PEARSON EDEXCEL A-LEVEL ECONOMICS A · 9EC0

ECONOMICS



EXAM QUESTION PACK

2.1 MEASURES OF ECONOMIC PERFORMANCE

SCORE	PERCENTAGE
/1253	%

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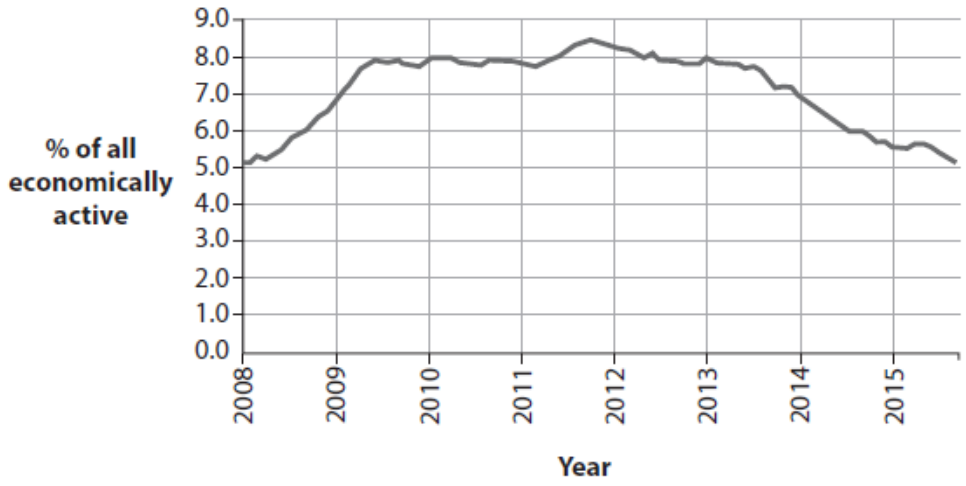
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Questions

Q1.

The chart below shows the UK unemployment rate, seasonally adjusted, from 2008 to 2015



(Source: http://www.ons.gov.uk/ons/rel/lms/labour-market-statistics/december-2015/statistical-bulletin.html#tab-8--Unemployment)

(a) Which **one** of the following types of unemployment best explains the change in the data between 2008 and 2010?

(1)

☒ **A** Cyclical

☒ **B** Frictional

☒ **C** Seasonal

☒ **D** Voluntary

(b) Explain the likely effects on the circular flow of income of the change in unemployment between 2013 and 2015.

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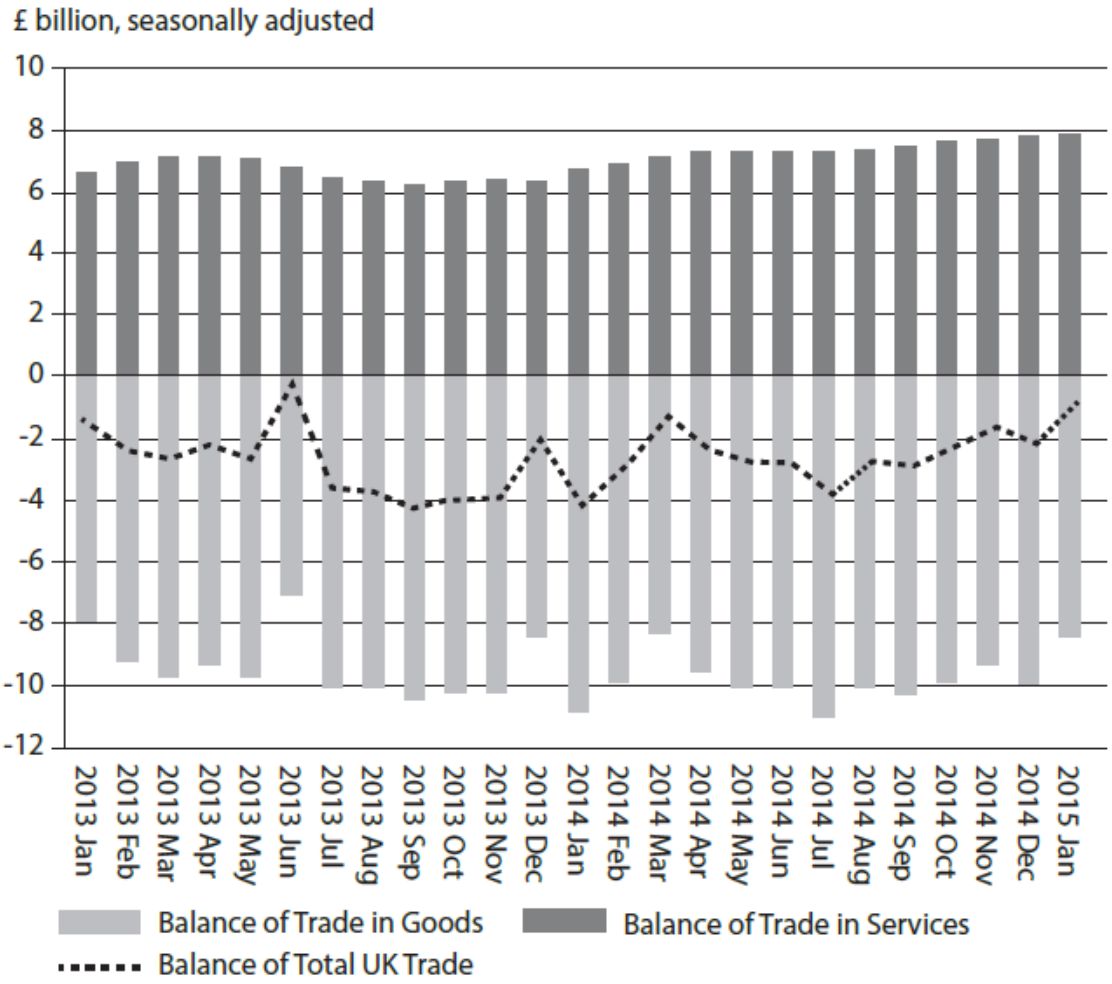
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(Total for question = 5 marks)

Q2.

Figure 1 shows data on the UK's balance of trade.

Figure 1 – UK's balance of trade January 2013 to January 2015



(Source: http://www.ons.gov.uk/ons/rel/uktrade/uk-trade/january-2015/summ-uk-trade--january-2015.html)

(a) Which **one** of the following can be inferred from Figure 1 in the period shown?

(1)

☒ **A** The total UK trade deficit was the largest in June 2013

☒ **B** The trade in goods was always in surplus between January 2013 and January 2015

☒ **C** The total UK trade deficit was the smallest in January 2014

☒ **D** The trade in goods deficit was the smallest in June 2013

(b) Explain **one** likely reason for the reduction in the total UK trade deficit in January 2015.

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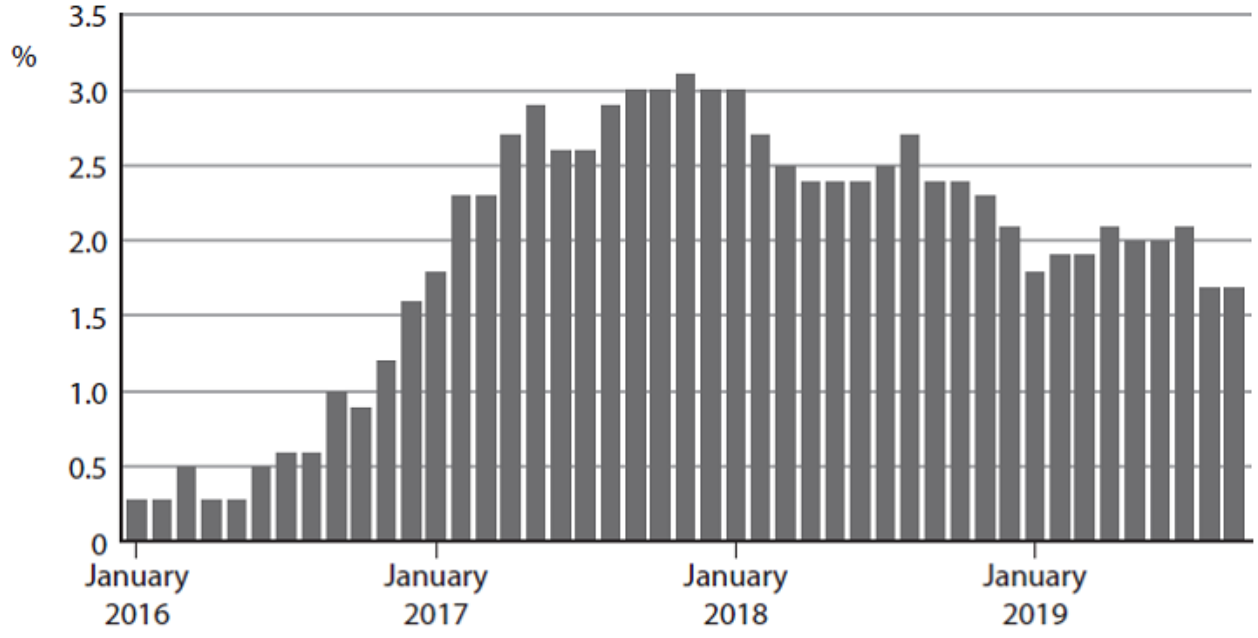
(Total for question = 4 marks)

Q3.

Some questions must be answered with a cross in a box (☒). If you change your mind about an answer, put a line through the box (☒) and then mark your new answer with a cross (☒).

Use the data to support your answers where relevant. You may annotate and include diagrams in your answers.

Annual rate of UK inflation, as measured by the Consumer Prices Index (CPI), January 2016 to September 2019.



(Source adapted from: https://tradingeconomics.com/united-kingdom/inflation-cpi)

(a) Which **one** of the following can be deduced from the chart?

(1)

☒ **A** The average price level was lower in January 2018 than in January 2019

☒ **B** The average price level was unchanged between January 2017 and January 2019

☒ **C** There was deflation from January 2018 to January 2019

☒ **D** There was disinflation from January 2016 to January 2017

(b) Explain **one** limitation of CPI in measuring the rate of inflation.

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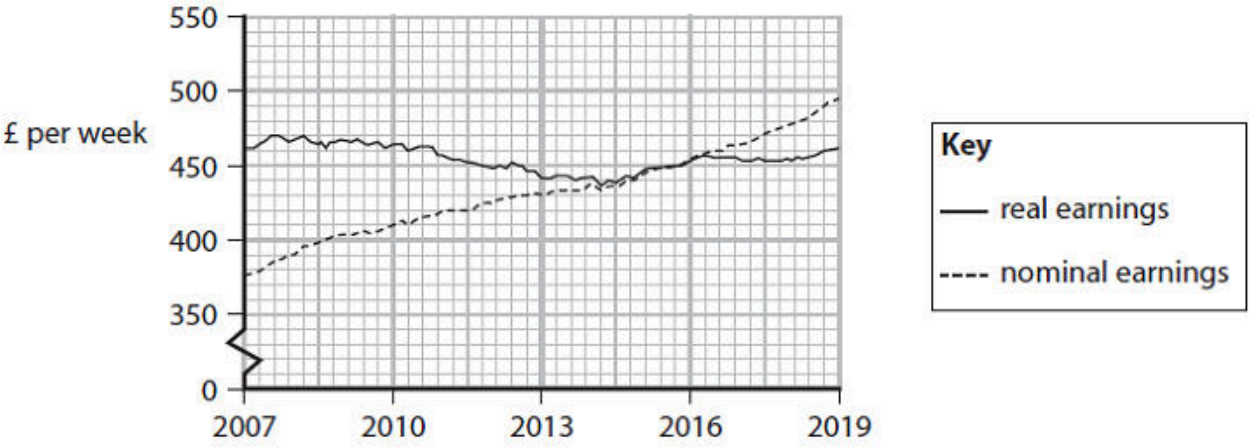
(Total for question = 4 marks)

Q4.

Some questions must be answered with a cross in a box (☒). If you change your mind about an answer, put a line through the box (☒) and then mark your new answer with a cross (☒).

Use the data to support your answers where relevant. You may annotate and include diagrams in your answers.

UK average weekly earnings, January 2007 to January 2019



(Source adapted from: https://www.ons.gov.uk/employmentandlabourmarket/peopleinwork/employmentandemployeetypes/bulletins/averageweeklyearningsingreatbritain/march2019)

(a) Which **one** of the following can be inferred from the above chart? Between 2007 and 2019,

(1)

☒ **A** earnings adjusted for interest rates were lower than earnings not adjusted for interest rates

☒ **B** nominal earnings increased by nearly 125 percentage points

☒ **C** the increase in earnings not adjusted for inflation was greater than earnings adjusted for inflation

☒ **D** there were significant increases in real earnings each year

(b) With reference to the chart, explain the likely relationship between real incomes and subjective happiness.

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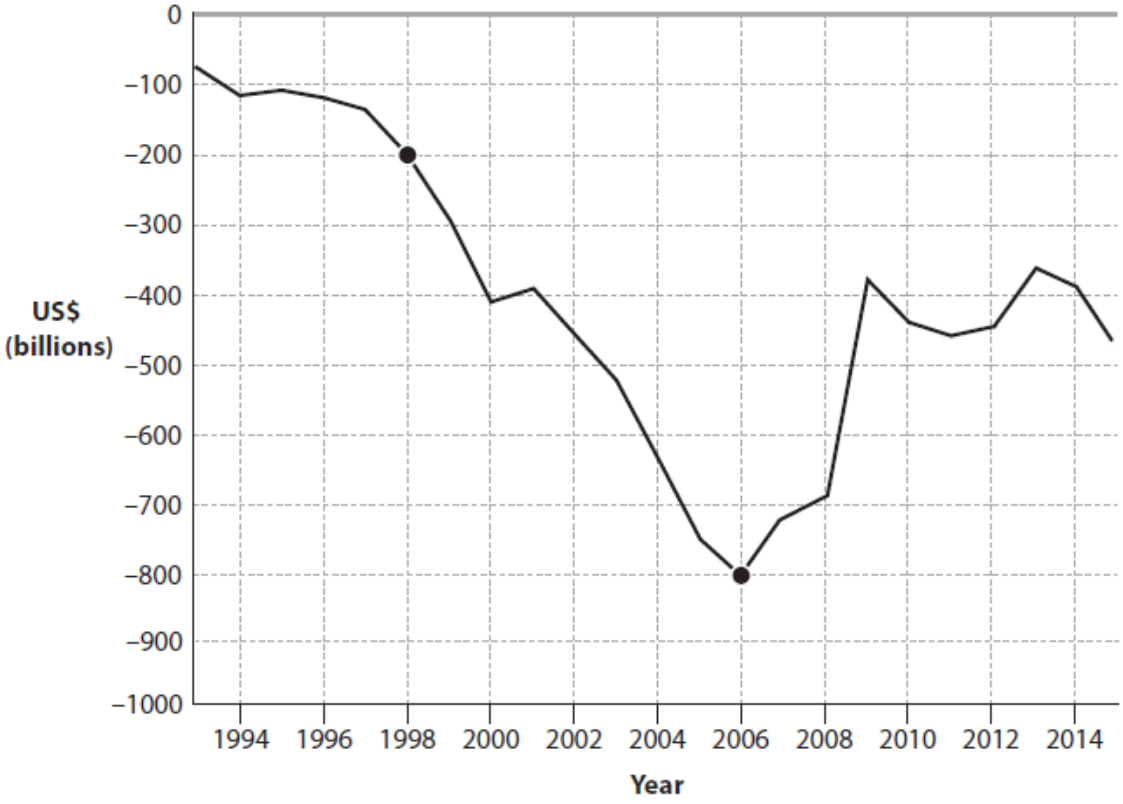
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(Total for question = 4 marks)

Q5.

United States current account of the balance of payments, 1993–2015



(Source: http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/BN.CAB.XOKA.CD?end=2015&locations=US&start=1993)

(a) Calculate the percentage change in the United States current account deficit on the balance of payments between 1998 and 2006.

(2)

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(b) Explain the term 'current account of the balance of payments'.

(2)

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(c) Using the chart above, which **one** of the following may be inferred about the United States balance of payments?

(1)

☒ **A** The current account deficit decreased between 2001 and 2006

☒ **B** The current account surplus increased between 2001 and 2006

☒ **C** There was a current account deficit for the entire period shown

☒ **D** There was a current account surplus for the entire period shown

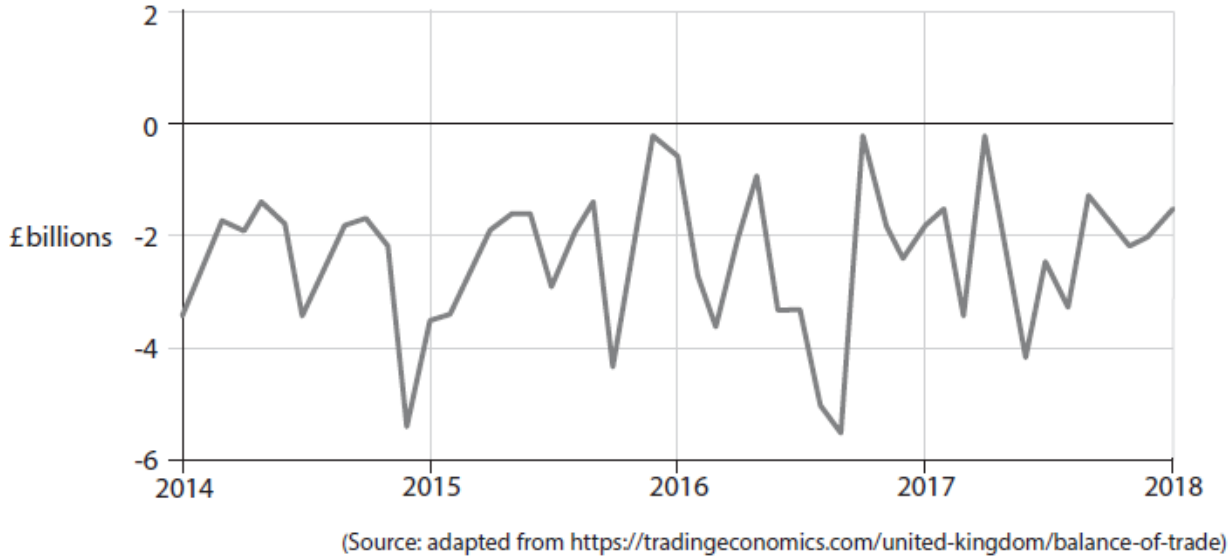
(Total for question = 5 marks)

Q6.

Use the data to support your answers where relevant. You may annotate and include diagrams in your answers.

Answer the question with a cross in the box you think is correct ☒. If you change your mind about an answer, put a line through the box ☒ and then mark your new answer with a cross ☒.

The UK's net monthly balance of trade in goods and services, by value, January 2014 to January 2018, is shown in the chart below.



(Source: adapted from https://tradingeconomics.com/united-kingdom/balance-of-trade)

(a) Which **one** of the following can be inferred from the above chart over the period shown?

(1)

☒ **A** The government was spending more than it received in taxation

☒ **B** The UK's balance of trade, by value, was always in equilibrium

☒ **C** The value of imports was greater than the value of exports

☒ **D** The value of inflows was greater than the value of outflows

(b) Explain **one** likely reason for the UK's balance of trade in goods and services over the period shown.

Refer to the chart above in your answer.

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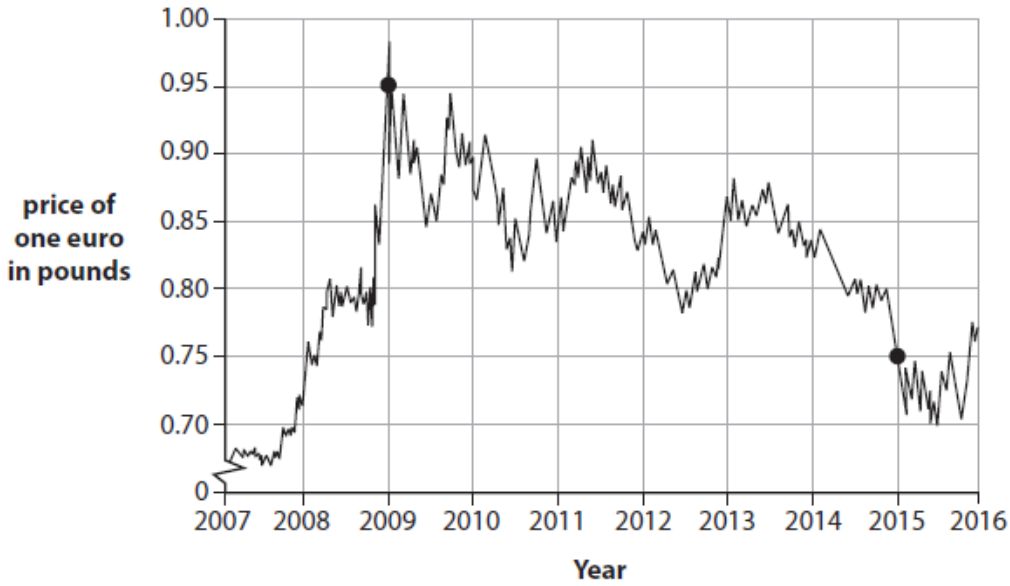
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(Total for question = 4 marks)

Q7.

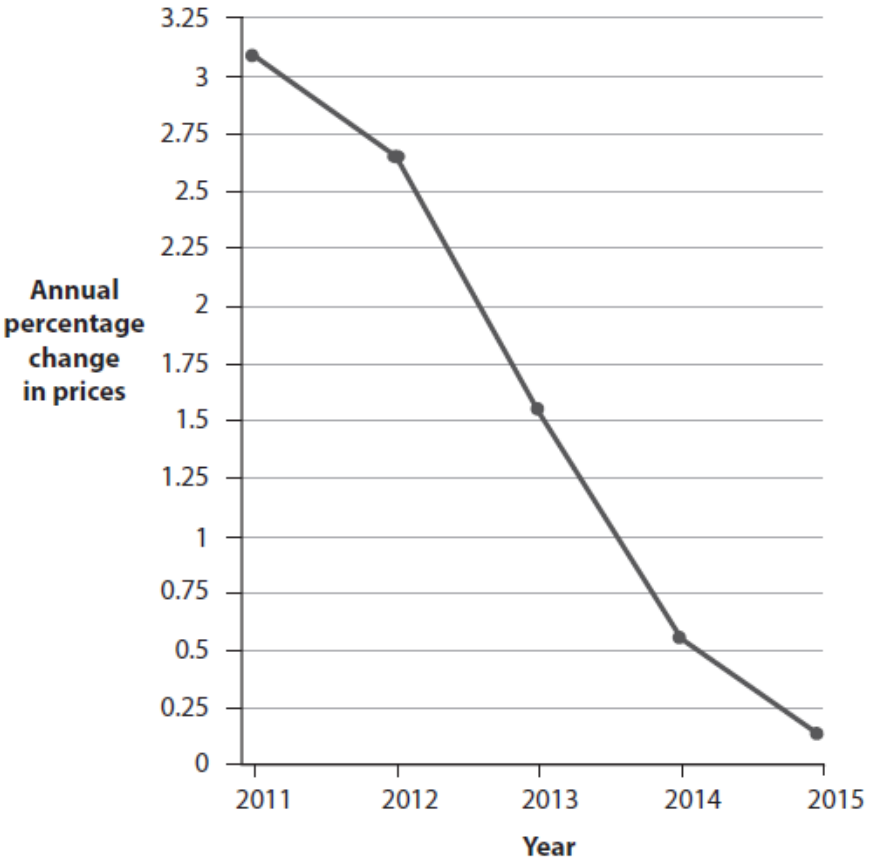
The Eurozone economy

Figure 1: Exchange rate of the euro (€) to the British pound (£)



(Source: https://www.ecb.europa.eu/stats/exchange/eurofxref/html/eurofxref-graph-gbp.en.html#)

Figure 2: Eurozone inflation rate as measured by the Consumer Prices Index (CPI)



(Source: adapted from http://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft/weo/2015/02/weodata/download.aspx)

Extract A

European Central Bank disappoints markets with weaker than expected stimulus

Mario Draghi, president of the European Central Bank (ECB), surprised financial markets in November 2015 with a less ambitious package of monetary stimulus than many had anticipated.

