



# Data Response Case Studies

For A level Edexcel Economics A  
Theme 4: A global perspective

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# Contents

Thank You for Choosing ZigZag Education.....	
Teacher Feedback Opportunity .....	
Terms and Conditions of Use .....	
Teacher's Introduction.....	
World economic superpowers: is the USA's reign over?.....	
Case study .....	
Questions .....	
Venezuela's inflation problem .....	
Case Study.....	
Questions .....	
Youth unemployment in Italy.....	
Case Study.....	
Questions .....	
Brexit and trading blocs .....	
Case Study.....	
Questions .....	
Subtle protectionism .....	
Case Study.....	
Questions .....	
The economics of inequality .....	
Case Study.....	
Questions .....	
Mozambique – an African lion?.....	
Case Study.....	
Questions .....	
Productivity – the key to long-run growth? .....	
Case Study.....	
Questions .....	
Market failure in the financial sector.....	
Case Study.....	
Questions .....	
Canada's economic policies .....	
Case Study.....	
Questions .....	
Ireland's housing market bubble.....	
Case Study.....	
Questions .....	
Footloose TNCs: Google vs HMRC.....	
Case Study.....	
Questions .....	
Answers .....	

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# Teacher's Introduction

This resource is designed to be used for teaching A Level Edexcel A Economics The 12 Data Response Case Studies intended for upper-sixth students to complete as

The case studies are presented in specification order, collectively covering each topic and revising the main topics from lower sixth. Each case study contains detailed (background and data), and tasks and questions.

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

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

This resource will help prepare students for the macroeconomic components of the specification and stimulate an interest in the real-world applications of macroeconomics. Each case study introduces the student to a fascinating array of contemporary and historical issues in the economy.

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

Case Study	Spec reference
1. World economic superpowers: is the USA's reign over?	4.1 International economics (globalisation)
2. Venezuela's inflation problem	2.1 Measures of economics performance in an international context)
3. Youth unemployment in Italy	2.1 Measures of economics performance in an international context)
4. Brexit and trading blocs	4.1 International economics (trade)
5. Subtle protectionism	4.1 International economics (trade)
6. The economics of inequality	4.2 Poverty and inequality (inequality)
7. Mozambique – an African lion?	4.3 Emerging and developing economies
8. Productivity – the key to long-run growth?	4.3 Emerging and developing economies (growth and development)
9. Market failure in the financial sector	4.4 The financial sector
10. Canada's economic policies	4.5 Role of the state in the macroeconomy
11. Ireland's housing market bubble	4.5 Role of the state in the macroeconomy
12. Footloose TNCs: Google vs HMRC	4.5 Role of the state in the macroeconomy (global companies' operations)

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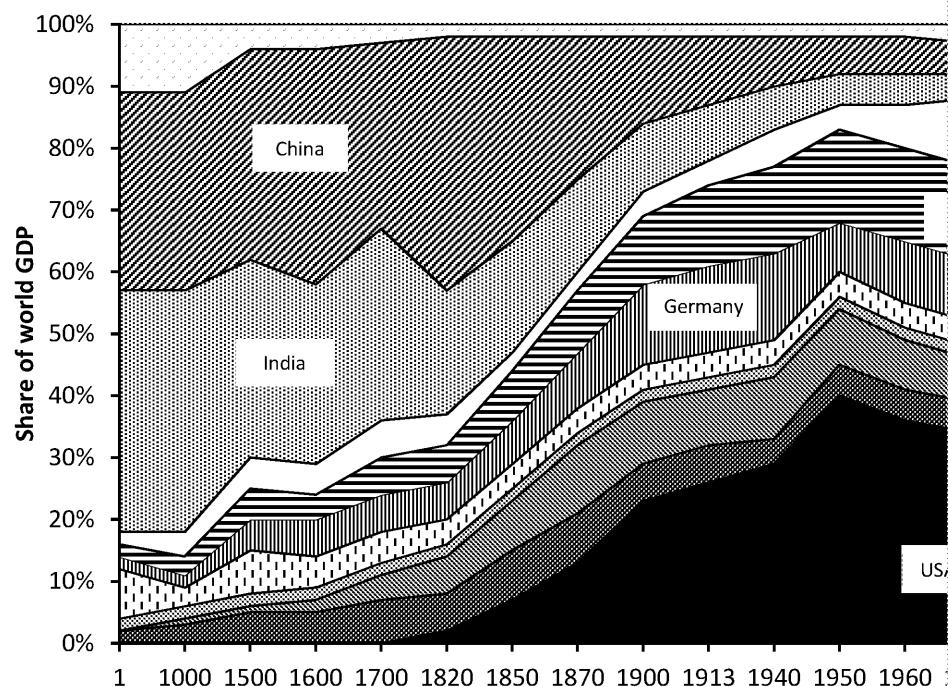


# World economic superpowers: is the USA

*This case study requires knowledge of Section 4.1 – International*

The twentieth and twenty-first centuries saw the United States of America as the economic superpower of the world. Prior to the Industrial Revolution, though, it was China and India that held this honour.

**Figure 1: Economic history of China and other major powers**



Some commentators reckon that the Chinese government are determined to reclaim their country's lost title. Given the astonishing GDP growth rates recorded in China over recent years, this could become a reality in the not too distant future.

China has experienced breakneck growth rates since the introduction of market reforms in 1978 – following the collapse of communism under Chairman Mao. China's growth strategy features high levels of investment and saving, and huge volumes of international trade. Globalisation has allowed the economy to exploit its comparatively low unit labour costs, enhancing international competitiveness. It seems now that wages in China are finally starting to rise, as the supply of labour begins to shrink. More recently Chinese companies have been branching out by investing in LEDCs, but also in the UK, such as the 2015 investment deals in the UK's rail and infrastructure sectors.

Unlike most large modern economies, China does not have a pure floating exchange rate (the renminbi). Exchange rates were fixed against the US dollar from 1994 to 2005, a 'crawling peg' system, whereby the government can adjust the exchange rate. This has led to periodic devaluations of the currency in an attempt to boost exports. This particular policy has proven controversial, and some question the sustainability of it in the long term.

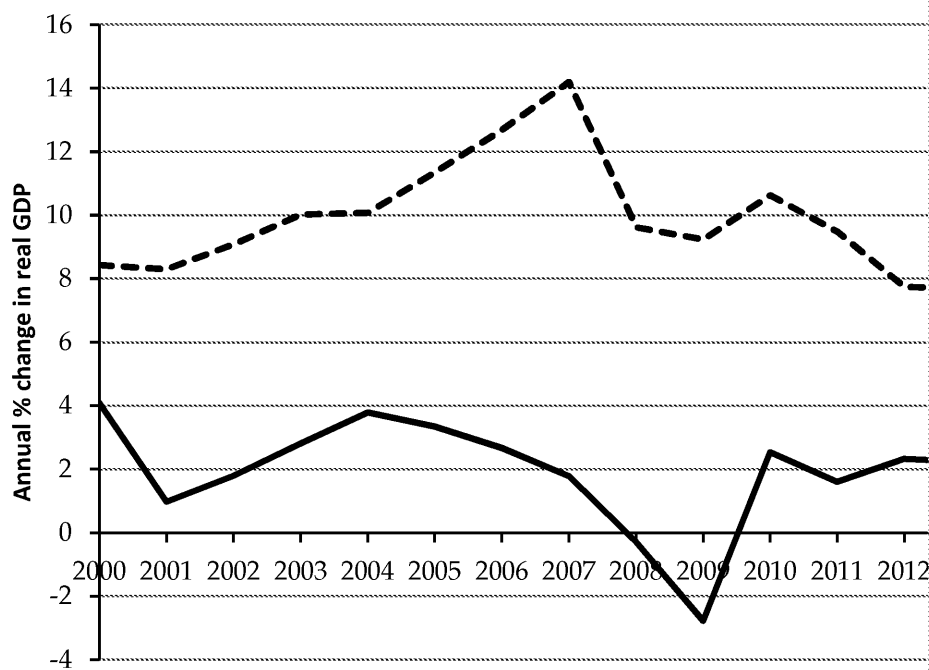
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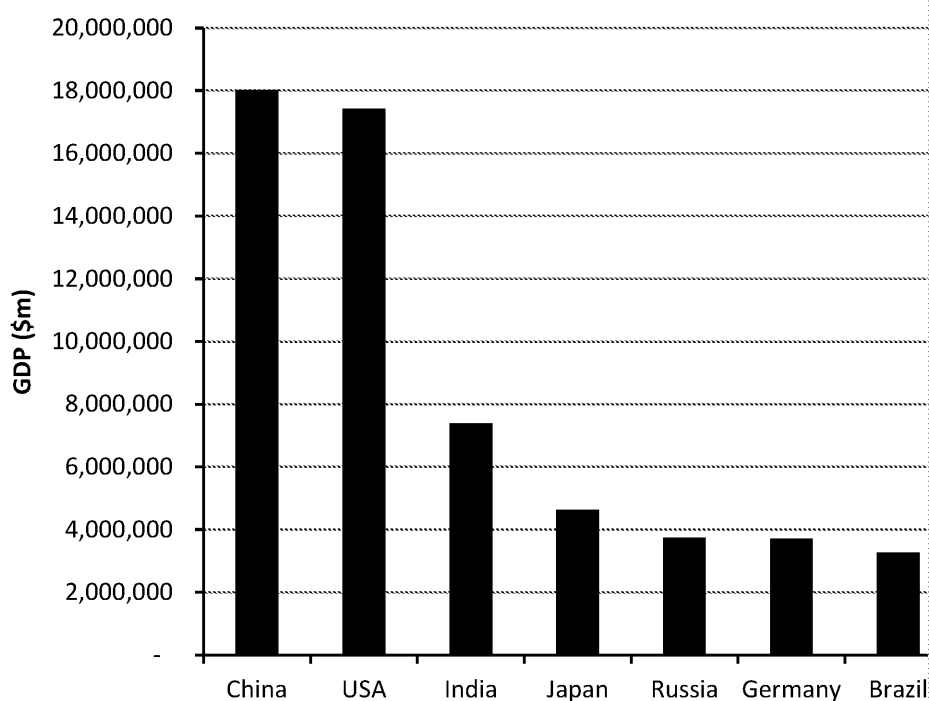
The US was hit hard by the 2008 financial crisis, as the banking system was in a state of panic and international trade collapsed. This prompted a dramatic response by the US Federal Reserve to inject confidence and liquidity to the markets. More recently, though, things have changed. The Federal Reserve felt confident enough to raise interest rates in December 2015. However, it seems unlikely that the US will be able to match China's growth in the foreseeable future.

**Figure 2: GDP Growth Rates 2000–2014**



In purchasing power parity (PPP) terms, China is already the world's largest economy. It is notable that even though China still lags behind in per capita terms, economic growth has contributed more to the eradication of global poverty than just about any other country in the last few decades.

**Figure 3: PPP Adjusted GDP 2014**



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## Use the data

1. Using Figure 1, roughly what share of world GDP did China make up in the following years?
  - (a) 1000
  - (b) 1820
  - (c) 1950
  - (d) 2008
2. Looking at Figure 2:
  - (a) Estimate the USA's GDP growth rate in 2010.
  - (b) Estimate the China's GDP growth rate in 2010.
  - (c) Suppose in 2010 USA's GDP was \$15 trillion, and China's GDP was \$6 trillion. Using the growth rates calculated in (a) and (b), and assuming that both countries maintain those growth rates for the next 15 years (i.e. by 2025) which economy would be the largest?

## Test your knowledge...

1.
  - (a) Define GDP per capita.
  - (b) Explain why the rankings for China and the USA in Figure 3 would change if GDP per capita was used.
2.
  - (a) Explain the concept of PPP.
  - (b) Explain why the rankings for China and the USA in Figure 3 would change if PPP was used.
3. Based on the article, state three policies that have contributed to China's economic growth.

## Extended-response question

1. *'Once population size and living costs are accounted for, GDP is a good measure of a country's economic well-being.'* Evaluate this claim.

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# Venezuela's inflation problem

*This case study requires knowledge of Section 4.1 – International Trade. There is a particular focus on inflation, so this case study could also be used in the context of Section 4.2 – Exchange Rates.*

In the West, inflation figures don't make headline news very often. We are used to inflation fluctuating around a modest 0–5% – not the sort of levels that people tend to worry about. The UK hasn't seen double-digit inflation since the 1970s.

In other parts of the world, however, high inflation can be a persistent economic woe, often a symptom of underlying economic weakness. Figure 1 shows economic data for Venezuela, along with other Western hemisphere economies. Note the exceptionally high consumer price figure for Venezuela!

