



# Topic Tests

## Microeconomics: A Level Year 2

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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 A Level Year 2 Microeconomics. 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 eleven Topic Tests in this resource in which the OCR specification has been grouped in a theoretically logical manner.

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 up to 40 marks worth of questions, although occasionally the tests include an additional number of marks in order to fully cover the OCR specification. It is intended that a 40-mark Topic Test 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 A Level Year 2 Microeconomics specification, will help students fully prepare for their 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!

August 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 and reasoning.
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 and reasoning.
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 and reasoning.
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 link to the causes and effects.
Level 2	4–6	Some knowledge of economic concepts is shown, partially linked to the question, but with little or no link to the basic reasoning skills.
Level 3	7–10	Good knowledge of the relevant economic concepts is displayed, linked to the question, with some evidence to support the main arguments. Analysis is well developed, but may be inconsistent or incomplete.
Level 4	11–14	Excellent knowledge of the economic concepts is very accurate. Links to the question are clear and logical. Analysis is well reasoned and logical, and appropriate for the question.
Evaluation (6)		
	0	No evaluation.
Level 1	1–2	Limited attempt at evaluation – may be only loosely related to the question and the reasoning.
Level 2	3–4	Clear evidence of evaluative comments, though they may be unfairly weighted or inconsistent with the argument. Reasoning / supporting evidence is provided but may be inconsistent or 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"> <li>• Clear understanding of the economic ideas</li> <li>• Applied accurately to the question, using supporting data where needed</li> <li>• Sound, well-reasoned analysis</li> <li>• Strong, well-supported evaluation</li> </ul>
4	Strong answer, with some good evaluation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Clear understanding of the economic ideas</li> <li>• Applied accurately to the question, using supporting data where needed</li> <li>• Some sound, well-reasoned analysis</li> <li>• Reasonable evaluation content, with some support</li> </ul>
3	Reasonable answer, but poor evaluation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Adequate understanding of the economic ideas</li> <li>• Satisfactorily applied to the question, using some supporting data</li> <li>• Adequate analysis, might be underdeveloped or lacking in detail</li> <li>• Reasonable attempt at evaluation, but lacking support for arguments</li> </ul>
2	Fairly weak answer <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Limited understanding of economic ideas</li> <li>• Loosely applied to the question</li> <li>• Limited analysis, may be unfocused and inconsistent</li> <li>• Limited attempt at evaluation, likely to be unsupported</li> </ul>
1	Weak answer <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Poor understanding of relevant economics</li> <li>• Limited analysis</li> <li>• Unsupported or irrelevant evaluation</li> </ul>

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## Mark Breakdown Test-by-test

Topic Test 2.7	
Question	Mark
1	2
2(a)	2
2(b)	2
3	2
<b>Total</b>	<b>8</b>

Topic Test 2.8	
Question	Mark
1	2
2	3
3	1
4	2
5	15
6	1
7	2
8(a)	2
8(b)	2
9	10
<b>Total</b>	<b>40</b>

Topic Test 2.10	
Question	Mark
1	2
2	1
3	2
4(a)	2
4(b)	2
5	3
6	6
7(a)	4
7(b)	2
8	2
9	4
10	10
<b>Total</b>	<b>40</b>

Topic Test 3.1, 3.3	
Question	Mark
1	4
2	4
3	2
4	1
5	1
6	1
7	2
8	2
<b>Total</b>	<b>19</b>

Topic Test 3.2	
Question	Mark
1	2
2	14
3	2
4	1
5	1
6	1
7	2
8	2
9	1
10	2
11(a)	2
11(b)	2
12	4
<b>Total</b>	<b>42</b>

Topic Test 4.1	
Question	Mark
1	4
2	2
3	4
4	8
5(a)	2
5(b)	2
<b>Total</b>	<b>24</b>

Topic Test 4.2	
Question	Mark
1	3
2	4
3	2
4	1
5(a)	2
5(b)	2
6	4
7	2
8	1
9	6
10	1
11	8
<b>Total</b>	<b>41</b>

Topic Test 4.3	
Question	Mark
1	2
2	4
3	6
4	4
5	2
<b>Total</b>	<b>18</b>

Topic Test 4.4–5	
Question	Mark
1	2
2(a)	2
2(b)	2
2(c)	2
2(d)	2
3	4
4	4
5(a)	2
5(b)	2
5(c)	2
6	2
7	6
8	4
9	4
<b>Total</b>	<b>40</b>

Topic Test 5.1–2	
Question	Mark
1	1
2	4
3	4
4	2
5	4
6	1
7	2
8	2
9	4
10	4
11	2
<b>Total</b>	<b>30</b>

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## Topic Test 2.7: The Concept of the Margin

1. Explain the concept of the 'margin' in economics.
2. Table 1 shows information on the utility to an economic agent of eating different numbers of Snickers bars.

Table 1

Number of Snickers bars	Total utility (measured in utils)
1	30
2	50
3	60
4	65
5	60
6	45

- (a) Calculate the *marginal* utility of eating an additional Snickers bar if the individual has eaten two.
  - (b) Calculate the *marginal* utility of eating an additional Snickers bar if the individual has eaten five.
3. Explain the significance of the marginal concept in economic decision making.

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## Topic Test 2.9: Information Failure

- What is meant by 'information failure'?
- State **three** examples of information failure.
- Asymmetric information refers to which of the following?
  - A situation in which market participants have access to exactly the same information.
  - A situation in which a market participant has access to information about the present but not the future.
  - A situation in which there is an imbalance of information between market participants.
  - A situation in which access to information varies according to one's geographical location.
- What is meant by 'moral hazard'?
- Table 1 outlines some scenarios in which information failure could be occurring.

Table 1

(a)	Ahmed is astonished at the price of brand-new automobiles and purchases one that is second-hand – after all, Ahmed wisely believes that he will lose its value. A second-hand car dealer has picked out a vehicle that fits Ahmed's budget, but Ahmed isn't sure.
(b)	Li is a director at a large international investment bank. She's aware of a government initiative to prohibit fossil fuel usage because of the environmental impact. Li is aware that this policy is going to make shares in First Solar, a renewable energy company, overnight. She decides to buy shares in First Solar before the policy is announced so that she can profit.
(c)	Jess is a lead-engineer at an international electronics firm. Jess is aware of a design fault in the firm's latest mobile phone and is aware of a design fault which could cause the phone to overheat on occasion if subject to humid environments. Jess has decided to cover up the fault; it's too late to change the design as the product has already been released. She knows that she's close to getting the promotion she's been working for.
(d)	Dave is applying for health insurance. Dave knows about a history of smoking which is likely to increase his healthcare expenditure in the future. He doesn't tell the insurance company and has been known to drink heavily on occasion. Insurance companies are known to test their clients because the government feels that it would be a waste of money if they didn't.
(e)	Vikesh is a doctor in the NHS. Vikesh has malpractice insurance with unlimited liability in the case of a serious error during surgery. Vikesh decides to use a general anaesthetic that is slightly out-of-date, but he thinks even if it goes wrong, he will be covered. Unfortunately, his patient passes away during surgery.

