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CA Foundation - June 2022

Business Economics Chapter 1, 3 & 5

Last Minute Summary (LMS) of Important Points



CA Foundation - June 2022 Business Economics & BCK Pre - Exam Marathon Schedule by CA Mohnish Vora (MVSIR)

One link for all lectures

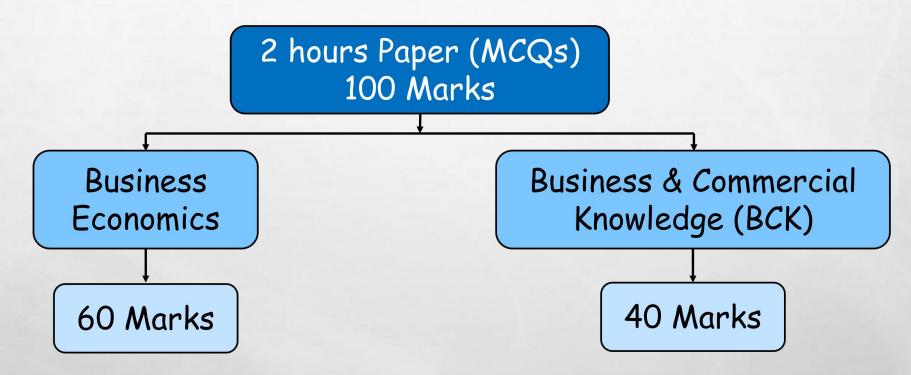
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Date	Time	Platform	Topics
28 June	6.30 to 7.30 PM	Only YouTube "Unacademy CA Foundation"	Economics Chp 1
LO JUNE	10.15 to 12.15 PM	YouTube & Special Class	BCK MCQ Based Marathon (Part 1)
	9.45 to 11.15 AM	YouTube & Special Class	Economics <u>Chp</u> 2 (Important MCQs)
29 June	1.15 PM to 3.00 PM	YouTube & Special Class	BCK MCQ Based Marathon (Part 2)
	8.00 to 11.30 PM	YouTube & Special Class	Economics <u>Chp</u> 3 & 4 (Important MCQs)
30 June	8.15 AM to 10.15 AM	YouTube & Special Class	Last Minute Questions (LMQs)



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CA Foundation - Paper 4 Marks Weightage



The above weightage is given as per ICAI. In exams MCQs in exams will be JUMBLED (It is not necessary that first 60 MCQs will be of Eco & next 40 of BCK)



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CA Foundation - June 2022

Business Economics Chapter 1

Last Minute Summary (LMS) of Important Points

Economics Chapter 1 - Unit 1

Two fundamental facts of Economics

- > Unlimited Wants
- > Resources are relatively scarce resources (Problem of Scarcity) and have alternative uses

We cannot have everything we want with resources we have, we are forever forced to make choices.

Therefore, we choose to satisfy only some of our wants leaving many other wants unsatisfied.

Problem of scarcity is faced by EVERYONE in this world

Thus Economics is "कहानी घर घर की"

'Economics' is derived from Greek word 'Oikonomia'. Its meaning is 'household management'.

Economics is the study of the processes by which relatively scarce resources are allocated to satisfy competing unlimited wants of human beings in a society.

Till 19th century, Economics was known as 'Political Economy'

Father of Economics - Adam Smith. He wrote a book 'An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations' (1776)

Economists	Various Definitions of Economics		
Adam Smith	Wealth Definition		
J B Say	Economics is a "Science which deals with wealth"		
Alfred Marshall	Welfare Definition		
Allrea Marshall	Limitation: neglect of immaterial services		
Lionel Robbins	Scarcity Definition		
or Robinson	Economics is neutral between ends.		
Paul A. Samuelson	Growth Definition		

Decision making refers to process of

- > selecting an appropriate alternative that will provide the
- most efficient means of attaining a desired end,
- > from two or more alternative courses of action.

<u>Business Economics</u> may be defined as the use of economic analysis to make business decisions involving the best use of an organization's scarce resources.

Joel Dean defined "Business Economics" as use of economic analysis in formulation of business policies.

Business Economics is aka. Applied Economics or Managerial Economics

Micro Economics	Macro Economics
Study of behaviour of individuals or group of units rather than all the units combined	Study of economy as a whole. It analyzes the overall economic environment.
It examines how individual units make decisions as to how to efficiently allocate their scarce resources	Aka – <mark>Aggregate</mark> Economics
Few areas under Micro- Economics are: (i) Product pricing; (ii) Consumer behaviour; (iii) Factor pricing; (iv) The economic conditions of a section of people; (v) Behaviour of firms; and (vi) Location of industry.	Few areas under Macro- Economics are: (i) National Income and National Output; (ii) General price level and interest rates; (iii) Balance of trade and balance of payments; (iv) External value of currency; (v) The overall level of savings and investment; and (vi) The level of employment and rate of economic growth.



