



Data Response Case Studies

For A level Year 2 AQA Economics

Macroeconomics: The National and International Economy

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Contents

Thank You for Choosing ZigZag Education.....	
Teacher Feedback Opportunity	
Terms and Conditions of Use	
Teacher’s Introduction.....	
Youth Unemployment in Italy	
Case Study.....	
Questions	
Policy Conflicts – Inflation and Unemployment.....	
Case Study.....	
Questions	
Understanding Government Bonds	
Case Study.....	
Questions	
Central Banking: the BOE and the ECB.....	
Case Study.....	
Questions	
Market Failure in the Financial Sector	
Case Study.....	
Questions	
Canada’s Economic Policies.....	
Case Study.....	
Questions	
Productivity – the Key to Long-run Growth?	
Case Study.....	
Questions	
Ireland’s Housing Market Bubble	
Case Study.....	
Questions	
World Economic Superpowers: is the USA’s Reign Over?	
Case study	
Questions	
Brexit and Trading Blocs	
Case Study.....	
Questions	
Subtle Protectionism	
Case Study.....	
Questions	
Mozambique – an African lion?.....	
Case Study.....	
Questions	
Answers	

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Teacher's Introduction

This resource is designed to be used for teaching A Level AQA Economics 4.2: The economy. The resource consists of 12 Data Response Case Studies intended for use as homework tasks.

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 information (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 resource 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	Specification Reference
1. Youth unemployment in Italy	4.2.3.2 – employment
2. Policy conflicts – inflation and unemployment	4.2.3.4 – possible causes of macroeconomic fluctuations
3. Understanding government bonds	4.2.4 – financial markets
4. Central banking: the BoE and the ECB	4.2.4 – financial markets
5. Market failure in the financial sector	4.2.4 – financial markets
6. Canada's economic policies	4.2.5.1 – fiscal policy
7. Productivity – the key to long-run growth?	4.2.5.2 – supply-side factors
8. Ireland's housing market bubble	4.2.5 – fiscal policy
9. World economic superpowers: is the USA's reign over?	4.2.6 – the international economy 4.2.1.4 – uses of net exports
10. Brexit and trading blocs	4.2.6.2 – trade
11. Subtle protectionism	4.2.6.2 – trade 4.2.6.3 – the balance of payments
12. Mozambique – an African lion?	4.2.6.5 – economic development

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Youth Unemployment in Italy

This case study requires knowledge of Section 4.2.3.2 – employment

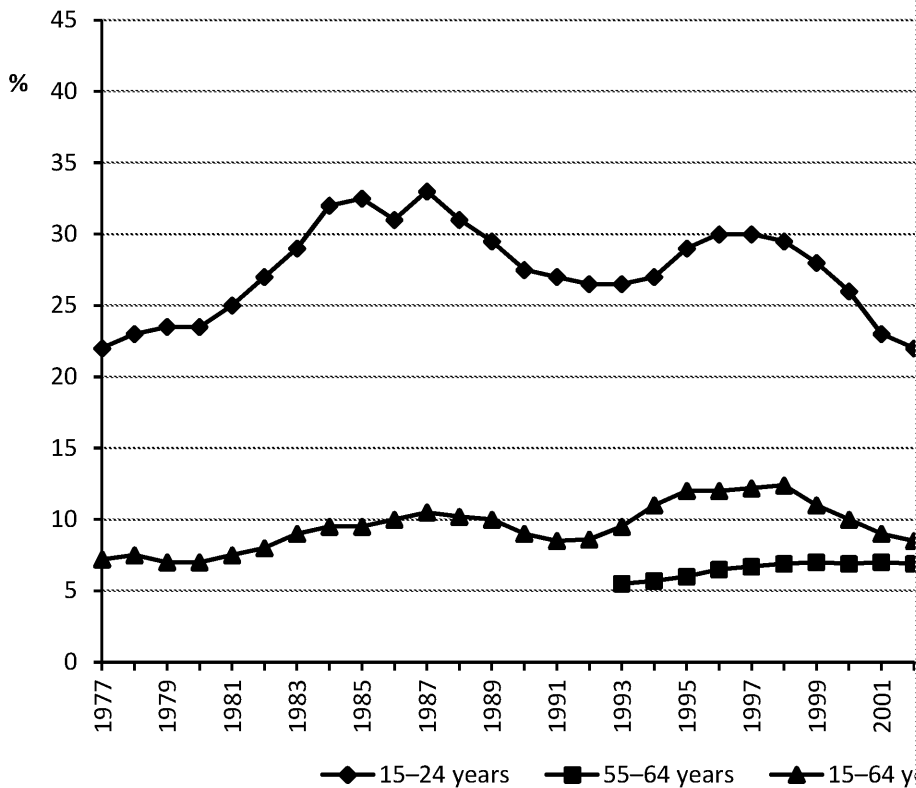
The economic crisis of 2008 had many short-term consequences – banks needed bailing out, monetary and fiscal policy needed loosening, firms needed to lay off workers. Although the general consensus is that the worst of the crash seems to be over, some problems look set to persist in the long term. For 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 2013). As the following chart shows, when Italy's unemployment rate is broken down by age, the results are striking.

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Figure 1: Unemployment Rates



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

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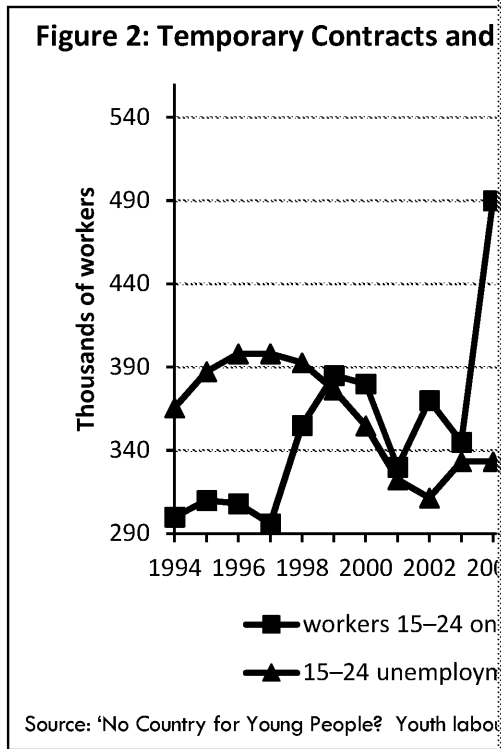


Research conducted by the Centre for Economic Policy Research (CEPR) suggests two explanations for the rise in youth unemployment rate:

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 increases the unemployment rate, ceteris paribus.
3. Although there have been difficulties for low-skilled NEETs, (Not in Education, Training), there have also been difficulties for graduates. University is a requirement for young people study to degree level, but the supply of available graduate jobs is low. 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.



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. List 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 higher unemployment 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. Your answer should also consider cases where unemployment may not be a concern in the short term.

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Policy Conflicts – Inflation and Unemployment

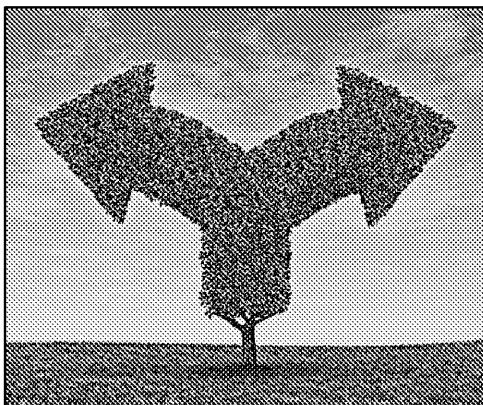
This case study requires knowledge of Section 4.2.3.4 – possible conflicts between objectives.

Economies rarely seem to perform exactly the way we want them to. If a problem, they often end up causing another in the process – a 'trade-off'. One trade-off 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 all real-world data it is not nearly as neat as the theoretical Phillips Curve. Inflation is measured by the Retail Price Index (RPI) and doesn't stretch back that far. Data is available for after 2000, but the relationship is less clear (particularly due to the disruption caused by the financial crisis).



How do we explain this trend line? One theory is that when unemployment is high, workers demand higher wages to attract workers. This leads to higher wages (cost-push). Furthermore, when wages increase, pushing up demand for goods and services (demand-pull), which pushes up the prices (demand-pull inflation). This happens when unemployment is high.