The ECB cut its base interest rate by 0.1% to minus 0.3% in order to encourage private banks to lend funds to companies and households rather than deposit them at the central bank. The central bank agreed to extend its €60 billion (£45 billion) monthly bond-buying quantitative easing (QE) programme for a further six months. The ECB's €1.1 trillion QE scheme had originally been due to end in September 2016.

"We are doing more because it works," Mr Draghi said. Yet the ECB did not increase the size of its monthly asset purchases and also disappointed those expecting that it would cut interest rates more aggressively.

The euro rose almost 3% against the dollar to $1.08 after the announcement. Italian and Spanish bond yields both jumped by 0.27% to 1.62% and 1.72% respectively.

The ECB's economists reduced their inflation forecasts for the next two years. They now predict consumer prices in the Eurozone rising by just 1% in 2016 and 1.6% in 2017 – still below the central bank's ceiling of 2%. In November 2015, the inflation rate was just 0.1% and core inflation, excluding volatile items such as fuel and food, dropped to 0.9%.

Mr Draghi stressed again that monetary policy alone could not restore the Eurozone to economic health. He called for looser fiscal policy among member states to support aggregate demand and more rapid implementation of supply-side reforms. "In order to reap the full benefits from our monetary policy measures, other policy areas must contribute decisively," he said.

(Source: http://www.independent.co.uk/news/business/news/ecb-disappoints-traders-with-weaker-than-expected-stimulus-a6759786.html, 4th December 2015)

(a) With reference to Figure 1, calculate the percentage change in the value of the euro in pounds from the start of 2009 to the start of 2015.

(5)

(b) With reference to the information provided and your own knowledge, examine **two** factors which might explain the change in the rate of Eurozone inflation as shown in Figure 2.

(8)

(c) Since mid-2015 the euro has appreciated. Assess the likely impact of an appreciation of the euro on the current account of the balance of payments for Eurozone countries.

(10)

(d) Discuss the likely success of the ECB's quantitative easing programme in moving Eurozone inflation closer to 'the central bank's ceiling of 2%' (Extract A, line 17).

(12)

(e) Discuss 'looser fiscal policy' and 'supply-side reforms' (Extract A, lines 20 and 21) that may be used by governments of Eurozone countries to increase economic growth.

(15)

(Total for question = 50 marks)

Q8.

The East African Community (EAC)

	Burundi	Kenya	Rwanda	Tanzania	Uganda
GDP (US$ bn)	2.47	37.23	7.10	28.25	19.80
Population (mn)	16.14	62.78	18.21	58.43	48.89
GDP per capita (US$)	.....	.....	390	483.48	405
GDP per capita PPP (US$)	483	1 517	1 167	1 380	1 165
HDI	0.355	0.519	0.434	0.476	0.456
IHDI	no data	0.344	0.287	0.346	0.303

(Sources: www.tradingeconomics.com, United Nations)

Figure 1

Economic indicators for the five EAC member countries, 2012

(a) With reference to Figure 1, calculate the ratio of Burundi's GDP per capita to Kenya's GDP per capita in 2012.

(5)

Extract A

Burundi's economic growth

Burundi has maintained a stable macroeconomic environment and over recent years improved its performance in health, education and gender equality. However, in spite of this recent progress, Burundi's economic growth has been modest compared to neighbouring countries in the EAC.

Burundi is a small, land-locked country and is one of the most aid-dependent countries in the world. The country is vulnerable to external shocks, such as volatile food and energy prices, declining aid flows, and the adverse impact of climate change.

These factors are made worse by the high proportion of current expenditure in the government budget, and a high level of tax exemptions – counting for as much as 3% of GDP.

Coffee and tea make up almost 70% of Burundi's total export earnings. This lack of export diversity makes it difficult to widen the tax revenue base and finance public investments.

(Source: adapted from 'Burundi: more fiscal resilience will improve government effectiveness', All Africa, 19 December 2013, http://allafrica.com/stories/201312190925.html)

Extract B

Trade in East Africa

The EAC was established as a free trade area in 2000 by Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda, with Burundi and Rwanda joining in 2007. Its objectives are the promotion of free trade and the free movement of capital and labour among its members. In 2013, an agreement was signed outlining plans for launching a monetary union by 2024.

Between 2000 and 2011, lower tariffs within the EAC boosted regional trade, offering the five member countries a route to faster growth. During 2000–10, intra-regional exports increased from US$700 million to US$2 billion. Rwanda's exports have grown the most during this period, from US$1.6 million to US$156 million, but are still a fraction of those of Kenya, the region's largest economy. Kenya's exports to the other EAC members were about US$1.2 billion in 2010. In contrast, export growth in Burundi – the poorest member – has remained constant and imports have declined, mainly because of civil war and inferior infrastructure, such as airports, roads, and docks.

(Source: adapted from 'Trade in East Africa', Finance & Development, IMF, December 2011, Vol. 48, No. 4, http://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft/fandd/2011/12/data.htm)

(b) With reference to Extract A and Extract B, examine **two** factors that constrain economic growth in Burundi.

(8)

(c) With reference to Figure 1, discuss the use of GDP data as a means of comparing living standards among the five EAC member countries.

(12)

(d) Assess the benefits Kenya has gained from its membership of the EAC since 2000.

(10)

(e) Discuss the likely costs and benefits of monetary union to the five members of the EAC.

(15)

(Total for question = 50 marks)

Q9.

The table below shows UK annual real GDP values for 2011–2013.

	Annual real GDP (£ billion)
2011	1 502
2012	1 506
2013	1 534

(Source: ONS)

(a) Define the term 'economic growth'.

(1)

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(b) Calculate the annual UK economic growth rate for 2013. You are advised to show your working.

(2)

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(c) Which **one** of the following can be inferred from the table?

(1)

A Real GDP was falling between 2012 and 2013

B The annual UK economic growth rate for 2012 was negative

C Nominal GDP was falling between 2012 and 2013

D The annual UK economic growth rate for 2012 was positive

Answer

(Total for question = 4 marks)

Q10.

The table below shows claimant count data for the UK.

	Number of Claimants
August 2014	961 149
September 2014	923 240
October 2014	887 771
November 2014	848 085
December 2014	823 880
January 2015	852 934
February 2015	858 344

(Source: http://www.nomisweb.co.uk/query/construct/submit.asp?forward=yes&menuopt=201&subcomp=)

(a) Define the term 'claimant count'.

(1)

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(b) Calculate the percentage change in the claimant count from August 2014 to February 2015.

(2)

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(c) Which **one** of the following is likely to cause a reduction in the claimant count?

(1)

☒ **A** An increase in the weekly payment for claimants

☒ **B** A compulsory weekly interview for every claimant

☒ **C** An increase in the size of the workforce

☒ **D** A fall in employment

(Total for question = 4 marks)

Questions

Q1.

(a) Explain the difference between 'good' deflation (Extract B, line 16) and 'bad' deflation (Extract B, line 27).

(5)

(b) With reference to Figure 1 and Extract A, examine the likely reasons for the fall in oil prices since the middle of 2014.

(8)

(c) With reference to Extract A, discuss the factors necessary for the success of a cartel.

(12)

EITHER

(d) With reference to the information provided and your own knowledge, evaluate the microeconomic and macroeconomic effects of a sustained period of deflation.

(25)

OR

(e) With reference to the information provided and your own knowledge, evaluate the microeconomic and macroeconomic effects of a sustained fall in global oil prices.

(25)

(Total for question = 50 marks)

Q2.

(a) With reference to Figure 5 and Extract C, explain **one** likely reason for the fall in the exchange rate of the Turkish lira.

(5)

(b) Discuss the costs to the Argentine economy of an inflation rate "estimated by some economists to be over 25%". (Extract D, line 9)

(12)

(c) With reference to Extract E, examine the impact of restrictions on beef exports on how Argentine farmers decide to use their land.

(8)

EITHER

(d) With reference to the information provided and your own knowledge, evaluate the likely microeconomic and macroeconomic effects of the imposition of 'price controls' (Extract E, line 8) in Argentina.

(25)

OR

(e) With reference to the information provided and your own knowledge, evaluate the likely microeconomic and macroeconomic effects of the 23% devaluation of the Argentine peso.

(25)

(Total for question = 50 marks)

Q3.

Use the data to support your answers where relevant. You may annotate and include diagrams in your answers.

UK unemployment rate as a % of all those economically active, seasonally adjusted, from 2008 to 2018



(Source: adapted from https://www.ons.gov.uk/employmentandlabourmarket/peoplenotinwork/ unemployment/timeseries/mgsx Crown Copyright)

(a) With reference to the chart above, explain **one** likely economic effect of the change in the UK unemployment rate between 2012 and 2018.

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(b) Which **one** of the following policies is most likely to reduce the unemployment rate in the UK?

(1)

☒ **A** A decrease in direct taxes on company profits

☒ **B** A decrease in quantitative easing

☒ **C** An increase in government payments to the unemployed

☒ **D** An increase in the UK base interest rate

(Total for question = 4 marks)

Q4.

UK economic recovery

Figure 1: Components of aggregate demand in selected countries 2014

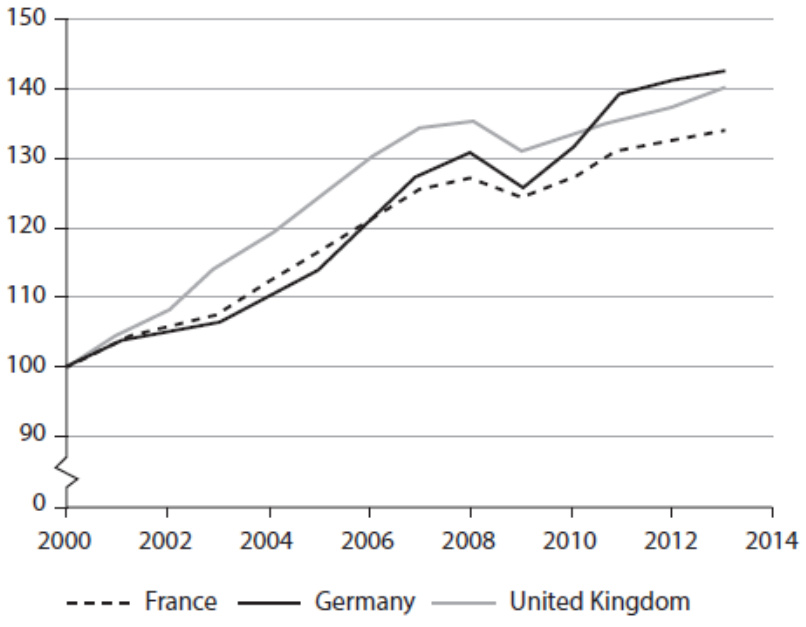
Country	Consumption	Investment	Government spending	Exports - Imports
UK	66%	14%	21%	–2%
Germany	57%	17%	19%	6%
France	57%	20%	25%	–2%
China	34%	49%	14%	3%

NB: Figures may not add up to 100% due to rounding calculations.

(Source: World Bank 2014)

Figure 2: Nominal GDP per capita at Purchasing Power Parities (PPPs)

(the base year 2000=100)



(Source: https://www.imf.org)

Extract A

The UK economy – a strange recovery

At the Autumn Statement in November 2015, the Chancellor of the Exchequer had good reason to cheer his economic record. The UK economy appeared to have returned towards its long-term trend in the rate of economic growth.

GDP growth has remained strong, with output rising at the highest rate in the G7 group of seven major industrialised countries. Unemployment continued to drop and business investment grew by 5%.

However, a number of concerns remain, particularly in relation to the UK's current account deficit, which reached a record high of 6% of GDP in the third quarter of 2014. This was primarily a result of a sharp decline in the rate of return on UK investments overseas. Low export growth meant that the UK's trade deficit persisted.

In 2012, the Chancellor had announced a target for the UK to export £1 trillion of goods and services by 2020, which would require an annual growth rate of 8%. However, the annual growth in UK exports had reached just 2.7%. The Office for Budget Responsibility (OBR) forecast that UK exports will only reach £630 billion by 2020 – a third lower than the government's target.

Exports in services continued to grow in 2015, but the UK's goods industries were struggling. It was particularly concerning that data showed output in the UK's construction and manufacturing industries falling. Indeed, the output of the manufacturing sector remained 6.3% below its pre-recession peak.

Households, meanwhile, are set to become even more indebted over the coming years. It is projected that the household gross debt to income ratio will rise by 26 percentage points between 2015 to 2020, returning to levels last seen before the Global Financial Crisis. The economy did not appear to be rebalancing away from consumer driven growth towards export-led growth, making another recession almost inevitable.

Fundamental to this problem is the UK's low productivity, which in 2015 remains around 20 percentage points below the average for the rest of the G7. It is vital that the government tackles this problem, particularly in the sectors that are currently facing difficulties. This will require relaxing the planning system to promote more house-building, the removal of burdens on UK manufacturers such as carbon taxes, finally getting shale gas exploration going, and reforming apprenticeships to rapidly improve skills in construction, manufacturing and technology.

(Source: adapted from http://www.cityam.com/229481/chancellor-beware-uk-not-out-woods-yet, 25 November 2015 by Daniel Mahoney)

(a) With reference to Figure 1, explain the term 'net trade'.

(4)

(b) With reference to the information provided and your own knowledge, assess the likely causes of the UK's trade deficit.

(10)

(c) With reference to Extract A, paragraph 2, explain **one** likely influence on UK investment.

(5)

(d) With reference to Figure 2 and Extract A, explain **two** likely reasons why the growth of the UK's nominal GDP per capita at PPPs was slower than that of Germany after 2010.

(6)

(e) Evaluate policies the government could use to increase the UK's productivity.

(15)

EITHER

(f) Evaluate the benefits of economic growth to the UK given that 'a number of concerns remain' in the UK economy (Extract A, line 7).

(20)

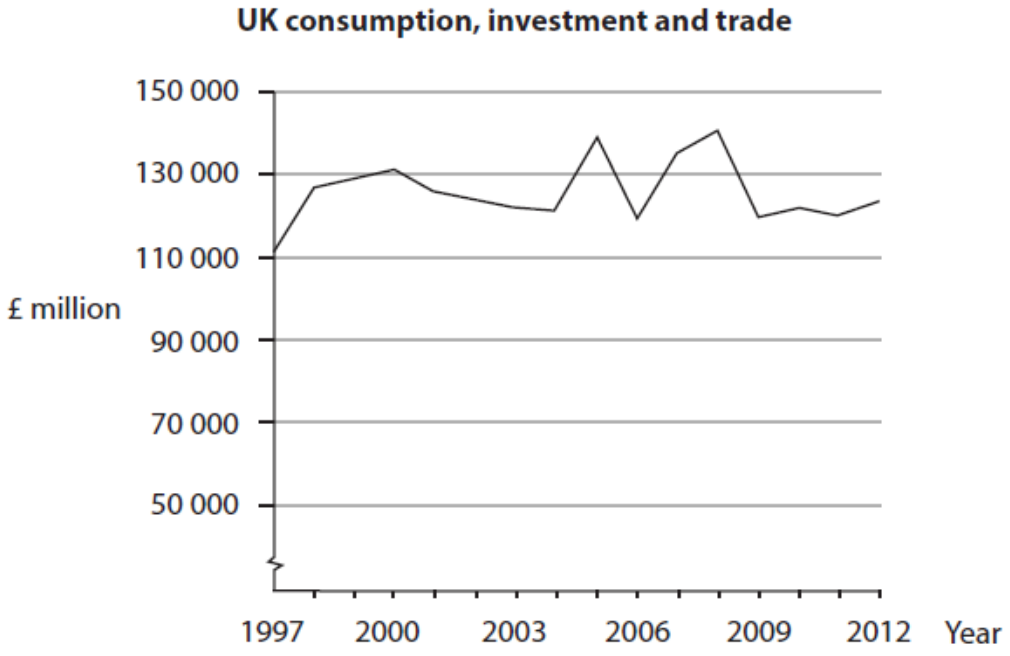
OR

(g) Evaluate the view that another recession is 'inevitable' in the UK (Extract A, line 24).

(20)

(Total for question = 60 marks)

Q5.



(Source: http://www.ons.gov.uk/ons/rel/bus-invest/business-investment/q3-2013-provisional-results/stb-business-investment-q3-2013-provisional.html#tab-Business-Investment-and-other-components-of-GFCF)

Figure 1: UK real annual business investment, 1997–2012 (seasonally adjusted)

(a) With reference to Figure 1, explain what has happened to real annual business investment since 2008.

(4)



(Source: http://www.tradingeconomics.com/united-kingdom/currency)

Figure 2: British pound (£) to US dollar ($) exchange rate, 1 January 2013 to mid-February 2014

(b) With reference to Figure 2, explain the likely effect of an appreciation of the British pound (£) against the US dollar ($) on the volume of UK imports from, and UK exports to, the USA.

(5)

Extract A

Why Britain needs a pay rise

UK growth in 2013 has been caused mainly by increases in consumption. Rising consumption tends to encourage companies to invest. The increase in demand for goods and services means firms need more productive capacity, often moving to bigger premises and buying capital equipment. Crucially, though, they only do so if they think the increase in consumption is likely to be permanent.

At the start of 2013, it was hard to see why consumer spending would rise. The economy had recorded little growth for two years and confidence was low. Inflation had been higher than earnings growth during 2012, making it hard for families to manage.

Three factors combined to change the picture: cheap credit, the Bank of England's funding for lending scheme (FLS), and rising consumer confidence. The Bank of England cut its official interest rate to 0.5% in early 2009, but it took a long time for the monetary stimulus to have an impact.

It only really did so when FLS was announced in the summer of 2012. This was a deal under which the commercial (high street) banks could borrow more cheaply from the Bank of England provided they passed on the benefits to their customers.

The idea was that household and business borrowers would benefit: loans would become more readily available and the interest rates charged on them would be lower. Lending to businesses was disappointing, but the impact on the mortgage market was rapid and significant: more mortgages were approved, and at lower rates of interest. This contributed to the improvement in the housing market, which in turn boosted confidence, leading to higher spending, and this led to higher growth.

Consumers ran down their savings to fund this higher spending. Again, this is not unusual. Households become more cautious in troubled times and they save more just to be on the safe side.

However, unless consumers are willing to save less and less and borrow more and more, there is only so long this process can continue. Eventually, consumer spending growth has to be the result of rising real incomes rather than falling savings.

After a year in which the consumer has been the driving force behind the expansion of the economy, 2014 should be the year when investment contributes to growth. Many of the conditions for an increase in business spending are in place: companies are cash rich, profitability is good, interest rates are set to stay low, and ageing capital stock needs replacing.

The one factor not in place is the most important one of all: an increase in real wages. If companies believe that consumers will carry on spending, they are much more likely to go ahead with new investment projects. If they think consumer spending will not increase, then they will be unwilling to invest. This will mean that inflationary pressures build up and the trade deficit will continue to widen.

(Source: adapted from 'Why Britain needs a pay rise', Larry Elliott, *The Guardian*, 29 December 2013 http://www.theguardian.com/money/2013/dec/29/why-britain-needs-pay-rise)

(c) With reference to Extract A, explain **two** reasons why consumer spending rose in 2013.

(6)

(d) Assess the importance of interest rates in determining the level of business investment in the UK.

(10)

(e) Discuss the likely impact of both a lack of new investment and an appreciation of the British pound (£) on 'inflationary pressures' in the UK (Extract A line 36).

(15)

EITHER

(f) Evaluate whether the UK government should focus on achieving economic growth as its key macroeconomic objective.

(20)

OR

(g) Evaluate the use of monetary policy to achieve the UK's macroeconomic objectives.

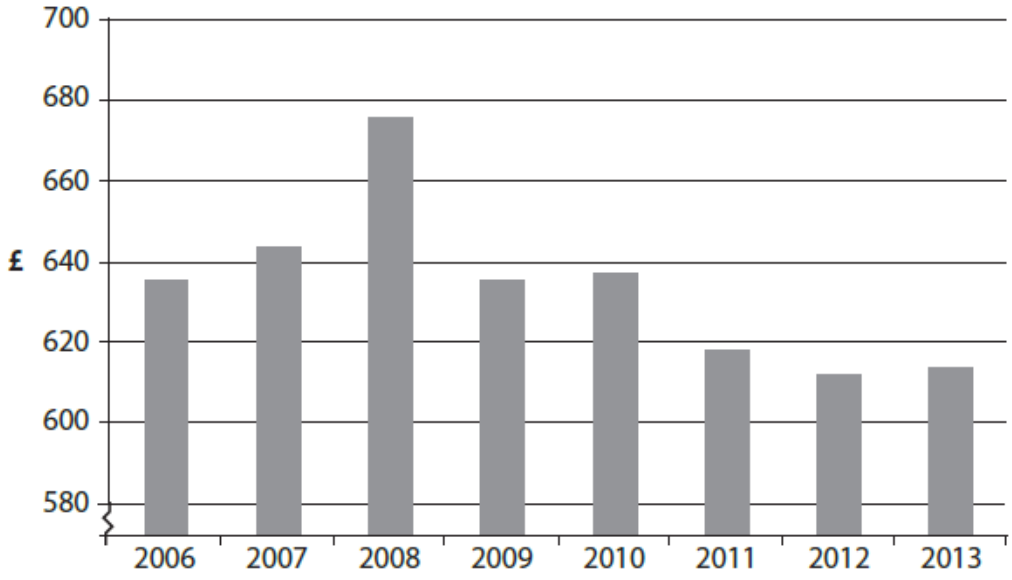
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(Total for question = 60 marks)

Q6.