Nature of Business Economics

- 1) Business Economics is a Science
- 2) Based on Micro Economics
- 3) Incorporates elements of Macro Analysis
- 4) Business Economics is an art
- 5) Use of Theory of Markets and Private Enterprises
- 6) Pragmatic in Approach
- 7) Interdisciplinary in nature
- 8) Normative in Nature
- Positive Economics Descriptive, "What is" current situation
- Normative Economics Prescriptive, "What should be" done for welfare, involves value judgements

Scope of Business Economics

- Operational / Internal issues Those issues that arise within organisation and are within control of management. In business economics we apply microeconomic theory to these issues
- Environmental / External Factors are not within the control of management. In business economics we apply macroeconomic theory to these issues

Economics Chapter 1 - Unit 2

Every economic system has to deal with central problem of scarcity of resources relative to the wants for them. This is generally called 'the central economic problem'.

- 1) What to produce?
- 2) How to produce?
- 3) For whom to produce?
- 4) What provisions are to be made for economic growth?

3 Types of Economies-

- 1) <u>Capitalist</u> All resources are owned and controlled by <u>private individuals for profit</u>
- 2) <u>Socialist</u> Material resources are owned by **State** (aka Govt. or Central Planning Authority)
- Mixed It depends on both markets and governments for allocation of resources

Capitalism

Aka free market economy or laissez-faire economy

Characteristics

- > Profit motive is driving force.
- > Right to private property
- > Freedom of enterprise & economic choice (consumer sovereignty)
- > Absence of Government Interference
- > Competition (Efficiency increases, optimum allocation, cost minimized; but wastage of resources due to advertisement)

Merits

- Consumers are benefitted many good quality goods at low prices
- > Self-regulating and resources allocated automatically by price
- > Functions in a democratic framework
- > Encourages enterprise and risk taking

Demerits

- Vast economic inequality and social injustice, splits society into 'haves' and 'have-nots'
- > Exploitation of labour & consumers
- > Resource misallocation production of more luxury goods
- Conspicuous & unethical consumption environmental degradation.

<u>How do capitalist economies solve central</u> problems?

1) What to produce?

decided by consumers who show preferences by spending on goods which they want

2) How to produce?

If labour is relatively cheap than capital, then use labour-intensive method & vice versa

3) For whom to produce?

Higher the income, higher buying capacity and higher demand for goods. Goods produced for people having buying capacity

4) Provision (Saving & Invt)

Interest Rate on saving high-more saving More profit expectation-more investment



Aka Command Economy or Controlled Economy or Centrally Planned Economy

Concept given by Karl Marx and Frederic Engels in 'The Communist Manifesto' (1848)

Socialism

Production by Govt. is aimed at maximizing welfare of public

Characteristics

- > Collective Ownership
- > Economic planning
- > Absence of Consumer Choice
- > Relatively Equal Income Distribution
- > Minimum role of Price Mechanism or Market forces Prices prevailing here are 'administered prices' which are set by Govt.
- > Absence of Competition

Merits

- > Central planning of resources- Rapid development, better utilization, waste is avoided
- > Unemployment is minimised,
- > Business fluctuations are eliminated
- > Right to work and minimum standard of living
- > Labourers and consumers are protected from exploitation
- > Comprehensive social security

Demerits

- > Bureaucracy & red tapism, inefficiency and delays, corruption, favouritism
- > Takes away the basic right- right to property
- > Does not provide necessary incentives to hard work
- > Consumers have no freedom of choice
- Extreme form of socialism is not at all practicable (Socialist economy is a myth)

How do socialist economies solve central problems? - Central Planning Authority

It includes the best features of both capitalism & socialism

Private enterprise is allowed to do any type of economic activity. However, the Govt. imposes measures to control and regulate private sector

Mixed Economy

The Government itself runs important and selected industries and eliminate the free play of profit motive and self-interest.

In a mixed economy, there are three sectors of industries:

- 1) Private sector
- 2) Public sector
- 3) Combined sector

Demerits

- > Excessive controls by the state resulting in reduced incentives and constrained growth of the private sector.
- Poor implementation of planning
- Higher rates of taxation
- > Undue delays, Lack of efficiency, Corruption, Wastage of resources
- > Poor performance of the public sector

How do mixed economies solve central problems?