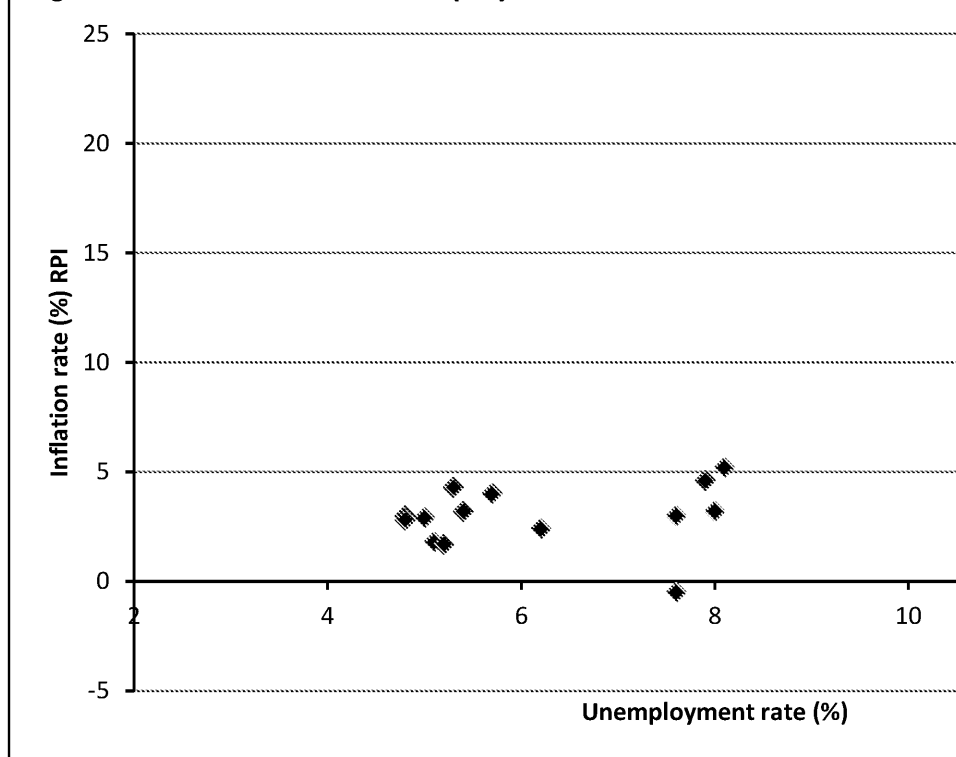
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However, it has been argued (and observed in the data) that the Phillips Curve has flattened over time. In the UK, after the financial crisis we have seen low unemployment (see Figure 2). This could be explained by the success of supply-side policies that expand the productive capacity of the economy (limiting inflation). Tighter 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 short-run Phillips Curve.
2. Look at the trend line in Figure 1. Suppose unemployment was at 9%. If unemployment fell by 1 percentage point, 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.

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Understanding Government Bonds

This case study requires knowledge of Section 4.2.4 – financial markets

Government bonds are staple products in the world of finance, and one of the ways governments borrow money. Pension funds and private individuals often buy them as a safe way to generate returns over time (since governments rarely default).

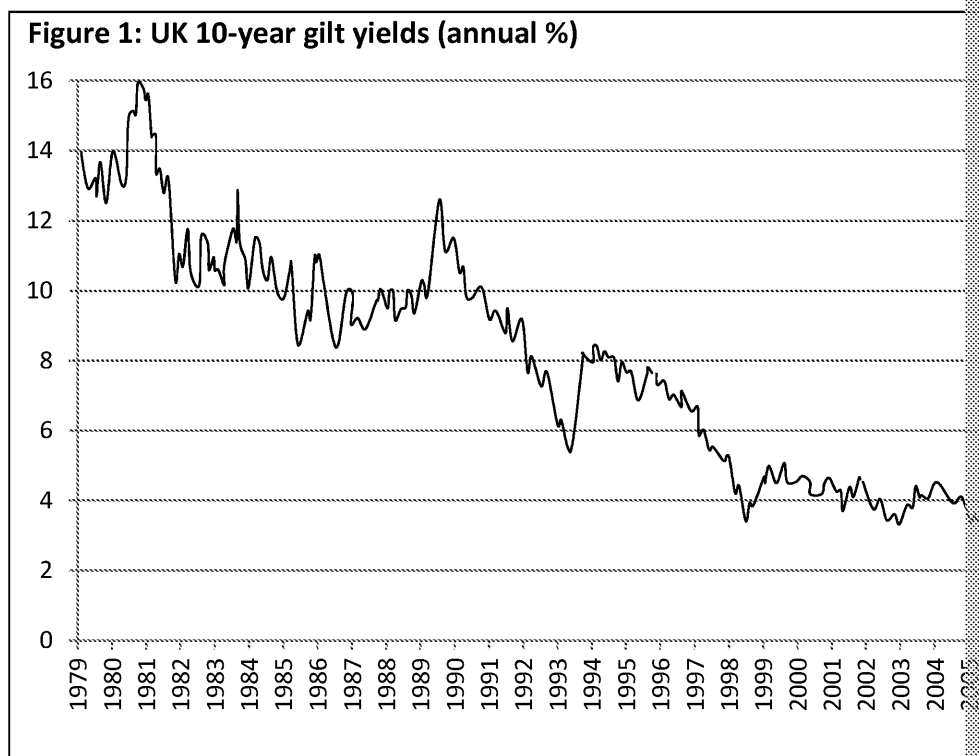
In the UK, government bonds are called gilt-edged securities or 'gilts' (commonly known as 'gold-edged'). Gilts have fixed 'maturity dates' (e.g. 5, 10 or 30 years). The amount invested is to be paid back, while interest is paid periodically.

As an example, suppose you bought a 10-year gilt worth £1,000. Each bond has a 'coupon rate' which is the annual rate of interest you get from the bond (the longer the maturity, the higher the coupon rate). In the UK this is paid once every six months, so if the coupon rate is 5% then you would earn £25 every six months until the gilt matures.

The coupon rate is determined by other interest rates in the market: there would be a 5% coupon rate if there were plenty of other products offering a 10% return. It does not account for inflation, so investors will have to consider whether this is a worthwhile investment.

In the real world, government bonds are often traded between people before they mature. In such cases, investors look at the 'yield' of a bond to determine its value. If market interest rates fall after buying your 5% bond, then your bond would be relatively valuable – someone would be willing to buy it for £1,100 rather than the initial £1,000 you paid. In this case, the yield would go down: since the new owner is still only getting 5% of the original £1,100 they paid for it. Yield is calculated as the annual interest payment (the coupon rate) divided by the price of the bond (so buying it for £1,100 would mean that the yield is 50 / 1100 = 4.5%).

Figure 1 shows the change in 10-year gilt yields since 1981:



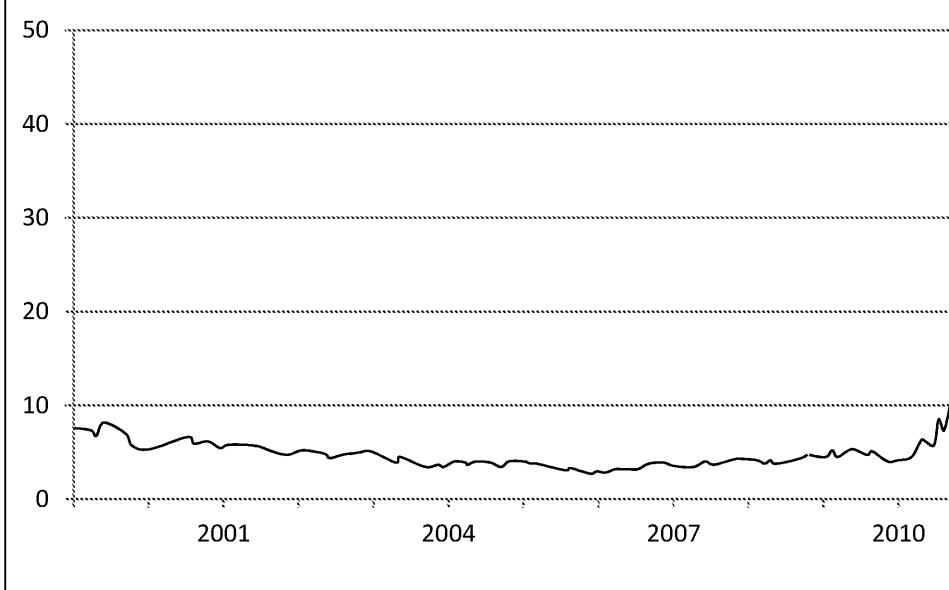
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Yields are at historic lows at the moment: one reason is that oil and food prices are high, leading to inflation (and low inflation makes the real value of existing bonds more valuable and pushing down yields). Another reason is that yields for German Bunds are even lower, which has increased the demand for gilts. This is good news for the UK as it can borrow money relatively cheaply.

Figure 2: Greek 10-year government bond yields (annual %)



Use the data

- Describe the trend in Greek government bond yields since 2008.
 - Explain why the yields on Greek bonds are consistently higher than the yields on German Bunds.

Test your knowledge

- The passage states that demand for gilts has increased, since German Bund yields are low. Explain why an increasing demand for gilts reduces the yield of gilts.
 - Suppose a £1,000 30-year government bond has an annual coupon rate of 5%. If the market yield falls to 4%, calculate the yield of this bond.
- Explain the difference between commercial banks and investment banks.

Extended-response question

- 'Low bond yields indicate that it is cheap for the government to borrow money. This is good news for the government as it can borrow more money to help stimulate the economy.' Explain why low bond yields are good news for the government to borrow money, and (in the context of the UK government) explain why borrowing is a result.

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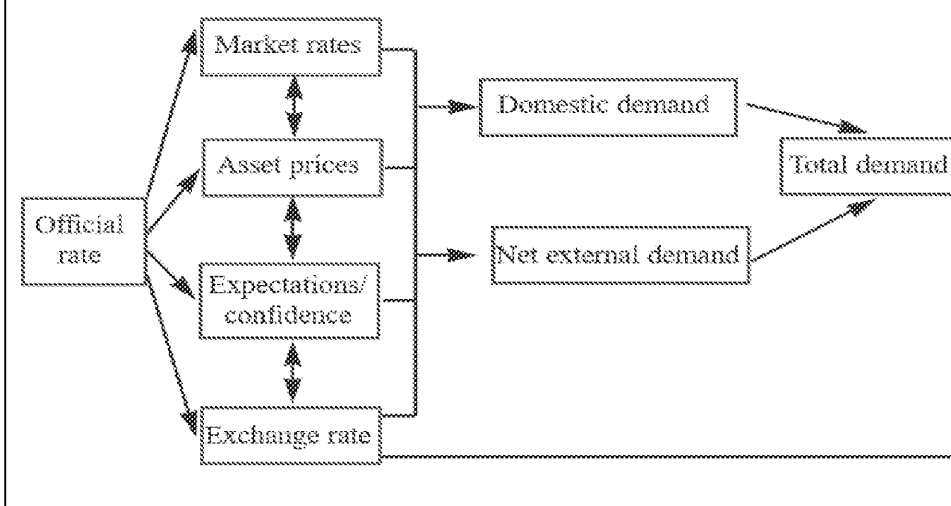


Central Banking: the BOE and the ECB

This case study requires knowledge of Section 4.2.4 – financial markets

Central banks, along with the government, have a key role in managing aspects of monetary policy. The main policy instruments that central banks can use are the money supply and changing the interest rate (which affects the economy via the ‘interest rate mechanism’).

