



Quantitative Skills for A Level Edexcel Economics B

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Teacher's Introduction

Edexcel has published a list of the quantitative skills in Economics required for the new course. 15% of the overall marks awarded at AS and 20% of the marks at A Level will require 'at least Level 2 [GCSE] mathematical skills'.

Economics students sometimes find the numerical skills required for success a challenge. This resource has been produced with the intention of providing them with the opportunity to review the specific topics and concepts mandated by the exam board that require numerical understanding. Where possible, data from real-world sources is used to expand contextual understanding. This will help with the data-response questions found in the exams as well as aiding the student to 'think like an economist' more generally.

Each section within the resource allows students to examine both theoretical notes and worked examples. Theory is discussed when needed but the focus is predominantly on quantitative methods.

Students have the opportunity to complete practice questions, some of which are in exam style, which will help develop the necessary numerical skills and consolidate understanding. These questions should build students' confidence in having the required ability to demonstrate their full potential in AS and A Level Economics, in both class and examination conditions.

This resource covers all of the topics mentioned in the quantitative skills annex of the Edexcel specification. Each skill is structured as follows:

- **Part A: Specification Overview** – this provides an overview of the term or concept specified by the exam board and the understanding required. This includes details of where skills are applied to A Level only material.
- **Part B: Theoretical Overview** – a brief summary of the key points associated with the numerical term/concept. Content is linked to the relevant part of the specification with the symbol shown on the right. » Topic 1.1.1
- **Part C: Example** – detailed numerical and written responses to exam-style questions.
- **Part D: Practice Activities** – skills 1–11 are concluded with practice activities that allow students to demonstrate their understanding of the relevant terms and concepts.

Included in this workbook are two additional quantitative skills that are not required in the DfE Subject Content for Economics list. These are the **Level of a Variable and the Rate of Change** and **Composite Indicators**. These are covered after the first 11 skills and because of their nature do not include practice activities. *Note that these have been adopted from the Economics A specification but are nevertheless relevant to the Economics B specification – especially **Composite Indicators**, which covers the Human Development Index (HDI).*

At the end of the resource can be found:

- a **Quantitative Skills Assessment Activity**, which provides students with the opportunity to complete an assessment which is presented in a format similar to that which they will encounter in their exams (this is also provided as an A5 booklet master)
- **suggested Answers to Practice Activities**, which provide a mark scheme for the practice activities that appear in Skills 1 to 14
- the **Mark Scheme for the Quantitative Skills Targeted Test**, which provides a mark scheme for exam-style assessment
- a short **appendix** with some key economic indicators for the UK provided as reference

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April 2018

Students' Introduction

Economics is the science of choice. In order to analyse and inform the choices of governments, the subject has to be a quantitative discipline. At AS and A Level there is a lot of maths involved, but the key is that maths is not used for the sake of it: there is always a question that needs to be answered. Questions are an opportunity to apply your economic knowledge to real data.

Those taking A Level Maths should find most of the quantitative content straightforward. If stuck with a question, then don't panic: all of the information you need is in the question. Think 'what can I do with these numbers?'

This resource will guide you through the quantitative skills required for the course. You will have covered a lot of it already at GCSE – means, medians, ratios and fractions, but for you to work through the questions and examples to expose yourself to the ideas. By practising the techniques, you will ensure some relatively easy marks in the exam and the longer-answer questions. Good luck!

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SKILL 1: CALCULATE, USE AND UNDERSTAND RATIOS AND PROPORTIONS

Part A: Specification Overview

The idea of ratio and proportion is important and relevant throughout the specification. It is a key feature when analysing a firm's financial information through ratio analysis, when considering capacity and capacity utilisation, and also when considering the degree of oligopoly in a market (as examined at A Level *only*).

Part B: Theoretical Overview

A ratio is a comparison between two quantities. Usually these are expressed as 'x : y'. A ratio of 6 : 8 boys to girls in a class tells us that there are 6 boys for every 8 girls. There are many examples – for example – 12 boys and 16 girls.

The ratio in the example above can be reduced from 6 : 8 to 3 : 4. It still tells us the same thing – the relative quantities of boys and girls remain unchanged. We could reduce it even further to 1.5 : 2, which, of course, indicates the same thing – but of course pupils can't be divided so it's best to use whole numbers (or at least integers) when talking about people.

Note, further, that ratios can be reduced such that they represent decimal proportions. The ratio of 6 : 8 can be presented as 0.43 : 0.58 by dividing both sides by the *total* (which in this case is 14, so 6/14 = 0.43 and 8/14 = 0.58). These numbers sum to 1, so these numbers can be quickly converted to percentage terms by multiplying by 100. In Economics, a ratio is much more likely to be expressed as just one number and not two, because the other option is often *implicit*.

If we talk about the *capacity utilisation* ratio, for instance, then we are considering it as a proportion of the firm's maximum possible output (that is, their 'capacity'). If a firm's resources and factor inputs fully and efficiently, it is said to be operating at full capacity. If what is actually being used is what *isn't* being used, but this need not be stated explicitly. The capacity utilisation ratio (which serves as the basis for a percentage calculation (QS2)) can be expressed as a number. This is because the ratio has been reduced, as we did with the pupils, to a single number. This allows us to think of the ratio more clearly as a *proportion* of a whole.

Firms' individual capacity utilisation is likely to differ from business to business as there's no 'typical' value to analyse. However, let's assume that some firm has a degree of spare capacity (perhaps because it wants to build in some 'slack') and its capacity utilisation ratio is 0.80. Traditionally, this ratio would be expressed in the format 80 : 100, but this number denotes the proportion of the firm's capacity that is *not* being utilised (if the ratio was 0.20, it would denote the proportion of the firm's capacity that is not being used implicitly from the capacity). Because the ratio has been reduced so both sides sum to *one* and we can work with it as a proportion (if necessary). Note that it is very easy to convert this form into a percentage: just multiply by 100. It will often be expressed in percentage terms. For further discussion of percentages, see **QS 2 (Calculate, use and understand percentages, percentage changes and percentages)**.

Note, finally, that proportions (and percentages) of a whole may be shown visually using a pie chart. This is *never* used to show changes over time. There is an example on the next page – taking A Level Economics in 2014.

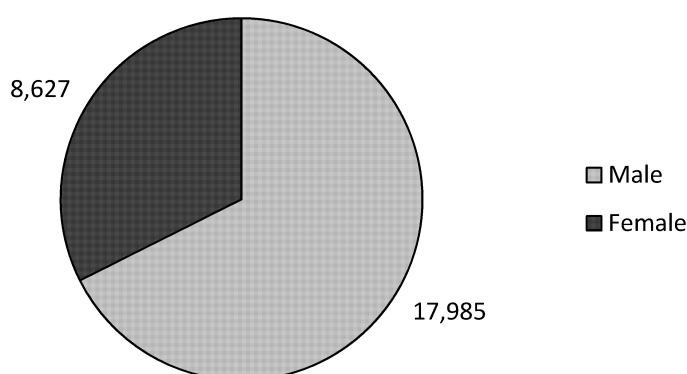
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A Level Economics Students 2014

(Total: 26,612)



Source: JCQ

Financial Ratio Analysis

Ratios are important in the AS and A Level Economics B course when using ratio profitability, and also in conducting break-even analysis. Specifically, you are required to calculate a firm's *gross, operating* and *net profit margins*, as well as the *margin of safety*. To calculate these ratios can measure a business's success as well as identifying potential risks.

Gross Profit Margin (Ratio):

First, a firm's gross profit refers to its revenue less its cost of sales – that is, the cost of raw materials, or the cost of operating capital equipment. The gross profit margin expresses this measurement of profit as a proportion of the firm's total revenue.

$$\text{Gross Profit Margin} = \frac{\text{Gross Profit}}{\text{Revenue}} = \frac{\text{Revenue} - \text{Cost of Sales}}{\text{Revenue}}$$

Note that the gross profit margin is usually multiplied by 100 in order to present the gross profit margin as a percentage. If the gross profit margin was, say, 0.30 (or 30%) we would know that the firm was making a gross profit of 30% of its sales – that is, for every £1 in sales, £0.30 is gross profit. Finally, this financial ratio can be used to compare a business's performance in previous periods or to that of another *similar* business. This allows a firm to assess its profitability and ability to control cost of sales. Importantly, this ratio must *only* be compared to the same industry, otherwise it tells us very, very little about the firm's success.

Operating Profit Margin (Ratio):

Following on from gross profit, a firm's operating profit takes gross profit and then deducts expenses (sometimes referred to as 'overheads') – that is, costs that are not directly related to the production of goods but are nevertheless incurred by the firm through the business's operation (e.g. utility bills, marketing costs etc.). The operating profit margin then takes this figure and expresses it as a proportion of the firm's revenue.

$$\text{Operating Profit Margin} = \frac{\text{Operating Profit}}{\text{Revenue}} = \frac{\text{Gross Profit} - \text{Overheads}}{\text{Revenue}}$$

Again, it's worth noting that this ratio is usually multiplied through by 100 in order to present the operating profit margin as a percentage. Note that this financial ratio is analysed in much the same way as the gross profit margin, except that changes in the figure represent changes in the firm's ability to manage its overheads, not its direct cost of sales.

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Net Profit Margin (Ratio):

'Net' profit builds on the two preceding measurements of profits but includes revenue activities (e.g. income received from investments) as well as making deductions for charges (e.g. interest payments) and taxation. The net profit margin then takes this and expresses it as a proportion of the firm's revenue.

$$\text{Net Profit Margin} = \frac{\text{Net Profit}}{\text{Revenue}}$$

Again, this financial ratio is usually expressed as a percentage by multiplying by 100. It is calculated the same way as *gross profit* and *operating profit* except that changes reflect changes in revenue of non-trading activity, or financing costs. If a firm's net profit margin increases, it indicates that shareholders in dividends at the end of the year.

Margin of Safety:

Finally, we have the *margin of safety* ratio, which is relevant to Topic 1.6.3 of the preceding ratios because it is concerned not with pure profitability but with the extent to which business exceeds its break-even quantity. It therefore indicates by how much sales can fall before the business starts to make a loss. It is the difference between the firm's actual output and the break-even output, expressed as a proportion of total output.

$$\text{Margin of Safety} = \frac{\text{Actual Sales Volume} - \text{Break-even Sales Volume}}{\text{Actual Sales Volume}}$$

Essentially, it is a measure of the business's 'buffer' in terms of units of output. A business is said to have a large margin of safety, and the closer the ratio is to one the larger the margin. If there was a *negative* demand shock for a business with a small margin of safety, it would become unprofitable.

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Part C: Example

The table below shows selected information from Pizzas with Pizzazz Limited's statement of comprehensive income.

Statement of Comprehensive Income for Pizzas with Pizzazz for Year Ended 31 December 2019	
	£
Revenue	24,800
Cost of Sales	(16,200)
Gross Profit	
Rent	(400)
Wages	(780)
Utilities	(260)
Internet	(40)
Marketing Expenses	(400)
Operating Profit	

Note that parentheses indicate expenses.

1. Calculate Pizzas with Pizzazz Limited's **gross profit**.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Gross Profit} &= \text{Revenue} - \text{Cost of Sales} \\ \text{Gross Profit} &= 24,800 - 16,200 = 8,600 \end{aligned}$$

2. Calculate Pizzas with Pizzazz Limited's **gross profit ratio to two decimal places**.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Gross Profit Margin} &= \frac{\text{Gross Profit}}{\text{Revenue}} \\ \text{Gross Profit Margin} &= \frac{8,600}{24,800} \\ \text{Gross Profit Margin} &= 0.34677 \dots = 0.35 \end{aligned}$$

Note that profit margins are usually expressed as percentages by multiplying by 100. In Pizzazz's case, this would mean that their gross profit margin is 35%, implying that 35% of sales constitutes gross profit.

3. Calculate Pizzas with Pizzazz Limited's **operating profit**.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Operating Profit} &= \text{Gross Profit} - \text{Operating Expenses} \\ \text{Operating Profit} &= 8,600 - (400 + 780 + 260 + 40 + 400) = 6,800 \end{aligned}$$

4. If Pizzas with Pizzazz's **net profit margin** was equal to 0.20, calculate the value of the **deductions**.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Net Profit Margin} &= \frac{\text{Net Profit}}{\text{Revenue}} \\ 0.2 &= \frac{\text{Net Profit}}{24,800} \\ \text{Net Profit} &= 0.2(24,800) \\ \text{Net Profit} &= 4,960 \end{aligned}$$

5. Calculate the value of the additional deductions from **operating profit** to arrive at **net profit**.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Net Profit} &= \text{Operating Profit} - \text{Deductions} \\ 4,960 &= 6,800 - \text{Deductions} \\ \text{Deductions} &= 6,800 - 4,960 \\ \text{Deductions} &= 1,720 \end{aligned}$$

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Part D: Practice Activities

1. If a dentistry firm has the productive ability to produce 6,800,000 units of toothbrushes in a year but has had a particularly unproductive year and has only produced 5,100,000 units, what is its capacity utilisation?
2.
 - a) Suppose that David can pick 400 blackberries in four hours. Calculate David's labour productivity and the ratio.
 - b) If Jess can pick 900 blackberries in the same amount of time, what is her labour productivity?
 - c) Calculate the ratio of David's labour productivity to Jess's. Express your answer as a fraction.
3. 'In 2016 a British petroleum company's revenue had fallen from £300,000 million to £250,000 million due to a spillage in the Gulf Coast led members of the public to boycott the business. The company's direct cost of sales remained constant at a total of £100,000 million during the period. The company was unable to respond to the sudden demand shock by cutting back its operations.'
 - a) Calculate the company's operating profit margin for 2015.
 - b) Calculate the company's operating profit margin for 2016.
 - c) Calculate the percentage change in the operating profit margin between 2015 and 2016.

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SKILL 2: CALCULATE, USE AND UNDERSTAND PERCENTAGE CHANGES AND PERCENTAGE POINT CHANGES

Part A: Specification Overview

Understanding percentages and percentage changes is necessary throughout the examination. Growth in GDP figures, unemployment and inflation rates, and so on, will often be found in the bodies of the examination's extracts as well as assessed via quantitative questions. It is important to be comfortable interpreting *and* calculating them. Understanding percentage change and percentage point changes (such as the price and income elasticities of Topics 2.2.1 and 2.2.4, and the

Part B: Theoretical Overview

The term 'percent' comes from Latin and means 'for each hundred'. We have already used it when talking about ratios because the idea is similar.

A percentage expresses the proportion of one value with respect to another. By expressing values as percentages, it makes it much easier to compare values. We could say that 4 out of 20 people are unemployed in Town A, while 5 out of 30 people are unemployed in Town B. Stated like this, it is tricky to compare. It's not immediately obvious which town has a higher unemployment rate. It's more clear when the numbers are put into percentage terms.

To convert, divide one side of the ratio by the other and then multiply it by 100.

$$\text{Town A: } \left(\frac{4}{20}\right) \times 100 = 20\%$$

$$\text{Town B: } \left(\frac{5}{30}\right) \times 100 = 16.7\%$$

Now it becomes clear that the unemployment rate is higher in Town A.

In Economics we are often concerned with how variables are affected by other factors. For example, if a firm increases its expenditure, does the employment rate rise? If the pound depreciates, does the employment rate increase as other countries find it more cost-effective to buy our goods?

To consider these sorts of things, it's often useful to look at percentage *change* in a variable. To work out the percentage change, use the following formula:

$$\text{Percentage Change} = \frac{(\text{New Value} - \text{Old Value})}{\text{Old Value}} \times 100$$

For example, if a firm expands, it might see its costs of production increase because it needs more resources needed to produce a greater quantity of output. It could be the case that firm's costs increase from £150,000 to £180,000. Therefore, the percentage increase would be calculated as follows:

$$\text{Percentage Increase} = \frac{(\text{£180,000} - \text{£150,000})}{\text{£150,000}} \times 100$$

Note that an increase of 100% means that the initial value has doubled (and is now twice the original value).

You should be aware of percentages of percentages; if the central bank raises interest rates by 20%, this is an increase of *one percentage point*, but interest rates have **not** increased by 20%. The percentage change above:

$$\% \text{ Increase in Interest Rates} = \frac{(6\% - 5\%)}{5\%} \times 100 = 20\%$$

The rate has risen by one percentage point, *but this means interest rates have increased by 20%.*

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Part C: Example

1. Suppose the GDP of Germany is £4.5 trillion. Agriculture contributes £0.135 trillion. What percentage of the total is this?

$$\frac{0.135}{4.5} \times 100 = 3\%$$

2. Germany's total GDP figure rose by 4% over the course of a year. What was the percentage increase in the year?

$$4.5 + \left(\left(\frac{4.0}{100} \right) \times 4.5 \right) = £4.68 \text{ trillion}$$

3. The following year, the GDP rose even higher, going from 4% to 5%. What percentage increase does this represent?

$$\% \text{ change} = \frac{(5 - 4)}{4} \times 100 = 25\%$$

Part D: Practice Activities

- Suppose that a firm has 890 workers, of whom 340 have a degree. What percentage of workers go to university? Give your answer to two decimal places.
- In the UK, one in seven 16–24-year-olds are considered unemployed. What is the unemployment rate? Give your answer to two decimal places.
- The total number of unemployed 16–24-year-olds rises from 498,000 to 520,000. What is the percentage increase? Show your working.
- Below is a table showing unemployment rates in the UK and in Spain in 2008 and 2012.

Country	Unemployment Rate %	
	2008	2012
UK	5.1	8.2
Spain	9	23.2

Source: Eurostat

- How many percentage points higher was unemployment in Spain in 2012 than in the UK in the same year?
 - Unemployment rates in the UK decreased from 8.2% in 2008 to 6.9% in 2012. What percentage decrease in unemployment rates does this represent?
5. Suppose that a business prices its products with a 40% mark-up in order to guarantee that its costs will be covered if its products are sold. If it sells its products for £10, calculate the cost of manufacture.

Exam tip: Make sure you include the percentage sign (%) in your answer and give to two decimal places to ensure you get all the available marks.

