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Topic Tests for AS / A Level Year 1 OCR

Macroeconomics

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Teacher's Introduction

This resource consists of a set of Topic Tests that have been written to support the teaching of OCR AS (or Year 1) Macroeconomics. It allows teachers and students to check their understanding and consolidate knowledge of each part of the OCR specification. In each Topic Test there is a mixture of numerical, multiple-choice, short-answer and essay-style questions of a variety of different difficulties. There are 12 Topic Tests in this resource.

Importantly, each Topic Test is accompanied by a set of detailed answers that could be handed out to students as a basis for 'model' answers in the examination. Note that although the Topic Test questions aren't always in exam format, the questions within have been written carefully with the intention of testing the range of Assessment Objectives and often borrow aspects that are similar to those in the exam.

Most of the case studies in the Topic Tests include up-to-date economic data and scenarios that should place economic theory in recent history, enrich students' general knowledge of the subject, and prepare students for the Data Response aspects of the examination. Moreover, the resource also includes plenty of opportunities for students to practise the Quantitative Skills outlined in the Appendix of the OCR specification.

Each Topic Test contains approximately 30–40 marks worth of questions, although occasionally the tests might include an additional number of marks in order to fully cover the OCR specification. It is intended that these Topic Tests will take about one hour to complete and should be presented to students *after* teaching the parts of the specification that are to be tested. However, the Topic Tests could also be given to students as homework in order to consolidate their knowledge outside of the classroom, or certain aspects could be used as a supplement to in-class learning.

It is important to note that this resource should be used as a complement to other resources such as textbooks and practice exam papers, and not in isolation. These Topic Tests include plenty of explanation of the theory in the mark scheme, but students should be encouraged to access information as widely as possible.

It is hoped that this resource, as well as offering support for teaching the essential elements of the OCR AS Macroeconomics specification, will help students fully prepare for their AS and A Level examinations. The economic environment is constantly in flux, and full of fascinating current issues. This resource attempts to share some of these current issues as a basis for teaching in the most interesting way possible, meanwhile encouraging further study from the next generation of Economists!

Happy teaching!

November 2019

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Mark Scheme: Levels of Response Tables for Long-answer Questions

8 marks

Knowledge (1), application (1) and analysis (3)		
	0	No relevant answer given.
Level 1	1–3	Some knowledge of economic concepts is shown, partially linked to the question, but may focus too much on one side of an argument.
Level 2	4–5	Knowledge of the economic concepts is very accurate. Links to the question are clear. Examples are relevant. Analysis is well reasoned and logical, and appropriate for the question.
Evaluation (3)		
	0	No evaluation.
Level 1	1	Limited attempt at evaluation – may be only loosely related to the question.
Level 2	2–3	Accurate, balanced evaluative comments are made, supporting a rounded conclusion to the question.

10 marks

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

15 marks

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

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20 marks

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

25 marks

Level of Response	Response
5	Strong answer with well-grounded evaluation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Clear understanding of the economic ideas • Applied accurately to the question, using supporting data where needed • Sound, well-reasoned analysis • Strong, well-supported evaluation
4	Strong answer, with some good evaluation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Clear understanding of the economic ideas • Applied accurately to the question, using supporting data where needed • Some sound, well-reasoned analysis • Reasonable evaluation content, with some support
3	Reasonable answer, but poor evaluation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Adequate understanding of the economic ideas • Satisfactorily applied to the question, using some supporting data • Adequate analysis, might be underdeveloped or lacking in detail • Reasonable attempt at evaluation, but lacking support for arguments
2	Fairly weak answer <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Limited understanding of economic ideas • Loosely applied to the question • Limited analysis, may be unfocused and incorrect • Limited attempt at evaluation, likely to be unsupported
1	Weak answer <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Poor understanding of relevant economics • Limited analysis • Unsupported or irrelevant evaluation

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Mark Breakdown Test-by-test

Test
1.1–2: Circular Flow of Income and Aggregate Demand
1.3–4: Aggregate Supply
2.1: Economic Growth
2.2: Development
2.3: Employment
2.4: Inflation
2.5: Balance of Payments
3.1: Fiscal Policy
3.2: Monetary Policy
3.3: Supply Side Policy
3.4: Policy Conflicts
4.1: International Trade and Exchange Rates

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2.5: Balance of Payments

1. What is meant by the Balance of Payments (BoP)?
2. Which of the following items would appear on the *current* account?
 - A International aid
 - B FOREX reserves
 - C Initial foreign direct investment into the UK
 - D Initial portfolio investment into the UK
3. Which of the following items would appear on the *financial* account?
 - A Trade in goods
 - B Trade in services
 - C Initial foreign direct investment into the UK
 - D Investment income
4. Table 1 outlines information on the UK's *current account* for Quarter 4 of 2015.

Table 1

Component	Balance (£ million)
Exports (Goods)	82,057
Exports (Services)	64,892
Imports (Goods)	113,701
Imports (Services)	38,093
Net Factor Income	-1,035
Net Transfer Payment	-6,208

Calculate the UK's balance on the current account.

5. Which of the following explains what is meant by an imbalance on the BoP?
 - A When the BoP account doesn't sum to zero.
 - B When one or more of the components of the BoP doesn't sum to zero.
 - C When all of the components of the BoP individually sum to zero.
 - D When there is a deficit on the current account of the BoP.
6. The UK's current account balance deficit reached a record high in 2015. It was £12.5 billion. Discuss the factors that could have affected the UK's net trade in such a manner.
7. It is often argued that achieving a 'sustainable' position on the balance of payments is a macroeconomic objective. Assess the consequences of imbalances on the BoP.

The UK has run a current account deficit consistently since 1983. Margaret Thatcher, prime minister of the UK, is often associated with a restructuring and modernisation of the economy. Many individuals in the primary and secondary sectors were unemployed. The UK, however, has been strongly since Thatcher's premiership. In 2016, the UK's current account deficit reached a record high of £12.5 billion, which was the second largest deficit since comparable records began.

8. Assess the causes of the UK's imbalance on the balance of payments.

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3.1: Fiscal Policy

1. Laissez-faire Economists tend to cite the 'crowding out' effect of fiscal policy government intervention. Explain what is meant by the crowding out effect.
2. Table 1 gives fictional information on the amount of income tax paid by individuals with different income in three different economies.

Table 1

Income	Taxed Income		
	United Kingdom	Russia	USA
20,000	2,000	3,000	4,000
40,000	6,000	6,000	6,000
60,000	12,000	9,000	6,000

Identify which economy has a progressive, proportional, or regressive system.

3. Which of the following is an example of *indirect* taxation?
 - A Corporation Tax
 - B Income Tax
 - C Property Tax
 - D Value Added Tax (VAT)
4. Which of the following is the correct explanation for the structural deficit?
 - A Structural deficits are those deficits that arise from the changing nature of government's finances.
 - B Structural deficits are those deficits that arise from fundamental imbalances in government's finances.
 - C Structural deficits are those deficits that arise from the short-term effects of the macroeconomic environment.
 - D Structural deficits refers to the accumulation of budget deficits over time.
5. What is meant by a government's 'budget'?
6. Which of the following is an example of capital government expenditure?
 - A Universal Credit payments
 - B Income paid to public sector employees
 - C Investment in an infrastructure project such as HS2
 - D Expenditure on interest payments on the national debt
7. Table 2 gives information about the tax system of a fictional economy.

Table 2

Band	Taxable Income (p.a.)	Rate
Personal Allowance	Up to £11,500	0%
Basic Rate	£11,501 to £45,000	20%
Higher Rate	£45,001 to £150,000	40%
Top Rate	Above £150,000	45%

- (i) If you earn £90,000 per annum what would the marginal tax rate be on the last £10,000 of your income?
- (ii) If you earn £150,000 per annum what would the marginal tax rate be on the last £10,000 of your income?
- (iii) If you earn £60,000 per annum calculate your average tax rate (to 1 decimal place).

8. Using the Laffer curve, explain the relationship between tax revenue and the tax rate.

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9. The United Kingdom's Conservative government budget for 2016 outlined that the government had received £716 billion in revenue, but a projected £772 billion in government expenditure.
 (i) Calculate the UK government's budget position for 2016.
 (ii) What is meant by a budget deficit?
10. What is the relationship between a budget deficit and the national debt?
11. Explain how 'automatic stabilisers' can dampen the effects of the economic cycle.
12. The UK government is considering reducing income tax in order to stimulate economic growth. Analyse the likely effect of the UK government using fiscal policy.
13. 'The UK's tax code handbook is the longest of any country on Earth at 17,000 pages. This is because the UK has a complex system of income tax. Flat-rate income tax systems can be beneficial because they make paying tax simpler.'

Evaluate whether the UK should introduce a flat rate of income tax.



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3.2: Monetary Policy

- What is meant by the 'interest rate'?
 - How can the interest rate influence aggregate demand (AD)?
- 'Quantitative Easing' (QE) refers to which of the following explanations?
 - When an economy's monetary policy authority establishes economic forecasts for future interest rate changes in order to influence market expectations.
 - When an economy's monetary policy authority provides stimulus to the money creation and purchase of financial assets.
 - When an economy's monetary policy authority conducts monetary policy in line with a target.
 - When an economy's monetary policy authority distributes money directly by handing out a citizens' dividend.
- What is meant by inflation targeting?

The European Central Bank has a target of achieving inflation that is 2.0% or below. It also has an inflation target of 2.0%, but tends to avoid inflation being either above or below. The Federal Reserve, however, doesn't have an explicit inflation target.

- How can inflation targeting affect the behaviour of economic agents?
- Explain **two** limitations to the effectiveness of monetary policy measures.