Figure 1: Monetary policy transmission mechanism



The Bank of England

The BoE became independent from the UK government in 1998. At that time there was a consensus among economists that central banks should be independent, to avoid manipulating monetary policy for their own reasons (e.g. printing money).

The Bank of England is tasked with maintaining financial stability in the economy, and keeping the currency and inflation at around 2%. Since March 2009, the base interest rate has been set at 0.5%. Every three months, the BoE’s Monetary Policy Committee (a group of nine members, including the Bank Governor) produces a report explaining their decision on interest rates. In the March 2015 report, the Committee decided to keep interest rates low in light of low inflation, and weak prospects for growth.

Given the persistence of low inflation and relatively weak demand in the UK, the Bank has turned increasingly to the money supply as a means of expanding the economy. Traditionally, the money supply is increased simply by adjusting the amount of coins and banknotes in circulation. However, since the financial crisis ‘quantitative easing’ has become more prevalent. This involves purchasing government bonds in the hope that this increases the availability of credit for businesses and households.

Watch this short video for a fuller explanation of QE:

<http://www.bankofengland.co.uk/monetarypolicy/pages/qe/default.aspx>

The European Central Bank (ECB)

The ECB, created in 1998, is the central bank that manages the eurozone economy. Its primary objective is maintaining price stability, and aims to keep inflation just below 2% (similar to the BoE).

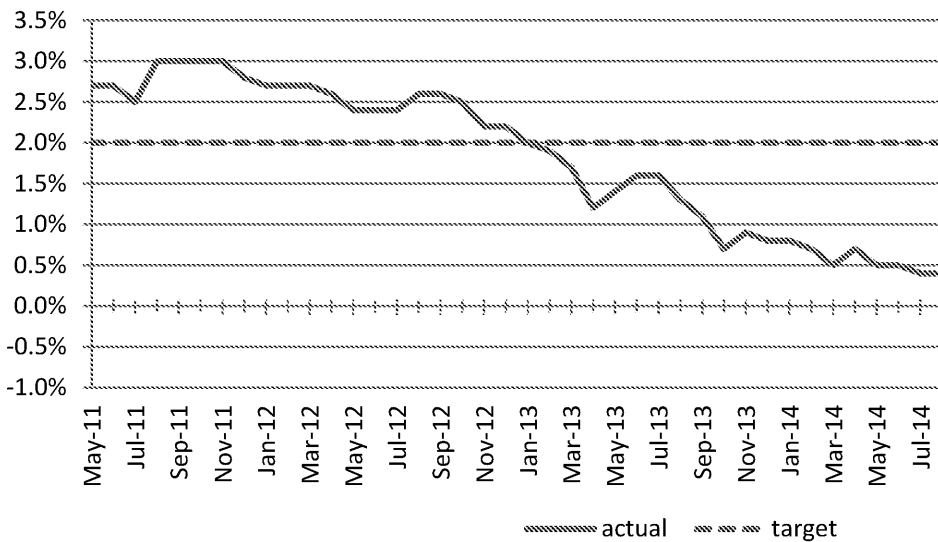
Recently, inflation has been very low in the eurozone, despite the very low interest rates. The ECB has repeatedly tried to kick-start growth via increasing the money supply (or quantitative easing), but inflation is yet to respond noticeably.

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Figure 2: euro area monthly inflation (annual rate)



Source: ECB Statistics. Inflation measure is the HICP (Harmonised Index of Consumers Prices). This is the same as the CPI, but with some adjustments.

With the continued weakness of the eurozone, the idea of using ‘helicopter money’ has gained traction. This is basically the central bank giving away money for free, perhaps through direct payments to households. This is the same idea as quantitative easing, but it bypasses banks and other financial institutions, with money going straight to households. This should increase consumer spending and thus stimulate the economy. This would be a highly controversial policy. Others have argued that there is no need for such a policy, as the economy will do on its own to stimulate an economy, and that there is a greater need for structural reforms in weak economies.

Use the data

1. Look at the monetary policy transmission mechanism diagram.
 - (a) Explain how the official interest rate affects the exchange rate.
 - (b) Explain how the exchange rate affects import prices.
 - (c) Explain how import prices affect inflation.

Test your knowledge

1. Using Figure 2:
 - (a) Identify a period of deflation
 - (b) Identify a period of disinflation
 - (c) Which of the following sets of price indexes correctly describes the inflation rate over the period identified in (b)?

Price Index	Feb-12	Feb-13	Feb-14
A	100	98.7	
B	100	102.3	
C	100	101.9	
D	100	101.6	

Extended-response question

1. Discuss the extent to which a central bank alone can help to lift an economy.

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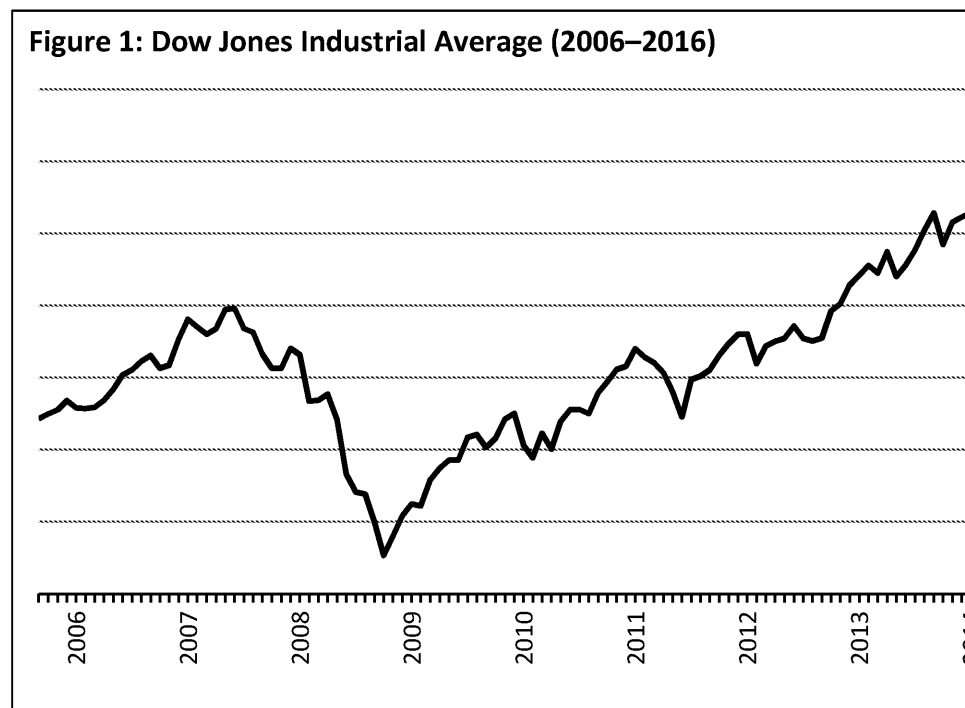
Market Failure in the Financial

This case study requires knowledge of Section 4.2.4 – financial market

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).



So, what were the specific market failures that led to this crash? Arguably 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 fully understood, or how risky they actually were (due to the lack of information that comes in). As such, when the credit bubble burst, banks and investors found out much too late how 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 new financial products (particularly in housing). Almost all banks were very highly 'leveraged' (i.e. they had borrowed a lot of money to invest in these products).

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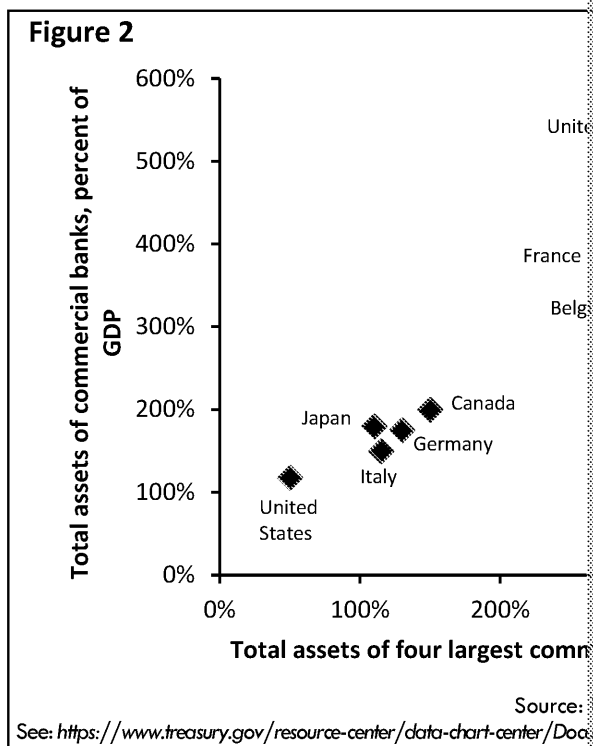
loans far exceeded the value of their reserve funds), so an unexpected decline was devastating. Since the crash, the rules on the amount of reserves banks tightened up.