Identify the information failure for each of the scenarios (a–e), and explain how it could lead to market failure.

- Which of the following is a correct explanation of a 'merit good'?
  - Merit goods are goods that governments feel would be under-consumed because consumers do not realise their true benefit.
  - Merit goods are all goods that produce positive externalities.
  - Merit goods are goods awarded to people that are deserving of praise and recognition.
  - Merit goods are goods that governments feel would be over-consumed because consumers do not realise the true cost of their consumption.

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7. State **two** examples of a merit good.
8. (a) What is meant by a 'demerit good'?  
(b) What role does information failure play in existence of demerit goods?

The UK's favourite drug is not cannabis, or cocaine, as most physicians would have you believe. It is a substance that starts with a 'C'... caffeine. While the UK has traditionally been a tea-loving society, the most popular stereotype of what it is to be British – preferences are changing. 63% between 1974 and 2014 as consumers have begun to opt for higher caffeine coffee and sugary energy drinks. A standard cup of tea has about 11mg of caffeine per cup, while a standard cup of coffee has about 375mg in it. Like the rise of international coffeehouses, such as Starbucks, has also seen the market flooded with global brands such as Red Bull. Consumption of coffee has risen since the 1970s. What this means is that caffeine consumption has risen overall in the UK population. While caffeine, like other drugs, is not a benign substance. Caffeine consumption has been linked to increased blood pressure, insomnia and incontinence. Perhaps most worrying is that caffeine consumption has been linked to heart attacks among young adults with mild hypertension – in fact, the risks increase for every four cups of coffee that have been consumed, and by a magnitude of three for more than four cups. Caffeine's status as a legal substance erroneously leads people to believe that its overconsumption effect is massive, and dangerous, overconsumption!

9. Using information from the extract and a suitable diagram, evaluate whether caffeine should be considered a demerit good.

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## Topic Test 2.10: Public Goods

1. What is meant by a 'public good'?
2. 'Excludability' refers to which of the following concepts?
  - A It is possible to prevent people that haven't paid for the good from consuming it.
  - B It is impossible for two individuals to consume the good simultaneously.
  - C It is possible to reject the consumption of the good when it is provided.
  - D It is possible for two individuals to consume the good simultaneously.

3. What is meant by the non-rivalry of a public good?
  - (a) If something is non-rejectable, what is true of this type of good?
  - (b) State **two** examples of a good that is non-rejectable.

5. Identify which of the following are public goods.

(a)	Cinemas	(e)	Lighthouses
(b)	Healthcare	(f)	Timber
(c)	Air	(g)	Fireworks
(d)	Bananas	(h)	Electricity

6. Assess how the existence of a public good creates a market failure.
7. Quasi-public goods – meaning 'almost' public goods – are goods that are either rivalrous, or non-rivalrous but excludable.
  - (a) Identify and explain one example of each type of quasi-public good.
  - (b) Do you think a market failure could still occur in the case of a quasi-public good?
8. Explain one reason that a public good exhibits zero marginal cost once provided.
9. Explain **two** advantages of public-private partnerships to overcome the market failure of public goods.

It should be of no surprise that national defence is an important talking point in modern times. One of the measures that are being undertaken by governments to improve the security of their countries is the creation of a national defence system. In the UK, the organisation the NSA, for instance, is a controversial agency that monitors, collects, and analyses intelligence from the communication of American citizens in order to protect against domestic threats. In the UK, a nuclear submarine defence system that some people think of as critical to national security is another example of a public good. Systems of national defence are public goods in the truest sense. It seems natural that the provision of national defence is a public good because, once provided, no individual civilian doesn't prevent another from being simultaneously defended. Moreover, people can consume the good whether they're defended or not once the system is in place. Of course, people can opt out of national defence, but this moral objection isn't the same as a rejection of the good. It is impossible to exclude certain people from defence. If the defence system is provided on a non-excludable scale then people will benefit from it whether they've paid into the system or not. This is a classic market failure for a government to correct by providing certain individuals in society.

10. Evaluate the case for government provision of a national defence system.

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## Topic Test 3.1 and 3.3: Business Objectives, Revenue and Profit

1. In Economics, we typically assume firms are aiming to maximise profits. Explain the profit maximisation objective and why a firm might choose that objective.
2. Explain **two** non-maximising business objectives.
3. Explain **two** reasons that a firm's management might choose to satisfy rather than maximise profit.
4. If a hotdog manufacturer can sell 200,000 hotdogs at a price of £0.05 per unit, what would be this firm's total revenue?  
**A** £10  
**B** £100  
**C** £10,000  
**D** £100,000
5. In January, a luxury umbrella salesperson sold 500 umbrellas and made a total revenue of £80. Which of the following is this salesperson's average revenue?  
**A** £0.16  
**B** £16  
**C** £160  
**D** £1,600
6. If a bakery increases output of hot-cross buns from 100 to 200 units, its total revenue increases from £10 to £160. Which of the following is this bakery's marginal revenue in increasing output?  
**A** £0.06  
**B** £0.60  
**C** £6.00  
**D** £60.00
7. Explain the difference between 'accounting' and 'economic' profit.
8. Explain the difference between super-normal and normal profit.

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## Topic Test 3.2: Costs and Economies of Scale

- What is meant by the term marginal cost?
- Table 1 shows partial details on a firm's production costs.

Output ('000)	Total fixed cost (TFC)	Average fixed cost (AFC)	Total variable cost (TVC)	Average variable cost (AVC)	Total cost (TC)
1	£2,000	(a)	£2,000	£2	(b)
2	£12,000	£6	£3,500	(c)	£15,500
3	£12,000	£4	(d)	£1.50	£16,500
4	(e)	£3	£7,000	£1.75	£19,000
5	£12,000	£2.40	£12,500	£2.50	£24,500

Calculate values for (a–g). Show your working.