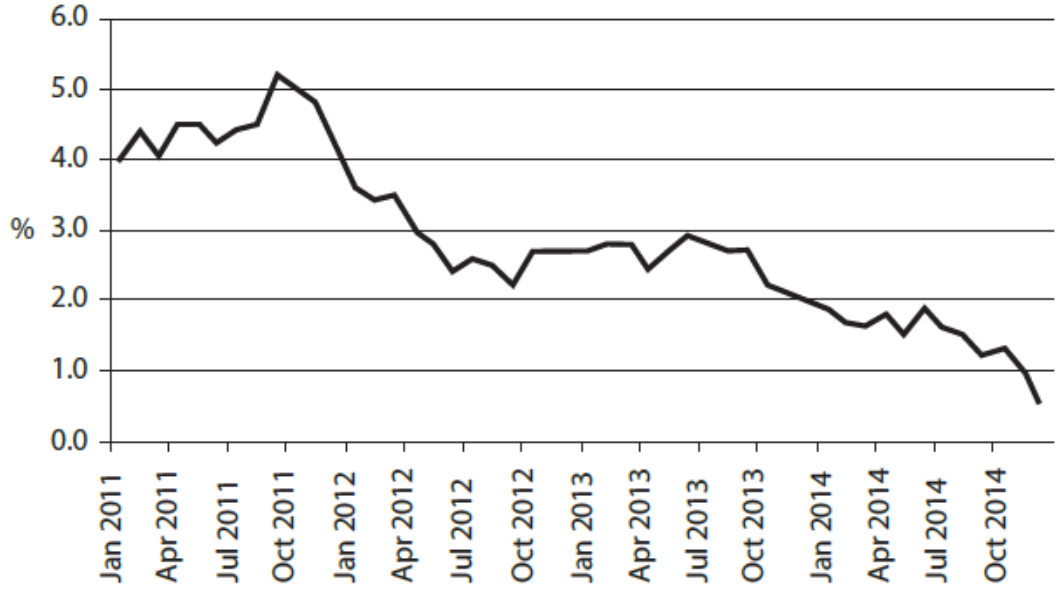
UK incomes, inflation and monetary policy

Figure 1 – UK average weekly household real income



(Source: http://www.ons.gov.uk/ons/rel/family-spending/family-spending/2014-edition/rft-a44-final-2013.xls)

Figure 2 – UK inflation rate as measured by percentage changes in the Consumer Price Index (CPI)



(Source: http://www.bankofengland.co.uk/publications/Pages/inflationreport/2015/feb.aspx)

Extract A

Britons should not fear rise in interest rates

The Monetary Policy Committee (MPC) of the Bank of England is prepared to raise interest rates "in the near future" if inflation increases, one of its senior policymakers has warned.

Kristin Forbes, a member of the MPC, said a rise in borrowing costs would also be necessary should household debt reach unhealthy levels. However, she stressed that this was not yet a cause for concern.

With the UK's base rate of interest at 0.5% and inflation at a record low and expected to be negative, the MPC is currently under no pressure to raise interest rates, despite Britain's economic recovery.

UK inflation is being driven lower by the slump in global oil prices, which have roughly halved since summer 2014, and the Bank's governor Mark Carney warned earlier this month that a strong domestic economy would translate into higher UK inflation over the medium term. "The most likely next move in monetary policy is an increase in interest rates. The message is clear," Carney said.

Forbes said that "even the more lagged effects of the rise in the value of the pound will likely peak in the first part of this year and also gradually fade. Inflation will then most likely bounce back.

"Since interest rates take well over a year to be fully effective, they should be adjusted to respond to inflationary risks at that time horizon – when all of these effects have diminished – rather than respond to today's inflation."

(Source: adapted from http://www.theguardian.com/money/2015/feb/24/britons-should-not-fear-rise-in-interest-rates- when-they-come-says-boe-member)

Extract B

Deflation is bad news

The problem with deflation is that once you have it you can't get rid of it. Central banks know what to do about inflation but they do not have the policy tools to deal with deflation when interest rates are almost as low as they can go. Just look at Japan, which had deflation in nine separate years from 1999-2012, with two additional years at zero, averaging minus 0.3%. The highest in any single year was minus 1.3% in 2013.

In the European Union (EU) in 2008, at the start of the financial crisis, there were fears of deflation but at that time central banks had the ability to cut interest rates by nearly 5 percentage points. Those fears may now be coming true, with the EU experiencing deflation of 0.5% in 2015.

This was driven primarily by declines in energy prices, but there was also deflation in non-energy industrial goods and telecommunications. The collapse in the cost of shipping goods potentially suggests something deeper is going on and may lead to a more persistent form of deflation than Mark Carney has currently claimed.

(Source: adapted from http://www.independent.co.uk/news/business/comment/david-blanchflower/david-blanchflower-deflation-is-bad-news--and-britain-is-likely-to-be-next-to-get-it-10078832.html)

(a) With reference to Figure 1, explain the term 'real income'.

(4)

(b) Assess the likely impact of falling real incomes on UK consumers.

(10)

(c) With reference to Extract A, explain the likely effect of a rise in the value of the pound on aggregate demand.

(5)

(d) With reference to the data, explain **two** likely reasons for the UK's falling inflation rate.

(6)

(e) With reference to Extracts A and B and your own knowledge, discuss whether the MPC should be concerned about the risk of deflation in the UK economy.

(15)

Answer EITHER

(f) Evaluate whether the MPC has been successful in controlling the UK's inflation rate since 2011.

(20)

OR

(g) Evaluate demand-side policy responses to the Global Financial Crisis of 2008.

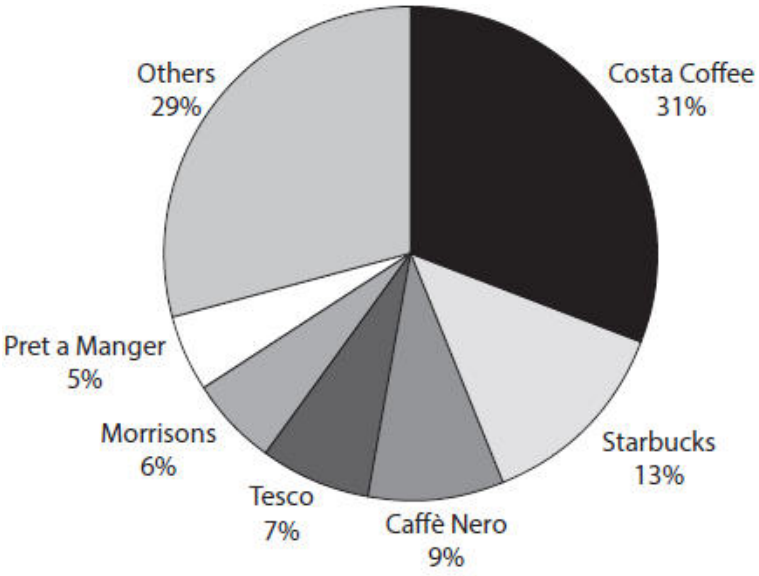
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(Total for question = 60 marks)

Q7.

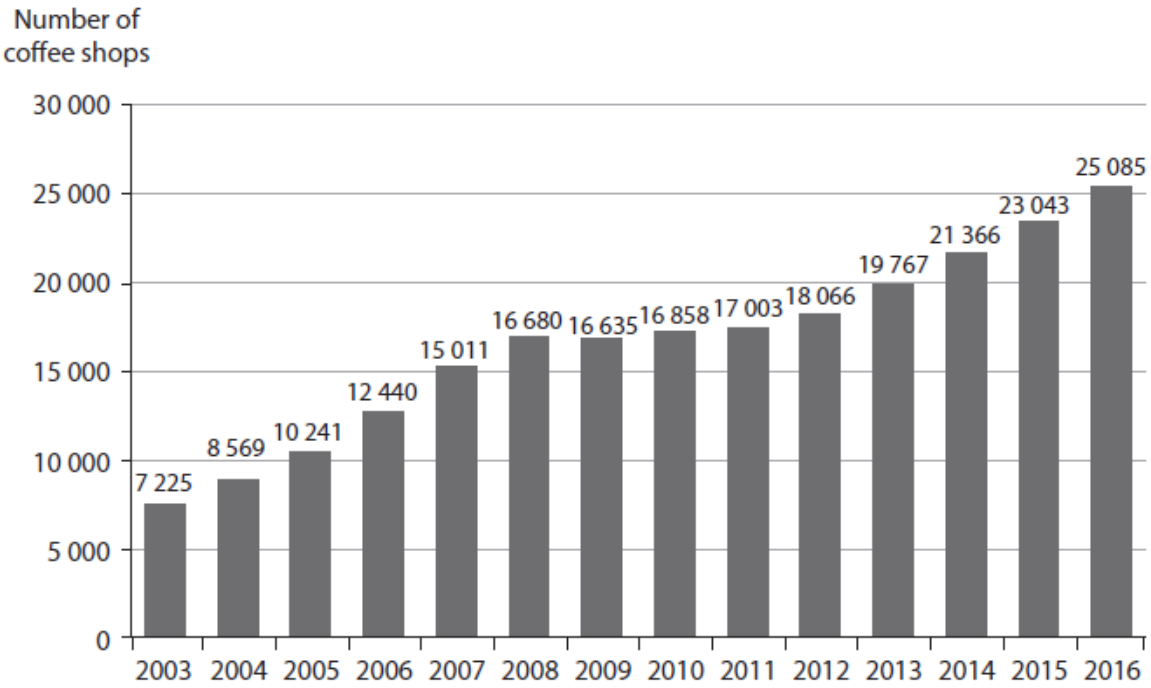
Branded coffee shops

Figure 1: Market share of UK branded coffee shops, 2015, percentages



(Source: http://metro.co.uk/2015/12/14/the-uks-most-popular-coffee-shop-has-been-revealed-5564569/)

Figure 2: Number of Starbucks coffee shops worldwide, 2003–2016



(Source: https://www.statista.com/statistics/266465/number-of-starbucks-stores-worldwide/)

Figure 3: Price comparison in selected London coffee retailers, February 2017

Coffee style	Starbucks	Costa Coffee	Caffè Nero	Greggs	McDonald's
Espresso Double	£2.00	£2.00	£1.70	£1.65	£0.99
Latte Medium	£2.60	£2.50	£2.50	£1.80	£1.79
Latte Large	£2.80	£2.70	£2.80	£2.10	£2.09

(Source: data collected from coffee shops in Holborn, London on 25 February 2017)

Extract A

Starbucks in Britain – a loss-making business?

Coffee shops are among the most profitable parts of the food and drink industry, and few are doing quite as well as Starbucks, a US-based transnational company. Starbucks may be complaining of adverse global market conditions but that did not stop the world's biggest coffee chain from reporting record annual profits in 2016. It made a profit of almost US$4.2 billion for the year, up 16% on 2015. That was mainly the result of a strong performance in its biggest market, America, where revenue rose 11%. The fastest growth was in the China and Asia Pacific region, with revenue up 23%. Howard Schultz, the CEO of Starbucks, said its Chinese coffee shops were the most efficient and profitable. While Starbucks still makes most of its profit in the US, Mr Schultz has said expansion in China will secure its future for "decades to come" and announced plans to more than double the number of shops in China to 5000 by 2021.

However its British subsidiary, at first glance, appears to be doing less well. It has announced its first ever profit in Britain in 2015 – of just £1 million – despite opening its first coffee shop in the UK in 1998. It now has 849 UK outlets. The main reason why Starbucks has reported persistent losses in the UK is not due to a lack of demand for its coffee, but to minimise its tax bill. It is claimed that some of Starbucks' revenue earned in the UK is transferred to its Dutch subsidiary, which is charged lower rates of tax.

Starbucks is not finding life as easy in Britain as in the USA. It faces competition from home-grown chains such as Costa and Caffè Nero. Accusations of tax avoidance have also damaged Starbucks' sales to the benefit of its competitors. A survey found that a third less people rated Starbucks as their preferred coffee shop than they did before the tax-avoidance allegations were first published.

These issues have forced Starbucks to change its strategy. It has slowed down its expansion plans in the UK and has closed 67 underperforming coffee shops over the past year. It has also tried to repair its reputation by transferring its European headquarters from Amsterdam to London.

(Sources: adapted from *The Economist* 14 February 2015 http://www.economist.com/news/business-and-finance/21643271-tax and Starbucks company report 2016 and http://s21.q4cdn.com/369030626/files/doc_financials/2015/Starbucks-Fiscal-2015_Financial-Highlights.pdf)

Extract B

Tax on disposable coffee cups?

Two and a half billion disposable cups are thrown away every year in the UK, that is, seven million every day. Only one in 400 is recycled. The UK Environment Minister has suggested that a coffee cup tax could work in a similar manner to the plastic bag charge. The 5 pence a bag charge has led to an 85% reduction in the number of bags being given out since October 2015. It is estimated that introducing a tax on disposable coffee cups would cut usage by two billion every year. One environment spokesperson, Kate Parminter, said: "We've seen how dramatically a small charge has affected public behaviour when it comes to the plastic bags and it is clearly time to extend it to coffee cups. Most people purchase a tea or coffee and throw away the cup without even thinking about it, but a charge would increase our awareness of the environmental impact."

In response, another MP welcomed her comments but said he did not believe a tax was the solution. He said: "My initial reaction is charging 5p or 10p for the cup will not work. It will not encourage people to take their own cups in if a coffee goes up from £2.60 to £2.65. I suspect a more technological answer is what we need – either the composition of the disposable cups being changed so they're more easily recyclable, or changing the technology in the recycling."

Disposable coffee cups contain a plastic coating inside the cups which prevent them from becoming soggy, making them difficult to recycle. There are just two specialist facilities in the UK that have the required equipment to separate plastic from paper for recycling. Almost no recycled paper is used in the production of disposable cups, meaning that some 43 000 trees must be cut down annually to keep up with the demand. CO_2 emissions of around 83 000 tonnes are generated every year for their production.

(Sources: adapted from http://www.independent.co.uk/news/uk/politics/disposable-coffee-cups-could-be-taxed-like-plastic-bags-environment-minister-says-a6938126.html 05/09/16 and https://www.cchdaily.co.uk/lib-dems-call-5p-plastic-bag-tax-coffee-cups)

Extract C

German city of Freiburg takes action on cutting the use of disposable coffee cups

The 'Freiburg cup', made from dishwasher-proof plastic, can be reused hundreds of times. Cups are issued with a one-euro deposit, and can be returned to any of the participating coffee shops in the German city. The cups, which are provided to coffee shops by local councils, are washed in the cafés and bakeries that have signed up to the scheme before being reused. 56 coffee retailers have signed up, and 10 000 cups are being used.

One of the main obstacles facing a wider-reaching scheme, however, is the number of café chains in Germany that are unwilling to use unbranded multi-use cups, particularly Starbucks and McDonald's. Starbucks already offers a discounted coffee for customers with a multi-use cup, but only if it is bearing the unmistakable Starbucks logo.

(Source: adapted from http://www.dw.com/en/germanys-love-for-coffee-to-go-leaves-environmental-groups-demanding-action/a-36689719)

(a) With reference to Figure 1, briefly explain the market structure that best describes the UK branded coffee shop market.

(5)

(b) With reference to Figure 3 and other information provided, discuss the price and non-price strategies that Starbucks may use to increase profitability.

(12)

(c) Examine the advantages of using an indirect tax as a means of reducing the use of disposable coffee cups.

(8)

EITHER

(d) Evaluate the microeconomic and macroeconomic factors that may influence Starbucks' decision whether to expand in a particular country.

(25)

OR

(e) With reference to the information provided and your own knowledge, evaluate the microeconomic and macroeconomic effects of increased UK demand for coffee at branded coffee shops.

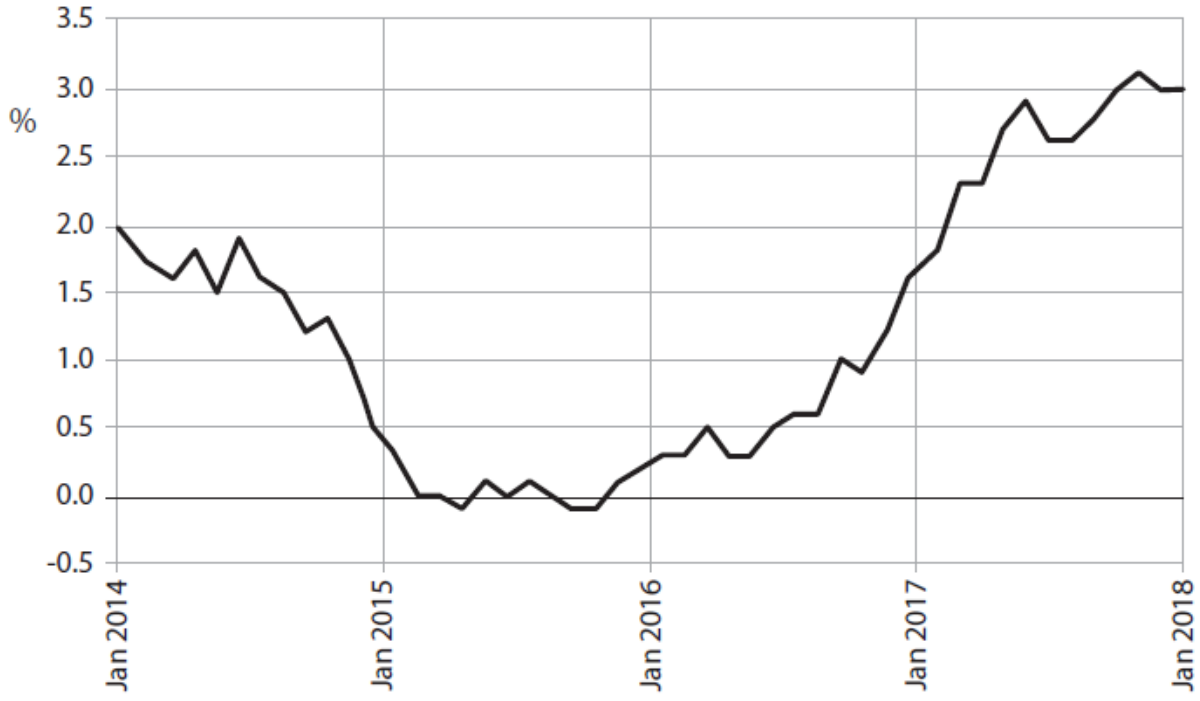
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(Total for question = 50 marks)

Q8.

UK inflation and economic growth

Figure 1: UK inflation rate as measured by annual percentage changes in the Consumer Price Index (CPI), January 2014 to January 2018



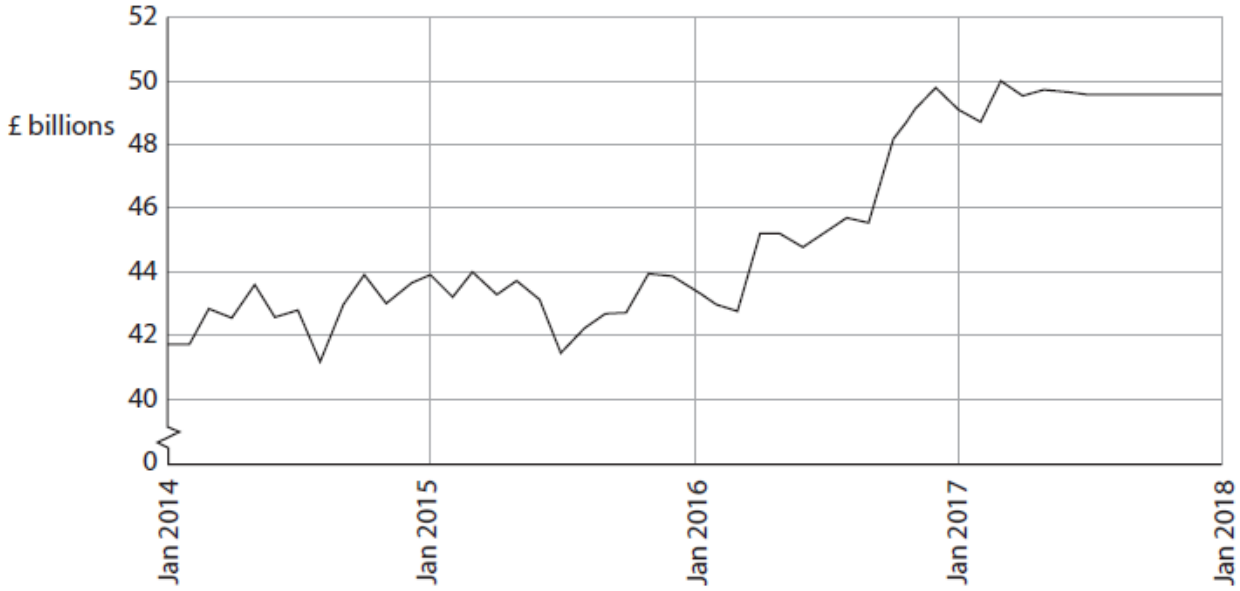
(Source: www.bankofengland.co.uk/publications/Pages/inflationreport/2017/aug.aspx)

Figure 2: Selected changes to the CPI basket of goods and services, 2017

IN	OUT
Non-dairy milk	Apple cider
Jigsaw puzzles	Menthol cigarettes
Child scooters	Child swings
Cycling helmets	Basic mobile phones

(Source: www.theguardian.com/business/2017/mar/14/uk-inflation-ons-basket-goods-gin-cycling-helmets)

Figure 3: UK exports, £ billions per month, January 2014 to January 2018



(Source: Trading Economics, ONS - https://tradingeconomics.com/united-kingdom/exports)

Figure 4: Annual percentage change in real Gross Domestic Product (GDP), 2014-2017

	2014	2015	2016	2017
United Kingdom	3.1	2.2	1.8	2.0
Developing countries (average)	4.7	4.2	4.1	4.5

(Source: IMF, World Economic Outlook 2017)

Extract A

Rising inflation

After January 2017, the inflation rate, as measured by the Consumer Price Index (CPI), in the UK has exceeded the Bank of England's 2% target. Sharp increases in food prices as a result of the fall in the exchange rate of the pound have contributed to rising inflation. Between January and September 2017, food prices have increased by 3.5 percentage points.

The Office for National Statistics (ONS) has identified that the rapid increase in food prices affected people on low fixed incomes the most. It leaves them with very little money to spend on relatively more expensive items. Moreover, the Bank of England has observed a rise in the size of personal debt relative to income. In order to maintain their standard of living, many consumers on low fixed incomes are using their credit cards and taking out short-term loans to fund their spending.

Inflation rose to over 3% at the end of 2017 leading to the Monetary Policy Committee increasing the base rate of interest by 0.25 percentage points to 0.5% in November 2017. Wage growth has been lagging behind price rises and this is expected to continue. Basic wage increases are expected to be only around 1%. This has heaped considerable pressure on households.