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 is 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.



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 a 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 4.2.5.1 – fiscal policy

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

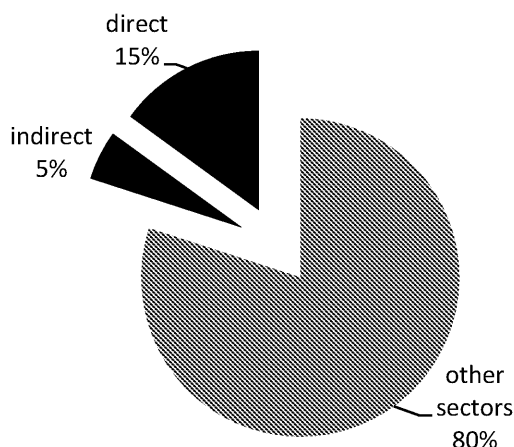
Quick facts	Canada
Population:	35 million
Area:	9,984,670 km ² (Second largest in the world)
GDP per capita (nominal):	\$50,000
Government debt (% GDP), 2014:	86.5

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 and 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 and Metals
 200,000 = Forestry

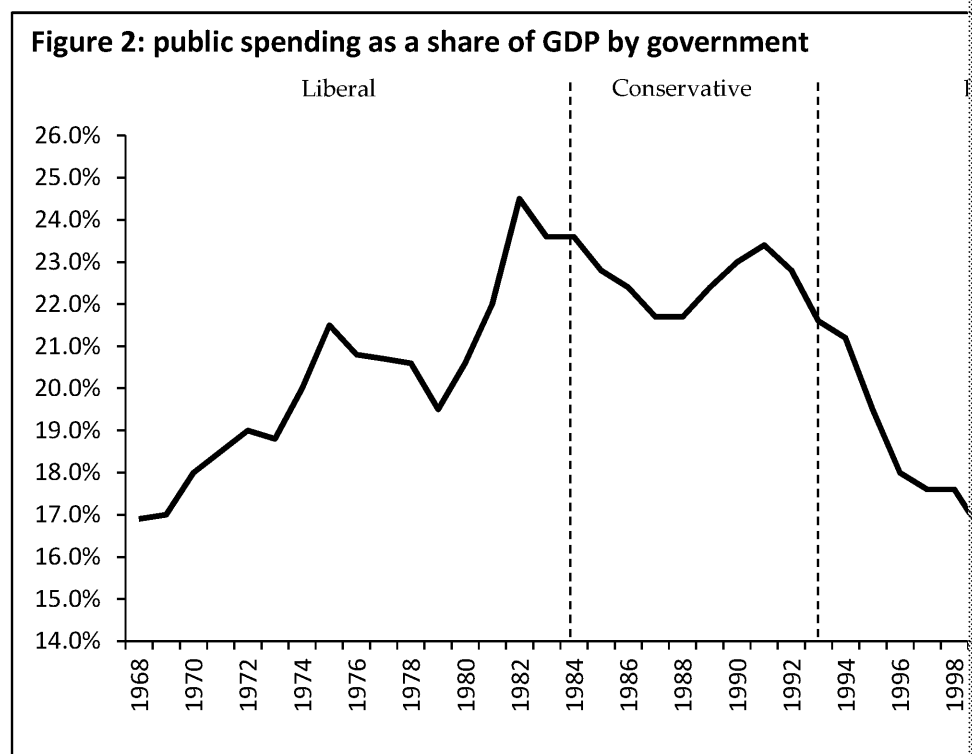
Source: Natural Resources Canada estimates (July 2014)

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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 1994, 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 that during the financial crisis of 2008, for example, 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 economy if the infrastructure plan described in the passage goes ahead?
2. Based on the information in the passage, show the effect of an increase in government spending on the AD/AS diagram.

Extended-response question

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

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Productivity – the Key to Long-run

This case study requires knowledge of Section 4.2.5.2 – suppl

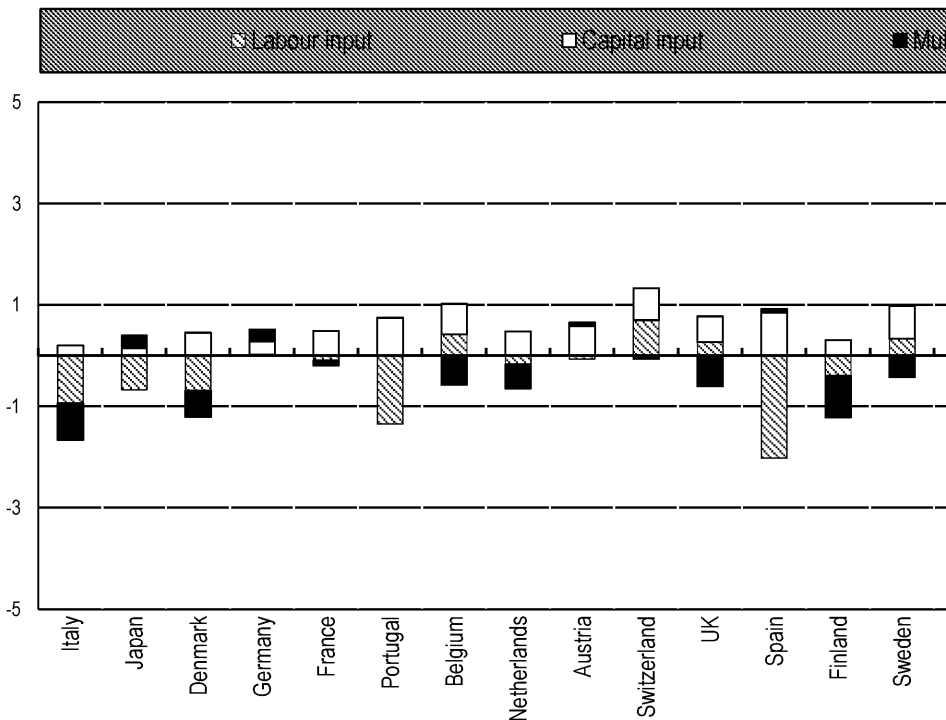
Most economists agree that in order to sustain economic growth in the long run, the supply-side of the economy must grow. For example, a government could try to increase the productive capacity of an economy by relaxing restrictions on the creation of new businesses, or investing in large infrastructure 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 percent (2007–2013)



Source: OECD Compendium of

In Figure 1, labour input refers to the quantity of labour used in the economy (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- 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 'growth triangle' 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 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 2012). 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 capital 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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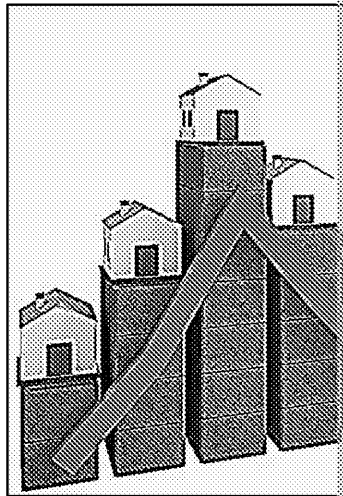


Ireland's Housing Market Bubble

This case study requires knowledge of Section 4.2.5 – fiscal policy and

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 take advantage of low rates (particularly following Ireland's entry into the Eurozone). There was very heavy investment in property because this sector had never crashed before. Confidence would prove to be misplaced. A range of investing, that investors should have diversified across a range of assets, seems to have been

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 for fiscal policy when the crisis hit.

