# **CA Foundation** (New Syllabus)

# Macro Economics Revision Notes

By CA Mohnish Vora (MVSIR)

Chp No.	Chp Name	Page No.
6	National Income	6.1 - 6.8
7	Public Finance	7.1 – 7.31
8	Money Market	8.1 - 8.11
9	International Trade	9.1 - 9.28
10	Indian Economy	10.1 - 10.13

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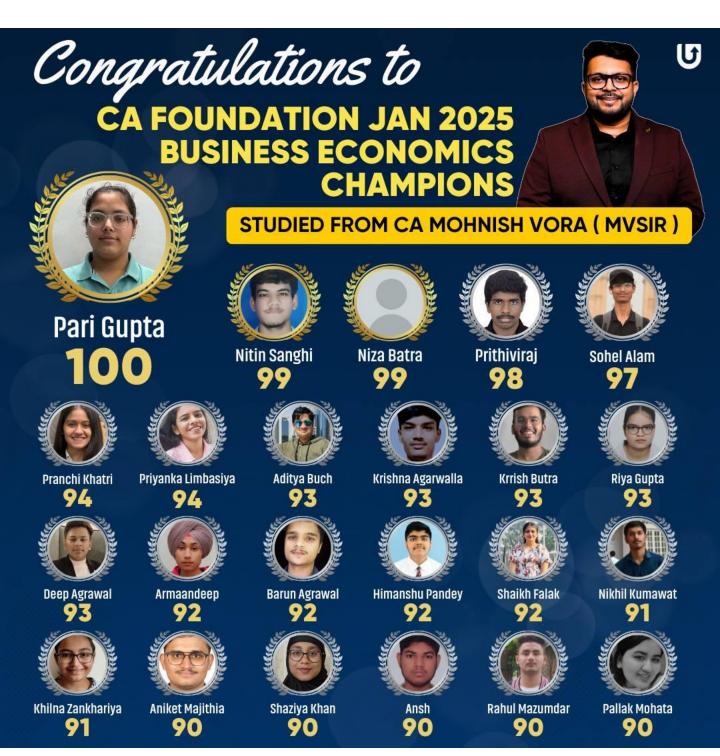




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# Business Economics Revision Notes

# Chapter 6 National Income

By CA Mohnish Vora (MVSIR)

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		on of National Income and Measurement of National Income
>	The performance of an economy depends on _	of goods and services produced
	by it, which is measured by National Income	
>	In order to calculate National Income, first v	ve need to understand the concept of GDP.
>	Gross domestic product (GDP) is a measure of	
	✓value of	
	✓ all	
	✓goods and services,	
	✓ of depreciation,	
	✓ produced the domestic t	serritory of a country
	√ during a	
		Also, according to the <b>Central</b>
>	National Income is defined as the -	Statistical Organisation (CSO)
	✓ value of	'National income is the sum total
	√ all economic goods and services	of generated by
	√ produced	the of a
	✓ within the domestic territory of a cou	
	✓ in an <b>accounting year</b>	rent, interest and profit in an
	✓ the <b>net factor income from ab</b> r	
	EXCLUSIONS FROM GDP & NATIONAL INCOME	
1)		, without goods or services received in return)
2)		sactions - do not involve current production)
	But, value of services accompanying sale (e.g.	fees to agents/broker) <b>is included</b> .
3)		
4)	output - illegal tran	sactions. Eg - narcotics and gambling
	NOMINAL GDP vs REAL GDP	
>	'Nominal GDP' or 'GDP at	' changes due to 2 reasons-
	1)changes,	
	2) Whencha	
	Changes in GDP due to changes in	to explain performance of economy
~	Real GDP or GDP at constant prices is an	GDP Deflator
	inflation adjusted measure of GDP	GDP Deflator = Nominal GDP x 100
	✓ affected by changes in prices;	Real GDP
	✓ <b>Changes only when</b> there is change	
	in	Inflation rate = GDP deflator in Yr 2 - GDP deflator in Yr 1 x 100
	Thus, Real GDP is a measure of	GDP Deflator in Yr 1
	economic	

	DOMESTIC VS NATIONAL								
<b>A</b>	'National' → normal residents of a country who may be within or outside domestic territory								
	of a country & is a	con	<b>cept</b> compare	d to	the	e tei	m ' <mark>domest</mark>	ic'.	
>	The term 'domestic' refers to p	roduction a	done by people	2			_ the dom	estic	territory
	IMPORTANT FORMULAS								
>	Net Factor income from abroad								
	= Factor income <b>earned by</b>						by factors	of	
	factors of product								
	employed in		employed in				terri	tory	
						-			
	<u>Operating Surplus</u> = <u>ent + _n</u>	terest +	rofit(als	o ada	d Lo	oyalı	ty if given	in Q	uestion)
1	3 Golden Rules of NI					To	tal 8 Aggre	gate	es
	Gross – Depreciation = Net			1)	GD	P at	: MP 5	) GI	NP at MP
	MP = FC + IDT - Subsidyor.	<b>MP</b> = F(	C + NIT	2)	GD	P at	FC 6 MP 7 FC 8	) GI	NP at FC
	Domestic + NFIA = National	, ,		4)	ND	P at	FC 8	) N	NP at FC
			10						
<b>A</b>	Net Domestic Product at Factor	Cost (NDP	FC)						
	(aka Domestic Income or Fac	tor Income	earned in Doi	mest	ic T	erri	tory)		
	=	<u> </u>							
>	National Income (NNPFC) = NDF	Pfc +							
	GDP Per Capita								
	Measure of country's <b>economic</b>	output per	r person. Indic	ator	of	star	idard of liv	ing (	of country
<b>✓</b>	GDP Per Capita =								
	In disease Tanana and Cale Siding								
	Indirect Taxes and Subsidies  Production Taxes & Production	Subsidias				1	sic Price		Market Price
1)			actual produc	tion	=		ictor Price	=	Basic Price
2)			iccuat produc	CLOTT	+			+	
	Paid or received on		oduct		-			-	
							•		•
	Personal Income		ble Personal Inc						stic product
	Income by household sector including		easure of <mark>amo</mark> the hands o				accruing to	priva	<u>ate sector</u>
	Institutions Serving Households from sources		s that is <mark>availa</mark>	ble fo	or	=	NDP fc		
	= National Income		nal Income			_			
	+	_ 16130	nat income						
						-			
	-	-							