The ONS has updated the shopping basket that is used in the measurement of UK inflation, to reflect the lifestyle of households in the country. Technological advancements, changes in consumer tastes and a move towards health, fitness and gluten-free products have made it essential to revise the 2017 basket.

(Source: adapted from 'UK inflation tipped to rise again with wages forecast to stagnate', The Guardian, https://www.theguardian.com/business/2017/aug/13/uk-inflation-tipped-to-rise-again-with-wages-forecast-to-stagnate#img-1)

Extract B

Economic growth and living standards

Economic growth is expected to accelerate again as foreign demand for UK exports increases due to the global economic recovery. According to some economists, consumer spending is no longer the engine of growth for the UK. The increase in exports, which is largely due to the fall in the exchange rate of the pound, is expected to be the most significant driver of the UK's economic growth.

Some economists have proposed that the quality of economic growth needs to be measured and not just the quantity. This will allow governments to understand how GDP growth affects the living standards of its citizens. They want governments to publish data on the quality of life alongside GDP data as economic growth varies across the country with jobs and wages distributed unevenly. Economic growth figures also hide differences that are not considered in GDP calculations. In 2017, it was estimated that the relative size of the informal economy of developing countries was nearly five times greater than that of the UK.

(Source: adapted from 'Growth to accelerate as UK economy bounces back', The Telegraph, http://www.telegraph.co.uk /business/2017/08/01/growth-accelerate-uk-economy-bounces-back/; 'GDP is not enough: economists and businesses demand new measure of inclusive growth', The Telegraph, http://www.telegraph.co.uk/business/2017/03/07/gdp-not-enough-economists-businesses-demand-new-measure-inclusive/)

(a) With reference to the first paragraph of Extract A and Figure 1, explain how the change in the exchange rate of the pound has 'contributed to rising inflation' (Extract A, line 4).

(4)

(b) With reference to Extract A, explain **two** likely economic effects of the higher rate of UK inflation.

(6)

(c) With reference to the last paragraph of Extract A and Figure 2, explain **one** reason why it is necessary to regularly update the CPI basket of goods and services.

(5)

(d) With reference to Figure 3, assess the likely impact of the change in the value of exports, since mid-2016, on the economic growth of the UK. Use an aggregate demand and aggregate supply diagram in your answer.

(10)

(e) With reference to Figure 4, Extract B and your own knowledge, discuss the limitations of using GDP data to compare living standards between the UK and developing countries.

(15)

EITHER

(f) Evaluate the use of interest rate changes as a means of controlling UK inflation.

(20)

OR

(g) Evaluate the potential conflicts between the objective of economic growth and **two** other UK macroeconomic objectives.

(20)

(Total for question = 60 marks)

Q9.

Read extracts A and B before answering this question.

Hand car wash (HCW) firms in the UK

Extract A

What is the true human cost of your £5 hand car wash (HCW)?

The UK's hand car washes (HCWs) are extremely price competitive, but they have also been linked to modern slavery. Are they ever fair for workers?

There is little agreement about how many HCWs there are in the UK. Estimates range from 10 000 to 20 000. This lack of accurate information about the industry makes government regulation very difficult. Automated car washes, with their fierce rotating bristles, used to be the first option for drivers in a hurry. Now there is more choice. While the economy slows and incomes fail to keep up with inflation, demand for HCWs has grown. Many people see paying £5 for a car washed by someone else, rather than cleaning it at home, as a small expense which yields a high utility. But what is the true cost of a £5 car wash – and what should we be paying?

The growth of HCWs is partly the result of changes in the structure of industry in the UK. Many petrol stations have closed as drivers fill up at supermarkets. Garages and their forecourts have closed as cars become more reliable and locked into service agreements. The available sites for HCWs have therefore increased significantly and rents have fallen.

HCW entrepreneurs have identified available land and have benefitted from changes in the labour market, partly as a result of EU migration. UK drivers are now able to obtain cheap and effective hand car washing. For many migrants, car washes are a first job. "They accept car washing for a short period while they improve their language skills and move into other industries," says Ian Clark, a professor of work and employment at Nottingham Business School. "But there are also car-wash workers without networks who are in a dead end, working there for long periods."

Many drivers are only interested in getting the cheapest wash. If the price is very low, it probably means that workers are receiving less than the minimum wage and working in poor conditions. Crude calculations illustrate the problem. A £5 HCW employing five workers for 10 hours a day would need to wash 79 cars a day to just cover the wage costs. This assumes the workers are paid the minimum wage. This is one car every seven and a half minutes. Even if the profit can be higher on valet services, the price of which can be as little as £12 for a full inside-and-out clean, it's hard to see how a car wash price as low as £5 pays a living wage. This ignores all other costs which HCWs incur such as business rates and rent.

Evidence from car-wash workers is limited but Clark and others have been able to build a picture of some of the tougher conditions on drenched forecourts. "Like nail bars and small garment manufacturers, car washes are what we call 'hard-to-reach places,'" Clark explains. As part of the research, Clark and his team spoke to workers from 45 HCWs in the Midlands.

Clark and his team met and observed workers who lacked waterproof boots or trousers, or hi-vis jackets and gloves. "They're spraying around hydrochloric acid solution for alloy wheels, breathing in the vapour and fumes," Clark says. Some workers were paid a little over half the minimum wage.

(Source adapted from: https://www.theguardian.com/world/2018/jul/16/true-human-cost-5-pound-hand-car-wash-modern-slavery)

Extract B

Government intervention in the HCW industry

There are three main areas of government intervention that might impact on labour intensive firms such as HCWs:

First, there is the planning issue which focuses on the impact on the environment, for example, the disposal and recycling of waste water and chemicals. There could be planning regulations to prevent the use of tarmac rather than concrete on forecourts. Tarmac allows waste water and chemicals to seep into the sub soil. It could also be a requirement to have a sludge trap to stop the waste entering waterways.

Second, there is the health and safety issue for workers. Prolonged exposure to chemicals and lack of protective clothing puts the health of workers at risk. Performance targets could involve minimum levels of protective clothing and rest breaks for the workers.

Third, there is the issue of tax. The informal nature of the business type makes tax evasion easier.

Not all UK HCWs violate regulations. There are legitimate, regulated HCW firms as well as examples of good practice by independent outlets. One national supermarket, Tesco, has banned all independent hand car washes from its car parks. It is now in a partnership agreement with national car wash operator Waves. It uses a WashMark certificate of quality and compliance which was introduced by the industry to improve working conditions. Other major supermarkets are considering similar changes. One adviser believes £9 is a reasonable minimum price for a basic wash. Some pressure groups have developed a mobile phone app where evidence of unreasonable conditions can be reported by drivers.

Involving drivers in the issue, and making them demand fairer car washes, creates an incentive for good businesses to improve practices and come forward to get a WashMark certificate.

(Source adapted from: https://www.parliament.uk/documents/commons-committees/environmental-audit/Hand-Car-Wash-evidence.pdf research into HCWs by Professor Ian Clark, Nottingham Business School May 2018)

(a) Using the information provided, explain the market structure that best describes the hand car wash (HCW) industry in the UK.

(5)

(b) Examine **two** reasons why the demand for HCWs increases during a period when consumer 'incomes fail to keep up with inflation' (Extract A line 8).

(8)

(c) Discuss the likely effects of changes in the level of migration on firms such as HCWs in the UK. Use a labour market diagram and the information provided to support your answer.

(12)

EITHER

(d) Evaluate the microeconomic and macroeconomic factors which determine the number of firms in an industry. Refer to HCWs or another industry of your choice.

(25)

OR

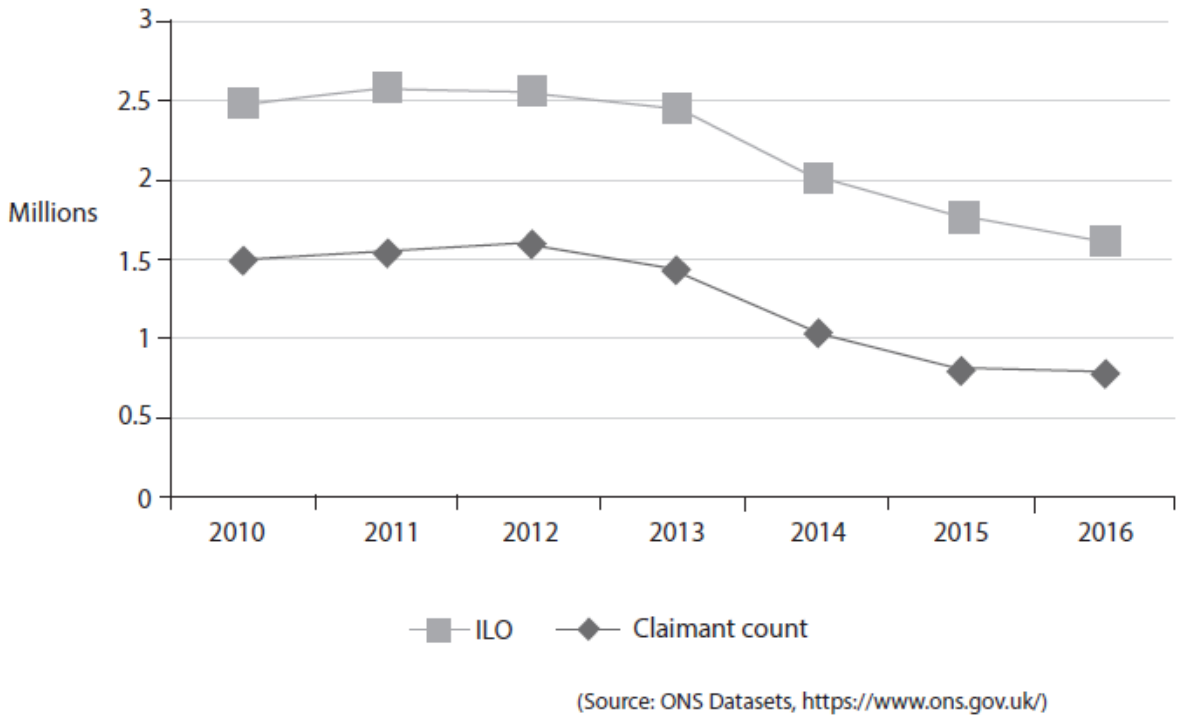
(e) Evaluate the microeconomic and macroeconomic effects of increased government intervention in an industry. Refer to HCWs or another industry of your choice.

(Total for question = 50 marks)

Q10.

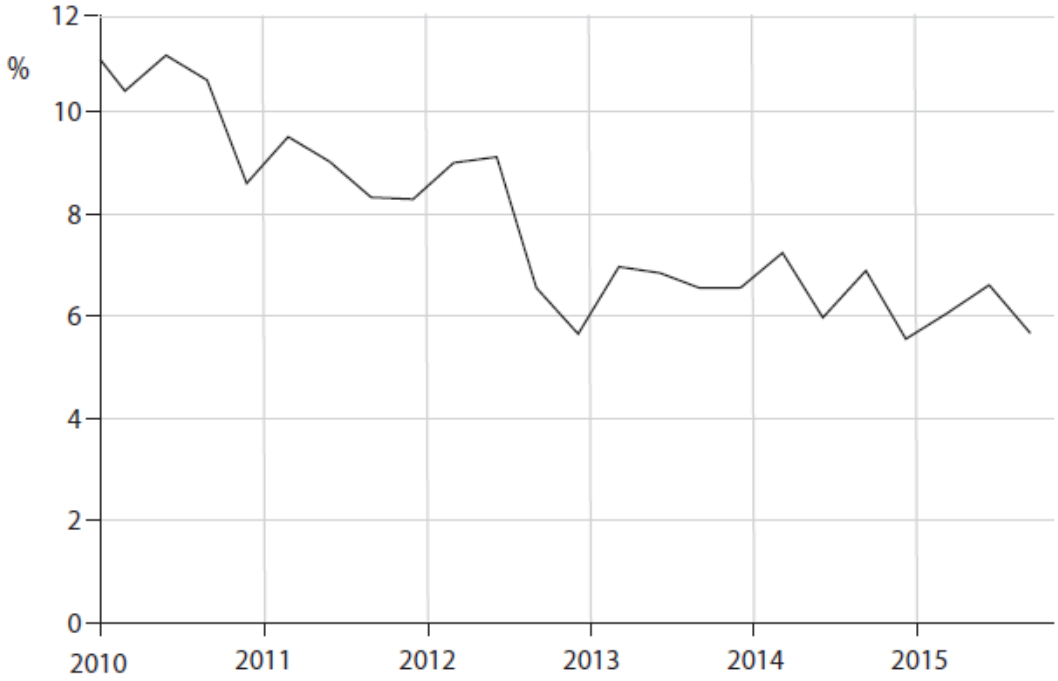
The UK economy

Figure 1: Unemployment – International Labour Organisation (ILO) and the claimant count, millions, 2010–2016



(Source: ONS Datasets, https://www.ons.gov.uk/)

Figure 2: Household savings*, 2010–2015



* Savings as a percentage of household disposable income

(Source: http://www.tradingeconomics.com/united-kingdom/personal-savings)

Figure 3: UK average house prices, 2005–2016



(Source: http://www.telegraph.co.uk/property/house-prices/the-state-of-the-uk-housing-market-in-five-charts/)

Extract A

Soaring house prices

House prices are still rising rapidly. The average UK house price was £214 000 in June 2016, according to the Office for National Statistics (ONS). This is £24 000 more than it was at its peak in September 2007, just before the economic downturn. First-time buyers have experienced the largest rise in house prices.

Even the loss of consumer confidence over Britain's vote to leave the EU did not stop house prices from rising – annual growth increased from 5.2% in July 2016 to 5.6% in August 2016. House price growth was the strongest in London, with annual average prices rising by 9.6%. However, in Wales average house prices actually fell by 0.5% during the same period. In its first post-Brexit referendum forecast, estate agency Countrywide said that house prices will fall by 1% across the UK in 2017, before rising by 2% in 2018.

Real household income in the UK fell by 10.4% in the years following the financial crisis. This increased the difference between real income and house prices. In 1997, a house cost little more than twice the average income. By early 2015, the average price of a house was five times the average annual income.

The rate of home ownership for 25 to 34-year-olds has fallen to 35.8% over the last twenty-five years as houses became less affordable. First-time buyers have to wait longer to save up for a house deposit. Conversely, home ownership has risen to 78.6% among those aged 65 to 74.

(Source: adapted from 'The state of the UK housing market in five charts', The Telegraph, http://www.telegraph.co.uk/property/house-prices/the-state-of-the-uk-housing-market-in-five-charts/; 'UK house price growth slows as demand cools after Brexit vote', The Guardian, https://www.theguardian.com/business/2016/sep/30/uk-house-price-growth-slows-demand-cools-brexit-vote-nationwide)

Extract B

UK migration trends in the year ending June 2016

Inward migration levels are among the highest ever recorded with an estimated 650 000 people moving to the UK. This is an increase of around 11 000 from the previous year.

Employment remains the most common reason for long-term migration (312 000) to the UK, with around 182 000 of these coming with a definite job and 130 000 looking for work.

Long-term migration to the UK for study was estimated to be 163 000. In addition, 80 000 long-term migrants arrived in the UK to accompany their families. There were 41 280 refugees applying for asylum, including dependants, of which 10 547 people were granted asylum. Asylum applicants cannot usually accept offers of employment while their case is being processed.

(Source: adapted from 'Migration Statistics Quarterly Report: December 2016', ONS, https://www.ons.gov.uk/peoplepopulationandcommunity/populationandmigration/internationalmigration/bulletins/migrationstatisticsquarterlyreport/dec2016)

(a) With reference to Figure 1, explain one reason why the claimant count and the ILO measure of unemployment differ.

(4)

(b) With reference to Extract A, assess the likely macroeconomic effects of an increase in house prices. Use an aggregate demand and aggregate supply diagram in your answer.

(10)

(c) With reference to the information provided, explain **one** likely factor, other than changes in house prices, that could influence the level of savings of UK households.

(5)

(d) Explain **two** factors that might cause a rise in the value of the multiplier.

(6)

(e) With reference to Extract B and Figure 1, discuss the likely impact of migration on employment **and** unemployment in the UK.

(15)

EITHER

(f) Evaluate government policies, apart from migration policies, that could be used to increase the employment rate in the UK.

(20)

OR

(g) Evaluate the likely impact of high inflation on the UK government's macroeconomic objectives.

(20)

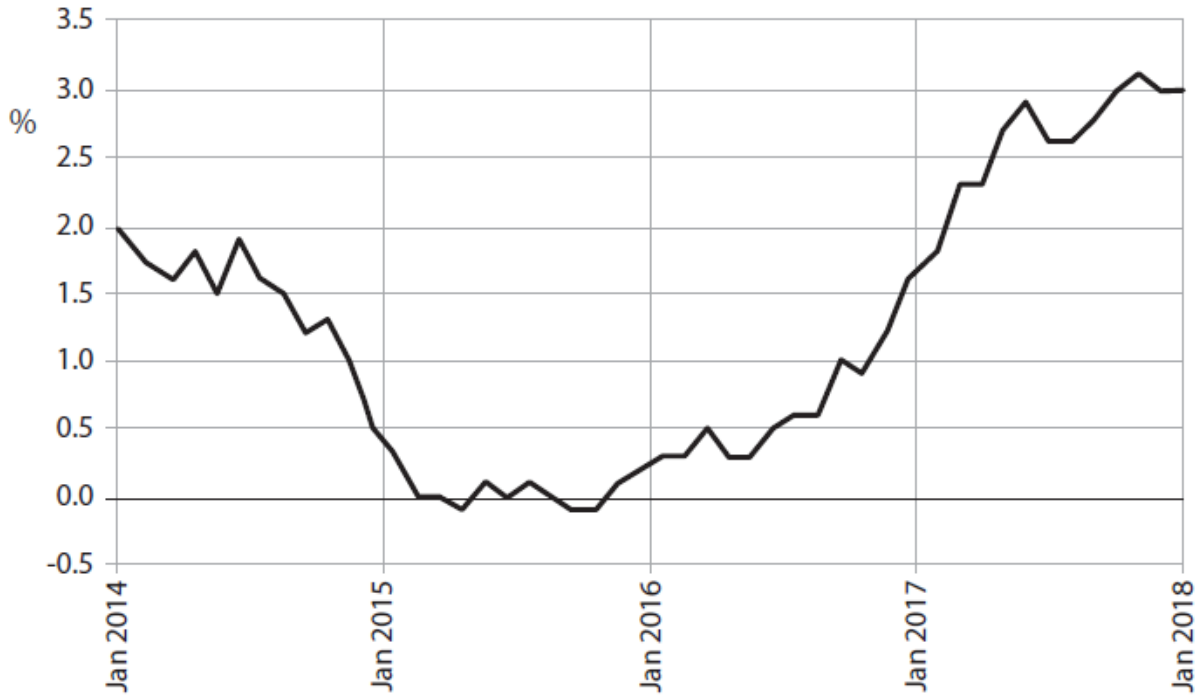
(Total for question = 60 marks)

Questions

Q1.

UK inflation and economic growth

Figure 1: UK inflation rate as measured by annual percentage changes in the Consumer Price Index (CPI), January 2014 to January 2018



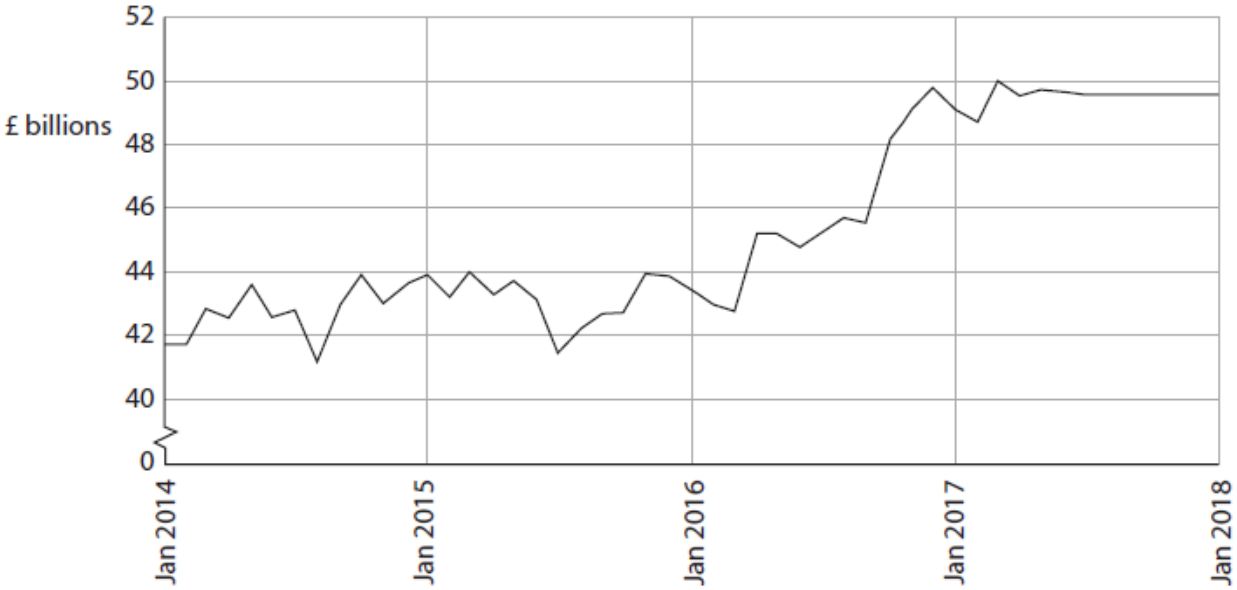
(Source: www.bankofengland.co.uk/publications/Pages/inflationreport/2017/aug.aspx)

Figure 2: Selected changes to the CPI basket of goods and services, 2017

IN	OUT
Non-dairy milk	Apple cider
Jigsaw puzzles	Menthol cigarettes
Child scooters	Child swings
Cycling helmets	Basic mobile phones

(Source: www.theguardian.com/business/2017/mar/14/uk-inflation-ons-basket-goods-gin-cycling-helmets)

Figure 3: UK exports, £ billions per month, January 2014 to January 2018



(Source: Trading Economics, ONS - https://tradingeconomics.com/united-kingdom/exports)

Figure 4: Annual percentage change in real Gross Domestic Product (GDP), 2014-2017

	2014	2015	2016	2017
United Kingdom	3.1	2.2	1.8	2.0
Developing countries (average)	4.7	4.2	4.1	4.5

(Source: IMF, World Economic Outlook 2017)

Extract A

Rising inflation

After January 2017, the inflation rate, as measured by the Consumer Price Index (CPI), in the UK has exceeded the Bank of England's 2% target. Sharp increases in food prices as a result of the fall in the exchange rate of the pound have contributed to rising inflation. Between January and September 2017, food prices have increased by 3.5 percentage points.