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SKILL 3: UNDERSTAND AND USE THE TERMS ‘MEAN’ AND ‘MEDIAN’

Part A: Specification Overview

An understanding of statistical measures such as mean and median are required necessary to understand both the different calculation methods and the reason should be interpreted differently. Specifically, the concept of means (averages) in average costs, revenues and profits (Topic 1.6.1 – covered in **QS6 (Calculate cost average and totals)**), while medians are needed when assessing the distribution

Part B: Theoretical Overview

Means are commonly defined as the sum of a set of numbers divided by the number. Often, the ‘arithmetic mean’ or simply the ‘mean’ of a set of values is referred to to the same thing. Familiarise yourself with all these terms just to be on the safe

$$\text{Mean (or Average)} = \frac{\text{Total Sum of Values}}{\text{Number of Values}}$$

Averages are essentially a measurement of the ‘central tendency’ of a set of values. An average is a measure of the most ‘typical’ number from a set of figures. Often, numbers are clustered around this central value (this is referred to as a ‘normal’ distribution) which help us to draw conclusions from data.

In Economics it is sometimes more appropriate to use the median rather than the mean can be affected by outliers in the data – that is, values that don’t really belong. Formally, the median is the ‘middle number’ in a data set. It can be calculated using the following formula:

$$\text{Median} = \left\{ \frac{N + 1}{2} \right\}^{\text{th}} \text{ value where } N \text{ is number of values}$$

Note, however, that the data set must be ordered before calculating the median. This is simple and you would have covered them in GCSE Maths – and perhaps before the example calculations.

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Part C: Example

When we think of averages, most of the time we're thinking about the 'arithmetic' types of average, such as the 'geometric mean' and the 'harmonic mean', but we should focus and concentrate on what's important to us.

Means are remarkably easy to calculate. All you to do is find the total 'sum' of a set of numbers, then you divide this number by the 'number of numbers'.

Let's consider the unemployment rate of 10 countries in an unspecified year.

Country	Unemployment Rate (ILO Estimate) (%)
Qatar	0.2
Vietnam	2.2
Japan	3.1
Korea	3.7
Switzerland	4.6
China	4.6
United Kingdom	4.8
Norway	4.8
Canada	7.1
France	10.0
Total	45.1

Now, although the unemployment rate varies quite substantially between the countries (there's a 9.8 percentage point difference between Qatar and France) we are still looking for a number that is typical for the group – that is, a measure of 'central tendency.' If we take the average country's unemployment rate, the total is 45.1%. Obviously, this figure is nonsense. To find the average, we divide by the total number of countries in the study (10), we find the average, or

$$\text{Average} = \frac{(0.2 + 2.2 + 3.1 + 3.7 + 4.6 + 4.6 + 4.8 + 4.8 + 7.1 + 10.0)}{10}$$

So, what we now know is that the 'average' or 'typical' country in this group has an unemployment rate of 4.51%. That's pretty much what we'd expect since this value falls roughly *halfway* through the range of values. It is close to the 'centre.'

However, as economists we have to be very careful of using averages. Although the mean has turned out to be a fairly good measurement of the unemployment rate for a typical country, it can work out this way.

Imagine that another economy was added to the study of 10 countries. Zimbabwe, with an unemployment rate that is reported to be as high as 95%. What we would find is that the countries' unemployment rates would increase to 140.2% and the average unemployment rate would be about 12.8% – this, clearly, would be a less representative figure than the one we found for the first 10 countries.

It's clear that the median would serve as a more representative measurement of the unemployment rate. If Zimbabwe's unemployment rate had been added to the data set. Note that the median would be China, with an unemployment rate of 4.6% – this is a much better measure of the 'typical' unemployment rate than 12.8%!

Remember that if the data wasn't ordered before calculating the median, you'd have to order it first.

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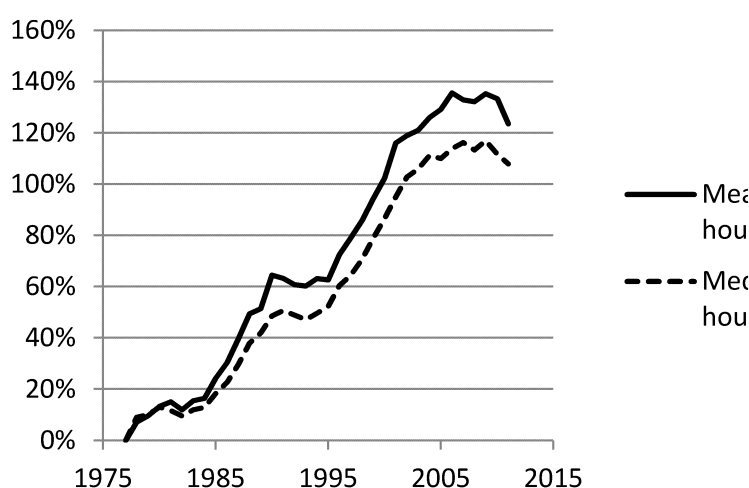


Part D: Practice Activities

7 7 8 8 9 10 12 12 13 15 18

1. The numbers above are hourly wages for the employees in a small firm.
 - a) What is the mean wage? Show your working.
 - b) What is the median wage? Show how you arrive at your answer.
2. Suppose that the government is considering introducing legislation to limit the wages that employees can receive. The boss of this company (whose wage is not in the list above) will receive the typical wage.
 - a) Would he prefer the average used to be the mean wage or the median salary would be in each case.
 - b) If the aim of the government was to reduce inequality, which option would you recommend?

Mean vs Median UK Household Income



Source: ONS

3. Above is a chart showing the change in mean disposable income and median disposable income since 1977. What can you interpret from the graph?
4. **Table below** shows data relating to monthly costs and output of a small company in the UK.

Fixed Costs	
Variable Costs	
Monthly Output	

Using the information in the table, calculate the *average cost* of a computer.

5. Rwanda's GDP was about \$8,095 million in 2015. Its population is approximately 10 million.
 - a) What was Rwanda's GDP per capita in 2015?
 - b) If Rwanda's GDP grew by 20% between 2015 and 2016, what would GDP per capita be in 2016, assuming population remained constant?

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SKILL 4: UNDERSTAND AND USE RELEVANT QUANTILES (Q

Part A: Specification Overview

The understanding and use of quantiles is required by Edexcel at A Level *only*. Data is often presented in quantiles – usually quartile or quintile form – in questions, and students should be able to interpret and use them accordingly.

Part B: Theoretical Overview

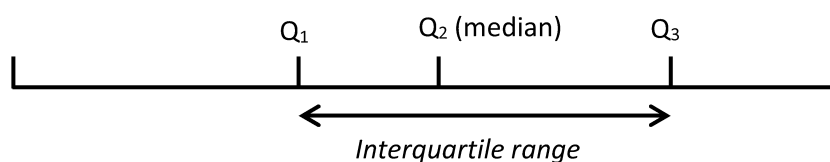
The use of quantiles is a common way of presenting data in Economics. Quantiles divide data into groups which allows us to make comparisons between different sections of a population.

The most common type of *quantile* is a *quartile*. Think ‘quarter’ – a quartile split divides data into four equal groups. This can link the information we have just learnt in **Skill 3** about median values. Just as the median splits data into two equal halves, we place the data in order from lowest to highest. The median value lies between the bottom two quartiles from the top two quartiles.

Similarly, the median of the lowest half of the data set only will separate the bottom two quartiles. The median of the top half of the data will separate the top two quartiles. Note that the median is the middle number, then we take the middle value between the two (their mean).

By splitting data into quartiles, we can see how groups of data are distributed, and compare different groups. A common application in Economics is household income data; splitting data into four groups allows us to make comparisons between the top and bottom earners.

The *interquartile range* is another idea that you need to understand. The interquartile range is the difference in data between quartile 1 (Q_1) and quartile 3 (Q_3). This ignores any extreme values. Considering income, there will be those who earn a very small wage (perhaps living on state benefits) and those who earn sky-high salaries at the top. By just looking at the interquartile range, we can get a more representative picture of the population.



While quartiles are probably the most common type of quantile, you may also see data split into five different groups. *Percentiles* split it into 100 (e.g. ‘the top percentile’ – the top 1% who have 99% of the population earning less than them). For each different type of split in the data, where n represents the number of subgroups, so quartiles have 4 splits, data split into percentiles will have 99 splits.

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Part C: Example

15	5	17	11	12	11	15
1	16	18	16	3	10	3

Here is a random series of 20 values. To separate them into quartiles, we first ha

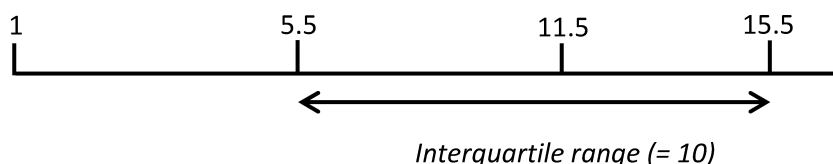
1	2	3	3	5	6	7
12	13	14	15	15	16	16

It's now straightforward to divide the group into quartiles. In this case, the data half and top half, so the median is between 11 and 12 – it's 11.5.

If you draw a line down the middle of the entries, then you will split Q_1 from Q_2 c from Q_4 on the bottom row. Hence:

Q_1	1	2	3	3
Q_2	6	7	10	1
Q_3	12	13	14	1
Q_4	16	16	17	1

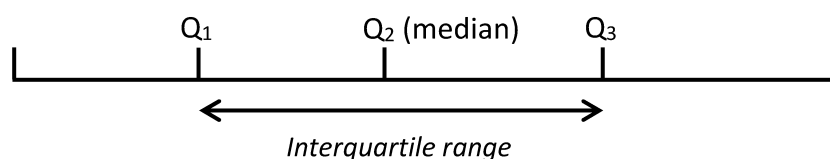
This is how we can present the data visually:



Part D: Practice Activities

40	22	41	37	37	35	20
47	23	37	24	45	25	39

- Sort the numbers above into four quartiles.
- What is the median value?
- What is the interquartile range?



- What can you interpret from this diagram of quartiles? Think about the dist been separated into quartiles.

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SKILL 5: CONSTRUCT AND INTERPRET A RANGE OF STANDARD

Part A: Specification Overview

The need to construct and interpret graphical forms applies across the syllabus. A straight line graph. Most students will understand the theory from GCSE Maths, discussing gradients, shifts and rotations. This knowledge will help students understand AS/AD schedules which will feature in exams at AS Level.

Part B: Theoretical Overview

Graphs are important in Economics because we are often interested in the relationship between variables. Graphs allow economists to understand whether variables are related to one another. If they are, they tell us quickly and clearly how one variable affects the other. Most students learn these ideas in GCSE Maths, but it's worth reviewing them.

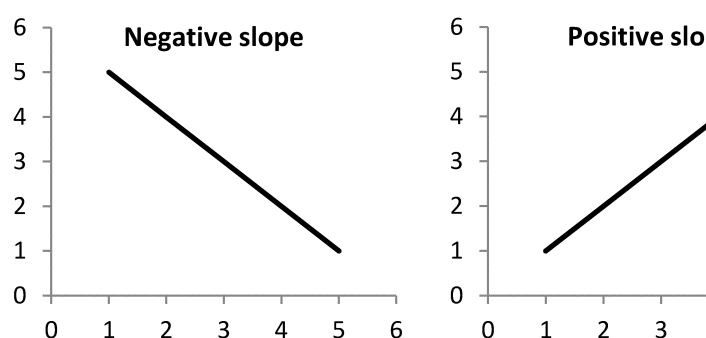
Graphs are usually plotted on a **two-dimensional** space. This means that we have a horizontal variable 'x' as the **independent** variable – and also a 'y-axis' – we call variable 'y'.

Primarily, the most important aspect of a basic line graph is the gradient (or slope) which tells us the most important information about the relationship between two variables. Is it positive or negative correlation?

Mathematically, a curve's gradient is defined as follows:

$$\text{Gradient} = \frac{\text{Change in Y}}{\text{Change in X}}$$

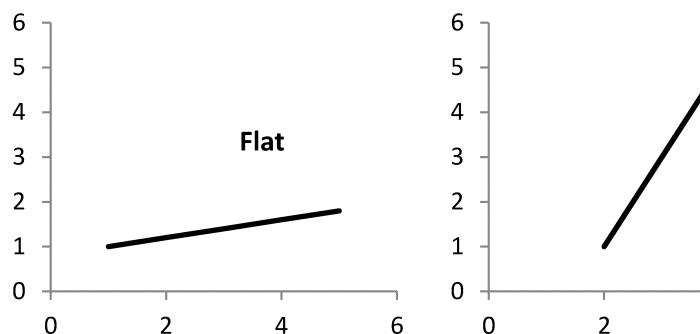
Now, it is possible to tell whether the relationship between our variables is *positive* or *negative* by looking at the sign of the coefficient. If the coefficient is greater than (>) or less than (<) zero. If the gradient is positive, the line is said to be *upward-sloping* – e.g. the supply curve – and this means that there is a positive relationship between the x and y variable. Conversely, if the gradient is *less* than zero, then the line is said to be *downward-sloping* – e.g. the demand curve – and this means that as one variable increases the other decreases. To interpret the slope of a curve if we are to understand the relationship between variables at AS and A Level.



However, while it's important to know the direction of the relationship between variables, the gradient is also important and tells us how *much* one variable changes with the other. For example, if the price of petrol by a £1 per litre decreased demand by 99%, this curve would look very steep (a large negative gradient). Conversely, if demand falls by only 1%, despite the direction of the relationship being exactly the same (a negative gradient), the curve would be very flat (a small negative gradient). So, the larger the numerical figure of the gradient, the larger the change in the y variable for a given change in the x variable. A flatter line – whether positive or negative – tells us that a marginal change in the x variable will trigger a proportionally smaller change in the y variable (the vertical axis). Conversely, a steeper line tells us that a marginal change in the x variable will trigger a proportionally larger change in the y variable. Curves are considered to be 'flat' if the absolute value of the gradient is small. A line with a gradient of 1 – whether positive or negative – then a change in x produces an equal change in y (referred to as 'unity'). Finally, if the gradient is greater than one, then the curve is steep.

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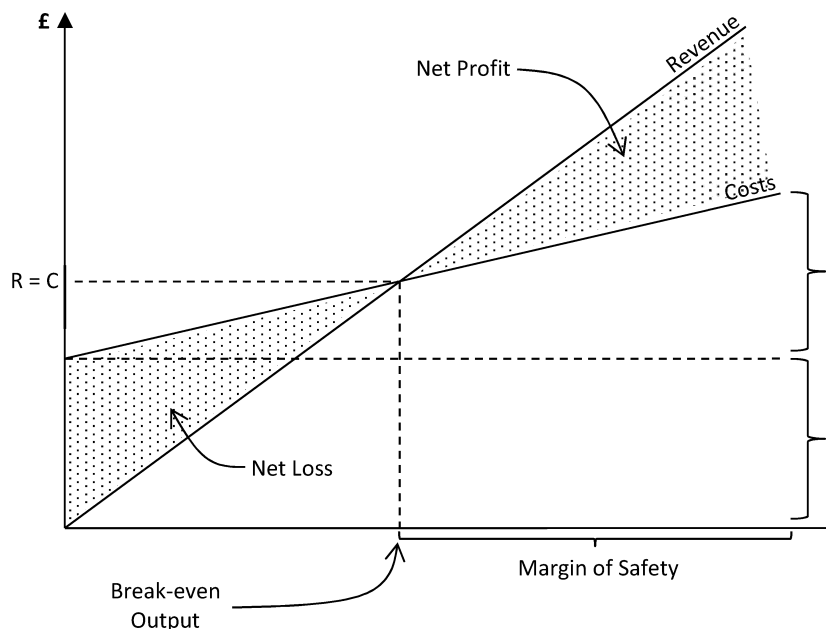


Finally, it's also important to note that the curves can 'shift'. You will see shifts in the graphs of specific markets and entire economies throughout your study of Economics. A constant amount is added to either the x or the y variable. If we add a constant 'c' to the y variable, the line shifts either up or down depending on whether c is positive or negative. If we add 'c' to the x variable, the line shifts to the left if c is greater than 0, and to the right if c is less than 0.

It's important that you understand the basic principles of interpreting linear relationships. You will be able to apply this to a lot of different topics of economic analysis during the exam, especially when looking at specific markets and their *demand* and *supply* curves!

Break-even Analysis

In the Economics B course, one application of where it is particularly important to understand is conducting break-even analysis for a firm. It is used to determine when a business's total revenue exactly equals the business's costs – at which point the business will have begun to earn a profit.



Businesses are said to 'break even' when their total costs equal their total revenue. This occurs at the intersection of a firm's cost and revenue curves. It should be easy to identify the break-even point if you're given a diagram like the one above. However, remember that if a firm's costs or revenue change, its break-even output will change too.

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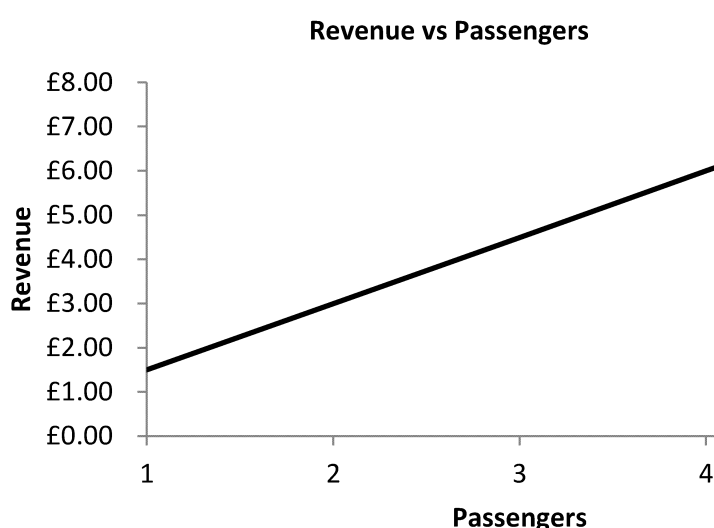


Part C: Example

Let's start with a very basic example. Below is a chart showing the number of passengers and the amount of revenue the bus company receives. In this case, tickets are £1.50 each.