	Soin at a live and	Nat National Disposable Income				
<u>Private Income</u>	Private Income	Net National Disposable Income (NNDI) The amount of G/S domestic				
It is a measure of the	= Income from domestic product accruing to private sector	economy has at its disposal.				
income (both income &		= National Income (NNP fc)				
income) which accrues to private	+	+				
sector from	+	+				
<b>sources</b> & country.	+	> GNDI = NNDI + Depreciation > "Govt transfer pay"				
		in calculation og GNDI / NNDI				
Circular flow of in	ome Method	Data Required What is measured?				
Circular flow of income refers to the corproduction, income generation & expe	ntinuous circulation of- Value Added Method					
involving different sectors of the econor	or Industrial Origin the	sum of net values added by all producing enterprises of the				
Production phase	or Net Output Method	try				
Income or Distributio		Il factor incomes generated in production of goods and ices				
n phase		of exp. of 3 spending units- overnment,				
Exp. or Disposition phase	or Income Disposal 2. co	onsumer households, and roducing enterprises (firms)				
priase	S. P.	outering enterprises ((11113)				
VALUE ADDED METHOD						
Step 1- Calculate GVA for	<b>Step 2-</b> Calculate GVAmp b	y <b>Step 3-</b> Calculate				
each sector	adding GVA of all sectors	NNP fc from GDP mp				
Value of Output	GVA by Primary Sector	NNP fc (National Inc.)				
_	+ GVA by Secondary Sector	QDF IIIP				
	+ GVA by Tertiary Sector	(-)				
=	=	(-)				
If "Value of Output" is not given separately, then						
Value	of Output = Sales (+)					
(where→ Change in Stock = Cl. Stock - Op. Stock)						
EXPENDIT	URE METHOD	INCOME METHOD				
<b>Step 1-</b> Calculate	Step 2- Calculate					
GDP mp	NNP fc from GDP mp					
Private Final Consumpti Expenditure (PFCE) (C)						
Experience (FFCE) (C)	GDP mp (-) Depreciation	NDP fc				
+	(+) NFIA (-) Net Indirect Taxes	NFIA				
+	=	NNP fc (National Income)				
		NI as per Inc. Method				
+	Capital Formation (H/B/G)	nt include  →Int. paid by govt/firm				
=		n to PF"  Graphian gains, windfall profits etc				

NATIONAL	INICOME	ALCELAL IAL
NATIONAL	INCOME	NINDIA

(MoSP&I)	Reliable statistical data is available → not possible to estimate India's NI wholly by one method.
<u> </u>	Therefore, a <b>of methods is used</b> .
	<ul> <li>method → commodity producing sectors like agriculture and manufacturing.</li> <li>In sector → income method, &amp;</li> <li>In sector → expenditure method.</li> </ul>
	Method used for National Income in developed economies:
	method → most suitable  But, sometimes expenditure method also used.

#### SYSTEM OF REGIONAL ACCOUNTS IN INDIA

terms of volume of all G/S produced in state within a given period of time (generally a year) accounted without duplication.

Per Capita State Income is obtained by dividing the NSDP (State Income) by the midyear projected population of the state.

State level estimates are prepared by the \_\_\_\_\_\_\_ of respective State \_\_\_\_\_ of Economics and Statistics (DESs). CSO assists & advices in preparation

Certain activities such as railways, communications, banking and insurance and central government administration, that \_\_\_\_\_\_ state boundaries, and thus their economic contribution cannot be assigned to any one state directly are known as the \_\_\_\_\_\_ sectors' of the economy. The estimates for these compiled for

economy as a whole & allocated to states on basis of relevant indicators.

Income or Net State Domestic Product (NSDP) is a measure in monetary

#### Can GDP be index of welfare?

#### Limitations And Challenges of NI

-		
	, since GDP measures <u>exclude</u>	
	following which are <b>critical</b> the overall wellbeing of	
	izens.	
a)	Income	
b)	improvements	
	→ technological & managerial innovations.	
c)	Productions from	
·	govt., → evading taxes or	
۵۱	illegal (drugs, gambling etc.).  Non-market production and	
ч	Non-economic contributors ->	
	health, education levels etc.	
e)\	Economic ''→ crime, pollution, traffic congestion	
	etc which make us <b>worse off</b> .	
f)	work → without remuneration	
<b>a</b> )	time, fairness,	

gender equality, security of

community feeling etc.,

1) lack of an agreed definition of national income,

Conceptual difficulties

- 2) accurate \_\_\_\_\_\_ between final & intermediate goods,
- 3) issue of \_\_\_\_\_payments,
- 4) difficulty of incorporating of income,
- 5) valuation of a \_\_\_\_\_ good at constant prices, and

#### <u>Challenges</u>

- of reliability of available data,
- 2) absence of \_\_\_\_\_ of incomes due to illiteracy and ignorance,
- 3) lack of proper \_\_\_\_\_\_classification, and4) accurate estimation
- consumption of fixed capital
  5) production for selfconsumption

