recession is defined as two consecutive quarters of negative GDP growth. Figure 1 shows a recession, as GDP fell consistently from 1930–1932.
- 6 months

Test your knowledge...

- Around 34% larger (index number of 134). 32–26% acceptable.
- Your graph should show a shift to the right in AD. 2 marks for correct labelling (you should show new price level and real GDP level). 2 marks for showing the shift correctly.
 - Possible reasons include: higher consumer spending, higher investment, higher net exports. 1 mark for stating the reason, 1 mark for explanation of how it works (e.g. higher consumption and investment because saving is less worthwhile, higher net exports because exchange rate depreciates as fewer people choose to save pounds).

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Extended-response question

- Your answer should explain how at least two or three demand-side policies can increase economic growth (you should mention at least one monetary policy and at least one fiscal policy). You could include an AD/AS diagram to support your answer (you should refer to the diagram you drew in Question 2). You should also note some of the drawbacks of demand-side policies. For example:
 - Lowering interest rates should increase economic growth, since it increases the demand for goods and services (as explained in Question 2). Evaluation: this is only effective up to a point (interest rates cannot fall below zero), and there may be a time lag between changing the rate and seeing an effect. Lower interest rates also depreciate the currency, which could be damaging for countries which rely on exports.
 - You could also mention increasing the money supply, which has similar effects to lowering interest rates. However, this could lead to inflation (this is a general criticism of demand-side policies).
 - Government spending is an example of fiscal policy that can stimulate growth. Its success may depend on the size of the multiplier. However, this spending may also lead to a rise in the budget deficit / national debt. There may also be a substantial time lag between spending and growth. Another potential evaluative point is that government spending could 'crowd out' private investment.
 - Lowering taxes is an expansionary fiscal policy, as it encourages greater economic growth. Its success may depend on the nature of the tax cut (some taxes target particular types of activity). Also, lowering taxes could reduce tax revenues, leading to a worsening of the budget deficit. However, you could also argue that it would actually increase tax revenues: Laffer curve).

A general criticism you should mention is that demand-side policies can lead to inflation in the long term. Here, you could note that the rate of inflation may be high if the money supply is increasing or not. You may reason that demand-side policies are best used in times of recession, since there is more likely to be an output gap.

You don't need to mention all these points to reach a high-level answer. You should mention at least two points in good detail.

Case Study 10: Supply-side policies – privatisation in the UK

Use the data

- The index shows about 200 compared to 100, so labour productivity is twice as high in 1996 as in 1970.
- Figure 2 shows a sharp fall in government spending, which is exactly what you would expect from privatisations (since the government is no longer funding these industries). The fall in government spending could be due to the need to do with this, or perhaps to do with the tax cuts under the Conservative government in the 1980s.
- The 1970s shows very high spending and tax revenues as a percentage of GDP. One reason for this could be that during this period (particularly income tax) were significantly higher than they are today.

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Test your knowledge...

1. The main benefit is any gains from competition (efficiency) (1). The costs identified are loss of employment in industries (1), and the divisions in society caused by privatisation.
2. Your graph should show a shift to the right by LRAS: 2 marks for correct labelling (including new price level and real GDP levels), 2 marks for showing shift correctly. Classical LRAS diagrams are equally acceptable.

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Extended-response question

1. Your answer should identify the purpose of each type of policy. For example:

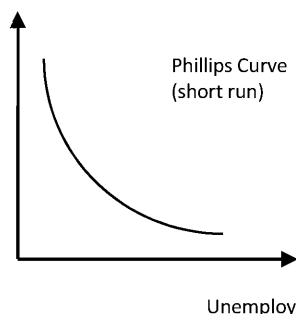
Demand-side policies: used to influence AD, contribute more to short-run economic growth, particularly useful in recessions.

Supply-side policies: used to influence AS, essential for long-run economic growth, high short-term opportunity cost.