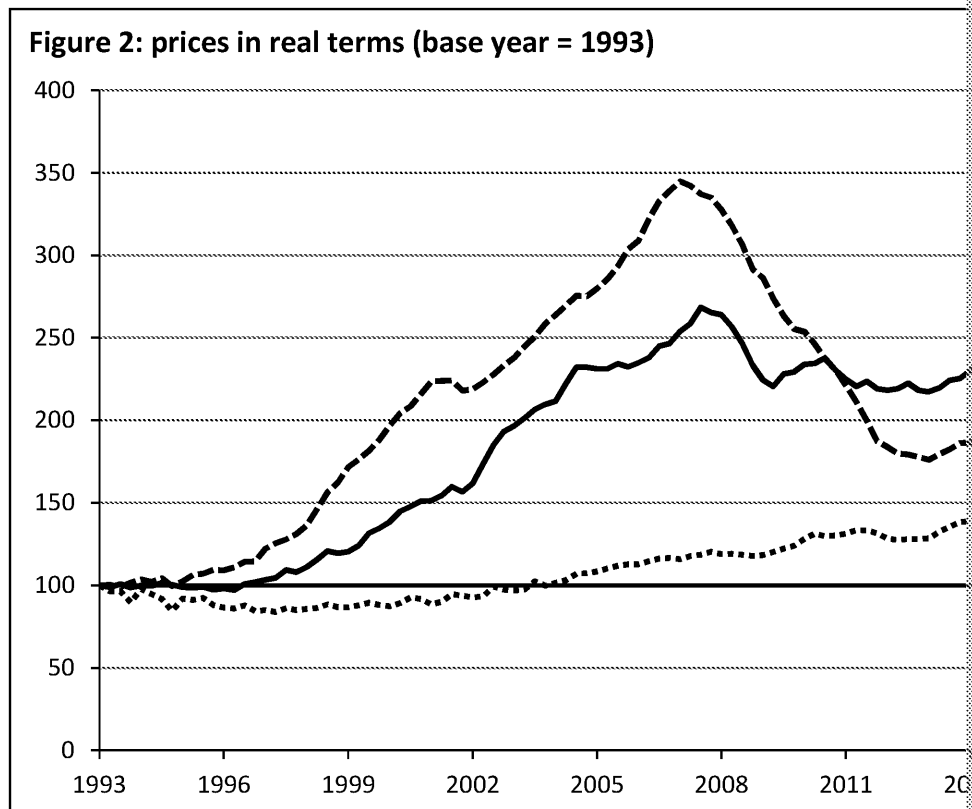
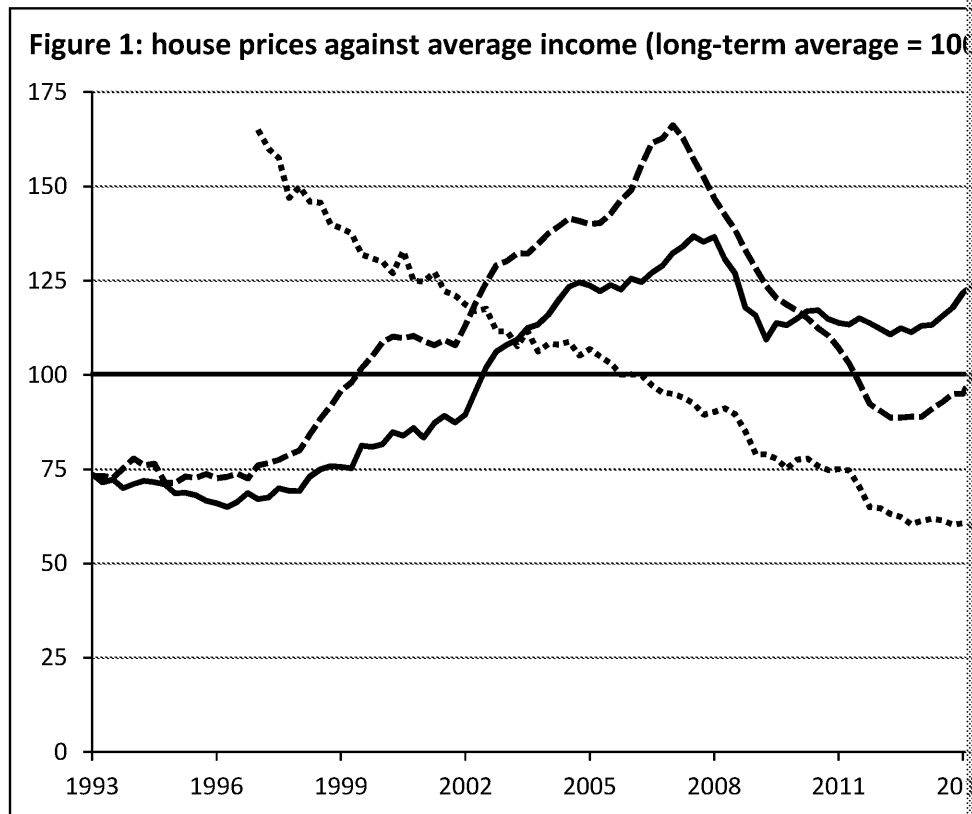
Furthermore, regulators of the banking industry seem to have failed to pick up on warning signs of an impending crash. This is particularly noteworthy since Ireland was not nearly as complex or opaque as some other advanced economies (where extremely complicated financial products or 'derivatives' was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

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Figures 1 and 2 show two historical measures of the housing market in Ireland. A bubble 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, the 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 than in Ireland?
 - (b) lower than in Ireland?
 - (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 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 industry. 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 supply-side policy.)

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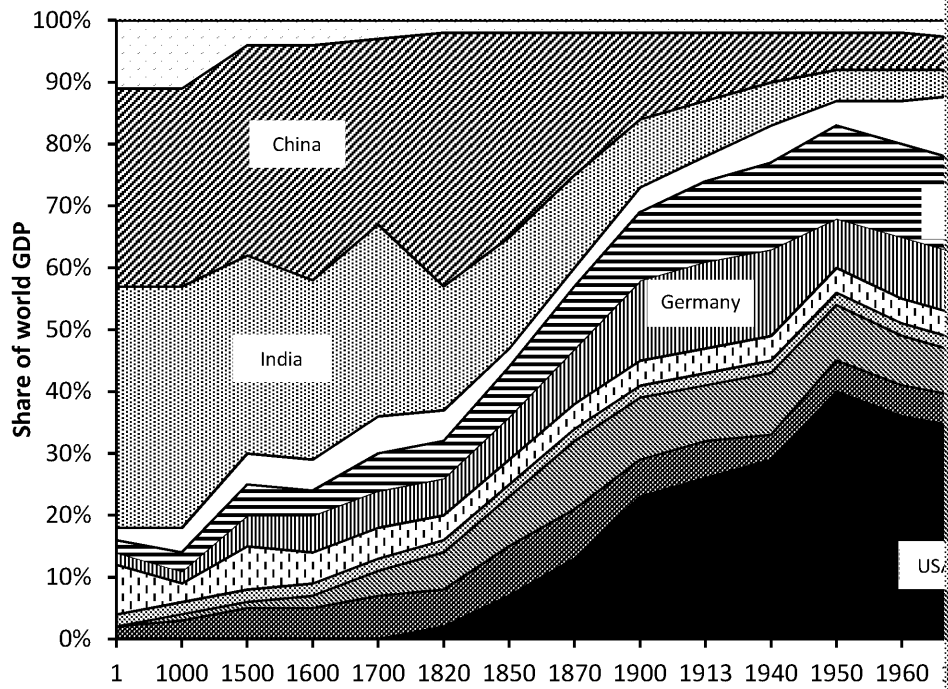
World Economic Superpowers: is the USA

This case study requires knowledge of Section 4.2.6 – the international economic income data.

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

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Figure 1: Economic history of China and other major powers



Some commentators reckon that the Chinese government are determined to maintain their title. Given the astonishing GDP growth rates recorded in China over recent years, it is likely that this will be a reality in the not too distant future.

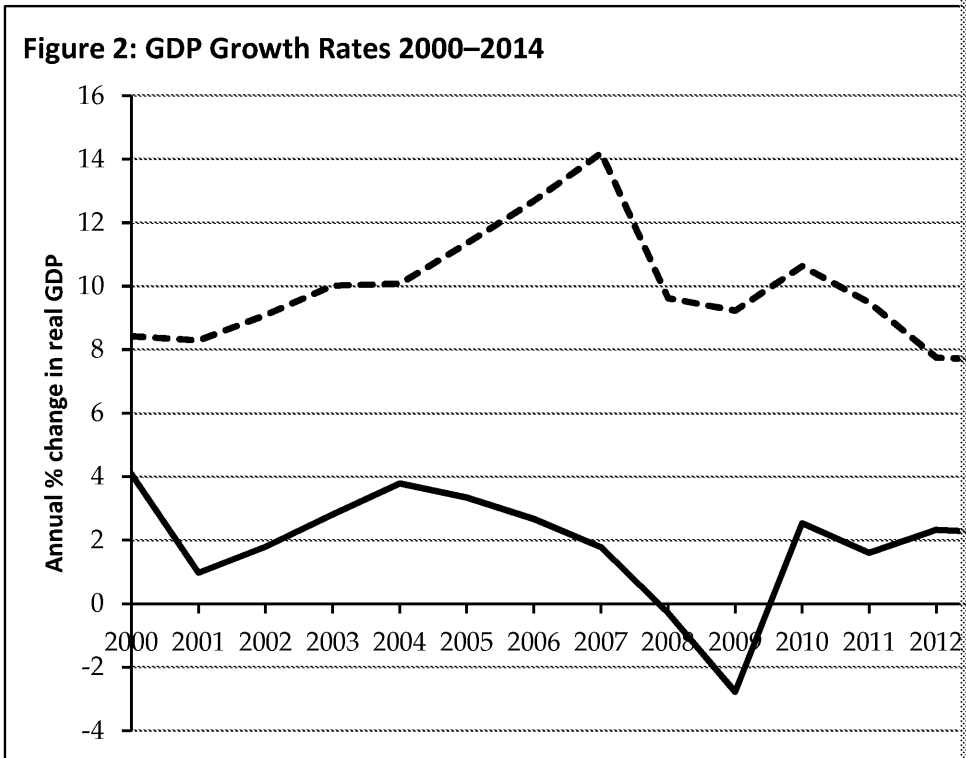
China has experienced breakneck growth rates since the introduction of market reforms following the collapse of communism under Chairman Mao. China's growth has been driven by high levels of investment and saving, and huge volumes of international trade. The Chinese economy has sought to exploit its comparatively low unit labour costs, enhancing its competitiveness (although, it seems now that wages in China are finally starting to rise, as labour dries up). More recently Chinese companies have been branching out into new international markets (particularly LEDCs, but also in the UK, such as the 2015 investment in the power industry).

Unlike most large modern economies, China does not have a pure floating exchange rate for its currency (the renminbi). Exchange rates were fixed against the US dollar from 1994 to 2005, but this gave way to a 'crawling band' system, whereby the government can adjust the exchange rate by small amounts. This has led to periodic devaluations of the currency in an attempt to boost exports. This growth strategy in particular has proven controversial and some question the sustainability of China's growth in the long term.