On the 4th of August 2016, the Bank of England's Monetary Policy Committee (MPC) cut interest rates to a historic low of 0.25% from the previous 0.5%. The UK's inflation rate around this time was 0.1%, which is below the MPC's target of 2.0%. Its predictions of the UK's rate were revised downwards from 2.3% to 0.8% largely because of the uncertainty over the UK's economy that has resulted from Brexit. The MPC is also considering cutting rates to 'close to, but a little above, zero' if the economy performs as poorly as Bank of England forecasts. However, the Brexit result has also resulted in a depreciation of the pound sterling, which has increased the cost of the UK's imported goods.

- Evaluate the MPC's decision to cut interest rates on the government's macroeconomic objectives.
- Explain, using an AD/AS diagram, how monetary policy can be used to respond to an international financial crisis.

Hong Kong's monetary authorities have managed one of the most successful fixed exchange rates in modern history. Since October 1983, it has managed to fix the Hong Kong dollar at HK\$7.75 per US\$ without any significant fluctuation. Hong Kong's currency stability has allowed it to maintain a strong external sector – in fact, Hong Kong's total trade in goods and services amounted to 400.9% of its GDP in 2015.

However, given Hong Kong's close proximity to mainland China, its currency peg is coming under pressure. The Chinese economy is slowing and a large proportion of Hong Kong's exports go to mainland China and the mainland. Therefore, a slowdown in China's GDP growth is likely to impact the Hong Kong economy by reducing the flow of trade, tourism and finance between the two. Moreover, the US's interest rate is on the rise which will prevent the Hong Kong government from lowering its interest rate, which will weaken economic growth across the border in China.

- Evaluate whether Hong Kong's government should maintain a fixed exchange rate for its currency.

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3.3: Supply Side Policy

1. Explain the difference between supply-side policies and supply-side improvement.
2. Which of the following is *not* an example of a supply-side policy?
A Reforming the social security system
B Immigration
C Quantitative Easing
D Deregulation
3. Assess **one** policy that a government could employ in order to improve labour productivity.

In London, Crossrail 1's 'Elizabeth' line is set to open in 2021. Crossrail 1 is set to bring economic benefits in London and the South East by bringing in an additional 1.5 minutes travel time of the City. Crossrail 2, which will travel from London's North to the South, will bring similar benefits and should be completed in the not-so-distant future.

4. Explain, using one or more diagrams, how investing in Crossrail 1 and 2 will improve the productivity of the economy.
5. Explain **two** reasons that increasing benefit payments might be unsuccessful in reducing income inequality.
6. Evaluate the advantages and disadvantages of privatising state-owned enterprises in order to promote competition.
7. In the UK, Brexit has become somewhat synonymous with anti-immigration. However, there is a wealth of research that has shown that immigration can be beneficial for the economy.
Explain, using an appropriate example, how immigration can remedy an economic problem such as structural unemployment.
8. Evaluate the capacity of supply-side policies to achieve the government's macroeconomic goal of full employment.

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3.4: Policy Conflicts

1. Explain why trade-offs can exist between policy objectives, resulting in policy example of such a conflict.
2. Explain, using an appropriate diagram, the potential for a trade-off between growth when using monetary policy to stimulate an economy.
3. Analyse how policies adopted by a government to reduce a current account other macroeconomic objectives.
4. Evaluate policy that can be used to correct an imbalance on the current account.
5. Assess whether economic growth is compatible with sustainable development.
6. State two ways in which a government's budget deficit could be financed.

As of February 2017, the UK's national debt reached £1,699.7 billion, constituting 85.4% of GDP. It must be said, however, that although a debt-to-GDP ratio of 85.4% appears high, compared to other Western economies the UK is performing well, and far better than it has in the past, with a debt-to-GDP ratio of 250.4% in 2016.

7. Evaluate the consequences of the national debt.

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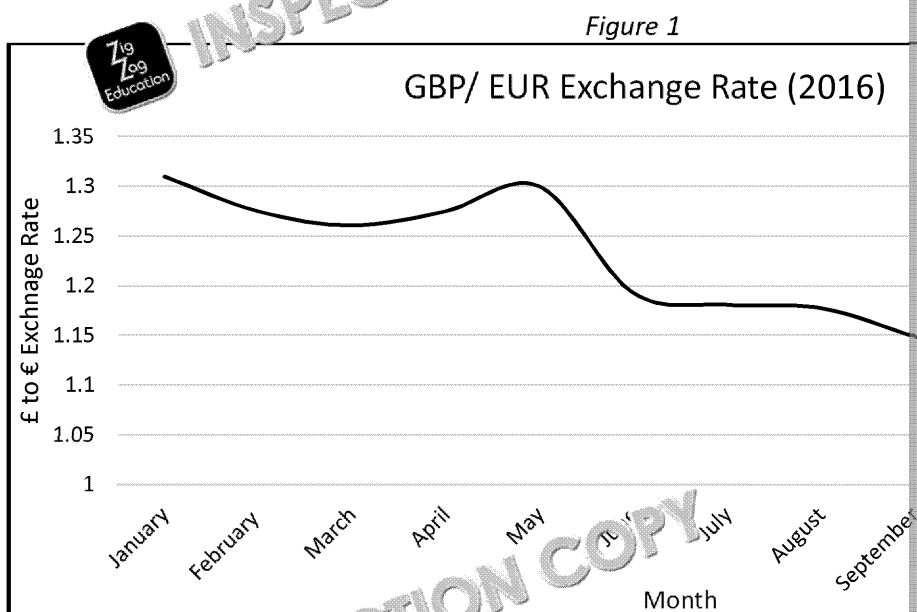
4.1: International Trade and Exchange Rates

1. Explain what is meant by 'international trade'.
2. Explain how *economies of scale* can be achieved through international trade.
3. Explain **one** disadvantage of international trade for a developing economy.
4. Trade liberalisation is often touted as the most successful anti-poverty policy. Discuss the power to raise a country's living standards and reduce poverty, and at the same time, the economic efficiency of international trade.
5. Explain what is meant by a country's *exchange rate*.
6. How are exchange rates determined in a *floating* exchange rate regime?

China has pegged its currency to the US dollar for a number of years. It has fixed the exchange rate between the dollar and yuan at an *undervalued* rate in order to influence and improve the competitiveness, stimulating the exportation of Chinese products across the world.

7. Explain how China's fixed-exchange rate regime functions in practice.
8. In June 2016, the value of the sterling fell to a 31-year low after the result of the Brexit vote was announced.

Figure 1 shows information on the GBP/EUR exchange rate for 2016.



Explain the trend in the GBP/EUR exchange rate.

9. Evaluate the causes of a domestic currency *appreciation*.
10. Imagine that the \$/£ exchange rate fell from \$1.25/£ to \$1.05/£. Assess the likely impact of this exchange rate movement on the UK's macroeconomy.

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Answers

1.1–2: Circular Flow of Income and Aggregate Demand

1. National income can be calculated by counting the total output, expenditure, or income in a specific timeframe. Now, the *expenditure-method* of calculating national income measures the amount this is spent on final consumption and investment expenditure. Since all output is purchased either by consumers for consumption or by producers for investment, the expenditure-method must equal GDP. The *income-method* of calculating national income measures the total income received by households from their supply of the four factors of production: wages and salaries for supplying labour, interest for supplying capital, rents for supplying land, and profits for supplying entrepreneurship. Note that the income approach and the expenditure approach to national income should equal total expenditure. Finally, there is the *output method* of calculating national income which measures the market value of output produced within an economy. Since all output must be purchased by either consumers or producers, this measure will equal the expenditure measurements of GDP.

[2 marks each for clear explanation of the different methods of calculating national income; 1 mark for an explanation that is less clear but conveys the general meaning]

2. **C** – Exports are an injection into the circular flow of income because foreign consumption increases the economy's output and so inject funds into the economy – this will increase national income. **A** (Savings) and **D** (Imports) are withdrawals from the circular flow, and **B** (Vaccines) is a misleading answer choice.

[1 mark for correct response]

3. **C** – Taxes are considered a withdrawal from the circular flow of income because they reduce the economy's output – this will decrease national income. **A** (Investment), **B** (Government spending), and **D** (Exports) constitute injections.

[1 mark for correct response]

4. The 'circular flow of income' is a simplified model of an economy in which flows of money and products connect different sectors. Households supply their labour, and other factors of production, to firms. Firms then combine these inputs into output. Households are then rewarded for their labour and other factors of production, and households can, in turn, use this income to purchase the output that firms produce. If not all income is spent on consumer expenditure, there is also a *financial market* where any income that is not spent, and these savings can be lent to firms to finance investment. The 'circular flow of income' can also be expanded to include the government, which influences flows of money and products as well as by including trade.

Note that since the 'circular flow of income' is a closed system, so that the flows of money and products are equal, it is also used in national income accounting.

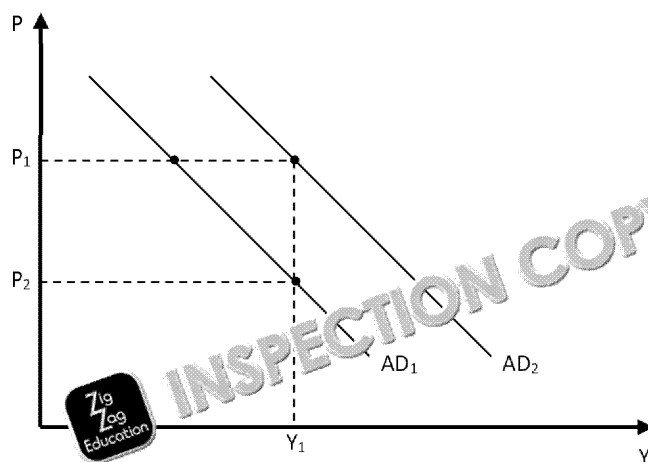
[2 marks for a clear explanation of the 'circular flow of income'; 1 mark for an explanation that conveys the general meaning]

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5.