A good answer should probably reason that it's not a question of choosing one type of policies serve different functions, so both are important for economic progress (policies are changed all the time). In your answer you could use an AD/AS diagram to also point out some advantages and disadvantages of specific types of policy (e.g. tax on the supply side, or the arguments around changing tax rates on the demand side).

Case Study 11: Policy conflicts – inflation and unemployment*Use the data*

1. Inflation



2. When unemployment falls by three percentage points to 6%, the trend line shows that inflation is 2.5 percentage points higher than the 5% predicted at 9% unemployment. Note that the trend line only provides an estimate based on this data: the result probably reflects reality.
3. (c) No relationship. A positive relationship would be upward sloping; a negative relationship would be downward sloping. The standard Phillips Curve shows an 'inverse relationship'.

Test your knowledge...

1. When unemployment is high, firms can lower wages and still attract workers (1). When inflation falls (1). You could also note that when unemployment is high, incomes fall.
2. The main other policy conflicts are: economic growth and inflation, economic growth and environmental protection, economic growth and inequality. 1 mark for explaining how each one works (e.g. high economic growth can lead to demand-pull inflation). 2 marks for other policy conflicts if they are well justified.

Extended-response question

1. Your answer should note that allowing either inflation or unemployment to get out of control is bad. Near-zero unemployment means that inflation ends up at 30%, then it would probably be necessary to increase unemployment to bring down inflation. Similarly, having very low and stable inflation can cause serious problems for the economy. Having more of a balance is preferable. As part of your answer you should discuss some of the costs of inflation and unemployment. Inflation is actually considered good if it is stable and low (the Bank of England target is 2%). Unemployment should be focused on slightly more than inflation, since the effects of unemployment are universally negative.

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A good evaluative point would be that the question assumes that there is always a need for government intervention to manage unemployment. As the passage states, there may have been a breakdown of the Phillips Curve in which case there is less need for the government to balance the two issues (they are not always conflicting).

Case Study 12: When will the UK raise interest rates?

Use the data

1. The answer is (a) disinflation. This is a reduction (fall) in the rate of inflation. Although deflation (e.g. April 2015), this does not describe the majority of the period.
2. Deflation can reduce economic growth, since the value of money is increasing rather than falling, people tend to hold onto money, reducing demand, and potentially leading to further deflation. As demand falls, GDP growth falls, unemployment increases and tax revenues fall: all of these can lead to a recession.
3. If £1 = €1.15, then €1 = $(1 / 1.15) = £0.87$ (rounded to nearest penny). Therefore, €43.50 = $£0.87 \times 43.50 = £37.88$ (rounded to nearest penny). Therefore, the UK has a trade deficit of $£43.48 - £37.88 = £5.60$ to allow for rounding.)

Test your knowledge...

1. Possible reasons could include: low aggregate demand (or low components of AD, e.g. low consumption, low investment, falling oil/energy prices, slow wage growth, strong exchange rate (which leads to low net exports)).
2. (a) An increase in the interest rate would be expected to appreciate (strengthen) the pound because it becomes more attractive to save in pounds (1).
(b) An appreciation of the exchange rate would be expected to reduce exports (1), since the purchasing power of the pound increases. It would also be expected to increase imports (1), since the purchasing power of the pound increases. The effect of this is a worsening of trade balance (or widening of the trade deficit) which could lead to higher unemployment. (1)

Extended-response question

1. Your answer should first explain how lowering interest rates can stimulate growth (e.g. via increased investment, increase in net exports via depreciation of currency, etc.). You should then explain the limitations of lowering interest rates alone, based on the passage and your own knowledge. Possible limitations include:
 - Time lag between changing interest rates and change in other economic variables
 - Zero-lower bound for interest rates (although Japan has broken this unwritten rule)
 - There are situations when lowering interest rates is not enough to kick-start growth, e.g. when households and firms are deleveraging. Instruments such as quantitative easing, or fiscal policy such as government spending can be used to stimulate growth.
 - Low interest rates are supposed to discourage saving, but if households and firms are deleveraging, they may end up saving anyway. This was the case in the early 2000s.

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