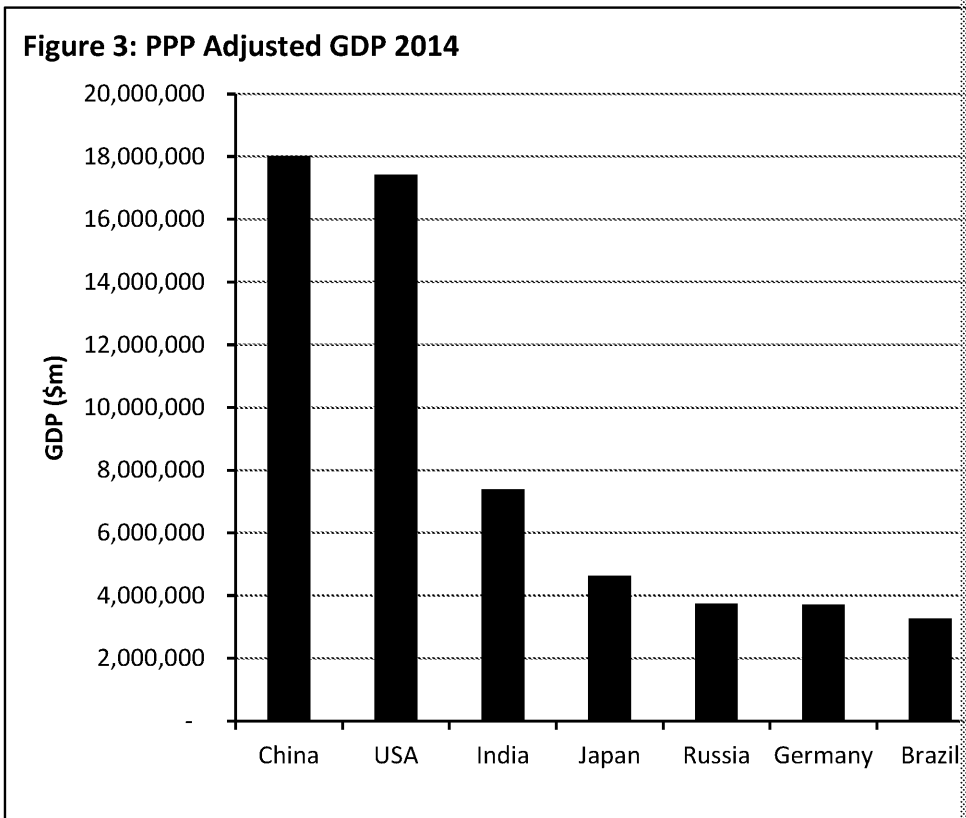
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The US was hit hard by the 2008 financial crisis, as the banking system was international trade collapsed. This prompted a dramatic response by the US to restore confidence and liquidity to the markets. More recently, though, things have improved and 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.



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 a few decades.



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Use the data

- Using Figure 1, roughly what share of world GDP did China make up in the following years?
 - 1000
 - 1820
 - 1950
 - 2008
- Looking at Figure 2:
 - Estimate the USA's GDP growth rate in 2010.
 - Estimate the China's GDP growth rate in 2010.
 - 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 the same growth rates for the next 15 years (i.e. by 2025) which economy would be the largest?

Test your knowledge...

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

Extended-response question

- '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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Brexit and Trading Blocs

*This case study requires knowledge of Section 4.2.6.2 –
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 most important 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 common monetary union – the Eurozone).

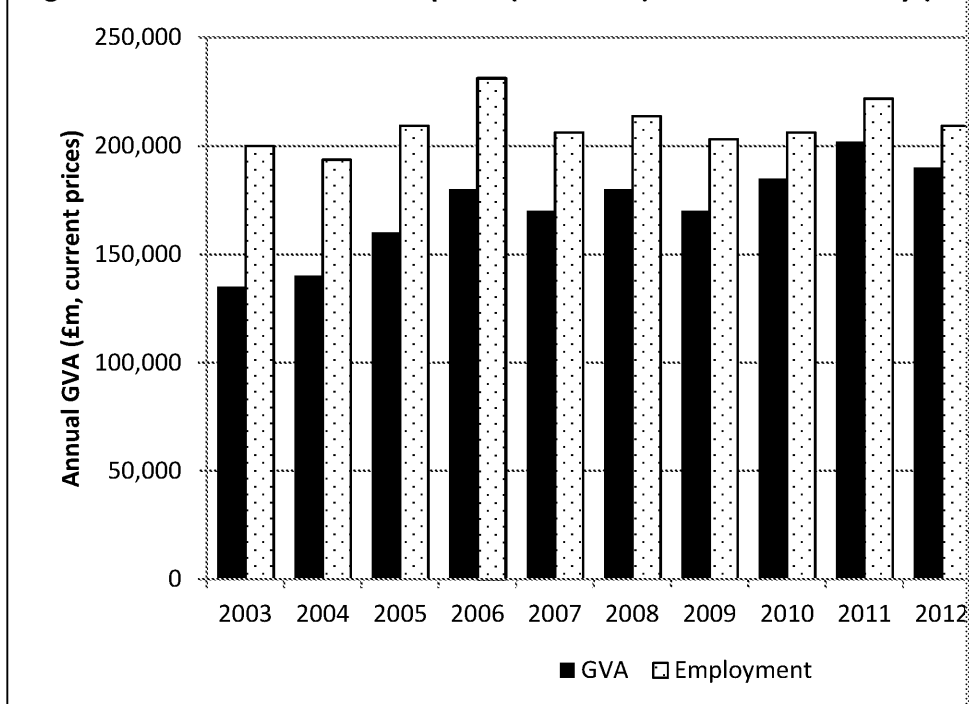
The basic idea of a trading bloc is to reduce trade barriers between participating members to benefit from free trade. In 2016, the UK faced the important decision of whether to stay in or leave the EU ('Brexit').

Supporters of Brexit (often called Eurosceptics), argued that leaving the EU would reduce costs and free UK businesses from unnecessary regulations. Crucially, they argued that the UK would be 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 'Remain' 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 should assume that all of these benefits would be lost when we left the EU. Perhaps we could also argue that the UK would 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 likely effect of EU membership, because there are so many more uncertain factors. It could depend on how the UK manages to leave, for example. Indeed, the uncertainty over what would happen after Brexit is one of the main arguments put forward by EU supporters.

It is generally agreed that the UK's decision to stay out of a union was a wise move during the Eurozone during the financial crisis. It is less clear whether Brexit will be for the benefit of the UK, as there are so many competing political interests at stake as well as economic interests.

Use the data

1. From the passage, identify one economic argument in favour of staying in the EU and one economic 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 disadvantages?

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 4.2.6.2 – trade and 4.2.6.3

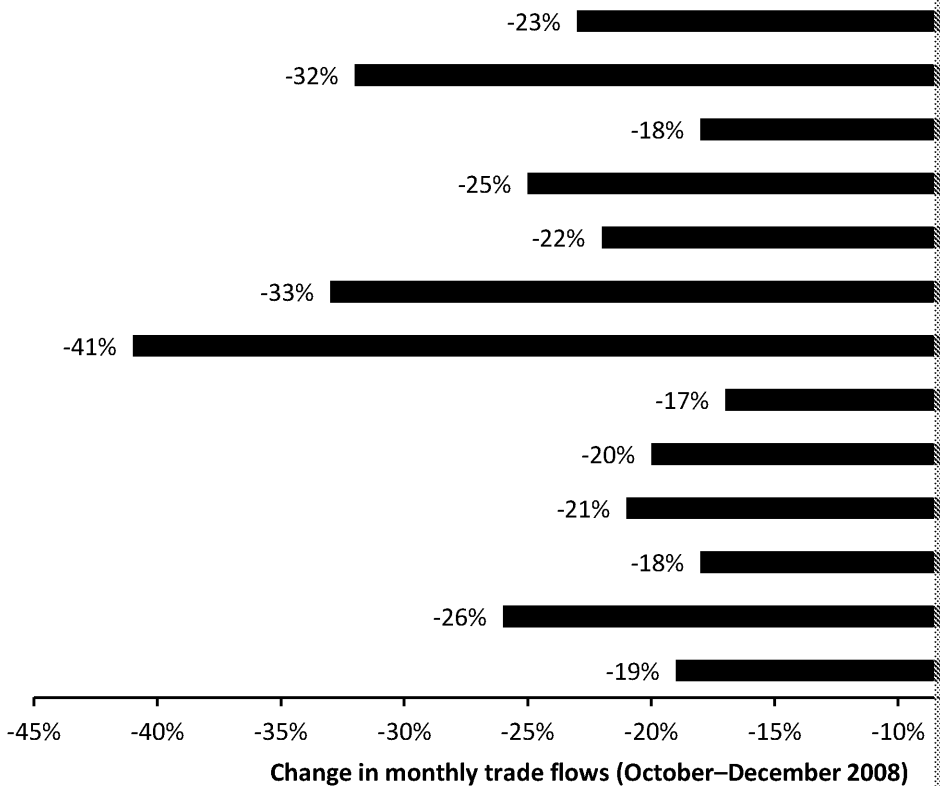
To what extent is protectionism a thing of the past? With the rise of huge international trading blocs, it seems that use of standard protectionist instruments such as tariffs, quotas, domestic subsidies, etc. has dwindled over time.

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 due to a more general acceptance of the virtues of free trade.