It uses a mix of both price mechanism and central planning



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Business Economics Chapter 3

Last Minute Summary (LMS) of Important Points

Basics

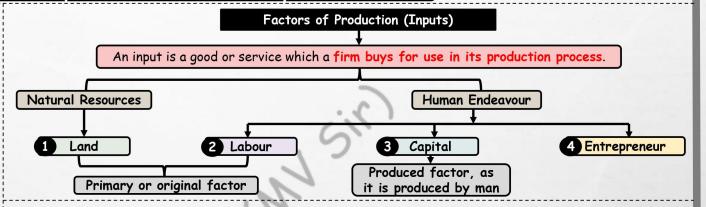
As per Economics, production denotes process by which man utilises resources to transform them into goods and services to make them satisfy human wants. (similar definition given by James Bates and J.R. Parkinson)

The performance of an economy is judged by level of its production.

Production can also be defined as creation or addition of utility. During production we can confer 4 types of utility-

- 1) Form Utility- Changing form of things to add utility to it. Eq- Wood to chair.
- 2) Place Utility- Changing place of resources from a place where they are of little or no use to another place where they are of greater use. Eq- extraction of minerals from earth, apple from Kashmir to Mumbai etc.
- 3) Time Utility- Making available materials at times when they are not normally available. Eq- Canning of seasonal fruits
- 4) Personal Utility- Making use of personal skills in the form of services, e.g., those of organisers, merchants, transport workers etc

Production does not include work done within a household by anyone out of love and affection, voluntary services and goods produced for self consumption. Eq- Food made by mother in home is NOT production



Land

It refers to soil or earth's surface and also to all free gifts of nature which would include all natural resources, soil, water, air, light, etc.

Characteristics

- 1) Land is a free gift of nature
- 2) Supply of land is fixed Supply of land is perfectly inelastic from view of economy And relatively elastic from the point of view of a firm
- 3) Land is permanent and indestructible powers
- 4) Land is a passive factor
- 5) Land is immobile
- 6) Land has multiple uses
- 7) Land is heterogeneous

Labour

It refers to various types of human efforts which require use of physical exertion, skill and intellect.

Labour must be done with motive of economic reward. Anything done out of love and affection or for sake of pleasure or love, is not labour

Characteristics

- > Labour is perishable, requires human effort, active factor, inseparable from labourer mobile.
- Labour power differs from labourer to labourer
- Labour has poor bargaining power
- > Supply of labour cannot be increased or decreased instantly
- > Supply curve of labour has backward bending shape



Capital

<u>Capital</u> is 'produced means of production' or 'manmade instruments of production'. It refers to all man made goods (assets) that are a part of wealth (total assets) and are <u>used</u> for further production of wealth.

Produced factor, as it is **produced by man** by working with nature.

Eg- Machine tools and instruments, factories, etc.

Capital is a stock concept which yields a periodical income which is a flow concept

Types of Capital

- 1) Fixed capital Durable nature & renders services over a period of time
- 2) Circulating capital For single use and is not available for further use. Eg, seeds, fuel, raw materials etc
- Real (Tangible) capital Physical goods (can be perceived by senses)
- 4) Intangible Captial rights & benefits which cannot be perceived by senses. Eg- patents, goodwill etc.
- 5) Human capital Human skill and ability
- 6) Individual capital Personal property
- 7) Social capital Belongs to society as a whole in form of roads, bridges, etc.

Capital Formation (aka Investment)

Capital formation means a sustained increase in the stock of real capital in a country.

It involves production of more capital goods like, machines, factories, etc. which are used for further production of other goods.

Stages of Capital Formation

- 1) Savings
- 2) Mobilisation of savings
- 3) Investment

<u>Entrepreneur</u>

Entrepreneur is a factor which

- > mobilises other factors of production,
- > combines them in right proportion,
- initiates process of production and bears risks involved in it.

Functions of Entrepreneur

- 1) Initiating business enterprise and resource coordination
- 2) Risk bearing or uncertainty bearing
 Financial risks & Technological risks, Profit is
 reward, risk bearing cannot be delegated
- 3) Innovations Most Important Function

Enterprise's Objectives

- 1) Organic objectives
- 2) Economic objectives
- 3) Social objectives
- 4) Human objectives
 To provide fair deal to
 employees etc.
- 5) National objectives

Enterprise's Problems

- 1) Objectives
- 2) Location and size of the plant
- Selecting & organising physical facilities
- 4) Finance
- 5) Organisation structure
- 6) Marketing
- 7) Legal formalities
- 8) Industrial Relations

Production Function

Production function is a mathematical statement of **relationship** between **dependent** variable (**output**) and **independent** variable (**inputs**). [similar definition given by Samuelson]

$$Q = f(Labour, Capital) = f(L,K)$$

Assumptions of Production Function

- Relationship between inputs and outputs exists for a specific period of time
- 2) Production technology remains constant
- 3) Output resulting from use of inputs is at the maximum level (no wastage)



Short Run Production Function

Short-run production function shows maximum amount of a good or service that can be produced by set of inputs, assuming that amount of at least one of inputs used remains unchanged.

