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UPDATED TO 2022 SYLLABUS

CAIE AS LEVEL
ECONOMICS
(9708)

SUMMARIZED NOTES ON THE THEORY SYLLABUS

1. Basic Economic Ideas and Resource Allocation

1.1. Scarcity, Choice & Opportunity Cost

- **The fundamental economic problem:** of scarcity arises due to unlimited human wants of consumption exceeding finite economic resources for production.
- **Consumption:** is process by which consumers satisfy their wants.
- **Production:** is process of creating goods and services in an economy
- **Economic goods** – these are goods which require resources to be produced and obtained and therefore have an opportunity cost. Allocative mechanism will be used to allocate such goods. Ex. cars.
- **Free goods** – these are goods which do not require any resources to be produced and obtained and therefore are abundant and have no opportunity cost. Ex. sunlight.
- **Ceteris paribus** is a Latin word meaning 'all other things being equal'
- Needs are necessary, wants are not.
 - Thus, choices have to be made at all levels
- Consumers – maximum satisfaction.
- Producers – maximum profit.
- Governments – maximum benefits.
- **Choice:** is the need to make decision about the possible alternative uses of scarce resources due to scarcity. It gives rise to the concept of opportunity cost and the 3 basic economic problems.
- **Opportunity cost:** is the cost of choosing something in terms of the benefit derived from the best alternative forgone.
- **Economic resources/factors of production:** are inputs available for production of goods and services.

1.2. Positive and Normative Statements

Statement	Basis	Type
Positive	Facts	Objective
Normative	Value judgments	Subjective

Value judgments: reflect particular beliefs, while facts: are evident to all.

1.3. Factors of Production

Factor	Definition	Reward
Land	Natural resources	Rent
Labour	Physical and mental human effort	Wage
Capital	Man-made resources	Interest

Factor	Definition	Reward
Enterprise	Production organization, risk-bearing	Profit

1.4. Resource Allocation in Different Economic Systems & Issues of Transition

- Different economic systems answer the 3 basic economic questions differently.
 - Note, that mixed economics try to gain advantages and avoid disadvantages of both market and planned economies.

Question	Market economy	Planned economy
What to produce	Price mechanism	Cost-benefit analysis
How to produce	Least cost combination	Directives to SOEs
For whom to produce	Purchasing power	Vulnerable groups

Comparison between market & planned economies:

Feature	Market economy	Planned economy
Ownership	Private	State
Decision	Consumers	Governments
Mechanism	Price mechanism	Directives to SOEs
Key sector	Private	Public
Public goods	Absent	Present
Profit motive	Present	Absent
Other names	Free enterprise, private enterprise, <i>laissez faire</i>	Central, collectivist, state-owned.
Examples	USA	North Korea

- Note that in reality, all economic systems are mixed.
- SOE: State-owned enterprise.

Market economy	Disadvantages
Advantages	Information failure
Efficiency	Public goods not provided
Consumer sovereignty	Merit goods under-consumed
	Demerit goods over-consumed
Quick response	Negative externalities
	Unemployment of resources
Profit incentive	Factor immobility
	Market power abuse

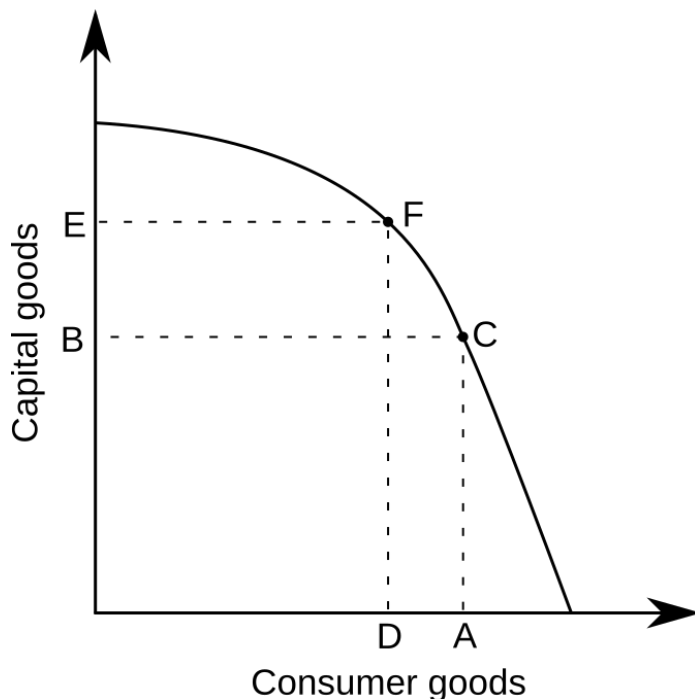
Market economy	
Maximizes producer and consumer surplus	Advertising distortion
	Too much consumer goods
Government freedom	Poor lack purchasing power
	Inflation

Planned economy	
Advantages	Disadvantages
Provision of public goods	No incentives
Merit goods encouraged	Low production
Demerit goods discouraged	Low competition, low efficiency
Full cost-benefit analysis	Bureaucracy
Full employment	Unresponsive
Wasteful duplication avoided	Too much of capital goods
Vulnerable groups protected	Lack of consumer sovereignty

- **Transitional economy:** is one which is in process of changing from a planned economy to a mixed economy where market forces have greater importance.
- **Issues of transition:**
 - Inflation.
 - Industrial unrest.
 - Fall in output.
 - Unemployment.
 - Balance of payments' deficit.
 - Reduction in welfare services.