#### <u>Chp 6: Determination of National Income</u> Unit 2: The Keynesian Theory of Determination of National Income

	INTRODUCTION
>	In previous unit, 'ex post' (realized) values were used. In this unit,(anticipated)
	values are used, if we want to what equilibrium value of output or GDP is.
>	Before Keynes, <b>classical economists</b> said that <b>economy isregulating</b> and is always
	capable of achieving equilibrium at 'natural level' of real GDP
<b>A</b>	However, in his "General Theory of Employment Interest & Money" → markets would
	automatically lead to full-employment equilibrium, as prices & wages are (rigid),
	especially downward. This prevents economy from returning to natural level of real GDP. So,
	output will remain atfull employment level unless there is insufficient
~	Keynesian theory of income determination is presented in 3 models:
1)	Two-sector = household + business,
2)	Three-sector = household + business + government,
3)	Four-sector = household + business + govt. + foreign
	Circular Flow in a Simple Two-sector Model
$\wedge$	The circular flow of income is a process where the national income and expenditure of an
	economy <mark>flow in a circular manner continuously</mark> through time.
	. 5
>	Two sector economy model assumes Wages, Pert, Interest, Profit
	only two sectors in economy viz.,
	households and firms, with only Factor inputs.
	consumption and investment outlays.
	Households = Household Income = Household Expenditure
>	
	Circular broken lines - factor and \ Goods and - Total Receipts of Firms
	product flows- flows'
	Continuous line with arrows show expenditure
	flows
	Important Concepts
1)	Consumption function- Functional relationship between consumption spending and
	disposable income → C = f(Y) =
2)	Average Propensity to Consume- Ratio of total consumption to total income.
	APC =
	Consumption isfunction of income.

3) Marginal Propensity to Consume (MPC = "b")- Increment in consumer expenditure per unit of increment to income.  $\rightarrow$ MPC = = bKeynes assumes that consumption increases with an increase in Yd, but that increase in consumption < increase in Yd Value of MPC is **between** \_\_\_\_ & \_\_\_. MPC is also the \_\_\_\_\_\_ of consumption line 4)| Saving function - Functional relationship between saving & income → S = f(Y) = 5) Marginal Propensity to Save Increment in saving per unit increase in disposable income.  $MPC + MPS = ___ ; MPS 0 < b < 1$ = 1- b Also, MPS is \_\_\_\_\_\_ of savings line 6) Average Propensity to Save- Ratio of total saving to total income. -> APS = \_\_\_\_\_ function of income. 7) Aggregate Supply (AS)- Ex ante or planned AS -> total supply of G/S which firms plan on selling during a specific time period. AS = Agg. Production = Factor Payments = Factor Incomes [National Income→ Y] 8) Aggregate Demand (AD)- Total planned \_\_\_\_in the economy.

#### Two Sector Model

- Household Sector & Business Sector only
- $\rightarrow$  AD = C + I (I is assumed to be constant)
- $\rightarrow$  AS = C + S

#### Three Sector Model

- Household + Business + Govt Sector
- AD = C + I + G

9) Equilibrium output- Desired amount of output demanded = amount produced. (AD = AS)

- (I & G are assumed to be constant)
- $\triangleright$  AS = C + S + T
- > Equilibrium is achieved when AD = AS or C + I + G = C + S + T

Govt sector adds following flows to 2 sector model:

- 1) 2)
- 3)
- 4)

#### Four Sector Model

- > Household + Business + Govt. + Foreign Sector
- $\rightarrow$  AD = C + I + G + (X M)
- (I, G & X are assumed to be constant)
- $\rightarrow$  AS = C + S + T
- Figure 1. Equilibrium is achieved when AD = AS or C + I + G + (X M) = C + S + T

Foreign sector adds following flows to circular flow of 3 sector model:

- 1) exports,
- 2) imports and
- net capital inflow which is the difference between capital outflow and capital inflow

If (X > M) is +ve then NI \_\_creases

If (X > M) is -ve then NI \_\_\_creases.

#### **LEAKAGES & INJECTIONS**

- □ <u>Leakage-</u> of income from circular flow → part of income used to purchase goods.
- 2 sector Model : Leakages =
- > 3 sector Model : Leakages =
- 4 sector Model : Leakages =
- ☐ <u>Injection-</u> It is an <u>inflow of income to the circular flow</u>. Due to injection, the <u>volume of income increases</u>.
- 2 sector Model : Injection =
- > 3 sector Model : Injection =
- > 4 sector Model : Injection =

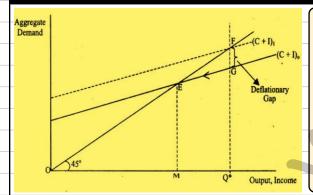
- ☐ If **AS = AD → Leakages = Inj.**NI will be in \_\_\_\_\_
- ☐ If AS > AD → Leakages > Inj.

  Stock \_\_\_\_\_\_ or Deficient

Demand  $\rightarrow$  (NI will  $\_$ 

- ☐ If AS < AD → Leakages < Inj.
  Stock \_\_\_\_\_\_ or Excess
- Stock \_\_\_\_\_ or Exc Demand → (NI will \_\_\_\_)

#### **DEFLATIONARY & INFLATIONARY GAP**

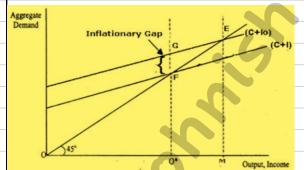


Deflationary Gap

If actual AD < full employment level of output > \_\_\_\_\_ demand.

It leads to '\_\_\_\_\_ gap' or '\_\_\_\_ gap'. Occurs when economy is in contraction.

Firms will experience unplanned \_\_\_\_\_\_ of inventories  $\rightarrow$  \_\_\_\_\_ in output & income in future until \_\_\_\_\_-employment equilibrium is reached at E.