- Explain the difference between the short- and long-run.
- Explain the significance of 'diminishing marginal returns' in Economics.
- Illustrate, and explain, the relationship between short- and long-run average cost curves.
- Which of the following is a correct explanation of the concept of 'minimum efficient scale' (MES)?
  - MES is the level of output consistent with the minimum point of a firm's short-run average cost curve.
  - MES is the level of output at which there is no market failure.
  - MES is the level output necessary for a firm to officially be declared a monopoly.
  - MES is the level of output consistent with the minimum point of a firm's long-run average cost curve.
- Explain the relationship of Minimum Efficient Scale (MES) to an industry's market structure.
- What is meant by the term 'economies of scale'?
- Lower per-unit costs that are achieved by the expansion of the individual firm are known as economies of scale. Which of the following type of economies of scale?
  - External economies of scale
  - Internal economies of scale
  - Internal diseconomies of scale
  - External diseconomies of scale
- Identify and explain an example of an internal economy of scale.
- What is meant by external economies of scale? Provide an example.
  - Identify and explain an example of an external economy of scale.
- Assess **two** benefits of economies of scale to a business.

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## Topic Test 4.1: Perfect Competition

1. Explain what is meant by a *perfectly competitive* market.
2. Explain what is meant by 'barriers to entry'.
3. Explain, using a diagram, the reason that an individual firm's demand curve is
4. Why is it only possible for firms to make super-normal profits in the *short-run* competitive market?
5. (a) Explain, using an appropriate diagram, how perfect competition can result in an efficient allocation of resources.  
(b) Explain **one** reason that this allocation of resources might not be allocati

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## Topic Test 4.3: Monopolistic Competition

- Monopolistic competition is *similar* but not exactly the same as the perfect competition model. It is assumed that there are many firms in the market, and that there are zero barriers to entry. The assumption of homogeneity of products is relaxed – that is, monopolistic competition allows for product differentiation. Monopolistic competition is an ‘imperfect’ competition model which is closer to real-life markets – e.g. there are many restaurants in a city, but each sells a slightly different product.

[2 marks for a clear explanation of how monopolistic competition differs from perfect competition; 1 mark for an explanation that is less clear but conveys the general meaning]

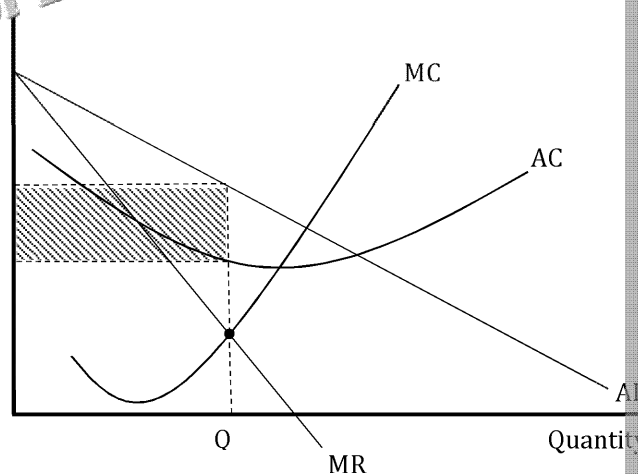
2.

Price/Revenue/Cost



Super-Normal Profit

Revenue  
Cost



**Note that this diagram is identical to that of a monopoly in the short- and long-run.** In the short-run in a monopolistically competitive market, profits made by business firms can be at any level. In the diagram provided, the business is making a super-normal profit, indicated by the shaded area.

[1 mark for correctly labelled axes; 1 mark for correctly drawn MR and AR curves; 1 mark for correctly drawn AC curve; 1 mark for identifying the equilibrium at the profit-maximising point]

3.



Price

P

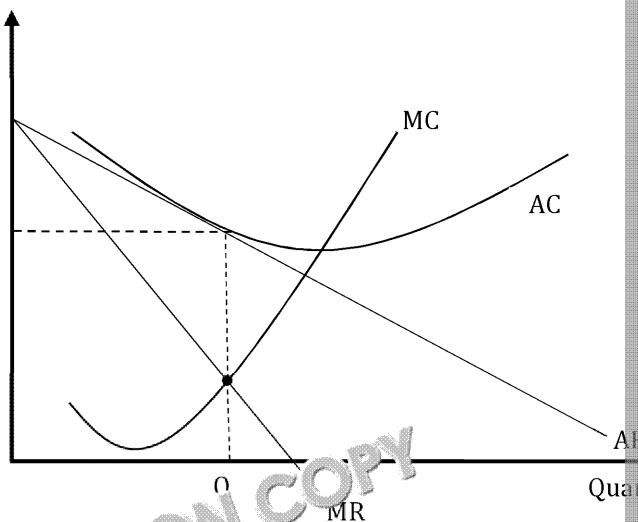
MC

AC

Q

MR

Quantity



Freedom of entry – that is, no barriers to entry – is an important characteristic of monopolistic competition. It limits the ability of firms to make super-normal profits in the short-run. If a representative firm is making super-normal profits, other firms will be attracted to the market because business entry is easy. A condition for a monopolistically competitive market is that there are barriers to entry preventing entry and eroding the incumbent firm's profit, but in a monopolistically competitive market, there are no barriers to entry and so there is nothing that prevents this from occurring. Firms in monopolistically competitive markets sell differentiated products, so when new firms are attracted to the market this tends to reduce the demand for the incumbent firm's product. Essentially, then, this implies that the individual firm's demand curve shifts to the left as some consumers shift consumption to the new entrant.

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Freedom of entry is the condition that is necessary for the monopolistically competitive long-run equilibrium. Eventually, super-normal profits will be eroded as demand is attracted to a larger number of firms in the industry until there is no profit incentive to attract other firms. Monopolistically competitive firms will, of course, still profit-maximise ( $MR = MC$ ). The output associated with maximisation will be the point at which total revenue equals total cost. Note that if firms attempt to defend their market position through, say, advertising, they will increase their costs and shift the average cost curve upward, accelerating the process.

*[Maximum 6 marks. 5–6 marks for a clear analysis supporting the answer with an attempt at evaluation that is unsatisfactory; 4–5 marks for the answer satisfactorily appropriate to the question, using some supporting analysis; 3–4 marks for an answer that is unsatisfactory]*

4. Advantages: Product differentiation leads to more choice for consumers. Low barriers to entry might encourage innovation, leading to improvements in product quality. The differentiation might be only the illusion of choice for consumers (e.g. brand differentiation). Some of the differentiation is arguably inefficient use of resources to convey a brand, which also has environmental costs. Compared to perfect competition, equilibrium in monopolistic competition is not allocatively efficient.

*[2 marks for each clearly explained advantage/disadvantage (one of each); 1 mark for each clear but which conveys the general meaning]*

5. It is important for firms that operate in a monopolistic market to differentiate their products from those of their competitors because it allows them to essentially create an 'individual' market for their product, effectively as a monopoly and become a price-setter rather than price-taker. If the London's fast-food sector sold homogenous products there would be no room for differentiation. Firms would shift their demand to a firm selling *exactly* the same product.