1.5. Production Possibility Curves

Production possibility curve: is one which joins together the different combinations of products that can be produced in an economy, over a period of time, given existing resources and technology.



- It is also known as production transformation frontier, boundary or a production transformation curve. It demonstrates the ideas of choice, trade-offs and opportunity cost.
- Point inside curve indicates unemployment and point on curve shows full employment. This is productive efficiency.
- Point shifting occurs owing to allocative efficiency.
- Production point shifting from C to F requires a reallocation of resources to capital goods and factor mobility determines the speed of this. This would act as an investment, shifting the PPC to the right. This indicates economic growth.
- **Factor mobility:** is extent of reallocation of resources or ease of moving factors of production.
- **Investment:** is expenditure of capital goods, both fixed and working.
- **Economic growth:** is an expansion in the productive capacity in an economy. (Lowering of long-run average cost, i.e., LRAC ensures this.)
- **Other causes of PPC shifting right:**
 - New resources.
 - Increased labour supply.
 - Improvements in human capital.
 - Improved resource management.
 - Privatisation.
- **Straight** PP line indicates constant opportunity cost which is next to impossible.
- **Curved** PP line indicates increasing opportunity cost which occurs when the extra production of one good involves ever-increasing sacrifices of another as less suitable economic measures have to be diverted into the production of the former, increasing marginal cost and decreasing productivity.

1.6. Money

- **Money:** is anything which is universally acceptable as a means of payment for goods and services. Most money, except coins is 'legal tender' for settlement of debt.
- **Functions:**
 - Medium of exchange.
 - Measure of value.
 - Standard for deferred payment.
 - Store of value.
- **Characteristics:**

Acceptability.	Scarcity.
Divisibility.	Stability of supply and value.
Portability.	Recognizable.
Durability.	Uniformity.

- **Advantages over barter:**
 - Avoids double coincidence of wants.
 - Permits evaluation.
 - Enables giving change.
 - Eases saving.
- **Barter:** is the direct exchange of one product for another. It was used before money.

Cash + Bank deposits = Money

- **Cash:** includes the notes and coins in an economy. It is the most liquid form of asset.
- **Bank deposits:** are money held in accounts with a financial institution, e.g. bank, building, society, etc.
- **Liquidity:** refers to the extent and ease of converting a non-cash asset into cash.
- **Near money:** or 'quasi-money' are non-cash assets that can be quickly and easily converted into cash.
- **Cheques:** are written instruction to a financial institution to pay an amount of money from an account. So, they are means of payment through bank deposits, not money.

1.7. Classification of Goods & Services

Good	Opportunity cost & scarcity	Rivalry	Excludability	Free-rider	Rejectability
Free	X	X	X	✓	X
Economic/ Private	✓	✓	✓	X	✓
Public	✓	X	X	✓	X

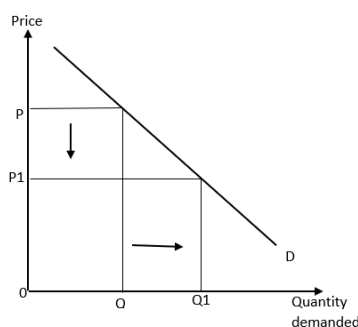
2. The Price System & the Micro Economy

2.1. Price mechanism

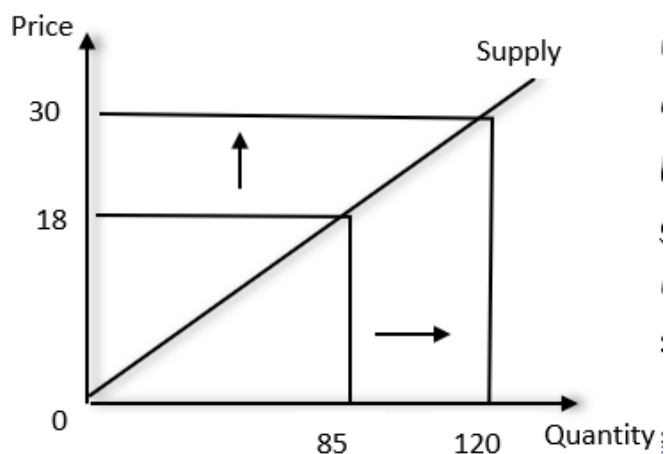
- It is the means through which scarce resources (factors of production) are allocated in a market economy.
- Signaling – prices act as a signal to both producers and consumers. Ex. if there is excess demand for a product due to a fall in quantity, this indicates to the producer that they must supply more of the product in the market. In turn, if consumers withhold their demand, it signals to the producers that they must lower price and in turn produce less.
- Rationing – if a producer wants to retain exclusivity for their product, they may limit the supply of the product in the market, thereby driving its price up and in turn restricting its demand.
- Transmission of preferences – this means that if consumers do not buy a particular product because they don't like it, or it is not priced to their liking, then this message is transmitted back to the producer.