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



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

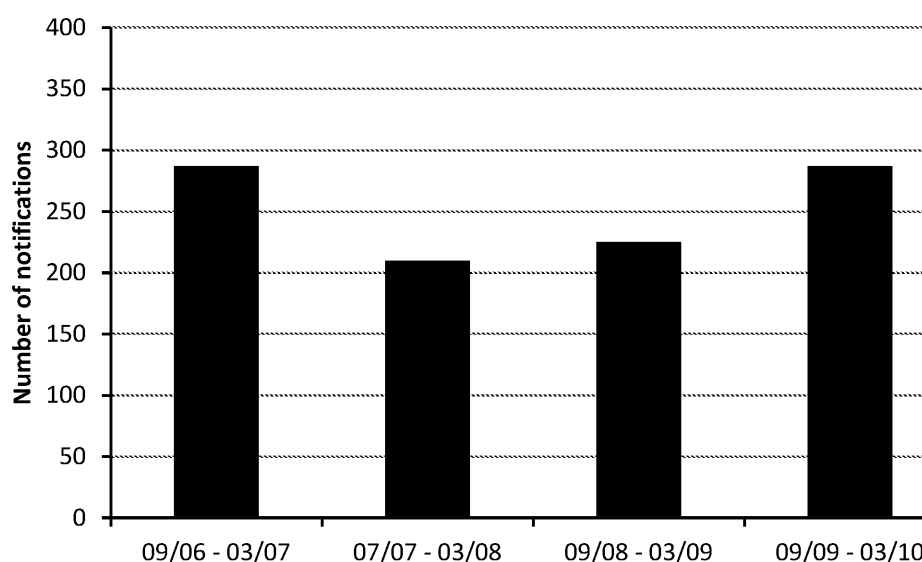
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However, there has been a notable rise in more subtle, 'murky' types of protectionist measures (e.g. technical barriers) in a wide range of countries, most notably in Russia. These measures are more difficult to quantify, and less obviously protectionist. 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 below their normal 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 several 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 entering a country.

These covert types of protectionism are difficult for the WTO to police effectively because they can be implemented in many different guises. Their presence seems to suggest that the age of protectionism is still young.

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 a country significantly increased protectionist trade measures. Explain the effect on the country's current account balance in the short term and long term.
3. Illustrate the effect of a tariff using a diagram. Identify tariff revenue, deadweight loss, and the effect on the price of imports.

Extended-response question

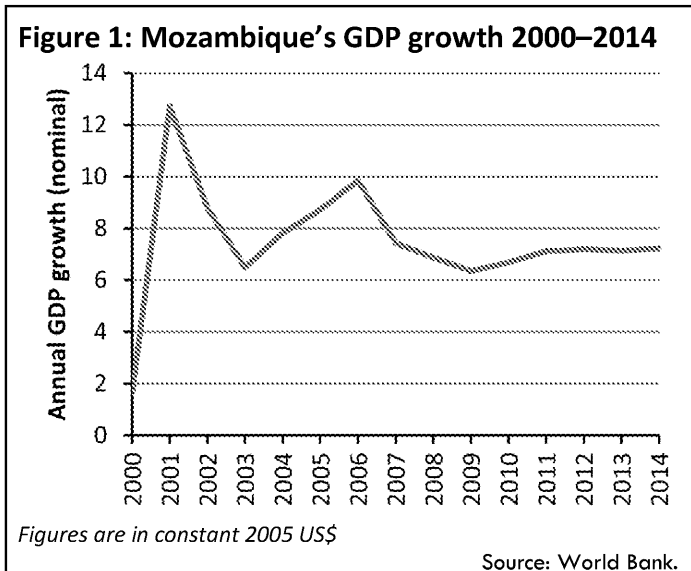
1. The UK imports and exports large numbers of cars. Discuss the effect on aggregate demand and the UK of imposing a tariff on imported cars.

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Mozambique – an African lion

This case study requires knowledge of Section 4.2.6.5 – economic growth



African economies in the media – for perception of Africa as under-developed. However, there are a number of African economies 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

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, increased 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 translating into human development. Figure 2 shows the components of the HDI index for Mozambique, which is a disappointing 180th out of 188:

Figure 2

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

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

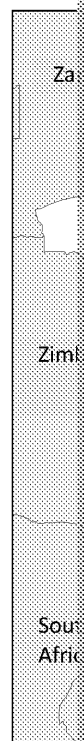
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One of the big concerns is that poverty rates (one of the key dimensions of economic development) are still high, with over half of the 25 million people in poverty. If the gains from economic growth do not trickle down into all parts of society, Mozambique's 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 in a country such as Mozambique.

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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 unbalanced. Reasoning / supporting evidence are provided may be relevant to the question.
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 reasoning.
Level 2	4–6	Clear evidence of evaluative comments, though they may be unfair on the argument. Reasoning / supporting evidence provided may be incomplete.
Level 3	7–9	Accurate, balanced evaluative comments are made, supporting a recommendation directly to the question.

Case Study 1: 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 1.5 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 some drawback. Example policies and drawbacks you might come up with could include:
 - Investing in education and training – long-term solution only (has an opportunity cost – the article states that more young people are going to university, but the cost is high).
 - Providing incentives/legislation to encourage employers to employ young people (may be politically unpopular).
 - Investing in existing/new industries to expand employment opportunities (only 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 include seasonal unemployment, demand deficiency / cyclical unemployment, unemployment due to involuntary/voluntary unemployment.
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). The passage also mentions the possibility of a brain drain.

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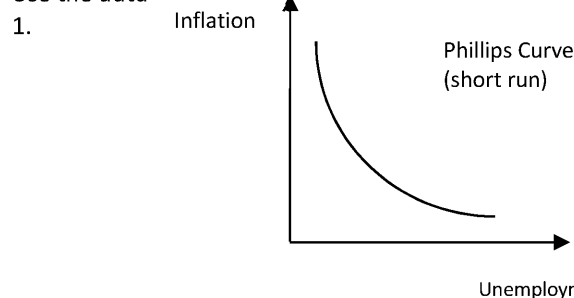


To get higher marks, these consequences (particularly the economic ones) must be simply stated.

For evaluation points, it could be mentioned that some types of unemployment are the 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 is temporary). Note that in the case of Italy, where unemployment (and particularly youth unemployment) cannot be as easily ignored.

Case Study 2: Policy conflicts – inflation and unemployment

Use the data



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 does not reflect 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 is high, 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. Mark for explaining how each one works (e.g. high economic growth can lead to devaluation). Mark 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 bring down unemployment to bring down inflation. Similarly, having very low and stable inflation is bad because it causes 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.

A good evaluative point would be that the question assumes that there is always a trade-off between inflation and 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

Case Study 3: Understanding government bonds

Use the data

1. (a) In 2008, Greek bonds yields were around 5%, but over the next few years they rose to a peak of over 40% around 2012. Yields then fell steadily, dipping below 10% before rising again to around 15% at the end of 2015. (Note: this is roughly the kind of detail expected for an exam answer, although a bit less.)

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- (b) The main reason why the yields on Greek bonds (particularly during the financial crisis) are higher than yields on gilts is because lending to the Greek government is considered to be riskier than lending to the UK government.

Test your knowledge

- (a) If demand for gilts is high, then the price of gilts goes up (1). When the price of gilts goes up, the yield falls (1). (Note: see the numerical example in passage if this is confusing!)

(b) The yield is $70 / 850 * 100 = 8.2\%$. (1 mark for method, 1 mark for answer). The yield on the bond fell.
- Broadly speaking, commercial banks focus on taking deposits and lending money (1). They also operate in all sorts of different areas of finance, such as buying and selling government bonds, other investments, and helping companies with mergers and acquisitions. (1)

Extended-response question

- Your answer should first explain the link between bond yields and government borrowing. Remember that the yield on a bond is not the same as the coupon rate! If bond yields are low, this means that the market interest rate must be high. If prices of existing bonds are high, then market interest rates must be low (existing bonds have a higher interest rate than new ones). Falling market interest rates means that the government can borrow more cheaply: they won't have to pay out very much once the bond matures.

As for whether this means that the government should increase its borrowing levels, you should be given more information to go on before answering a question such as this. Here are some of some general points:

- It depends on how high current levels of borrowing are. If the government already has a high level of national debt, it might be considered unwise to increase borrowing even if interest rates are low. The cost of repaying the national debt will probably go up (after all, if the government issues more bonds, the cost of borrowing is likely to rise).
- It depends on the growth rate of the economy. If the economy is growing rapidly, then the government can borrow more without worsening the national debt as a proportion of GDP. Gains from economic growth can offset higher costs of servicing the debt.
- If the economy is in a deep recession, then it might be sensible to increase borrowing. This is especially true if it is coordinated with monetary policy, whether there is an appropriate destination for the borrowing, whether there is confidence in the government's ability to keep borrowing. In the case of Greece, borrowing costs went up sharply when markets realised that the Greek government was unlikely to repay (see Figure 2).

Case Study 4: Central banking: the BoE and the ECB

Use the data

- (a) When the official interest rate in the UK goes up, it makes it more attractive for investors to hold pounds, so the exchange rate appreciates (more demand for pounds). Similarly, when the interest rate falls, it is less incentive to save in pounds so the exchange rate depreciates (less demand for pounds).

(b) When the exchange rate is high, import prices fall, since they appear relatively cheap in terms of the domestic currency. Similarly, when the exchange rate is low, import prices rise, since they appear relatively expensive in terms of the domestic currency.