In short run, Capital is fixed and Labour is variable.

It is the subject matter of the law of variable proportion

Long Run Production Function

A long run production function shows maximum quantity of a good or service that can be produced by set of inputs, assuming that all inputs are variable

It is the subject matter of the law of returns to scale.

Aka. <u>Law of returns to a variable input</u> OR <u>Law of</u> diminishing returns

Law states that as we increase quantity of one input (Labour) which is combined with other fixed inputs, marginal product (MP) of the variable input must eventually decline.

Assumptions of Law of Variable Proportions

- 1) Production technology remains constant
- 2) Must be some inputs which are fixed (Short Run)
- 3) Law does not apply where factors must be used in fixed proportions to yield output
- 4) Consider only physical inputs and outputs (unit terms) and not in monetary terms

TP vs AP vs MP

Total Product (TP): Total output resulting from efforts of all factors of production combined together at any time

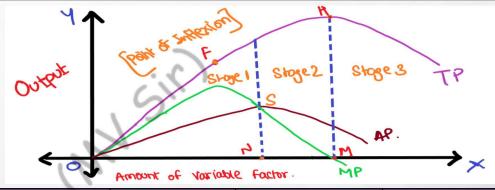
<u>Average Product (AP)</u>: Total product per unit of the variable factor.

AP = TP / No. of Units of Variable Factor

Marginal Product (MP): Change in TP per unit change in quantity of variable factor.

 $MP = \Delta TP / \Delta Q$

Law of Variable Proportions



 Stages		ТР	MP	AP
 C 1	Increasing Returns	TP increases at increasing rate till POI After POI, TP increases with decreasing rate.	MP rises & is maximum corresponding to POI, and the falls. MP > AP, throughout.	AP is rising. Stage ends= AP is max & AP = MP
 2	Diminishing Returns	TP increases with decreasing rate Stage ends= TP is max.	MP is decreasing but positive. Stage ends= MP is 0 MP < AP, throughout.	AP is decreasing but positive.
 3	Negative Returns	TP is decreasing	MP is decreasing & negaitive.	AP is decreasing but positive.

Law of Variable Proportions

Relationship between AP & MP

- > When AP rises → MP > AP
- \rightarrow When AP is maximum \rightarrow MP = AP
- > When AP falls → MP < AP

Stage of Operation

- Stage 1 & 3 are → economic absurdity or 'economic non-sense'
- > Rational producer will always produce in stage 2

Cobb-Douglas Production Function

This function applies not to an individual firm but to whole of manufacturing industry.

Labour contributed about 3/4th and capital about 1/4th of increase in production

$$Q = K. L^a. C^b$$

Where 'Q' is output, 'L' the quantity of labour and 'C' the quantity of capital, 'K' and 'a' and 'b' are positive constants.

- > a + b > 1, Increasing returns to scale
- > a + b = 1, Constant returns to scale
- a + b < 1, decreasing returns to scale</p>

Returns to Scale

Occurs in LONG RUN

A <u>change in scale</u> means that all factors of production are increased or decreased in same proportion.

The study of changes in output as a consequence of changes in scale forms subject matter of returns to scale.

Eg- When ALL inputs are increased by 40%

- > Constant Returns to Scale (CRS)
- % Increase in Output = % Increase in Input Eg; If output increases by 40%, then it is CRS

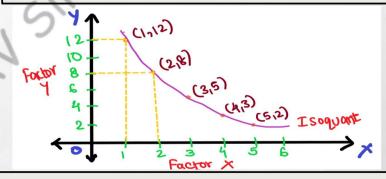
CRS is also referred to as "Linear Homogeneous Production Function"

- > Increasing Returns to Scale (IRS)
- % Increase in Output > % Increase in Input Eg; If output increases by 70%, then it is IRS
- Decreasing Returns to Scale (DRS)
- % Increase in Output < % Increase in Input Eg; If output increases by 35%, then it is DRS

Isoquants

An isoquant represents all those combinations of inputs which are capable of producing the same level of output.

Isoquants are aka : equal-product curves, production indifference curves or iso-product curves.



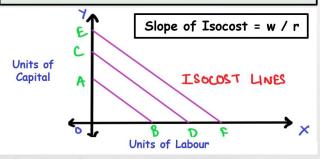
Properties of Isoquants-

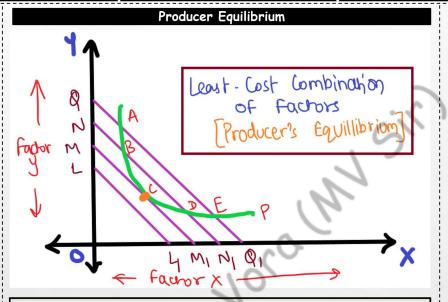
- Negatively sloped, (Slope of Isoquant = MRTS)
- > Convex to the origin due to diminishing MRTS
- Curve on right represents a higher level of output,
- > non intersecting.