**Figure 1: Western Hemisphere Economies: Real GDP (annual percentage change), Current Account Balance (% of GDP)**

	Real GDP			Consumer prices		
	2014	2015	2016	2014	2015	2016
<b>North America</b>	2.4	3.0	3.0	1.0	0.5	1.7
<b>United States</b>	2.4	3.1	3.1	1.6	0.1	1.5
<b>Canada</b>	2.5	2.2	2.0	1.9	0.9	2.0
<b>Mexico</b>	2.1	3.0	3.3	4.0	3.2	3.0
<b>South America</b>	0.7	-0.2	1.3	-	-	-
<b>Brazil</b>	0.1	-1.0	1.0	6.3	7.8	5.9
<b>Argentina</b>	0.5	-0.3	0.1	-	18.6	23.7
<b>Colombia</b>	4.6	3.4	3.7	2.9	3.4	3.0
<b>Venezuela</b>	-4.0	-7.0	-4.0	62.2	96.8	83.7
<b>Chile</b>	1.8	2.7	3.3	4.4	3.0	3.0
<b>Peru</b>	2.4	3.8	5.0	3.2	2.5	2.0
<b>Ecuador</b>	3.6	1.9	3.6	3.6	3.2	3.0
<b>Bolivia</b>	5.4	4.3	4.3	5.8	5.1	5.0
<b>Uruguay</b>	3.3	2.8	2.9	8.9	7.9	7.5
<b>Paraguay</b>	4.4	4.0	4.0	5.0	3.6	4.5
<b>Central America</b>	4.0	4.2	4.3	3.4	2.6	3.3
<b>Caribbean</b>	4.7	3.7	3.5	4.0	3.3	4.2

Source: IMF World Economic Outlook

Figures for 2015 and 2016 are projected.

A key source of Venezuela's problems has been the low world price of oil. Venezuela is so reliant on oil exports as a source of income. The fall in oil price has caused the bolivar to plunge in value. This makes it particularly expensive for it to import supplies: a severe worsening of the terms of trade. This is a rare example of over-specialisation!

Low oil prices are only part of the story: misguided economic policies must also be addressed. A system of price controls has distorted the market, causing inefficiencies and no incentives to produce the goods needed in the economy. Attempts to solve the problem by fixing the rate have failed: corrupt officials can game the system. The gap between the favourable, official exchange rate and the real, black-market exchange rate is huge.

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The government has tried to help the situation by printing more currency – only led to higher inflation. Official inflation statistics have been hard to come by. The central bank seems to have stopped collecting data after the December 2014 figures were released.

In a dramatic turn of events in early January 2016, Nicolas Maduro, the president, was removed from the central bank from the legislature (which elected a majority opposition the next day). This move concerns that the country may end up experiencing hyperinflation.

It is well known that high rates of inflation can be crippling for an economy. In Venezuela, shortages have meant that some shop owners have stopped updating the prices as they cannot keep up with the constant price changes. Many consumers have turned to the black market for their goods.

### Use the data

1. Using the data from Figure 1:
  - (a) Which South American country has the lowest projected inflation rate?
  - (b) What is the projected annual inflation rate in North America in 2016?
  - (c) Name two countries which are expected to experience consistent *disinflation*.

### Test your knowledge...

1. Explain the difference between inflation and the price level.
2.
  - (a) Name one cause of inflation identified in the text
  - (b) Explain one other possible cause of inflation
3. Explain the relationship between inflation and the exchange rate.

### Extended-response question

1. The effects of inflation in Venezuela have been overwhelmingly negative. Discuss the benefits of inflation (you should explain at least three). Are there any situations in which a high inflation rate can be good for the economy?

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# Youth unemployment in Italy

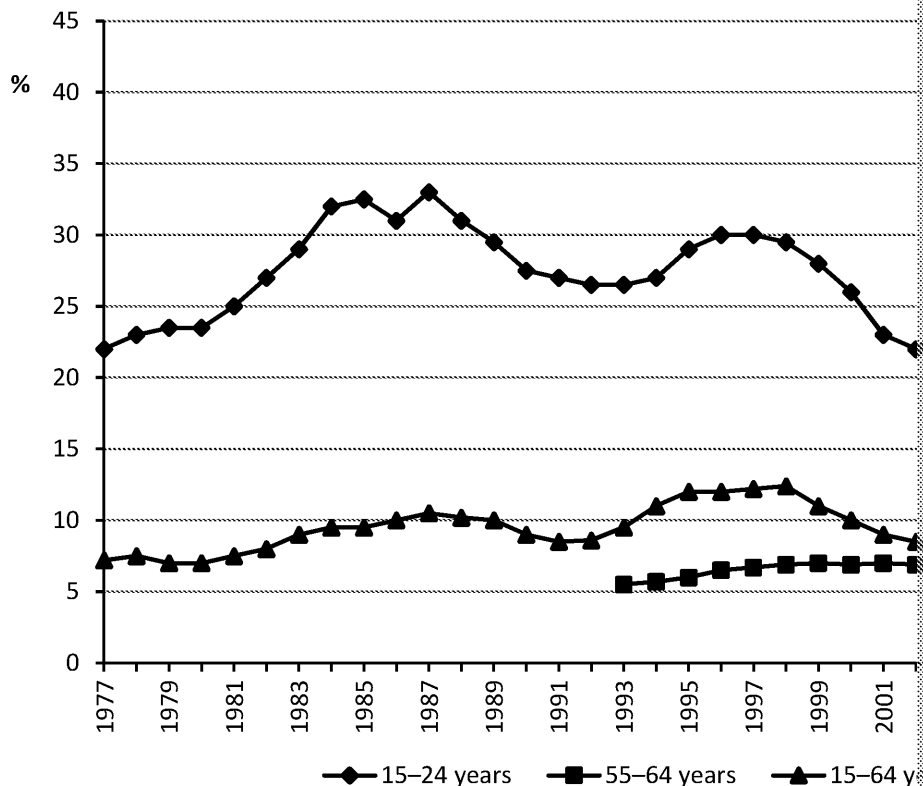
*This case study requires knowledge of Section 4.1 – International  
There is a particular focus on unemployment, so this case study could also be*

The economic crisis of 2008 had many short-term consequences – banks needed bailing out, monetary and fiscal policy needed loosening, firms needed to lay off workers. Although the general consensus is that the worst of the crash seems to be over, some problems look set to persist in the long term. For some Eurozone countries, few issues are more worrying than that of youth unemployment.



Italy's overall unemployment rate hit a high of 12.4% in 2013. This alone is cause for concern, compared with rates of 7.7% and 5.3% for the UK and Germany respectively (both of which fell continuously through to shows, when Italy's unemployment rate is broken down by age, the result

**Figure 1: Unemployment Rates**



Source: 'No Country for Young People?' Youth labour

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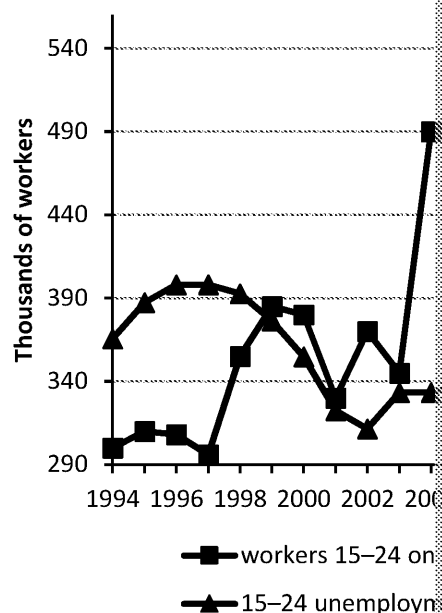
Research conducted by the Centre for Economic Policy Research (CEPR) suggests two explanations for the rise in youth unemployment rate:

1. The system protects existing, older workers, with young people typically on temporary (fixed-term) contracts (see Figure 2).
2. More young people chose to go into higher education – this decreases the labour force (since those in education don't count as part of the labour force) and therefore increases the unemployment rate, *ceteris paribus*.
3. Although there have been difficulties for low-skilled NEETs, (Not in Education, Employment or Training), there have also been difficulties for graduates. University is free for young people study to degree level, but the supply of available graduate jobs in economic terms, this is referred to as structural unemployment.

The fear is that if young people are unemployed for too long, they will struggle to adjust to the world of work throughout their lifetime ('lost generation'). Furthermore, there is some evidence of a 'brain drain', as young people emigrate to seek more promising job opportunities.

It is clear that the Italian government will need to find a far-reaching strategy to combat the youth unemployment problem – before it gets any worse.

**Figure 2: Temporary Contracts and Youth Unemployment**



Source: 'No Country for Young People? Youth labour market in Italy' by Giovanni Corbelli, 2008

## Use the data

Using data from Figure 1:

1. Compare the trend in unemployment for the 55–64 age group with the 15–24 age group.

Using data from Figure 2:

2. (a) By how much did the number of temporary contracts change between 1994 and 2007?  
(b) Describe the trend in the unemployment rate between 1994 and 2007.
3. Describe a potential policy that could be used to try to fix the youth unemployment problem. Consider some limitations or disadvantages of your policy.

## Test your knowledge...

1. One of the reasons for the rise in youth unemployment was that more young people went into higher education, rather than participating in the labour force. Explain how this leads to an increase in the unemployment rate using the formula.
2. State two types of unemployment not mentioned in the text.

## Extended-response question

1. Discuss the negative effects of unemployment on society and the economy. In your discussion, you should also consider cases where unemployment may not be a concern in the short term.

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## Brexit and trading blocs

*This case study requires knowledge of Section 4.1.5 – trade blocs*  
*Note: this was written before the EU referendum in June 2016*

Trading blocs are an important feature of the modern world economy. Some of the major trading blocs today include:

- ASEAN (Association of South East Asian Nations).
- APEC (Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation forum – has some cross-over with the EU).
- NAFTA (North American Free Trade Agreement – consisting of the USA, Canada and Mexico).
- And, largest of all, the EU (European Union – currently at 28 member states and a single monetary union – the Eurozone).

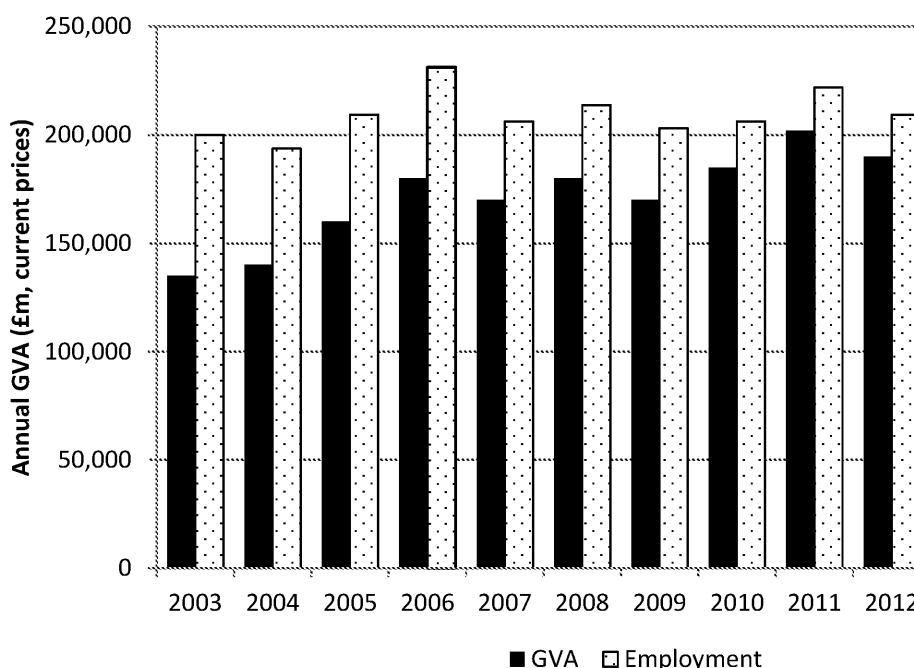
The basic idea of a trading bloc is to reduce trade barriers between participating members to benefit from free trade. In 2016, the UK faced the important decision of whether to stay in or leave the EU ('Brexit').

Supporters of Brexit (often called Eurosceptics), argue that leaving the EU would reduce costs and free UK businesses from unnecessary regulations. Crucially, they argue that the UK is able to retain its trade links with Europe, and possibly improve their trade with the rest of the world. There are also a number of non-economic reasons why they are in favour of Brexit, relating to retaining greater control of the legal system and migration.

On the other hand, supporters of the 'yes' campaign (pro-EU), particularly those who value international links, argue that the UK would lose out on trade with the rest of the world. The single market allows greater potential for economies of scale and lowers business costs. Furthermore, intra-EU financial transactions are less costly, and the harmonisation of standards increases trade and protects consumers.

The impact on the UK of being part of the EU has been researched extensively. The impact of the positive economic effects in terms of employment and GVA (gross value added) is a similar measure to GDP.

**Figure 1: Contribution of UK exports (to the EU) to the UK economy (GVA and employment)**



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The 2014 estimate of GVA indicates that the EU export market, at around £187 billion, accounts for about 10% of UK GDP. Similarly, over three million jobs are linked to the EU (around 10% of the total). The EU is the UK's largest export market (around 45% of total exports), and the UK also receives just over 50% of its imports from the EU. It is undeniable, therefore, that the presence of the EU is vitally important to the UK economy.



However, these findings must be interpreted carefully: they do not account for the fact that the UK would still trade with the EU even if it weren't part of the EU. Perhaps we would still trade with the EU member states from outside of the trading bloc, since these countries (arguably) share many of our cultural values.

Analysing the likely effect of Brexit on the UK economy is much trickier than analysing the effect of EU membership, because there are so many more uncertain factors. It could depend on how the UK manages to leave in the event of Brexit, for example. Indeed, the uncertainty over Brexit is a common argument put forward by EU supporters.