#### Inflationary Gap

If actual AD > full employment level of output → \_\_\_\_\_ demand.

It leads to 'inflationary gap',. Occurs during expansion & causes \_\_\_\_inflation.

**Real output will be constant**, but rise in prices will cause **increase in nominal output** until **new equilibrium** is reached at **point E**.

#### INVESTMENT MULTIPLIER

Investment Multiplier (k)  $\rightarrow$  how many times \_\_\_\_\_\_ increases as result of increase in autonomous \_\_\_\_\_\_  $\Delta y$  1 1

More the leakages → \_\_\_\_\_ the multiplier

 $K = \frac{\Delta Y}{\Delta I}$  or  $\frac{1}{1 - MPC}$  or  $\frac{1}{MPS}$ 

#### IMPORT

Import function is: M =

Marginal propensity to import -> m =

is assumed to be constant.

	Summary of Multiplier
	10
	How to solve Numerical MCQs of National Income?

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## Business Economics Revision Notes

# Chapter 7 Public Finance

By CA Mohnish Vora (MVSIR)

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INTROPUCTION   Macroeconomics → study of economy as a  3 main macroeconomic goals for any nation.  Economic → Growth of Real GDP > population → leads to higher standard of living.  High levels of		<u>Chapter 7 – Public Finance</u> Unit 1 – Fiscal Functions: An Overview, Centre And State Finance
Macroeconomics → study of economy as a  3 main macroeconomic goals for any nation.  Economic → Growth of Real GDP > population → leads to higher standard of living.  High levels of		
> 3 main macroeconomic goals for any nation.    Economic		INTRODUCTION
1) Economic → Growth of Real GDP > population → leads to higher standard of living.  High levels of	>	Macroeconomics → study of economy as a
1) Economic → Growth of Real GDP > population → leads to higher standard of living.  High levels of		
High levels of	>	
Inflation		
Inflation		
Peflation signals a → which cause recession & unemployment.  The objective of economic system & role of govt → improve		
The objective of economic system & role of govt → improve		
Adam Smith was a bold advocate of	_	Deflation signals a
Adam Smith was a bold advocate of		The objective of economic system & role of govt → improve of people.
As per Smith, important resource allocation roles of govt  a) national defense,  b) establishing a system of justice to provide internal law & order  c) establishment & maintenance of public institutions & public works - roads, bridges, etc  RICHARD MUSGRAVE - 3 Roles of Government  > Richard Musgrave, in his book 'The Theory of Public Finance' (1959), introduced 3 roles of government in a market economy    functions		
a) national defense, establishing a system of justice to provide internal law & order c) establishment & maintenance of public institutions & public works - roads, bridges, etc  RICHARD MUSGRAVE - 3 Roles of Government  Richard Musgrave, in his book 'The Theory of Public Finance' (1959), introduced 3 roles of government in a market economy  functions  functions  Allocation Function  ensures that the distribution of wealth and income is macro-economic stability problems  ALLOCATION FUNCTION  Resource allocation → way in which available resources are allocated among various uses.	>	Adam Smith was a bold advocate ofmarkets & governmental activity.
establishing a system of justice to provide internal law & order  c) establishment & maintenance of public institutions & public works - roads, bridges, etc  RICHARD MUSGRAVE - 3 Roles of Government  > Richard Musgrave, in his book 'The Theory of Public Finance' (1959), introduced 3 roles of government in a market economy  ———————————————————————————————————		As per Smith, important resource allocation roles of govt
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RICHARD MUSGRAVE - 3 Roles of Government  Richard Musgrave, in his book 'The Theory of Public Finance' (1959), introduced 3 roles of government in a market economy  functions  Allocation function  aims to correct the sources of distribution of wealth and income in the economy  ALLOCATION FUNCTION  Resource allocation > way in which available resources are allocated among various uses.	b)	establishing a system of justice to provide internal law & order
Richard Musgrave, in his book 'The Theory of Public Finance' (1959), introduced 3 roles of government in a market economy  functions  Allocation aims to correct the sources of in the economy  ALLOCATION FUNCTION  Resource allocation → way in which available resources are allocated among various uses.	c)	establishment & maintenance of public institutions & public works - roads, bridges, etc
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functions    Allocation   Re-distribution   Function     aims to correct   the sources of   in the economy   in the economy     Allocation   Re-distribution   Function     ensures that the   distribution   of   wealth and income   is   macro-economic   stability problems     ALLOCATION FUNCTION     Resource allocation → way in which available resources are allocated among various uses.		RICHARD MUSGRAVE – 3 Roles of Government
Allocation   Re-distribution   Function	>	Richard Musgrave, in his book 'The Theory of Public Finance' (1959), introduced 3 roles of
Allocation function  aims to correct the sources of in the economy  ALLOCATION FUNCTION  Resource allocation → way in which available resources are allocated among various uses.		government in a market economy
Allocation function  aims to correct the sources of in the economy  ALLOCATION FUNCTION  Resource allocation → way in which available resources are allocated among various uses.		
function  aims to correct the sources of in the economy  ALLOCATION FUNCTION  Resource allocation → way in which available resources are allocated among various uses.		functions functions
function  aims to correct the sources of in the economy  ALLOCATION FUNCTION  Resource allocation → way in which available resources are allocated among various uses.		Allocation Re-distribution
the sources of distribution of wealth and income in the economy  ALLOCATION FUNCTION  Resource allocation → way in which available resources are allocated among various uses.		function Function
wealth and income in the economy  ALLOCATION FUNCTION  Resource allocation → way in which available resources are allocated among various uses.		Theriodally of places.
ALLOCATION FUNCTION  ➤ Resource allocation → way in which available resources are allocated among various uses.		
➤ Resource allocation → way in which available resources are allocated among various uses.		in the economy is stability problems
➤ Resource allocation → way in which available resources are allocated among various uses.		
		ALLOCATION FUNCTION
of 4/3 will actually be produced in an economy.		
	<b>&gt;</b>	Resource allocation → way in which available resources are allocated among various uses.
► <b>Economic efficiency</b> → resources allocated in best way → waste & inefficiency.	>	Resource allocation → way in which available resources are allocated among various uses.
		Resource allocation → way in which available resources are allocated among various uses.  It determines of G/S will actually be produced in an economy.
, ,	>	Resource allocation → way in which available resources are allocated among various uses.  It determines of G/S will actually be produced in an economy.  Economic efficiency → resources allocated in best way → waste & inefficiency.
> If a market is left to itself → leads to & of scarce	>	Resource allocation → way in which available resources are allocated among various uses.  It determines of G/S will actually be produced in an economy.
1	> >	Resource allocation → way in which available resources are allocated among various uses.  It determines of G/S will actually be produced in an economy.  Economic efficiency → resources allocated in best way → waste & inefficiency.  Resource allocation aims to correct sources of inefficiency in the economic system.
resources. Thus, market failures provide rationale for government's allocative function	> >	Resource allocation → way in which available resources are allocated among various uses.  It determines of G/S will actually be produced in an economy.  Economic efficiency → resources allocated in best way → waste & inefficiency.  Resource allocation aims to correct sources of inefficiency in the economic system.  If a market is left to itself → leads to & of scarce
•	> >	Resource allocation → way in which available resources are allocated among various use it determines of G/S will actually be produced in an economy.  Economic efficiency → resources allocated in best way → waste & inefficien Resource allocation aims to correct sources of inefficiency in the economic system.