Movements *along* the AD curve are referred to as extensions of aggregate demand. Changes in the economy's price level. The AD curve displays an *inverse* relationship between the 'total' amount of goods and services demanded within an economy in a given period. A *microeconomic* demand curve displays such a relationship between price and quantity. If the price level falls from P_1 to P_2 , there is an extension of demand since a greater quantity of output is demanded.

A shift of the AD curve is referred to as an increase in aggregate demand. A shift to the right represents an increase in any of the components of AD ($C + I + G + X - M$). It captures changes in aggregate demand. This is represented as an outward shift of AD from AD_1 to AD_2 .

[Up to 2 marks for an accurately drawn diagram, including correct labelling of the axes, a clear distinction between movements along the AD curve and shifts of the AD curve, and a less clear but which conveys the general meaning]

6. (i) Aggregate Demand (AD) = Consumption (C) + Investment (I) + Government Spending (G) + Exports (X) – Imports (M)

[2 marks for stating the correct components of AD; 1 mark if a mistake is made]

- (ii) Now, the Aggregate Demand (AD) curve shows the relationship between aggregate demand and the price level in all of its markets. From the AD curve we are able to calculate the price level. Importantly, just as there is an *inverse* relationship between price and quantity in a market (microeconomics), there is an inverse relationship between the price level and aggregate demand in the aggregate economy. From microeconomics we know that when price decreases, quantity demanded increases, which tends to stimulate consumption. In macroeconomics, the inverse relationship is that assets in *real* terms tend to be higher, and so there is a wealth effect. Next, there is the effect of prices on interest rates, when the price level is falling, interest rates tend to fall, which can provide a stimulus to both consumption and investment. Finally, when the price level is low, an economy's exports appear more cost-effective than the competition, and there is an increase in foreign demand for exports and a rise in spending. Consumers in the economy are more likely to spend because products appear cheaper at home and so there is an improvement in aggregate demand. Hence, AD is downward sloping.

[3–4 marks for a clear explanation of the relationship between AD and the price level, and the avenues through which prices can stimulate demand; 2 marks for an explanation of the general concept; 0 marks for responses that are off-topic]

- (iii) Income is said to be the most important determinant of consumption – after all, it is difficult to consume anything without the financial resources necessary to do so. *Income* which determines consumption because consumers must consider their disposable income. Disposable income is the income left after tax and transfer payments added. If disposable incomes rise, we would expect consumption to rise because most goods tend to be 'normal'. However, an important determinant of consumption is the marginal propensity to consume (MPC). If the MPC is low, consumers will not increase consumption very much when their incomes increase. Conversely, if the MPC is high, consumers would spend the majority of their additional income on consumption rather than saving. This is an important evaluation of this relationship between consumption and income. The Economist Milton Friedman. Friedman suggests that people's consumption is determined by their income, but instead consumers make expenditure decisions based on their

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income they expect to receive in normal circumstances. Moreover, it's also smooth their consumption over a lifetime and so consumption tends to vary which changes a lot according to one's age.

[3–4 marks for a clear explanation of the relationship between income and consumption; 1–2 marks for an explanation of the conventional relationship with alternative theories; 0 marks for responses that are off-topic]

- (iv) Wealth; interest rates; consumer confidence; e.g. changes in expectation about the macroeconomy and/or their individual situation.

[1 mark per correct factor]

- (v) Firms investing in the post-2008 period are likely to have received lower profits and hence lower retained earnings. With less retained earnings it is natural that they would invest less because firms have less financial resources to invest. Firms might also have lower expected future income streams in the post-2008 economy and so would delay their investment. The future is uncertain and the risk of investing lower.

[1 mark for identifying a potential factor]

- (vi) Noting that the trade balance constitutes part of AS ($X - M$) reversing this balance from a deficit ($X - M < 0$) to a surplus ($X - M > 0$) should have a positive effect on AD, therefore shifting it to the right.

[1 mark for correctly identifying the movement in AD in response to this shock]

- (vii) US government's response to the financial crisis was to reduce government spending and increase taxes. This would have a negative effect of decreasing AD and shifting the curve inwards.

[1 mark for correctly identifying the movement in AD in response to this shock]

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1.3–4: Aggregate Supply

1. Aggregate supply (AS) refers to the total (or, aggregate) supply of goods and services in a given period of time. AS relates to the total amount of goods and services supplied at a given price level.

[2 marks for clear explanation of aggregate supply; 1 mark for an explanation that conveys the general meaning]

2. A – SRAS
B – LRAS
C – LRAS

[1 mark for correct response]

3. Introducing the National Living Wage affects the cost curves faced by domestic firms. Firms are not flexible in their production process – that is, firms can't switch from, say, employing more labour when there are changes in the relative cost of these inputs. Therefore, increasing the minimum wage firms face. Generally, firms will then tend to choose to supply less output at any given price level to maintain profitability. SRAS will shift inward. *Note that the LRAS curve will not shift as the nature of an economy's resources haven't changed, only their relative prices.*

[2 marks for clear explanation of how the NLW will affect short-run aggregate supply; 1 mark for an explanation that conveys the general meaning]

4. LRAS effectively represents the productive capacity of an economy – it is the maximum output that can be produced by employing an economy's resources fully and efficiently. LRAS is shifted by changes in an economy's factor inputs. If an economy's inputs improve in terms of quantity (e.g. the discovery of an oil deposit) then it is natural that a greater quantity of output could be produced. If an economy's inputs improve in terms of quality – meaning that they can be used more efficiently – then a greater quantity of output can be produced given the same quantity of inputs. Improvements in technology, because of the adoption of new technologies, could constitute an improvement in the quality of inputs. Therefore, LRAS would shift outward when either of these factors changes. A greater quantity of goods and services supplied at any given level of output. Obviously, if the quantity of an economy's inputs decreases, or there is a reduction in their quality, LRAS would shift inward.

Note that while these factors shift LRAS, they have natural implications for SRAS because they affect the cost of production]

[1 mark each for identifying factor which might shift LRAS; 1 mark each for explaining how the factor might affect LRAS]

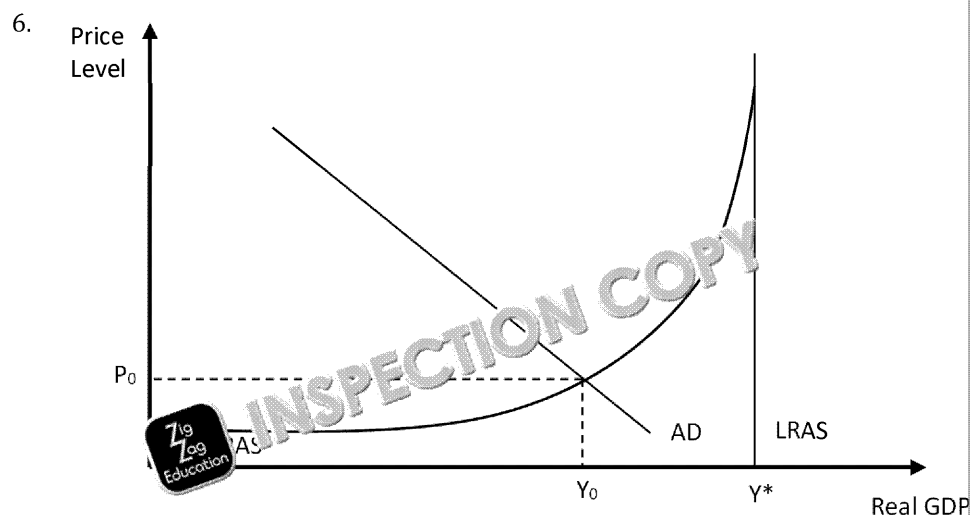
5. Macroeconomic equilibrium is a state of the macroeconomy in which aggregate demand (AD) equals aggregate supply (AS) in the absence of any demand or supply-side shocks, $AD=AS$. This equilibrium will be achieved at a specific pairing of aggregate price level and real GDP. Note, this equilibrium need not occur at the full employment level of output. In the short-run, the economy could be in a state of potential level of output and there would be spare capacity in the economy.

[2 marks for a clear explanation of macroeconomic equilibrium; 1 mark for an explanation that conveys the general meaning]

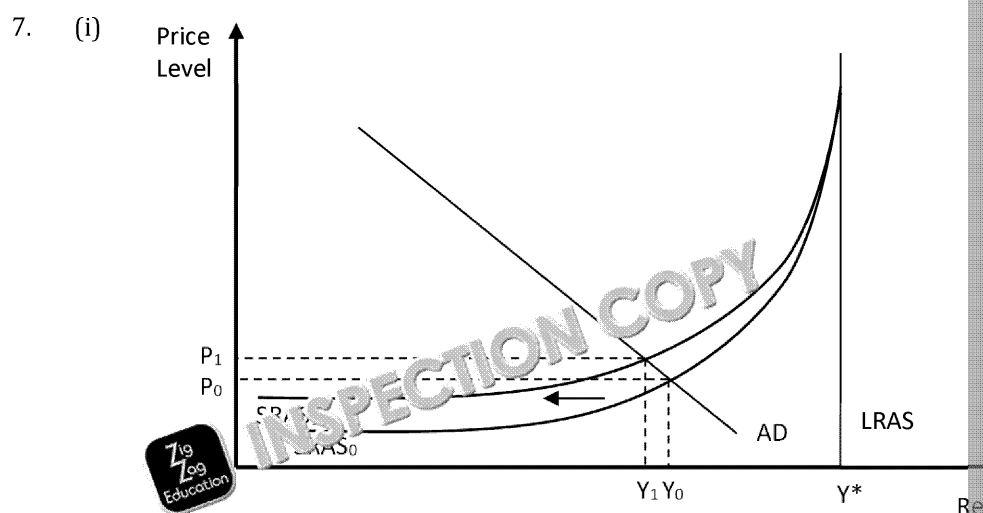
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[1 mark for correctly labelling the axes; 1 mark for correct drawing of AD; 1 mark for identifying the point of equilibrium. Note that students might choose employment level of output and so their diagram may vary slightly from the example]



Analysis:

If the price per barrel of crude oil increases, firms' short-run costs of production increase. The short-run aggregate supply curve shifts inward. Note that this is unavoidable because there are few alternative production inputs, and firms are also unable to change their production process in the short run as there are fixed factors of production. Naturally then, the economy's macroeconomic equilibrium shifts in response to such a supply-side shock.

