



Topic Tests for AS / A Level Edexcel A

Theme 2: The UK Economy –
Performance and Policies

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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 A Level Edexcel A Theme 2. It allows teachers and students to check their understanding and consolidate knowledge of each part of the Edexcel 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, following the topics of the A Level specifications.

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 Edexcel specification.

Most Topic Tests contain 30–40 marks worth of questions, although some tests are shorter to cover each specification topic appropriately according to its scope. It is intended that the longer 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.

Notes on specific tests:

- Note that although the title of this Theme is 'The UK Economy – Performance and Policies', at various points in the resource we use examples from other countries. For these questions students are not expected to have prior knowledge of the economies in question, and it is hoped that they can practise applying the principles of macroeconomic theory without needing to stick solely to the UK context. This will also prepare them well for macroeconomic themes in Theme 4 and in the exam for Paper 3.
- Test 2.1d (Balance of Payments) is very short; however if you are teaching the full A Level you may wish to combine this with the equivalent Theme 4 test which covers 4.1.7 Balance of Payments. Alternatively it could be paired with an earlier or later Theme 2 test, or simply set as a short task.

It is hoped that this resource, as well as offering support for teaching the essential elements of the Edexcel macroeconomics 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!

November 2019

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Mark Breakdown Test-by-test

Test	
2.1a	
2.1b	
2.1c	
2.1d	
2.2a	
2.2b	
2.3	
2.4	
2.5	
2.6a	
2.6b	
2.6c	

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Topic Test 2.3 Aggregate Supply (AS)

1. What is meant by aggregate supply (AS)?
2. In April 2016, the UK government introduced the 'National Living Wage' which increased the minimum wage by 50p. How would the introduction of the National Living Wage affect short-run aggregate supply (SRAS)?
3. Table 1 outlines various factors that might affect macroeconomic equilibrium.

Table 1

	Scenario
(i)	Increasing prices for a barrel of crude oil on international markets bring about a fall in demand from emerging economies such as India and China.
(ii)	Miners find a deposit of rare earth elements that can be used to produce new technologies.
(iii)	Increasing government expenditure on the NHS to improve the general health of the British public.
(iv)	Firms' confidence in the state of the British economy falls following a global financial crisis.

Using AD/AS diagrams, individually evaluate how these factors can affect macroeconomic equilibrium.

4. Explain, using one or more diagrams, the difference between a movement along the AS curve and a shift of the AS curve.
5. Explain, using an appropriate diagram/s, the difference between Keynesian aggregate demand and short-run aggregate supply.

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Topic Test 2.4 National Income

1. Explain the **three** methods of measuring national income.
2. Which of the following is *not* a form of income?
A Salaries
B Bonuses
C Real estate
D Wages
3. What is meant by the circular flow of income?
4. Explain the difference between physical and monetary flows in the context of the circular flow of income model.
5. Using an AD/AS diagram, identify macroeconomic equilibrium.
6. Suppose the UK government injected funds into the economy via infrastructure spending. Discuss the differing effects this policy would have on macroeconomic indicators between the Keynesian and Monetarist schools of thought.
7. Imagine a fictional economy in which households spend £80 each day out of a total income of £150. If incomes rose to £200, the same households would spend £100 per day.
Calculate the marginal propensity to consume.
8. Table 1 gives information on a country's marginal propensity to save, tax, and

Table 1

	Value
Marginal Propensity to Save	0.1
Marginal Propensity to Tax	0.1
Marginal Propensity to Import	0.05

Calculate the national income multiplier for this economy.

9. Explain **one** factor that affects the size of the national income multiplier.
10. Explain, using an AD-AS diagram, how the multiplier effect would impact GDP.

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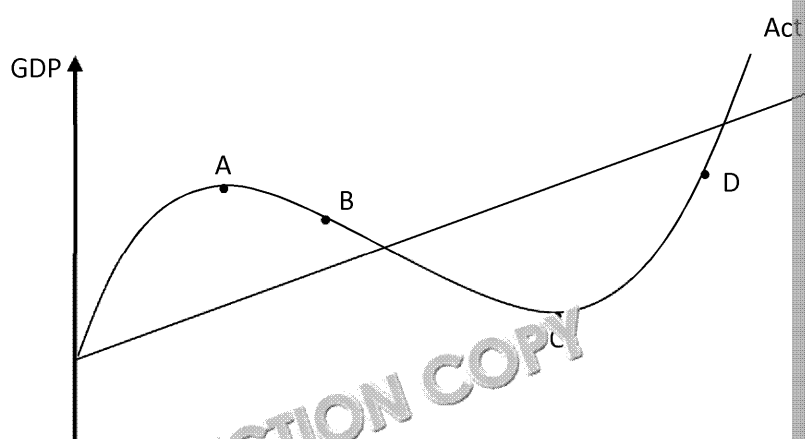
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Topic Test 2.5 Economic Growth

- Using a PPF, explain the difference between short- and long-run economic growth.
- Explain the difference between *actual* and *trend* rates of economic growth.
- Explain how *economies of scale* can be achieved through international trade.
- Evaluate **two** potential causes of a budget gap.
- Illustrate, using an AD/AS diagram, both a negative and a positive output gap.
 - Explain the reason why it is difficult to measure an economy's output gap.
- Figure 1 displays a diagram of the business cycle.

Figure 1



- In Figure 1, which point (A–D) correlates to the recessionary stage of the business cycle?
 - In Figure 1, which point (A–D) correlates to a 'boom' in the economic cycle?
- Imagine that you are an economist working for the Office for National Statistics. You have been asked to monitor the UK economy. You would tell whether the UK economy was in a boom or in a recession.