Passengers	Revenue
1	£1.50
2	£3.00
3	£4.50
4	£6.00
5	£7.50

Graphically, we can present this information as follows:



The line is upward-sloping: there is a positive relationship between the number of passengers and the amount of revenue that the bus company receives. Indeed, we can calculate the gradient of the line that goes from £3 and two passengers to £6 and four passengers.

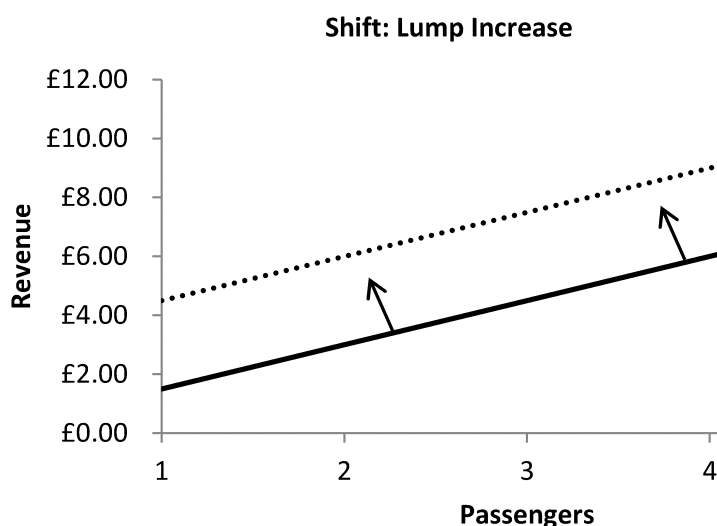
$$\text{Gradient} = \frac{\text{Change in Y}}{\text{Change in X}} = \frac{6 - 3}{4 - 2} = \frac{3}{2}$$

Hence, the gradient here is 3/2, or 1.5. This means the relationship between revenue and passengers is linear.

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The gradient tells us how the different values change as we move *along* the line. what happens when events, or 'shocks', alter the position of the line itself. The encounter is a **shift**. This is when the line moves up or down but *the gradient remains the same*. Here, the price of each bus ticket has increased by £3.

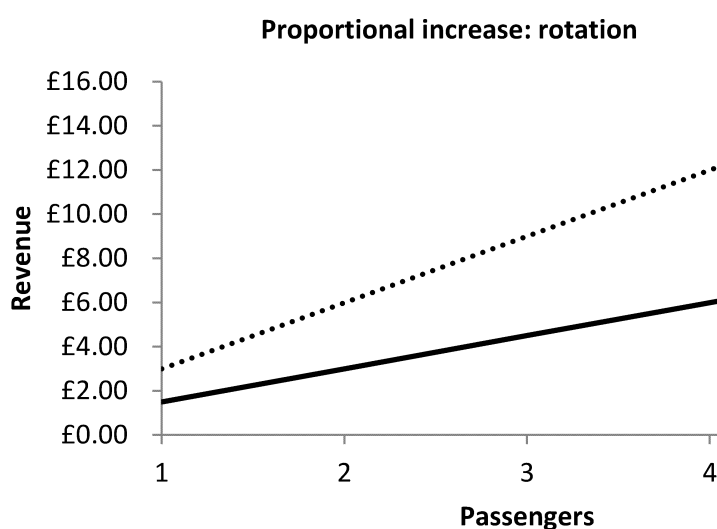


Let's look at the gradient again between two and four passengers:

$$\text{Gradient} = \frac{\text{Change in Y}}{\text{Change in X}} = \frac{9 - 6}{4 - 2} = \frac{3}{2}$$

So the line has moved – but the gradient is still 3/2.

Now let's consider a different change: a rotation. This occurs if each value changes proportionally. For example, if the price of a bus ticket doubles.



$$\text{Gradient} = \frac{\text{Change in Y}}{\text{Change in X}} = \frac{12 - 6}{4 - 2} = \frac{6}{2} = 3$$

So now the gradient is 3/1, or 3. A steeper gradient has a larger value (3 > 1.5).

Often you will see combinations of the two changes: a shock might cause both a shift and a rotation.

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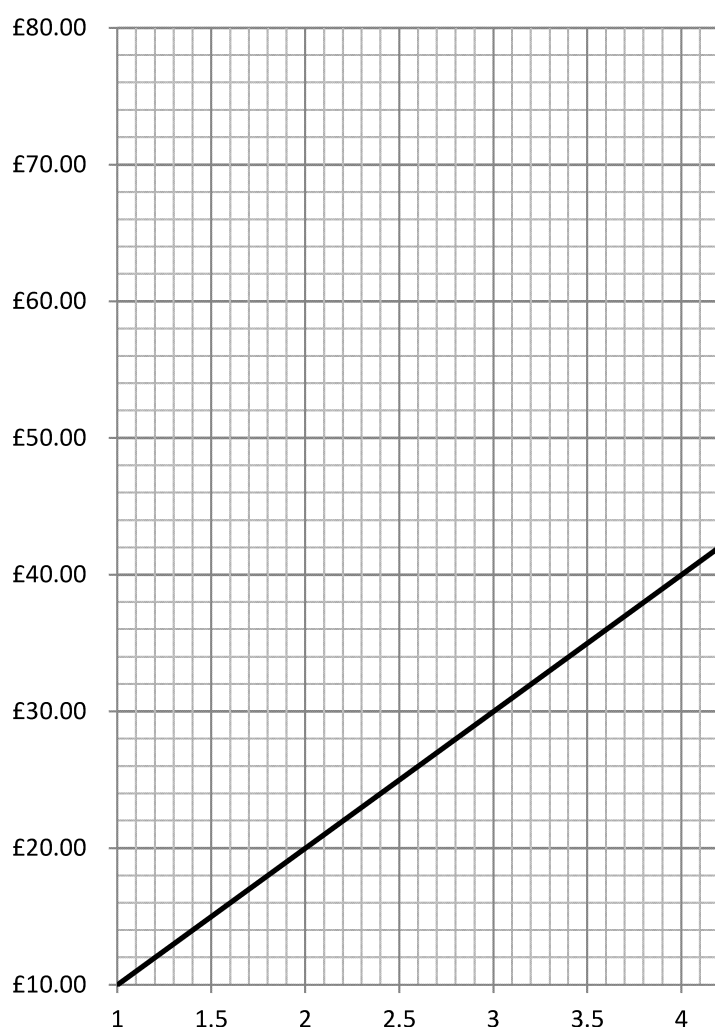


Part D: Practice Activities

1. a) Fill in the table below by **first** increasing revenue by 50% **then** adding £10 to the 'Revenue₂' column.

Passengers	Revenue	Revenue ₁ (50% increase)	Revenue ₂ (+£10)
1	10	15	
2	20		
3	30		
4	40		
5	50		

- b) Now use your new values to draw a new line showing Revenue₂ on the graph below.



- c) What is the gradient of the new line? Is this a shift or a rotation?

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SKILL 6: CALCULATE AND INTERPRET INDEX NUMBERS

Part A: Specification Overview

Index numbers are most often used in Economics B specification to examine changes in the price level. However, index numbers can be applied to a number of different areas of production and productivity. Importantly, students must be able to understand and use index numbers in index form at both AS and A Level. Moreover, students will also need to be able to use Consumer Price Index (CPI) and Retail Price Index (RPI) data at AS Level and A Level (Specification 2.5.3). This includes the idea of a 'base year' and how weights are used when calculating index numbers. Note, however, that an in-depth technical knowledge of the RPI and CPI indices (for example) is not required.

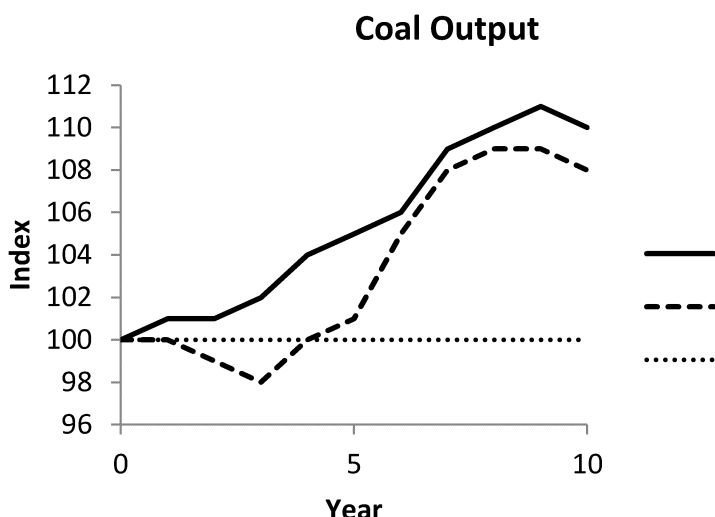
Part B: Theoretical Overview

In this section we will use a lot of the skills covered in **Skill 2** so refer back if you need to. We will use percentages and percentage change.

Economists tend to use index numbers to make comparisons over time. The key points can be compared back to an initial 'base'. The base is always shown with a value of 100 – then following data points are adjusted to this value.

Imagine we have yearly data on the output of a coal mine. An index of 105 in year 4 means that 5% more was extracted in that year than in the base year. Index numbers can be below 100. If output falls by 2% compared to the base year, then the index will be 98. Index numbers don't mention tonnes when referring to output in this example, and don't use a unit.

Before we talk about how to calculate index numbers, it is useful to think about how to interpret them. We will see a line graph showing the output of two imaginary coal mines in index form.



First, note how the output of each mine starts at 100 at year 0, the base year. This means that both mines had the same output in year 0. Rather, it just shows 100% of their respective starting output. With the subsequent changes for each output over time, relative to this starting point.

We can see that the output for Mine 1 generally increases over time. In year 4 its output is 104, which means that its output has increased 4% relative to the base year.

The output for Mine 2, however, decreases relative to the base year between year 0 and year 3. This tells us that output has decreased by 2% compared to the base year.

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You may not have come across index numbers of less than 100. The most common numbers in A Level Economics is to show changes in price levels, and generally price levels (inflation).

Calculating index numbers may be daunting at first, but each step is relatively simple. A large number of calculations needed – you might end up punching a lot of numbers in a calculator. There is a higher potential for an error to creep in. Try to record each step as clearly as possible to avoid a mistake and need to retrace your steps.

Part C: Example

Let's start by looking at an example of the type of index number you are most likely to come across: the Consumer Price Index (CPI). The idea of the CPI is to track price changes in a selection, or 'basket', of goods and services which best represents the spending habits of the whole. The items included are updated each year to reflect the introduction of new goods or the popularity of others (this year e-cigarettes and music streaming services were included, but yoghurt drinks have become less popular and were discarded).

There are over 700 goods and services included in the basket, which includes items like house insurance and dry cleaning. Each item is assigned a weight which best represents its importance. For example, house insurance is assigned a much higher weight than light bulbs. Each weight can be expressed as a percentage of total spending: the total sum of weights equals 1 (or 100%).

Below is a table showing a simplified example of a price level index. Only four goods are included in the basket.

Year	Goods in the Basket			Price Index
	Good	Price	Weight	
2010	Good A	£10	0.25	£100
	Good B	£5.50	0.15	
	Good C	£2	0.2	
	Good D	£4.50	0.4	
2011	Good A	£10.40	0.25	£104
	Good B	£5.50	0.15	
	Good C	£2.20	0.2	
	Good D	£5.10	0.4	
2012	Good A	£10.60	0.25	£106
	Good B	£5.70	0.15	
	Good C	£2.30	0.2	
	Good D	£6.00	0.4	
2013	Good A	£11.10	0.25	£111
	Good B	£6.00	0.15	
	Good C	£2.50	0.2	
	Good D	£6.00	0.4	

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This is a large table with lots of values but it needn't be daunting. Each step is simply the price value for each year. Multiply the price of each good by its weighting, and add them all up for 2010, the base year, we get:

$$\text{Price Value}_{2010} = (10.0 \times 0.25) + (5.5 \times 0.15) + (2.0 \times 0.2) + (6.0 \times 0.4)$$

This is an easy calculation but quite lengthy. Make sure you get all the brackets right and use a calculator (it may be easier to write down the answer for each step and then add them all up). If your answer is higher than the highest price, or lower than the lowest, then you may have made a mistake and need to retrace your steps.

The price values for the other years are calculated in the same way:

$$\text{Price Value}_{2011} = (10.4 \times 0.25) + (5.5 \times 0.15) + (2.2 \times 0.2) + (5.1 \times 0.4)$$

$$\text{Price Value}_{2012} = (10.6 \times 0.25) + (5.7 \times 0.15) + (2.3 \times 0.2) + (6.0 \times 0.4)$$

$$\text{Price Value}_{2013} = (11.1 \times 0.25) + (6.0 \times 0.15) + (2.5 \times 0.2) + (6.0 \times 0.4)$$

We can now calculate our index values. Remember, the first year is always assigned an index value of 100. We need to calculate it for 2010; just write in '100'.

The indices for other years are calculated as follows:

$$\text{Index for Year X} = \left(\frac{\text{Price Value of Year X}}{\text{Price Value of Base Year}} \right) \times 100$$

Hence:

$$\text{Index}_{2011} = \frac{5.91}{5.53} \times 100 = 107$$

$$\text{Index}_{2012} = \frac{6.37}{5.53} \times 100 = 115$$

$$\text{Index}_{2013} = \frac{6.58}{5.53} \times 100 = 119$$

Note that each price value is divided by the price value for the base year rather than the preceding year.

Finally, to work out the economy's inflation rate using CPI (or RPI) data, we would calculate the percentage change between index values. So, between 2010 and 2011 the percentage change is 7% (107 - 100 = 7, starting value is 100, hence the inflation rate is 7%). However, between 2011 and 2012 the inflation rate is 7.5% (115 - 107 = 8, starting value is 107, hence the inflation rate is 7.5%). We have to use the formula for percentage change that we learned in **QS2 (Calculating percentages, percentage changes and percentage point changes)**.

Therefore, for the period 2011 to 2012, inflation would be calculated as follows:

$$\text{Inflation} = \frac{115 - 107}{107} \times 100 = \frac{8}{107} \times 100 = 7.5\%$$

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Part D: Practice Activities

- Fill in the table below. Show as much of your working as possible.

Year	Goods in the Basket			Price Value
	Good	Price	Weight	
2013	Good X	£5.50	0.5	£3.25
	Good Y	£0.50	0.1	
	Good Z	£1.20	0.4	
2014	Good X	£5.40	0.5	
	Good Y	£0.50	0.1	
	Good Z	£2.20	0.4	
2015	Good X	£5.60	0.5	
	Good Y	£0.80	0.1	
	Good Z	£5.50	0.4	

- Suppose that the Office for National Statistics (ONS) decides to adjust the weights of the basket. Why would they do this?
- In 2014 Good X had its weight increased to 0.7 and Good Z had its weight decreased to 0.3. What would the price level and index now be for that year, 2014? The price values are the same. Show your working.
- In question 3, the price of Good X decreases in 2014 – but the index goes up. Explain why.

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SKILL 7: CALCULATE COST, REVENUE AND PROFIT: AVERAGE

Part A: Specification Overview

In the Economics B course students are expected to be able to perform a number of calculations relating to a firm's costs and revenue. Specifically, students must be able to calculate both sales revenue (Topic 1.6.1), fixed, variable, average and total costs (Topic 1.6.1); contribution (Topic 1.6.1); and profit (Topic 1.6.1). It's also expected that students can calculate gross, operating and net profit.

Part B: Theoretical Overview

Many of the cost, revenue, and profit calculations required for the Economics B course (or Year 1) Topic 1.6 (Revenue, Costs, Profits and Cash). However, these calculations are also covered in Topic 4.1.4 (Business Objectives and Pricing Decisions) so it's important to have a good understanding of them when studying Year 2 Economics B. Luckily, the maths is not particularly complicated – it involves basic mathematical operations such as addition, subtraction, multiplication and division – and the concepts are straightforward, so it's worth devoting a short section to the required knowledge.

Revenue

The firm's sales revenue is simply the number of goods it sold – that is, its *sales volume* – multiplied by the price of each good. If, for instance, the firm sells 10 goods at £5 each, then its total sales revenue is £50.

Mathematically, sales revenue is calculated using the following formula:

$$\text{Total Revenue (TR)} = \text{Quantity (Q)} \times \text{Price (P)}$$

Costs

Firms' costs can be broken down into *fixed* and *variable* portions. 'Fixed' costs refer to business expenses that don't vary according to the quantity of output produced – they are constant irrespective of output. Fixed costs might include overheads, such as rent, and salaries. 'Variable' costs, conversely, are costs that vary with the level of output. They are the direct cost of production, otherwise known as the 'cost of sales', e.g. the cost of materials and wages.

Mathematically, a firm's total costs are calculated as follows:

$$\text{Total Costs (TC)} = \text{Fixed Costs (FC)} + \text{Variable Costs (VC)}$$

It is also important to be able to calculate a firm's *average* cost of production. Using **the terms 'mean' and 'median', and relevant quantiles** we are able to work out the average cost of production by dividing the total cost of production by the firm's output.

Mathematically:

$$\text{Average Cost (AC)} = \frac{\text{Total Cost (TC)}}{\text{Quantity (Q)}} = \text{Average Fixed Cost (AFC)} + \text{Average Variable Cost (AVC)}$$

Note that the concept of average cost in Economics is important because a firm can become more cost-effective on average because of economies of scale. Firms tend to get more cost-effective as production increases, while the firm's fixed costs are also spread out across more output, hence the average fixed cost decreases as production increases.

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Contribution

'Contribution' is the difference between a firm's sales price and the variable cost of production. It measures the income that a business receives after subtracting the cost of production from the firm's revenue.