It is generally agreed that the UK's decision to stay out of a monetary union was one of the factors that beset the Eurozone during the financial crisis. It is less clear whether a potential monetary union would be a net benefit or not, particularly since there are so many competing political interests at stake.

### Use the data

1. From the passage, identify one economic argument in favour of staying in the EU and one argument in favour of leaving the EU.
2. Describe the trend in employment since 2011 shown in Figure 1, and give one reason for this trend.

### Test your knowledge...

1. Define the term 'customs union'.
2. The economic benefits of free-trade areas are fairly clear. What about the costs? Give one cost and one benefit.

### Extended-response question

1. With reference to the Eurozone, discuss the costs and benefits of monetary union.

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## Subtle protectionism

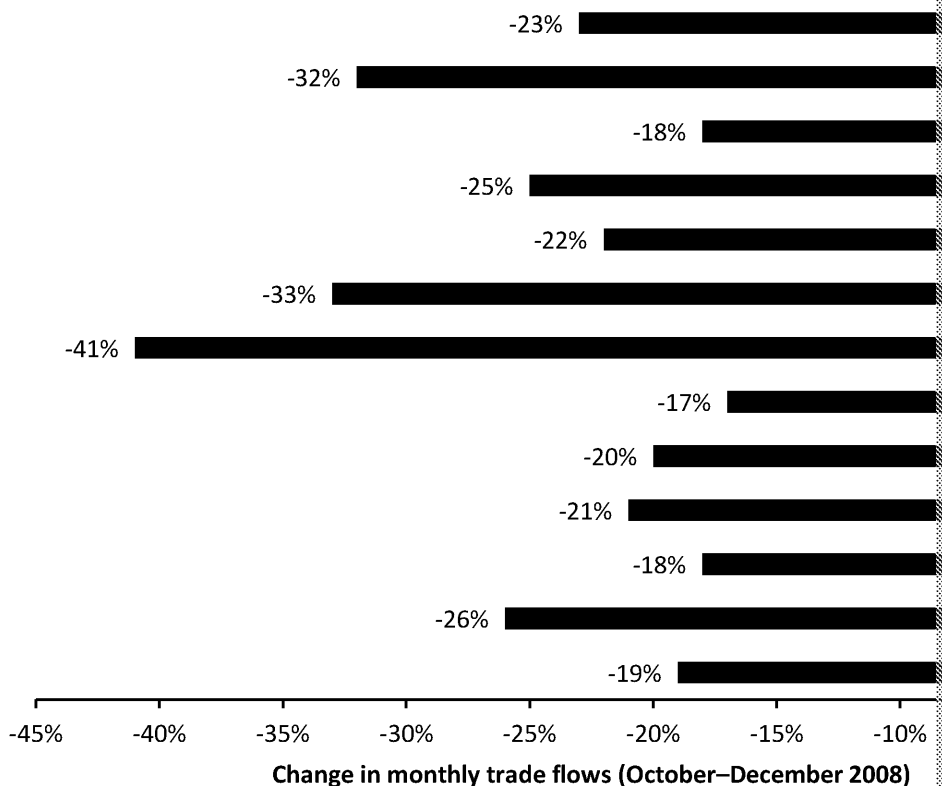
*This case study requires knowledge of Section 4.1.6 – restriction*

To what extent is protectionism a thing of the past? With the rise of huge international trading blocs, it seems that use of standard protectionist instruments such as tariffs, quotas, domestic subsidies, etc. has dwindled over time.

After the Great Depression of 1929, one of the key barriers to growth was the rise of protectionism, as governments scrambled to defend domestic employment, or retaliate against foreign protectionism. It is estimated that protectionist policies contributed to 25% of the trade collapse in the US after the Great Depression. After the Financial Crisis of 2008, protectionism also rose (e.g. tariffs by Russia, subsidies for domestic car manufacturers in several countries), but to a lesser extent. This is partially due to the influence of the WTO, but also acceptance of the virtues of free trade.



**Figure 1: Collapse of trade in the financial crisis (selected countries)**



Source: CEPR. 'The collapse of global trade, murky protectionism, and

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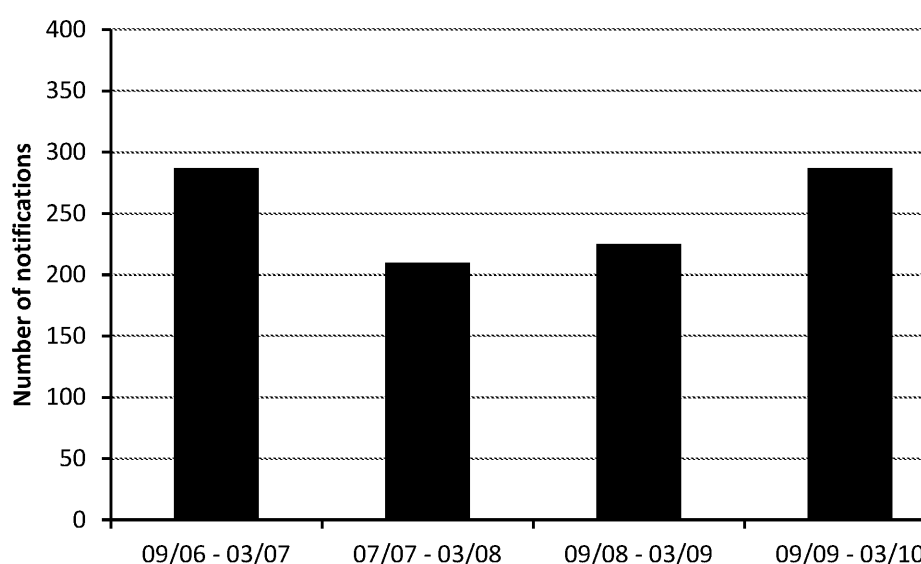
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However, there has been a notable rise in more subtle, 'murky' types of protectionist measures (e.g. technical barriers) in a wide range of countries, most notably in Russia. These measures are often more subtle, less obvious, and less obviously protectionist. Examples of these measures include:

- Stricter licensing requirements for imports (Argentina)
- Higher standards for import products (e.g. China – see Figure 2)
- Only allowing certain goods through certain ports (Indonesia)
- Anti-dumping (USA – this is a charge on imports of goods that are being sold at a price that is lower than the fair market value)
- Bailouts of sectors such as banking (e.g. UK). The initial objective of protecting the economy may have been replaced by the incentive to stimulate growth
- Industrial policies that effectively amount to export subsidies. (Brazil has many policies that fit this description: such as requiring foreign-owned car manufacturers to meet tough efficiency standards and innovation targets.)
- Various types of export restrictions

**Figure 2 – SPS notifications by G20 economies (2006–11)**



Note SPS stands for 'sanitary and phytosanitary measures' – the idea is to prevent unsafe goods from being imported.

These covert types of protectionism are difficult for the WTO to police effectively. They often take many different guises. Their presence seems to suggest that the age of protectionism is not over.

## Use the data

1. Explain why a country may wish to restrict exports.
2. Explain why the trend in SPS notifications shown in Figure 2 might have occurred.

## Test your knowledge...

1. What is the difference between a quota and a tariff?
2. Suppose Country A imposes tariffs on the imports of Country B. Why might Country B be hurt as a result?
3. Illustrate the effect of a tariff using a diagram. Identify tariff revenue, deadweight loss, and the effect on the welfare of imports.

## Extended-response question

1. The UK imports and exports large numbers of cars. Discuss the effect on aggregate demand in the UK of imposing a tariff on imported cars.

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# The economics of inequality

*This case study requires knowledge of Section 4.2 – poverty and inequality*

Inequality is a hot topic in economics at the moment. In 2014, French economist Thomas Piketty released the results of an extensive study on the changing pattern of income and wealth inequality in the West over time (the book is called *Capital in the 21<sup>st</sup> Century*). This provoked a flurry of intense debate in economics about the causes and consequences of inequality.



Piketty's main theory is that those who have large wealth can increase wealth faster than the average rate of economic growth in society. He warns that, if unchecked, this will lead to an undesirable concentration of wealth in the hands of a small elite, at levels not seen since the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. As such, more effective policy is essential.

Although there are some minor contentions with Piketty's data, the overall picture in the West is generally accepted. However, not everyone agrees with Piketty's view of inequality.

One argument is that technological change is the driving force behind inequality. As low-skilled work is ever more easily replaced with machinery, the wages of low-skilled workers widens, leading to inequality. Workers who are replaced and the few who own the machines or are skilled enough to complement machinery is reminiscent of Keynes' idea that one day, technology would advance to a point where work would be limited to a few hours a day: an 'age of leisure' (although he did not think of this for inequality!).

An alternative theory is that demographic change is the key factor. In the twenty-first centuries, the size of the working age population in advanced countries has been growing. Combined with the reintroduction of ex-communist countries (such as China), the supply of labour was very high indeed, leading to lower wages. Since the return to labour, inequality grew.

Some argue that this trend will now reverse as population age and fertility rates fall, making labour scarcer and wages will rise again. According to this viewpoint, Piketty's gloom is unnecessary.

Figure 1 shows historical UK data on inequality. The 'dip' in measures of inequality in the twentieth century is generally explained by the effects of World War II and redistribution by the government (not just in terms of taxes: the data in the figure shows a sharp upward trend since the late 1970s indicates that we may be drifting back to pre-war inequality levels, but economists are in disagreement about whether the trend is permanent).

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### Figure 1

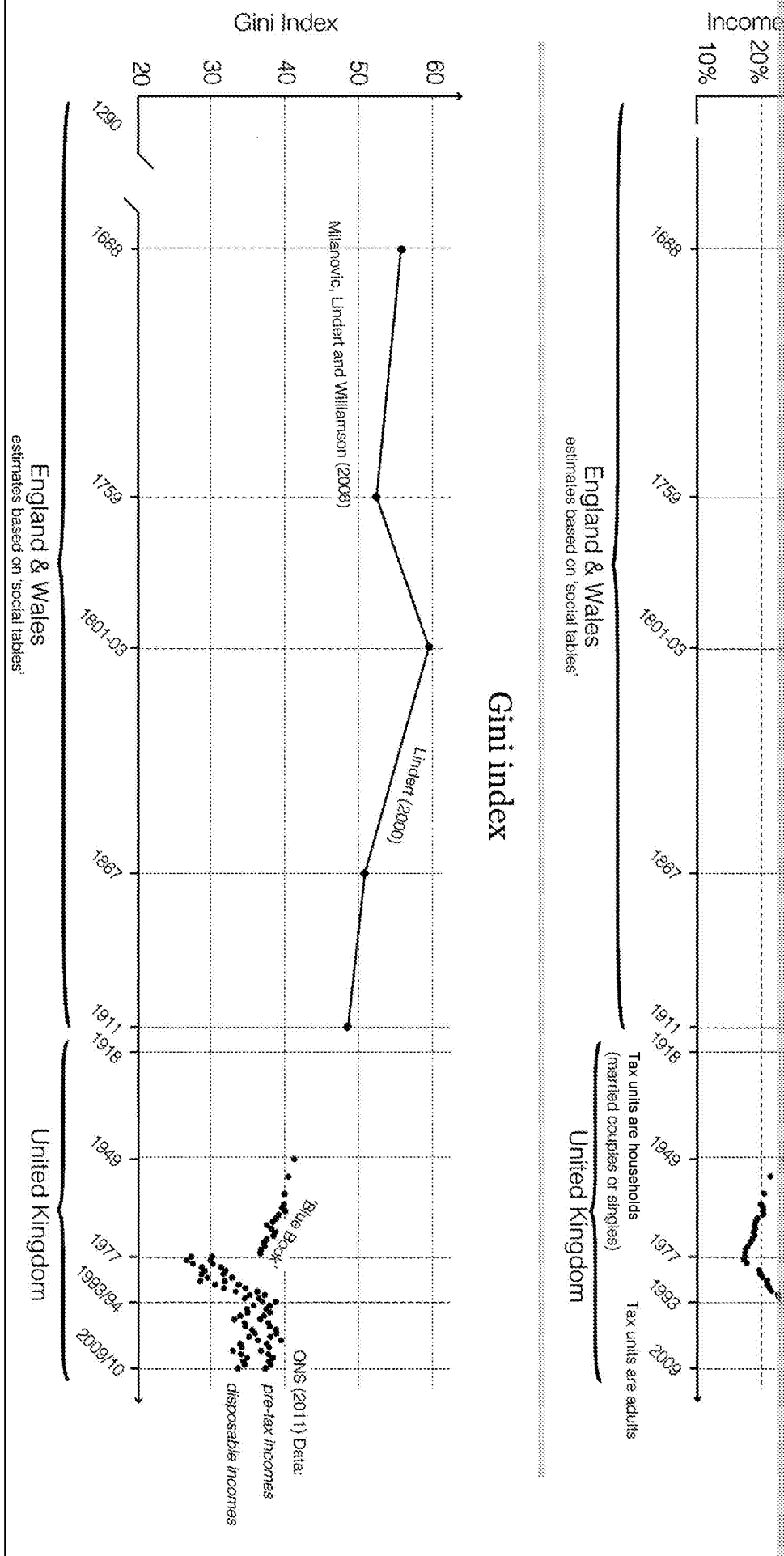
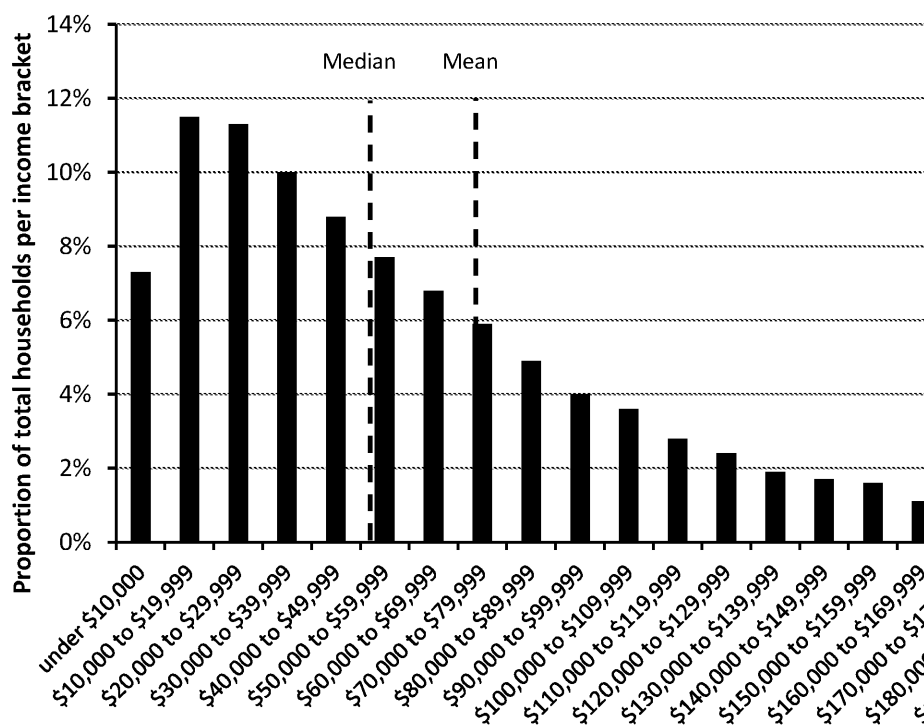