China and India are among the fastest growing economies in the world. China's GDP growth between 2005 and 2015 was 9.76%, and India's 7.59%. GDP growth is astonishing for economies that within the last century were highly underdeveloped. The World Bank has estimated that more than half a billion people have escaped poverty since 1981 as its poverty rate has fallen from 88% to 18% of the population. However, while growth certainly has its benefits, there are associated costs as well. Inflationary pressures in the Chinese economy and India is the world's most unequal economy on Earth, with the rich controlling 58.4% of the country's income.

- Refer to the experience of India and China, evaluate the costs and benefits of rapid economic growth.

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Topic Test 2.6a Macroeconomic Objectives and Policies

1. Distinguish between *fiscal* and *monetary* policy.
2. It is said that one of the core macroeconomic objectives for most governments is 'full employment'. What is meant by 'full employment'?
3. The Bank of England, the central bank of the UK, has an objective of price stability. Its monetary policy to achieve the government's inflation target of 2.0%. What is meant by 'low and stable' inflation?
4. Explain **one** reason why a government might wish to increase public expenditure.
5. Explain **two** potential reasons why a government might wish to increase public expenditure.
6. Which of the following is an example of *indirect* taxation?
 - A Corporation Tax
 - B Income Tax
 - C Property Tax
 - D Value Added Tax (VAT)
7. The United Kingdom's Conservative government budget for 2016 outlined that the government 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?
8. In the UK, the Coalition and Conservative governments from 2010 operated with a 'balanced budget'. Explain **one** reason that some governments have a macroeconomic objective of a 'balanced budget'.
9. 'Quantitative Easing' (QE) refers to which of the following explanations?
 - A When an economy's monetary policy authority publishes economic forecasts and future interest rate changes in order to influence market expectations.
 - B When an economy's monetary policy authority provides stimulus to the economy through money creation and the purchase of financial assets.
 - C When an economy's monetary policy authority conducts monetary policy to achieve an inflation target.
 - D When an economy's monetary policy authority distributes money directly to citizens by handing out a citizens' dividend.
10. Explain the role of the Bank of England's Monetary Policy Committee (MPC).

On the 4th of August 2016, the Bank of England's Monetary Policy Committee (MPC) cut the base rate 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 inflation target of 2.0%. Its predictions of the UK's rate of inflation were revised downwards from 2.3% to 0.8% largely because of the uncertainty in the UK economy that has resulted from Brexit. The MPC is also considering cutting the rate to 'close to, but 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.

11. Evaluate the MPC's decision to cut interest rates on the government's macroeconomic objectives.

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Topic Test 2.6b Conflicts and Applications of Macroeconomics

1. 'Sustainability', including the protection of the natural environment, is an important objective for many central governments. Explain why this objective might conflict with other policy objectives.
2. What is meant by the Phillips curve?
3. Explain, using an appropriate diagram, the potential for a trade-off between inflation and growth when using monetary policy to stimulate the economy.
4. Explain the limitations to the effectiveness of monetary policy measures.

In 1929, America was confronted with an economic downturn more severe than that experienced by any other industrialised nation. It was dubbed the 'Great Depression' by commentators. Consumption fell dramatically and this had a subsequent impact on the behaviour of firms, including their employment and investment decisions. Nearly 20% of the American workforce became themselves unemployed in the years following the Wall Street crash. John Maynard Keynes, the founder of modern macroeconomics, believed that this phenomenon could have been explained by the rigidity of wages.

5. Evaluate, using an appropriate diagram(s), whether the Great Depression provided evidence for the inflexibility of nominal wages.

In the aftermath of the 2007–2008 financial crisis, many Western central governments were criticised for causing the crisis and were also criticised for the impact of subsequent policies on their economies to recover. Austerity – a policy of decreased government spending and increased taxation – was rolled out in many countries in order to improve these governments' financial positions. Economists such as Paul Krugman expressed concerns about the effect that austerity could have on a depressed economy.

6. Evaluate, using an appropriate diagram(s), the effect of austerity on economic recovery following the onset of the 2007–2008 financial crisis.

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Topic Test 2.6c Supply-Side Politics

1. Explain, using one or more examples, the difference between market-based and supply-side policies.
2. Explain the difference between supply-side policies and supply-side improvement.
3. 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
4. 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.

5. Explain, using one or more diagrams, how investing in Crossrail 1 and 2 will improve the economy.
6. Evaluate the capacity of supply-side policies to achieve the government's macroeconomic goal of full employment.

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Answers

Topic Test 2.1a Measure of Economic Performance: Economic Growth

1. Economic growth refers to increases in the real GDP of an economy over time. In the short run, economic growth refers to changes in the actual output and long-run growth refers to changes in the potential output of an economy. When looking at rates of change in the short run, we are looking at short-run economic growth.

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

2. Gross national income (GNI) measures the total income generated by a country's residents, regardless of their location. Note that GNI is equivalent to gross national product (GNP) because of the way output and expenditure calculations of national GNI/GNP.

[2 marks for a clear explanation of what is measured by gross national income (GNI); 1 mark for an answer that conveys the general meaning]

3. Nominal GNI is the value of an economy's total income. Real GNI is an economy's total income adjusted for the effect of inflation.

[2 marks for a clear distinction between nominal and real GNI; 1 mark for an answer that conveys the general meaning]

4. A – If an economy's growth rate falls but is still positive (e.g. a change from 10% to 8%), the economy 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]

5. (i) $\text{Nominal GDP Growth} = \frac{\text{Change in Nominal GDP}}{\text{Nominal GDP (2015)}} \times 100 = \frac{1,940,000 - 1,873,000}{1,873,000} \times 100 = 3.58\%$

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

- (ii) $\text{Real GDP (2016)} = 1.8\% \text{ increase in Real GDP (2015)} = 1,832,000 \times 1.018 = 1,855,296$

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

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

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

6. Between 2007 and 2010 the UK economy was experiencing a recessionary phase. A recession is a period of negative economic growth (and, hence, declining output). Recessions have the consequence of increasing unemployment because firms are producing less and therefore need fewer workers. If workers are unemployed for long periods of time they may become discouraged and depressed, which would constitute a decrease in the productive capacity of an economy. A recession also leads to declines in tax receipts and increases in government expenditure if there has been a fall in interest rates, which has the potential to cause a budget deficit, increasing the national debt, and limiting the government's ability to conduct expansionary fiscal policy. If recessions are prolonged there might be long-term effects on the economy. If a recession is prolonged, this could lower an economy's trend rate of GDP growth.