Mathematically,

$$\text{Contribution} = \text{Selling Price (P)} - \text{Variable Cost (VC)}$$

Note that the contribution can be used to work out the break-even level of output. If we know the fixed costs by the contribution per unit, we find out how many units must be sold to be the break-even point.

Break-even Point

Businesses break even when their total costs equal their total revenue – that is, when their revenue covers all of their expenses.

Mathematically, the break-even point is given by,

$$\text{Break-even Point: Total Fixed Costs (TFC) + Total Variable Costs (TVC)}$$

Profit

Profit is the difference between the amount that a business earns (its *revenue*) and its total costs.

Typically, profit is calculated using the following formula:

$$\text{Profit (}\Pi\text{)} = \text{Total Revenue (TR)} - \text{Total Costs (TC)}$$

However, in the Economics B course you need to know how to calculate *gross*, or *operating* profit. This is simply a firm's revenue minus the direct costs of production. 'Operating profit' less any overheads (e.g. rent, wages, insurance). 'Net' profit, however, adjusts for all costs such as the cost of financing. Note that it can also include revenues received from other sources.

Part C: Example

Output (Units)	Total Cost (£)
1	5.50
2	10.00
3	14.00
4	16.00
5	17.00

- The firm produces three units of output. What is the average cost?

Recall that:

$$AC = \frac{TC}{Q}$$

Hence:

$$AC = \frac{14}{3} = £4.67$$

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2. If the firm increases its output to five units, does the average cost change?

$$AC = \frac{17}{5} = £3.40$$

So the average cost of producing a unit falls considerably when more units are produced. The firm benefits from economies of scale.

3. The average fixed cost when producing five units is £2.00. What is the average variable cost?

$$AC = AFC + AVC$$

So:

$$AVC = AC - AFC$$

$$AVC = £3.40 - £2.00 = £1.40$$

Part D: Practice Activities

1. A firm records a total revenue of £2,000 from selling 40 units. What price would it charge?

Output (Units)	Total Cost (£)
1	5.50
2	10.00
3	14.00
4	16.00
5	17.00

2. a) Look at the table above. What is the average cost of five units of output?
 b) When the firm is producing five units of output, the average fixed cost is £2.00. What is the average variable cost?
 c) The firm sells five units for a total of £20. What is its total revenue? What is its profit?
 d) What is the average revenue when five units are sold for £20?
3. a) A firm produces 100 units at an average cost of £10. Average fixed cost is £5.00. What are the average variable costs?
 b) Following an increase in raw material prices, the average variable cost rises to £1.50. What is the new total average cost?

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SKILL 8: CALCULATE COST, REVENUE AND PROFIT: MARGINAL COST AND REVENUE (A LEVEL ONLY)

Part A: Specification Overview

In Economics B, marginal cost and revenue are concepts that are only relevant to section 4.1.4 (Business Objectives and Pricing Decisions). Accordingly, this section has been added to this section to explore the concepts in more depth. Note that it is important to understand these concepts because these calculations are used to establish the profit-maximising output of a firm.

Part B: Theoretical Overview

The introduction of 'the margin' was a big deal when it was first presented by economists in the 19th century, and the so-called 'Marginal Revolution' shocked the Economics discipline. If you don't like maths, that is – it also made the subject much more mathematical. The concept of the margin is not that difficult, and there is no complicated calculus involved.

In Economics, the 'margin' refers to the idea of an *additional* unit. Economists are interested in the impact on total cost and total revenue if a firm produces another unit.

Marginal Cost

Let's start with marginal cost, otherwise referred to as MC. Essentially, this is the additional cost that results from the production of one extra unit.

Mathematically, marginal cost is calculated as follows:

$$\text{Marginal Cost (MC)} = \frac{\text{Change in Total Cost}}{\text{Change in Output}} = \frac{\Delta \text{TC}}{\Delta Q}$$

If $\Delta Q = 1$, this indicates that one additional unit has been produced and we can calculate the change in total cost. Note that the marginal cost of production is not affected by changes in fixed costs because these costs do not vary with the level of output; this marginal cost picks up the variable cost that arises because of changes in output.

If, for instance, it costs £10 to produce five units but £12 to produce six units, then the marginal cost of that extra unit is £2.

Marginal Revenue

Marginal revenue uses the exact same idea but applies it to the firm's revenue instead of cost. Does total revenue change if the firm sells one more unit of output?

Mathematically, the answer to this question is found by applying the following formula:

$$\text{Marginal Revenue} = \text{MR} = \frac{\text{Change in Total Revenue}}{\text{Change in Output Sold}} = \frac{\Delta \text{TR}}{\Delta Q}$$

Imagine a firm sells 50 units and total revenue is £100. The firm sells 51 units, then the marginal revenue, therefore, is £2.

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Application – Profit Maximisation

Importantly, marginal cost and marginal revenue are essential for the calculation of the profit-maximising position.

Suppose that a firm's MR is greater than its MC. If $MR > MC$, the firm can add to its output because the additional revenue received from that extra unit exceeds the additional expense in producing it. Conversely, if the firm's MR is less than its MC ($MR < MC$), the firm increases its costs more than it increases its revenue. It would, therefore, produce that additional unit and scale back production until $MR = MC$.

And, just like that, we've stumbled across the profit-maximising condition. If the firm produces more or less than the profit-maximising level, it does not increase profit, but does not decrease profit either, then profit must be maximised. In either direction from the $MR = MC$ level of output will *decrease* profits.

$$\text{Profit Maximisation: } MR = MC$$

Part C: Example

Units of Output	Total Cost
0	15
1	25
2	34
3	42
4	48
5	59

Let's look at this table of a firm's output and total cost. First, notice that there is a fixed cost of 15 when no output is being produced. This is the fixed cost which does not depend on output.

Imagine now that we want to know the marginal cost of producing the third unit of output. The marginal cost is the additional cost of producing just that one extra unit. In this case, the cost increases from 34 to 42, so the marginal cost is 8.

For this to be the profit-maximising level of output, the marginal revenue from selling that unit must also be 8.

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Part D: Practice Activity

1. Fill in the table below by calculating the marginal cost of producing each extra unit of output.

Units of Output	Total Cost	Marginal Cost
0	11	
1	21	
2	30	
3	38	
4	44	
5	55	

2. a) Fill in the blanks in the table below. Show your working where possible.

Total Output	Total Revenue	MR	Total Cost	
1	100		70	
2	200		140	
3	300		200	
4	400		300	
5	500		510	

- b) How many units would the firm need to produce to maximise profits?

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SKILL 9: MAKE CALCULATIONS TO CONVERT FROM MONEY

Part A: Specification Overview

Students should understand the difference between real and nominal values from includes the need to calculate both real and nominal rates of economic growth.

Part B: Theoretical Overview

Money in the present is worth more than money in the future – this is referred to in Economics. First, this is because a pound today is worth more than a pound next year because it can earn *interest*. Second, the effect of inflation means that the purchasing power of a pound falls over time and so a pound in the present is necessarily worth more than a pound in the future. This makes the concept of *real* more important in economics when converting values from ‘nominal’ (money) to real terms.

Therefore, in order to make meaningful comparisons between monetary values over time, values must be converted to real terms by taking inflation into account.

One of the most important examples of this is real versus nominal GDP figures. Nominal GDP has not been adjusted at all. Essentially, nominal GDP measures the monetary value of all goods and services that have been produced within an economy during a period of time, where the prices are measured in terms at the time of production. Real GDP, on the other hand, has been adjusted for the effects of inflation by using a measure such as CPI (see **Skill 6**). When economists discuss economic growth, they are referring to **real** GDP because this allows them to make meaningful comparisons over time.

Note that if the prices of *every* good in an economy doubled over a specific time period, then nominal GDP would double. However, if the amount of goods and services produced in the economy remained the same, then real GDP would not change because the figure would be corrected for the doubling of prices. In the ‘volume’ and ‘value’ measurement of GDP, and the preceding example highlight the importance of using real rather than nominal figures. In *real* terms the economy hasn’t grown at all, but if we only look at nominal figures we would erroneously come to the specious conclusion that the economic growth was 100%.

To ‘deflate’ a value to real terms in order to make a better comparison with a previous period, we use the CPI index of the previous period. The formula you need to use to convert nominal values to real values is:

$$\frac{\text{Nominal Value}_{\text{Year X}}}{\text{CPI}_{\text{Year X}}} \times 100 = \text{Real Value}_{\text{Year X}}$$

This is best illustrated by working through an example.

Part C: Example

Let’s suppose that nominal GDP of a fictional economy was £34 million in 2015. By the end of 2016, nominal GDP had risen to £37.4 million; however, inflationary pressure caused prices to rise generally by about 5% over the course of the year.

Nominally, this economy experienced a rate of economic growth of 10%. However, this only captures the increase in *value* as well as the increase in *volume*, but as economists are interested in the former rather than the latter.

Therefore, in order to account for the changes in this economy’s prices and to express growth in terms of *volume* of production, it’s necessary to convert the nominal GDP figure in 2016 to real terms. If 2015 is the ‘base’ year for the price index, the CPI index value for 2016 would be 105.

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Hence:

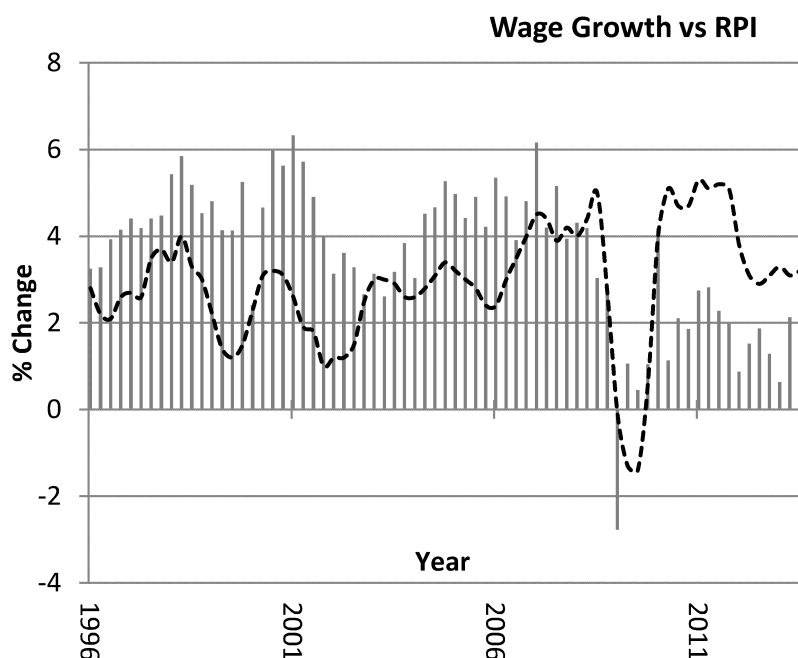
$$Real\ GDP_{2016} = \frac{Nominal\ GDP_{2016}}{CPI_{2016}} \times 100 = \frac{£37.4\ million}{105} \times 100$$

There, in real terms, GDP has only increased to £35.62 million between 2015 and 2016, compared to an increase of £37.4 million in nominal terms. In effect, this economy's GDP growth is actually 4.77%, not 10%. This is a useful approximation that you can use to work out an economy's real growth rate. The real growth rate tends to be approximately equal to the economy's nominal growth rate minus the inflation rate (prices (inflation)).

Note that here $\frac{100}{105}$ is known as the 'GDP deflator'. It is used to deflate – or remove the effect of – the latest value.

Part D: Practice Activities

1.
 - a) The nominal GDP of Spain rose from \$1,010bn in 2013 to \$1,110bn in 2014. What is the percentage increase in this in nominal terms?
 - b) The price index for 2014 with respect to 2013 is 103. What was the new nominal GDP in 2014?
 - c) What was the percentage increase in *real* GDP?
2. What can you interpret from the graph below?



Source: ONS

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SKILL 10: MAKE CALCULATIONS OF ELASTICITY AND INTER

Part A: Specification Overview

Calculating and interpreting elasticities is important at both AS and A Level. In Economics, you are required to be able to calculate price elasticity of demand and income elasticity of demand, and to interpret the numerical values.

Part B: Theoretical Overview

'Elasticity' is a term that refers to the responsiveness of one variable to a change in another. For example, does demand for beer react if the price increases? What if people earn more?

The calculations for elasticity are perhaps the trickiest you will encounter while studying Economics. But, don't be daunted! It's actually simpler than it initially seems; it's just calculation followed by simple division. However, the key to mastering elasticities is to understand the theory and practise doing the sums.

Price Elasticity of Demand

Price Elasticity of Demand (PED) measures the responsiveness of the demand for a product to a change in its price. Typically, we'd expect that demand should increase when the price of a product falls. But, elasticities help us decipher by exactly how much demand changes. It might be the case that a price cut leads to a huge increase in demand, or it might lead to a barely change at all. Therefore, understanding the magnitude of demand's response is important to economists and business people alike.

Mathematically, PED is calculated as follows:

$$\text{Price Elasticity of Demand (PED)} = \frac{\% \text{ Change in Quantity Demanded}}{\% \text{ Change in Price}}$$

That is, PED is the *percentage change* in the quantity demanded divided by the *percentage change* in price. If the demand for a product is said to be *elastic* if a marginal change in price brings about a higher change in demand. If a good is price *inelastic* then the opposite holds.

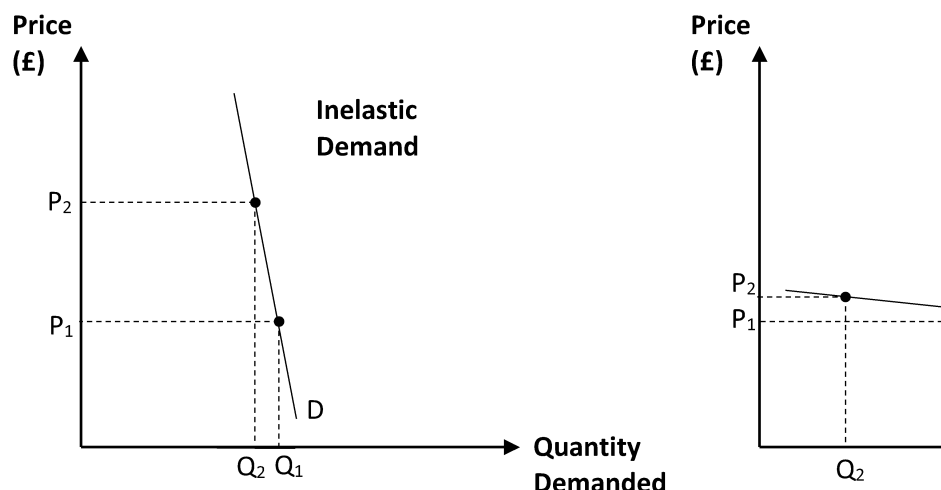
Perfectly Inelastic	
Inelastic	
Unit Elastic	
Elastic	
Perfectly Elastic	

Note that PED values will naturally be negative because of the law of demand, but we usually ignore the *absolute* value. If demand is *perfectly inelastic*, the quantity demanded is unrelated to price. If demand is *perfectly elastic* a small change in price will completely wipe out the change in quantity demanded.

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It can be useful to show these ideas graphically. Below are two diagrams showing demand. Note how in the case of inelastic demand a large change in price (y-axis) results in a small change in the quantity demanded (x-axis). The opposite is true with elastic demand: a small change in price results in a large change in the quantity demanded.



Income Elasticity of Demand

Income Elasticity of Demand (YED) is a very similar concept. Instead of looking at how demand responds to changes in price, though, it looks at the effect of changes in income on demand. Suppose that Tom earns £16,000 and purchases five football tickets a season. How many more games would he go to if he earned £20,000?

The formula for income elasticity of demand (YED) is below. Note that the abbreviation is 'Y' because 'I' denotes investment.

$$\text{Income Elasticity of Demand (YED)} = \frac{\% \text{ Change in Quantity Demanded}}{\% \text{ Change in Income}}$$

Luxury Good	
Normal Good	
Inferior Good	

Naturally, there are some goods for which demand responds negatively to increases in income. These are called 'inferior' goods and include things such as tinned meats and own-brand products. For most goods, however, demand increases exactly that – normal! Generally, consumption tends to increase as our income rises. Finally, 'luxury' goods are a special sort of a normal good for which demand increases disproportionately to income increases, e.g. 3D TVs.

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Part C: Example

In the previous example we mentioned Tom, who earns £16,000 and attends five games a season. He gets promoted at work and earns £4,000 more each year. He still has plenty of spare extra money by going to seven games a season.

1. What is Tom's YED for games?

$$\text{YED} = \frac{\Delta \text{ Quantity Demanded } \%}{\Delta \text{ Price } \%}$$

Change in quantity demanded = 40%

Change in income = 25%

$$\text{YED} = \frac{40}{25} = 1.6$$

1.6 is positive and greater than 1, suggesting that football tickets are a luxury.

Now let's think about price elasticity of demand. Demand for football tickets is perfectly inelastic: fans support their team no matter what. Over the last decade, Premier League ticket prices have risen at rates above inflation but attendance figures have not decreased (though people don't change the team that they support). Recall that the formula for PED is:

$$\text{PED} = \frac{\Delta \text{ Quantity Demanded } \%}{\Delta \text{ Price } \%}$$

We can now apply this formula in the next question.

2. Tom's friend Sarah is a hardy football fan and goes to 16 games a season, supporting her favourite team, 'Melchester FC'. Ticket prices increase from £20 to £25 accordingly and she attends 15 games a season. What is her PED for football matches?

$$\Delta \text{ Quantity Demanded } \% = \frac{(15 - 16)}{16} \times 100 = (-)6.25\%$$

$$\Delta \text{ Price } \% = \frac{(25 - 20)}{20} \times 100 = 25\%$$

Hence, Sarah's PED for football matches is:

$$\text{PED} = \frac{6.25\%}{25\%} = 0.25$$

Recall that PED values of less than 1 indicate **inelastic demand**. Sarah's demand is inelastic: her demand to see games will only decrease slightly following a large price increase.