	Allocation instruments which govt. can use to influence resource allocation
1)	Government may <mark>produce</mark> an economic good
2)	Government mayprivate allocation through-
✓	Incentives :
✓	Disincentives :
3)	Government may influence allocation through itspolicies. Eg- Competition Act 2002
4)	Governments' <mark>activities</mark> such as licensing, minimum wages etc.
5)	Government sets legal and administrative frameworks
6)	any mixture of above methods
	REDISTRIBUTION FUNCTION
<b>A</b>	If left to market, distribution of income is likely to be & thus govt. has to
	intervene to ensure more socially & distribution.
>	It is related to question →should an economy produce G/S.
	Redistributive Function in Govt Budgeting
>	Expenditure side of budget- Govt. may provideeducation,
	healthcare, housing, food etc to deserving people
>	Revenue side of budget- Redistribution is done throughtaxation
<b>A</b>	Revenue side of budget- Redistribution is done throughtaxation
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	STABILISATION FUNCTION	
	Macroeconomic stability is said to exist when:	Stabilisation function ensures
1)	•	achievement of-
2)	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	> M_croeconomic
3)		> maintenance of levels of employment &
	Inflation is low and stable.	>stability.
- 1)	influction is tow and scapic.	
П	Rationale of Stabilisation Function	6
	In absence of govt intervention, the instabilities in f	orm of recessions inflation at a may
	befor longer periods causing enorm	
	Also situation of (inflation + unemployr	
	Stabilization issue becomes more complex due to 'cor	ntagion effect.
	Stabilization function is concerned Govt's stabi	lization intervention may be through
	with performance of aggregate	
	economy in terms of:  1) Labour employment and capital	policy - Controlling size of, which
	utilisation would affect	ct consumption, invt. & prices.
	2) Overall output and income	
	3) General price levels 4) Balance of international	/ - It relates to
	payments	decisions & decisions of govt
	5) Rate of economic growth Which can	stimulate economic activities
	Expansionary fiscal policy is adopted to alleviate recessi	Deficit budgets (Exp > Rev)
	Durina <b>recession</b> , aovernment-	Deficit budgets (Cxp > Rev)
	its expenditure orta	economic activity
	Contractionary fiscal policy is resorted to for control	ling [
	high inflation	Surplus budgets (Rev > Exp) tend to
	During high inflation, government-  > its expenditure or tax	
	Notes:	
	. 0	

	CENTRE AND STATE FINANCE		
>	(term by Richard Musgrave)→ division of govt. functions &		
	financial relations among different levels of govt.		
>	As per Musgrave, responsibility of-		
	✓ central (union/federal) govt → economic		
	✓ state govt <del>&gt;</del>		
>	India → states & union territories.		
>	Federalism is an institutional arrangement to accommodate two sets of government-		
	✓ one at national level and		
	✓ other at <mark>regional level</mark> .		
>	An independent→ resolve disputes between CG & SG on division of power.		
>	<b>Article</b> of Constitution of India → powers of union & states-		
1)	Union list- union parliament		
2)	State list- state legislative assemblies		
3)			
	In event of <b>conflicting legislation</b> in concurrent→ law passed by prevails.		
>	Union (Central) govt. can levy taxes liketax (on agricultural		
	income), customs duties, excise duties, corporation tax, tax on capital value of assets,		
	security transaction tax, central GST, taxes other than stamp duties etc		
>	State governments can levy taxes on income, lands & buildings, mineral		
	rights, electricity, vehicles, tolls, professions, land revenue and impose excise duties on		
	certain items.		
>	The property of the union is fromtaxation.		
>	Similarly, the property and income of the states areliable to be taxed by the centre.		
>	<b>Articles</b> to of constitution $\rightarrow$ distribution of finances among states by central gov		
	FINANCE COMMISSION		
>	Article → "Finance Commission". It is responsible for-		
	1) evaluating the of union & state govt,		
	2) recommending the of taxes between them and		
	3) laying downdeterminingof these taxes among states.		