Equilibrium starts at the intersection of AD and $SRAS_0$ where real output is Y_0 and the price level is P_0 . Then, $SRAS$ shifts *inward* as firms respond to the increase in their costs of production. At the new equilibrium, the amount of output they are willing to supply at the prevailing price level is Y_1 . At this lower level of output, the aggregate price level is bid-up as consumers compete to purchase output. The new equilibrium is reached at price level P_1 and real output Y_1 .

Therefore, the macroeconomic effect of this shock is a one-off increase in the price level and a decrease in real output, leading into an inflationary episode if the cost increases of crude oil are maintained. This is a short-run effect because in the long run, an increase in the price of a supply-side shock because firms are producing less output, which leads to a decrease in the price level, hence, need less input. Finally, real GDP decreases because of the decrease in output, leading to a negative economic growth – note that this doesn't constitute a recession as it's a short-run increase in the economy's level of supply.

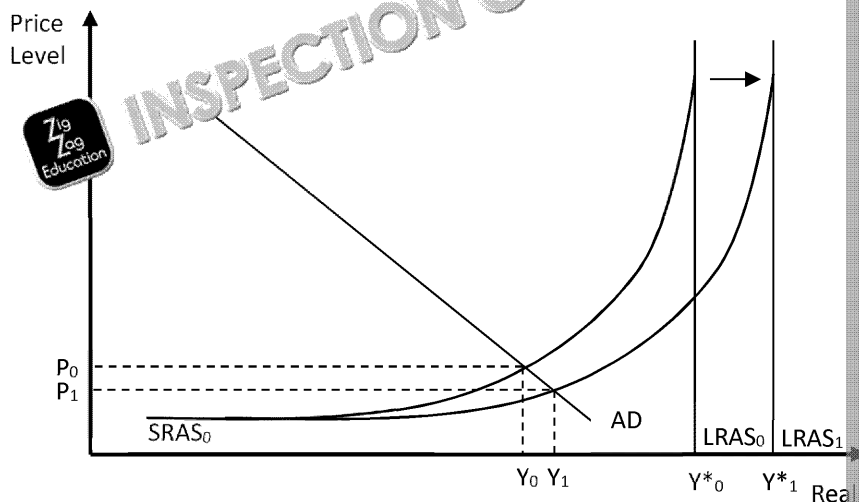
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Evaluation:

- Effect depends upon the *magnitude* of the price increase of crude oil – a £100 increase will have a substantially different effect to a £1000 increase.
- Effect depends upon the significance of oil as part of firms' production processes. If we assume that oil is an important part of firms' production processes in the UK, then the effect will be operating using strictly renewable resources, which would alter the effect.
- Effect depends on whether the price increase is temporary or permanent. If temporary, firms may absorb the increased cost of oil.

(ii)



Analysis:

If UK miners found deposits of rare earth elements, this would constitute an increase in resources available that can be used as inputs in the production process. This increases the productive potential of the economy and so the LRAS curve shifts to the right to reflect this change. Naturally, the UK's macroeconomic equilibrium moves from Y^*_0 to Y^*_1 , an increase in productive potential.

Equilibrium starts at the intersection of AD and SRAS where real output is Y_0 and price level is P_0 . The SRAS curve shifts *outward* as the productive capacity of the economy increases due to the new-found inputs. The SRAS curve also shifts *outward* because the new-found inputs are abundant, so firms' short-run costs also fall – anything that is in abundance tends to have a lower cost than things that are scarce. At P_0 , SRAS will outstrip AD and so the aggregate price level falls to P_1 as consumers to purchase the glut of supply and restore macroeconomic equilibrium. The new short-run equilibrium will be reached at price level P_1 and real output Y_1 .

The macroeconomic effect of this shock is a one-off decrease in the price level and an increase in real output. This is a deflationary episode if firms' costs continue to fall – note that this type of deflation is not harmful because it arises from improvements in the supply-side of the economy and not from a decrease in demand. It should fall because firms are expanding their output in response to their decreased costs and will hire more workers in order to achieve this expansion. Finally, real GDP increases and hence economic growth is achieved – note that there is no inflation and hence economic growth in this scenario.

Evaluation:

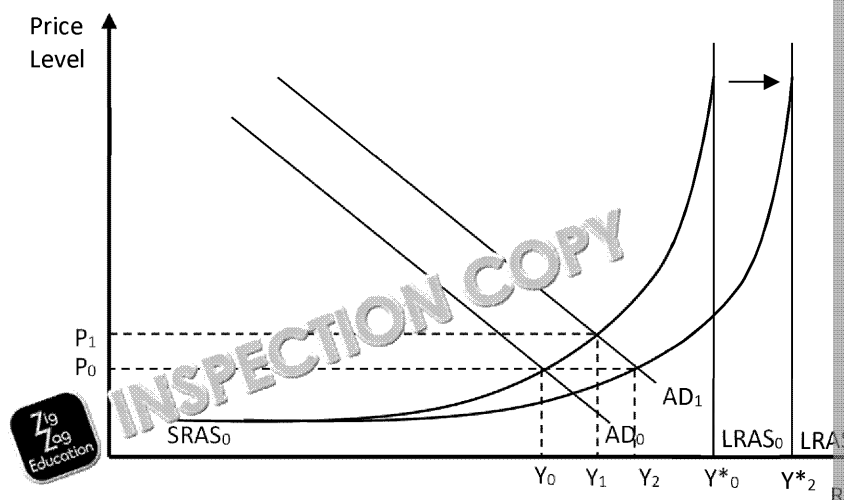
- Effect will depend on the *magnitude* of the increase in productive potential (if the deposit that is found is rare, they are *rare*) then the increase in productive potential and, hence, the effect on the LRAS curve is likely to be minimal.
- While this scenario has good implications for the key macroeconomic variables, there are also some negative implications such as inequality and the environment might worsen if the benefits are concentrated to wealthy owners of industry, or if the extraction of the elements damages the environment.
- Since the UK is structured more so as a tertiary economy the effect of this shock is likely to be less significant than in a manufacturing economy – instead of possessing a larger number of manufacturing firms, the UK exports these factors of production to manufacturing economies, and so LRAS will be less significant.

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(iii)



Analysis:

If the UK government invested in improving the NHS, the immediate effect of the government expenditure component of AD – recall that AD is given by $AD = C + I + G$ – the effect of this is to stimulate AD and the AD curve will shift to the right, and the macroeconomic equilibrium will change in response to this demand-side shock.

Equilibrium starts at the intersection of AD and SRAS where real output is Y_0 and the price level is P_0 . Then, AD shifts *outward* as the government stimulates demand through government expenditure. An increase in government expenditure causes AD to outstrip AS and so firms increase prices in order to improve their profitability. Eventually, the excess of demand over supply causes the general price level to increase and macroeconomic equilibrium is restored. Equilibrium is now at (Y_1, P_1) .

The macroeconomic effect of this shock is a one-time increase in the price level and a one-time increase in real output. This is an inflationary episode if AD continues to increase over time. Unemployment, however, will be reduced. The government's investments in the NHS will require additional labour in various sectors. Finally, real GDP increases as the government expenditure constitutes an increase in income – thus, a one-time increase in real output is achieved when government expenditure increases. This is the Keynesian policy of deficit spending in a recession.

Evaluation:

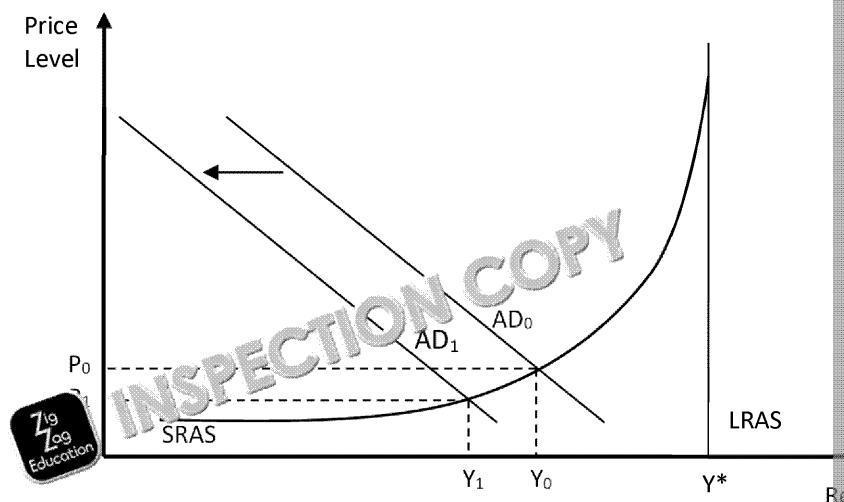
- Primarily, the most interesting aspect to analyse about the government's investment in the NHS is that it has the potential to improve the long-run capacity of the economy. If the investment improves the general health of the British public, it can be considered that human capital will be more efficient as a resource. $LRAS$ would, thus, shift to the right. This will depend on the effectiveness of the NHS improvements. Note, however, there is a time-lag between the investment in the NHS and improvements in health.
- Effect will depend on *how much* is invested in the NHS – the larger the investment, the larger the effect on the macroeconomy.
- Effect will also depend on the starting position of AS – if the economy is in a recession (part of $SRAS$) then the increase in AD will tend to increase output without causing inflation. Conversely, if the economy is already at full employment, the effect of the increase in AD will be inflationary – only a supply-side improvement will boost growth at this point.
- Effect will also depend on the size of the multiplier. Note that the diagram shows the simple initial reaction of AD to an investment in the NHS. If the multiplier is greater than 1, the investment will have far-reaching and cumulative effects across the entire economy. This would represent this as a second positive shock to AD.
- Finally, it's important to consider how the increase in government expenditure is financed. If financed through tax, the effect will be offset by the tax. If financed through debt, there will be no offset to the increase in economic growth.