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Part D: Practice Activities

1.
 - a) The amount by which railway operators can increase fares is linked to the price elasticity of demand. The price of a rail season ticket from Woking to London rose from £3,704 to £3,800, and that the number of season ticket holders fell from 15,000 to 14,750. Calculate the PED for this change in demand, showing your working.
 - b) Is demand for commuter rail tickets elastic or inelastic? Can you think of any reasons for this?
 - c) Draw a diagram to show the PED for these season tickets graphically.
2. This question is about income elasticity of demand (YED). Jasper goes to the cinema 10 times a year. His income increases by 7.5% and he goes to the cinema 14 times a year. What is his YED? Show your working.

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SKILL 11: INTERPRET, APPLY AND ANALYSE INFORMATION GRAPHICAL AND NUMERICAL FORMS (C)

Part A: Specification Overview

Students must possess the skills required to analyse and interpret data presented in AS and A Level. Students need to critically evaluate both qualitative and quantitative arguments. Exam questions will present data in a variety of forms and ask students to interpret information and use it as a prompt to apply knowledge from elsewhere in the course.

Part B: Theoretical Overview

You don't need to memorise facts and figures to get marks in your Economics exams but it will help you to be up to date with the current trends facing our economy.

You will, however, need to know how to interpret data presented in a variety of forms. This may be any combination of tables, graphs and text extracts. Often questions will require you to develop your answer from multiple sources.

So that you are confident with handling and interpreting this sort of information, we recommend that you spend time reading articles with an economic content – *The Financial Times* and *The Economist* are highly recommended. These are subscription-based, but you can access a certain number of articles online for free each month.

Another idea is to look at the monthly economic reviews published by the Office for National Statistics. These are free and easy to find online. They contain all the latest economic figures and you can even download the data yourself if you want to probe a little deeper into your own graphs.

Finally, note the difference between quantitative data and qualitative data. Quantitative values that can be measured and recorded. Most of the data you will come across, e.g. the number of workers in the labour force, inflation figures and the money supply, are quantitative. Qualitative data, on the other hand, is subjective. It looks at *qualities* that can't easily be measured. Examples include interviews or focus groups used to gauge consumer confidence, for which there are no numerical values.

Graphical and Chart Representations of Economic Data

In the Economics B examination you are likely to be presented with economic data in various forms: bar charts, pie charts – so you'll need to familiarise yourself with these before the exam. You may also be presented with a 'time-series' graph, which is a type of graph which tracks change over time (e.g. GDP growth for the last decade), or you might be given a pie chart showing market shares in a particular industry (e.g. the concentration ratio for oligopolistic firms).

Here's a brief recap of some common forms of graphical and tabular information you might encounter in the exam.

Bar Charts:

Usually, this type of chart tends to have *categorical* variables on the x-axis and *numerical* values on the y-axis. Then, there are columns, or bars, on the graph positioned above the categorical variables. The height of each bar correlates to whichever numerical value is on the y-axis.

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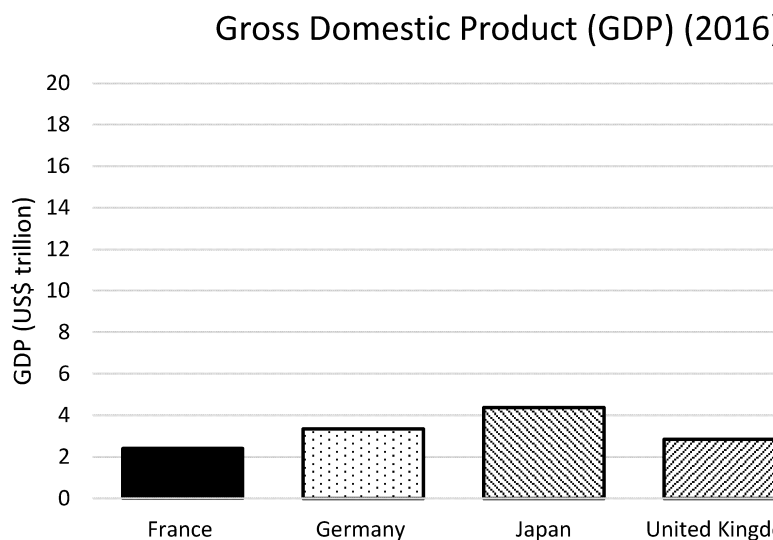


Figure 1

In **Figure 1** you can see that on the x-axis there are the names of four different countries: France, Germany, Japan, the United Kingdom and the United States – in this case, then, the categories are the countries. On the y-axis there is numerical data – in this case we have chosen Gross Domestic Product (GDP). It is possible to observe from the bar chart that Japan's GDP is about \$4.5 trillion.

What is useful about economic data being presented in bar chart form is that you can quickly see which categories are the smallest or largest by simply looking at the height of the bars. For example, Japan's GDP is the greatest because it is the tallest bar in the bar chart (and by so much). Conversely, we know that it is France or the UK whose GDP is the lowest because their bars are the shortest. In actuality, it is France's GDP that is the smallest at \$2.42 trillion, compared to the UK's at \$2.8 trillion. It is difficult to fully establish on this bar chart because of its scale. Therefore, bar charts are useful for comparing values between categories.

Note that **histograms** are a specific type of bar chart where the x-axis has categorical data, as opposed to *qualitative* data – e.g. you could replace the countries in the bar chart with age groups (18–24, 24–30, 30–24, etc.), or simply a single age per column. Interpreting histograms is exactly the same way – the only difference is that the columns will be touching each other to show the continuity of the numbers on the x-axis.

Pie Charts:

Pie charts are circular, just like the pies from which they get their name! This circle is then cut up into segments in order to represent how the 'whole' breaks down into parts. Therefore, the 'whole' should be the *full* amount of the data and each 'part' should represent a certain portion of this whole.

In **Figure 2**, we have got an example which looks at the sectoral make-up of the Chinese economy. We can immediately see that of the *whole* economy (the full circle, or pie) the majority of production occurs in the 'services' (or tertiary) industry. Note that this pie chart could be representing the data either in percentages or in levels, i.e. it could be saying that the service industry makes up 51.6% of the Chinese economy, or it could be saying that services represent \$5.6 trillion of China's \$10.87 trillion economy; it doesn't matter because these amounts amount to exactly the same thing.

Sectoral



■ Agriculture

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What is important to note is that a pie chart shows a percentage of a whole – which is stated as percentages or given to you as levels. The total is 100% and the segments represent percentages of the total – the larger the percentage, the larger the segment.

Pie charts are useful because they help us to compare the size of categories relative to the 'whole.'

Line Graphs:

Line graphs are normally used to display information that changes over time. The x-axis would then have the numerical data value that we're interested in – e.g. time. The y-axis would then have the numerical data value that we're interested in – e.g. GDP or inflation rate. A series of points are plotted that relate the value of the y-axis to the x-axis, and then a line is drawn connecting these points.

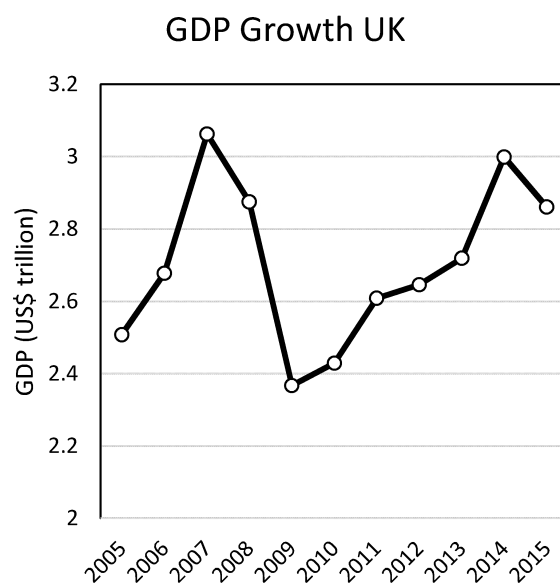


Figure 3

In **Figure 3**, we can see an example of how a line graph looks. It shows the UK's GDP over time. Line graphs are really useful in working out trends in economic data. We can tell, for example, that GDP fluctuates considerably over time by simply looking at the shape of the curve – it rises then falls, and rises and falls again. Note that this is what is referred to as the business cycle in economics. Between 2007 and 2009 the UK (like much of the Western world) experienced a deep recession, which explains why GDP falls so rapidly. Note that from a line graph we can know the magnitude of any increases or decreases by looking at the *slope* of the line. A steeper slope has been more change over a given period.

Finally, we are able to tell at which points in time a certain GDP was reached. If you look at a GDP of 2.8 trillion on the y-axis, you are immediately able to tell that this was initially sometime between 2006 and 2007 and then again between 2013 and 2015, during the recovery.

Finally, line graphs allow us to identify peaks (highest points) or troughs (lowest points). We know, for example, that in 2007, just before the financial crisis, the UK's GDP was just above \$3 trillion, and that by 2009 GDP had fallen to its lowest point.

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Part C: Example

In *Part C* we'll be working through some economic data represented in graph for macroeconomic indicators – the *exchange rate* and the *current account* rate.

Figure 1 shows the UK's unemployment rate for 1989–1994.

UK Unemployment (%) 1989–1994

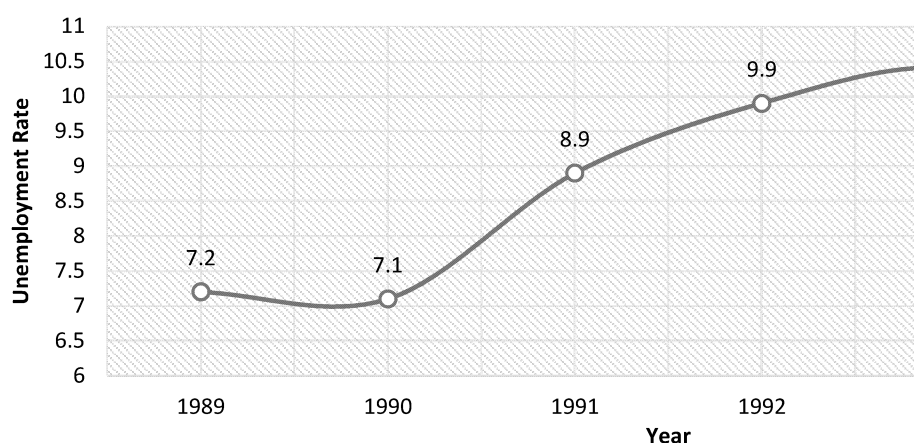


Figure 1

Figure 2 shows the UK's rate of inflation (as measured by changes in the consumer price index (CPI)) for 1989–1994.

UK Inflation (CPI) 1989–1994

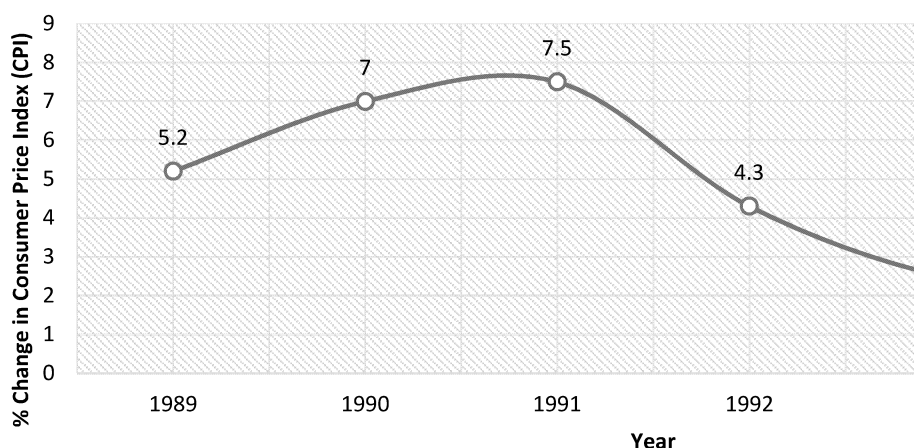


Figure 2

- Using Figure 1, calculate the percentage change in unemployment between 1989 and 1994. In 1989 the UK's unemployment rate was 7.2%. By 1994 it had risen to 10.4%. It is tempting to say that the unemployment rate had increased by 3.3% (10.4% – 7.2% = 3.3%), but this would be incorrect. 3.3 is the 'percentage point' increase in the unemployment rate. To calculate the percentage change, which you should remember from Q51.

$$\% \text{ Change in Unemployment Rate} = \frac{10.4 - 7.2}{7.2} \times 100$$

- Using Figure 2, calculate how much higher inflation was at its highest than in 1989 and 1994.

CPI inflation reached a high of 7.5% in 1991. At its lowest, CPI growth was 4.3% in 1992. The difference between these figures is a simple subtraction calculation: 7.5% – 4.3% = 3.2%

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3. Using Figure 2, between which years did the rate of CPI inflation change the most? Initially, you might be tempted to solve this question by working out the percentage change between the data for each year in Figure 2.

Your findings would look something like this:

Time Period	
1989–1990	
1990–1991	
1991–1992	
1992–1993	
1993–1994	

Clearly, then, the change between 1991 and 1992 is the largest in percentage terms. This was a 42.67% decrease in the CPI rate of inflation and the next largest is the change between 1992 and 1993 with a 41.86% decrease in CPI growth.

However, even if you're confident calculating percentage change, this method isn't the best way to solve a question like this. You might be better off *estimating* the greatest percentage change. It's possible to do this by looking at the *slope* of the curve. The steeper the curve for something is the more responsive it is to changes in the 'time' variable. So, the steeper the curve is, the more something has changed between two cases or years. It's clear from the graph that the *steepest* part of the curve is between 1991 and 1992. Therefore, we could estimate that it is between these years that the rate of inflation changed the most. You could then calculate the actual figure and compare it to some other correct answer to be certain that you've picked the correct time period.

4. Using Figures 1 and 2, explain the relationship between the unemployment rate and the rate of inflation in the UK.

Comparing Figure 1 and Figure 2 should roughly highlight that inflation is falling when unemployment is rising. Conversely, when unemployment is rising, inflation tends to be falling. Look at the shape of the curves in Figure 1 and Figure 2. When the curve is downward-sloping, the inflation rate curve is upward-sloping – this implies that these two macro variables are 'inversely' related. When unemployment is *lower* there is going to be *higher* inflation. More people have money to spend on consumption. If you remember that inflation is caused by 'demand-pull' factors, then it should be clear that inflation is growing when demand is growing faster than aggregate supply. When aggregate demand is growing faster than aggregate supply there will be inflation.

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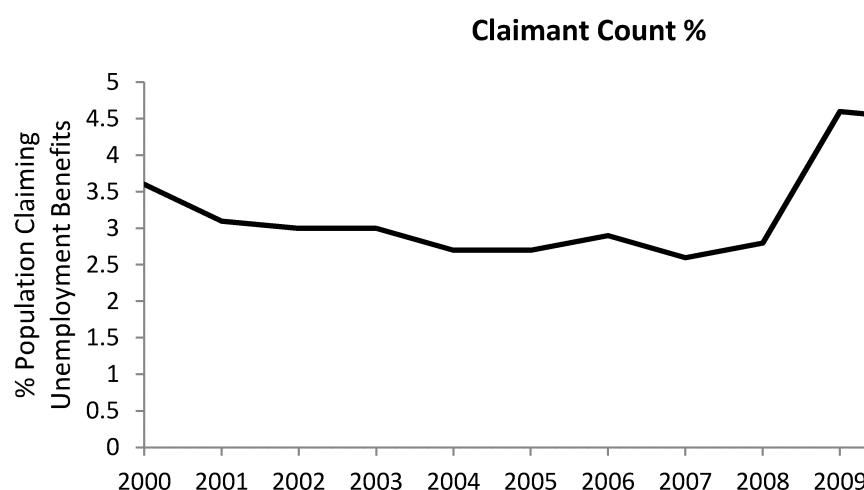
Part D: Practice Activities

Questions in this section will be based on the following information:

Graph 1



Graph 2



Extract 1

'In the six years since the global economic crisis, standard jobs were destroyed and non-standard jobs continued to increase...

Non-standard workers are worse off in terms of many aspects of job security. They receive less training and, in addition, those on temporary contracts have less job security than workers in standard jobs. Earnings levels are also lower.

Source: The Guardian 2015 <http://www.theguardian.com/business/2015/may/21/temporary-and-part-time-jobs-surge-promotes-inequality>

Questions:

1. a) Describe the main trends shown in **Graph 1**. Pay attention to the separate trends for full-time and part-time workers.
- b) One measure of unemployment is the *claimant count*, which considers the number of people claiming Jobseeker's Allowance. The claimant count is shown in **Graph 2**. What can you interpret from this graph?
- c) With reference to the second paragraph of **Extract 1**, explain how a shift from standard to non-standard jobs might have an impact on aggregate demand. Illustrate your answer by drawing a diagram.

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EXTENSION SKILL 12: DISTINGUISH BETWEEN CHANGE IN A VARIABLE AND THE RATE OF CHANGE (C)

Part A: Specification Overview

Students will come across data describing both levels and rates of changes throughout the exams. Students will not be assessed on the specific details of the difference between change and level, but knowledge of each will enhance understanding.

Part B: Theoretical Overview

The **rate of change** is how one variable changes with another.

Often we are concerned with how one amount has varied over time, so the rate of change of a variable changes at a given point.

Think back to **Skill 5**: graphically, the rate of change is the gradient of the line.

$$\text{Gradient} = \frac{\text{Change in Y}}{\text{Change in X}}$$

If the line is not straight, then the rate of change is not constant. In this case we might look at the average rate of change by just taking the beginning and end values and looking at the mean change over the period.

On a graph, change in GDP would not be a straight line – it's very volatile, and can rise or fall. We therefore usually look at the average rate of change of GDP over a period (or years). For example, the rate of change of UK GDP was 0.3% in the first quarter of 2015.

Note that average rate of change is usually expressed in percentage terms. Look back at Skill 5 to refresh the idea of percentage changes. An example is inflation; this is the percentage change in price levels over time.