>	While recommending transfers, the Finance Commission considers issues-		
✓	equity (deciding about the share of states in revenue collected by centre) &		
✓	equity (allocation states their share of central revenue).		
>	The 15 <sup>th</sup> Finance Commission was constituted on 27, Nov 2017		
	Share of states in central taxes (vertical equity) for 2021-26 to be		
	> This was less than 42% share recommended by 14th Finance Commission 2015-20.		
	➤ The adjustment of 1% → and		
	GOODS & SERVICE TAX (GST)		
>	GST rolled out on→ made India's indirect tax regime <b>unitary</b> in nature.		
۶	For any particular goods & service, SGST & CGST rates are		
>	GST (IGST) is applied onstate movement of G/S & on imports/exports.		
	✓ IGST is simply aof SGST & CGST		
	✓ administered & collected bygovernment,		
	√ kept in a <mark>account</mark> ,		
	✓ & distributed between the&		
>	GST → of gross tax revenue of union & of own tax revenue of states.		
>	As per <b>supreme court verdict in</b> , Union & state legislatures have ",		
	simultaneous and unique powers" to on GST & the recommendations of		
	GST Council are not binding on them.		
>	GST system replaced old production-based taxation system with a based one.		
	Manufacturing states → provided by levying a cess on goods		
	&goods → proceeds are credited to the		
>	Top five GST compensation receiving states wereaharashtra,arnataka,ujarat,		
	unjab &amil Nadu.		
	EXPENDITURE DECENTRALIZATION BORROWING BY GOVERNMENT		
	Reviewing by Cout of India & borrowing by states A		
	Central govt → nationally important areas like, foreign affairs,		
	foreign trade, money & banking, etc  The centre may borrow within limits fixed by parliament upon security of Consolidated Fund of		
	services like India.		
	health & education, police > The state governments may borrow within territory protection, state infra. of India upon security of Consolidated Fund of State		
	> Local self governments - The centre may give loans to the states within		
	municipalities & panchayats → limits fixed under article		
	& sanitation, local roads, electricity.  States need to obtain centre's in order to borrow in case state is indebted to centre.		
	to borrow in case state is inquired to centre.		

	<u>Chapter 7 - Public Finance</u> Unit 2 – Market Failure / Government Intervention To Correct Market Failure		
	MARKET FAILURE		
	MARKET FAILURE		
	It is a situation in which the <b>free market</b> leads to of <b>society's</b>		
	scarce resources in the sense that there is either-		
	> or		
	of particular G/S leading to aoptimal outcome.		
	If in all markets perfect competition exist, it leads to market efficiently, most often the		
	prerequisites of competition are unlikely to be present in an economy		
	TWO TYPES OF MARKET FAILURE		
1)	market failure. This is a case of "missing markets" and occurs when the		
	market does supply products at all despite the fact that such products and		
	services are wanted by people. E.g. Pure public goods.		
2)	market failure occurs when the market does actually function, but it		
	produces either-		
	wrong of product or		
	> at the wrong		
	This results in loss of		
	WHY DO MARKETS FAIL ? OR REASONS FOR MARKET FAILURE		
	I) MARKET ROLLER		
	I) MARKET POWER		
	Market power or monopoly power is ability of a firm to profitably		
	of a G/S over its, thereby earning economic profits.		
	Market power→ cause markets to be inefficient because-		
	> producersoutput, &		
	> keep price than Perfect Comp		
	Thus, market fails to produce right quantity of G/S at the right price. Leading to		
	production and thus market failure.		

	II) EXTERNALITIES
	Sometimes, the actions of either consumers or producers result in <b>costs or benefits</b> that
	do reflect as part of the market price.
	Such costs or benefits which are not accounted for by are called
	externalities because they are "" to the market.
	Externalities are also referred to as
	effects', OR 'effects'
	effects' OR '',
	as the of the externality imposes costs or benefits on others who are
	responsible for initiating the effect.
	> Since it occurs outside price mechanism, it has not been compensated for, or it is
	or cost (benefit) of it is not borne (paid) by the parties.
	> Externalities can be-
	➤ <b>Negative externalities</b> → action of one party <b>imposes</b> on another party.
	> Positive externalities → action of one party confers on another party.
	NEGATIVE PRODUCTION EXTERNALITY
>	A negative externality
	✓ initiated in
	✓ which imposes an on others
	✓ may be <b>received</b> by another in or
>	NPE received in
	Eg-
>	NPE received in
	Eg-
	. 0
	NIECATINE CONCUMENTION EXTERMALITY
	A Negative Externality
	A Negative Externality  ✓ initiated in
	✓ which imposes an on others
	✓ may be received by another in or
	may be received by another inor
<b>A</b>	NCE Received In
	Eg-
>	NCE Received In
	Eg-

	POSITIVE PRODUCTION EXTERNALITY
>	A positive externality
	✓ initiated in
	✓ that confers on others
	✓ may be <b>received</b> in or in
>	Compared to NPE, PPE are
~	PPE received in
✓	Eg- Firm offers training to employees -> positive benefits for other firms when they hire
	such workers as they change their jobs.
	The state of the s
>	PPE received in
✓	Eg- An individual raises an attractive garden → persons walking by enjoy the garden
	- sy - war war and said and a said
	POSITIVE CONSUMPTION EXTERNALITY
]	A positive externality
	✓ initiated in
	✓ that confers on others
	✓ may be received in or in
	→ may be received in  Or in
A	PCE received in
	Eq-
•	
<b>A</b>	PCE received in
	Eq-
•	
	How Externalities Cause Inefficiency And Market Failure ?
A	<b>Private cost</b> is money cost of production incurred by i.e. wages, raw
	materials, etc, which for production, & would in firm's accounts.
A	Supply curve here corresponds to only
	supply curve here corresponds to only
	Social costs → total costs to on account of production or consumption activity.
<b>A</b>	Social Cost =
	External costs and included in Simon acts on consumous decisions
<b>A</b>	External costs are included in firms' costs or consumers' decisions.
	Figure do not have to have for days as from hellution which they assessed As a condi-
	Firms do not have to pay for damage from pollution which they generate. As a result,
	each firm's cost, considers only cost & would not incorporate