[3–4 marks for a clear discussion of the consequences of a recession, expanding effects and offering counterarguments where applicable; 1–2 marks for a discussion that is well structured and shows engagement and analysis; 0 marks for answers that are off-topic]

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7. The Easterlin Paradox is an economic theory that suggests that there is no correlation between prosperity and levels of self-reported happiness *between* countries, while *within* a country there is a correlation between happiness and higher income, creating a paradox between the two measurements. Income, therefore, is only one factor that determines our happiness.

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

8. (i) Nominal GDP measures income, output, or expenditure, at *current* prices. It is the monetary value of all the output produced within an economy during a specific period. Nominal GDP per capita is simply nominal GDP divided by the country's total population, which gives a measure of the country's standard of living.

[2 marks for a clear explanation of the difference between nominal GDP and real GDP; 1 mark for an explanation that is less clear but which conveys the general meaning]

- (ii) Nominal GDP and real GDP differ because real GDP is corrected for changes in the price level. It is, therefore, useful in helping us understand whether an increase in GDP is due to a real effect. If prices doubled, nominal GDP would double because it measures the value of transactions. However, the *volume* of output has remained the same and so real GDP increases, we know that the volume of output has risen, which means the country is experiencing economic growth.

[2 marks for a clear explanation of how nominal and real GDP can be used to help us understand national accounting; 1 mark for an explanation that is less clear but which conveys the general meaning]

9. (i) Issues:
- **International Price Differentials:** GDP figures don't take into account differences in price levels between countries. Therefore, it could be possible that two countries have exact the same GDP, but one country's citizens have greater purchasing power as prices are lower. If prices are not equal, even if the value of GDP is exactly the same.
 - **National Price Differentials:** It is argued that changes in a country's price level can make GDP a misleading statistic in comparing standards of living over time. Nominal GDP measures the value of economic transactions, so it reflects changes in the price level. The only way to compare GDP over time is to use real GDP.
 - **Hidden Economies:** GDP figures don't include hidden economies, which are difficult to measure. Many LDCs have informal economies that are excluded from GDP figures, but they nevertheless have an important impact on a citizen's standard of living.
 - **Inequality:** GDP per capita allows us to compare the 'average' standard of living, but it obscures the distribution of income. Inequality is an important consideration when comparing standards of living between countries.
 - **'Bads':** GDP figures include public and private spending on 'bads' as well as 'goods'. If two countries have similar levels of GDP, but one country invests in welfare and the other in 'bads' such as warfare. It would not be correct to say that these countries have the same standard of living and the quality of life.
 - **Exchange Rate:** If we are to compare GDP between countries, we need to convert them into a common currency (e.g. US\$). However, the exchange rate might not be constant, or might be manipulated by the country, and so it can be misleading when comparing living standards.
 - **Externalities:** GDP is useful in measuring overall living standards, but it doesn't account for economic growth – e.g. pollution. It is likely that economic growth leads to a decline in the quality of life of a country's citizens, and using GDP doesn't take these effects into account.

[2 marks each for a clear explanation of a limitation of using GDP to compare living standards between countries or over time; 1 mark each for an explanation that is less clear but which conveys the general meaning]

- (ii) Purchasing Power Parity (PPP) can be used to overcome some of the limitations of GDP. PPP corrects the exchange rate between countries for the relative price levels. If we used a nominal exchange rate to compare the GDP of two countries, a halving of the value of the euro relative to the pound would halve the value of the euro. It is unlikely that France's output has actually halved. Therefore, using PPP avoids the problem of comparing GDP between countries.

[2 marks for a clear explanation of how PPP facilitates international comparison of living standards; 1 mark for an explanation that is less clear but which conveys the general meaning]

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Topic Test 2.1b Measure of Economic Performance: Inflation

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

[1 mark for correct response]

2. The Consumer Price Index (CPI) is a weighted price index of a representative basket of goods and services. The ONS collects data on the individual price quotes of the sample of representative goods and services over a time frame. Next, the 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 fruit, petrol will have a greater weight in the index. Note that these weights will change over time according to the changes in the level of 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 a clear but conveys the general meaning; 0 marks for content that is unrelated to the question]

3. (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]

4.

Advantages	Disadvantages
Indices are an established way of measuring inflation, and having a clear method 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 based on the <i>quantity</i> of products rather than the <i>quality</i> of products. This can lead to a distortion in the relation to increases in prices because of new products or changes in quality just inflation.
Indices such as CPI are useful because they've been adopted as measures of inflation by numerous economies, which facilitates the international comparisons of inflation.	Indices such as CPI also don't take into account the effect of consumption alternatives, and price changes in non-consumption to the change in the index's weight isn't always reflected. (Note that this is an annual basis in order to avoid overstating inflation.)
Indices help governments forecast and this analysis can help determine fiscal or monetary policy.	If the weights of individual items in the index are calculated from historical data, then statistical errors that could occur may weight the importance of certain items incorrectly.
Indices make it easy for consumers and businesses to plan their behaviour – e.g. workers may be able to demand <i>fair</i> salary increases based on the movements in the price index.	It is important to consider the 'base' year – if the base year is an economic situation that is not representative (e.g. a recession) then future calculations might engender a misleading picture 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 lacking the absence of thought behind the advantages and disadvantages of using an index to measure inflation.]