2.2. Demand and supply

- **Demand/supply:** is the quantity of a product that consumers/producers are willing and able to buy/sell at various prices per period time, ceteris paribus.
- **Note** that demand & supply are also referred as market forces or the invisible hand.
- **Laws of demand:** Rise in price, fall in demand and vice versa
- **Laws of supply:** Rise in price, rise in supply and vice versa
- **Schedules:** lists these relations while **curves:** graphically represent them.
- **Notional demand/supply:** isn't backed up by ability to pay/sell but effective demand/supply is.
- **Individual:** refers to a certain producer/consumer in the market: which is an arrangement for buyers and sellers to trade.
- Products in joint demand/supply: are produced/consumed together.
- Products in alternative demand/supply: are those whose consumption/production reduces need/availability of the other.
- Multi-purpose products have composite demand.
- Products which help in producing other product have a demand **derived** from the product produced.
- **Note:** As income rises, demand of **normal** goods rises, **inferior** good falls.



This is a demand curve. It is downwards sloping as it depicts the inverse relation between demand and price. When price rises, demand falls and vice versa. In the figure, as price fell from P-P1, quantity demanded rose from Q-Q1.



- Contractions/Extensions of demand/supply: are movement along curves due to changes in price, while:
- Shifts of demand/supply: are movements of the whole curve due to changes in conditions.
- Their effects on equilibrium price, quantity and revenue will depend on degree of shifting and price elasticity of other curve.

Demand conditions	Supply conditions
Disposable income	Costs of production
Price of related products	Price of related products.
Taste and fashion	Climate & technology
Population structure	Government regulations
Price speculation	Availability of resources
Income distribution	Taxes and subsidies
Taxes and subsidies	Competitor actions

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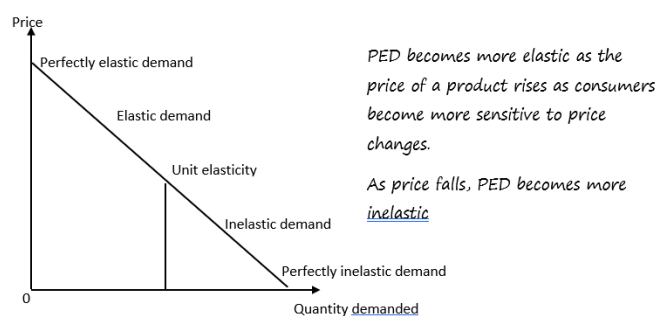
2.3. Price Elasticity, Income Elasticity & Cross-Elasticities of Demand, and Price Elasticity of Supply

- **Elasticity:** is responsiveness of quantity demanded/supplied to a change in price, income or prices of related products.
- **Note:** It is a numerical measure of the inverse of the gradient, so lower elasticity gives steeper curve.
- **Limitations of elasticities:**
 - Irrelevant and unreliable data
 - Unrealistic assumptions
 - Omission of Total Cost
 - Omission of Production Capacity

Elastic	>1	Perfectly elastic	∞	Horizontal line
Inelastic	<1	Perfectly inelastic	0	Vertical line

Unitary =1;	Such PED gives rectangular hyperbola, i.e. change in demand/supply doesn't affect revenue.
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PED = % change in QD / % change in P	(-)ve; used to inspect revenue and tax effects.	
PES = % change in QS / % change in P	(+)ve; indicates allocative efficiency and need to expand.	
YED = % change in QD / % change in income	(+)ve - normal good	(-)ve - inferior good
XED = % change in QD / % change in P (another)	(+)ve - substitutes	(-)ve - complements

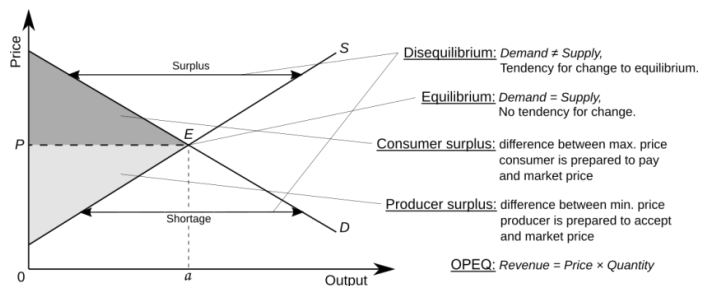


PED conditions	PES conditions
Time period	Time period
No. Of substitutes	Availability of resources
Degree of necessity	Spare capacity/stocks
Durability	No. of firms in market
Proportion of income	Allocative efficiency of factors