>	Such prices send $\_$ signals to producers & consumers $\rightarrow$ cause either		
	over-production or under-production.		
>	Thus, here a competitive market will produce a level of output which is not socially optimal,		
	leading to market failure.		
	III) PUBLIC GOODS		
>	gave the concept of 'collective consumption good' in his		
	paper 'The Pure Theory of Public Expenditure'		
>	A public good (aka. collective consumption good or social good) is defined as one which-		
✓	enjoy in		
✓	each individual's consumption of such a good leads to from any		
	other individuals' consumption of that good.		
	CHARACTERISTICS OF PUBLIC GOODS		
1)	Consumption is in nature.		
2)	: It means that consumption of a public good by one individual		
	does reduce the quality or quantity available for all other.		
3)	: If the good is provided, one individual deny other		
	individuals' consumption, even if they have for it.		
4)	: Each individual may consume all of good i.e. total amount		
	consumed is same for each individual.		
5)	Once provided, additional resource cost of another person consuming it is ''		
6)	direct payment by the consumer is involved		
7)	vulnerable to issues → externalities, inadequate property rights, & free rider		
	problem. No incentive for people to pay for it, as they can consume it without paying.		
>	If left to the market, public goods will not be produced at all or will be grossly		
	produced. Thus, leading to market failure		
	Private goods are & anyone who wants it, must them at a		
~	They do face free-rider problem.		
>	They are '' i.e. it is possible to exclude consumers who have not paid.		
>	Consumption is '' that is consumption by one, prevents another individual		
	from consuming it.		
	Normally, marketsallocate resources for the production of private goods.		
~	Eg- food items, clothing, movie ticket, television, cars, etc		

	IV) INCOMPLETE INFORMATION		
>	Perfect information → both buyers & sellers have complete information about anything that		
	may influence their decision making.		
	However, above assumption is not fully satisfied in real markets because of		
>	of G/S (e.g. cardiac surgery, mutual funds etc.),		
>	difficulty of getting information, and		
>	deliberateby interested parties (e.g. persuasive advertisements).		
>	Information failure leads to –		
	A. asymmetric information,		
	B. adverse selection and		
	C. moral hazard		
	Which affects ability of markets to efficiently allocate resources and therefore lead to		
	market failure because party with better information has a competitive advantage.		
A)	Asymmetric Information		
>	Asymmetric Information which means imbalance in information, i.e whenknows		
	more than or This can distort choices and lead to market failure.		
>	For eg,		
	✓ the landlords know more about their properties than the tenants,		
	✓ a <b>borrower knows more about their ability</b> to repay a loan than the lender etc.		
В)	Adverse Selection		
>	Asymmetric information <b>generates adverse selection</b> .		
>	When one party to a contract, say X, possesses information relevant to the contract that		
	other party Y does have → expected value of transaction is known more accurately to		
	due to asymmetry of information. Then, X (having more information) may		
	Y's ignorance & this could put the ignorant party at a		
>	Thus, asymmetric information leads <b>party</b> relevant knowledge to make		
	decisions and suffer adverse effects.		
>	For eg, insurers know less about health conditions of buyers → thus unable to differentiate		
	between high-risk & low-risk persons. This forces the price of insurance to, so that		
	more healthy people, aware of their low risks, choose to be insured. It also further		
	increases proportion ofpeople among insured, thus raising price up more.		

	Lemons Problem (given by)
>	Sellers knowabout car quality than buyers, oftendefects.
>	Buyers offerprices to offset the risk of getting a 'lemon'.
>	car owners thenselling, leaving mostly in the market.
>	The result is market distortion with lower prices and lower average quality of cars.
>	Thus, asymmetric information leads toof high-quality goods from market.
>	Economic agents end up either-
	✓ selecting a product (lemon), or
	✓ the market altogether.
	the market attogether.
	Moral Hazards
	It is about informed person's taking advantage of aperson
	through an
	It occurs when one party to an agreement knows that he need bear the
	consequences of his & that consequence, if any, would be borne by the
	party. Therefore, he <b>engages in behaviour</b> or <b>fails to act in</b>
	For eg,

	GOVERNMENT INTERVENTION TO CORRECT MARKET FAILURE		
	D. Minimine Manhot Roman		
	I) Minimize Market Power		
<u> </u>	Market power leads to → as it output which results in		
	prices thus leading to		
<b>&gt;</b>	Governments intervene by establishing rules & regulations designed to		
	competition & actions that may restrain competition.		
	These legislations differ from country to country.		
	India- Competition Act, 2002;		
	USA- Antitrust Laws		
	Other measures include:		
2)	Market → introducing competition in previously monopolistic sectors  Controls on → if possible market domination.		
3)			
<b>4</b> )			
<del>5</del> )			
6)			
7)			
8)			
9)			
	price→ to ensure a rate of return → called rate-of return regulation.		
	price is crisure a rate of retain is called rate of retain regulation.		
	II) a) Government intervention to correct Negative Externalities		
	<u>Direct Controls</u>		
>	Direct controls, (aka),activities that create		
	negative externalities or require that negative externality beto a certain level.		
	For example,		
>	amt of pollutants released or make it mandatory to use pollution control devices.		
>	Licensing, production quotas & mandates regarding acceptable production processes.		
>	Production, use & sale of some commodities can be Eg- Smoking at public places		
>	to alleviate effects of neg. externalities. Eg- Environment (Protection) Act, 1986		
>	Fix→ legal limit on how much pollutant a firm can		
	emit. If firm exceeds limit <del>&gt;</del>		
>	The firms have to install pollution-abatement mechanisms → rise in firm's		
>	Charge an which is levied on each unit of a firm's emissions.		
>	Form/ boards→ Ministry of Environ. & Forest, Pollution Control Board of India		