Figure 2: Household income distribution in the USA, 2012 – Max Roser



Note: You can find the source of the data at <http://ourworldindata.org/data/growth-and-development>

Figure 3

Country	USA	Germany	Brazil	Haiti
Gini Index	41.1	30.1	52.7	60.8

## Use the data

- Look at the first panel in Figure 1 (with Income Share of Top 5% on the y-axis of inequality).
- Looking at Figure 2:
  - What does this graph suggest about inequality in the US?
  - Sketch how you would expect the graph to look for a more equal society?
  - What would the graph look like for a perfectly unequal society?
  - What would the graph look like for a perfectly equal society?
- Look at the second panel in Figure 1 (with Gini index on the y-axis). Describe the trend from 1949.

## Test your knowledge...

- Income inequality and wealth inequality are two separate but related concepts. What links there might be between them?
- Why would looking at the Lorenz curve for a country be more informative than the Gini coefficient?

## Extended-response question

- Look at Figure 3. Based on this data, and your own knowledge, discuss the relationship between economic development and inequality.

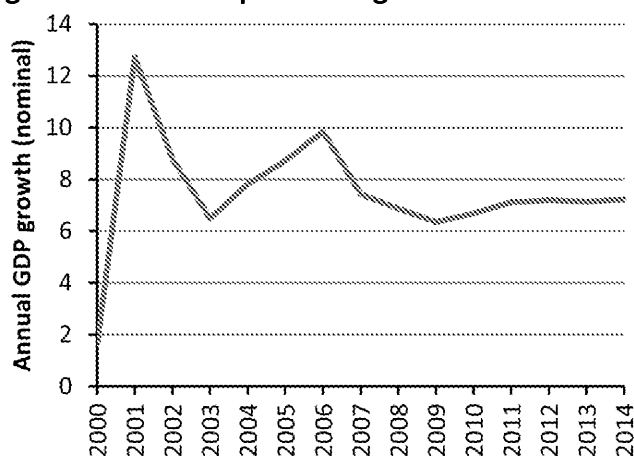
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# Mozambique – an African lion

This case study requires knowledge of Section 4.4 – emerging and developing economies

**Figure 1: Mozambique's GDP growth 2000–2014**



Figures are in constant 2005 US\$

Source: World Bank.

African economies in the media – for perception of Africa under-developed. However, there are a number of African countries following the footsteps of the Asian economic growth among these stellar economies. Having shed its coat of a 16-year civil war, Mozambique's economic growth is impressive.

Mozambique's huge natural resources (particularly coal and gas) have made it a vital trade partner for China and to a strong currency (the metical) and high levels of foreign investment in the country.

Having abundant natural resources does not always translate into economic growth. Many countries have suffered from the so-called 'resource curse', where excessive dependence on natural resources harms economic growth. This could be because other industries are neglected or captured via corruption. However, in the case of Mozambique, the benefits of natural resource endowments have been augmented by sound macroeconomic management, education spending and policies to promote competition. Mozambique now has modern business hubs, complete with shopping centres, restaurants and traffic jams.

Despite all this, there are concerns that this surge in economic growth is not sustainable development. Figure 2 shows the components of the HDI index for Mozambique, which is a disappointing 180<sup>th</sup> out of 188:

**Figure 2**

Country	HDI value (2014)	HDI rank (out of 188)	Life expectancy at birth	Expected years of schooling	Mean years of schooling
Mozambique	0.416	180	55.1	9.3	6.2
India	0.609	130	68	11.7	9.3
UK	0.907	14	80.7	16.2	13.6

Health dimension

Education dimension

Note: 'Expected years of schooling' is for children entering school age, 'mean years of schooling' is for the adult population.  
Source: Human Development Report 2014

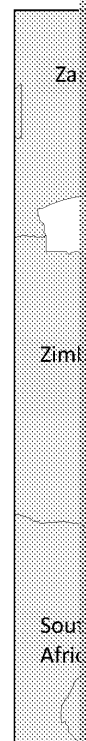
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One of the big concerns is that poverty rates (one of the key dimensions of economic development) are still high, with over half of the 25 million people in poverty. If the gains from economic growth do not trickle down into all parts of society, Mozambique's success may be short-lived. African history is littered with examples of countries where corruption chokes off economic development.

Furthermore, as with many developing countries, there is a substantial gap in living standards between the urban and rural populations (the same is true of some countries that are a bit more developed, including China). Many researchers argue that improving agricultural productivity is one of the most important ways of closing this gap, since a very high proportion of the rural workers' income depends on agriculture.



### Use the data

1. Briefly compare Mozambique's GDP growth rate to the UK's.
2. Look at Figure 2, what does it mean to say that the living standards figures are
  - (a) GNI (rather than GDP)?
  - (b) per capita?
  - (c) PPP?
3. In Figure 2, what does the difference between the mean years of schooling and schooling indicate about the progress of development in Mozambique?

### Test your knowledge...

1. State one other indicator of development, other than those included in the living standards).
2. Identify two causes of Mozambique's high economic growth.

### Extended-response question

1. Discuss the importance of having abundant natural resources for economic growth such as Mozambique.

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## Productivity – the key to long-run

*This case study requires knowledge of Section 4.3.3 – strategies influencing growth. It has a particular focus on aggregate supply, so this case study could be used for a range of purposes.*

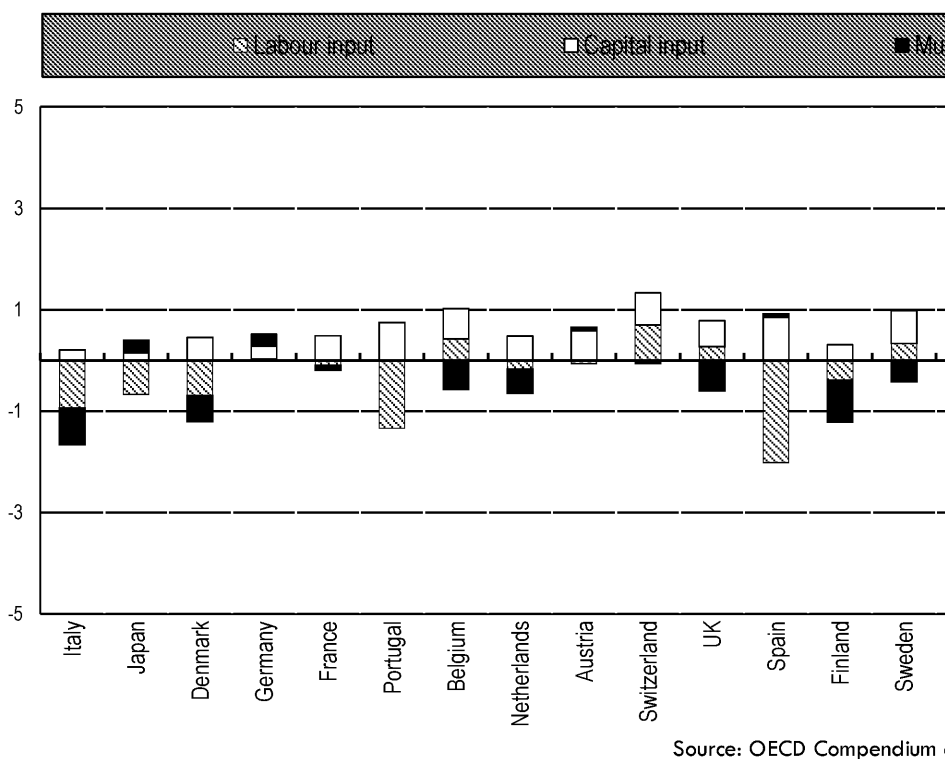
Most economists agree that in order to sustain economic growth in the long run, the supply-side of the economy must grow. For example, a government could try to increase the productive capacity of an economy by relaxing restrictions on the creation of new businesses, or investing in large infrastructure projects. Businesses have financial incentives to improve their own methods of working, perhaps by investing in capital or funding research into new technology – this should also contribute to the aggregate supply of an economy over time.

Considerable effort has gone into documenting the causes of economic growth. Figure 1 shows how GDP growth can be decomposed into four categories for a range of OECD countries. The OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development) is an organisation of predominantly high-income countries.



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**Figure 1: Contributions to GDP growth: Total economy, annual percentage (2007–2013)**



In Figure 1, labour input refers to the quantity of labour used in the economy (including IT) and non-IT) also refers to the quantity used. Multifactor productivity refers to the resources being used.

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Figure 1 looks quite different when repeated for the period 2001–2007 (pre-2008) when the world economy was performing well, almost all countries show growth from all three sources (labour input, capital input and multifactor productivity).

Historically, industrialisation is seen as a major catalyst for productivity growth. The Industrial Revolution is considered one of the primary reasons for the economic ascent of the West (see Case Study 1 in Case Study 1). This is why some models of economic development (such as the East Asian model) place great value on having a strong, urban economic hub in an economy.

Increasing productivity nowadays may be achieved by improving human capital, developing new technology, privatising state-owned industries or benefiting from economies of scale. The basic idea of the division of labour (originally from Adam Smith).

Some economists are concerned that overall productivity growth has been slow in recent years, despite strong growth in the manufacturing sector (in the UK, it's estimated that the production of transport equipment such as cars and planes increased by 10% in 2014). As productivity is so important for long-run growth, it should certainly be monitored in the coming years.

## Use the data

1. *Using the data in Figure 1:*
  - (a) Which country gained most from increased capital input?
  - (b) Which country suffered the worst loss in multifactor productivity?
  - (c) Which of the three factors has contributed most to GDP growth on average?
  - (d) By roughly how much did Spain's GDP decrease as a result of decreased labour input?
  - (e) What was Ireland's annual GDP growth rate, according to these figures?
2. Can you think of a link between Spain's loss of GDP due to a decrease in labour input and its macroeconomic objectives?

## Test your knowledge...

1. Show the likely effect of a large decrease in education spending on a classic production function.
2. Aside from productivity and education, state two factors that influence long-run growth.