*[2 marks for a clear explanation of the importance of non-price competition for a monopolistic market; 1 mark for an explanation that is less clear but which conveys the general meaning]*

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## Topic Test 4.4–5: Oligopoly and Contestable Markets

- Oligopoly is an imperfectly competitive markets structure in which there tends to be a few dominating the market, and these firms exhibit a degree of interdependence.

[2 marks for a clear explanation of oligopoly; 1 mark for an explanation that is less than a clear general meaning]

- If Airbus chose a 'high' pricing strategy, the best response for Boeing would be to choose a 'low' pricing strategy in order to undercut by its competitor and cream off revenue from the market. Its payoff would be 10, but if it chooses 'low' its payoff is 15. Therefore, Boeing will choose 'low' when its competitor chooses 'high.'
  - If Airbus chose a 'low' pricing strategy, the best response for Boeing would be to choose a 'low' pricing strategy to avoid being undercut its competitor. If Boeing were to choose a 'high' pricing strategy, its payoff would be 1, which is less than the payoff of 5 it can expect when adopting the 'low' pricing strategy. Therefore, Boeing's best strategy would be to choose 'low' when its competitor chooses 'low.'
  - Notice that Boeing's strategy regardless of Airbus' decision should be to adopt a 'low' pricing strategy. This is Boeing's *dominant strategy* because it is the strategy it should play in order to maximise its payoff irrespective of what Airbus chooses to do. Moreover, since the table is symmetric, Airbus's strategy will also be to adopt a 'low' price point. Therefore, the market outcome will be a 'low' pricing strategy in which each manufacturer earns a payoff of 5. Neither Boeing nor Airbus is in a Nash equilibrium because by choosing 'low' they are maximising their pay-off given the other's strategy.
  - Notice that a 'low' pricing strategy equilibrium rewards Boeing and Airbus with a payoff of 5 each, however, is not the best possible outcome for either airline manufacturer – if both choose a 'high' strategy and receives a payoff of 10 each. But, neither Boeing nor Airbus has an incentive to play a 'high' strategy to 'high' without communicating with each other. If they could communicate and agree to a 'high' price strategy that would yield them a payoff of 10, instead of a payoff of 5, this outcome, however, will reflect on the incentives created by the airline manufacturers. Boeing or Airbus could undercut the other by sneakily offering a lower price to gain an additional market share at the expense of its competitor.

[Maximum 2 marks for each correct answer. Award 1 mark for each correct answer with a clear explanation, and 1 mark for the answer.]

- Non-price competition is important in oligopolistic markets because it can help firms avoid price competition and price wars. Interdependence is an important characteristic of oligopoly as a firm's pricing decision will have effects on the pricing decisions of other firms. When McDonald's introduced a \$2.00 deal, it was immediately responded to by its closest competitors. Ultimately, the profitability of these firms – something they no doubt would be keen to avoid – is affected. Firms might choose to invest in advertising in order to differentiate their product without having to compete on price. Firms could also compete on the basis of quality and product differentiation. Firms could offer loyalty cards in order to incentivise return visits and gain market share. Essentially, non-price competition can help oligopolistic firms avoid a destructive price war. Yet, non-price competition is not always the best strategy – e.g. if McDonald's offers a 'premium' meal, its competitors could also offer a similar meal. Moreover, if the cost of implementing a non-price strategy exceeded the benefits, a firm might choose to engage in a price war instead (especially if they can absorb the costs).

[3–4 marks for a well-argued assessment of the significance of non-price competition; 1–2 marks for a less clear argument; 0 marks for unrelated response]

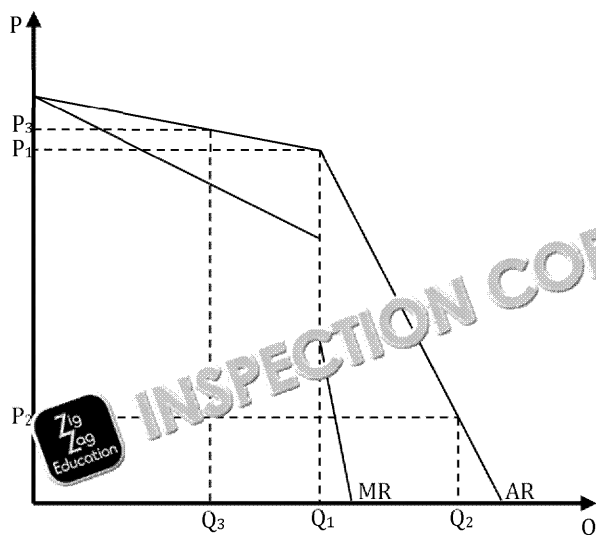
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4.



The kinked demand curve model of an oligopoly is a model that is intended to explain the behavior of oligopolistic firms. It highlights the effect of a firm's pricing decisions on the behavior of other firms in the oligopolistic market.

The kinked demand curve model recognises that the price elasticity of demand for a firm's product depends on the reaction of rival firms.

First, competitors are *not* expected to match any price increase of the individual firm. Therefore, the firm's demand curve *above* the kink is relatively price-elastic because any increase in price is expected to lead to a disproportionate decrease in quantity demanded.

Second, competitors are expected to match any price decrease of the individual firm to maintain their market share and profitability. Therefore, the firm's demand curve *below* the kink is relatively price-inelastic because the price decreases are matched by the competition and this results in a disproportionate increase in output demanded.

Therefore, since the PED for prices above  $P_1$  (e.g.  $P_3$ ) is *elastic*, the firm could increase its price, and, since the PED for prices below  $P_1$  (e.g.  $P_2$ ) is *inelastic*, the firm could increase its price. Hence, prices tend to be stable and interdependent in an oligopoly.

[Up to 2 marks for a clear, labelled diagram, and up to 2 marks for a clear explanation of the firm's pricing decisions]

5. (a)  $CR_3 = 27.6 + 16.1 + 15.7 = 59.4\%$

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

- (b)  $CR_5 = 27.6 + 16.1 + 15.7 + 10.4 + 6.8 = 76.6\%$

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

- (c) Both the  $CR_3$  and  $CR_5$  measures of market concentration would indicate that the industry is concentrated and, therefore, an oligopoly. Just *three* firms (Tesco, Sainsbury, Asda) account for a significant enough proportion of the market at 59.4%, and adding the proceeds of the next two firms would make it one of the most concentrated UK industries.

[2 marks for a clear explanation of the reasons that the industry can be thought of as an oligopoly; 1 mark for an explanation that is less clear]

6. Barriers to entry in an oligopolistic market can be split between *natural* and *artificial*. Natural barriers include things such as economies of scale of incumbent firms, resource ownership, high fixed costs. Artificial barriers include uncompetitive pricing strategies, high marketing costs.

[Maximum 2 marks. 1 mark per correct response.]