However, one important difference between isoquant & indifference curve is that in an isoquant level of production is easily quantified whereas in an indifference curve it is not possible to quantify the level of satisfaction acquired by the consumer.

Isocost

- > Isocost line, aka. Equal-Cost Line or budget line or budget constraint line,
- It shows various alternative combinations of two factors which the firm can buy with given outlay.
- Whatever be the combination of factors the firm chooses on isocost line, the total cost to firm remains the same.





A producer can produce the desired output at least possible cost at equilibrium.

Producer equilibrium will be achieved where iscost line is TANGENT to isoquant (at point C)



Cost Analysis

Cost analysis is concerned with the financial aspects of production relations as against physical aspects which were considered in production analysis.

Cost Concepts

1) Accounting Costs & Economic Costs
Accounting (Explicit or Outlay) costs are
expenses which will have to be incurred by firm
and are recorded in financial statements.

Economic Cost = Explicit + Implicit Cost

Implicit Cost is cost of using self owned factors. Eg- normal return on capital invested by owner himself in his business; salary not paid to entrepreneur which could have been earned elsewhere

2) <u>Outlay costs & Opportunity costs</u> Outlay costs involve <u>actual expenditure</u>

Opportunity cost is the cost of next best alternative opportunity which was foregone to pursue certain action. It is cost of the missed opportunity

Cost Concepts

3) <u>Traceable (Direct) costs & Non-Traceable (Indirect) costs</u>

Direct costs are costs that are <u>readily identified</u> and are <u>traceable</u> to a <u>particular product</u>, <u>operation or plant</u>

Indirect costs are those which are **not easily and definitely identifiable** in relation to a plant, product, process or department. Eq- Electricity exp, common or general exp etc.

4) Incremental costs & Sunk costs

Incremental cost refers to the additional cost incurred by a firm as result of a business decision

Sunk Costs are costs which are already incurred once and for all and cannot be recovered. They are based on past commitments and cannot be revised or reversed if the firm wishes to do so.

5) Historical costs & Replacement costs

Historical cost refers to the cost incurred in the past on the acquisition of a productive asset such as machinery etc

Replacement cost is the money expenditure that has to be incurred for replacing an old asset

6) Private costs & Social costs

Private costs are costs actually incurred or provided for by firms and are either explicit or implicit

Social cost refers to the total cost borne by the society on account of a business activity and includes private cost and external cost

- 7) Fixed Costs & Variable costs
- Fixed or constant costs are costs which do not vary with output upto a certain level of activity.
- ☐ These require fixed expenditure of funds irrespective of level of output, e.g., rent, property taxes, interest on loans etc
- ☐ Fixed cost is a function of capacity
- ☐ If the firm closes down for some time in the short run but remains in business, fixed cost CANNOT be avoided (inescapable)
- □ Shut down costs are costs which will continue even after operations are suspended. Eg- for storing of old machines which cannot be sold in market.
- Variable Costs (VC) are costs which vary with the level of output (function of output)
- ☐ If a firm shuts down for a short period, then VC can be avoided
- □ Eg- wages of labour, prices of raw material, fuel, transportation cost etc

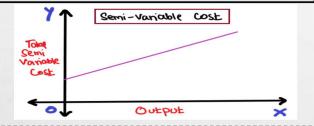


Cost Concepts

8) <u>Semi - Variable Cost</u>

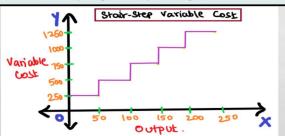
Some costs which are neither perfectly variable, nor absolutely fixed in relation to the changes in the size of output.

Eg: Electricity charges, Postpaid Telephone Bill



9) Stair-Step Variable Cost

Some costs which may increase in a stair-step fashion, i.e., they remain fixed over certain range of output; but suddenly jump to new higher level when output goes beyond a given limit.



Short Run Total Costs

> TC = TFC + TVC

Total Fixed Cost curve (TFC)

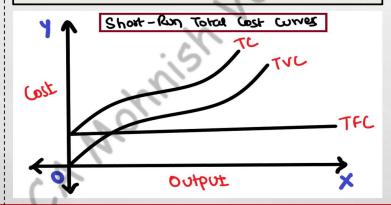
- > horizontal straight line parallel to X-axis
- > Starts from a point on the Y-axis

Total Variable Cost (TVC)

> Initially increases at a decreasing rate and then at an increasing rate. (Inverted-S shaped)

Total Cost Curve (TC)

- > Obtained by adding vertically the TFC curve and the TVC curve.
- > Slopes of TC & TVC are same (Inverted-S shaped)
- > At each point the TC & TVC curves have vertical distance equal to total fixed cost.