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5. Inflation can be caused by demand-side factors, supply-side factors, or changes in the money supply. If inflation is brought about by demand-side factors it is called *demand-pull inflation*. Increases in demand and this effect is more marked when the economy is operating close to full capacity. An increase in demand can allow producers to charge higher prices for their products to their potential buyers. If inflation is brought about by supply-side factors, it is called *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 can 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 when there are increases in the money supply, if too much money is chasing too few goods, then the price level is increased. This can respond to excesses in demand brought about by increasing purchasing power.

[Maximum 5 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 inflation, partially linked to the question but displays incomplete or basic reasoning. 1–2 marks for a few causes, but inconsistently, and with inaccurate or absence of thought behind the answer.]

6.

Inflation	
Inflation has menu costs – this is the cost of firms having to update their price lists. However, these are insignificant when inflation is stable. Therefore, we would expect this to be a problem in the Venezuelan economy but not in the UK.	In Japan's experience it has been <i>wholly</i> bad. Price increases causes the price of goods to rise. In these items appear more expensive on international markets (Japan has benefited from the periods that it has a trade surplus). Moreover, if deflation is occurring and productivity gains in goods and services, the price level is falling and a positive and an indicator of economic growth.
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!	Deflation can be considered as a problem because it discourages consumer spending. As consumers tend to delay purchases, they can purchase the products at a lower price. Deflation, therefore, can lead to a decrease in consumer expenditure. However, an evaluation of the direction of causality is needed. It could be a falling AD that brings about deflation.
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 before.	Deflation can increase the real value of debt, increasing real interest rates. This increases the proportion of their income going to lenders while firms find it difficult to raise capital. The effect is to decrease investment and growth.
Inflation when it is high tends to also be volatile – this is problematic because it creates uncertainty and makes financial planning and business decision-making difficult. Firms are reluctant to invest as they will be unsure about their revenue streams. Consumers tend to cut 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.	If the interest rate is close to zero, as in the case of Japan, then the effect of a low rate is positive. Ultimately, the bank's monetary policy is aimed at keeping the economy in a deflationary state.

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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 inaccurate thought behind the causes and effects.
Level 2	3–4	Some knowledge of economic concepts is shown, partially linked to the question, but reasoning skills, 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 with relevant examples. 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 mention issues closely related to the question, but with insufficient reasoning.
Level 2	3–4	Accurate, balanced and relevant comments are made, supporting a rounded conclusion directed to the question.



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Topic Test 2.1c Measure of Economic Performance: Employment

1. **A** – Unemployment refers to the situation in which people are *willing* and *able* to find employment, but are unable to find work. **B** is incorrect because not being part of the labour force (e.g. you are unemployed – some people don't participate in the labour force because of retirement, or people on paternity or maternity leave). **C** is incorrect even though some people who are redundant can constitute part of unemployment. Importantly, the focus is on people who are *able* to find work. If people 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 find work aren't unemployed unless they are not willing to find work.

[1 mark for correct response]

2. Employment, in its narrowest sense, 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]

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

[2 marks for a clear explanation of the claimant count measure of unemployment; 1 mark for an explanation 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 includes a number of people that aren't eligible to claim unemployment-related benefits (e.g. those under the age of 18, anybody seeking part-time or voluntary work, those who are looking to return to work, women looking to return to work, those with too-high a level of savings to apply for JSA, etc.);
- The claimant count might include those that are fraudulently claiming unemployment (e.g. 'black market' or undeclared employment);
- Sometimes it is possible to have part-time work and also claim unemployment (e.g. 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]

4. (i) The ILO measure of unemployment is an alternative to the claimant count measure. It is based on data from the *Labour Force Survey* in order to determine the unemployment rate. It 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 less clear but conveys the general meaning]

- (ii) The ILO's definition of unemployment are those people 'without a job, wanting to find one, 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]

5.
$$\text{Unemployment Rate} = \frac{\text{Unemployed}}{\text{Labour Force}} \times 100 = \frac{\text{Unemployed}}{\text{Full-time} + \text{Part-time} + \text{Unemployed}} \times 100$$

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

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6. Difficulties (ILO):

- ILO measure of unemployment is based on the evidence from the *Labour Force Survey*. There are many statistical issues that can arise from choosing an incorrect sample.
- ILO 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]

7. B – 'Frictional' unemployment is unemployment that occurs when people have spent searching for employment, or the time taken to leave one job and starting a new one. A is referring to the concept of 'structural' unemployment, and C is referring to 'seasonal' unemployment.

[1 mark for correct response]

8. 'Structural' unemployment is unemployment that exists because of the changing nature of the economy. It occurs because of changes in industrial organisation (e.g. the decline of manufacturing 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]

9. C – Paul's situation is a classic example of 'seasonal' unemployment. Since the demand for Santa Claus impersonators is only high during the Christmas period, there is no need for Santa Claus impersonators in any other period of the year. This is a tempting choice because seasons could be thought of as cyclical, but cyclical unemployment is linked to the business cycle and deficiencies in demand. There is nothing to suggest that Paul's unemployment is voluntary (D).

[1 mark for correct response]

10. In this question students should be asked 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 form of unemployment. The presence of structural unemployment suggests there is a serious mismatch between skills that are supplied and those demanded in the labour market – this is something that is likely to be incredibly difficult to solve. 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, therefore, is likely to be less of a concern for Economists.

[Maximum of 6 marks. 5–6 marks for accurately evaluating each cause of unemployment; 3–4 marks for adequate analysis, might be used; 1–3 marks for unsupported or irrelevant evaluation]

11. 'Underemployment' refers to a situation in which a worker is employed but is below their full potential. Underemployment is characterised by situations in which highly skilled workers are employed in low-skilled jobs, or workers are involuntarily employed in part-time work when their preference is for full-time work (this is the ONS's definition of underemployment).