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## 7. Advantages:

- **Research and Development:** Like monopolies, oligopolies tend to make super-normal profit. Therefore, oligopolies can also invest in capital. Investment in capital is essential for an economy's long-term growth, so from this perspective, oligopolies are 'dynamically efficient'.
- **Price Stability:** If an oligopoly is tacitly collusive rather than competitive, there is price stability because firms will tend to invest in safer, non-price competition. However, because of the competitive nature there might be price volatility (firms engage in price wars to benefit consumers).

## Disadvantages:

- **Reduce Consumer Choice:** Oligopolies can reduce choice, decreasing the number of firms and produce a small number of products relative to a perfectly competitive market.
- **Price Fixing:** If firms in an oligopoly form a cartel, prices might be fixed, which will reduce consumers' standards of living. However, luckily forming cartels is illegal, so this disadvantage occurs only infrequently.
- **Inefficient:** Oligopolies are unlikely to be productively or allocatively efficient because of imperfect competition.

[Maximum 6 marks. 5–6 marks for a clear evaluation mentioning both one advantage and one disadvantage of oligopoly; 3–4 marks for clear evidence of evaluative comments, though they may be unbalanced; 1–2 marks for providing a limited evaluation and failing to address either advantage or disadvantage]

8. William Baumol developed the theory of contestable markets, in which the presence of zero barriers to entry and exit can produce a competitive equilibrium even in a market dominated by a small number of firms. The presence of zero barriers to entry means that incumbent firms will voluntarily price at their average cost and only make normal profit in the long-run because of the threat of entry by other firms that are readily able to enter the market. If there are no barriers to entry and exit, and technology are freely available; resources are not controlled by the incumbent firms, brands, etc. – then entrants could enter the market without incurring any competitive disadvantage. If a firm's super-normal profit is eroded, then the firm's exit is a competitive disadvantage. Moreover, the lack of barriers to exit means that firms can exit the market without incurring any super-normal profits have been eroded – this is known as a strategy of hit-and-run competition. Therefore, in order to avoid hit-and-run competition, it's best for incumbent firms to price at normal profit level. Hence, the behaviour of business firms in contestable markets is determined by the threat of competition.

[Maximum 2 marks. 2 marks for clearly explaining the significance of zero barriers to entry and exit; 1 mark for a general explanation that is less clear but conveys the general meaning]

9. Primarily, the most important advantage of a perfectly contestable market is that the threat of competition forces firms to price output such that only normal profit is being made. If a firm produces output at a level that is consistent with super-normal profit – e.g. the profit-maximising level – then entrants can enter the market and erode this profit away. Therefore, the incumbent firm tends to price at normal profit to avoid the threat of hit-and-run competition.

Moreover, in the long-run firms operating in a contestable market will produce at the minimum point of their average cost curve, and, therefore, contestable markets can produce a situation of productive efficiency. If a firm is operating at the bottom of its average cost curve, an entrant that can produce at the same level as the incumbent can produce at the bottom of theirs and undercut the incumbent in terms of price. Incumbent firms will have to reduce their costs in order to stay competitive in the industry. Hence, over time firms in contestable markets will operate at a productively efficient level. Moreover, because  $AR$  must equal  $AC$ , the firm will be operating at the minimum point of the  $AC$  curve because  $MC$  cuts the bottom of the  $AC$  curve.

Contestability also implies that the price of output might be lower than in a monopoly. Therefore, in such markets there will be higher consumer surplus. However, because prices fluctuate more often, incumbent firms regularly try to cream off profit and exit the market. Hence, the stability of contestable markets is an important macroeconomic policy objective.

[1 mark for each advantage identified (up to 2); 1 additional mark per advantage assessed]

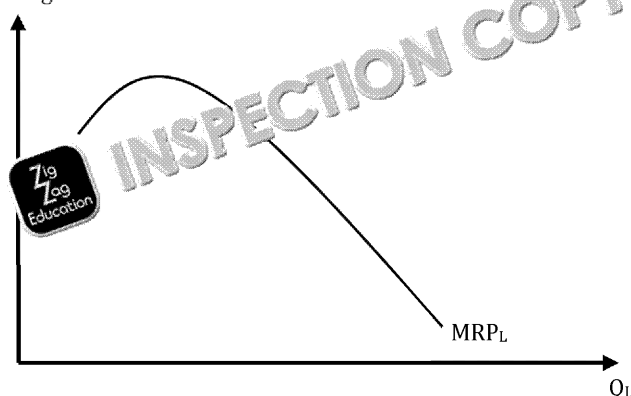
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## Topic Test 5.1–2: Supply of Labour and Demand for Labour

1. *Real* – Real wages are adjusted for the effects of inflation. It is important that not changes in the price level because it is purchasing power that is important for an

[1 mark for correct response]

2. MRP/Wage rate



The Marginal Revenue Product (MRP) curve shows the maximum price a firm would pay for a unit of a factor of production. In understanding the MRP theory of labour demand, demand for labour is derived not from the inherent appeal of labour, but because of production to produce output – that is, the demand for labour is a *derived* demand, determined initially by the output that it can produce. However, because of *diminishing* the marginal product of labour decreases as it is increased relative to the other *fixed* – this implies that the marginal product of labour curve will be downward-sloping. The marginal product of labour is an interesting concept in itself, what is more important for firm for the output that is produced, because this is what *directly* determines profitability. In a competitive market, the marginal revenue of output will be equal to the price ( $P = MR$ ). The marginal product of labour will simply equal the marginal revenue product of labour multiplied by the price of output. The MRP curve, then, will be equal to the marginal product of labour ( $MRP_L$ ) over a range of quantities of labour. The firm will hire labour up to the point the MRP (which is equal to its marginal cost (which is determined on

[Maximum 2 marks for a clear explanation of MRP theory of labour demand; 1–2 marks for a clear but less detailed explanation of the general meaning]

3.
  - *Increase in Marginal Productivity:* If the marginal productivity of labour increases, a firm acquires capital that boosts the marginal output per worker, there will be an increase in the marginal revenue product of labour. Therefore, at any prevailing wage, the firm will hire more labour because it can produce a greater amount of output for the same cost. All technological improvements will increase the demand for labour – evaluate whether the technology is labour-augmenting or labour-saving.
  - *Increase in Marginal Revenue:* Since the  $MRP_L$  is a combination of marginal product and marginal revenue, a change in marginal revenue will also change a firm's labour demand. An increase in marginal revenue shifts the  $MRP_L$  curve outward or inward depending on the direction of the change. In a *perfectly competitive* market, marginal revenue is equal to the price level, so if there is an increase in price, a firm's labour demand shifts to the right. Note that this highlights the fact that a firm's labour demand curve is not just a demand curve for labour but also a demand curve for the firm's product, price fluctuations reflect these changes and labour also changes as a result.