The Office for National Statistics (ONS) has identified that the rapid increase in food prices affected people on low fixed incomes the most. It leaves them with very little money to spend on relatively more expensive items. Moreover, the Bank of England has observed a rise in the size of personal debt relative to income. In order to maintain their standard of living, many consumers on low fixed incomes are using their credit cards and taking out short-term loans to fund their spending.

Inflation rose to over 3% at the end of 2017 leading to the Monetary Policy Committee increasing the base rate of interest by 0.25 percentage points to 0.5% in November 2017. Wage growth has been lagging behind price rises and this is expected to continue. Basic wage increases are expected to be only around 1%. This has heaped considerable pressure on households.

The ONS has updated the shopping basket that is used in the measurement of UK inflation, to reflect the lifestyle of households in the country. Technological advancements, changes in consumer tastes and a move towards health, fitness and gluten-free products have made it essential to revise the 2017 basket.

(Source: adapted from 'UK inflation tipped to rise again with wages forecast to stagnate', The Guardian, https://www.theguardian.com/business/2017/aug/13/uk-inflation-tipped-to-rise-again-with-wages-forecast-to-stagnate#img-1)

Extract B

Economic growth and living standards

Economic growth is expected to accelerate again as foreign demand for UK exports increases due to the global economic recovery. According to some economists, consumer spending is no longer the engine of growth for the UK. The increase in exports, which is largely due to the fall in the exchange rate of the pound, is expected to be the most significant driver of the UK's economic growth.

Some economists have proposed that the quality of economic growth needs to be measured and not just the quantity. This will allow governments to understand how GDP growth affects the living standards of its citizens. They want governments to publish data on the quality of life alongside GDP data as economic growth varies across the country with jobs and wages distributed unevenly. Economic growth figures also hide differences that are not considered in GDP calculations. In 2017, it was estimated that the relative size of the informal economy of developing countries was nearly five times greater than that of the UK.

(Source: adapted from 'Growth to accelerate as UK economy bounces back', The Telegraph, http://www.telegraph.co.uk /business/2017/08/01/growth-accelerate-uk-economy-bounces-back/; 'GDP is not enough: economists and businesses demand new measure of inclusive growth', The Telegraph, http://www.telegraph.co.uk/business/2017/03/07/gdp-not-enough-economists-businesses-demand-new-measure-inclusive/)

(a) With reference to the first paragraph of Extract A and Figure 1, explain how the change in the exchange rate of the pound has 'contributed to rising inflation' (Extract A, line 4).

(4)

(b) With reference to Extract A, explain **two** likely economic effects of the higher rate of UK inflation.

(6)

(c) With reference to the last paragraph of Extract A and Figure 2, explain **one** reason why it is necessary to regularly update the CPI basket of goods and services.

(5)

(d) With reference to Figure 3, assess the likely impact of the change in the value of exports, since mid-2016, on the economic growth of the UK. Use an aggregate demand and aggregate supply diagram in your answer.

(10)

(e) With reference to Figure 4, Extract B and your own knowledge, discuss the limitations of using GDP data to compare living standards between the UK and developing countries.

(15)

EITHER

(f) Evaluate the use of interest rate changes as a means of controlling UK inflation.

(20)

OR

(g) Evaluate the potential conflicts between the objective of economic growth and **two** other UK macroeconomic objectives.

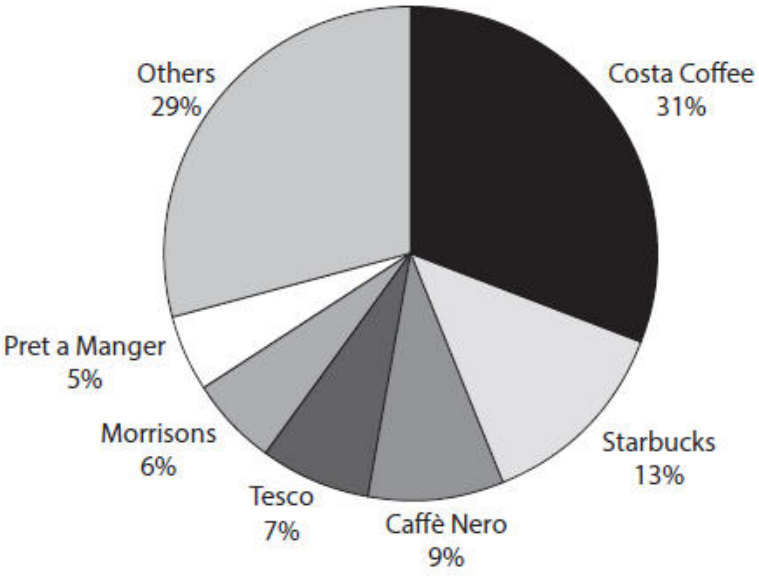
(20)

(Total for question = 60 marks)

Q2.

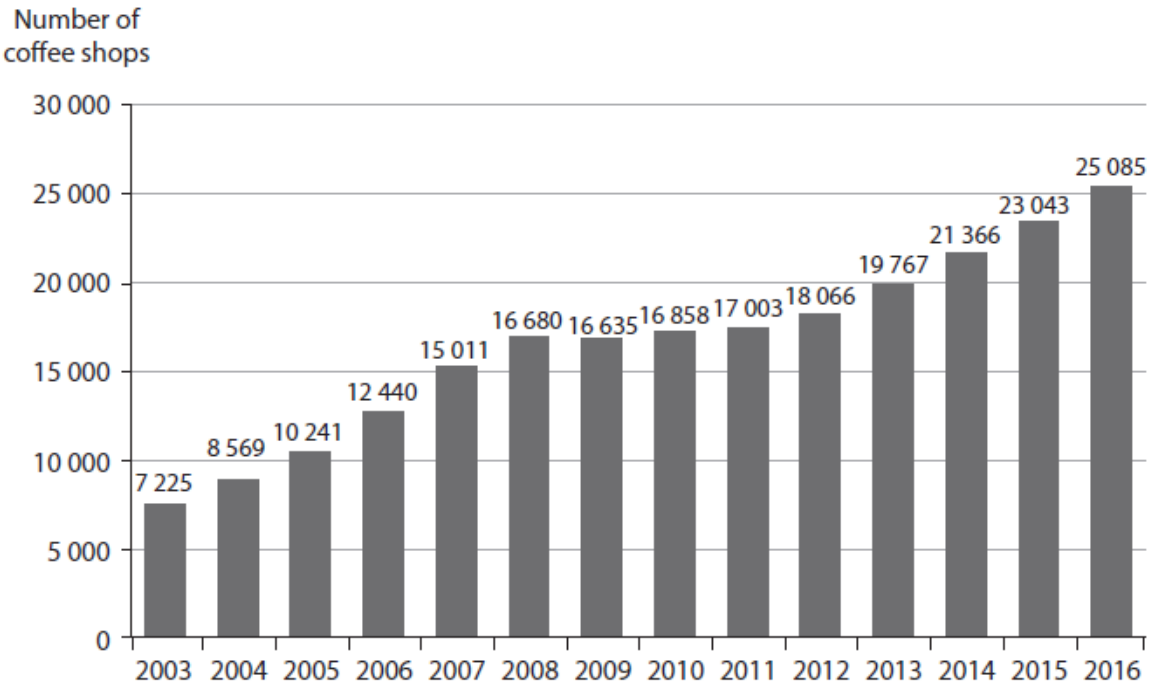
Branded coffee shops

Figure 1: Market share of UK branded coffee shops, 2015, percentages



(Source: http://metro.co.uk/2015/12/14/the-uks-most-popular-coffee-shop-has-been-revealed-5564569/)

Figure 2: Number of Starbucks coffee shops worldwide, 2003–2016



(Source: https://www.statista.com/statistics/266465/number-of-starbucks-stores-worldwide/)

Figure 3: Price comparison in selected London coffee retailers, February 2017

Coffee style	Starbucks	Costa Coffee	Caffè Nero	Greggs	McDonald's
Espresso Double	£2.00	£2.00	£1.70	£1.65	£0.99
Latte Medium	£2.60	£2.50	£2.50	£1.80	£1.79
Latte Large	£2.80	£2.70	£2.80	£2.10	£2.09

(Source: data collected from coffee shops in Holborn, London on 25 February 2017)

Extract A

Starbucks in Britain – a loss-making business?

Coffee shops are among the most profitable parts of the food and drink industry, and few are doing quite as well as Starbucks, a US-based transnational company. Starbucks may be complaining of adverse global market conditions but that did not stop the world's biggest coffee chain from reporting record annual profits in 2016. It made a profit of almost US$4.2 billion for the year, up 16% on 2015. That was mainly the result of a strong performance in its biggest market, America, where revenue rose 11%. The fastest growth was in the China and Asia Pacific region, with revenue up 23%. Howard Schultz, the CEO of Starbucks, said its Chinese coffee shops were the most efficient and profitable. While Starbucks still makes most of its profit in the US, Mr Schultz has said expansion in China will secure its future for "decades to come" and announced plans to more than double the number of shops in China to 5000 by 2021.

However its British subsidiary, at first glance, appears to be doing less well. It has announced its first ever profit in Britain in 2015 – of just £1 million – despite opening its first coffee shop in the UK in 1998. It now has 849 UK outlets. The main reason why Starbucks has reported persistent losses in the UK is not due to a lack of demand for its coffee, but to minimise its tax bill. It is claimed that some of Starbucks' revenue earned in the UK is transferred to its Dutch subsidiary, which is charged lower rates of tax.

Starbucks is not finding life as easy in Britain as in the USA. It faces competition from home-grown chains such as Costa and Caffè Nero. Accusations of tax avoidance have also damaged Starbucks' sales to the benefit of its competitors. A survey found that a third less people rated Starbucks as their preferred coffee shop than they did before the tax-avoidance allegations were first published.

These issues have forced Starbucks to change its strategy. It has slowed down its expansion plans in the UK and has closed 67 underperforming coffee shops over the past year. It has also tried to repair its reputation by transferring its European headquarters from Amsterdam to London.

(Sources: adapted from *The Economist* 14 February 2015 http://www.economist.com/news/business-and-finance/21643271-tax and Starbucks company report 2016 and http://s21.q4cdn.com/369030626/files/doc_financials/2015/Starbucks-Fiscal-2015_Financial-Highlights.pdf)

Extract B

Tax on disposable coffee cups?

Two and a half billion disposable cups are thrown away every year in the UK, that is, seven million every day. Only one in 400 is recycled. The UK Environment Minister has suggested that a coffee cup tax could work in a similar manner to the plastic bag charge. The 5 pence a bag charge has led to an 85% reduction in the number of bags being given out since October 2015. It is estimated that introducing a tax on disposable coffee cups would cut usage by two billion every year. One environment spokesperson, Kate Parminter, said: "We've seen how dramatically a small charge has affected public behaviour when it comes to the plastic bags and it is clearly time to extend it to coffee cups. Most people purchase a tea or coffee and throw away the cup without even thinking about it, but a charge would increase our awareness of the environmental impact."

In response, another MP welcomed her comments but said he did not believe a tax was the solution. He said: "My initial reaction is charging 5p or 10p for the cup will not work. It will not encourage people to take their own cups in if a coffee goes up from £2.60 to £2.65. I suspect a more technological answer is what we need – either the composition of the disposable cups being changed so they're more easily recyclable, or changing the technology in the recycling."

Disposable coffee cups contain a plastic coating inside the cups which prevent them from becoming soggy, making them difficult to recycle. There are just two specialist facilities in the UK that have the required equipment to separate plastic from paper for recycling. Almost no recycled paper is used in the production of disposable cups, meaning that some 43 000 trees must be cut down annually to keep up with the demand. CO_2 emissions of around 83 000 tonnes are generated every year for their production.

(Sources: adapted from http://www.independent.co.uk/news/uk/politics/disposable-coffee-cups-could-be-taxed-like-plastic-bags-environment-minister-says-a6938126.html 05/09/16 and https://www.cchdaily.co.uk/lib-dems-call-5p-plastic-bag-tax-coffee-cups)

Extract C

German city of Freiburg takes action on cutting the use of disposable coffee cups

The 'Freiburg cup', made from dishwasher-proof plastic, can be reused hundreds of times. Cups are issued with a one-euro deposit, and can be returned to any of the participating coffee shops in the German city. The cups, which are provided to coffee shops by local councils, are washed in the cafés and bakeries that have signed up to the scheme before being reused. 56 coffee retailers have signed up, and 10 000 cups are being used.

One of the main obstacles facing a wider-reaching scheme, however, is the number of café chains in Germany that are unwilling to use unbranded multi-use cups, particularly Starbucks and McDonald's. Starbucks already offers a discounted coffee for customers with a multi-use cup, but only if it is bearing the unmistakable Starbucks logo.

(Source: adapted from http://www.dw.com/en/germanys-love-for-coffee-to-go-leaves-environmental-groups-demanding-action/a-36689719)

(a) With reference to Figure 1, briefly explain the market structure that best describes the UK branded coffee shop market.

(5)

(b) With reference to Figure 3 and other information provided, discuss the price and non-price strategies that Starbucks may use to increase profitability.

(12)

(c) Examine the advantages of using an indirect tax as a means of reducing the use of disposable coffee cups.

(8)

EITHER

(d) Evaluate the microeconomic and macroeconomic factors that may influence Starbucks' decision whether to expand in a particular country.

(25)

OR

(e) With reference to the information provided and your own knowledge, evaluate the microeconomic and macroeconomic effects of increased UK demand for coffee at branded coffee shops.

(25)

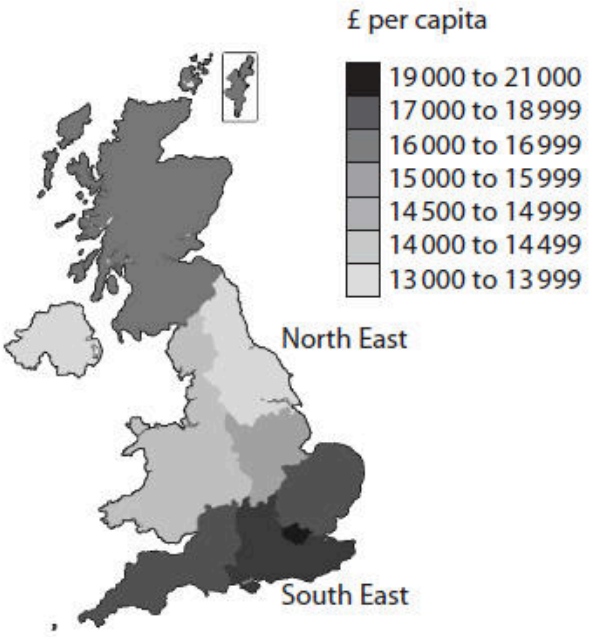
(Total for question = 50 marks)

Q3.

Read Figures 1 and 2 and the following extracts (A to C) before answering this question.

UK Government spending and inequality

Figure 1: UK regional gross disposable household income per capita, 2018



(Source: adapted from University of Sheffield/Office for National Statistics: https://www.sheffield.ac.uk/news/nr/uk-higher-regional-inequality-large-wealthy-country-1.862262)

Figure 2: UK subjective happiness by income, April 2021

Answer to the question: 'On a scale of 1–10, how happy did you feel after yesterday?' (0 = not at all, 10 = completely)

Less than £10 000	£10 000–£20 000	£20 000–£40 000	More than £40 000
7.31	7.02	7.13	7.29

(Source: adapted from https://www.ons.gov.uk/peoplepopulationandcommunity/wellbeing/datasets/incomegroupsplitestimatesonpersonalandeconomicwellbeingacrosstime)

Extract A

Regional inequality in the UK

Geographically, the UK is highly unequal in incomes. According to research from the University of Sheffield, the estimate of the Gini coefficient is 0.34. There are a number of different reasons for this. First, labour in poor places tend to develop too few skills, with a lack of education holding people back. In Rotherham in the north of England, for example, 21% of disadvantaged 18-year-olds from state schools and colleges go on to higher education compared to 41% in London. Secondly, there is a lack of infrastructure spending in northern cities compared to London. In 2017–18, 28% of public expenditure on transport – and 46% of capital expenditure on railways – was spent in London. The argument for this is that London gets a lot of public money because a lot of people take public transport. This has angered many people in the North.

These problems cannot be solved quickly. They compound each other. Just as people are rarely poor for one reason, regions do not fall behind only because they have poor transport, poor schools or poor policy making, but for all those reasons and more. Ideally, the UK would develop a bold plan for regional development that could be followed by future governments, as Germany did for its eastern part. Tera Allas of McKinsey, a consultancy firm, argues that improving education is crucial, even if the returns are not immediately obvious. It is easier to improve schools than to persuade businesses to move to a poorer part of the country.

(Source: adapted from https://www.economist.com/britain/2020/07/30/why-britain-is-more-geographically-unequal-than-any-other-rich-country)

Extract B

Public sector spending on infrastructure

Economic differences across the UK are large and have grown. The government is looking at reducing this inequality partly through spending on transport infrastructure. Public sector capital spending is due to rise from just over 2% of GDP to 3%. That amounts to around £20 billion of additional spending per year on new capital projects. The government is looking to take advantage of current low interest rates to finance the expansion without worsening its fiscal position.

The government is determined to focus this spending on the north of England, Wales and the Midlands. Planned schemes include a new Trafford Park tram line in Manchester and reopening train lines and stations closed back in the 1960s, including stations in Haxby in Yorkshire and Blyth in Northumberland. Progress has already been made in Wales with the reopening of Bow Street station near Aberystwyth. This project has taken 11 years to become a reality and cost £8m. It is estimated that it will generate a boost to the economy of £24m through boosting local trade, creating new jobs in the local area, and easing pressure on congested roads heading into Aberystwyth.

(Source: adapted from https://www.economist.com/britain/2020/01/09/the-coming-splurge-on-northern-infrastructure and https://www.wales247.co.uk/transport-for-wales-delivers-new-bow-street-station)

Extract C

Options for UK tax rises in the future

There are a number of options for raising additional tax revenue in the future. These include:

- increasing council tax on houses: this annual charge paid to local government is currently based on estimated house prices in 1991 and so is very out of date. This would negatively affect areas where house prices have risen the most since 1991
- a one-off wealth tax: a 5% tax on property and pension wealth of more than £500 000 would raise £260 billion to help pay for the global health crisis in five years, according to proposals from the Wealth Commission
- increasing corporation tax: at the 2021 Budget the Chancellor announced that the top rate of UK corporation tax would be increased to 25% by 2023. This will remain the lowest rate in the G7 group of the world's largest advanced countries, but will raise £17.2 billion in 2025–26.

(Source: adapted from https://www.telegraph.co.uk/tax/income-tax/five-tax-rises-rishi-sunak-considering-chances-happening-budget/, and https://home.kpmg/uk/en/home/insights/2021/03/tmd-corporation-tax-rate-to-increase-to-25-percent.html)

(a) Using a Lorenz curve diagram, explain how income inequality is measured using the Gini coefficient. Refer to Extract A in your answer.

(5)

(b) With reference to Figure 1 and Extract A, examine **two** likely causes of income inequality within the UK.

(8)

(c) With reference to Figure 2, assess whether an increase in real income improves subjective happiness within the UK.

(10)

(d) With reference to Extract C and your own knowledge, discuss methods the UK government could use to increase tax revenue.

(12)

(e) With reference to Extract B, discuss the benefits of an increase in infrastructure spending on the UK economy. Use an aggregate demand and aggregate supply diagram to support your answer.

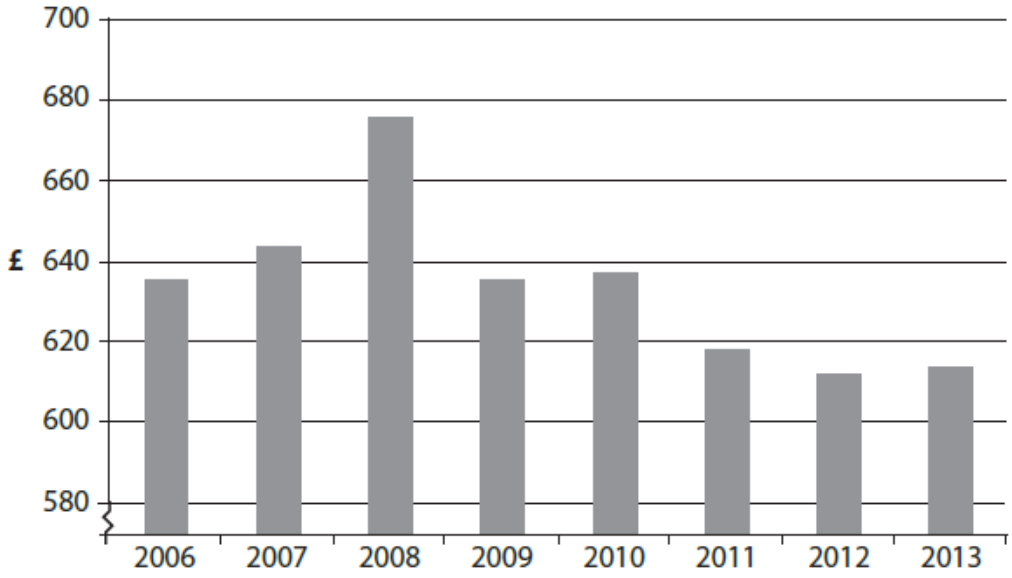
(15)

(Total for question = 50 marks)

Q4.

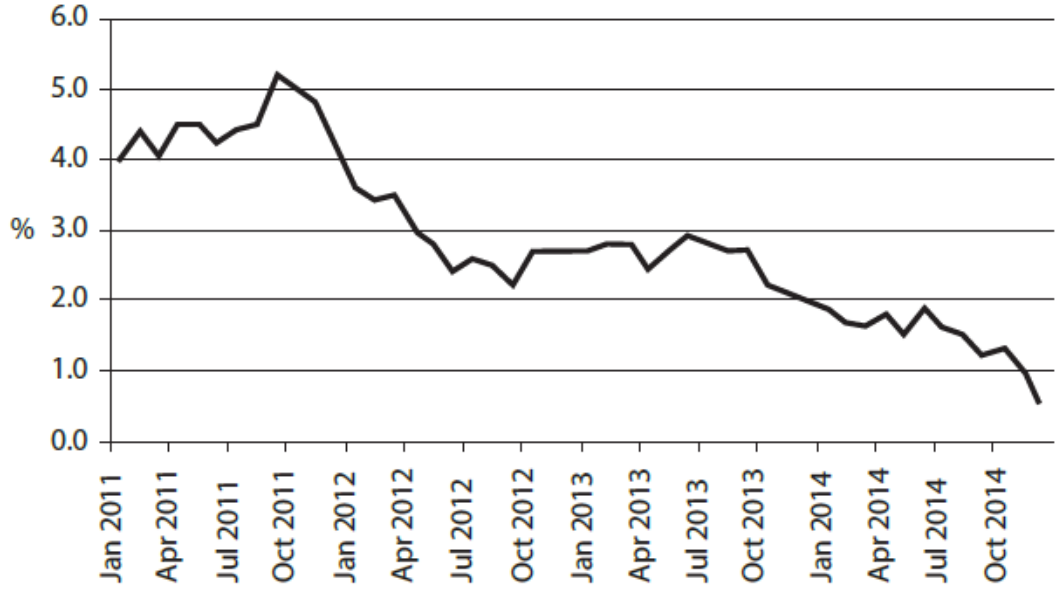
UK incomes, inflation and monetary policy

Figure 1 – UK average weekly household real income



(Source: http://www.ons.gov.uk/ons/rel/family-spending/family-spending/2014-edition/rft-a44-final-2013.xls)

Figure 2 – UK inflation rate as measured by percentage changes in the Consumer Price Index (CPI)



(Source: http://www.bankofengland.co.uk/publications/Pages/inflationreport/2015/feb.aspx)

Extract A

Britons should not fear rise in interest rates

The Monetary Policy Committee (MPC) of the Bank of England is prepared to raise interest rates "in the near future" if inflation increases, one of its senior policymakers has warned.