## Extended-response question

1. Discuss the costs and benefits of a government policy to increase productivity by investing in better education.

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# Market failure in the financial s

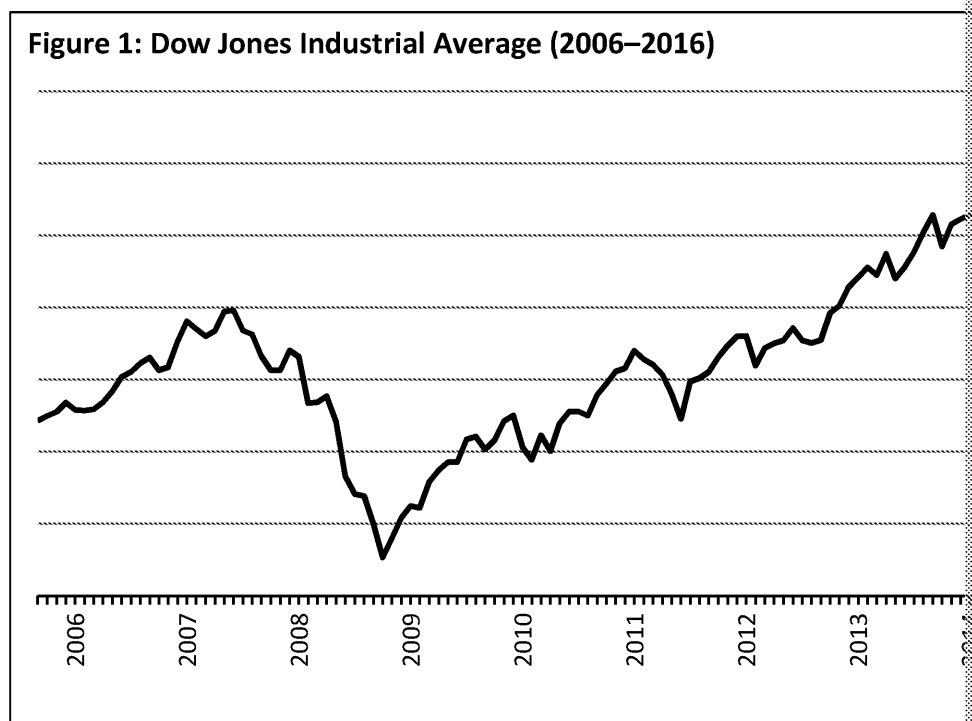
*This case study requires knowledge of Section 4.4 – the financial*

The Global Financial Crisis of 2008 is a rich opportunity for study in economics, particularly when it comes to the financial sector.

Michael Lewis's book on the subject, *The Big Short*, was adapted into a film in 2016 – a rare case where an economic issue becomes a mainstream hit!

As we know, the global economy experienced a massive downturn in the closing months of 2008. Figure 1 shows the precipitous fall in the Dow Jones Industrial Average, an indicator of the health of the US stock market (and the world economy in general).

**Figure 1: Dow Jones Industrial Average (2006–2016)**



So, what were the specific market failures that led to this crash? Arguably, the crisis had its roots in asymmetric information (although some may call it reckless exuberance'). In the US, the early 2000s were years of unparalleled prosperity, and the financial system was high. As such, some banks began extending mortgage loans to homeowners who were considered 'sub-prime' (that is, unlikely to pay it back).

Extending these risky loans was encouraged by the development of various financial products such as 'credit default swaps' (CDSs) and 'collateralised debt obligations' (CDOs), which spread the risk between different parties. The problem with these products was that they were not understood what they really meant, or how risky they actually were (as the information comes in). As such, when the credit bubble burst, banks and investors found out much they actually stood to lose (this is where terms such as 'toxic assets' come in), triggering a panic and the ensuing financial meltdown.

The crisis was also characterised by excessive speculation, and the creation of complex financial products (particularly in housing). Almost all banks were very highly 'leveraged' (that is, they had borrowed a lot of money to invest).

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loans far exceeded the value of their reserve funds), so an unexpected decline was devastating. Since the crash, the rules on the amount of reserves banks tightened up.

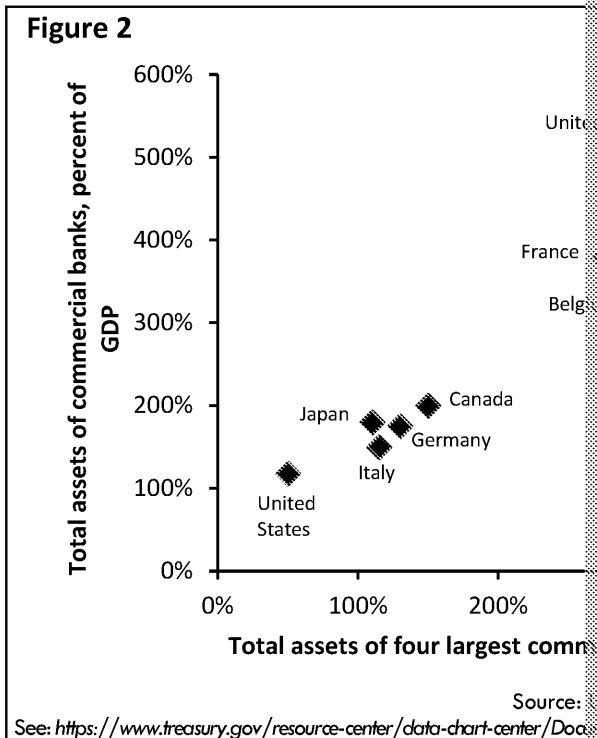
Another aspect of market failure that came in after the crisis is moral hazard. The failing banks because they hoped that it would prevent even more event of the banks going under. If true free-market economics had prevailed excessive risks would simply have failed. But since they were bailed out, they continue taking risks in the future (knowing that they will probably be bailed out) is an example of moral hazard.

All the market failures mentioned so far are unfortunate, but legal. In some cases, markets were illegally rigged to gain some advantage. The most notorious case of this was in the UK with the Libor rigging scandal. Libor is the London Inter-Bank Offered Rate (a benchmark rate for lending between financial institutions). When the financial crisis started, the Libor rate increased (since it was deemed riskier to lend between banks). Some bankers lied about the rates

at which they could borrow, effectively rigging the rate to be more favourable. This was another distortion in the market, exacerbating future losses.

Hopefully economists and policymakers can learn from this episode in order to prevent severe crises from occurring again.

**Figure 2**



## Use the data

- Does Figure 2 suggest that the UK was more or less exposed to a financial crisis?
- Estimate how much the Dow Jones Industrial Average declined from its peak point.
- Do you think governments should regulate financial institutions more or less? Give reasons for your answer.

## Test your knowledge...

- Name two basic functions of the financial market.
- State one other type of market failure not mentioned in the passage, and how it relates to the financial crisis.

## Extended-response question

- Examine the role of the central bank in the UK financial sector.

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# Canada's economic policies

This case study requires knowledge of Section 4.5 – role of the state in the economy

One of the basic questions in macroeconomics is: how can a government be financed? In the case of Justin Trudeau, the Canadian Prime Minister elected in 2015, the answer is: by increasing government spending, funded by a temporary budget deficit.

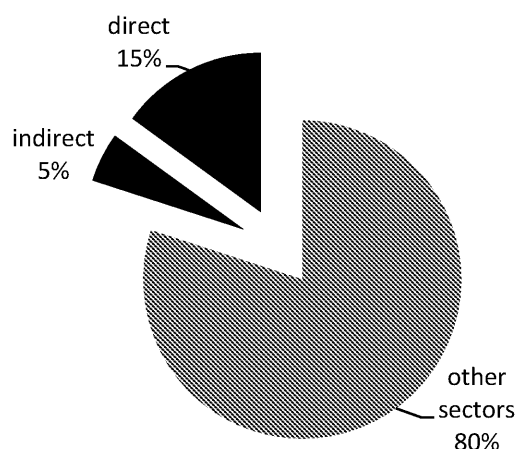
Quick facts	Canada	
Population:	35 million	
Area:	9,984,670 km <sup>2</sup> (Second largest in the world)	
GDP per capita (nominal):	\$50,000	
Government debt (% GDP), 2014:	86.5	

The rationale for infrastructure spending is that it increases aggregate demand in the short term (as the government pays the wages of new employees) and boosts aggregate supply in the long term (as the economy works more efficiently). Trudeau hopes to benefit from low interest rates to fund a \$60 billion (Canadian dollars) spending plan over 10 years, channelled into areas including public transport, green projects and affordable housing ('social infrastructure'). Around 30–35% of this spending is expected to return to the government via higher tax revenues, as the spending induces more economic activity.

Despite a persistent budget deficit, all three main political parties (Liberal, Conservative, New Democratic) support higher infrastructure spending, perhaps due to evidence that infrastructure depreciation have been mounting over time (leading to a so-called 'infrastructure gap'). Nevertheless, there are concerns over Canada's economic future due to the country's reliance on energy exports, such as a low. Canada relies heavily on energy exports, as Figure 1 shows:

**Figure 1:**

**Contribution of natural resources to Nominal GDP (%), 2014**



Breakdown of direct contributions:  
 10% = Energy  
 4% = Minerals & Metals  
 1% = Forestry

**Contribution of natural resources to Nominal GDP (\$ billion), 2014**

indirect  
 900,000

Breakdown of direct contributions:  
 300,000 = Energy  
 400,000 = Minerals & Metals  
 200,000 = Forestry

Source: Natural Resources Canada estimates (July 2015)

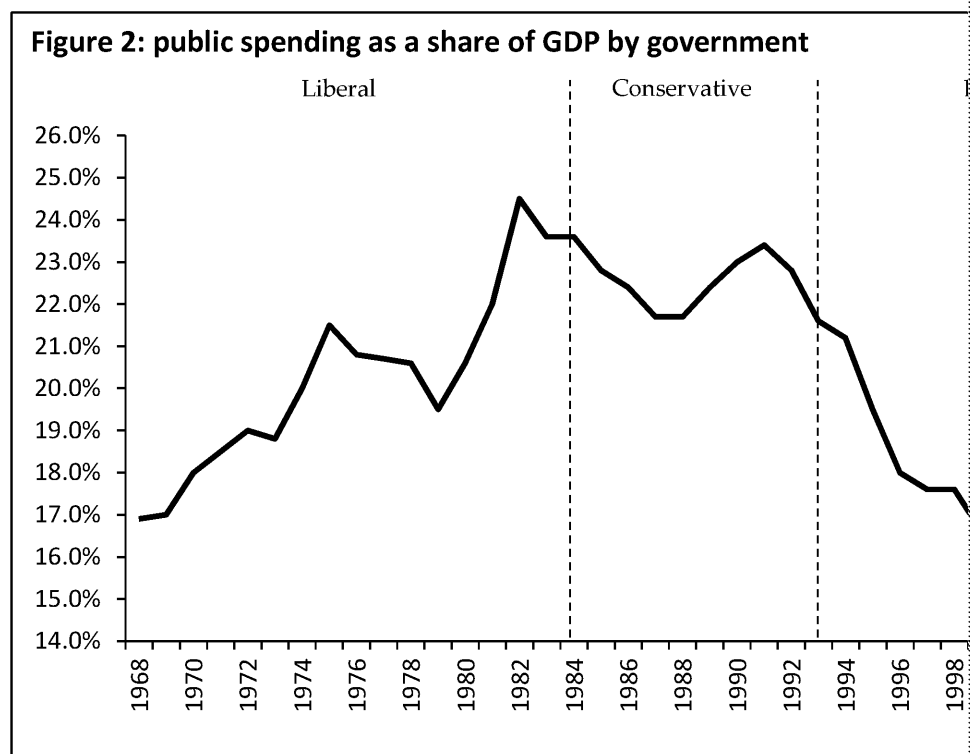
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Figure 2 shows the pattern of government spending as a share of total GDP where different governments (Liberal or Conservative) had control. As of 1993, the government changed back to Liberal.



It's interesting to note that the idea that left-of-centre governments (liberal) increase spending and right-of-centre governments (conservative) decrease government spending to hold. This same pattern can also be observed in the US. One explanation for this is the force government's hands: during the financial crisis of 2008, for example, Prime Minister Stephen Harper was forced to increase spending, possibly against the trend shown in the graph after 2008 could also be explained by the effects of the recession, which shows public spending as a percentage of GDP, not total public spending.

## Use the data

Using the data in the article (quick facts, Figure 1, Figure 2):

1. Calculate the (nominal) size of Canada's government debt in \$s.
2. Calculate (in \$s) the contribution of energy to Canada's nominal GDP.
3. Calculate the percentage of Canadians that are in employment.
4. Estimate the proportion of GDP consisting of government spending in 2000.

## Test your knowledge...

1. Look at the trend shown in Figure 2. What would you expect to happen to the infrastructure plan described in the passage goes ahead?
2. Based on the information in the passage, show the effect of an increase in income on the AD/AS diagram.

## Extended-response question

1. Discuss the possible effects of a large infrastructure spending project on the short term and the long term.

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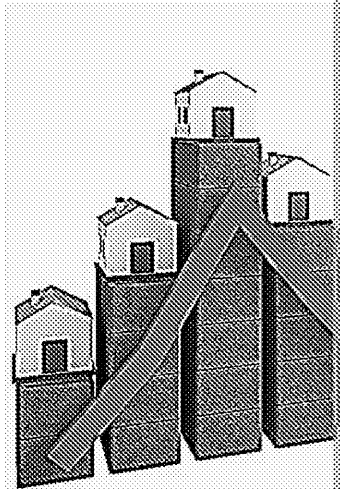


# Ireland's housing market bubble

*This case study requires knowledge of Section 4.5 – role of the state in the economy*

One of the casualties of the 2008 financial crisis was Ireland's economy. Ireland has subsequently been dubbed one of the 'PIIGS' – economies which proved particularly unstable after the crisis, although compared to the rest of the countries (Portugal, Italy, Spain, Greece), it seems to have been recovering very strongly as of 2015.

As well as 'irrational exuberance' in financial markets, much of the blame for Ireland's economic crash can be traced back to different types of macroeconomic mismanagement.