Short Run Average Costs ATC AFC Output X

Average Fixed Cost curve (AFC)

- > AFC = TFC / Q
- > AFC is fixed cost per unit of output.
- > AFC falls as output increases.
- > AFC curve will slope downwards throughout its length but will not touch the X-axis as AFC cannot be zero. (shape-rectangular hyperbola)

Average Variable Cost (AVC)

- > AVC = TVC / Q
- > AVC curve will first fall, then reach a minimum and then rise (U-shaped)

Average Total Cost (ATC or AC)

- \triangleright ATC = TC / Q or ATC = AFC + AVC
- > ATC curve will first fall, then reach a minimum and then rise (U-shaped)



Marginal Cost Curve (MC)

Marginal cost is addition made to total cost by production of an additional unit of output.

 $MC = \Delta$ in TC / Δ in Output Or $MC = \Delta$ in TVC / Δ in Output

MC is independent of fixed cost.

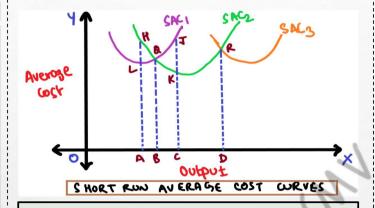
The value of MC comes due to the changes in variable costs.

MC curve becomes minimum corresponding to the point of inflection on the total cost curve

MC curve declines first, reaches its minimum and then rises ("U" shaped)

MC Curve intersects AC curve and AVC curve at their respective minimum points.

MC & AC	MC & AVC
AC falls $\rightarrow MC < AC$	AVC falls $\rightarrow MC < AVC$
AC rises \rightarrow $MC > AC$	AVC rises \rightarrow MC > AVC
$AC \min. \rightarrow MC = AC$	AVC min. $\rightarrow MC = AVC$



How to select a Short Run Avergae Cost Curve (SAC Curve) in the long run?

SAC Curve is aka. PLANT Curves.

As per above figure,

- > For making output upto OB use SAC 1
- > For output more than OB, but less than OD use SAC 2
- > For output more than OD use SAC 3

Long Run Average Cost Curve

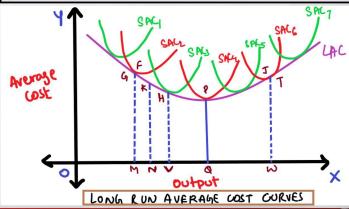
Long run is a period during which firm can vary all its inputs (Labour & Capital both)

In the long run the firm can build any size or scale of plant and therefore, can move from one plant to another. Long run is planning horizon.

A firm plans for the long run and operates in short run.

Long run cost of production is the least possible cost of producing any given level of output when all individual factors are variable.

A long run cost curve depicts the functional relationship between output and the long run cost of production.





Long Run Average Cost Curve

LAC Curve is aka. Planning Curve or Envelope Curve or Boat Curve

LAC Curve is drawn so as to be tangent to each of the SAC curves

However, LAC curve is **NOT** tangent to minimum points of SAC curves

- When LAC curve is declining, it is tangent to falling portions of SAC curves and
- When LAC curve is rising, it is tangent to rising portions of SAC curves

"OQ" is the optimum output. This is because "OQ" is being produced at minimum point of LAC and corresponding SAC 4 (as per graph). Production of OQ is done at FULL CAPACITY.

For producing output less than "OQ", firm will construct relevant plant and operate it at less than its full capacity,

Whereas for outputs larger than OQ the firm will construct a plant and operate it beyond its optimum capacity.

The falling portion (negatively sloped) region of LAC curve is due Increasing Returns to Scale and Economies of Scale

The rising portion (positively sloped) region of LAC curve is due Decreasing Returns to Scale and Diseconomies of Scale

SCALE OF PRODUCTION

<u>Economies of scale</u> are <u>cost advantages</u> that enterprises obtain <u>due to their scale of operation</u>, with <u>cost per unit</u> of output <u>decreasing</u> which causes scale increasing.

Internal Economies

Internal economies accrue to firm when it expands its output, so that cost of production would come down.

Internal economies arise purely due to endogenous (internal) factors

External Economies

External economies are benefits accruing to each member firm of the industry as a result of expansion of the industry.

They are not dependent on the output level of individual firms.