Kristin Forbes, a member of the MPC, said a rise in borrowing costs would also be necessary should household debt reach unhealthy levels. However, she stressed that this was not yet a cause for concern.

With the UK's base rate of interest at 0.5% and inflation at a record low and expected to be negative, the MPC is currently under no pressure to raise interest rates, despite Britain's economic recovery.

UK inflation is being driven lower by the slump in global oil prices, which have roughly halved since summer 2014, and the Bank's governor Mark Carney warned earlier this month that a strong domestic economy would translate into higher UK inflation over the medium term. "The most likely next move in monetary policy is an increase in interest rates. The message is clear," Carney said.

Forbes said that "even the more lagged effects of the rise in the value of the pound will likely peak in the first part of this year and also gradually fade. Inflation will then most likely bounce back.

"Since interest rates take well over a year to be fully effective, they should be adjusted to respond to inflationary risks at that time horizon – when all of these effects have diminished – rather than respond to today's inflation."

(Source: adapted from http://www.theguardian.com/money/2015/feb/24/britons-should-not-fear-rise-in-interest-rates- when-they-come-says-boe-member)

Extract B

Deflation is bad news

The problem with deflation is that once you have it you can't get rid of it. Central banks know what to do about inflation but they do not have the policy tools to deal with deflation when interest rates are almost as low as they can go. Just look at Japan, which had deflation in nine separate years from 1999-2012, with two additional years at zero, averaging minus 0.3%. The highest in any single year was minus 1.3% in 2013.

In the European Union (EU) in 2008, at the start of the financial crisis, there were fears of deflation but at that time central banks had the ability to cut interest rates by nearly 5 percentage points. Those fears may now be coming true, with the EU experiencing deflation of 0.5% in 2015.

This was driven primarily by declines in energy prices, but there was also deflation in non-energy industrial goods and telecommunications. The collapse in the cost of shipping goods potentially suggests something deeper is going on and may lead to a more persistent form of deflation than Mark Carney has currently claimed.

(Source: adapted from http://www.independent.co.uk/news/business/comment/david-blanchflower/david-blanchflower-deflation-is-bad-news--and-britain-is-likely-to-be-next-to-get-it-10078832.html)

(a) With reference to Figure 1, explain the term 'real income'.

(4)

(b) Assess the likely impact of falling real incomes on UK consumers.

(10)

(c) With reference to Extract A, explain the likely effect of a rise in the value of the pound on aggregate demand.

(5)

(d) With reference to the data, explain **two** likely reasons for the UK's falling inflation rate.

(6)

(e) With reference to Extracts A and B and your own knowledge, discuss whether the MPC should be concerned about the risk of deflation in the UK economy.

(15)

Answer EITHER

(f) Evaluate whether the MPC has been successful in controlling the UK's inflation rate since 2011.

(20)

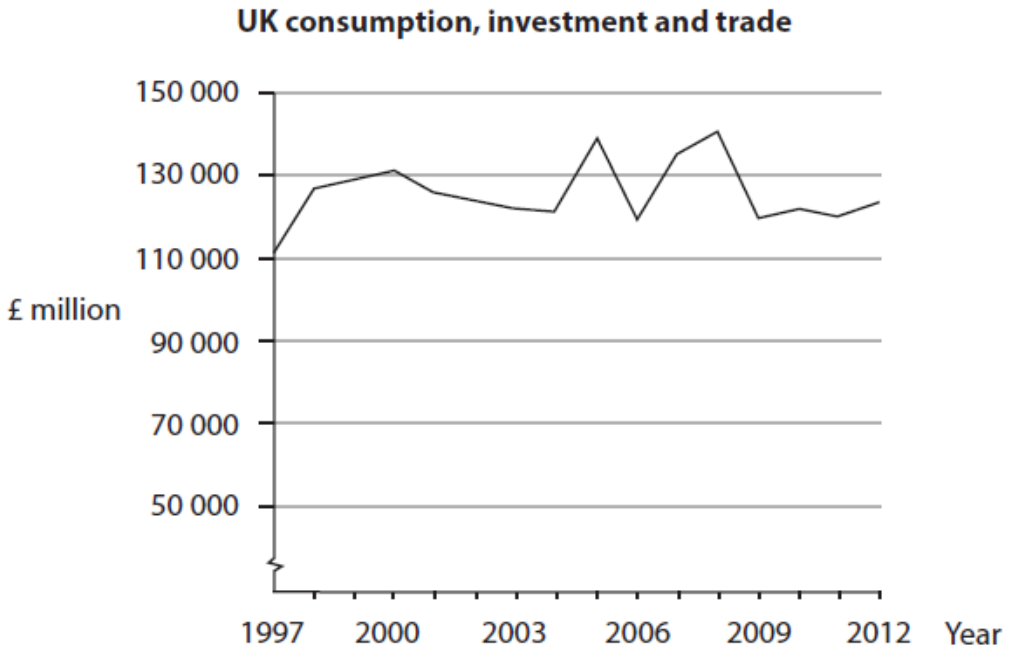
OR

(g) Evaluate demand-side policy responses to the Global Financial Crisis of 2008.

(20)

(Total for question = 60 marks)

Q5.

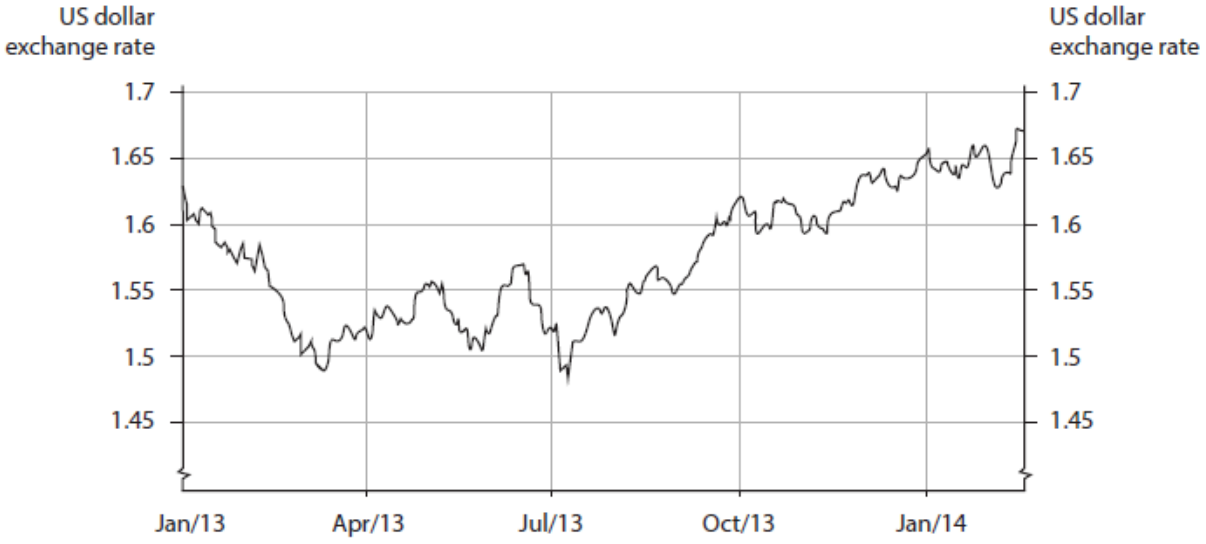


(Source: http://www.ons.gov.uk/ons/rel/bus-invest/business-investment/q3-2013-provisional-results/stb-business-investment-q3-2013-provisional.html#tab-Business-Investment-and-other-components-of-GFCF)

Figure 1: UK real annual business investment, 1997–2012 (seasonally adjusted)

(a) With reference to Figure 1, explain what has happened to real annual business investment since 2008.

(4)



(Source: http://www.tradingeconomics.com/united-kingdom/currency)

Figure 2: British pound (£) to US dollar ($) exchange rate, 1 January 2013 to mid-February 2014

(b) With reference to Figure 2, explain the likely effect of an appreciation of the British pound (£) against the US dollar ($) on the volume of UK imports from, and UK exports to, the USA.

(5)

Extract A

Why Britain needs a pay rise

UK growth in 2013 has been caused mainly by increases in consumption. Rising consumption tends to encourage companies to invest. The increase in demand for goods and services means firms need more productive capacity, often moving to bigger premises and buying capital equipment. Crucially, though, they only do so if they think the increase in consumption is likely to be permanent.

At the start of 2013, it was hard to see why consumer spending would rise. The economy had recorded little growth for two years and confidence was low. Inflation had been higher than earnings growth during 2012, making it hard for families to manage.

Three factors combined to change the picture: cheap credit, the Bank of England's funding for lending scheme (FLS), and rising consumer confidence. The Bank of England cut its official interest rate to 0.5% in early 2009, but it took a long time for the monetary stimulus to have an impact.

It only really did so when FLS was announced in the summer of 2012. This was a deal under which the commercial (high street) banks could borrow more cheaply from the Bank of England provided they passed on the benefits to their customers.

The idea was that household and business borrowers would benefit: loans would become more readily available and the interest rates charged on them would be lower. Lending to businesses was disappointing, but the impact on the mortgage market was rapid and significant: more mortgages were approved, and at lower rates of interest. This contributed to the improvement in the housing market, which in turn boosted confidence, leading to higher spending, and this led to higher growth.

Consumers ran down their savings to fund this higher spending. Again, this is not unusual. Households become more cautious in troubled times and they save more just to be on the safe side.

However, unless consumers are willing to save less and less and borrow more and more, there is only so long this process can continue. Eventually, consumer spending growth has to be the result of rising real incomes rather than falling savings.

After a year in which the consumer has been the driving force behind the expansion of the economy, 2014 should be the year when investment contributes to growth. Many of the conditions for an increase in business spending are in place: companies are cash rich, profitability is good, interest rates are set to stay low, and ageing capital stock needs replacing.

The one factor not in place is the most important one of all: an increase in real wages. If companies believe that consumers will carry on spending, they are much more likely to go ahead with new investment projects. If they think consumer spending will not increase, then they will be unwilling to invest. This will mean that inflationary pressures build up and the trade deficit will continue to widen.

(Source: adapted from 'Why Britain needs a pay rise', Larry Elliott, *The Guardian*, 29 December 2013 http://www.theguardian.com/money/2013/dec/29/why-britain-needs-pay-rise)

(c) With reference to Extract A, explain **two** reasons why consumer spending rose in 2013.

(6)

(d) Assess the importance of interest rates in determining the level of business investment in the UK.

(10)

(e) Discuss the likely impact of both a lack of new investment and an appreciation of the British

pound (£) on 'inflationary pressures' in the UK (Extract A line 36).

(15)

EITHER

(f) Evaluate whether the UK government should focus on achieving economic growth as its key macroeconomic objective.

(20)

OR

(g) Evaluate the use of monetary policy to achieve the UK's macroeconomic objectives.

(20)

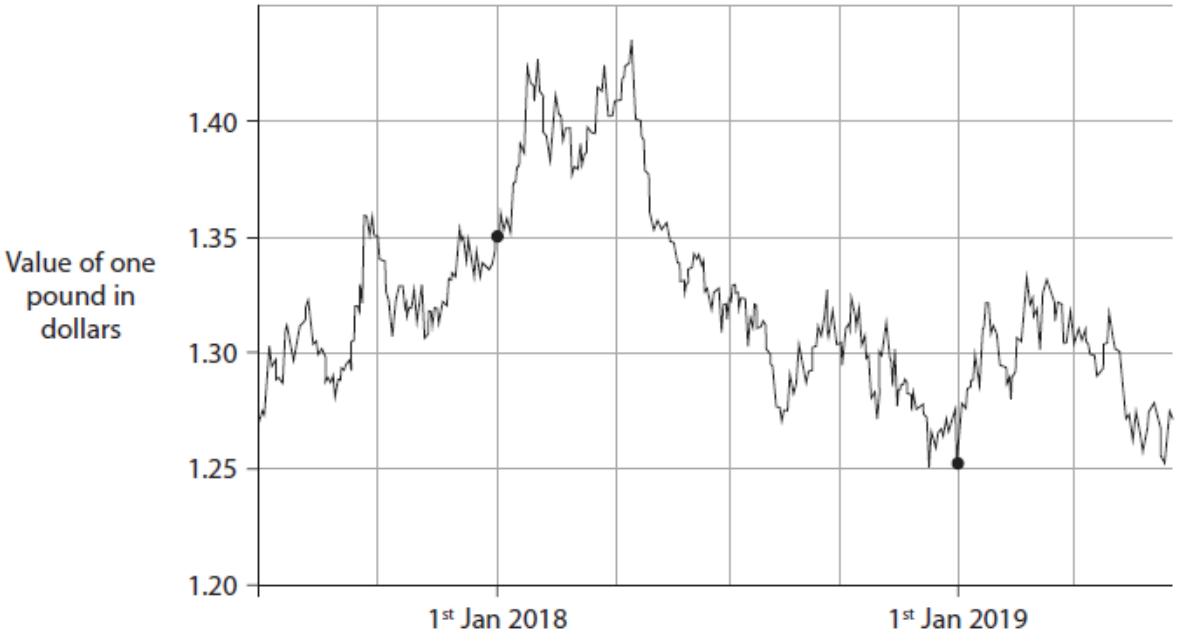
(Total for question = 60 marks)

Q6.

Use the data to support your answers where relevant. You may annotate and include diagrams in your answers.

Answer the question with a cross in the box you think is correct ☒. If you change your mind about an answer, put a line through the box ☒ and then mark your new answer with a cross ☒.

British pound to US dollar exchange rate (value of one pound in dollars), June 2017 to June 2019.



(Source adapted from: https://www.xe.com/currencycharts/?from=GBP&to=USD&view=2Y)

(a) Which **one** of the following has been the overall change in the British pound to US dollar exchange rate from 1st January 2018 to 1st January 2019?

(1)

☒ **A** Appreciation

☒ **B** Depreciation

☒ **C** Devaluation

☒ **D** Revaluation

(b) Explain the likely impact of the change in the exchange rate of the pound shown in the graph from 1st January 2018 to 1st January 2019 on the UK current account of the balance of payments.

(4)

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(Total for question = 5 marks)

Q7.

UK economic recovery

Figure 1: Components of aggregate demand in selected countries 2014

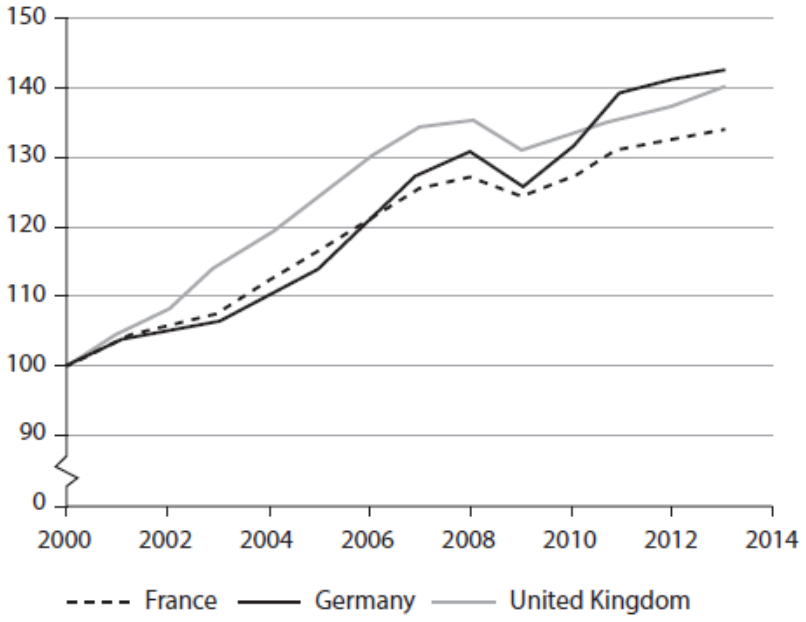
Country	Consumption	Investment	Government spending	Exports - Imports
UK	66%	14%	21%	–2%
Germany	57%	17%	19%	6%
France	57%	20%	25%	–2%
China	34%	49%	14%	3%

NB: Figures may not add up to 100% due to rounding calculations.

(Source: World Bank 2014)

Figure 2: Nominal GDP per capita at Purchasing Power Parities (PPPs)

(the base year 2000=100)



(Source: https://www.imf.org)

Extract A

The UK economy – a strange recovery

At the Autumn Statement in November 2015, the Chancellor of the Exchequer had good reason to cheer his economic record. The UK economy appeared to have returned towards its long-term trend in the rate of economic growth.

GDP growth has remained strong, with output rising at the highest rate in the G7 group of seven major industrialised countries. Unemployment continued to drop and business investment grew by 5%.

However, a number of concerns remain, particularly in relation to the UK's current account deficit, which reached a record high of 6% of GDP in the third quarter of 2014. This was primarily a result of a sharp decline in the rate of return on UK investments overseas. Low export growth meant that the UK's trade deficit persisted.

In 2012, the Chancellor had announced a target for the UK to export £1 trillion of goods and services by 2020, which would require an annual growth rate of 8%. However, the annual growth in UK exports had reached just 2.7%. The Office for Budget Responsibility (OBR) forecast that UK exports will only reach £630 billion by 2020 – a third lower than the government's target.

Exports in services continued to grow in 2015, but the UK's goods industries were struggling. It was particularly concerning that data showed output in the UK's construction and manufacturing industries falling. Indeed, the output of the manufacturing sector remained 6.3% below its pre-recession peak.

Households, meanwhile, are set to become even more indebted over the coming years. It is projected that the household gross debt to income ratio will rise by 26 percentage points between 2015 to 2020, returning to levels last seen before the Global Financial Crisis. The economy did not appear to be rebalancing away from consumer driven growth towards export-led growth, making another recession almost inevitable.

Fundamental to this problem is the UK's low productivity, which in 2015 remains around 20 percentage points below the average for the rest of the G7. It is vital that the government tackles this problem, particularly in the sectors that are currently facing difficulties. This will require relaxing the planning system to promote more house-building, the removal of burdens on UK manufacturers such as carbon taxes, finally getting shale gas exploration going, and reforming apprenticeships to rapidly improve skills in construction, manufacturing and technology.

(Source: adapted from http://www.cityam.com/229481/chancellor-beware-uk-not-out-woods-yet, 25 November 2015 by Daniel Mahoney)

(a) With reference to Figure 1, explain the term 'net trade'.

(4)

(b) With reference to the information provided and your own knowledge, assess the likely causes of the UK's trade deficit.

(10)

(c) With reference to Extract A, paragraph 2, explain **one** likely influence on UK investment.

(5)

(d) With reference to Figure 2 and Extract A, explain **two** likely reasons why the growth of the UK's nominal GDP per capita at PPPs was slower than that of Germany after 2010.

(6)

(e) Evaluate policies the government could use to increase the UK's productivity.

(15)

EITHER

(f) Evaluate the benefits of economic growth to the UK given that 'a number of concerns remain' in the UK economy (Extract A, line 7).

(20)

OR

(g) Evaluate the view that another recession is 'inevitable' in the UK (Extract A, line 24).

(20)

(Total for question = 60 marks)

Q8.

Use the data to support your answers where relevant. You may annotate and include diagrams in your answers.

UK unemployment rate as a % of all those economically active, seasonally adjusted, from 2008 to 2018



(Source: adapted from https://www.ons.gov.uk/employmentandlabourmarket/peoplenotinwork/ unemployment/timeseries/mgsx Crown Copyright)

(a) With reference to the chart above, explain **one** likely economic effect of the change in the UK unemployment rate between 2012 and 2018.

(3)

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(b) Which **one** of the following policies is most likely to reduce the unemployment rate in the UK?

(1)

☒ **A** A decrease in direct taxes on company profits

☒ **B** A decrease in quantitative easing

☒ **C** An increase in government payments to the unemployed

☒ **D** An increase in the UK base interest rate

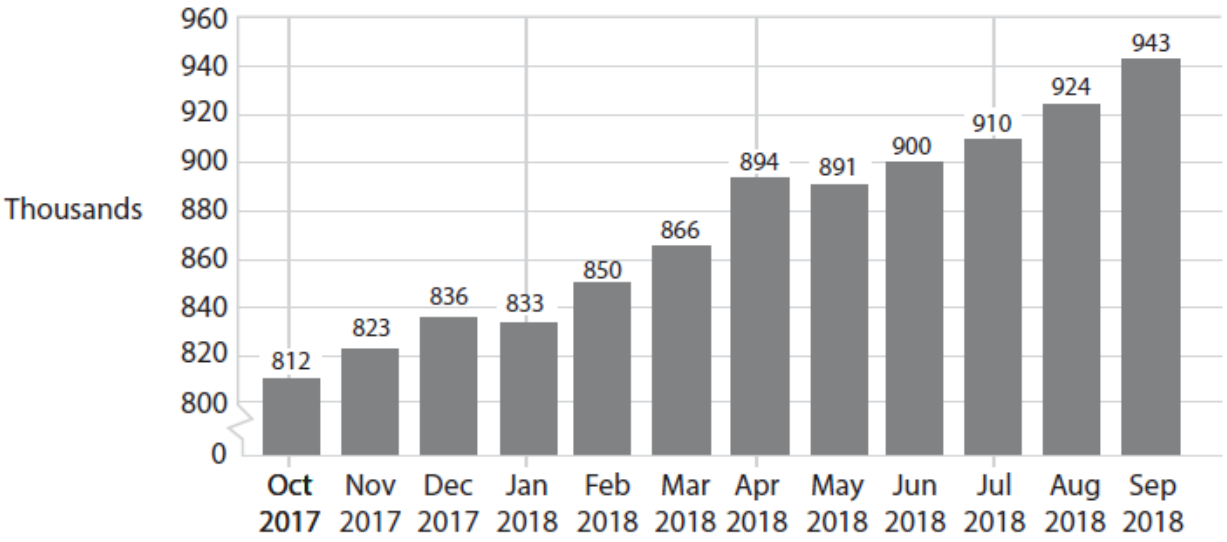
(Total for question = 4 marks)

Q9.