## ***Irrational exuberance:***

*This is a term originating from Alan Greenspan, ex-Chairman of the Federal Reserve (the central bank of the USA). It is used to describe the risky behaviour in the financial sector in the run-up to the crash.*

Prior to the crash, the world economy offered rich opportunities for Irish banks to borrow at low rates (particularly following the introduction of the euro). There was very heavy investment in property because this sector had never crashed before. Confidence would prove to be misplaced. A lack of understanding of investing, that investors should diversify across a range of assets, seems to have been a factor.

In terms of the fiscal policy, the government adopted a 'pro-cyclical' approach. It increased their spending in the boom period, as well as cutting taxes to attract investment (a proportion of these taxes were linked to the property sector). This left the economy vulnerable to a bursting of the property sector bubble, in spite of warnings from the OECD. Ultimately, this meant that the government had next to no breathing space in its fiscal policy when the crisis hit.

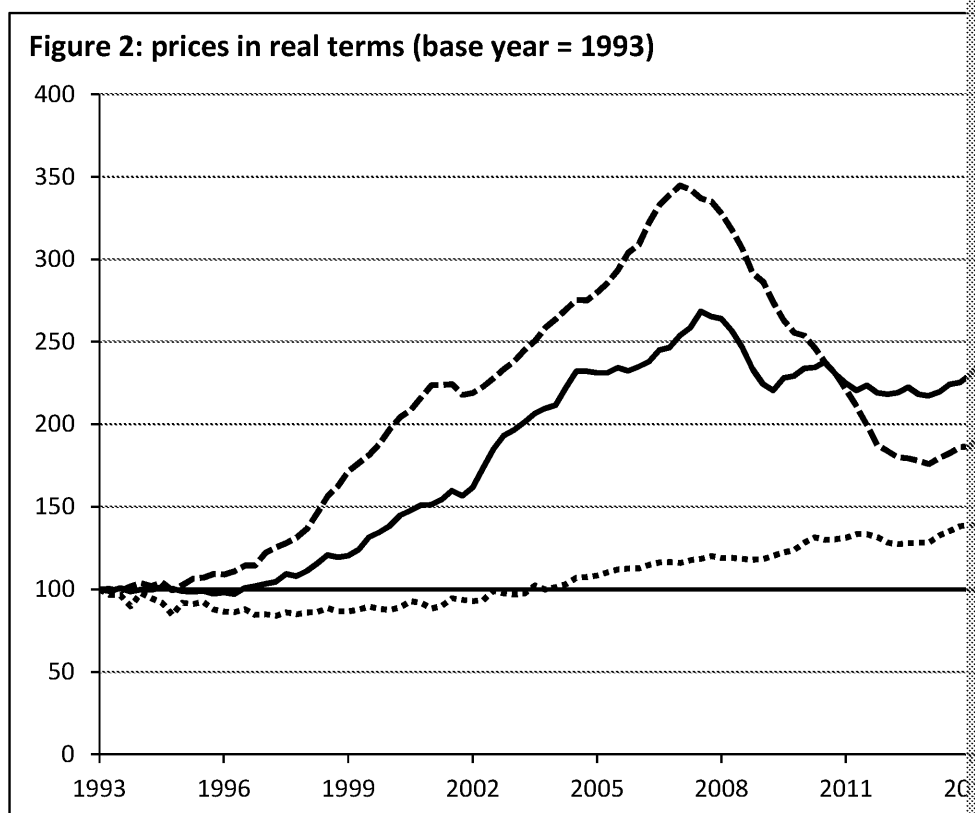
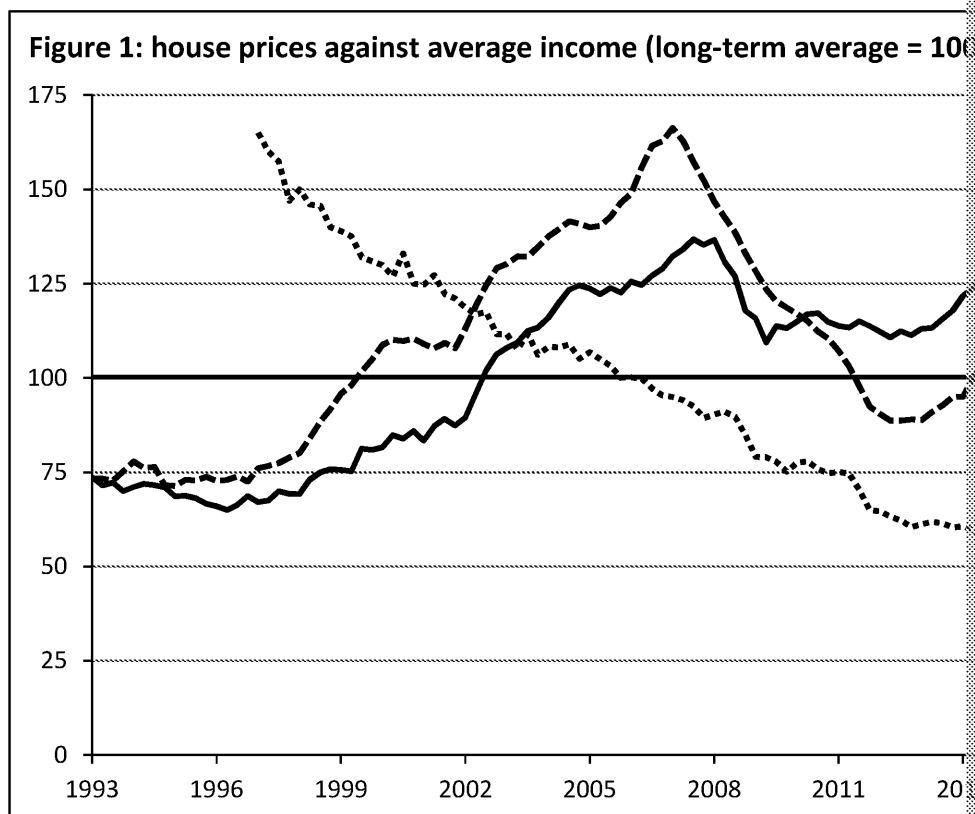
Furthermore, regulators of the banking industry seem to have failed to pick up on warning signs of an impending crash. This is particularly noteworthy since Ireland was not nearly as complex or opaque as some other advanced economies (where the use of extremely complicated financial products or 'derivatives' was flourishing). Even the regulatory systems also seem to have failed, permitting a very risky and unstable financial system to develop.

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Figures 1 and 2 show two historical measures of the housing market in Ireland. It is very evident in both.



**Note:** you can compare the performance of the housing markets in other countries using <http://www.economist.com/blogs/dailychart/2011/11/global-house-prices>

Fortunately, it seems that Ireland's economy is on its feet again. Hopefully experience will prevent such disastrous financial crises from occurring again.

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## Use the data

1. Look at Figure 1. Suppose the long-term average house price in Ireland is always a multiple of average income. If average income is €30,000, what would be the (average) price of a house in Ireland?
  - (a) Q4 1980
  - (b) Q1 2007
2. Look at Figure 2. In Q1 2007, compared to Ireland, were real house prices in China:
  - (a) higher
  - (b) lower
  - (c) unable to be compared?
3. Looking at both graphs, can you think of a reason why China's house prices have fallen so consistently?

## Test your knowledge...

1.
  - (a) Looking at Figure 2, describe the trend in house prices in Ireland over the period 1980–2007.
  - (b) How many times greater were prices in Ireland in Q1 2007 than Q1 1980?
2. Explain whether Ireland's fiscal policy measures described in the extract would be expected to lead to a budget surplus or a budget deficit in the short term.

## Extended-response question

1. One of the key features of Ireland's economic boom (and subsequent bust) was the deregulation of the financial services sector. Using an AD/AS diagram, discuss the effectiveness of deregulation as a supply-side policy.  
(Note: your answer does not need to include any knowledge of different types of deregulation.)

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# Footloose TNCs: Google vs HMRC

This case study requires knowledge of Section 4.5.4 c) – measures to control

One of the features of globalisation has been the rise of transnational companies, which have provided goods and services to global consumers and often reaping vast profits.

**Figure 1: World's largest companies (2015)**

Global Rank	Company	Country	Market value* (\$bn)
1	Apple	US	724.8
2	Exxon Mobil	US	356.5
3	Berkshire Hathaway	US	356.5
4	Google	US	345.8
5	Microsoft	US	333.5
6	PetroChina	China	329.7
12	Wal-Mart Stores	US	265.1
14	Nestlé	Switzerland	243.7
15	Toyota Motor	Japan	238.9
19	Samsung Electronics	South Korea	214.0
26	Royal Dutch Shell	UK	192.1
29	Facebook	US	183.9
30	Walt Disney	US	178.3
32	Coca-Cola	US	177.1
35	HSBC	UK	164.2

\*Market value is calculated by the number of shares issued multiplied by the share price (market capitalisation)

On the one hand, TNCs have unparalleled access to funding and economies of scale, which allow them to provide goods and services to global consumers on a scale that would have been impossible decades ago. On the other hand, the global nature and power of TNCs have made it difficult for governments, particularly when it comes to collecting taxes.

The basic problem is this: governments want to receive their fair share of tax, but companies have a financial incentive to minimise their tax liability. If a company can *avoid* tax (which is perfectly legal – *evading* tax is illegal), such as by registering in a tax haven (e.g. Bermuda, Netherlands, Ireland) or by funnelling profits through a tax haven, then the government will lose out. Similarly, a 'footloose' TNC could choose to set up shop in another country with a more accommodative tax system. The upshot is that in the absence of international tax rules, individual governments will struggle to control TNCs.

In early 2016, Google, the tech giant, agreed to pay £130m to the UK's HMRC, including backdated taxes from up to a decade ago that HMRC argued the company owed. Although £130m may sound like a lot of money and it was initially hailed as a success, there has been a furore in Parliament that this isn't nearly enough.

The figures are as follows: in the 18 months to June 2015, Google paid £46.2m in corporation tax. Over the same period it made \$6.5bn in the UK in revenues. Even when you adjust the revenue figures to profit figures, which corporate tax is based on, this still seems very small.

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Some argue that looking at it this way isn't quite right: it assumes all that Google's UK workers alone, when in fact much of it is attributable to the vast majority of its employees (as their core US team). In this case, its tax liabilities are closer to the agreed

The row over Google's taxes could be the start of a much bigger argument. Other European countries such as France are intending to seek more tax from Google. Facebook's tax affairs are also being questioned by governments and activists. Starbucks have already had their reputations somewhat tarnished by tax

One of the broader issues is the regulation (or lack of regulation) of 'transfer pricing' for trading goods between subsidiaries of the same company in different countries. Manipulation of transfer pricing ('mispricing') is one of the ways in which companies can avoid international tax laws. The Google deal with the UK is thought to have been a transfer pricing issue.

A spokesman for Google stated in the *Financial Times* that 'governments must ensure that tax authorities independently enforce the law and Google complies with the law. It is the law, true, but the outcome for taxpayers in countries such as the UK seems unfair. It is not clear whether future international agreements will be reached to force companies to pay their fair share of tax, not just the letter.

### Use the data

- Using the figures from the article, calculate Google's effective tax rate, given that its profits were 26% of revenues (this is Google's global average profit margin), and that its UK profits were £1 = \$1.5.
  - If UK workers are only responsible for 20% of UK sales, how would you calculate Google's effective tax rate? (Assuming that this is the way that the tax rates should be calculated.)
- Which of the companies in Figure 1 generates the most market value per employee?
- According to Figure 1, if the price of a single share in Microsoft is \$50, how much market value is generated in total?

### Test your knowledge...

- Which macroeconomic objective does fair taxation of TNCs help achieve?

### Extended-response question

- Discuss the effectiveness of increasing corporation tax to help reduce a budget deficit.

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# Answers

## Mark scheme for extended-response questions

### 10 marks

Knowledge (2), application (2) and analysis (2)		
	0	No relevant answer given.
Level 1	1–2	A few concepts and examples may be identified correctly, but may be absent of thought behind the causes and effects.
Level 2	3–4	Some knowledge of economic concepts is shown, partially linked to reasoning skills, but may focus too much on one side of an argument.
Level 3	5–6	Knowledge of the economic concepts is accurate. Links to the question and examples. Analysis is well reasoned, 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 reasoning and evidence.
Level 2	3–4	Accurate, balanced evaluative comments are made, supporting a response directly to the question.

### 12 marks

Knowledge (2), application (2) and analysis (4)		
	0	No relevant answer given.
Level 1	1–2	A few concepts and examples may be identified correctly, but may be absent of thought behind the causes and effects.
Level 2	3–5	Some knowledge of economic concepts is shown, partially linked to reasoning skills, but may focus too much on one side of an argument.
Level 3	6–8	Knowledge of the economic concepts is accurate. Links to the question and examples. Analysis is well reasoned, 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 reasoning and evidence.
Level 2	3–4	Accurate, balanced evaluative comments are made, supporting a response 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 may be absent of thought behind the causes and effects.
Level 2	4–6	Some knowledge of economic concepts is shown, partially linked to 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 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 reasoning.
Level 2	3–4	Clear evidence of evaluative comments, though they may be unfair or one-sided. Reasoning / supporting evidence are provided may be limited.
Level 3	5–6	Accurate, balanced evaluative comments are made, supporting a response directly to the question.