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(iv)



Analysis:

If there was a decrease in firms' confidence in the post-Brexit economy, they would withdraw or reduce their investments until confidence is restored – this is known as a demand-side shock. Investment is a key component of AD, and so if this is reduced in any way then aggregate demand falls. The short-run aggregate supply curve is upward-sloping, so a decrease in aggregate demand will lead to a lower price level and lower output. Naturally, the UK's macroeconomic response to this demand-side shock is to increase aggregate demand.

Equilibrium starts at the intersection of AD and SRAS where real output is Y_0 and the price level is P_0 . Then, AD shifts *inward* as firms begin to retract investment in the post-Brexit economy. This causes AS to outstrip AD and so firms that produce capital goods will reduce their output. Eventually, the excess of AD over AS is reduced as the general price level falls. The macroeconomic equilibrium is restored. Equilibrium will be reached at price level P_1 and output Y_1 .

The macroeconomic effect of this shock is a short-run increase in the price level and a decrease in output. This is a deflationary episode if AD continues to shift inward over time. Unemployment should increase as a result of the decrease in investment implying a reduced need for labour inputs. Real GDP will fall due to the decrease in investment, and hence the fall in aggregate demand, constitutes a withdrawal from the circular flow of income. This is a negative economic shock when investment falls.

Evaluation:

- The effect will depend on the *magnitude* of the fall in investment – the less the fall in investment, the less the effect. In the post-Brexit economy, the more they will disinvest. In reality we know that firms are likely to leave the UK, and so the fall in investment is likely to be large in reality.
- Effect will also depend on the multiplier – the multiplier effect works for demand-side shocks, so the fall in investment could have far-reaching effects. A decrease in labour demand might imply falling wages, and so consumers will have less income to spend, invest less, etc.)
- If the economy is close to full capacity the decrease in the price level will lead to a decrease in aggregate demand, which will contribute further to unemployment if wages are 'sticky'.

[Maximum 24 marks. 5–6 marks each for a strong analysis of these shocks on the UK's macroeconomic performance – analysis will set out the impact of the shocks using economic theory. Students should evaluate the extent to which the shocks will effect macroeconomic performance.]

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2.1: Economic Growth

1. Economic growth refers to increases in the real GDP of an economy over time. In the short-run, there is a distinction between short- and long-run economic growth, where short-run growth refers to changes in the *actual* output of an economy and long-run growth refers to changes in the *potential* output of an economy. When looking at rates of change in the short-run, the distinction between short- and long-run economic growth is less clear.

[2 marks for a clear explanation of the concept of economic growth; 1 mark for an answer that conveys the general meaning]

2. (i) **B** – **B** is the recessionary stage of the economic cycle because it is on the downward-sloping part of the diagram – where it is downward-sloping the rate of GDP growth must be *negative*. Therefore, the recessionary stage of the economic cycle as the level of GDP would be falling. While **A** is above the economy's 'trend' rate of GDP growth, it is the turning point, or trough, and neither be rising nor falling at this point.

[1 mark for correct response]

- (ii) **D** – **D** is the 'boom' stage of the economic cycle because it is on the upward-sloping part of the diagram – where it is upward-sloping the rate of GDP growth must be *positive*. Therefore, the expansionary stage of the economic cycle as the level of GDP would be increasing. While **A** is above the economy's 'trend' rate of GDP growth, it is the turning point, or peak, and neither be rising nor falling at this point.

[1 mark for correct response]

3. **D** – Only **D** is the correct definition of a recession. Recessions are sustained declines in real GDP for more *consecutive* quarters. Importantly, these quarters must be consecutive, which means that a decline in Q1 of 2016 and another decline in Q4, for instance, wouldn't constitute a recession. If the decline is longer than two consecutive periods they need not, which therefore, makes **C** an incorrect answer because it doesn't take into account time span at all.

[1 mark for correct response]

4. Nominal GDP measures the *current* value of output in *current prices* that is produced within a particular time. Real GDP however adjusts nominal GDP for the effect of changes in the 'base' year prices.

[2 marks for clear distinction between nominal and real measures of GDP; 1 mark for an answer that conveys the general concept]

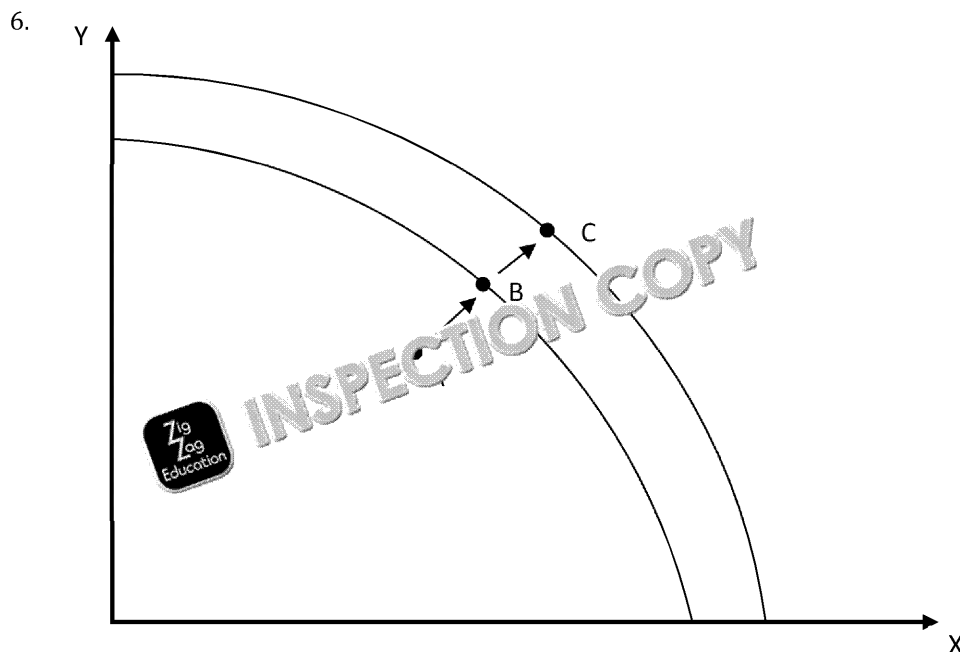
5. **A** – If an economy's growth rate falls but is still *positive* (e.g. a change from 10% to 8%), output is still increasing. If an economy's output was £100 million at the beginning of 2016, then by the end of 2016 it would be £108 million – hence output has increased.

[1 mark for correct response]

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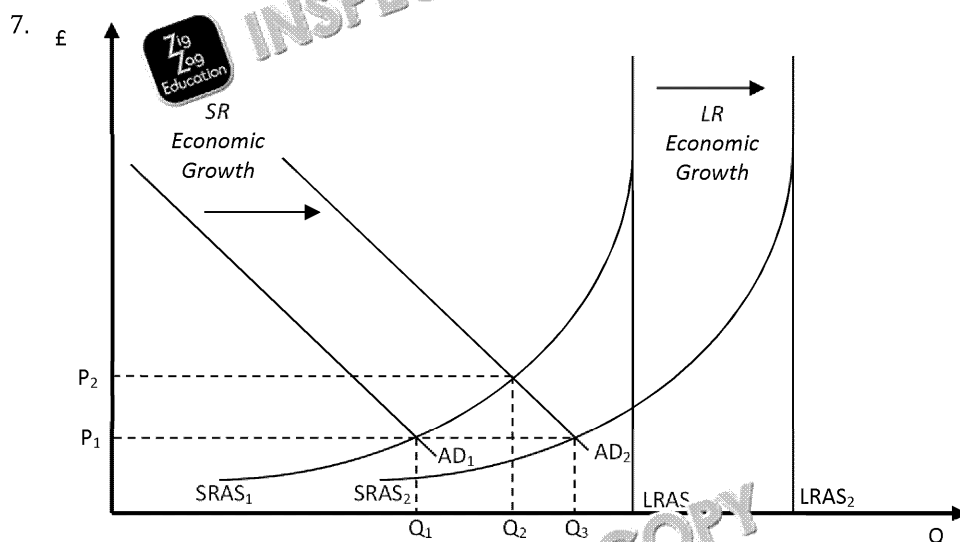
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Long-run economic growth can be thought of as an outward movement in an economy's productive potential, or an increase in the potential capacity of an economy. Graphically, this would be represented by a shift from point B to point C. Since the PPC represents the productive potential of an economy, anything that enables society to produce a greater number of goods and services will shift the PPC outward and bring about long-run economic growth. Conversely, a decrease in the economy's productive potential will shift the PPC inward. Short-run economic growth is a movement from within the bounds of the PPC to a point that is closer to the PPC. A movement from point A to point B is an example of short-run economic growth because actual output is closer to the economy's productive potential – within the PPC an economy is failing to efficiently employ its resources, and employing these resources will lead to an actual increase in GDP.

[Maximum of 2 marks for an appropriate, well-labelled diagram; a further two marks for a correct illustration of the difference between short-run and long-run growth]



[Maximum 4 marks. 3–4 marks for a correctly labelled AD/AS diagram, illustrating short-run and long-run economic growth. 1–2 marks for a correct illustration; how the economy moves from short-run to long-run equilibrium]

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8.