Internal Economies and Diseconomies

- 1) Technical
- 2) Managerial
- 3) Commercial
- 4) Financial
- 5) Risk bearing

External Economies and Diseconomies

- 1) Cheaper raw materials and capital equipment
- 2) Technological external economies
- 3) Development of skilled labour
- 4) Growth of ancillary industries
- 5) Better transportation and marketing facilities
- 6) Economies of Information

External diseconomies

External diseconomies are disadvantages that originate outside firm, especially in input markets.

Eq- rise in factor prices etc.

The government may also, through its location policy, prohibit or restrict the expansion of an industry at a particular place.



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Business Economics Chapter 5

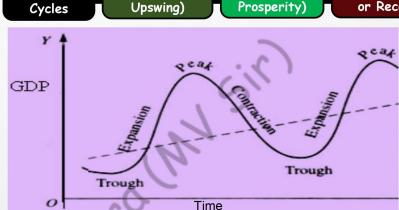
Last Minute Summary (LMS) of Important Points

Phases of

Business

Business Cycles - Introduction

- The rhythmic fluctuations in aggregate economic activity that an economy experiences over a period of time are called <u>business</u> cycles or <u>trade cycles</u>.
- > A trade cycle is composed of-
 - Periods of Good trade characterised by rising prices and low unemployment percentage, (Expansion)
 - Periods of bad trade characterised by falling prices and high unemployment percentages. (Contraction)
- Business cycles is that they occur again & again but not always at regular intervals, nor are they of same length.



Expansion

(aka Boom or

Contraction
(aka Downswing
or Recession)

Trough
(aka
Depression)

Peak & Trough are collectively called "turning points" of business cycle.



Increase in national output (production of G/S)

Increase in employment;
Involuntary unemployment is
almost zero

Increase in income

Increase in agg. Demand (demand for all types of goods and services rises) Increase in sales, profits, rising stock prices and bank credit

Increase in capital & consumer expenditure

Expansion
stage
continues till
there is full
employment
of resources
& production
is maximum
possible

Peak (aka Prosperity)

Growth rate in expansion stage eventually slows down and reaches its peak.

Peak

(aka

Peak = top or highest point of business cycle.

In later stages of expansion, inputs are difficult to find as they are short of their demand and therefore input prices increase.

Output prices also rise rapidly leading to increased cost of living and greater strain on fixed income earners. Consumers begin to review their consumption expenditure on housing, durable goods etc. Actual demand stagnates.

It is end of expansion and it occurs when economic growth has reached point where it will stabilize and then move in reverse direction, starting contraction stage

Contraction (aka Downswing or Recession)

Producers do not instantaneously recognize pulse of economy (that contraction is coming) & keep anticipating high level of demand (because earlier expansion was going on), and maintain their investments.

Consequence is mismatch between demand & supply. Supply far exceeds demand. Gradually it spreads to all sectors.

Producers, now being aware of above, respond by

- > holding back future investment plans,
- > cancellation of orders for equipments and all inputs incl. labour.

This in turn generates a chain of reactions in input markets and producers of capital goods and raw materials in turn respond by cancelling and curtailing their orders. This is beginning of recession.

Decline of aggregate economic activity over a period of time is RECESSION (when contraction stage lasts for 2 or more quarters continuously, then it is called recession)

Decrease in input demand pulls input prices down

Decrease in employment; Leads to decrease in income

Producers lower their prices to dispose off inventories

Consumers, expect further decreases in prices and postpone their purchases

Investor confidence is at its lowest
& stock prices fall

Bank credit decreases

Business firms become pessimistic about future and Investments, produced and emp. further decline

Aggregate demand further falls, & gap between demand & supply gets further widened and recession becomes severe

Trough (aka Depression)

- > Severe contraction in economic activities pushes economy into phase of depression.
- > Growth rate becomes negative and national income and expenditure declines rapidly.
- > Agg. demand decreases, prices are lowest forcing some firms to shutdown. It leads to mounting unemployment which leaves consumers with very little income.
- > A typical feature of depression is the fall in the interest rate. With low interest, people's demand for holding liquid money (i.e. in cash) increases.
- > Despite lower interest rates, demand for credit declines because investors' confidence has fallen. It may lead to possible banking or financial crisis.
- > Industries, especially capital and consumer durable goods industry, suffer from excess capacity. Large number of bankruptcies and liquidation.

RECOVERY

The economy cannot continue to contract endlessly. Trough lasts for some time & marks end of pessimism and beginning of optimism. This reverses process.

Process of reversal is <u>initially felt in labour market</u>. Pervasive unemployment forces workers to accept lower wages.

The producers anticipate lower costs and better business environment. Slowly business confidence takes off, & firms start to invest again and to build stocks

Technological advancements require fresh investments; thus bank credit increases. employment incr, agg. demand picks up and prices gradually rise.

Price mechanism acts as a self-correcting process in free market economy.

Spurring of investment causes recovery of economy. This acts as a turning point from depression to expansion.