2.4. Interaction of Demand & Supply, Market Equilibrium & Disequilibrium, and Consumer & Producer Surplus

Prices:

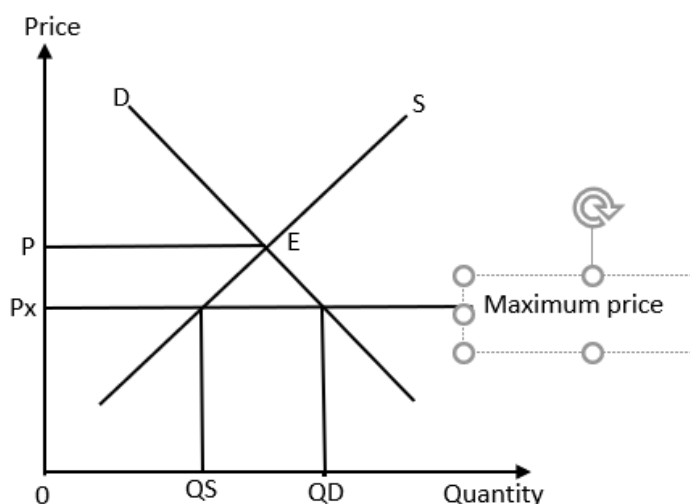
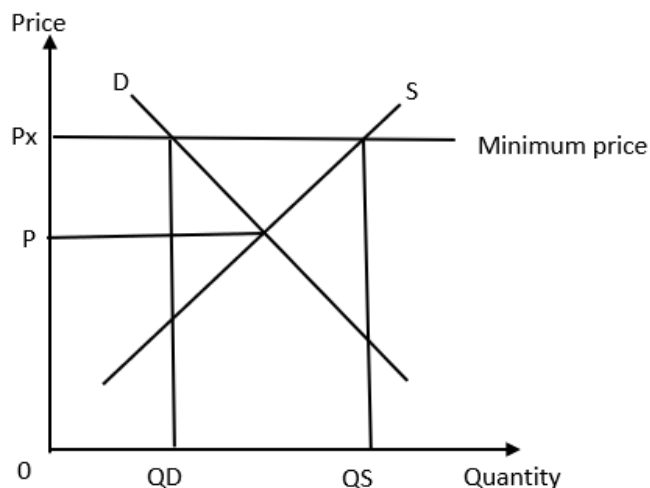
- Signal surpluses/shortages.
- Ration resources to uses.
- Transmit preferences by encouraging producers to produce according to consumer demand.



3. Government Microeconomic Intervention

3.1. Maximum and Minimum Prices

MAXIMUM PRICES	MINIMUM PRICES
Max. price control: is where a price ceiling is established below equilibrium price, creating a shortage.	Min. price control: is where a price floor is established above equilibrium price, creating a surplus.
Cheap essentials	Demerit goods
Rent control	Proper wages
Restriction of fares	Import reduction
More affordable to the poor	PED dependent
Queueing	Unemployment
Corruption	Smuggling
Black market	Inefficiencies



3.2. Taxes, Subsidies and Transfer Payment

Fiscal measure	Levied on/ Given to	Shift	Burden/Benefit
Direct tax	Income	D ←	Consumer
Indirect tax	Expenditure	S ←	Elastic demand - producer & converse
Subsidy	Consumer	D →	Consumer
Subsidy	Producer	S →	Inelastic demand - consumer & converse

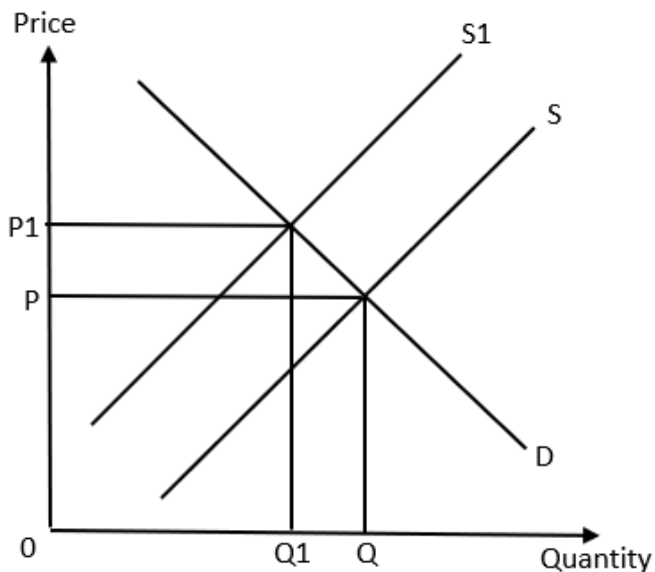
Note: Specific measures cause parallel shift, *ad valorem* ones non-parallel.