Benefits	
Improvements in standards of living can be brought about by increases in the availability of resources (e.g. higher incomes)	Inflation – if economic nature, then there will output expands.
Poverty can be reduced via economic growth – e.g. if it increases employment, or if it frees up resources to spend on education and healthcare.	Economic growth could be followed by unsustainable, volatile
Government is likely to receive more revenues from taxation and spend less on subsidies.	If incomes are increased more products – part will be on imports, which account deficits.
Investment is likely to increase when an economy is growing because it is most profitable to do so during these periods.	It could damage the environment. Environmental problems at the present (e.g. by reducing quality of life for future generations from by depleting non-renewable sustainability).
Growth might provide the means for research into socially beneficial things such as the development of renewable energies or ways to reduce inequality.	It can cause increases in demographics, sectors economic growth and that benefit the most

[Maximum 6 marks. Students should evaluate the relative importance of the costs and benefits of economic growth in relation to the experience of India and China – e.g. is economic growth still beneficial if it leads to increasing inequality, or should there be more dedication to ensuring that people's living standards are improved? Pursuing high-growth policies? Note that the costs and benefits given in the prompt are not exhaustive. Marks should be awarded for students' own knowledge.]

9. Improvements to either the quantity or quality – that is, the efficiency, or productivity – of resources will bring about an increase in its productive capacity. Therefore, migration or the discovery of new deposits of natural resources would improve the productive capacity. An increase in the quantity of inputs – it is natural that more output can be made when more inputs are used. However, improvements in the quality of resources could be brought about by research and development, capital, education, etc.

[3–4 marks for a clear explanation of sources of long-run economic growth, distinguishing between quality improvements, and using examples; 1–2 marks for an explanation that is less detailed or more general meaning – e.g. only recognising efficiency changes as a source of economic growth, or short-run factors]

10. Between 2007 and 2010 the UK economy was experiencing a recessionary phase. This has been a sustained period of negative economic growth (and, hence, declining output). Recessions have the consequence of increasing unemployment because firms are not engaged in commercial activity. If workers are unemployed for long periods of time they might become depressed, which would constitute a decrease in the productive capacity of an economy. This face declines in tax receipts and increased government expenditure if there has been a recession has the potential to cause a budget deficit, increasing national debt, and limit the government's ability to conduct expansionary policy. If recessions are prolonged there might be long-term effects on investment during the period, this could lower an economy's trend rate of GDP growth.

[3–4 marks for a clear explanation of the consequences of a recession, expanding effects on different parts of the economy where applicable; 1–2 marks for a discussion that is applied to the UK and analysis; 0 marks for answers that are off-topic]

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11. (i) $\text{Nominal GDP Growth} = \% \text{ Change in Nominal GDP} = \frac{1,940,000 - 1,873,000}{1,873,000} \times 100$

[1 mark for correct answer; 1 mark for showing working]

(ii) $\text{Real GDP (2016)} = 1.8\% \text{ increase in Real GDP (2015)} = 1,832,000 \times 1.018$

[1 mark for correct answer; 1 mark for showing working]

(iii) $\text{Nominal GDP per capita} = \frac{\text{Nominal GDP}}{\text{Pop.}} = \frac{1,940,000}{65} = \text{£}29,846$

[1 mark for correct answer; 1 mark for showing working. Note that a common mistake is not converting the population figure into the same units]

12. (i) GDP is measured because it gives an indication of an economy's size – it measures the value of productive activities within an economy during a given period of time. GDP is a key indicator of an economy's health and citizens' living standards. It, therefore, facilitates comparison between economies, e.g. it allows economists to measure trends in economic growth. Furthermore, it allows economists to compare an economy's size to other economies – GDP is a widely used measure by most countries so measuring it is an important step in assessing the relative size of an economy. Measures of GDP can then also be used to inform policies – e.g. if GDP falls from one year to the next, Economists would know that it should use expansionary policies to counter this.

[2 marks for clear explanation of why Economists would measure GDP; 1 mark for clear but conveys the general meaning]

- (ii) Possible difficulties of measuring GDP include:

- Inability to measure the informal sector – GDP only measures transactions that are recorded. Activities that are not recorded, such as barter and other self-doing activities of similar nature, are also unrecorded, but are still considered valuable. For example, in LEDCs many people are subsistence farmers – if they don't trade their produce, then this will not show up in GDP, even though they are nevertheless output.
- GDP includes 'health' as well as 'goods' – e.g. if large numbers of the population are ill, then mass expenditure on healthcare, this would contribute positively to GDP, even though it is a negative aspect of life.
- Statistical error – it's unlikely that all transactions can be measured correctly, so there will be some statistical noise in GDP calculations.
- Living standards – measuring an economy's GDP does not include the quality of life. A country can have a high GDP but a low quality of life due to the worsening of living standards within the country and therefore cannot be said to be better or worse off even if GDP is increasing.

[Maximum 6 marks. 1 mark for each correctly identified difficulty of measuring GDP; 1 mark for explanation as to why it is a difficulty.]

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2.2: Development

1. (i) *Primary* – The lumber industry is a ‘primary’ industry because it is concerned with the extraction of natural resources from the earth. Note that the primary sector is a primary industry because natural resources are obtained or provided for conversion into consumer products.
- (ii) *Secondary* – The steel production industry is an example of a ‘secondary’ industry because it takes natural resources – in this case, iron and other metals – and converts them into consumer products.
- (iii) *Primary* – The oil extraction industry is another example of a ‘primary’ industry because it takes natural resources and extracts them from the environment.
- (iv) *Tertiary* – The restaurant industry is an example of a ‘tertiary’ industry because it provides services to consumers.



[1 mark per correct response]

2. HDI is constructed from indicators of (i) life expectancy, (ii) education and (iii) per capita income.

[1 mark per correct response]

3. ‘Economic’ development refers to improvements in economic well-being brought about by growth. It tends to encompass progress made in a society in terms of improving the ‘quality of life’ – improving a population’s health and nutrition, enhancing education, etc. ‘Sustainable’ economic development that meets the needs of the present – and, especially, the needs of future generations – without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. The key difference between economic and sustainable development is that the latter adopts a long-term perspective.

[2 marks for a clear distinction between economic and sustainable development; 1 mark for a clear but which conveys the general meaning]

4. If a government has the macroeconomic policy objective of ‘sustained’ economic growth, it wants to achieve economic growth constantly from period to period, rather than ‘sustainable’ economic growth suggests that the government is seeking a rate of economic growth that engenders significant economic problems neither in the short- or long-run. If growth is sustained, there are important trade-offs between growth and inflationary pressure, and other factors. However, in the long run, rapid growth now might impede future generations’ ability to meet their own needs – e.g. if it creates environmental problems.

[2 marks for a clear explanation of the objective of ‘sustained and sustainable’ economic growth; 1 mark for an explanation that is less clear but conveys the general meaning]

5.
 - Economic growth is a prerequisite for economic development, but it is not sufficient. A high rate of economic growth highlights the importance of distinguishing between economic growth and economic development. While China has grown to become the second wealthiest nation in the world, it hasn’t brought about equal improvements in development indicators.
 - It would be impossible for a country to develop without having also achieved economic growth – after all, it would be difficult to finance improvements in education, sanitation, etc. without increasing a country’s productive potential.
 - China’s experience shows that economic growth can occur without equal gains for all sections of society benefit from it. In China’s case, the urban population has benefited greatly because manufacturing and trade tends to be concentrated in these areas, while the rural population is impoverished. If, however, China’s new-found wealth was distributed evenly, it would be more likely that development would have occurred.
 - Since GDP measures expenditure on goods (e.g. military expenditure) as well as services, economic growth doesn’t necessarily mean that development will occur. If a country is investing heavily in infrastructure while leaving education and healthcare by the wayside, it could argue that development is improving – it could, in fact, be worsening.
 - Growth can be usually be thought of as an organic process – although in the case of China, it is the outcome of planning. It’s important that governments plan for development, because these are things that don’t tend to be sufficiently provided for by the market.

[Maximum 8 marks. 6–8 marks for a strong, well-supported evaluation. A well-reasoned argument between economic growth and economic development; 4–5 marks for a reasonable argument for arguments between the relationship of economic growth and economic development; 1–3 marks for a limited attempt at evaluation, likely to be unsupported.]

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6.

	GDP per capita	Human Development Index
Advantages	<p>GDP per capita is easy to understand – it is simply a measure of the ‘average’ income of a country’s citizen. It is far easier to understand than other development indicators – e.g. the Genuine Progress Indicator.</p> <p>GDP is an internationally established measure of income. Therefore it is beneficial in the sense that adopting a GDP per capita measure of economic development can facilitate comparisons between countries with relative ease.</p>	<p>HDI is a composite index that includes income, life expectancy and access to education. It is a more comprehensive measure of a country’s development than GDP.</p>
Disadvantages	<p>GDP captures production. It doesn’t measure variables that could be considered to bring about genuine progress. GDP of course will include investments in education, nutrition, etc. within a certain time frame, but it tells us little about how these investments are affecting the population. Essentially, GDP doesn’t measure variables that affect a country’s standard of living.</p> <p>GDP is a poor measure for many LEDCs because it excludes flows of income from foreign countries. LEDCs receive foreign aid as well as remittances from its citizens abroad, and these should be included because they do in fact improve a country’s welfare. <i>GNI would be a better indicator for this reason.</i></p> <p>GDP per capita obscures inequality by stating that all members of the population earn the same average income – inequality is a problem in itself and should be dealt with separately.</p>	<p>HDI does not take into account the quality of life and the complexity of a country’s development. It is a simple stage of development index that does not take into account gender inequality, malnutrition, and other factors that affect a country’s standard of living.</p> <p>Focus on economic growth and the environment. Focus on economic growth and the environment. Focus on economic growth and the environment.</p> <p>HDI also does not take into account the quality of life and the complexity of a country’s development. It is a simple stage of development index that does not take into account gender inequality, malnutrition, and other factors that affect a country’s standard of living.</p>

[Maximum marks for a clear and consistent evaluation, comparing both of GDP per capita and HDI; 4–5 marks for a reasonable evaluation, lacking supporting evidence; 3–4 marks for a limited evaluation, which may be only loosely related to the question or missing some key points.]