[2 marks for a clear explanation of what is meant by underemployment; 1 mark for an explanation of the general meaning]

12. Immigration can be a useful tool in the macroeconomy because inward migration can help to fill gaps in the labour market. In the UK, for instance, cuts to bursaries for trainee nurses have led to a future deficit of nurses in the UK. However, inward migration, from, say, the EU, can be plugged by hiring pre-trained European nurses. Immigration can boost employment.

[2 marks for a clear explanation of how immigration can be used to correct an economic problem; 1 mark for an explanation that is less clear but which conveys the general concept]

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Topic Test 2.1d Measure of Economic Performance: Balance of Payments

1. **A** – International aid is the only item that would appear on the current account from the rest of the world. The current account includes a country's balance of trade, net factor income, and net transfer payments. Therefore, international aid constitutes an entry in the *net cash transfer* part of the current account section.

[1 mark for correct response]

2. **C** – FDI into the UK would be considered a positive entry on the UK's financial account. The financial account includes FDI, portfolio investment, other investments, and FOREX reserves. The current account does not include FDI.

[1 mark for correct response]

3. Current Account = Net Trade + Net Factor Income + Net Transfer Payments
Current Account = (-4,845) + (-1,035) + (-6,208) = £-12,088 million

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

4. **B** – The BoP is said to be in imbalance when one or more of its components does not sum to zero. Imbalances on the BoP occur when there is a deficit or surplus on one or more of its components. However, the BoP *must* sum to zero by the nature of accounting.

[1 mark for correct response]

5. Fundamentally, the structure of the UK's economy has changed much since 1983. The restructuring of the UK economy from manufacturing and primary resource exports to services exports has led to a persistent deficit in the UK's trade in goods balance. The UK doesn't export as many goods (mainly insurance and financial) in order to counteract the deficit in the trade in goods. The UK imports so many goods from the rest of the world because many economies are more competitive for their manufacture – e.g. the Asian economies.

However, another contributor to the imbalance is that the UK's economy has been growing during the 2008 financial crisis. The UK, on average, has more disposable income than the rest of the world. This has led to a highly increased consumption and so this increase in income has been associated with a current account deficit. The UK produces a lot of goods for the rest of the world. Hence, this could also be a reason for the UK's current account deficit in recent times.

[Maximum 4 marks. 3–4 marks for accurately assessing the causes of the UK's imbalance. 1–2 marks for a limited attempt at assessing the causes and may be only loosely related to the UK's current account deficit. Sufficient reasoning and evidence]

6. It is important to have a 'sustainable' BoP position because while the BoP sums to zero, a current account deficit means that the UK is spending more on foreign goods than foreigners spend on domestic goods. This implies that there must be a surplus on the financial and capital accounts. If the UK's economy spends more on foreign produce than foreigners spend on domestically produced goods, it means that foreigners are investing more capital into the domestic economy than the UK is investing into the rest of the world (a surplus on the financial account because of the BoP accounting principle). Foreign investments into the domestic economy because we're supplying more of the domestic goods than we are taking in from our exports. However, this implies that the UK is accumulating liabilities to the rest of the world, and these liabilities will eventually need to be repaid. Therefore, the UK cannot run a current account deficit if the country will eventually reach a position where it is unable to service its debt.

Note that eventually, if a country runs a current account deficit for a prolonged period, domestic consumers may feel that there is a risk of default and so funds can 'dry up'. If a country is unable to finance its current account deficit, it must attempt to reduce its current account deficit. It can do this by depreciating the exchange rate, but this can have an impact on the domestic economy (e.g. by reducing their options for consumption).

It is also worth considering that a consistent current account deficit might imply that the UK is uncompetitive on international markets. Therefore, a deficit can be an indicator of a weak economy, and so it is a key macroeconomic indicator to assess an economy's health.

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Importantly, the current account deficit can be thought of positively too. Primarily, the economy because of the surplus in the financial account can be thought of as benefiting from the long-run potential of the economy – this could even enable the economy to grow faster.

However, current account deficits are only problems if they are *sustained* and *large*. A current account deficit is not so much of a problem because it grows at a similar rate to the economy has sufficient funds to repay its liabilities. If, however, the deficit was a large proportion of GDP there might be serious issues. Moreover, if the deficit turned into a surplus, and vice versa, it will be less concerning.

Finally, it's worth considering the impact of a persistent current account surplus. A current account surplus means that the economy is diverting goods that could be used for consumption – this could affect people's standard of living and the public could benefit from the current account surplus. However, current account surpluses can cause political friction between countries – e.g. China could cause retaliatory protectionist measures.

[Maximum 6 marks. 5–6 marks for providing a clear assessment on the consequences of a current account deficit. 3–4 marks for providing a limited attempt at evaluation. 1–2 marks for identifying a few consequences that are inconsistent or inaccurate.]