[Maximum 4 marks for clearly explaining factors which would increase a firm's labour demand; 1–2 marks for a clear but less detailed explanation of the general meaning]

4. (Labour productivity) measures the efficiency of production by calculating a firm's output per labour input – either measured by the number of labourers, or labour hours.

Unit labour cost (ULC) measures the cost per labour input, divided by output per worker or per labour hour terms). Note that an equivalent way of expressing ULC is the total cost divided by total output. Essentially, then, ULC provides a broad measure of the cost of production.

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If a firm, industry, or economy becomes more productive – that is, more output can be produced with the same amount of inputs – it will have the effect of reducing unit labour costs because the denominator of the ULC increases.

[2 marks for a clear explanation of the relationship between productivity and unit labour costs; 1 mark for an explanation that is less clear but explains the general meaning]

5. Figure 1 shows that there has been a marked difference in levels of productivity per hour – between the UK and Ireland from 2010 onward. While the UK's productivity has increased dramatically, Ireland's productivity in 2016 is only 0.9% greater than the UK's, however, is only 0.9% greater.

Labour productivity has a direct effect on a unit labour cost (ULC) by altering the total output of labour input. Therefore, Ireland's ULC in 2016 should be lower than the UK's, as Ireland's labour is more efficient. Ultimately, this means that Ireland's cost of production is lower, which should influence the price of Irish products relative to the UK. This means that Irish products should be cheaper than UK products because its costs of production are lower, making Irish firms more competitive in international markets than UK firms, and Irish exports should deteriorate on the basis of this information.

However, an important problem in this analysis is that the effect will depend on the initial level of productivity and the UK. Since ULC is measured by the total cost of labour divided by total output, the effect will depend on the initial total cost of labour. If Ireland's labour cost was significantly higher than the UK's with then it is not guaranteed that an increase in productivity will make Irish exports more competitive than the UK's.

[Maximum 4 marks for a clear analysis of the impact on the UK of changing levels of productivity; 1 mark for an adequate analysis, might be underdeveloped or lacking in detail]

6. **B** – Monopsony is a similar concept to monopoly only that there is a single *buyer* rather than a single *seller*. Therefore, a monopsony exerts their monopsony power in purchasing factors of production to influence the price of production. In explanation of 'oligopoly,' **C** refers to the concept of a few large firms, **A** refers to a monopoly and **D** is, therefore, a monopoly.

[1 mark for correct response]

7. Otto's research indicates that technological development will affect the elasticity of labour demand because the most important influences on elasticity is the availability of substitutes. If there is a close substitute for labour, we would expect the elasticity of labour demand to be high. If the wage rate for labour in the trucking industry increased, we would expect that trucking firms would use Otto's technology because there is little difference between using automated technology and human labour. If, however, there were no substitutes for labour in the trucking industry, we would expect an increase in truck driver's wages to be accompanied by a decrease in labour employment. Notice that the elasticity of labour demand will be high if there are many substitutes, not just their availability. Otto's technology is actually cheaper than human labour, so we would expect labour demand to be more elastic in this case than if the technology was more expensive, say \$3,000,000.

[Maximum 2 marks for a clear and accurate explanation of how the elasticity of labour demand will be affected; 1–2 marks for an explanation that is less clear but explains the general meaning]

8. The proportion of labour cost to total cost; time-period (for the difference between the two factors substitutability); price elasticity of demand for the firm's output.

[Maximum 2 marks. 1 mark per correct response.]

9. • **Demographic Changes:** If the economy's demographic changes, say, because the birth rate falls, there is likely to be a negative effect on the supply of labour in all industries. Natural disasters, such as the death rate, the size of the economy's population should be affected, which will have an effect on labour supply. Immigration has a similar, but more rapid, effect on labour supply. • **Labour Force Participation:** Labour force participation refers to the proportion of the population that is 'active' – that is, employed or actively seeking employment. If labour force participation increases, this is akin to saying that the overall supply of labour has increased. The labour market from the 50s onwards would be an example of an increase in labour force participation. • **Wages in Alternative Jobs:** If the wage rate in an industry rises disproportionately to the supply of labour in the higher-paying industry to increase – this is consistent with the law of diminishing returns.

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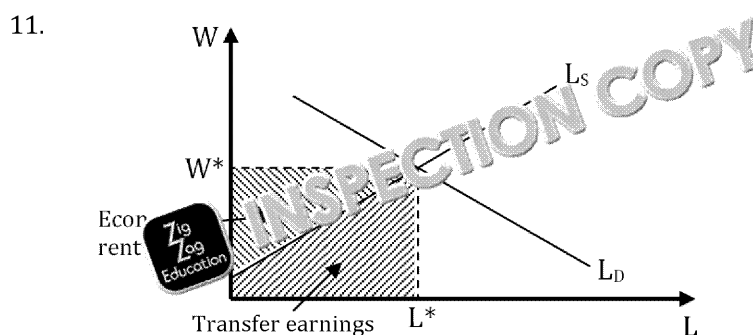


- supply curve. Naturally, then, this means that there are less workers available therefore we would expect to see an inward shift of the labour supply at the p
- **Non-Pecuniary Benefits:** Wages are not the only factor that individuals consider. Industries that are more pleasant, for instance, are likely to have a greater supply of workers – think of the number of people willing to be sewage workers compared to other industries. Industries that offer job security, training, pensions, and other benefits are likely to have a greater labour supply than industries that do not. Changes in non-pecuniary benefits will be reflected in the position of the labour supply curve.
  - **Non-wage Income:** Alternatively, labour supply might be influenced by the availability of non-wage income as benefit payments. If social security benefits increase, we might see that some workers leave the labour market as the perceived benefit of staying home increases, leading to a decrease in the labour supply.

[Maximum 4 marks. 3–4 marks each for a clear explanation of non-monetary factors that influence the labour supply; 1 mark each for an explanation that is less clear.]

10. It is likely that the labour supply for the Beefeater position is more inelastic than for other military ranks because of *occupational* and *geographic immobility*. Primarily, becoming a Beefeater requires 22 years' service, and the position of Warrant Officer. Naturally then, the labour supply for this position is less flexible than for other military ranks because a great number of military personnel have the expertise required to become a Beefeater. Therefore, changes in Beefeater's wages will result in significant increases in employment in this position. Second, because Beefeaters are based in London, there is a geographical obstacle in that even those with pre-requisite expertise to become a Beefeater might not be able to move to London to perform the role. Individuals might not be able to afford to move, or they might already have emotional ties to a certain area, etc. This would make labour supply for this position inflexible and hence wage increases might not necessarily bring about an increase in employment.