The **level**, on the other hand, is the total amount of that variable at a given moment. For example, 8 million 16–64-year-olds were not in the labour force in the first quarter of 2015 (of 10 million people not available for work or not looking to work). If it went up to 9 million in the second quarter, that would be a *change* in the level (of 0.02 million).

Note that levels can be expressed in percentage terms *if they are proportions of a total*. For example, 22.1% of the population aged 16–64. GDP, however, cannot be expressed in percentage terms because there is no proportional aspect – there is no total level of GDP to compare to.

It might help you to think of the difference by thinking about how fast a car is travelling. The rate of change, while the speed at any point is a level.

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Part C: Example

The table below shows the estimates for young people (aged 16–24) who were NEET (Not in Employment or Training).

	UK (thousands) Seasonally Adjusted	
Levels	Total NEET 16–24-year-olds	NEETs as %
Oct–Dec 2013	1,041	
Jan–Mar 2014	987	
Apr–Jun 2014	966	
Jul–Sep 2014	954	
Oct–Dec 2014	963	
Jan–Mar 2015	943	
Change		
Change on qtr.	-20	
Change %	-2.1	
Change on year	-44	
Change %	-4.7	

This is a table from the Office for National Statistics (ONS). There are quite a few quite confusing at first, but let's work through it. It highlights well the difference of change.

The table concerns the number of young people (16–24-year-olds) who were NEET (Not in Employment or Training) at certain points in time. The figures have been seasonally adjusted (see the next section).

In the top half of the table we have the **levels** of NEETs. That is, the total number of young people who are NEET. The figures are presented in thousands in the table, so in January–March there was 943 thousand NEETs in the UK.

In the lower half of the table we have the change – in numbers and in percentage – compared to the previous quarter, and previous year. So, in the quarter ending March 2015 there were 20 thousand fewer NEETs in the UK compared to the previous quarter. That is a reduction of 2.1%, which is the rate of change.

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EXTENSION SKILL 13: UNDERSTAND COMPOSITE INDICES

Part A: Specification Overview

Students should understand how composite indicators can be compiled using various indicators. The most important is the Human Development Index (HDI), and students should apply the index and how they are measured and combined (Topic 2.4.2).

Part B: Theoretical Overview

In Economics we use a lot of indicators, from GDP, unemployment and CPI to the built and how many homes have broadband. These are numbers which tell us how well it might fare in the future.

Sometimes, economists and statisticians will group several of these indicators to measure in order to illustrate something that normal indicators cannot show.

This is a **composite indicator**: a new number based on a combination of sub-indicators.

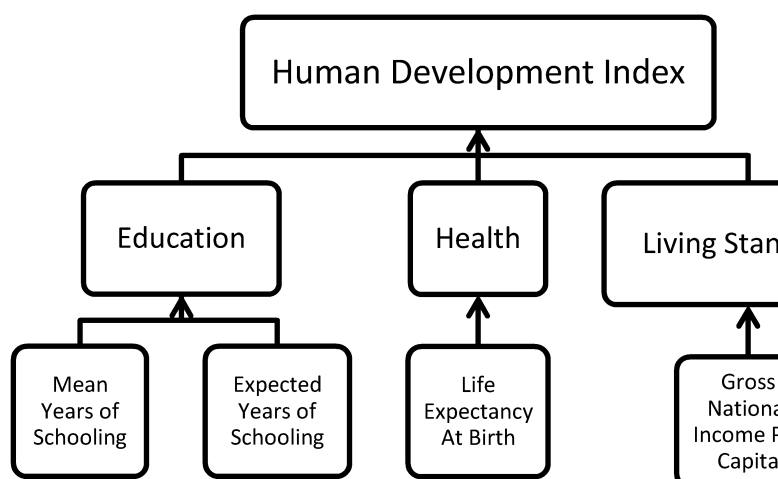
Think about the method for calculating inflation indices such as CPI (see Skill 6). Each item in the basket is assigned a weighting depending on their importance. The price for each item is multiplied by its relevant weight and then they are all added together.

The idea of composite indicators is similar: each sub-indicator must be assigned a weight in the new index that is being created. Often the new index will have no unit of measurement. An element of judgment is needed when creating a composite indicator. Each sub-indicator is 'normalised' so its scale is comparable to the scale of other sub-indicators used.

Part C: Example

When ranking countries on their development, there is an argument that GDP per capita is the best indicator. Generally, more money means better living standards.

However, economists such as Amartya Sen have reasoned that GDP per capita is not enough. It doesn't tell us about health and education, and that a single, simple number would be more useful. Their arguments led to the creation of the Human Development Index (HDI). The HDI combines indicators detailing education, health and living standards into a new, unitless index.



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The sub-indicators considered in the HDI are detailed in the diagram above (edu

An index for each of the three aspects is created, and they are normalised so that they are comparable. The two individual educational indices are given equal weighting.

The HDI is the geometric mean of these three indices:

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

The mathematics of calculating the index is quite complicated and you don't need to know it, but you should have some idea of how the HDI is devised.

Below is a comparison of the top 10 countries ranked by HDI and by GDP per capita. Countries that are on both lists (in bold) which shows how HDI ranks countries differently from GDP.

Top 10 Countries in 2015	
Ranked by HDI	Ranked by GDP per capita (US\$)
1. Norway	1. Luxembourg
2. Australia	2. Switzerland
3. Switzerland	3. Macao SAR, China
4. Germany	4. Norway
5. Denmark	5. Qatar
6. Singapore	6. Ireland
7. Netherlands	7. Australia
8. Ireland	8. United States
9. Canada	9. Denmark
10. United States	10. Singapore

Source: United Nations / World Development Indicators

Finally, there are a few shortcomings of the HDI which are worth pointing out:

- It doesn't take into account any environmental factors.
- It considers gross national income (GNI) per capita – but not how this income is distributed. A country can have high GNI per capita, but also high inequality.
- Human development may vary hugely across the same country if certain regions are more developed than others. On average, but the HDI just gives one figure for the nation as a whole.

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QUANTITATIVE SKILLS ASSESSMENT ACT

Guidance

The assessment that follows is presented in a similar format to the AS and A Level exams, but it is not as rigorous as the A Level exam content too. It has been adapted so there is a great deal of the numerical requirements of the course. The format used is not an exact replication of the A Level exam, but it is a good way for students to warm up with some only numerical content and no long written answers.

The questions in Section A are presented in multiple-choice format, each with four options. As these are not exam style questions, this is a good way for students to warm up with some

Section B has slightly longer-answer questions with a little bit more working required. These are more specific problems that students may have when performing calculations more closely.

Section C presents data in a variety of forms, similar to the format found in the real world. It requires students to both interpret the information and apply their own economic knowledge.

We suggest that students complete the exam after studying the booklet and attempting the questions. The exam is worth 80 marks and we recommend that students have one and a half hours to complete it. This provides the same amount of time as they would get in an exam for this number of marks.

On completion, the assessment could be marked by the class teacher, peer assessed, or self-assessed. Once the assessment has been marked, students can look at their results and identify areas which may benefit from further review.

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Surname	
Other Names	



Supporting AS and A Level Edexcel

Economics

**Quantitative
Targeted Skills**



For this paper you must have:

- a calculator

Time allowed

- 1 hour 30 minutes

Instructions

- Use black ink or black ballpoint pen.
- Fill in the boxes at the top of this paper.
- Answer **all** questions.
- You must answer the questions in the spaces provided. Answers written in the margins will not be marked.
- Do all rough work in this book. Cross through any work you do not want to be marked.

Information

- The marks for questions are shown in brackets.
- The maximum mark for this paper is 80 marks.

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SECTION A

Questions in this section are **multiple-choice**.

Answer all questions. Only **one** answer per question is allowed.

For each answer **circle** the letter alongside the appropriate answer.

If you wish to change an answer, then cross out the original answer with an X.

1. Firm A's capacity utilisation ratio is 0.78 and the firm produces 312 units of output. What is the maximum output that Firm A could produce if it operated at full capacity?

a) 22
b) 78
c) 88
d) 400

2. The number of unemployed people in Sandbourne rises from 34,120 to 35,120. What is the percentage increase in unemployment?

a) 4.60%
b) 4.40%
c) 15.71%
d) 7.03%

3. Interest rates rise from 4% to 5.5%. What percentage change in interest rates is this?

a) 37.5%
b) 1.50%
c) 27.27%
d) 15.00%

4. The table below displays information on the inflation rate of the G7 economies. What is the mean and median rates of inflation for this group of seven countries?

Country	Inflation Rate (CPI) (%)
Canada	1.4
France	0.2
Germany	0.5
Italy	-0.1
Japan	-0.1
United Kingdom	0.6
United States	1.3

a) Mean = 0.453%, Median = 0.6%
b) Mean = 0.543%, Median = 0.6%
c) Mean = 0.453%, Median = 0.5%
d) Mean = 0.543%, Median = 0.5%

5. The price value of a basket of goods in 2010, the base year, is £5.30. In 2011 it costs £5.85 and in 2012 it costs £5.85. What is the index for 2012?

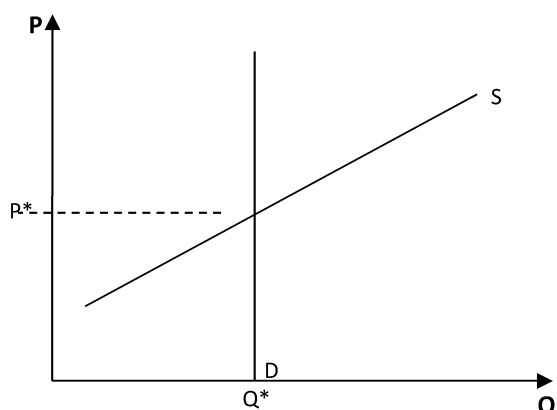
a) 104
b) 110
c) 111
d) 100

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6. When do firms maximise profits?
- When average costs equal average revenue.
 - When marginal revenue equals the average variable costs.
 - When marginal costs are slightly below marginal revenue.
 - When marginal costs equal marginal revenue.
7. Incomes in an economy have risen by 5% and annual sales of musical theatre (14.7 million. What is the income elasticity of demand for musical theatre (assuming demand is affected demand)?
- +1
 - 1
 - 5
 - 0.5
8. The price of 750 g of salt in a supermarket rises from £0.28 to £0.35. The sales fall by 2%. What is the price elasticity of demand for salt?
- 0.08
 - 0.8
 - 12.5
 - 0.28
9. A firm's selling price for one of its products is £224. It sells all of its products. The following is the firm's per unit cost of sales?
- £134.40
 - £160.00
 - £89.60
 - £140.00
10. Real GDP in an economy in 2016 was £120 billion. Between 2015 and 2016 the price level increased from its base of 100 to 106. What was this economy's GDP in nominal terms in 2015?
- £113.2 billion
 - £124.8 billion
 - £127.2 billion
 - £129.6 billion
11. Look at the following diagram, which shows the demand and supply curve



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If supply increased, which of the following would be true?

- a) Consumers will consume more *and* the equilibrium price will fall.
- b) Consumers will consume less *and* the equilibrium price will rise.
- c) Consumers will not change their demand and the equilibrium price will
- d) Consumers will decrease their demand and the equilibrium price will n

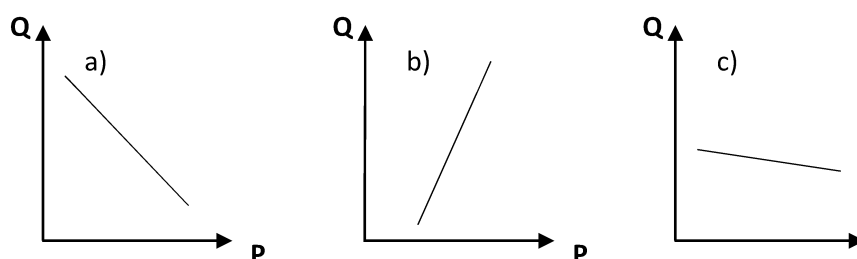
12. Suppose 80 Polish zloty is equal to £14.29. What is the pound-to-zloty exc

- a) 1,143
- b) 11.43
- c) 17.86
- d) 5.6

13. Stephanie pays 40% of her income in tax. She saves 10%, gives 5% to chari
Supposing she has an annual salary of £60,000, how much does she spend

- a) £2,250
- b) £27,000
- c) £2,000
- d) £4,250

14. Look at the following diagrams. Which shows the most elastic demand?



15. Consider the following table. What is the average cost of producing three

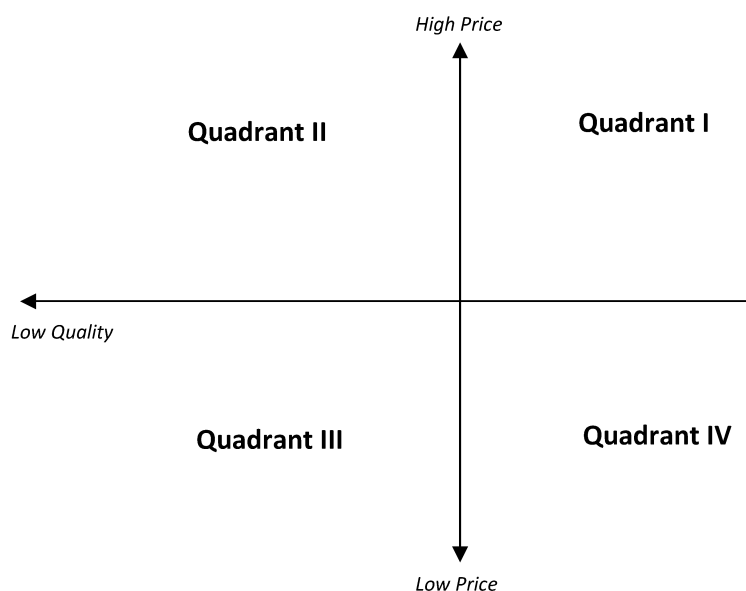
Output	Total Cost (£)
1	12
2	20
3	27
4	33

- a) £8.25
- b) £9.00
- c) £7.00
- d) £27.00

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16. The figure below displays a typical set of 'market map' axes, which plots q



Ludl is a high-street supermarket brand that sells top quality products at h
In which quadrant of the market map above would you place the Ludl bra

- a) Quadrant I
- b) Quadrant II
- c) Quadrant III
- d) Quadrant IV

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SECTION B

Family	Household Income (£)
1	16,000
2	19,000
3	23,000
4	24,000
5	25,000
6	33,000
7	35,000
8	47,000
9	55,000
10	78,000

1. The table above displays information on the household income for 10 families.

a) What is the ratio of Family 1's household income to Family 10's?

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b) What is the median household income?

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c) The mean household income is £35,500. Suppose that this figure rises by 5% each year. What is the new value?

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d) If the rise was two *percentage points* higher, what would the new value be?

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2. The table below displays information on the price of items and their weight for an economy.

a) Fill in the missing figures in the table.

Year	Goods		
	Good	Price	Weight
2010	Good A	£1.00	0.25
	Good B	£2.00	0.15
	Good C	£3.00	0.2
	Good D	£4.00	0.4
2011	Good A	£1.10	0.25
	Good B	£2.00	0.15
	Good C	£3.20	0.2
	Good D	£4.50	0.4
2012	Good A	£1.10	0.25
	Good B	£2.05	0.15
	Good C	£3.25	0.2
	Good D	£4.45	0.4
2013	Good A	£1.10	0.25
	Good B	£2.00	0.15
	Good C	£3.40	0.2
	Good D	£4.40	0.4

b) Which year was the most expensive to live in?

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c) In 2014, Good D was reweighted such that it constituted 50% of the basket. The weight of Good C was reduced to 0.15. What was the price value of the basket in 2014?

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d) What would be the rate of inflation between 2013 and 2014?

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3. The table below displays information on a firm's revenue and costs over a

a) Fill in the marginal cost (MC) column.

Total Output	Total Revenue	MR	Total Cost
1	8	8	6
2	16	8	13
3	24	8	20
4	32	8	28
5	40	8	42

b) What would be this firm's profit-maximising level of output?

4. Mario's Specialist Cakes produces cupcakes for special occasions, including target audience is across the West Midlands. The selling price per cupcake for each one. The business has fixed costs of £3,000 per month. The business sells 3,000 cupcakes a month.

a) Complete the break-even table below for Mario's Specialist Cakes.

Output	Revenue	Total variable costs	Fixed costs
0	£0	£0	
500	£1,000	£250	£3,000
1000	£2,000	£500	£3,000
1500		£750	£3,000
2000	£4,000	£1,000	£3,000
2500	£5,000	£1,250	£3,000
3000	£6,000		£3,000

b) How many cupcakes must the business sell a month to break even?

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c) Explain why Mario's Specialist Cakes has total costs of £3,000, if no cupcakes are sold at a zero level of output.

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- d) Mario's Specialist Cakes is planning to increase the selling price of each cupcake. The new price is expected not to continue selling 3,000 cupcakes a month, as demand



Using the graph above to complete the following:

- Label the original break-even output BE1.
- Label and state the margin of safety on the chart before the price change.
- Plot the new revenue line and label it REV2.
- Label the new break-even output BE2.
- What is the new break-even output level for Mario's Specialist Cakes?

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- Use the chart to work out how much of a profit or loss will be made each month at the new price.

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5. Cineworld, a cinema group with theatre operations in the UK, Ireland and market leader for a number of years. In 2013 it had a 25.5% share of the U

The business has embarked on a period of expansion over the last few years. In 2012 it acquired the arthouse cinema chain, Picturehouse, in 2012 for £47.3 million, which is a mature and cultured target market. During the early part of 2015 it opened both Cineworld and Picturehouse. Six more new cinemas were planned for 2015. Existing cinemas have been refurbished to include the latest technology and new seats, IMAX, 4DX and 'Superscreens'.

Between 2013 and 2014 UK cinema attendance fell by 4.9% to 157.5 million. For the financial year ending December 2013 the Cineworld group's gross operating profit margin 9.2% and profit for the year margin 5.2%. In the financial year 2014 the revenue achieved by the group was £619.4 million, gross profit £180.5 million and profit for the year £54.5 million.