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Topic Test 2.2a Aggregate Demand (Part 1)

1. (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 but the answer is generally correct]

- (ii) Now, the aggregate demand (AD) curve shows the relationship between the total demand in all of its markets and the price level. From the AD curve we are able to calculate the aggregate demand at a given price level. Importantly, just as there is an *inverse* relationship between the price level and aggregate demand in the market (microeconomics), there is an inverse relationship between the price level and aggregate demand in the economy. From microeconomics we know that when price decreases, quantity demanded increases, which tends to stimulate consumption. In macroeconomics, the price level is a measure of the cost of living, so when the price level falls, the real value of assets in *real* terms tend to be higher, and so there is a wealth effect which tends to stimulate consumption. 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 domestic market spend more 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; 1–2 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, which has been deducted and transfer payments added. If disposable incomes rise, we would expect consumption to rise – this is because most goods tend to be 'normal'. However, an important determinant of consumption is people's marginal propensity to consume (MPC). If the MPC is low, consumers will spend very much less of their additional income. Conversely, if the MPC is high, consumers would spend the majority of their additional income on consumption rather than saving. The relationship between consumption and income is a key concept in Keynesian economics. Economist Milton Friedman suggests that people's consumption is not determined by their current income but instead consumers make expenditure decisions based on their *permanent* income, which is the income they expect to receive in normal circumstances. Moreover, it's also important to note that consumers *smooth* their consumption over a lifetime and so consumption tends to vary less than income, 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) Firms operating in the post-2008 period are likely to have received lower profits due to a decline in general economic activity. With less retained earnings it is natural that there would be less investment because firms have less financial resources to invest. Firms might also have a lower expected future income streams in the post-2008 economy and so would delay their investment decisions, making the future uncertain and the risk of investing lower.

[1 mark for identifying a potential factor]

- (v) Noting that the trade balance constitutes part of AS ($X - M$) reversing this balance from a deficit to a surplus ($X - M$) would have a positive effect on AD, therefore shifting the AD curve outwards.

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

- (vi) US government's response to the financial crisis was to reduce government spending, which would have the 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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2. (i) $26\% \text{ of } 65.2\% = \left(\frac{26}{100} \times 65.2\%\right) = 16.952\% = 17\%$

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

(ii) $65.2\% + 16.9\% + 19.4\% + x\% = 100\%$
 $x\% = -1.5\%$

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

(iii) **Consumption:** an increase in the consumption component of the UK's AD would increase aggregate demand because consumption is the largest component.

[1 mark for correct response]

3. (i) **Net Investment** = Gross Investment - Depreciation = £1,550,000 - £780,000 = £770,000

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

(ii) Net investment is a better measurement of a change in an economy's stock of capital because it takes into account the effect of depreciation, or the consumption of capital. Capital has an infinite lifetime – otherwise buildings and machines would last forever – and is consumed in the production process. Therefore, some portion of firms' investment has become obsolete (e.g. because of technological change) or worn down through use. It is only the excess of investment above what is needed to cover depreciated capital that increases the stock of productive assets, and this is why net investment is the better measure.

[2 marks for a clear explanation of the reason that net investment is a better measure of an economy's stock of productive assets than gross investment; 1 mark for an explanation which conveys the general meaning]

4. Factors:

- **Income:** Income is an important influence on the level of consumption because it determines our ability to consume. It is almost impossible for consumption to increase without financial resources. Note that it is a person's 'disposable income' that determines the economy's consumption. Income also has an indirect influence on consumption.
- **Interest Rates (Savings):** Interest rates influence consumption by affecting incentives to save. When interest rates increase, consumers have an incentive to save their income rather than consume it. They substitute consumption for saving. Moreover, this effect is exaggerated because interest makes borrowing more expensive, and so consumption through borrowing is reduced. That a higher rate of interest will also tend to reduce the discretionary income available for consumption because it increases the value of interest repayments, thus reducing disposable income.
- **Consumer Confidence:** If consumers are confident about the trajectory of the economy, they will increase their consumption – e.g. if consumers expect that their current income will continue indefinitely, there is likely to be an increase in consumption because such confidence encourages spending. If, however, consumers are worried about losing their employment, they will reduce their consumption.
- **Wealth Effect:** Consumers' wealth has an effect on consumption – that is, the more wealth consumers have, the more they consume. If consumers become richer, or perceive themselves to be richer, there is an increase in consumption because they can afford more expensive items, or because they feel secure enough to spend on a larger number of items.

[2 marks each for a clear explanation of a factor that influences consumer expenditure; 1 mark for an explanation that is less clear but which conveys the general meaning]

5. For:

- **Credit Crunch:** Typically, when interest rates are reduced there is an increase in investment because the cost of financing investment has decreased. Moreover, when the interest rate is low, the return on investment is high – this is because purchasing a government bond, for example, yields a return of 0.5% interest per annum, whereas the potential return of some other investment is much higher. Therefore, from this perspective, the dearth of business investment could be blamed on firms not being able to access credit from commercial banks. It is not surprising that firms would be uneasy about lending during a financial crisis because the stability of the economy is ambiguous. Businesses that would usually invest at interest rates of 0.5% would now have to finance investment through retained profit.

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Against:

- **Business Confidence:** However, although the inaccessibility of credit is an important factor in explaining why investment fell during the 2008 financial crisis, it is debatable whether it was the most important factor. Therefore, a lack of business confidence – or uncertainty – can also explain the fall in investment. It is thought that a business is unlikely to make investments when there is a lack of business confidence and, therefore, this could explain the fall in investment during the financial crisis.
- **Negative Accelerator:** The *accelerator theory* of investment suggests that the economy will primarily depend on changes in real national income (GDP) to determine the level of firms' products. If GDP is falling, firms will expect to make less profit as demand for their products falls and thus will decrease their capital investment. This can have a 'multiplier' effect if it further reduces GDP, further reducing investment.
- **Loss of Exports:** The 2008 financial crisis was an *international* crisis, meaning that it affected many countries. To make up for a reduction in domestic demand with external demand, firms will export more. For a loss of revenue by exporting, they will reduce their investment through the accelerator effect.

[Maximum 8 marks. 6–8 marks for a strong, well-supported evaluation of whether the lack of business confidence was the most important factor in the reduction of investment during the 2008 financial crisis. And 4–5 marks for a limited evaluation, though it may be a strong argument. Reasoning / supporting evidence is provided but may be incomplete. 1–3 marks for a weak argument, however, answer is largely inconsistent or inaccurate.]