Direct tax	Disadvantages
Advantages	May discourage:
Economic stability	Saving
Progressive	Effort
Certain & convenient	

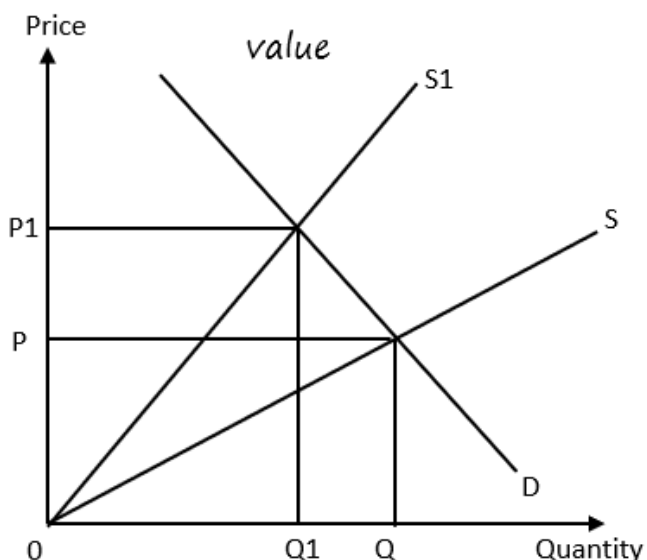
Indirect tax	
Redistribute income	Risk-taking
Economic stability	Regressive
May not discourage effort	Inflationary
Difficult to evade	Reduce consumer surplus
Can be adjusted quickly	Move demand abroad
Discourage imports	Distort choice
Discourage demerit goods	Effect depends of PED

Aims of taxes	Canons of taxes
Demerit goods	Cost
Income distribution	Efficiency
Release resources	Equity
Discourage imports	Transparency
Demand/supply management	Convenience

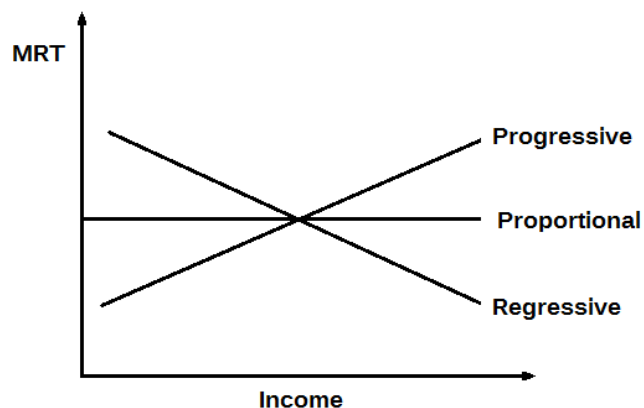
- **Impact of tax:** refers to unit on which a tax is levied.
- **Incidence of tax:** refers to burden of taxation.
- **Specific tax:** is paid in fixed amount.



- **Ad valorem tax:** on consumption, is paid as percentage of value of product.



- **Average rate of tax:** is the average percentage of total income that is paid in taxes.
- **Marginal rate:** is the proportion of additional income that is taken in income tax.
- **Marginal rate of taxation:** is the addition to tax paid out of change in income.



- **Transfer payment:** is a govt. provided benefit to poor units, without protective effort; so funds shift from taxpayers to recipients.
- **Means-tested benefit:** is paid to units whose income is below a level.
- **Universal benefit:** is paid to units without income reference.
- **Poverty-trap:** is a situation in which an individual has work-disincentive, as additional income will be taken away as taxes & lost benefits.
- **Negative income-tax:** is a system which brings together payment of tax and receipt of benefits thus, making markets more flexible by removing poverty-traps.

3.3. Direct Provision of Goods & Services

- Certain goods and services that ought to benefit the public are under-provided, or under-consumed in the economy.
- Direct provision of goods and services in the form of merit and public goods are a solution to this issue.

3.4. Nationalisation & Privatisation

- **Nationalisation:** is a process whereby private sector firms become part of the public sector of economy, with state involved in direct provision of goods and services.
- **The converse is: Privatization:** which is achieved by sale of assets, deregulation, outsourcing & franchising.

Nationalisation	
Advantages	Disadvantages
Economies of scale	Inefficient
Reduce income inequality	Non-competitive
Private monopoly prevented	Political-mileage
Avoids wasteful duplication	SOE monopoly
CBA involved	Limited scope for increase in long term investment

Privatisation	

Privatisation	
Advantages	Disadvantages
Economic efficiency	Private monopoly
Government revenue	One off income generated
Growth by investment	Regulations needed
Lower price	Unemployment
Enterprise encouraged	Wasteful duplication

- **Government failure:** occurs when government intervention reduces economic performance rather than increasing, thus failing to correct market failure, due to:
 - Imperfect information
 - Policy conflicts
 - Political mileage
 - Corruption