7. For:

Primarily, the environmental Kuznets curve would suggest that economic growth leads to improved environmental outcomes to be improved, and is, therefore, an essential factor in achieving sustainable development. Evidence for the Kuznets curve would suggest that for some pollutants, there is a threshold level of GDP. Once GDP passes a certain threshold – e.g. sulphur dioxide emissions tend to decrease. Therefore, if the Kuznets curve stands up to empirical testing, this would suggest that economic growth is essential for sustainable development.

If a country’s GDP is higher, there should be more resources that can be dedicated to improving environmental outcomes. Naturally, after alleviating poverty and covering the basic necessities of life, nations should be able to use resources for improving the natural environment. Countries should invest in providing renewable sources of energy – this is an investment that would benefit the environment. Governments that must focus on providing their citizens with the basics. More developed countries should have higher discretionary income and be able to allow consumers to absorb the costs associated with products produced under higher environmental standards.

Furthermore, wealthier economies have more resources in which they can invest in more efficient technology so that more output can be produced with less resource use. This would, in turn, reduce a country’s strain on natural resources in the present, and benefit future generations. LEDCs don’t tend to have a high level of savings, so they are more likely to spend on attaining life’s basic necessities – this necessarily means that they likely will not invest in more efficient, pollution-reducing technology.

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Finally, political institutions in wealthier countries tend to function more effectively, often corrupt, and policies often benefit special-interest groups. Therefore, in wealthier countries, there is a better ability to impose taxes and regulations that can be used to improve environmental quality.

Against:

However, there is also evidence that the Kuznets curve doesn't hold true. CO₂ emissions strictly increase as GDP increases, which would suggest that economic growth causes more polluting at increasing rates – the US for instance has one of the highest levels of CO₂ emissions.

Moreover, economic growth that is based on non-renewable – and, therefore, finite – resources cannot itself be sustainable because these resources will run out at some point in the future. Once it runs out, resources to meet the needs of the present, let alone the needs of future generations, become scarce and prices increase. As a result, production might shift to more sustainable resources, but this is possible depends on how rapidly these alternatives can be developed.

Finally, even if alternatives are developed, the effects of a current consumption of non-renewable and polluting resources would not be sustainable in this sense. Economic growth based on non-renewable resources is not sustainable.

[Maximum 8 marks. 6–8 marks for a strong in-depth evaluation, with sound well-reasoned arguments for and against economic growth towards sustainable development; 4–5 marks for an adequate in depth analysis and detail; 1–3 marks for a limited attempt at evaluation, may be missing some key points, question, or missing sufficient reasoning.]

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2.3: Employment

1. Employment, naturally, is the opposite of unemployment. It is all those people that are currently employed. It includes all those who are employed by firms and those that declare themselves self-employed.

[2 marks for clear explanation of the meaning of employment; 1 mark for an explanation of the general meaning]

2. (i) The claimant count measure of unemployment is a measurement that uses unemployment-related benefits (i.e. Job Seeker's Allowance and National Insurance) in the calculation of the unemployment rate. Unemployment is, therefore, calculated as the percentage of claimants as a percentage of the total labour force.

[2 marks for a clear explanation of the claimant count measure of unemployment that is less clear but conveys the general meaning]

- (ii) Difficulties (claimant count):

- The UK government has changed the conditions regarding eligibility for unemployment-related benefits a number of times since their introduction, making it difficult to measure unemployment over time using this measure;
- People might be claiming unemployment-related benefits without truly being unemployed; they wouldn't be considered unemployed by conventional definitions;
- The claimant count excludes a number of people that aren't eligible to claim (e.g. those that are under the age of 18, anybody seeking part-time or voluntary work, women that are looking to return to work, women looking to return to work but have too-high a level of savings to apply for JSA, etc.);
- The claimant count might include those that are fraudulently claiming unemployment ('black market' or undeclared employment);
- Sometimes it is possible to have part-time work and also claim unemployment (these people would be counted twice).

[1 mark each for identifying a suitable difficulty associated with the claimant count measure; 1 mark each for an explanation about how this difficulty will affect the measure]

3. (i) The International Labour Office (ILO) measure of unemployment is an alternative to the claimant count measure. It is based on the Labour Force Survey in order to determine the unemployment rate. It asks people at their residences and asks questions relating to employment activity. It then calculates the unemployment according to the ILO's definition of unemployment and expresses it as a percentage of the total labour force.

[2 marks for a clear explanation of the ILO measure of unemployment; 1 mark for an explanation that is clear but conveys the general meaning]

- (ii) The ILO's definition of unemployment are those people 'without a job, wanting to find one in the last four weeks and are available to start work in the next two weeks'.

[2 marks for the correct ILO's definition of unemployment; 1 mark if only a part of the definition is given]

4.
$$\text{Unemployment Rate} = \frac{\text{Unemployed}}{\text{Labour Force}} \times 100 = \frac{\text{Unemployed}}{\text{Full-time} + \text{Part-time} + \text{Unemployed}} \times 100$$

[1 mark for correct answer; 1 mark for showing working]

5. Difficulties (ILO):

- The ILO's measure of unemployment is based on the evidence from the Labour Force Survey, which has several statistical issues that can arise from choosing an incorrect sample size.
- The ILO's measure of unemployment is rarely likely to be the true unemployment rate.
- It can be hard to distinguish if somebody is actively seeking work via a survey. A better measure in this regard because Job Seeker's Allowance requires claimants to be actively seeking work.

[1 mark each for identifying a suitable difficulty associated with the claimant count measure; 1 mark each for an explanation about how this difficulty will affect the measure]

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6. **B** – ‘Frictional’ unemployment is the time spent *searching* for employment, or the time people have between leaving a job and starting a new one. **A** is referring to the cyclical, **C** ‘structural’, and **D** ‘seasonal’.

[1 mark for correct response]

7. ‘Structural’ unemployment is unemployment that exists because of the changing nature of economic activity. It occurs because of changes in industrial organisation (e.g. the decline of the coal industry because of foreign competition and shifts towards the tertiary sector) or because of automation of labour).

[2 marks for clear explanation of ‘structural’ unemployment; 1 mark for an explanation of the general meaning]

8. **C** – Paul’s situation is a classic example of ‘seasonal’ unemployment. Since the demand for Santa Claus impersonators is only high at Christmas, there is no need for them in any other period of the year. **A** is incorrect because choice of seasons could be thought of as cyclical, but cyclical unemployment is caused by the business cycle and deficiencies in demand. There is nothing to suggest that Paul’s situation is cyclical.

[1 mark for correct response]

9. In this question students should attempt to evaluate the differing types of unemployment. Students should use theory and evidence to support their decision.

e.g. Students might argue that *structural* unemployment is the most concerning because its presence suggests there is a serious mismatch between skills that are supplied and demanded in the labour market – this is something that is likely to be incredibly difficult to address. Furthermore, technological change that brings about the automation of work is a trend that must plan-ahead for periods in which machines will replace much labour. Frictional unemployment, by comparison, is totally unavoidable, and would exist even if skills were perfectly matched. Frictional unemployment, therefore, is likely to be less of a concern for Economists.

[Maximum of 6 marks. 5–6 marks for excellent evaluation of each cause of unemployment; 4–5 marks for understanding of the economic issues; 3–4 marks for adequate analysis, might be used for 1–3 marks for unsupportive or irrelevant evaluation]

10. **A** – Unemployment refers to the situation in which people are *willing* and *able* to work but are unable to find work. **B** is incorrect because not being part of the labour force is not unemployment – you are unemployed – some people don’t participate in the labour force because they are retired, or people on paternity or maternity leave). **C** is incorrect even though being redundant can constitute part of unemployment. Importantly, the focus is on people who are *able* to work – people who aren’t they are considered to be *inactive* and don’t constitute part of the labour force. **D** is incorrect because even those that are able to work aren’t unemployed unless they are unable to find work.

[1 mark for correct response]

11. Literally, full employment would mean that all those who are willing and able to work are employed, therefore, might be considered a situation in which the unemployment rate is zero. It is unlikely to ever be the case in an economy because there will always exist some unemployment because of people searching for employment, or those that are moving between jobs. Full employment as the make-up of an economy changes over time. Hence, full employment is not a permanent state. Cyclical or demand-deficient employment (no demand for goods) but allows room for recovery from unemployment.