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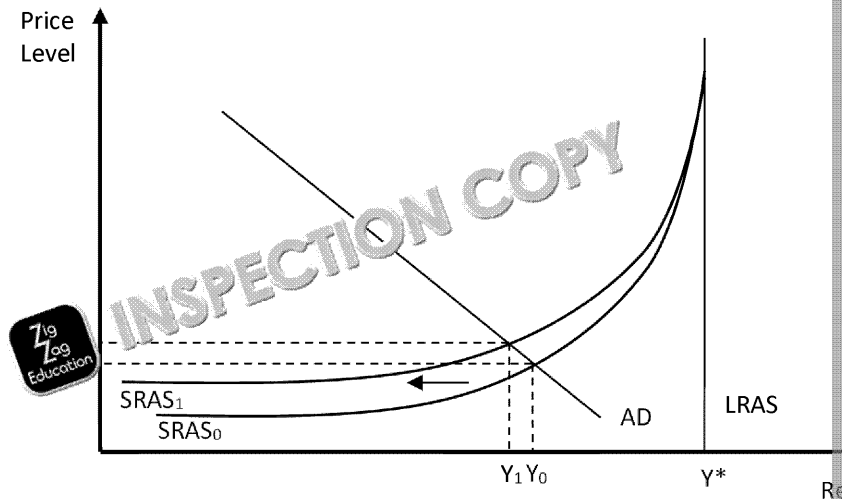


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Topic Test 2.2b Aggregate Demand (Part 2)

1. (i)



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 processes as there are fixed factors of production. Naturally then, the economy's macroeconomic equilibrium shifts in response to such a supply-side shock.

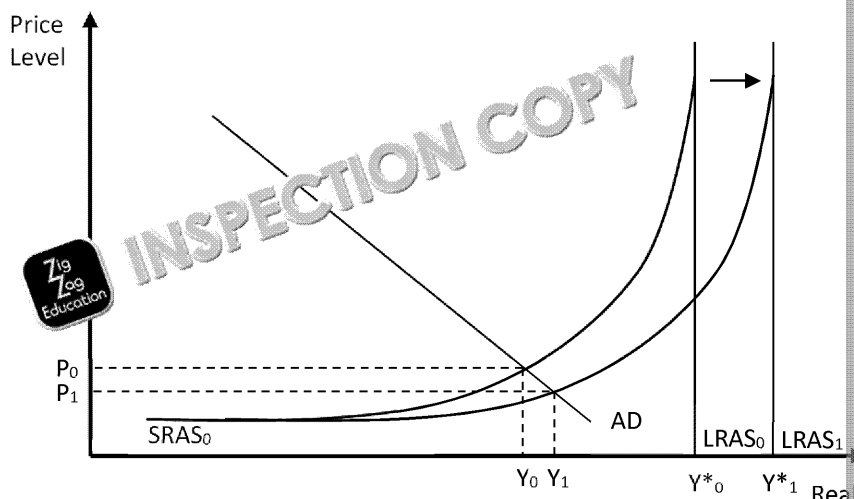
Equilibrium starts at the intersection of AD and $SRAS_0$ where real output is Y_0 and the price level is P_0 . Then, SRAS shifts *inward* as firms respond to the increase in their costs of production. At the new short-run equilibrium, the amount of output they are willing to supply at the prevailing price level is Y_1 . At this output level, the aggregate price level is bid-up as consumers compete to purchase output. The new short-run equilibrium will be 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. If the cost increases of crude oil are maintained, the economy enters into an inflationary period. The increase in the price level is a supply-side shock because firms are producing less output with the same labour input. Finally, real GDP decreases because of the decrease in output. There is negative economic growth – note that this doesn't constitute a recession as the economy's growth rate, but a short-run increase in the economy's level of supply-side costs.

Evaluation:

- Effect depends upon the *magnitude* of the price increase of crude oil – a £1 increase will have a substantially different effect to a £100 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 short run, the effect will be significant. If firms are operating using strictly renewable resources, which would alter the effect of the shock.
- Effect depends on whether the price increase is temporary or permanent. If the price increase is temporary, firms may absorb the increased cost of oil.

(ii)



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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. The LRAS curve shifts to reflect this change. Naturally the UK's macroeconomic equilibrium moves to a higher level of output and an increase in productive potential.

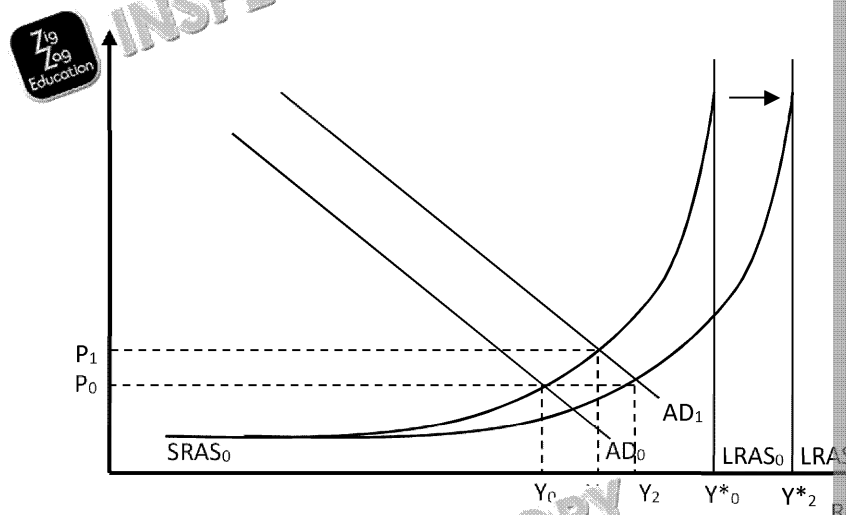
Equilibrium starts at the intersection of AD and SRAS where real output is Y_0 and price level is P_0 . Then, LRAS shifts *outward* as the productive capacity of the economy increases due to the increase of factor inputs. The SRAS curve also shifts *outward* because the new-found deposits of rare earth elements implies that firms' short-run costs fall – anything that is in abundance tends to reduce costs that are scarce. At P_0 , SRAS will outstrip AD and so the aggregate price level falls. This causes consumers to increase their demand and the glut of supply and restore macroeconomic equilibrium. A new equilibrium is 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 cost-push because it arises from improvements in the supply-side of the economy and not demand-side. The price level falls because firms are expanding their output in response to their decreased costs and they hire more workers in order to achieve this expansion. Finally, real GDP increases and economic activity and hence economic growth is achieved – note that there is no recession in this scenario.