4. The Macro Economy

4.1. Aggregate Demand & Aggregate Supply Analysis

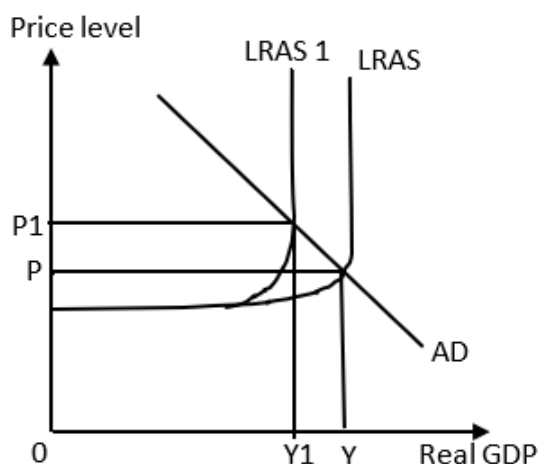
- **Macroeconomy:** is the economy as a whole.
- **Aggregate demand (AD):** is the total spending on an economy's goods and services, at a given price level in a given time period.
 - Total spending in an economy in a certain time period
 - In consists of Consumption, Investment, Government spending and Net Exports (C+I+G+(X-M))
 - Consumption – spending by households and other consumers. Depends on income levels, interest rates, tax rates, etc. A major part of AD.
 - Investment – expenditure made by firms in terms of capital equipment. Depends mostly on profits and interest rate, corporation tax rates, etc
 - Government spending – total spending by the government on both consumer and capital goods. Depends on tax revenue collected.
 - Net exports – exports minus imports. Depends on inflation rates domestically and abroad, exchange rates, etc
- **Aggregate supply (AS)** is the total output produced in an economy within a given time period.
 - Shifts in the LRAS curve
 - AS, in the long run may increase due to:
 - Increase in quantity of resources:
 - Net immigration
 - Increase in retirement age
 - More women entering the labour force
 - Net investment
 - Discovery of new resources
 - Land reclamation
 - Increase in quality of resources:
 - Improved education and training
 - Advances in technology

4.2. Inflation

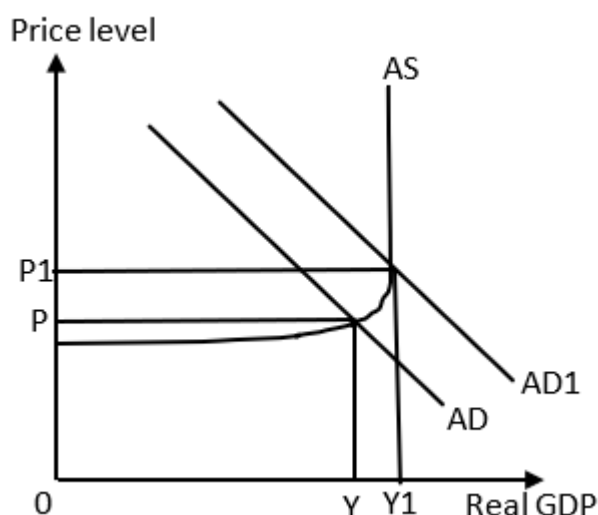
- **Inflation:** is a sustained increase in general price levels in an economy over a given time period, causing a fall in purchasing power of a currency.
- **Creeping inflation:** has a low rate.
- **Hyper-inflation:** has an exceptionally high rate of inflation, which may result in people losing confidence in currency.
- **Inflation rate can be measured by (CPI) or (RPI):**
 - Selecting a **stable base year** for comparison.
 - Carrying out **surveys** to find spending patterns.
 - Attaching **weights** to products to indicate relative importance.
 - Finding out **price changes**.
 - Multiplying **weights by price changes**.
- **Deflation:** is a sustained decrease in general price levels in an economy over a given time period, causing a rise in purchasing power of a currency.
- **Disinflation:** is a fall in the inflation rate.

Causes	Inflation	Deflation
Good	AD ↑	AS ↑
Bad	AS ↓	AD ↓

- **Money values:** are of prices operating at the time.
- **Real values:** are adjusted for inflation.
- Real values = nominal values * price index of base year (100)/price index of current year
- **Menu costs:** are incurred by firms for having to change prices.
- **Shoe-leather costs:** are incurred by firms moving money for high-interest.
- **Fiscal drag:** is pushing of income into **higher tax brackets** by inflation.
- **Inflationary noise:** is confusion over relative prices.
- **Causes of inflation:**
- **Cost-push inflation:** is caused by increases in costs of production decreasing aggregate supply, e.g.
 - Wages rising by more than productivity.
 - Raw material costs rising (**especially imported ones**).
 - Increase in indirect/corporate taxes.
 - Rise in profit margins.



- **Demand-pull inflation:** is caused by increase in aggregate demand unmatched by equivalent rise in aggregate supply, e.g.
 - Consumer boom.
 - Money supply growing faster than output (**monetarist**)
 - Growing budget deficit.
 - Increase in net exports.