[2 marks for clear explanation of full employment; 1 mark for an explanation that it is not a permanent state]

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12. Individual;

- Forgone earnings – this engenders a decline in living standards, might affect
- The need to rely on systems of social security – however, the Greek youth do might find themselves in a worse position of having no income;
- Depression and other mental health issues – this is particularly important in t suicide is rife (note that this also has macroeconomic effects because depressi and suicides decrease the productive potential of an economy by reducing the

Economically;

- Multiplier Effect – industries that youth would typically spend income on see a knock-on effect due to youth unemployment.
- Loss of GDP – when youth unemployment is so high GDP will be well below its being lost to the economy, these levels of youth unemployment mean that the economy is not using society's resources efficiently. If some of the labour market permanently then there will be long-term effects on the product
- Fiscal Costs – the government must pay out unemployment benefit and also fall in tax revenue, although this is unlikely to be such a large problem for the youth don't tend to receive social security payments.
- Social Costs – e.g. poor health, crime, inequality – these are things that govern

Evaluation: It is possible to argue that the severity of the consequences of unemployment is occurring. It is possible that the consequences are far more insidious unemployment because occupational and geographic immobility are difficult to act government's ability to counteract it – unlike in a situation in which unemployment is a deficiency or cyclical. Greece's situation is difficult because there is likely to be an effect structural factors. Consequences of unemployment also depend on how prolonged e.g. in the case of Greece there has been high youth unemployment for almost 10 years effects on a generation's productivity, or even a long-term reduction in the labour supply effect. Where unemployment is low or only for a short term, the consequences are

[Maximum 6 marks. 5–6 marks for sound, well-reasoned analysis, evaluating the consequences have been applied accurately to the question, using supporting data where needed. 3–4 marks for a fair but poor evaluation. 1–3 marks for a fairly weak answer with little evaluation of the consequences]



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2.4: Inflation

1. **C** – Inflation refers to sustained, or persistent, increases in the aggregate price level over a given period of time. Importantly, the focus is on the price increase being *sustained*. If there is only a one-off fluctuation then Economists wouldn't usually consider the movement to be inflation. According to this definition,

[1 mark for correct response]

2. **D** – *Hyperinflation* refers to a situation in which an economy is experiencing excessive and rapidly increasing inflation rates, and these rates tend to accelerate over time. In the problem of hyperinflation, the focus is on the inflation rate exceeding 50% per month. Episodes as periods where the inflation rate exceeds 50% per month. Episodes of hyperinflation tend to be highly volatile, and **A** doesn't quite fit the definition. **B** could occur at any inflation rate, and **C** is the opposite of hyperinflation.

[1 mark for correct response]

3. Deflation is a situation in which there is a sustained decrease in the aggregate price level over a given period of time. It can also be thought of as a *negative* rate of inflation. If the price level falls from £100 in Year 1, £99 in Year 2, and £98 in Year 3, for instance, it can be said that deflation has occurred. It is simply a reduction, or slowing, in the rate of inflation. Simply, if the inflation rate falls below zero in Year 2 one could say that disinflation had occurred. Disinflation is usually thought of as a temporary slowing of inflation. Economic agents tend to prefer lower rates of inflation. Deflation, however, is usually a long-term phenomenon. Note, that disinflation could lead to deflation if the inflation rate is particularly low.

[3–4 marks for a clear distinction between disinflation and deflation; 1–2 marks for content that is clear but conveys the general meaning; 0 marks for content that is unrelated to the question]

4. If a government has a macroeconomic policy objective of 'low and stable' inflation, it wants to minimise sustained increases in the aggregate price level (in the Bank of England's target, inflation should be 2.0% over a given time period), but also to minimise the volatility of inflation. Inflation shouldn't fluctuate too much around the desired level of inflation. 'Low' inflation means a low rate of inflation.

[2 marks for a clear explanation of 'low and stable' inflation; 1 mark for an explanation that is clear but conveys the general meaning]

5. The Consumer Price Index (CPI) is a *weighted* price index of a representative basket of goods and services. The ONS collects data on thousands of individual price quotes of the sample of representative goods and services over a time frame. Next, the price level of the individual items in the sample are weighted according to their importance to households in the UK by using information from the *Household Expenditure* survey – e.g. if petrol is a more important expense than, say, tinned food, it will have a higher weight in the index. Note that these weights will change over time according to changes in household expenditure. Inflation can then be calculated by working out the rate of change in the level of the index.

[3–4 marks for a clear explanation of CPI and its use in calculating inflation; 1–2 marks for content that is clear but conveys the general meaning; 0 marks for content that is unrelated to the question]

6. (i)
$$\text{Inflation}_{2011-2013} = \frac{110.117 - 104.484}{104.484} * 100 = 5.39\%$$

[Maximum 2 marks. 1 mark for correct answer. 1 mark for showing calculation]

- (ii)
$$\text{Inflation}_{2014-2015} = \frac{111.842 - 111.786}{111.786} * 100 = 0.05\%$$

[Maximum 2 marks. 1 mark for correct answer. 1 mark for showing calculation]

7. The CPI and RPI differ in the sample of goods and services that are included in the index. The RPI includes mortgage interest payments – since the interest rate will affect the cost of mortgage payments, this is included in the RPI. CPI excludes this type of payment from its sample, which makes it a more accurate measure of inflation according to RPI. CPI excludes this type of payment from its sample, which makes it a more accurate measure of inflation according to RPI. RPI also includes different demographics in the survey than CPI. RPI includes low-income households and high-income households which likely have different consumption patterns.

[3–4 marks for a clear explanation of the difference between CPI and RPI; 1–2 marks for content that is clear but conveys the general meaning, or only partially correct (e.g. by focusing on mortgage interest payments); 0 marks for content that is unrelated to the question]

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8.

Advantages	Disadvantages
Indices are an established way of calculating inflation, and having a clear methodology allows governments to produce statistics that are comparable over time – that is, certain items are included in CPI and these are measured continuously, rather than choosing the basket of goods on a case-by-case basis.	Indices such as CPI are <i>quality</i> of products which increases in price – e.g. new technology, rather than just price.
Indices such as CPI are useful because they've been adopted as measures of inflation by numerous economies which facilitates the international comparison of inflation.	Indices such as CPI also take into account the effect of consumption alternatives, and price consumption to the change in the index's weight isn't always overstated. (Note that an annual basis in order to compare).
Indices help governments forecast and this analysis can help determine fiscal or monetary policy.	If the weights of individual index are calculated from statistical errors that could weight the importance of different items.
Indices make it easy for consumers and businesses to plan their behaviour – e.g. workers might be able to demand <i>fair</i> salary increases by highlighting movements in the price index.	It is important to consider the 'base' year – if the base economic situation then future calculations might engender a misjudgement of the economy's health.

[Maximum 6 marks. 5–6 marks for a careful and balanced evaluation of the relative merits of using an index to measure inflation, specifically referencing CPI. 3–4 marks for a limited evaluation, missing sufficient reasoning and evidence. 1–3 marks for identifying a few concepts but with an absence of thought behind the advantages and disadvantages of using an index to measure inflation.]

9. Inflation can be caused by demand-side factors, supply-side factors, or changes in the money supply. Inflation brought about by demand-side factors it is called *demand-pull inflation*. Increases in demand and this effect is most marked when the economy is operating close to full capacity. An increase in demand can allow producers to charge higher prices for their products, potentially leading to inflation. If inflation is brought about by supply-side factors. Economists call this *cost-push inflation*. Whenever a firm's costs increase, these costs will be passed on to consumers in the form of higher prices in order for the firm to maintain profitability – costs for firms may increase, for example, if there was a natural disaster, an increase in the world's price of oil, or workers' wages. However, the important evaluative point here is that while both of these factors can lead to an increase in the price level, inflation is a *sustained* increase in the price level. It is suggested that sustained inflation is often linked to increases in the money supply. If too much money is chasing too few goods, the price level is increased as firms respond to excesses in demand brought about by increasing purchasing power.

[Maximum 6 marks. 5–6 marks for accurate and balanced evaluative comments of the causes of inflation, supporting a rounded conclusion that pertains directly to the question. 3–4 marks for a limited evaluation of inflation, partially linked to the question but displays incomplete or basic reasoning. 1–3 marks for identifying a few causes, but inconsistently, and with inaccurate or absence of thought behind the evaluation.]

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Inflation	
<p>Inflation has menu costs – this is the cost of firms having to update their price lists. However, these are insignificant when inflation is stable. The only time we would expect this to be a problem is in the Venezuelan economy but not in the UK.</p>	<p>In Japan's experience it is deflation that has been the problem because deflation causes the prices of services to fall, and so the services become uncompetitive in international economies. Japan has been able to keep export prices in the past despite deflation (it has a trade surplus).</p> <p>Moreover, if deflation is accompanied by productivity gains in the production of goods and services, then it can be as positive and an indicator of economic growth.</p>
<p>Inflation also involves 'shoe leather costs' – this is the time and effort and wasted resources spent by people trying to counteract the effects of inflation (e.g. making continuous trips to the bank to reduce cash holdings). Again, this is more of a problem when inflation is high!</p>	<p>Deflation can be considered as a problem because falling prices discourage consumer spending. As prices fall, consumers tend to hold back on purchases until they can purchase at a lower price in the future. Deflation, therefore, leads to a fall in aggregate demand.</p> <p>However, an evaluation of the direction of causality is needed. It could be falling AD that brings about deflation.</p>
<p>Inflation redistributes income from lender to borrowers by reducing the <i>real</i> value of one's borrowings – e.g. if you borrowed £100, but the price level doubled, you would be able to pay this back by giving up half as much income as when you borrowed.</p>	<p>Deflation can increase the <i>real</i> value of debt by increasing real interest rates. A larger proportion of the national income goes to larger mortgages etc., while firms receive less for investment. Again, the direction of causality is needed.</p>
<p>Inflation when it is high tends to be volatile – this is problematic because it creates uncertainty and makes financial planning and economic decision-making difficult. Firms tend not to invest as they will be unsure about future revenue streams. Consumers tend to hold back on consumption. However, this is less likely to be a problem for the UK who anchor inflation around the 2.0% target – when inflation is targeted people can make decisions based on expectations that the target will be achieved.</p>	<p>If the interest rate is close to zero, as in the case of Japan, then the interest rate is positive. The central bank's monetary policy is then trapping the economy in a deflationary spiral.</p>

[Maximum 10 marks. 8–10 marks for displaying very accurate knowledge of the economics question very clearly with relevant examples. Analysis is well reasoned and logical. 5–7 marks for knowledge but only partially linked to the question and not comparing the three economic concepts. 4–6 marks for basic reasoning skills, but may focus too much on one side of an argument. 1–3 marks for poor evaluation, not addressing the question consistently with little to no comparative knowledge and missing sufficient reasoning.]

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