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**25 marks**

Knowledge (4), application (4) and analysis (8)		
	0	No relevant answer given.
Level 1	1–4	A few concepts may be identified correctly, but inconsistently, and thought behind the causes and effects.
Level 2	5–8	Some knowledge of economic concepts is shown, partially linked to incomplete or basic reasoning skills.
Level 3	9–12	Good knowledge of the relevant economic concepts is displayed, with evidence to support the main arguments. Analysis is well developed on one side of an argument.
Level 4	13–16	Knowledge of the economic concepts is very accurate. Links to the examples. Analysis is well reasoned and logical, and appropriate for the question.
Evaluation (6)		
	0	No evaluation.
Level 1	1–3	Limited attempt at evaluation – may be only loosely related to the question and reasoning.
Level 2	4–6	Clear evidence of evaluative comments, though they may be unfair or one-sided. Reasoning / supporting evidence provided may be incomplete.
Level 3	7–9	Accurate, balanced evaluative comments are made, supporting a reasoned conclusion directly to the question.

**Case Study 1: World economic superpowers: is the USA's reign over?***Use the data*

- Allow 5% either way
  - 30%
  - 40%
  - 10%
  - 25%
- Accept anything between 2% and 3%.
  - Accept anything between 10% and 11%.
  - If USA's growth was 2.5%, then in 15 years US GDP =  $15 * 1.025^{15} = \$21.7\text{tn}$ .  
In 15 years China GDP =  $6 * 1.105^{15} = \$26.8\text{tn}$ . China's GDP is larger (should give values given in (a) and (b)).

*Test your knowledge...*

- GDP per capita is GDP (the total value of output in an economy in a given time) divided by population size. (1)
  - Since China's population is so large, switching to GDP per capita figures means China's economy is smaller than India's. (1)
- The idea behind PPP is to adjust for the costs of living in different countries by using the same purchasing power. (1)
  - In the USA, \$100 wouldn't buy as much as it would in China. When we account for PPP, the USA's economy appears relatively larger than before. If the Figure 3 figures were not PPP adjusted, the USA's economy would appear considerably larger than China's. (1)
- Possible answers include:
 

- market reforms	- trade liberalisation
- low unit labour costs OR international competitiveness (not both)	- high levels of investment
- high levels of saving	- investment in foreign markets
- currency devaluation	

1 mark for each (max of 3)

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*Extended-response question*

1. GDP measures the total value of output in an economy. When you adjust for population standards (PPP) this can give a good impression of the *size* of an economy. However, when comparing the *success* of different economies, many important factors are omitted:
  - **Inequality.** Even per capita GDP figures give no indication of the distribution of income. A country may 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.

In your answer you could also make reference to 'composite' indicators such as the Human Development Index (HDI) of factors before comparing countries' performance (with respect to economic development). It is important to note that GDP does not account for the size of the 'black economy' (unrecorded or illicit economic activity) which can vary greatly between countries.

**Case Study 2: Venezuela's inflation problem**

*Use the data*

1. (a) Peru  
(b) 1.7%  
(c) Correct answers include Mexico, Peru, Ecuador, Bolivia and Uruguay. By consistently having a lower rate of inflation in each year than the last.

*Test your knowledge*

1. Inflation is the rate of change of (or a sustained increase in) the price level. (1)
2. (a) An increase in the money supply by the government / central bank. (1)  
(b) Causes of inflation are usually divided into 'demand-pull' and 'cost-push' factors. Demand-pull factors include an increase in any of the components of AD (consumption, investment, government spending, net exports). Cost-push factors could include increases in wage costs or input costs, or a decrease in aggregate supply if the population loses confidence in the currency.  
1 mark for each identified factor (plus brief explanation, e.g. increase in consumption leads to an increase in demand, which leads to inflation)
3. One way to look at this is that high inflation is expected to lead to a depreciation of the domestic currency. Domestic goods become less competitive (fall in demand for the currency), and foreign goods become more competitive (increase in supply of the currency): this leads to a fall in the exchange rate. (1)  
In a similar way, a depreciation of the currency is expected to lead to inflation, because domestic goods become more expensive (imported inflation). (1)

The relationship between inflation and exchange rates is complex, because both depend on many factors. However, it should at least be aware that high inflation is associated with depreciation.

*Extended-response question*

1. **Costs** – In a case such as Venezuela's where inflation is very high, the costs definitely associated with inflation that could be discussed include:
  - menu costs (mentioned in the text)
  - shoe-leather costs
  - uncertainty in markets
  - loss of international competitiveness (although this may be offset by a fall in the exchange rate)
  - Redistribution of income (e.g. savers and those on fixed incomes lose out)
  - Loss of purchasing power for consumers (particularly at high levels of inflation)

**Benefits** – However, when inflation is controlled and stable, it could be argued that there are some benefits. One argument is that it erodes the cost of repaying debts – so it could be beneficial to companies and governments (e.g. if I owe you £100, then there is high inflation, then when I pay you back £100 it is worth less). It could also be argued that low, but positive inflation helps wages to adjust, encourages saving, and reduces the risk of deflation (which can be very damaging).

For top marks, at least one benefit of inflation must be mentioned in addition to saving.

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### Case Study 3: Youth unemployment in Italy

#### Use the data

- The 55–64 age group data shows a slight rise in the unemployment rate between 2007 and 2013 (around 6%). The 15–24 age group also shows an increase, but a far more dramatic one, from a low of around 20% in 2007 to 40% by 2013.
- An increase of around 210,000 (accept 10,000 either way).
  - After a small increase in 1994, unemployment fell steadily until 2002. The next year it rose by two percentage points, before falling to a low of 20% in 2007. The overall trend was downwards.
- There are any number of possible solutions you could come up with, but virtually all have drawbacks. Example policies and drawbacks you might come up with could include:
  - Investing in education and training – long-term solution only (has an opportunity cost, but it's well worth it (the article states that more young people are going to university, but the article also states that this is politically unpopular).
  - Providing incentives/legislation to encourage employers to employ young people (has a cost, but it's well worth it (the article states that this is politically unpopular).
  - Investing in existing/new industries to expand employment opportunities (only a short-term solution, guaranteed in these sectors, very long-term solution).
  - Taxing older workers, who benefit from employment protection, to fund schemes for young people (politically unpopular).

#### Test your knowledge

- Unemployment rate = number of unemployed people / total labour force. (1)  
In this case, the total labour force has decreased, so the unemployment rate increases.
- The text already mentioned structural unemployment, so possible correct answers are seasonal unemployment, demand deficiency / cyclical unemployment, and unemployment caused by technological change.  
1 mark for each identified cause.

#### Extended-response question

- The answer should focus on both the economic and social consequences of unemployment. Social consequences include crime, health problems, lower living standards (leading to social problems, loss of skills, or any similar justified outcome).  
The main economic consequences include lower economic growth (since less is being spent on the lower economic activity), and a worsening government budget deficit (since tax revenues fall, and government spending increases, and tax revenues fall). The passage also mentions the possibility of a brain drain.  
To get higher marks, these consequences (particularly the economic ones) must be stated, not just simply state them.  
For evaluation points, it could be mentioned that some types of unemployment are long term, such as frictional unemployment (which is inherently temporary), seasonal unemployment (which is temporary) and possibly cyclical unemployment (so long as the economic downturn continues). It is also worth noting that in the case of Italy, where unemployment (and particularly youth unemployment) cannot be as easily ignored.

### Case Study 4: Brexit and trading blocs

#### Use the data

- Possible economic arguments in favour: higher GDP (or GVA), higher employment, easier entry for firms, lower financial transaction costs, harmonisation of product standards, and benefits for consumers.  
Possible economic arguments against: no membership costs, increased ability to form trade agreements, economies, removal of unnecessary regulations for firms.
- The contribution to UK employment of exports to the EU has fallen steadily since 2007, from around 3.15 million in 2014 (numbers don't need to be quoted). One possible reason is the global economy following the financial crisis. A similar answer would be the ongoing economic problems in the EU economies (e.g. Greece).

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*Test your knowledge*

1. A customs union is a free-trade agreement between countries (1) characterised by a common external tariff towards countries outside the customs union. (1) Note that a customs union is less integrated than a single market. A customs union does not usually include free movement of goods and people (you don't need to state this).
2. Possible disadvantages could include:
  - Damaging for economies outside the free-trade area
  - Loss of industries / unemployment in certain domestic industries, as they are not competitive on the international stage (winners and losers)
  - Potential for excessive/inefficient bureaucracy to emerge (particularly around harmonising regulations)

There are other general disadvantages of free trade in general you might mention (e.g. a sudden drop in demand for a commodity, could be disastrous if the market crashes).

*Extended-response question*

1. Possible **benefits** include:
  - Lower transaction costs (no need to change currency)
  - Elimination of exchange rate uncertainty (which may hold back trade – particularly in the long term)
  - Transparency (price comparisons are easier)
  - Trade creation and job creation (mostly as a result of the other factors above)

the context of a single market, not a monetary union): see Figure 1. You may also mention that trade may have been just as high outside the EU.

Possible **costs** include:

- Initial cost of changing currency
- Loss of independent monetary policy (this is very important in the Eurozone. A monetary union requires all countries needed different levels of expansionary monetary policy: since the bank implemented a 'one size fits all' monetary policy caused problems for many countries.)
- Loss of exchange rate flexibility (in the EU, some countries lost out because their currencies declined, but the euro didn't decline as strongly as they would have liked due to the influence of countries such as Germany).
- Asymmetric shocks (similar to the previous points: if one economy experiences a shock, it is harder to formulate an appropriate policy response)

In your answer you should talk about the conditions in which a monetary union would be successful (e.g. participating economies are similar in nature) and when they would be unsuccessful (e.g. economies are very different).

**Case Study 5: Subtle protectionism***Use the data*

1. A country may wish to restrict the supply of exports if it believes it can generate higher prices for its exports (supply low (and hence prices high). This is particularly effective for countries that have a comparative advantage in certain goods.
2. On the one hand, the increase may be because there was a legitimate rise in concern over the environment. However, it could also be a back-door attempt to restrict imports without violating WTO rules (which coincided with the financial crisis).

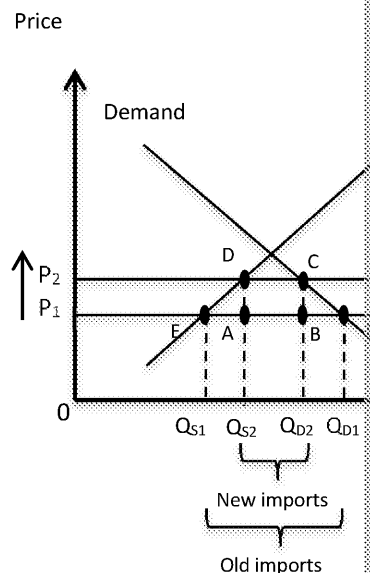
*Test your knowledge*

1. Tariffs are charges that affect the **prices** of particular imports (or exports) (1), whereas quotas affect the **quantity** of imports/exports. (1)

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2. If Country A imposes tariffs on the exports of Country B, it is likely that Country B will retaliate on Country A's exports. (1) Therefore, exporting firms in Country A will suffer. (1) The retaliation.3. Your diagram should show an upward shift in the world supply (which is perfectly elastic). (1) Price increases from  $P_1$  to  $P_2$ , (1) and quantity demanded falls from  $Q_{D1}$  to  $Q_{D2}$ . (1) Previously, imports were  $Q_{D1}$  minus  $Q_{S1}$  (1), now they fall to  $Q_{D2}$  minus  $Q_{S2}$ . (1) Deadweight losses are shown by areas EAD and BFC. (1) Tariff revenue is the area ABCD. (1) One more mark for correct labelling of axes and demand/supply curves.



#### Extended-response question

1. Imposing a tariff on imported cars makes it more expensive to buy imported cars, and makes domestically produced cars relatively cheap. At a basic level this should reduce imports (since prices are higher), increasing the (X-M) component of AD. However, this depends on the price elasticity of demand for imported cars: if demand is highly inelastic, consumers will accept the higher prices which would lead to a fall in (X-M) (remember: X-M refers to the value, not the volume). A tariff also influences the other components of AD. The government generates more revenue which may allow it to increase its spending (and a rise in G contributes to AD). If consumers switch to domestically produced cars, this will support job creation in the car industry. This should lead to an increase in consumption (since these newly created workers have income to spend). However, in your answer you should consider the effect of retaliation. If foreign cars exported from the UK, this could negate the positive effect on domestic employment (and AD).

### Case Study 6: The economics of inequality

#### Use the data

- This is not a perfect measure of inequality, because (a) it only measures the top 5% (other groups, such as top 10% or top 1%), (b) it is pre-tax (the picture might change if taxes are accounted for) and (c) it only measures income (it ignores wealth, which is another measure of inequality).
- The graph indicates that the US is an unequal society: a large proportion of the population has low levels of income, below the mean. The fact that mean income is significantly greater than the median is an indicator that income is skewed towards the top end of the distribution.
  - This would probably look more like a bell curve / normal distribution curve, i.e. clustered near the middle, and smaller proportions at the 'tails' (top and bottom).
  - In this case, one person/household would have all the wealth: so there would be a large proportion in the \$250,000 category.
  - In this case, everyone would have exactly the same amount of income (the mean would be the same as the median, going to 100% in the \$70,000 to \$79,999 category).
- You should first recognise that a higher Gini index indicates higher inequality (you could also mention that the trend indicates a fall in inequality from 1949 to around 1977, followed by a steady increase since then).