Consequences of disequilibrium	
Domestic	External
Change in money supply	Change in exchange rate both appreciation & depreciation naturally and artificial devaluation & evaluation.
Confidence & FDI levels change, leading to changes in AD, employment, growth etc	Government pressured to change protectionist measures.
Changes in standard of living owing to different access of imports.	
Change in government policies	

Disadvantages	Advantages
• Reduction in net exports.	Stimulate output
Unplanned redistribution of income	Reduce burden of debt
Fiscal-drag	Prevent some unemployment
Inflationary noise	Factors effecting extent of consequences
Investment discouragement	Cause of inflation
Unemployment	Rate of inflation
Cost-wage spiral	Stability
Menu costs	Expectancy
Shoe leather costs	Comparability

4.3. Balance of Payments

- **Balance of payments:** is a record of a country's economic transactions with the rest of the world over a year. It consists of:

Current account:	Financial account:
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Visible trade in goods • Invisible trade in services • Income, e.g. profits, interest • Current transfers (no exchange involved) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Direct investment • Portfolio investment • Reserve assets • Other investment
Capital account:	Balancing item:
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Capital transfers • Nonfinancial assets 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Net errors and omissions
Note:	Money into country, credit (+) items, e.g. export.
	Money out of country, debit (-) items, e.g. import.

* Financial account: * Hot money flows * Lack of business confidence * Balancing item: * Imperfect information * Smuggling, black market

4.4. Exchange Rates

- Factors determining exchange rate:
 - Balance of payments disequilibrium – Deficit causes reduction.
 - Inflation rate – High rate reduces confidence, hence demand.
 - Foreign direct investment – Inflows increase rate.
 - Speculation – Acts in a way to aggravate problem.
- **Purchasing power parity:** is a way of comparing international living standards by using an exchange rate based on amount of each currency needed to purchase some basket of products.

- Nominal exchange rate: is price of one currency in terms of another.
- Trade-weighted exchange rate: is price of one currency against a basket of weighted currency.
- Real effective exchange rate: is a currency's value in terms of its real purchasing power.

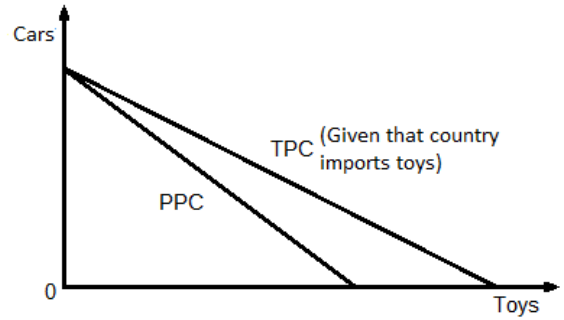
$\therefore \text{Real effective exchange rate} = \frac{\text{Nominal exchange rate} \times \text{Domestic price rise}}{\text{Foreign exchange rate}}$

Effect of changing exchange rates – Domestic	
Aspect	Effect
Inflation	Depreciation will make imports more expensive. (Imported cost push inflation)
Unemployment	Appreciation will make exports more expensive reducing AD.
Economic growth	Depreciation will reduce terms of trade, leading to economic growth if Marshall-Lerner condition holds.

(+) |

4.5. Principles of Absolute and Comparative Advantage

- **Absolute advantage:** is the ability to produce more of a product than another country using same amount of resources.
- **Comparative advantage:** is ability to produce at lower opportunity cost.
- **Trading possibilities curve:** is the consumption possibilities of rations post specialization and trade at any term of trade.



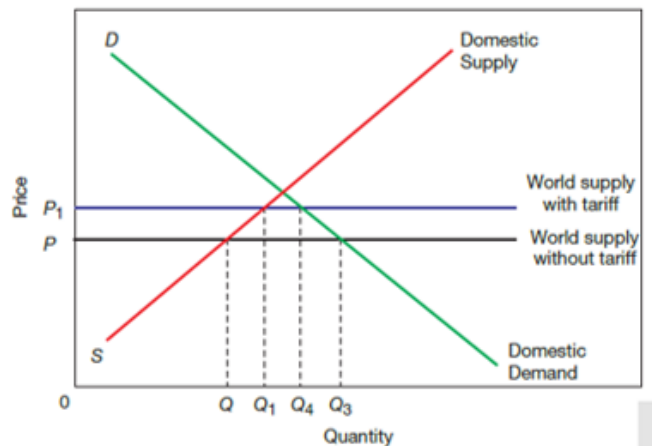
4.6. Protectionism

- **Protectionism:** is an action designed to help domestic products from foreign competition by reducing international trade.