[Maximum 4 marks. 3–4 marks for clearly explaining the reasons why the labour supply for the Beefeater position is more inelastic in the short-run; 1–2 marks for a less clear explanation, with limited detail.]



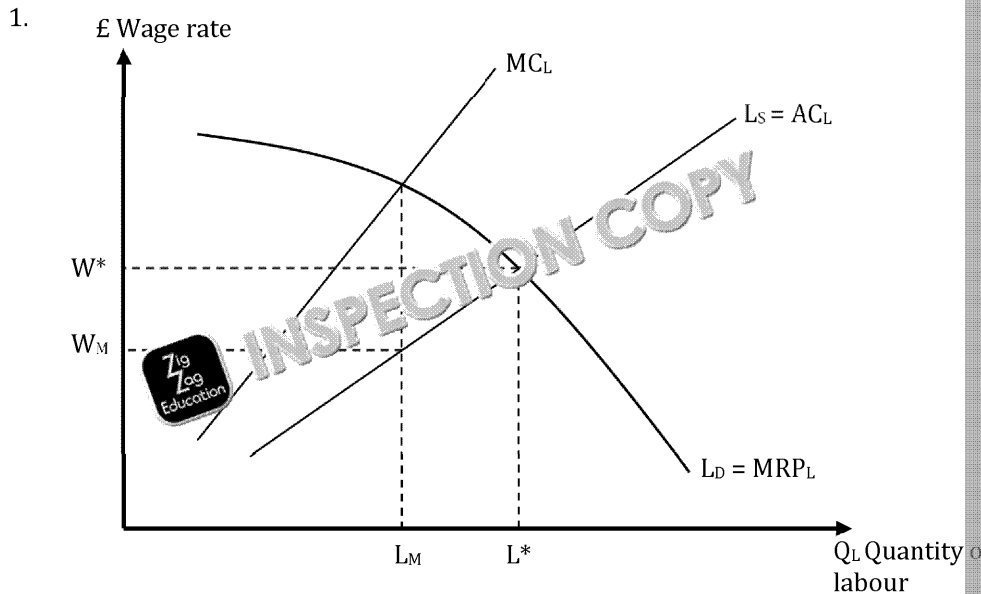
Economic rent is defined as the payments made to a factor over and above its transfer earnings. Transfer earnings are the minimum payments needed to keep a factor of production in its current use.

[Maximum 2 marks for correctly illustrating the difference between transfer earnings and economic rent; 1 mark for a less clear illustration but overall conveys the general meaning]

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## Topic Test 5.3: The Interaction of Labour Markets



Monopsony refers to a situation in which there is a single buyer in a market. If the market it is no longer true that the monopsonist firm must accept the prevailing wage rate. Instead, the monopsonist faces a labour supply curve directly. Therefore, labour supply is given by the upward-sloping curve ( $L_S$ ) that shows the cost of labour ( $AC_L$ ).  $AC_L$  gives the average wage rate that would need to exist in order to attract a given quantity of labour input and is in this sense directly comparable to the industry's labour supply curve. If the firm increase employment it can only do so by offering a higher wage and enticing workers to work for it. This is the essence of the upward-sloping  $L_S$  curve. However, it must pay a higher wage to attract an additional worker. Therefore, the marginal cost of labour is not only the wage rate of the worker at a higher wage, but paying *all* existing workers a slightly higher wage to attract the additional worker. Therefore, the  $MC_L$  curve is above the  $AC_L$  curve.

Notice that the firm's demand curve hasn't changed from that of the situation in a perfectly competitive labour market. It is still determined by the marginal revenue product of labour ( $MRP_L$ ).

If the monopsonist is a profit-maximising firm it will employ labour up to the point where the marginal cost of labour ( $MC_L$ ) equals the marginal revenue product of labour ( $MRP_L$ ) – this would be  $L_M$ . However, it will not pay a wage consistent with the  $MC_L = MRP_L$  point. It only need to pay a wage that is consistent with the labour supply curve. Therefore, monopsony power implies that there will be less labour supplied and at a lower wage than in a perfectly competitive labour market – that is,  $L_M < L^*$  and  $W_M < W^*$ .

[Maximum 6 marks. 5–6 marks for accurately explaining with a correctly labelled diagram the effect of monopsony power on an industry's labour market; 3–4 marks for an adequate explanation however no diagram; 1–2 marks for a limited explanation that may be unfocused or incorrect.]

- 2.
- Monopsonies might be *demotivating* for the labour force because they feel that monopsonists offer wages lower than would prevail in a perfectly competitive labour market. This might become less productive as a lack of motivation might mean that they are less willing to work for the monopsonist.
  - Monopsonist employers might not invest in improving working conditions to compete with labour for.
  - Monopsonies can increase wage inequality in a society because they have the power to pay lower wages than a perfectly competitive labour market.

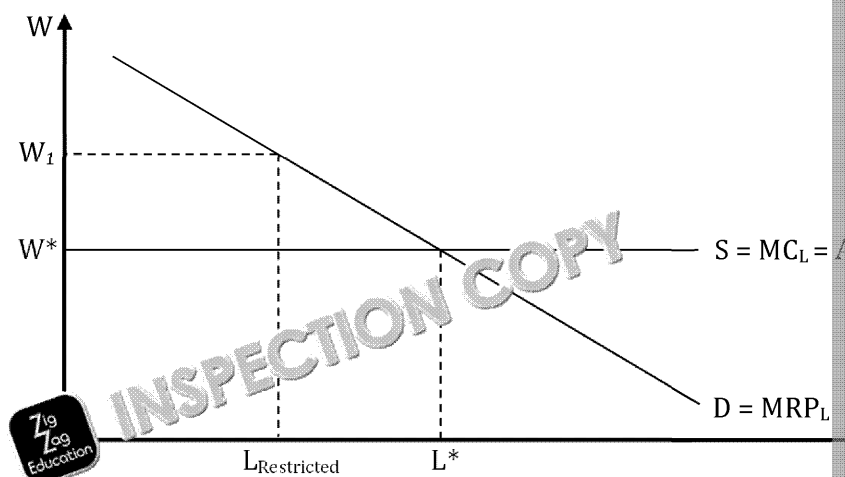
[2 marks each for a clear explanation of a disadvantage of monopsony power; 1 mark for a less clear explanation; 1 mark for a correct general meaning]

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3. (a)



[Maximum 4 marks for a clearly labelled diagram, correctly illustrating the effect of a union restricting the labour supply on the individual firm; 2 marks for an adequate illustration, however lacking in detail]

(b) Advantages:

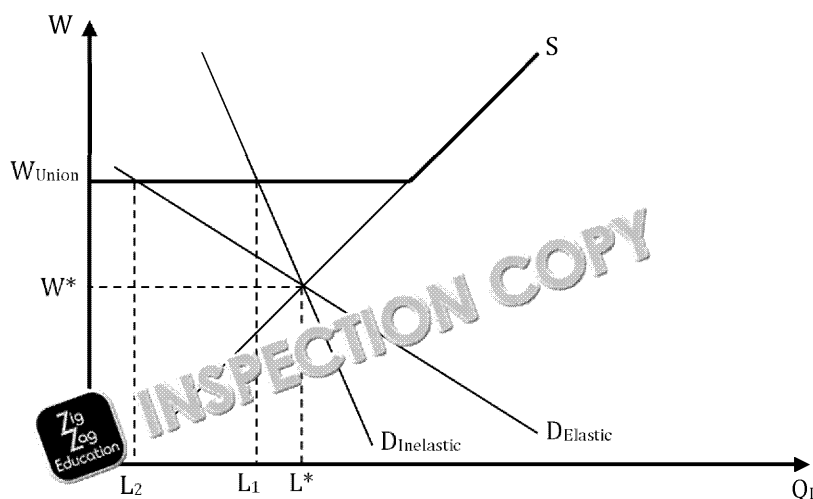
- If the union restricts the supply of labour to a level *below* what the individual firm would employ at the prevailing market wage  $W^*$ , the firm can artificially push the wage up to  $W_1$  and employ more workers. Note that it is important that the firm can employ more workers for this action to have an effect.
- It is also possible that wage rate of  $W_1$  might increase workers' motivation and productivity. Union intervention could then be thought of as benefiting the firm.

Disadvantages:

- It is the case that the union will have more power to restrict labour supply if the firm *must* employ unionised workers – e.g. a 'closed shop'. However, if the firm can hire non-union members, the union's actions might only serve to displace workers rather than restrict them from employment opportunities.
- Unions restricting the labour supply necessarily prevents people from working. If the policy is only aimed at union members that are still employed, while non-union members of  $W^*$  are forcibly unemployed. If the demand for labour is inelastic, the loss of jobs between the employed union members and those that are unemployed imposes obvious costs on society.
- If the labour market is perfectly competitive there is little need for union intervention. It is inefficient for the wage rate to be artificially raised above the market-clearing level.

[Maximum 4 marks for accurately assessing one clear advantage and one clear disadvantage of restricting the labour supply; 2 marks for an adequate assessment, however it is not fully accurate]

4.



Before the trade union negotiated a fixed wage, the labour market was in equilibrium where the market-clearing wage rate was  $W^*$  and the quantity of labour was  $L^*$ .

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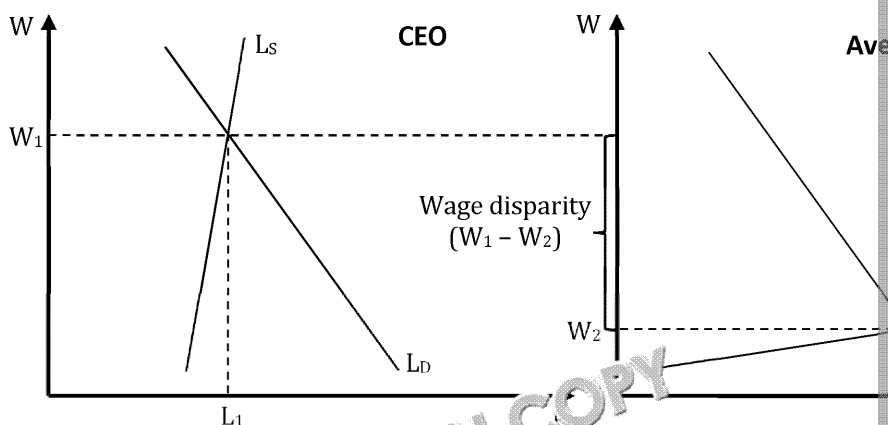


Once trade union negotiates a *fixed* wage for union members, say,  $W_{\text{Union}}$ , the effect is similar to the situation in which there is a fixed minimum wage imposed by a government. Effectively, the wage is constrained at  $W_{\text{Union}}$  until it meets the industry's upward-sloping labour supply curve. For any wage below  $W_{\text{Union}}$  and, as such, this will affect the quantity of labour employed. In other words, there is a trade-off between a higher wage and employment.

Yet, this trade-off is more pronounced according to the elasticity of a firm's labour demand. If demand is inelastic, say, because capital is unsubstitutable for labour, the effect of increasing the wage will be a small reduction in unemployment. Equilibrium is achieved at  $W_{\text{Union}}$  and  $L_1$  where  $L_1$  is only marginally less than the competition equilibrium of  $L^*$ . However, when demand for labour is elastic, the effect of increasing the wage will be more drastic effects on unemployment. If demand is elastic, employment is reduced to just  $L_2$  at the union fixed wage increases unemployment from  $L^*$  to  $L_2$ , but the effect is far more pronounced and the reduction in employment is elastic.

[Maximum 6 marks for accurately illustrating and explaining the effects of the elasticity of labour demand on the wage negotiated by a trade union; 1–2 marks for an adequate explanation, however, it may be underdeveloped or lacking in detail]

5.



Disparities in wage rates between occupations exist primarily because of differences in the supply of workers. CEOs have acquired very particular skills and expertise in operating a business, which is a much more inelastic supply than workers of low-skilled jobs. CEOs are usually highly educated and have a high innate ability in business – this could be true of someone like Donald Trump or any other executive chair of a multinational business. CEO wages therefore can be much higher than those of low-skilled workers. Higher levels of human capital, and this is reflected in the inelasticity of the labour supply curve.

In the CEO section of the diagram above, the labour supply of CEOs is shown to be very inelastic. In the 'Average' section of the diagram above, we can see that the labour supply of a typical McDonald's worker is highly elastic – this is because the typical worker is part of a wide-range of people that would be suitable for such a role. Naturally, then, the inelastic supply of CEOs and the elastic supply of average workers will bring about differences in the wage rate. The CEO earns a wage of  $W_1$  and the 'typical' worker earns a wage of  $W_2$ .

However, CEOs can also be thought of as bringing in higher marginal revenues than average workers. There is also a demand-side effect that is occurring. CEOs introduce particular strategies that can bring in millions upon millions of profit. Typical workers simply undertake the operation of a business. CEOs, therefore, are subject to far stronger demand than the average worker. This is because of labour-saving technology. Hence, CEOs can command higher wages because they generate higher revenue for a business and this has a direct effect on the 'derived' demand for their labour.

[Maximum 6 marks. 5–6 marks for accurately assessing the reasons by which a CEO can command higher wages than an average worker. 3–4 marks for providing an adequate analysis, might be underdeveloped or lacking in detail, poor analysis, which may be unfocused or incorrect.]

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