Use the data to support your answers where relevant. You may annotate and include diagrams in your answers.

Answer the question with a cross in the box you think is correct ☒. If you change your mind about an answer, put a line through the box ☒ and then mark your new answer with a cross ☒.

Number of unemployed persons, UK, as measured by the claimant count, thousands



(Source: https://tradingeconomics.com/united-kingdom/unemployed-persons)

(a) Calculate the percentage change in the number of UK unemployed persons between April and July 2018.

You are advised to show your working.

(2)

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(b) Explain **one** likely reason for the increase in the number of people unemployed in the UK over the time period shown.

(2)

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(c) Which **one** of the following types of unemployment is most likely to be caused by a technological change in an industry?

(1)

☒ **A** Cyclical

☒ **B** Real wage

☒ **C** Seasonal

☒ **D** Structural

(Total for question = 5 marks)

Q10.

The unemployment rate in Portugal decreased steadily from 17.5% in the first quarter of 2013 to 13.1% in the third quarter of 2014.

(a) **One** possible cause of this change in the unemployment rate is that over this period there was an increase in:

(1)

A immigration into Portugal

B aggregate demand in Portugal

C the size of Portugal's negative output gap

D the value of Portugal's trade deficit

Answer

(b) Explain the likely effect of this change in the unemployment rate on Portugal's budget deficit.

(4)

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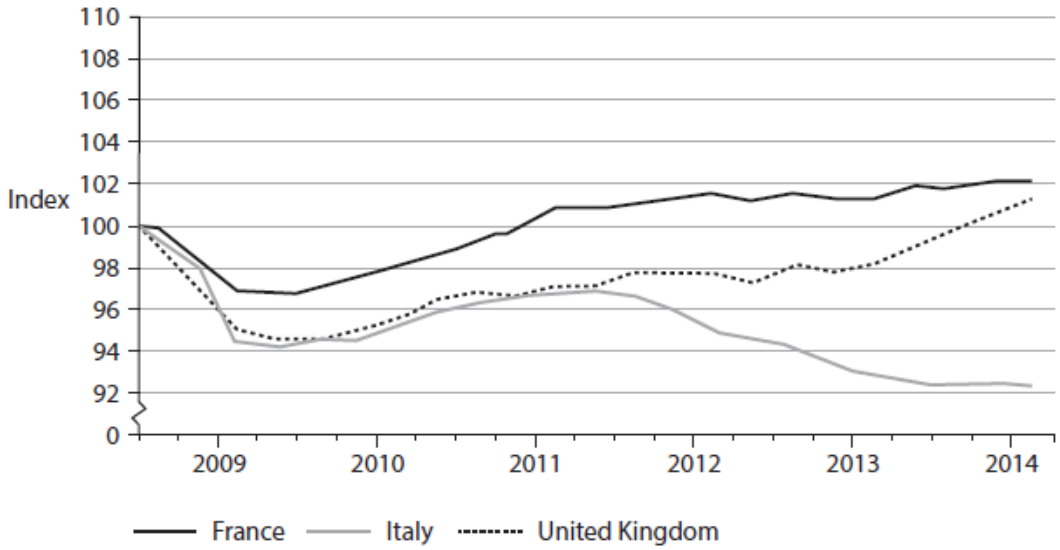
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(Total for question = 5 marks)

Questions

Q1.

Real GDP in selected economies (the base year 2008=100)



(Source: http://www.ons.gov.uk/ons/rel/elmr/gdp-and-the-labour-market/q1-2014--may-gdp-update/sty-gdp-g7-economies.html?format=print)

(a) Which **one** of the following can be inferred from the chart?

(1)

☒ **A** The UK's real GDP is smaller in 2014 than it was in 2008

☒ **B** Between 2008 and 2014 France's real GDP growth rate was higher than Italy's

☒ **C** Between 2008 and 2014 inflation was lower in France than in the UK

☒ **D** France experienced a greater fall in real GDP than the UK in 2014

(b) Define the term 'real GDP'.

(2)

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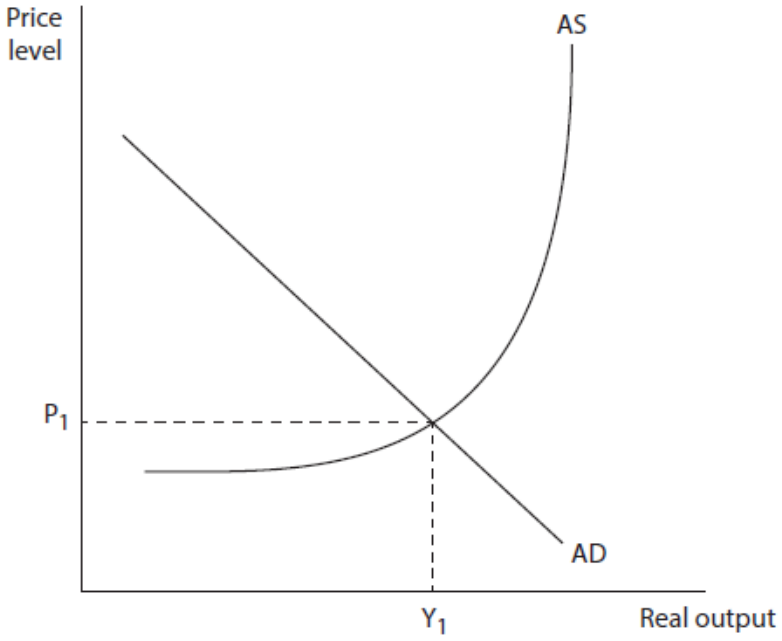
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(c) Illustrate a negative output gap on the diagram below.

(1)



(Total for question = 4 marks)

Q2.

The table below shows GDP per capita at purchasing power parities (PPPs) for a selection of European countries in 2013.

Country	GDP per capita (US$, at PPPs, 2013, rounded)
UK	38 500
Spain	33 000
Italy	35 500

(Source: http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/NY.GDP.PCAP.PP.CD)

(a) Define the term 'purchasing power parities'.

(2)

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(b) The Office for National Statistics estimates that the UK population was 64 million in 2013. Using the data, what was the UK's total GDP in 2013?

(1)

☒ **A** $2 464 000 million

☒ **B** $2 272 000 million

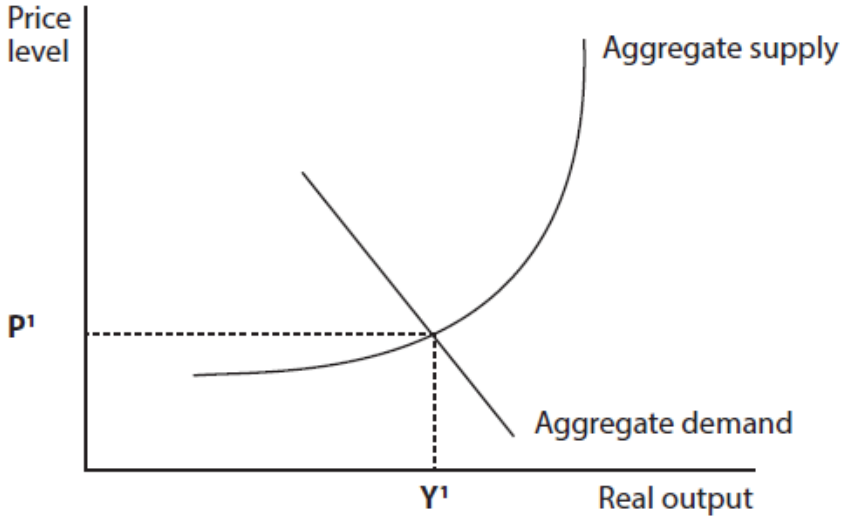
☒ **C** $1 662 000 million

☒ **D** $2 112 000 million

(c) Diagram A shows the aggregate demand and aggregate supply for a country. Illustrate actual economic growth on Diagram A.

(1)

Diagram A



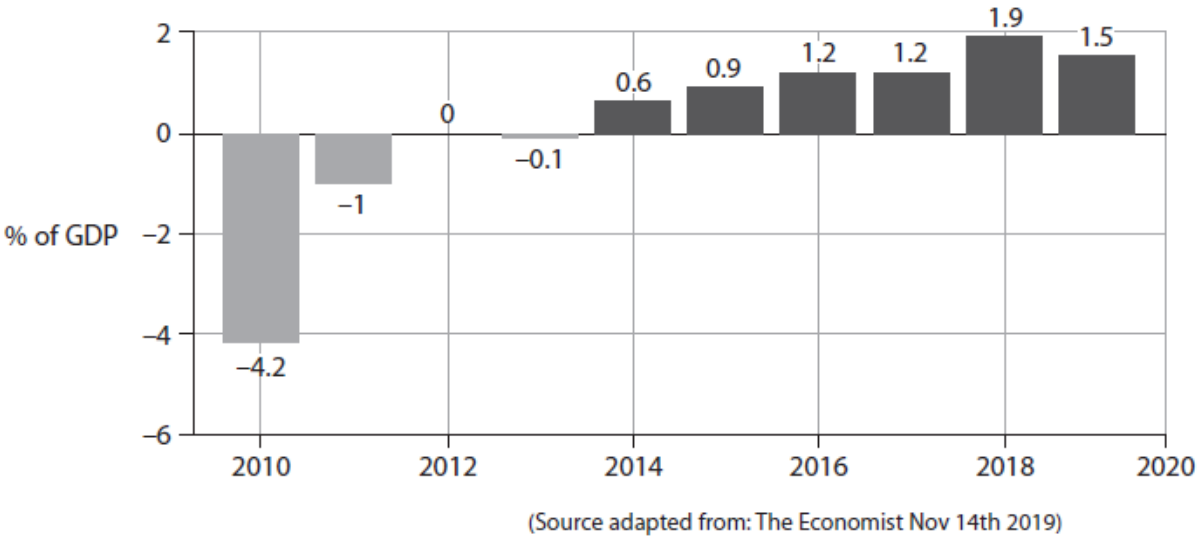
(Total for question = 4 marks)

Q3.

Read Figures 1 to 4 and extracts C and D before answering this question.

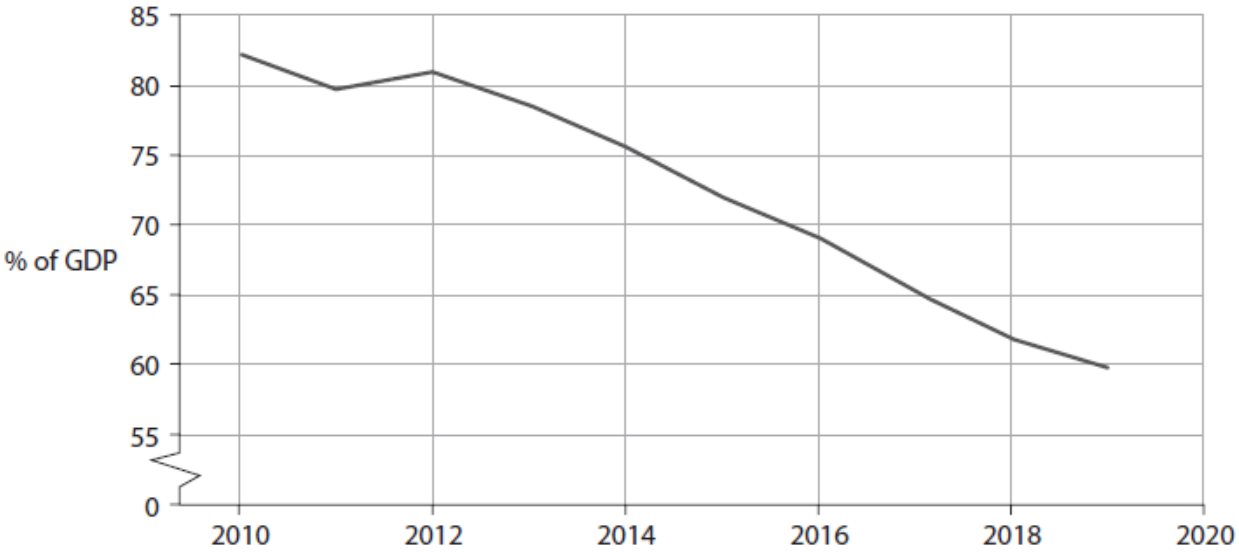
The German economy

Figure 1: German government budget balance, percentage of GDP, 2010 to 2019



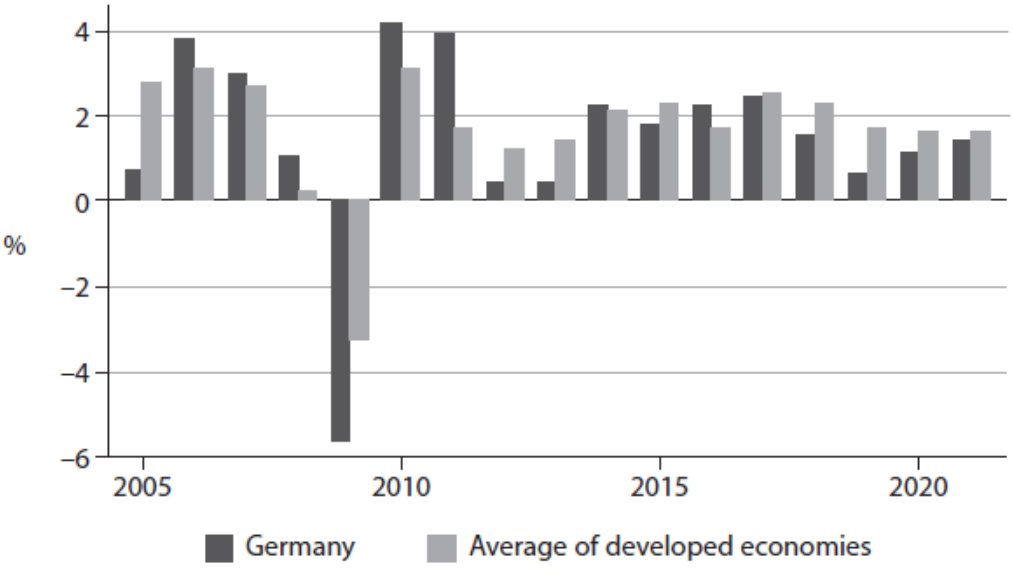
(Source adapted from: The Economist Nov 14th 2019)

Figure 2: German national debt, percentage of GDP, 2010 to 2019



(Source adapted from: The Economist Nov 14th 2019)

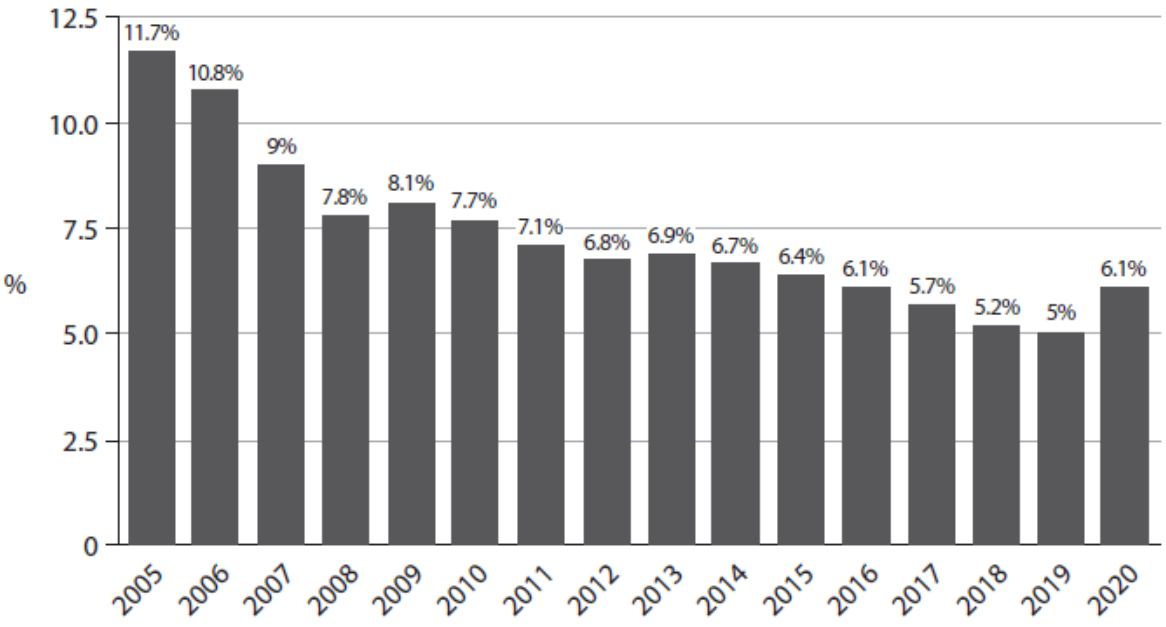
Figure 3: Annual percentage change in real GDP, Germany and average of developed economies, 2005 to 2021 (forecasted data for 2020 and 2021)



(Source adapted from: IMF and German Federal Statistical Office)

Figure 4: Unemployment rate in Germany, percentage of labour force, 2005 to 2020

(2020 figure is forecasted)



(Source adapted from: bundesagentur für arbeit.de and https://www.ft.com/content/5486b247-c73e-4887-a2b2-528b23e301a6)

Extract C

Why Germany keeps to budget rules despite a slowdown in growth

Germany's economic boom is over, as it has entered recession. During the last ten years of economic growth well over 4 million jobs were created.

The fear of recession has revived a debate in Germany: should the government spend more to stimulate growth? It is written into the German constitution that the fiscal deficit cannot be greater than 0.35% of GDP, once the effects of the economic cycle have been removed. Germany's budget has been in surplus since 2014 and the government is always reluctant to increase spending which would create a deficit. In 2018, aided by booming employment and low interest costs on existing debt, the budget ran to a surplus 1.9% of GDP.

Germany's main trading partners have long been angered by German fiscal policy. The French President criticised Germany's budget and current account surpluses that "always occur at the expense of others".

Large parts of Germany's infrastructure need significant investment. As the economy has slowed, a decision to run a balanced-budget policy has become harder to defend. In wealthy regions of Germany, crumbling schools have been closed for fear of collapse, and information and mobile technology on a wide scale needs to be modernised. The World Economic Forum reported that accessibility of fibre optic broadband also "remains the privilege of the few". However, private sector firms, such as major motor manufacturers, are still willing to invest in new technology and the profitability of some of these firms, in the long run, benefits as a result.

The state development bank puts Germany's investment shortfall at €138 billion (£120 billion). Arguments for a much more expansionary fiscal policy have failed to influence government policy. Big government programmes, such as a recent package to reduce Germany's carbon emissions, are only implemented when they satisfy fiscal rules.

(Source adapted from: The Economist Nov 14th 2019 and https://www.ft.com/content/3cec4908-d164-11e9-8367-807ebd53ab77 7th September 2019 and https://www.ft.com/content/198f072e-4e42-11ea-95a0-43d18ec715f5 and https://www.ft.com/content/d89d9404-c586-11e9-a8e9-296ca66511c9 and https://www.ft.com/content/8f87c03c-93dc-11e8-b67b-b8205561c3fe)

Extract D

Germany drops to number 7 in the Global Competitiveness Index

Despite being the largest economy in the European Union, Germany's competitiveness is declining, according to the World Economic Forum (WEF). Germany dropped four places in the WEF's Global Competitiveness Index, coming in as the seventh-most competitive economy. Out of the 103 indicators used in the report, Germany received lower scores in 53 areas in 2019.

(Source: https://www.dw.com/en/germany-falls-in-global-competitiveness-ranking/a-50745071 8 October 2019)

(a) Explain **one** reason why a country such as Germany wants to avoid an increase in the national debt relative to GDP (Figure 2).

(5)

(b) Examine **two** likely effects of the forecast change in the rate of unemployment between 2019 to 2020, on firms in Germany. Refer to Figure 4 in your answer.

(8)

(c) Discuss the likely impact of investment in new technology on the profitability of firms in Germany, as described in Extract C line 20. Use a cost and revenue diagram to support your answer.

(12)

EITHER

(d) Evaluate the microeconomic and macroeconomic factors which are likely to determine the rate of economic growth in Germany relative to other developed economies.

(25)

OR

(e) Evaluate the microeconomic and macroeconomic impacts of 'a much more expansionary fiscal policy' (Extract C line 23) on the German economy.

(25)

(Total for question = 50 marks)

Q4.

UK Consumer Prices Index (the base year 2005=100)

September 2013	126.8
September 2014	128.4
September 2015	128.2

(Source: http://www.ons.gov.uk/ons/publications/re-reference-tables.html?edition=tcm%3A77-323657)

(a) Calculate the percentage change in the UK Consumer Prices Index from September 2014 to September 2015. You are advised to show your working.

(2)

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(b) Define the term 'deflation'.

(1)

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(c) Which **one** of the following is most likely to be a cause of deflation? A fall in:

(1)

☒ **A** oil prices

☒ **B** unemployment

☒ **C** income tax rates

☒ **D** interest rates

(Total for question = 4 marks)

Q5.

Mozambique

Figure 2: Interest rates (bank rate of the central bank) and inflation rates of selected

African countries, 2017

Selected country	Central bank rate of interest	Inflation rate (CPI measure)
Congo (D.R.)	14%	13.8%
Ghana	21%	9.1%
Kenya	10%	10.1%
Malawi	18%	21.4%
Mozambique	**21.75%**	**18.0%**
Nigeria	14%	21.1%

(Source: official government websites, and other news sources, July 2017)

Extract D

Rising debt levels in Africa

Increases in national debt have brought several African governments towards a debt-servicing crisis when the repayment of debt and interest become unsustainable. Between 2010 and 2015, many sub-Saharan countries raised debt totalling more than £20 billion. Back then, with commodity prices soaring and foreign loans available at very low interest rates, everyone agreed that borrowing was the way to grow an economy with expansionary fiscal policy. Since 2015, some African governments – beneficiaries of big debt write-offs at the start of the century – have taken to private debt markets too eagerly, leaving them with heavy repayment schedules at a time of lower commodity prices.

Until recently, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) has played down African debt concerns, pointing to better management of public resources and greater transparency. But it was shaken by Mozambique's default on more than £2 billion of secret loans used to purchase a non-existent tuna-fishing fleet, raising fears of hidden debt in other African countries with similar levels of corruption. The median level of debt in sub-Saharan Africa had risen sharply from 34% of gross domestic product in 2013 to 48% in 2017. Although that is low by international standards, analysts said debt burdens were heavier than they appeared because of most African countries' low tax base. "The real thing to look for is debt to revenue, or debt-service as a percentage of government spending," said John Ashbourne, Africa Economist at Capital Economics. In several countries, he said, debt payments were above 20% of government revenue, with an opportunity cost in terms of government spending.