- a) Calculate the 2014 gross profit margin.

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- b) Calculate the 2014 operating profit margin.

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- c) Calculate the 2014 profit for the year margin.

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6. Historically, Japan has struggled with very low inflation – and sometimes c

- a) Imagine a Japanese firm sees its total revenue rise from 350 million yen in 2014 to 2015. What percentage increase is this in nominal terms?

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- b) The price index for 2015 with respect to 2014 is 98.5. What was the price in real terms?

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- c) What was the percentage increase in real revenue?

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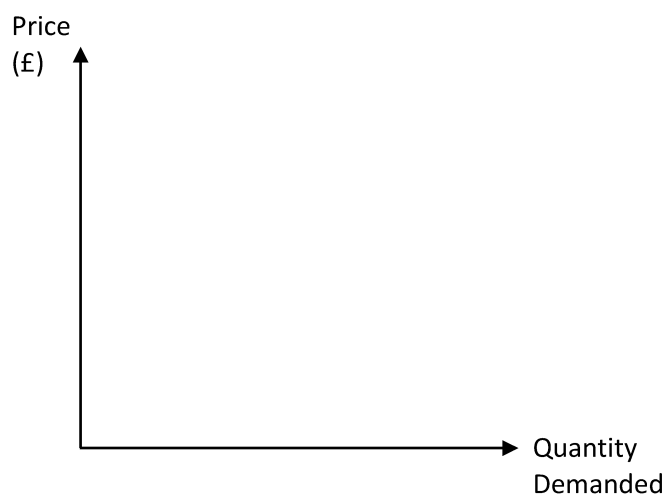
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7. a) A fish and chip shop has to increase the price of its chips after blight on potatoes. The price of a cone of chips rises from £1.20 to £1.40. The shop sees a 10% increase in quantity demanded. Calculate the price elasticity of demand?

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- b) Sketch the demand for chips with respect to price on the graph below



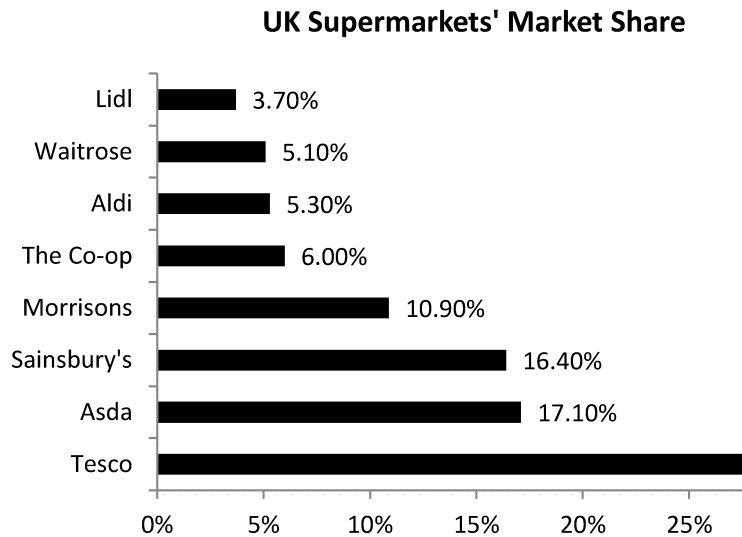
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SECTION C

This section is based on the following information:

Graph 1

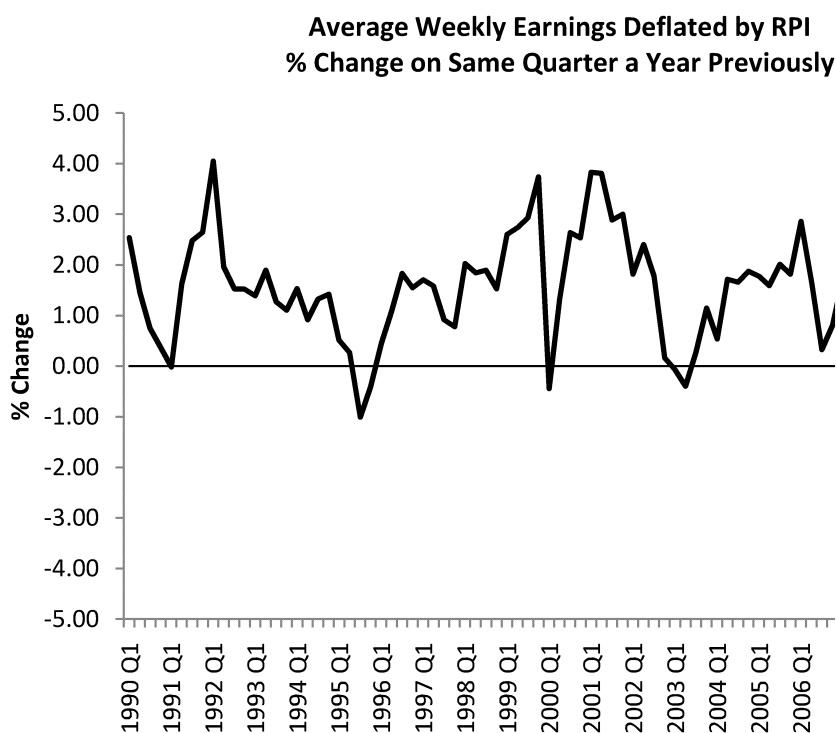


Extract 1

Despite challenging economic conditions, the two main discount supermarkets in the UK have seen their market share increase this year. Aldi experienced growth of over 30%, which resulted in it becoming the second largest supermarket in the UK to date. It currently stands at 4.6%. Lidl also expanded successfully and now has a market share of 3.7%.

Premium supermarkets also managed to expand, with Waitrose slightly increasing its market share to 5.1%. The main losers were the 'big four' of Tesco, Asda, Sainsbury's and Morrisons, which all saw a slight decline in their market share.

Graph 2



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1. Identify key features of the data in Graph 2.

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2. Extract 1 suggests that discount supermarkets have increased their market share. Graph 2, discuss why this might be the case.

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3. Calculate the three-firm concentration ratio (the proportion of the market held by the three largest firms) for supermarkets in the UK.

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SUGGESTED ANSWERS TO PRACTICE ACT

Skill 1: Ratios

- Capacity Utilisation = $\frac{\text{Current Output}}{\text{Maximum Possible Output}} = \frac{5,100,000}{6,800,000} = 0.75$
2 marks. 1 mark for correct answer, 1 mark for showing working.
- Productivity Ratio = $\frac{\text{Output}}{\text{Input}} = \frac{400}{4} = 100$ berries per labour hour
2 marks. 1 mark for correct answer, 1 mark for showing working.
 - Productivity Ratio = $\frac{900}{4} = 225$ berries per labour hour
2 marks. 1 mark for correct answer, 1 mark for showing working.
 - David : Jess = 100 : 225 = 1 : 2.25
- Operating Profit (2015) = $\frac{\text{Operating Profit}}{\text{Revenue}} = \frac{\text{£200,000 mn.}}{\text{£300,000 mn.}} = 0.67$
2 marks. 1 mark for correct answer, 1 mark for showing working.
 - Operating Profit (2016) = $\frac{\text{Operating Profit}}{\text{Revenue}} = \frac{\text{£20,000 mn.}}{\text{£120,000 mn.}} = 0.17$
2 marks. 1 mark for correct answer, 1 mark for showing working.
 - Percentage Change = $\frac{0.17 - 0.67}{0.67} \times 100 = -\frac{0.5}{0.67} \times 100 = -0.746 \times 100 = -75\%$
2 marks. 1 mark for correct answer, 1 mark for showing working.

Skill 2: Percentages, percentage changes and percentage point changes

- $550/890 \times 100 = 61.80\%$
2 marks. 1 mark for the answer, 1 mark for two decimal places and % sign.
- $1/7 \times 100 = 14.29\%$
2 marks. 1 mark for the answer, 1 mark for two decimal places and % sign.
- $[(520\,000 - 498\,000) / 498\,000] \times 100 = 4.42\%$
3 marks. 1 mark for correct approach in working, 1 mark for answer, 1 mark for two decimal places and % sign.
- $9 - 5.1 = 3.9$
1 mark for correct answer. Note that adding % sign is incorrect.
 - $(6.9 - 8.2)/8.2 \times 100 = (-)15.85\%$
2 marks. 1 mark for correct answer, 1 mark for % and two decimal places.
- Price = Cost + 40% Mark-up = £7
 $1.40 (\text{Cost}) = £7$
 $\text{Cost} = \frac{£7}{1.40} = £5$
2 marks. 1 mark for correct answer, 1 mark for showing working.

Skill 3: Mean and median

- Mean = 12 (144/12)
2 marks. 1 mark for correct answer, 1 mark for working.
 - Median = 11 (The numbers are already ordered. The median lies between 10 and 12)
2 marks. 1 mark for the correct answer, 1 mark for an indication the student has worked out the median.
- Mean = £36, median = £33. Hence, the boss would prefer the mean as it's higher.
3 marks. 1 mark for each correct answer, 1 mark for the correct interpretation.

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- b) Tying pay to **median** income would be better for reducing inequality. The mean is skewed by the higher earners. If a boss was concerned about raising his own pay then he would raise the wages of all workers.

2 marks. 1 mark for the correct answer (median), 1 mark for interpreting that

3. Mean income has risen at a consistently higher rate than the median income. This is because the highest earners have risen at a higher rate and, thus, the means are skewed upwards.
3 marks. 1 mark for pointing out that mean income has risen at a higher rate than the median, 1 mark for interpreting the effect this has on inequality, etc.

4. Total Fixed Cost = £8,000

Total Variable Cost = £6.00 × 500 = £3,000

Total Cost = £11,000

Output = 500

Average Cost = $\frac{£11,000}{500} = £22$

5. a) Rwanda's GDP per capita = $\frac{8,095}{11.61} = \$697.24$

- b) Increase in GDP = $8,095 + (0.2)8,095 = 9,714$

GDP per capita (2016) = $\frac{9,714}{11.61} = \$836.69$

Skill 4: Quantiles

1.

Q₁	12	17	20	21	22
Q₂	23	24	25	32	35
Q₃	36	37	37	37	39
Q₄	40	41	45	47	48

3 marks. Award 3 marks if all numbers are correct.

2. The median value is **35.5**.

1 mark. Incorrect if the student has rounded this to 36.

3. The interquartile range is 22.5 to 39.5 (which can also be stated as $39.5 - 22.5 = 17$).
2 marks for the correct answer. Award 1 mark if the student is 0.5 either side of the correct answer.

4. We are looking for the student to talk about the distribution of values: there is a low concentration of values at the lower end. The median value is not in the middle, suggesting that high values skew everything to the right. This is an example of data that may be distributed like this (e.g. income).

3 marks. 1 mark for just pointing out facts about the relevant positions of Q₁, Q₂, etc. 1 mark for sensible points and observations about the distribution of values.

Skill 5: Standard graphical forms

1. a) The table should be filled in as below.

2 marks. 1 mark for each correct column.

Passengers	Revenue	Revenue ₁ (50% increase)	Revenue ₂ (Plus £2)
1	10	15	17
2	20	30	32
3	30	45	47
4	40	60	62
5	50	75	77

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- b) The graph should be drawn below.
2 marks. 1 mark for the correct shape, 1 mark if it passes through the correct



- c) The gradient is $30/2 = 15$. It is a shift **and** a rotation.
2 marks. 1 mark for the gradient, 1 mark for a correct interpretation.

Skill 6: Index numbers

1. Correct answers are shown below.

Year	Goods in the basket		
	Good	Price	Weight
2013	Good X	£5.50	0.5
	Good Y	£0.50	0.1
	Good Z	£1.20	0.4
2014	Good X	£5.40	0.5
	Good Y	£0.50	0.1
	Good Z	£2.20	0.4
2015	Good X	£5.60	0.5
	Good Y	£0.80	0.1
	Good Z	£5.50	0.4

Award **6 marks** for all correct answers and working. Deduct **1 mark** for each of the
2 marks if the attempted working is appropriate and the units are correct (deduct 1
the index column).

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2. The ONS would adjust the weights if they feel that consumer spending habits have changed. If consumers are purchasing more of Good X and less of Good Y. Thus, X should have **2 marks. 1 mark** for the idea that weights may change to reflect changing spending indicated that this specific change means that consumers are buying more of Good X.
3. Price value = £4.27; Index = 130
3 marks. 1 mark for each correct answer, **1 mark** for the working.
4. The idea that although the higher-priced item has decreased in price, it has become more important. Thus, there is inflation.
Award **2 marks. 1 mark** for the idea that Good X has become more important / weight, **1 mark** for correct interpretation of the effect.

Skill 7: Cost, revenue and profit (average and totals)

1. $TR = Q \times P$ so $P = TR / Q = 2000 / 40 = \text{£}50$
Award **2 marks. 1 mark** for rearranging the formula, **1 mark** for correct answer.
2. a) $17/5 = \text{£}3.40$
1 mark for the correct answer.
b) $\text{£}3.40 - \text{£}1.40 = \text{£}2$
1 mark for the correct answer.
c) $TR = \text{£}20$ (slight trick question – the answer is given). Profit = $TR - TC = 20 - 17 = \text{£}3$
2 marks. 1 mark for each correct answer.
d) $AR = P = 20/5 = \text{£}4$
1 mark for the correct answer.
3. a) $AVC = \text{£}10 - \text{£}2 = \text{£}8$
1 mark for the correct answer.
b) AVC increase by 25% – £8 to £10. AFC remains constant. So new AC (total) = $\text{£}10 + \text{£}2 = \text{£}12$
2 marks. 1 mark for working, **1 mark** for correct answer.

Skill 8: Cost, revenue and profit (marginal)

1.

Units of Output	Total Cost	Marginal Cost
0	11	
1	21	10
2	30	9
3	38	8
4	44	6
5	55	11

1 mark for filling in all six values correctly.

2. a)

Total Output	Total Revenue	MR	Total Cost	
1	100	100	70	
2	200	100	140	
3	300	100	200	
4	400	100	300	
5	500	100	510	

4 marks. 1 mark for each column, **1 mark** if working is correct.

- b) Profit is maximised when $MR = MC$. In this case, that is producing four units of output.
2 marks. 1 mark for the profit maximisation rule, **1 mark** for the correct answer.

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Skill 9: Converting money to real terms

- $$[(1110 - 1010) / 1010] \times 100 = 9.9\%$$

2 marks. 1 mark for correct answer, 1 mark for suitable working and % sign.
 - $$[(1110 / 103) \times 100] = \$1077.7$$

2 marks. 1 mark for correct answer and 1 mark for suitable working and \$ sign.
 - $$[(1077.7 - 1010) / 1010] \times 100 = 6.7\%$$

2 marks. 1 mark for correct answer, 1 mark for suitable working and % sign.
- This question is deliberately vague and is designed to give students practice in interpretation. Award **4 marks** for suitable answers. Points include:

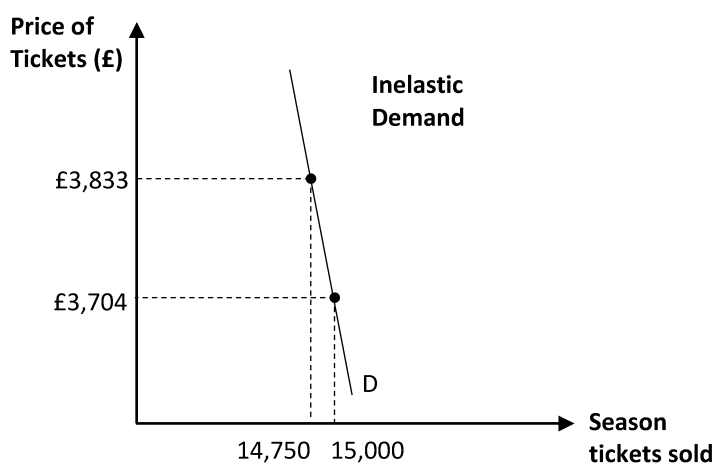
 - In general, wages have grown at a higher rate than inflation.
 - This changed since the 2008 financial crisis and subsequent recession.
 - Now, wages are not rising as fast as inflation.
 - Links to purchasing power (it is now decreasing – people can afford fewer goods).

Skill 10: Elasticity

- $$PED = \text{change in } Q\% / \text{change in } P\% = [(14\,750 - 15\,000) / 15\,000] / [(3833 - 3704) / 3704] = (-1.6/3.48) = \mathbf{-0.46}$$

3 marks. 1 mark for correct PED formula, 1 mark for good working, 1 mark for correct answer.
 - Inelastic** (less than 1). This is because commuters may have no other way of getting to work despite price rises.

2 marks. 1 mark for the correct answer (inelastic), 1 mark for a suitable explanation.
 - We are looking for something like this:



3 marks. 1 mark for the steep slope showing inelastic demand, 1 mark for labeling the line, 1 mark for adding the values on the axes and connecting them to the slope.

- $YED = \text{change in } Q\% / \text{change in income}\% = [(14 - 12) / 12] / 7.5 = \mathbf{2.2}$

3 marks. 1 mark for the correct answer, 1 mark for correct formula, 1 mark for working.