#### Test your knowledge

- A country experiencing high income inequality is likely to also experience high wealth inequality. (1) High income might be converted into savings (or wealth). (1)

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- The Lorenz curve shows the precise distribution of income over each percentile of the population. The Gini coefficient is just the ratio of the two areas (one above and one below the Lorenz curve). Two countries could have different income distributions (Lorenz curves) but identical Gini coefficients. The Lorenz curve gives a broader picture of income inequality than the Gini coefficient. Note: The Gini coefficient is known as a 'summary statistic' – it only contains a small amount of information. It is a useful tool for comparing different countries quickly.

#### Extended-response question

- From Figure 3, you should recognise that the USA, Germany and Norway are highly developed countries, Romania are somewhat developed, and Haiti is a low-developed country. The picture of development is, therefore, mixed: on the one hand, Brazil and Haiti are clearly much less developed than Norway: this could indicate that inequality decreases as a country develops. You could argue that this might be the case, e.g. less corruption, more progressive tax system, etc. However, the USA is considerably more unequal than Romania, which contradicts the idea that as a country develops, inequality decreases. Reasons why developed countries become more unequal, e.g. rate of return on wealth (Piketty's argument), more free-market orientated government policies, tax avoidance, etc. You can conclude that inequality increases with development or decreases with development (or is unclear) as long as your reasoning is well supported.

### Case Study 7: Mozambique – an African lion?

#### Use the data

- Clearly Mozambique's GDP growth rates have been much higher than the UK's since 2008 (without having to look at a graph for the UK). Also, Mozambique seems to have been through a financial crisis of 2008.
- GNI is the total income of all a country's citizens across the world (whereas GDP is the total income within a country's borders, regardless of nationality).
  - Output/income per person, rather than in total.
  - PPP (purchasing power parity) means that the figures are adjusted for the cost of living in each country.
- Since the expected years of schooling (for children entering school) is significantly greater than the actual years of schooling (calculated for those aged 25+), this indicates that the education dimension is a problem.

#### Test your knowledge...

- Other possible indicators could include: poverty rate, literacy rate, access to clean water, child mortality, environmental sustainability (although these are often linked to the economic indicators).
- Possible answers include: abundance of natural resources / international trade, economic growth, economic policies, foreign investment.

#### Extended-response question

- Your answer should note that having abundant natural resources can help boost economic development, but not in all cases (on this point you should mention the resource curse). You may also note that economic growth does not guarantee economic development. You should also mention factors that can improve development aside from having natural resources, e.g. education, good financial system, health, demographics, investment, savings and debt. It is expected that you will conclude that natural resources can help boost development if they are managed, but that it is only one of many potential factors that can contribute to economic development.

### Case Study 8: Productivity – the key to long-run growth?

#### Use the data

- Australia
  - Finland
  - Capital input – this has had a positive effect on every country's growth.
  - About 2% (between 1.5% and 2.5% acceptable)
  - Ireland gained 1% from capital input, but lost a little over 2% from labour input. The net result is a GDP growth rate of around -1.4% (between -1% and -1.8% acceptable).

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- Spain has suffered from severe unemployment since the recession (as well as very low growth). This is probably why the graph shows such a heavy loss in GDP from falling labour input.

*Test your knowledge*

- Diagram should show a shift to the left in aggregate supply. Up to 2 marks for correct labelling, up to 2 marks for showing the shift correctly.
- Possible factors include: technological improvements, changes to regulations, demographic changes, migration, competition policy, infrastructure investment, improvements in the healthcare system (other examples are possible if they can be justified). 1 mark for each factor.

Price  
Level  
(£)



*Extended-response question*

- The benefits of this policy are clear: increasing productivity increases LRAS, which increases the ability of the economy to grow in the long run (greater potential growth). This could be illustrated using a diagram showing how better education increases productivity. Several evaluative comments could be made, including:
  - Opportunity cost involved with funding the scheme
  - Possible that more money could be spent on education, but actual quality of education may be poor
  - Economic growth would only occur if demand keeps up with supply
  - If everyone becomes better educated, it may be harder for people to find jobs as the supply of skilled jobs increases
  - Long time lag between starting the policy and seeing results: politicians may not be re-elected

**Case Study 9: Market failure in the financial sector**

*Use the data*

- Figure 2 suggests that the UK was more exposed to a financial crisis, since the total amount of credit to the private sector was a larger proportion of GDP.
- It fell from around 14,000 to around 7,000, a fall of 50% (accept (45–55%) or 7,000 or 6,000).
- Examples of arguments for **more** regulation (not exhaustive):
  - Prevent future crises
  - Protect consumers
  - More stable economic growth

Examples of arguments for **less** regulation:

- Free-market functions better without government interference
- Banks should be allowed to fail so they make better decisions in the long run
- Could enable more consumers to access credit (in the absence of any future crisis)

There is no right answer to this question, it may be the case that there are specific areas that should be regulated.

*Test your knowledge*

- Possible answers include: to facilitate saving, to facilitate lending, to facilitate the exit of failing firms, to provide markets for equities, currencies or commodities. 1 mark for each correct answer.
- Negative externalities are not mentioned. (1) In the case of the financial crisis, when banks were failing, they did not consider the full social cost of this action (1) (which was the loss of jobs and income).

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*Extended-response question*

- The central bank (the Bank of England in the UK) has many different roles to play in the financial sector.
  - Setting monetary policy** – the base interest rate set by the central bank influences the financial sector. Furthermore, the central bank can provide liquidity to financial institutions (one way of lending to banks to increase the money supply). This helps facilitate economic growth for businesses and households.
  - Regulating the financial sector** – the Bank of England plays an important role in regulating the financial sector, requiring banks to hold certain amounts of capital in case of a crisis. They also promote competition in the financial sector, as well as monitor the overall stability of the financial system.
  - Lender of last resort** – the central bank can provide emergency funding to financial institutions in a crisis, to prevent a bank run (which is when people with deposits at the bank line up to withdraw their money at the same time – this happened to Northern Rock in the UK in 2007).
  - Promoting financial stability** – the central bank is charged with maintaining confidence in the financial system as a whole. It achieves this through the functions mentioned above and its ‘guidance’ strategy, where the bank announces future policy changes in advance so that there won’t be any sudden surprises.

Your answer should clearly explain two or three of these points.

Note: Since the financial crisis, regulation of the financial sector has been delegated to various bodies in England including the Prudential Regulation Authority (responsible for making sure that banks are not taking on excessive risks), the Financial Policy Committee (responsible for monitoring threats to the stability of the financial sector) and the Financial Conduct Authority (responsible for protecting consumers and promoting competition in the financial sector). You don’t need to know any of these details for the exam.

**Case Study 10: Canada’s economic policies**

*Data response question*

- GDP per capita = \$50,000 and population = 35 million, so GDP = \$1.75 trillion. Government spending as a percentage of GDP = 0.865. Government money terms:  
Government debt =  $1.75 \times 0.865 = \text{\$1.5 trillion}$
- Figure 2 states that energy consists of 10% of GDP. GDP is \$1.75 trillion, so energy is \$0.175 trillion.
- Canada’s population is 35 million, and Figure 2 states that  $16 + 1.8 = 17.8$  million people are in employment. So the percentage of Canadians in employment =  $(17.8 / 35) \times 100 = \text{50.857\%}$
- From Figure 2: roughly **16%** (accept 15–17%)

*Test your knowledge*

- We would expect the % of government spending as a share of GDP to increase, so the graph should show an upward trend over the next few years. 1 mark for identifying increase / upward trend.
- You can either show an increase of both AD and AS on one diagram, or show them on separate diagrams. 2 marks for labelling, 1 mark for shift in AD, 1 mark for shift in AS. Note: the eventual effect on the price level will depend on how you draw the curves: in this graph no change in the price level is shown but an increase/decrease is also correct.

*Extended-response question*

- You could structure your answer either by talking about short-term positives/negatives or by talking about all the positives over both the short- and long-term and then moving on to the costs/benefits approach:
 

**Short-term benefits:**

  - Boost to employment leading to boost in economic growth. Potential for multiplier effect.

**Short-term costs:**

  - Possible inflation if AD shifts significantly (since AS takes a while to catch up)
  - Increase in budget deficit. Could reduce market confidence, increasing interest rates, which could have negative effects, if markets have faith in the long-term economic benefits of the plan.

**Long-term benefits:**

  - Greater efficiency/productivity (evaluation: this is assuming that the infrastructure investment doesn’t go over budget)
  - Higher potential economic growth rate

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**Long-term costs:**

- Potentially higher debt repayments (depends if the benefits from the higher growth outweigh the costs)
- May have to lay off workers who were employed only temporarily

You could draw an AD/AS diagram to illustrate your answer, or simply refer to the diagram (rather than drawing it again). You can conclude that the policy would be beneficial as long as it is well justified (e.g. you may argue that it would be good because Canada has a large resource sector or you may decide that it would be bad because Canada faces falling export prices, low

**Case Study 11: Ireland's housing market bubble**

*Data response question*

- If average income is €30,000, and long-term average house prices are eight times average income, the average price of a house in Q4 1980 is:  
 $8 \times 30,000 = \text{€}240,000$   
 (Since in Q4 1980 the index = 100)
  - In Q1 2007, the index of 166.2 shows house prices are 66.2% higher than the price in Q4 1980. The price in Q1 2007 would be  $240,000 \times 1.662 = \text{€}398,880$ .
- The answer is (c) – it is impossible to determine. Since the prices are all in index figures, we can't compare house prices. Even though Ireland's house prices were proportionally higher in 2007 than in 1980, the UK could have been higher to start with.
- We know from Figure 2 that China's real house prices have followed a modest upward trend since 2000. This can't be explained by falling house prices. A more likely explanation is that the average income has risen steadily: this is a fact you should be aware of (China has single-handedly lifted a substantial proportion of the world's population out of poverty in the last few decades).

*Test your knowledge*

- Ireland's house prices increased rapidly from Q1 1993 to a peak in Q1 2007 (1 mark), around 2007 (1), when prices slowly began to pick up again.
  - The index number for Q1 2007 is 344.1. This indicates that (real) prices are 3.44 times larger than in Q4 1980 (when the index number was 100). Any answer between 3 and 3.5 times larger is acceptable.
- Ireland's fiscal policy consisted of increasing government spending and reducing tax revenues. Budget = tax revenues – government expenditure, this should lead to a budget deficit. You can make arguments that in the long term lower taxes lead to higher tax revenues, but you need to mention the mark for identifying fiscal policies, 1 mark for explaining how they lead to a deficit.

*Extended-response question*

- Your answer should note that deregulation of markets is traditionally seen as positive for the productive capacity of an economy, shifting LRAS to the right. This should be shown on an AD/AS diagram (labelling, and shift in AS shown correctly). You could explain that freeing businesses to operate is generally seen as positive (it often increases employment), and that it may enhance and encourage foreign investment into the country (as it did in Ireland's case). It also differs from many other supply-side policies (e.g. education).

On the negative side, clearly in Ireland's case too much deregulation was a bad thing. It led to a housing bubble, which then burst, leading to a recession. This is a bad thing. If financial institutions cannot effectively self-regulate, then they need to be regulated or overseen to some degree. On an AD/AS diagram, you could potentially show the AS curve shifting right (during the boom) following by a fall in AS (during the recession) – this is not required. Your conclusion should mention that the effectiveness of deregulation depends on the degree to which the industry is able to self-regulate.

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**Case Study 12: Footloose TNCs: Google vs HMRC***Use the data*

1. (a) If the exchange rate is £1=\$1.5, then Google's revenue in the period was £4.33bn. If the tax rate is 26%, then profit was  $(0.26 * 4.33) = £1.13\text{bn}$ . Total tax paid was £46.2m, which is a very generous tax rate indeed!  
(b) In this case, the effective tax rate would be five times larger, or 20%. This is more on whether this is a fair way to calculate it or not.
2. Facebook (\$183.9bn from only 9,200 employees).
3. 6,670,000 (333.5bn divided by 50)

*Test your knowledge*

1. It helps to reduce inequality in society, since it goes some way to prevent the senior executives from taking excessive profits. (This assumes that any excess profits are kept by company members instead of being paid out as dividends to the business.) (1)  
You could also argue that it helps the government to keep a balanced budget, since it increases tax revenues.

*Extended-response question*

1. Based on the article and economic theory, this would generally be seen as a bad policy. You could argue that raising corporation tax would raise government revenues, reducing the budget deficit (the gap between government spending and government revenues). However, there are some arguments against this:
  - Laffer curve (the idea that increasing the tax rate could reduce tax revenues, due to the fact that companies would move to other countries with lower tax rates)
  - Companies can avoid taxes / are footloose (as explained in the article: particularly Google)You may argue that this policy would be ineffective unless it is coordinated with other measures to reduce tax avoidance, unless certain tax 'loopholes' are closed (but this is easier said than done!).

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