(c) Low import prices lead to lower inflation (since the price of import goods forms part of the price index). So, following the chain all the way through, a rise in the interest rate reduces inflation through the 'exchange rate channel'. Similarly, high import prices lead to higher inflation. Therefore, a cut in the interest rate increases inflation through the exchange rate channel.

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Test your knowledge

1. (a) Deflation is when interest rates are negative (1). Any month/period between Dec-14 (1), you could also have Sep-15 or Feb-16.
 - (b) Disinflation is where the interest rate is falling (but not necessarily negative) (3) graph where inflation is falling (e.g. May-11 to Jan-15) (1).
 - (c) The correct answer is C. The easiest way to answer this is by eliminating the other options. A cannot be right because the index is lower in Feb-13, even though inflation was positive. B cannot be right because the index is lower in Feb-14 than Feb-13, even though inflation was positive for this period. D cannot be correct since it shows a rise in the index between Feb-14 and Feb-15, which is actually slightly negative for this period.
- The actual calculation for the right answer is:
- Feb-13 index = $100 * 1.019 = 101.9$ (plus 1.9%)
 Feb-14 index = $101.9 * 1.007 = 102.6$ (plus 0.7%)
 Feb-15 index = $102.6 * (1 - 0.003) = 102.3$ (minus 0.3%)

Extended-response question

1. Your answer should first explain some of the roles a central bank should play in an economy. Central banks are likely to lower the interest rate to stimulate the economy, and they may also have to increase the money supply and/or trying to boost market confidence and credit creation in the economy during a recession.

Your answer should evaluate whether the central bank can expect to solve the problem. There are several ways in which the bank might be constrained:

- **Interest rates might already be very low, which limits the central bank's ability to lower them further.** Central banks tend to be reluctant to let interest rates fall below zero, as this can have negative effects on financial markets. Recently, however, some central banks have allowed interest rates to fall below zero (e.g. the Bank of Japan and Sweden)
- **Banks might not be able to stimulate credit growth if market confidence is low.** In the UK after the financial crisis: despite large amounts of quantitative easing, credit growth was slow. This reflected uncertainty about the future of the economy and consumers and businesses are only so much a central bank can do in this case.
- **The central bank has no control over fiscal policy.** Since the central bank only has limited control over how the economy performs. During recessions, it is likely that fiscal policy will be needed to stimulate the economy in addition to monetary policy measures.

Case Study 5: Market failure in the financial sector*Use the data*

1. Figure 2 suggests that the UK was more exposed to a financial crisis, since the total amount of non-performing loans as a proportion of GDP.
2. It fell from around 14,000 to around 7,000, a fall of 50% (accept (45–55%) or 7,000)
3. 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

1. Possible answers include: to facilitate saving, to facilitate lending, to facilitate the provision of services, to provide markets for equities, currencies or commodities. 1 mark for each correct answer.
2. Negative externalities are not mentioned. (1) In the case of the financial crisis, when banks were lending to risky customers, they do not consider the full social cost of this action (1) (which is the risk of default).

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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 credit flow to 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 the stability of the financial system as a whole. It achieves this through the functions mentioned above and its ‘forward 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 banks don’t take 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 6: 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 = $1.75 \times 0.865 = \mathbf{\$1.5 \text{ trillion}}$
- 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 = $(17.8 / 35) \times 100 = \mathbf{50.857\%}$
- 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, 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 investments don’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 in the long run as long as it is well justified (e.g. you may argue that it would be good because Canada has a large resource base or you may decide that it would be bad because Canada faces falling export prices, low

Case Study 7: Productivity – the key to long-run growth?*Use the data*

1. (a) Australia
(b) Finland
(c) Capital input – this has had a positive effect on every country's growth.
(d) About 2% (between 1.5% and 2.5% acceptable)
(e) 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)
2. 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

1. 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.
2. 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

1. 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 output). This can be illustrated using a diagram – it may also be helpful to explain how better education can increase 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 for this reason

Case Study 8: Ireland's housing market bubble*Data response question*

1. (a) 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:
 $8 * 30,000 = €240,000$
 (Since in Q4 1980 the index = 100)

(b) In Q1 2007, the index of 166.2 shows house prices are 66.2% higher than the 1980 price. The average price in 2007 would be $240,000 * 1.662 = €398,880$.
2. The answer is (c) – it is impossible to determine. Since the prices are all in index figures, we cannot 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.
3. 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 its population out of poverty in the last few decades).

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Test your knowledge

- Ireland's house prices increased rapidly from Q1 1993 to a peak in Q1 2007 (1), around 2012 (1), when prices slowly began to pick up again.
 - The index number for Q1 2007 is 344.1. This indicates that (real) prices are 3.441 times larger (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. $\text{budget} = \text{tax revenues} - \text{government expenditure}$, 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 provide evidence. 2 marks 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 is generally seen as positive (it often increases employment), and that it may encourage and encourage foreign investment into the country (as it did in Ireland's case). It also encourages investment in infrastructure (e.g. education). Unlike 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 was a bad behaviour to emerge. 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 a shift in AS (during the boom) following by a fall in AS (during the recession) – this is not necessarily a negative conclusion. Your conclusion should mention that the effectiveness of deregulation depends on the direction of the shift in AS and the industry to start with.

Case Study 9: 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 $\text{US GDP} = 15 * 1.025^{15} = \21.7tn . In 15 years $\text{China GDP} = 6 * 1.105^{15} = \26.8tn . 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 that India appears much smaller (does India). (1)
- The idea behind PPP is to adjust for the costs of living in different countries by using the same purchasing power of different currencies. (1)
 - In the USA, \$100 wouldn't buy as much as it would in China. When we account for PPP, the USA appears relatively larger than before. If the Figure 3 figures were not PPP adjusted, the USA 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 infrastructure
- currency devaluation	

1 mark for each (max of 3)

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Extended-response question

- 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, to judge 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) which takes account of factors before comparing countries' performance (with respect to economic development). However, 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 10: Brexit and trading blocs*Use the data*

- Possible economic arguments in favour: higher GDP (or GVA), higher employment, increased competition for firms, lower financial transaction costs, harmonisation of product standards which benefits consumers.

Possible economic arguments against: no membership costs, increased ability to form trade agreements with other 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 downturn in the global economy following the financial crisis. A similar answer would be the ongoing economic problems in some EU economies (e.g. Greece).

Test your knowledge

- A customs union is a free-trade agreement between countries (1) characterised by the removal of trade barriers between countries outside the customs union. (1) Note that a customs union is less integrated than a single market as it does not usually include free movement of goods and people (you don't need to state this).
- 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 harmonisation of regulations)

There are other general disadvantages of free trade in general you might mention (such as the loss of a commodity, could be disastrous if the market crashes).

Extended-response question

- Possible **benefits** include:
 - Lower transaction costs (no need to change currency)
 - Elimination of exchange rate uncertainty (which may hold back trade – particularly in 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. Different countries needed different levels of expansionary monetary policy: since the EU has a 'one size fits all' monetary policy caused problems for many countries.)

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- Loss of exchange rate flexibility (in the EU, some countries lost out because the pound declined, but the euro didn't decline as strongly as they would have liked due to the stability of 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 (if participating economies are similar in nature) and when they would be unsuccessful (if the economies are very different).

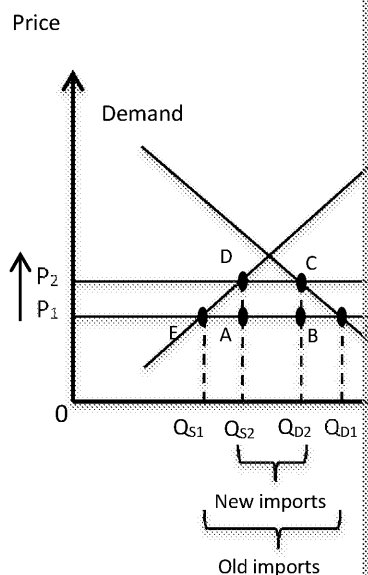
Case Study 11: Subtle protectionism

Use the data

1. A country may wish to restrict the supply of exports if it believes it can generate higher prices and hence 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 current account. 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), where **quantity** of imports/exports. (1)
2. In the short term, it is likely that the current account balance will improve (larger value of exports should fall (1). This could hold true in the long term as well; however, trading partners will retaliate, cancelling out the improvement in the current account balance or worsening it (2).
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, a fall in demand for imported cars: if demand is highly inelastic, consumers will accept the higher price of imported cars, which would lead to a fall in $(X-M)$ (remember: $X-M$ refers to the value of net exports).

A tariff also influences the other components of AD. The government generates more tax 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 countries impose a tariff on cars exported from the UK, this could negate the positive effect on domestic employment.

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Case Study 12: Mozambique – an African lion?

Use the data

1. Clearly Mozambique's GDP growth rates have been much higher than the UK's since 2009 (without having to look at a graph for the UK). Also, Mozambique seems to have been through a financial crisis of 2008.
2. (a) GNI is the total income of all a country's citizens across the world (whereas GDP is calculated within a country's borders, regardless of nationality).
(b) Output/income per person, rather than in total.
(c) PPP (purchasing power parity) means that the figures are adjusted for the cost of living in each country.
3. Since the expected years of schooling (for children entering school) is significantly greater than the years of schooling (calculated for those aged 25+), this indicates that the education dimension is a key factor in development.

Test your knowledge...

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

Extended-response question

1. 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, a good financial system, health, demographics, investment, savings and debt.

It is expected that you will conclude that natural resources can help boost development, but that it is only one of many potential factors that can contribute to economic growth.

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