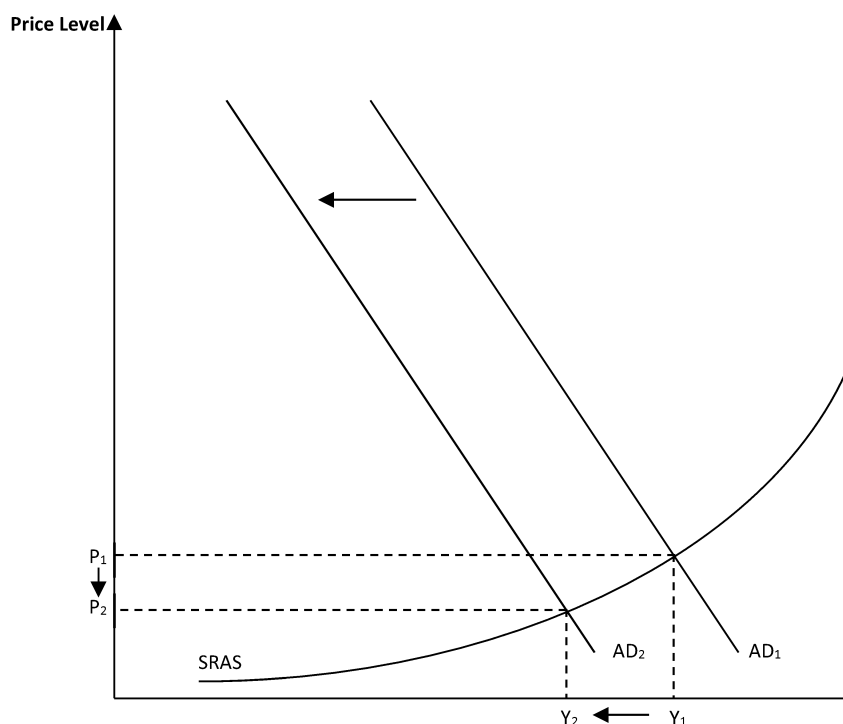
Skill 11: Information in written, graphical and numerical forms

- Total 4 marks.** There is a lot going on in this graph. **1 mark** for correctly interpreting that part-time employment has decreased since 2008 and **1 mark** for interpreting that part-time employment has increased since 2008. **1 mark** for discussing some numbers from the graph – check that students have interpreted the numbers correctly. **1 further mark** for any other correct observation, e.g. the two lines mirror each other, the financial crisis, etc.
 - Total 3 marks. 1 mark** for pointing out that the claimant count has risen since 2008 and is higher, **1 mark** for correctly using an example figure from the graph, **1 further mark** for discussing the claimant count, e.g. the claimant count may be higher if fewer workers had shifted to part-time in 2008 and has then remained steady, not yet decreasing to pre-crisis levels.

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- c) **Total 5 marks.** The key line here is '...those on temporary contracts have more than workers in standard jobs. Earnings levels are also lower.' With lower earnings, a likely reaction is to reduce expenditure. Therefore, the AD curve would shift inward. It declines (recall that $AD = C + I + G + (X - M)$). Award **2 marks** for this observation. Award **a further 3 marks** for drawing a suitable AD/AS diagram – showing leftward shift to AD_2 because of a reduction in consumption owing to falling incomes and a loss of security. We are looking for something like this:



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MARK SCHEME FOR QUANTITATIVE SKILLS TASK

Section A: Multiple-choice Questions (16 marks)

1. C	5. B	9. B
2. A	6. D	10. C
3. A	7. A	11. C
4. D	8. A	12. D

Detailed answers:

1. Firm A's capacity utilisation ratio is 0.78 and the firm produces 312 units of output per week could Firm A produce if it operated at full capacity? [1]

Capacity Utilisation Rate = 0.78

Utilised Capacity: Unutilised Capacity $\rightarrow 0.78 : 0.22 \rightarrow 312 : X$

$$\frac{312}{312 + X} = 0.78$$

$$\therefore X = 88$$

2. The number of unemployed people in Sandbourne rises from 34,120 to 35,690. What is the percentage increase?

$$\frac{(35\,690 - 34\,120)}{34\,120} \times 100 = 4.601\%$$

3. Interest rates rise from 4% to 5.5%. What percentage change in interest rates is this?

$$\left(\frac{(5.5 - 4)}{4} \right) \times 100 = 37.5\%$$

4. What are the mean and median rates of inflation for this group of seven countries?

$$\text{Mean} = \frac{\text{Total Sum of Values}}{\text{Number of Values}} = \frac{3.8}{7} = 0.543$$

$$\text{Median} = \left\{ \frac{N+1}{2} \right\}^{\text{th}} \text{ value} \therefore \left\{ \frac{7+1}{2} \right\}^{\text{th}} \text{ value} = 4^{\text{th}} \text{ value} = 0.5$$

5. The price value of a basket of goods in 2010, the base year, is £5.30. In 2011 the same basket costs £5.85. What is the index for 2011?

$$\left(\frac{5.85}{5.30} \right) \times 100 = 110.38$$

6. When do firms maximise profits?

Firms maximise profits when MC = MR. The golden rule.

7. Incomes in an economy have risen by 5% and annual sales of musical theatre tickets have risen by 5 million. What is the income elasticity of demand for musical tickets (if nothing else has affected demand)?

$$\text{YED} = \frac{\Delta \text{ demand \%}}{\Delta \text{ income \%}}$$

$$\Delta \text{ demand \%} = \left(\frac{(14.7 - 14)}{14} \times 100 \right) = 5$$

$$\text{YED} = \frac{5}{5} = 1$$

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8. The price of 750 g of salt in a supermarket rises from £0.28 to £0.35. The supermarket is the price elasticity of demand for salt?

$$PED = \frac{\Delta \text{ quantity demanded } \%}{\Delta \text{ price } \%}$$

$$\Delta \text{ price } \% = \left(\frac{(35 - 28)}{28} \times 100 \right) = 25$$

$$PED = \frac{2}{25} = 0.08$$

9. A firm's selling price for one of its products is £224. It sells all of its products at a 40% profit. What is the firm's per unit cost of sales?

$$\text{Price} = £224$$

$$\text{Price} = \text{Cost of Sales} + 40\% \text{ Cost of Sales}$$

$$£224 = 1.40 (\text{Cost of Sales})$$

$$\text{Cost of Sales} = \frac{£224}{1.40} = £160$$

10. Real GDP in an economy in 2016 was £120 billion. Between 2015 and 2016 the CPI rose from its base of 100 to 106. What was this economy's GDP in nominal terms in 2016?

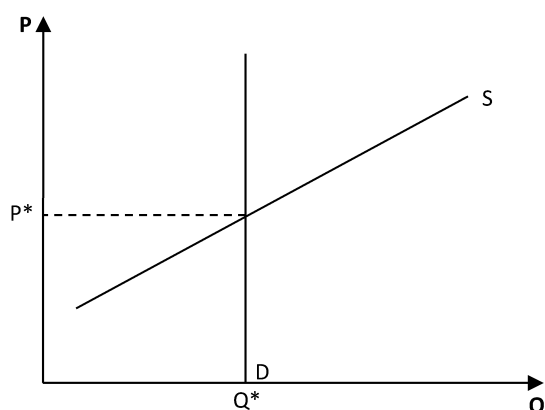
$$\text{Nominal GDP}_{2016} \times \text{GDP Deflator}_{2016} = \text{Real GDP}_{2016}$$

$$\text{Nominal GDP}_{2016} \times \frac{\text{CPI}_{\text{Base (2015)}}}{\text{CPI}_{2016}} = \text{Real GDP}_{2016}$$

$$\text{Nominal GDP}_{2016} \times \frac{100}{106} = £120 \text{ billion}$$

$$\text{Nominal GDP}_{2016} = \frac{£120 \text{ billion} \times 106}{100} = \frac{£12720 \text{ bn}}{100} = £127.20 \text{ billion}$$

11. Look at the following diagram, which shows the demand and supply curve for a commodity.



If supply increased, which of the following would be true?

If supply increased, the supply curve would shift outward (to the *right*) and the equilibrium quantity would increase. However, because the demand curve is *perfectly inelastic* the change in price would be a *decrease*. Consumers demand the same quantity at a range of different prices..

12. Suppose 80 Polish zloty is equal to £14.29. What is the pound-to-zloty exchange rate?

Note that the pound-to-zloty exchange rate can be expressed as a *ratio*:

$$80\text{zł} : £14.29$$

$$\frac{80\text{zł}}{14.29} : \frac{£14.29}{14.29}$$

$$\therefore £1 = 5.6 \text{ zł}$$

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13. Stephanie pays 40% of her income in tax. She saves 10%, gives 5% to charity and has an annual salary of £60,000, how much does she spend per month?

$$100 - (40 + 5 + 10) = 45$$

$$0.45 \times 60\,000 = 27\,000$$

$$\frac{27\,000}{12} = \text{£}2,250$$

14. Look at the following diagrams. Which shows the most elastic demand?

Diagram c is the most elastic – the flatter line means that a small change in price tri in quantity demanded.

15. Consider the following table. What is the average cost of producing three units of

$$\frac{27}{3} = \text{£}9$$

16. In which quadrant of the market map above would you place the Ludl brand?

The Ludl brand sells top-quality products (*High Quality*) at discounted prices (*Low P* sensible to place the brand in Quadrant IV (the bottom right quadrant).

Section B: Longer-answer Questions (28 marks)

1. a) Income of Family 1 = £16,000
Income of Family 10 = £78,000
Family 1 : Family 10 → £16,000 : £78,000 → 1 : 4.875
2 marks. 1 mark for the correct answer, 1 mark for working.
- b) The median is **£29,000**. $[(25\,000 + 33\,000) / 2]$
2 marks. 1 mark for the correct answer, 1 mark for good attempt at working c
- c) $35\,500 + [(3 / 100) \times 35\,500] = \text{£}36,565$
1 mark for the correct answer.
- d) $35\,500 + [(5 / 100) \times 35\,500] = \text{£}37,275$
2 marks for the correct answer and working.

2. a)

Year	Goods		
	Good	Price	Weight
2010	Good A	£1.00	0.25
	Good B	£2.00	0.15
	Good C	£3.00	0.2
	Good D	£4.00	0.4
2011	Good A	£1.10	0.25
	Good B	£2.00	0.15
	Good C	£3.20	0.2
	Good D	£4.50	0.4
2012	Good A	£1.10	0.25
	Good B	£2.05	0.15
	Good C	£3.25	0.2
	Good D	£4.45	0.4
2013	Good A	£1.10	0.25
	Good B	£2.00	0.15
	Good C	£3.40	0.2
	Good D	£4.40	0.4

The table should be filled in as above. Award **3 marks**, subtracting **1 mark** for c

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- b) A basket of goods cost the same in **2011 and 2013**; 2012 was very similar.
1 mark for the correct answer.

c)

Good A	£1
Good B	£2
Good C	£
Good D	£
Total	

2 marks for the correct answer and working.

- d) $\text{Inflation}_{2013-2014} = \frac{\text{Price Level}_{2014} - \text{Price Level}_{2013}}{\text{Price Level}_{2013}} \times 100 = \frac{3.35 - 3.02}{3.02} \times 100 = 0.1$

2 marks for the correct answer and working.

3. a)

Total Output	Total Revenue	MR	Total Cost	
1	8	8	6	
2	16	8	13	
3	24	8	20	
4	32	8	28	
5	40	8	42	

The MC column should be filled in as above. Award **3 marks**, subtracting **1 mark**

- b) The profit-maximising output is at MC = MR, which is **four units**.
1 mark for identifying that profit-maximising output = 4.

4. a)

Output	Revenue	Total variable costs	Fixed costs
0	£0	£0	£3,000
500	£1,000	£250	£3,000
1000	£2,000	£500	£3,000
1500	£3,000	£750	£3,000
2000	£4,000	£1,000	£3,000
2500	£5,000	£1,250	£3,000
3000	£6,000	£1,500	£3,000

1 mark for each correct answer up to a maximum of **4 marks**

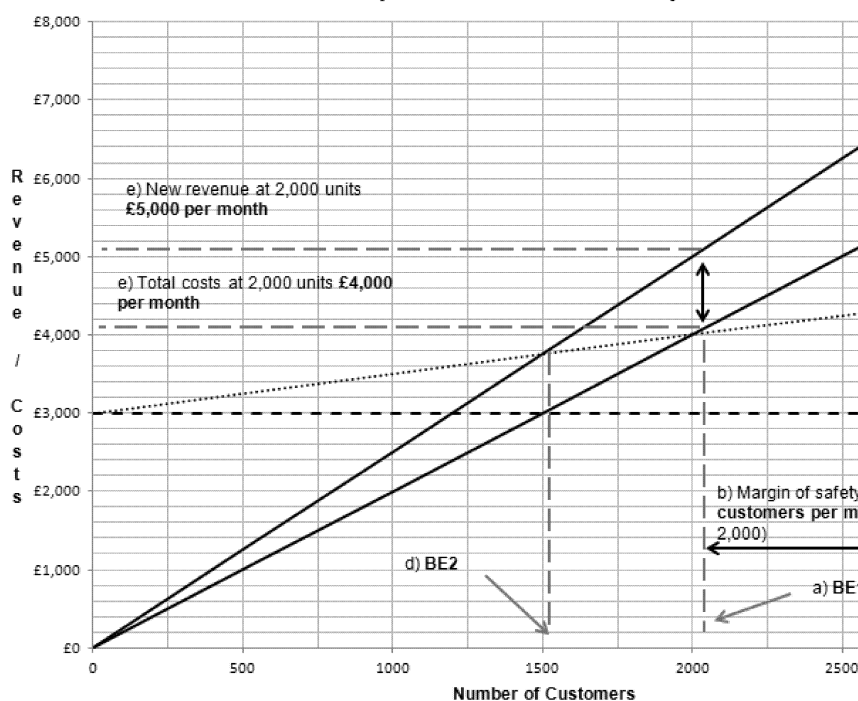
- b) 2,000 cupcakes a month are required to break even – **1 mark** for correct answer
- c) The total costs include fixed costs which have to be paid regardless of whether sells anything or not (**1 mark**).
Total of **1 mark** available

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d)

Mario's Specialist Cakes - Monthly break even chart



- i) 1 mark labelling break-even at 2,000 customers (total of 1 mark)
- ii) 1 mark labelling the margin of safety between 2,000 and 3,000 c
1 mark identifying the margin of safety as 1,000 customers
Total of 2 marks available
- iii) 1 mark new revenue line has a minor error **or**
2 marks new revenue line accurate
1 mark labelling the new revenue line REV2
Total of 3 marks available
- iv) 1 mark new break-even labelled at 1,500 (total of 1 mark available)
- v) 1 mark correct answer, 1,500 cupcakes per month (total of 1 mark available)
- vi) Revenue at 2,000 customers per month is £5,000 at the new price level, business is expected to make a £1,000 profit per month (£5,000 – £4,000)
1 mark each correct revenue and total costs data (maximum 2 marks)
1 mark correct formula
1 mark correct profit answer: £1,000 p/month
Total of 4 marks available

5. a) $\frac{£180.4m}{£619.4m} \times 100 = 29.1\% \text{ GPM}$

See Activity 6 Q1 answer for guidance on allocating marks
Total of 3 marks available

b) $\frac{£76.0m}{£619.4m} \times 100 = 12.3\% \text{ NPM}$

See Activity 6 Q1 answer for guidance on allocating marks
Total of 3 marks available

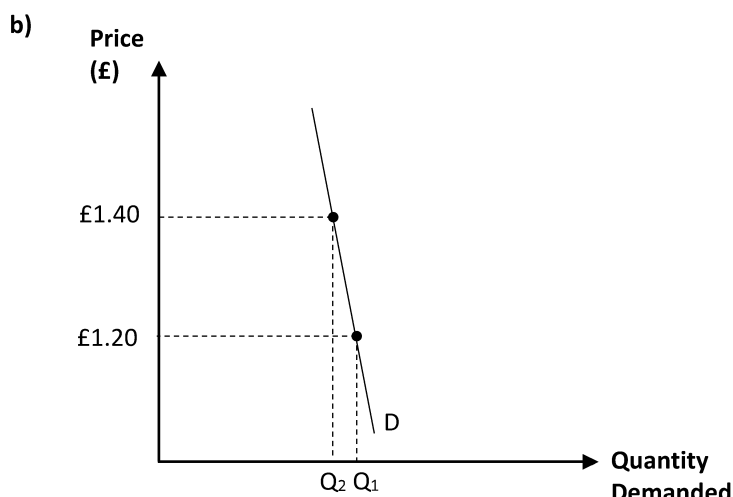
c) $\frac{£54.5m}{£619.4m} \times 100 = 8.8\% \text{ PYM}$

See Activity 6 Q1 answer for guidance on allocating marks
Total of 3 marks available

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6. a) $[(385 - 350) / 350] \times 100 = 10\%$
2 marks. 1 mark for the correct answer, 1 mark for working and the % sign.
- b) $(385 / 98.5) \times 100 = 390,860,000 \text{ yen}$
2 marks. 1 mark for the correct answer, 1 mark for working and writing 'yen'.
- c) $[(390\,860\,000 - 350\,000\,000) / 350\,000\,000] \times 100 = 11.68\%$
2 marks. 1 mark for the correct answer; 1 mark for working, two decimal places.
7. a) $PED = 12/16.6 = 0.72$
2 marks. 1 mark for the correct answer, 1 mark for working.



We are looking for a steep downwards-sloping line.

2 marks. 1 mark for the correct line shape; 1 mark for labelling axes, etc.

Section C: Data Response

- This is quite a tricky graph to interpret. The key is that when the line is below 0 the previous year, even if the line is moving upwards.
up to 3 marks: up to 2 marks for describing the main trend of the line (recent decrease in trend of a rise), 1 mark for linking a trend to economic knowledge, 1 mark for any other observation (e.g. quite volatile data).
- The main point here is that real earnings have decreased, and so much of the population in real terms. Hence, the discount or budget supermarkets have become more popular.
3 marks for correct interpretation and relevant discussion.
- Concentration ratio = $(29.4 + 17.1 + 16.4) = 62.9\%$
2 marks. 1 mark for correct answer; 1 mark for working, the decimal place and the % sign.

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APPENDIX 1: KEY UK ECONOMIC INDICATORS

All figures for are 2016 unless otherwise stated

Growth	GDP	\$
	Real GDP growth	1
	GDP per capita	\$
	Gross national saving rate	1
GDP by sector	Agriculture	0
	Industry	1
	Services	8
Labour	Labour force	3
	Unemployment rate	4
	Population below poverty line	1
Household income by percentage share	Bottom 10%	1
	Top 10%	3
Public debt	92.2% of GDP	
Inflation	Consumer prices	0
Trade	Exports	\$
	Imports	\$

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