Measures include:

Tariffs (tax)	Embargoes (bans)
Quotas (limits)	Voluntary export restraint (agreed limit)
Foreign currency exchange control	Red tape (administrative delays)
Export subsidies	Dirty float exchange rate

Free trade	Protectionism
Foreign products within reach	Avoids over specialization
Greater variety	Improve terms of trade
Importing raw materials	Strategic industries
Better quality	Declining/sunset industries
More sales	Infant/sunrise industries
Economies of scale	Prevent dumping
Larger market	Reduce current account deficit
Greater competition	Raise revenue
Lower price	Protect employment
Spread of ideas & technology	Retaliation



5. Macroeconomic Policies

5.1. Macroeconomic aims

- Full employment
- Low and stable inflation
- Balance of payments equilibrium
- Sustained and steady economic growth
- Stable exchange rate
- Sustainable economic development

5.2. Types of policies

• Fiscal policy

- It involves the use of taxation and government spending to influence AD
- Expansionary/reflationary fiscal policy – lower taxes, higher government spending
- Deflationary/contractionary fiscal policy – higher taxes, lower government spending
- A budget is a government's estimates for its revenue and spending
 - Budget deficit – expenditure exceeds revenue
 - Budget surplus – revenue exceeds expenditure
 - Balanced budget – revenue equals expenditure
- Only a short-term measure, households and firms will go back to older spending patterns once implementation of these policies is stopped.
- Raising taxes can create disincentive to work, lowering labour force and productive capacity, increasing unemployment, lower GDP lowering economic growth
- Tariffs may not be possible in a trade bloc. May even provoke retaliation. Domestic firms may become dependent
- Workers press for higher wages, wage-price spiral, cost push inflation
- Skilled workers may emigrate
- May increase AD, demand-pull inflation
- Firms may become dependent, complacent

• Monetary policy

- It involves the use of interest rates, money supply and exchange rates to influence AD
- Expansionary monetary policy – lower interest rate, increase money supply, currency depreciation
- Contractionary monetary policy – increase interest rate, lower money supply, currency appreciation
- Money supply can be controlled through the changes in the cash reserve ratio (CRR)
- Difficult to control money supply
- Interest rates have a time lag of 12-18 months
- Interest rates are uncertain
- Higher interest rate can have negative effect on unemployment, economic growth
- Lower interest rates will lower hot money flows into the country

- Higher interest rate will discourage FDI
- Higher ROI will not guarantee fall in consumer spending as commercial banks may not pass on the higher interest rate
- Fixed exchange rate, interest rate rises will cause currency appreciation leading the government to sell its currency to go back to the fixed level

• Supply-side policy

- They are designed to increase AS
- Increased spending on education and training
- Deregulation & Privatisation
- Direct tax cuts
- Subsidies
- Spending on infrastructure
- Trade union/labour market reforms
- Reduction in welfare payments
- Only effective in the long run, have a time lag
- Uncertain outcomes
- Privatisation & deregulation – may develop monopolies
- Subsidies – may not be passed to consumers
- Education & training – only works if quality improved
- Spending on training will reduce costs only if productivity rises greater than wage rates
- Corporate tax – depends on confidence levels

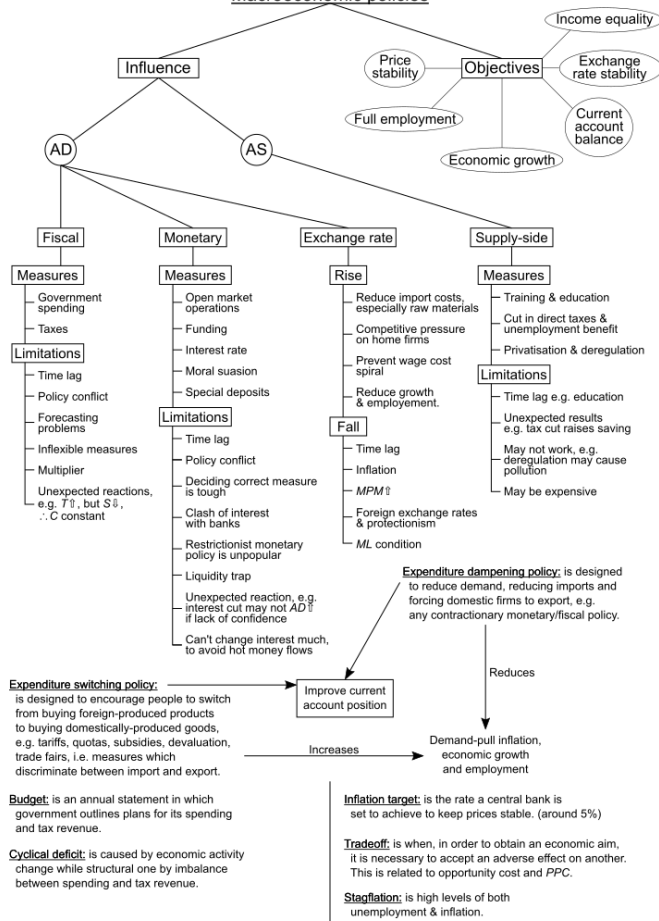
• Expenditure switching policies

- Measures designed to encourage consumer to switch to domestic products rather than foreign produced ones
- Ex. protectionism measures like tariffs

• Expenditure reducing/dampening policies

- Measures designed to lower domestic demand
- Ex. higher income tax, interest rate

Ch 5: Macroeconomic policies



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