(Source: adapted from African debt worries intensify as levels near tipping point by David Pilling © Financial Times 2017 https://www.ft.com/content/939808dc-b4d8-11e7-a398-73d59db9e399)

Extract E

Mozambique's economic stability is being put to the test

The economy of Mozambique, which gained independence from Portugal in 1975, has continued to under-perform. Large-scale emigration, especially of skilled workers, economic dependence on South Africa, a severe drought, a prolonged civil war and political tensions have hindered the country's development. More than half of Mozambique's 26 million people continue to live below the poverty line.

GDP growth declined to 3.6% in 2016 due to fiscal tightening and a slowdown in foreign direct investment. A weak manufacturing sector employs just 3.2% of the population, and is made up of small enterprises (90%), many of which were set up with the aid of microfinance. Traditional export earnings dropped due to depressed global demand. In addition a wide-scale drought seriously affected agricultural production. Foreign currency inflows have weakened – as large-scale gas projects were put on hold, and 14 external lenders suspended direct budget support, as a lesson to be learned from the tuna-fleet scandal. The state budget deficit was 10.7% of GDP in 2017. High interest rates have reduced aggregate demand, and import costs added to inflation following further depreciation of Mozambique's currency, the *metical*, to a new low of 100 meticals to £1.

Mozambique needs urgently to improve its investment environment and confidence in its institutions. The World Economic Forum's global competitiveness ranking placed Mozambique 136 out of 137 countries.

Longer term, Mozambique's economic prospects are promising. There has been progress in talks on restoring international confidence in the government's running of the economy, leading to a lasting and sustainable agreement between rival political groups. The development of gas fields off Mozambique's coast discovered in 2011 is set to transform the economy, coming into production in the 2020s. A rise in coal and electricity exports should help growth to increase. But in the short term, it remains uncertain whether Mozambique can deliver badly needed economic stability.

(Source: adapted from http://www.africaneconomicoutlook.org/en/country-notes/mozambiqua and https://www.chathamhouse.org/expert/comment/mozambique-s-stability-being-put-test 6 October 2017 Dr Alex Vines OBE)

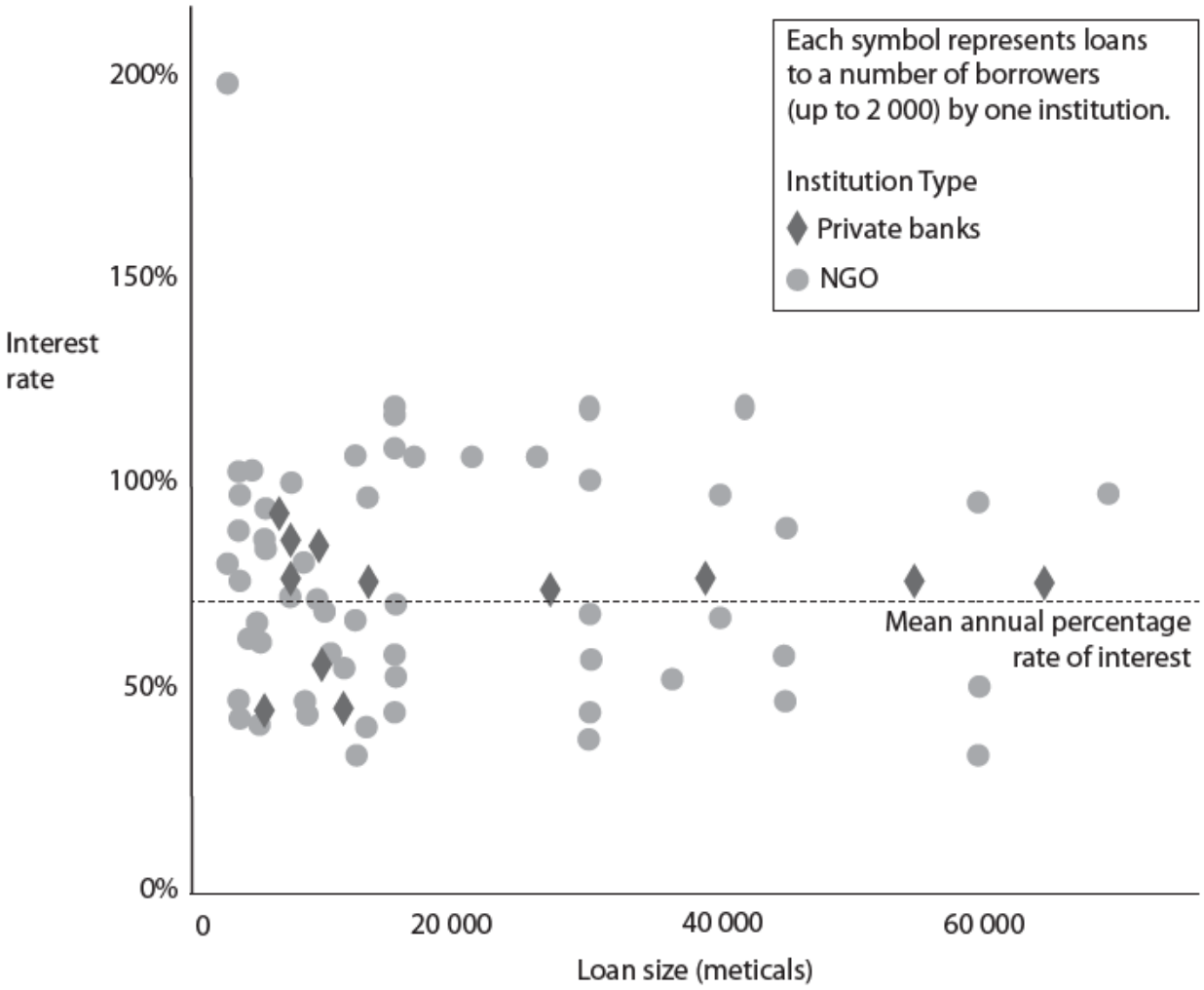
Extract F

Microfinance in Mozambique

Microfinance in Mozambique started in the late 1980s through projects initiated by international relief organisations. The sector has expanded to include many private banks and non-government organisations (NGOs), see Figure 3. This has resulted in wider use (over 100 000 borrowers) and many new business start-ups which could not have gained finance from any other source. Evidence suggests that there is unfulfilled demand for microfinance and a large potential for expansion.

(Source: adapted from http://www.mftransparency.org/microfinance-pricing/mozambique/)

Figure 3: The cost of microfinance loans in Mozambique, 2015



(Source: http://www.mftransparency.org/microfinance-pricing/mozambique/)

(a) With reference to Extract D line 21, explain why 'opportunity cost' is a problem for governments of developing countries when servicing debt.

(5)

(b) Examine **two** reasons, apart from access to finance, why 90% of the manufacturing sector in Mozambique 'is made up of small enterprises' (Extract E, line 9).

(8)

(c) Discuss whether borrowers benefit from microfinance. Make reference to Mozambique in your answer.

(12)

EITHER

(d) Evaluate the microeconomic and macroeconomic factors, apart from access to credit and banking, influencing growth and development in Mozambique.

(25)

OR

(e) Evaluate the likely microeconomic and macroeconomic effects of relatively high inflation rates in many African countries.

(25)

(Total for question = 50 marks)

Q6.

Some questions must be answered with a cross in a box (☒). If you change your mind about an answer, put a line through the box (☒) and then mark your new answer with a cross (☒).

Use the data to support your answers where relevant. You may annotate and include diagrams in your answers.

The table below shows the UK's nominal Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and population, 2016 to 2018.

Year	GDP (£ millions)	Population (millions)
2016	1 995 478	65.6
2017	2 033 234	66.0
2018	2 061 408	66.4

(Source: ONS, https://www.ons.gov.uk/)

(a) Define the term 'nominal'.

(1)

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(b) Using the above GDP data, which **one** of the following represents the index number for 2016, if 2017 is the base year?

(1)

☒ **A** 96.8

☒ **B** 98.1

☒ **C** 101.9

☒ **D** 103.3

(c) Calculate the UK's nominal GDP per capita in 2018. You are advised to show your working.

(2)

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(Total for question = 4 marks)

Q7.

The British pound fell by over 10% to a 30-year low against the US dollar after the UK voted to leave the European Union.

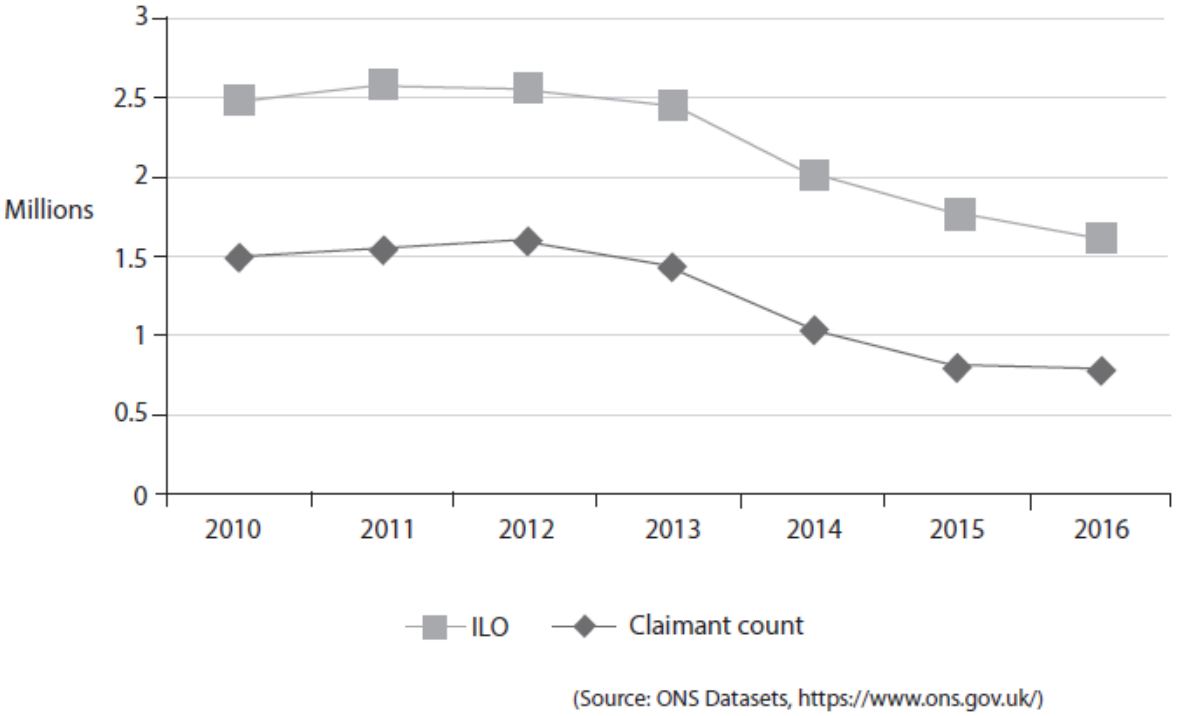
To what extent will this depreciation impact on future economic growth in the UK?

(Total for question = 25 marks)

Q8.

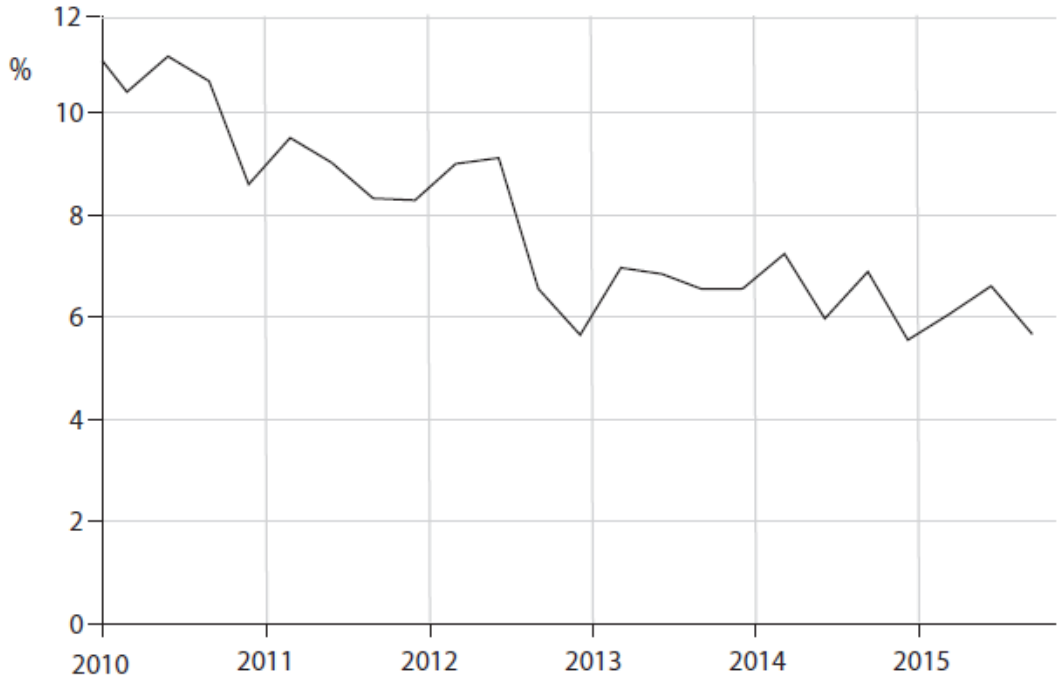
The UK economy

Figure 1: Unemployment – International Labour Organisation (ILO) and the claimant count, millions, 2010–2016



(Source: ONS Datasets, https://www.ons.gov.uk/)

Figure 2: Household savings*, 2010–2015



* Savings as a percentage of household disposable income

(Source: http://www.tradingeconomics.com/united-kingdom/personal-savings)

Figure 3: UK average house prices, 2005–2016



(Source: http://www.telegraph.co.uk/property/house-prices/the-state-of-the-uk-housing-market-in-five-charts/)

Extract A

Soaring house prices

House prices are still rising rapidly. The average UK house price was £214 000 in June 2016, according to the Office for National Statistics (ONS). This is £24 000 more than it was at its peak in September 2007, just before the economic downturn. First-time buyers have experienced the largest rise in house prices.

Even the loss of consumer confidence over Britain's vote to leave the EU did not stop house prices from rising – annual growth increased from 5.2% in July 2016 to 5.6% in August 2016. House price growth was the strongest in London, with annual average prices rising by 9.6%. However, in Wales average house prices actually fell by 0.5% during the same period. In its first post-Brexit referendum forecast, estate agency Countrywide said that house prices will fall by 1% across the UK in 2017, before rising by 2% in 2018.

Real household income in the UK fell by 10.4% in the years following the financial crisis. This increased the difference between real income and house prices. In 1997, a house cost little more than twice the average income. By early 2015, the average price of a house was five times the average annual income.

The rate of home ownership for 25 to 34-year-olds has fallen to 35.8% over the last twenty-five years as houses became less affordable. First-time buyers have to wait longer to save up for a house deposit. Conversely, home ownership has risen to 78.6% among those aged 65 to 74.

(Source: adapted from 'The state of the UK housing market in five charts', The Telegraph, http://www.telegraph.co.uk/property/house-prices/the-state-of-the-uk-housing-market-in-five-charts/; 'UK house price growth slows as demand cools after Brexit vote', The Guardian, https://www.theguardian.com/business/2016/sep/30/uk-house-price-growth-slows-demand-cools-brexit-vote-nationwide)

Extract B

UK migration trends in the year ending June 2016

Inward migration levels are among the highest ever recorded with an estimated 650 000 people moving to the UK. This is an increase of around 11 000 from the previous year.

Employment remains the most common reason for long-term migration (312 000) to the UK, with around 182 000 of these coming with a definite job and 130 000 looking for work.

Long-term migration to the UK for study was estimated to be 163 000. In addition, 80 000 long-term migrants arrived in the UK to accompany their families. There were 41 280 refugees applying for asylum, including dependants, of which 10 547 people were granted asylum. Asylum applicants cannot usually accept offers of employment while their case is being processed.

(Source: adapted from 'Migration Statistics Quarterly Report: December 2016', ONS, https://www.ons.gov.uk/peoplepopulationandcommunity/populationandmigration/internationalmigration/bulletins/migrationstatisticsquarterlyreport/dec2016)

(a) With reference to Figure 1, explain one reason why the claimant count and the ILO measure of unemployment differ.

(4)

(b) With reference to Extract A, assess the likely macroeconomic effects of an increase in house prices. Use an aggregate demand and aggregate supply diagram in your answer.

(10)

(c) With reference to the information provided, explain **one** likely factor, other than changes in house prices, that could influence the level of savings of UK households.

(5)

(d) Explain **two** factors that might cause a rise in the value of the multiplier.

(6)

(e) With reference to Extract B and Figure 1, discuss the likely impact of migration on employment **and** unemployment in the UK.

(15)

EITHER

(f) Evaluate government policies, apart from migration policies, that could be used to increase the employment rate in the UK.

(20)

OR

(g) Evaluate the likely impact of high inflation on the UK government's macroeconomic objectives.

(20)

(Total for question = 60 marks)

Q9.

Read extracts A and B before answering this question.

Hand car wash (HCW) firms in the UK

Extract A

What is the true human cost of your £5 hand car wash (HCW)?

The UK's hand car washes (HCWs) are extremely price competitive, but they have also been linked to modern slavery. Are they ever fair for workers?

There is little agreement about how many HCWs there are in the UK. Estimates range from 10 000 to 20 000. This lack of accurate information about the industry makes government regulation very difficult. Automated car washes, with their fierce rotating bristles, used to be the first option for drivers in a hurry. Now there is more choice. While the economy slows and incomes fail to keep up with inflation, demand for HCWs has grown. Many people see paying £5 for a car washed by someone else, rather than cleaning it at home, as a small expense which yields a high utility. But what is the true cost of a £5 car wash – and what should we be paying?

The growth of HCWs is partly the result of changes in the structure of industry in the UK. Many petrol stations have closed as drivers fill up at supermarkets. Garages and their forecourts have closed as cars become more reliable and locked into service agreements. The available sites for HCWs have therefore increased significantly and rents have fallen.

HCW entrepreneurs have identified available land and have benefitted from changes in the labour market, partly as a result of EU migration. UK drivers are now able to obtain cheap and effective hand car washing. For many migrants, car washes are a first job. "They accept car washing for a short period while they improve their language skills and move into other industries," says Ian Clark, a professor of work and employment at Nottingham Business School. "But there are also car-wash workers without networks who are in a dead end, working there for long periods."

Many drivers are only interested in getting the cheapest wash. If the price is very low, it probably means that workers are receiving less than the minimum wage and working in poor conditions. Crude calculations illustrate the problem. A £5 HCW employing five workers for 10 hours a day would need to wash 79 cars a day to just cover the wage costs. This assumes the workers are paid the minimum wage. This is one car every seven and a half minutes. Even if the profit can be higher on valet services, the price of which can be as little as £12 for a full inside-and-out clean, it's hard to see how a car wash price as low as £5 pays a living wage. This ignores all other costs which HCWs incur such as business rates and rent.

Evidence from car-wash workers is limited but Clark and others have been able to build a picture of some of the tougher conditions on drenched forecourts. "Like nail bars and small garment manufacturers, car washes are what we call 'hard-to-reach places,'" Clark explains. As part of the research, Clark and his team spoke to workers from 45 HCWs in the Midlands.

Clark and his team met and observed workers who lacked waterproof boots or trousers, or hi-vis jackets and gloves. "They're spraying around hydrochloric acid solution for alloy wheels, breathing in the vapour and fumes," Clark says. Some workers were paid a little over half the minimum wage.

(Source adapted from: https://www.theguardian.com/world/2018/jul/16/true-human-cost-5-pound-hand-car-wash-modern-slavery)

Extract B

Government intervention in the HCW industry

There are three main areas of government intervention that might impact on labour intensive firms such as HCWs:

First, there is the planning issue which focuses on the impact on the environment, for example, the disposal and recycling of waste water and chemicals. There could be planning regulations to prevent the use of tarmac rather than concrete on forecourts. Tarmac allows waste water and chemicals to seep into the sub soil. It could also be a requirement to have a sludge trap to stop the waste entering waterways.

Second, there is the health and safety issue for workers. Prolonged exposure to chemicals and lack of protective clothing puts the health of workers at risk. Performance targets could involve minimum levels of protective clothing and rest breaks for the workers.

Third, there is the issue of tax. The informal nature of the business type makes tax evasion easier.

Not all UK HCWs violate regulations. There are legitimate, regulated HCW firms as well as examples of good practice by independent outlets. One national supermarket, Tesco, has banned all independent hand car washes from its car parks. It is now in a partnership agreement with national car wash operator Waves. It uses a WashMark certificate of quality and compliance which was introduced by the industry to improve working conditions. Other major supermarkets are considering similar changes. One adviser believes £9 is a reasonable minimum price for a basic wash. Some pressure groups have developed a mobile phone app where evidence of unreasonable conditions can be reported by drivers.

Involving drivers in the issue, and making them demand fairer car washes, creates an incentive for good businesses to improve practices and come forward to get a WashMark certificate.

(Source adapted from: https://www.parliament.uk/documents/commons-committees/environmental-audit/Hand-Car-Wash-evidence.pdf research into HCWs by Professor Ian Clark, Nottingham Business School May 2018)

(a) Using the information provided, explain the market structure that best describes the hand car wash (HCW) industry in the UK.

(5)

(b) Examine **two** reasons why the demand for HCWs increases during a period when consumer 'incomes fail to keep up with inflation' (Extract A line 8).

(8)

(c) Discuss the likely effects of changes in the level of migration on firms such as HCWs in the UK. Use a labour market diagram and the information provided to support your answer.

(12)

EITHER

(d) Evaluate the microeconomic and macroeconomic factors which determine the number of firms in an industry. Refer to HCWs or another industry of your choice.

(25)

OR

(e) Evaluate the microeconomic and macroeconomic effects of increased government intervention in an industry. Refer to HCWs or another industry of your choice.

(25)

(Total for question = 50 marks)

Q10.

The chart below shows the annual percentage change in average weekly nominal earnings and the inflation rate in the UK as measured by changes in the CPI from March 2004 to March 2014.

Annual percentage change in average weekly nominal earnings and inflation rate (CPI), March 2004 to March 2014



(Source: ONS)

(a) Which **one** of the following can be inferred from the chart?

(1)

A Throughout the period shown, average weekly nominal earnings have risen.

B From March 2004 to March 2008, average weekly real earnings were falling.

C Throughout the period shown, average weekly real earnings have risen.

D From April 2010 to December 2013, average weekly real earnings were falling.

Answer

(b) Explain the likely effect of a decrease in average weekly real earnings on the equilibrium level of real national output in the UK. Include an aggregate demand and aggregate supply diagram in your answer.

(4)

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(Total for question = 5 marks)