Evaluation:

- Effect will depend on the *magnitude* of the rare earth deposit that is found. If the deposit is small, then the increase in productive potential and, hence, the effect on the price level is likely to be minimal.
- While this scenario has good implications for the key macroeconomic variables, there are other things such as inequality and the environment that might be worsened. If the rare earth elements are concentrated to wealthy owners of industry, or if the mining process damages the environment.
- Since the UK is structured more so as a service economy the effect of this shock might be less significant. However, if the UK has demand-side implications, such as a larger number of firms exporting these factors of production to manufacturing economies, and so the LRAS will be less significant.

(iii)



Analysis:

If the UK government invested in improving the NHS, the immediate effect would be an increase in government expenditure, which shifts the AD curve to the right. Recall that AD is given by $AD = C + I + G$, where G is government expenditure. The effect of this is to shift AD and the AD curve will shift to the right, causing the macroeconomic equilibrium to change in response to this demand-side shock.

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

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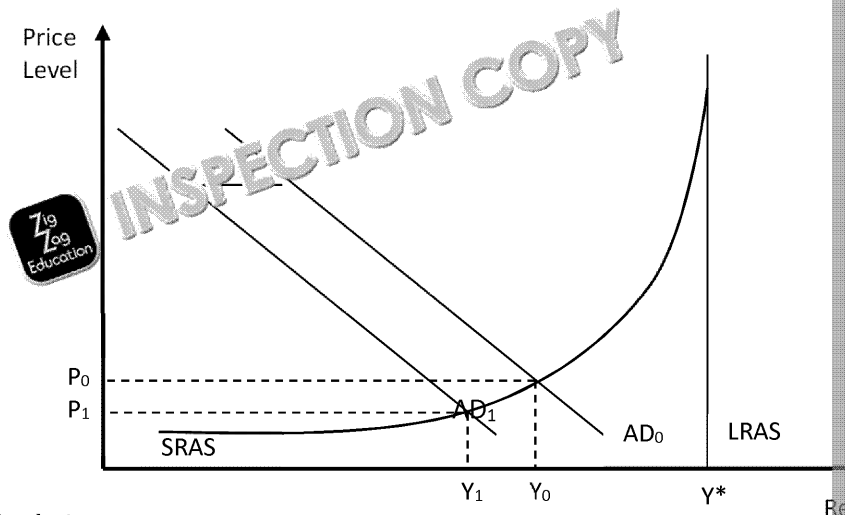


The macroeconomic effect of this shock is a one-off increase in the price level and an inflationary episode if AD continues to increase over time. Unemployment falls as government's investments in the NHS will require additional labour in various sectors. Finally, real GDP increases because government expenditure constitutes an increase in income – thus, economic growth of the short-run kind is achieved when government expenditure increases (note that this is the basis for the Keynesian policy of deficit spending in a recession).

Evaluation:

- Primarily, the most interesting aspect is the effect on the government's budget. If it has the potential to improve the long-run capacity of the economy. If the general health of the economy is poor, it can be considered that human capital will be more of a resource. LRAS would, thus, shift to the right. The effectiveness of the NHS improvements. Note, however, the relationship between the investment in the NHS and improvements in health care on the macroeconomy.
- Effect will also depend on the starting position of AS – if the economy is in part of SRAS) then the increase in AD will tend to increase output with 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 large, the investment will have far reaching and positive 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. Is it financed through debt? If financed through taxation, the increase in expenditure will be offset by the tax. If financed through debt there will be a net increase in aggregate demand and term economic growth.

(iv)



Analysis:

If there was a decrease in firms' confidence in the post-Brexit economy, they might 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 the aggregate demand curve shifts inward. The output will be lower for any given price level. Naturally, the UK's macroeconomic response to this demand-side shock.

Equilibrium starts at the intersection of AD0 and SRAS where real output is Y0. Then, AD shifts *inward* as firms begin to retract investment in the post-Brexit economy. This causes AS to shift *inward* and so firms that produce capital goods reduce output. Eventually, the excess of AD over AS is reduced as the general price level falls. The new equilibrium is reached at price level P1 and output Y1.

The macroeconomic effect of this shock is a one-off decrease in the price level and a deflationary episode if AD continues to shrink over time. Unemployment rises as a decrease in investment implies there is less need for labour inputs. Real GDP falls as investment, and hence more saving, constitutes a withdrawal from the circular flow of income, leading to negative economic growth when investment falls.

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- [Maximum 24 marks. 5–6 marks will be awarded for a strong analysis of these shocks on performance – and a further 11 marks for the impact of the shocks using economic theory. Students should evaluate the extent to which the shocks will effect macroeconomic

A shift in aggregate demand is referred to as an increase in aggregate demand. A shift in aggregate demand increases the quantity of output demanded for any given price level. It captures changes in the demand for the components of AD ($C + I + G + X - M$). It 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 a clear distinction between movements along the AD curve and shifts of the AD curve less clear but which conveys the general meaning]

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