Indicators

It is very difficult to predict the turning points of business cycles. Economists use changes in a variety of activities to measure the business cycle and to predict where the economy is headed towards. These are called <u>indicators</u>

Leading Indicators

Indicator that changes <u>before</u> (<u>prior to</u>) <u>economy</u> starts to follow a <u>particular pattern</u>.

Eg- value of new orders for consumer goods, new orders for plant and equipment, building permits for private houses, delayed deliveries

Lagging Indicators

Lagging indicators reflect economy's historical performance and changes in these indicators are observable only <u>after</u> an economic trend has already occurred.

If leading indicators signal the onset of business cycles, lagging indicators confirm these trends.

Eg- unemployment, corporate profits, labour cost per unit of output, interest rates, the consumer price index and commercial lending activity

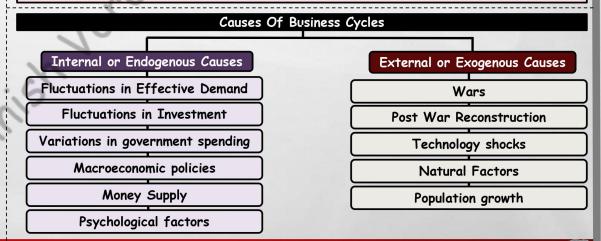
Coincidental / Concurrent Indicators

They <u>coincide or occur simultaneously</u> with business-cycle movements. They <u>describe current state</u> of <u>business cycle</u>.

Eg- GDP, industrial production, inflation, personal income, retail sales and financial market trends such as stock market prices

Features Of Business Cycles

- a) Business cycles occur periodically, but do not exhibit the same regularity. The duration & intensity of fluctuations varies.
- b) The phases seldom (only sometimes) display smoothness and regularity.
- c) Generally originate in free market economies. Get transmitted to all sectors.
- d) Capital goods & durable consumer goods industries are disproportionately (more) affected. Industrial sector is more prone as compared to agricultural sector
- e) Complex phenomena; they do not have uniform characteristics and causes.
- f) Repercussions of get simultaneously felt on nearly all economic variables
- g) Contagious and are international in character.
- h) Have serious consequences on well-being of society.



Causes Of Business Cycles

 $\underline{\textbf{Macroeconomic policies}} \hspace{0.1cm} \textbf{(monetary \& fiscal policies)} \hspace{0.1cm} \textbf{also cause business cycle}$

- Expansionary policies Policies resulting in increasing agg. demand (Results in booms)
 - Fiscal Policy- Increase government spending and tax cuts,
 - Monetary Policy- Softening (decr) interest rates.
- Anti-inflationary measures Policies resulting in decreasing agg. demand (Controlling inflation)
 - > Fiscal Policy- Decrease government spending and increasing tax,
 - Monetary Policy- Increasing interest rates.

Keynes	Business Cycles are caused due to fluctuations in aggregate effective demand	
Pigou	Pigou Business Cycles are caused due to anticipations of busines firms & are affected by waves of optimism or pessimism	
Schumpeter Business Cycles are caused due to innovation theory.		
Nicholas Kaldor	Business Cycles are caused due to cobweb theory present prices substantially influence production at some future date.	
Hawtrey	Business cycle is purely monetary phenomenon. Unplanned changes in supply of money may cause business fluctuation.	

Important Points

Businesses whose fortunes are closely linked to the rate of economic growth are referred to as "cyclical" businesses.

These include fashion retailers, electrical goods, house-builders, restaurants, advertising, overseas tour operators, construction and other infrastructure firms.

During a boom, such businesses see a strong demand for their products but during a slump, they usually suffer a sharp drop in demand.

Demand-Pull Inflation

If demand for goods and services is more than their supply, the resultant inflation is Demand-Pull Inflation



CA Foundation - June 2022 Business Economics & BCK Pre - Exam Marathon Schedule by CA Mohnish Vora (MVSIR)

One link for all lectures

bit.ly/mvsirunacademy

Date	Time	Platform	Topics
28 June	6.30 to 7.30 PM	Only YouTube "Unacademy CA Foundation"	Economics Chp 1
20 June	10.15 to 12.15 PM	YouTube & Special Class	BCK MCQ Based Marathon (Part 1)
	9.45 to 11.15 AM	YouTube & Special Class	Economics <u>Chp</u> 2 (Important MCQs)
29 June	1.15 PM to 3.00 PM	YouTube & Special Class	BCK MCQ Based Marathon (Part 2)
	8.00 to 11.30 PM	YouTube & Special Class	Economics <u>Chp</u> 3 & 4 (Important MCQs)
30 June	8.15 AM to 10.15 AM	YouTube & Special Class	Last Minute Questions (LMQs)



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