	Market Based Policies		
>	Market-based policies provide economic so that of		
	market participants would achieve the socially optimal solution.		
>	It focus on generation of a market price for pollution, achieved by-		
	✓ Setting price directly- by		
	<ul> <li>The key to an externality (both external costs and benefits) is to</li> </ul>		
	ensure that <b>those who</b> the externalities <b>them while making decisions</b> .		
	✓ Setting price indirectly- by		
	<ul> <li>Second approach to establishing prices indirectly is '</li></ul>		
	(carbon credits)		
	POLITICAL TAY		
	The size of pollution tax depends on the a firm produces.		
	Akataxes after A.C. Pigou		
	These taxes, by 'making the polluter pay', seek to the external costs into the price of a product or activity.		
<b>A</b>	Tax increases & output of good which creates –ve externality.		
	Proceeds from tax > used for projects that environment.		
	Problems in administering an efficient pollution tax		
1)	Difficult to & → complex & costly administrative procedures		
	If demand for good is, such tax will aneffect in reducing demand.		
	In such case, producers will easily in form of higher prices.		
3)	<b>Negative consequences</b> on <b>employment</b> & <b>investments</b> $\rightarrow$ high pollution taxes may		
3)	Negative consequences on employment & investments → high pollution taxes may encourage producers to their factories to those countries with taxes.		
3)			
3)	encourage producers to their factories to those countries with taxes.  TRADABLE EMISSION PERMITS		
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- 1		
>	In 1994, USA began a cap & trade system for	emissions that cause acid
	rain by issuing permits to power plants.	
>	In India, (PAT) scheme, carbon tax in the form of a ces	
	on coal, lignite and peat,.	
>	In, coal cess was abolished and replaced by the GST	compensation cess.
>	(Amendment) Bill, 2022 empower	s the central government to
	specify a carbon credit trading scheme and to stipulate energy	consumption standards.
	II) b) Government intervention to correct Positive Externalities	
>	Positive externality is associated with external benefits $\rightarrow$ s	till market failure as, left to
	market, there will beoptimal output.	
>	Since they promote welfare, govt implement policies $\rightarrow$	positive externalities.
>		
✓	corrective subsidies to → for increasing supply. (Eg	- fertilizer subsidy)
✓	corrective subsidies to → increasing demand (Eg-	Subsidy on education fee →
	consumption subsidy)	
>	A correctiveinvolves govern	ment paying part of cost to
	firms to production of goods having positive of	externalities. This is in fact a
	policy as subsidies to producers would	cost of production.
>	In case of goods whose externalities are vastly positive,	enters market
	directly as entrepreneur to produce & provide them. Eg- Public education, health care etc	
>	Governments also engage in direct production of	
	Eg- afforestation, reforestation, protection of water bodies, t	reatment of sewage etc.
	III) a) Government intervention in case of merit goods	
	Merit goods → goods having substantial positive externalities &	
>	They are <b>under-</b> & <b>under-</b> through	n the market mechanism so
	that social welfare willbe maximized.	
>	<b>Eg</b> - education, health care, welfare services, waste managem	ent, public libraries, museum
>	Govt responses→ regulation, subsidies, direct government provision & combination of govt	
	provision & market provision.	
1)	<b>Regulation→</b> how private activity may be conducted. Eg,	way in which education is
	imparted is government regulated.	
2)	Govt can some type of activities, set standa	rds and issue mandates. Eg,
	govt may make it compulsory to avail insurance protection, c	ompulsory vaccination etc
3)	•	of a good which
	generates positive externalities. E.g. use of, see	at belts etc.

- 1	
4)	Govt can individuals to consume good generating external benefit. The Right
	of Children to Free & Compulsory Education Act, 2009 which mandates free & compulsory
	education for every child of the age of 6 to 14 years.
5)	The ultimate encouragement -> make good completely Eg- freely available hospital
	treatment for various diseases.
	III) b) Government intervention in case of demerit goods
>	Demerit goods are socially undesirable. Eg- cigarettes, alcohol, intoxicating drugs etc. The
	consumption of which imposes negative externalities.
>	Production & consumption of demerit goods→optimal under free markets.
>	that consumers pay for cigarettes is market determined and does account
	for the social costs that arise due to externalities.
>	However, all goods with negative externalities are demerit goods; e.g. Production of
	steel causes pollution, but steel is a socially undesirable good.
	How do governments correct market failure resulting from demerit goods ?
1)	Enforce <b>complete</b> on a demerit good. e.g. Intoxicating drugs
2)	Effect of total ban is realized in form ofof demerit good;
	conversely such goods are <b>secretly driven</b> & traded in <b>market</b>
3)	j
•	But, demand for demerit goods is highly, so any increase in price due to
	additional tax causes a less proportionate decrease in demand. Also, sellers can
	taxes to consumers by without losing customers.
4)	Government can fix a price which the demerit good should not be
	exchanged. (Price)
5)	Through, achieved byadvertising campaigns which emphasize
	dangers with consumption of demerit goods Eg- Mukesh- iss shehar ko ye hua kya hai
6)	Through legislations of demerit goods Eg- Alcohol ads- music cds
7)	Strict regulations- to to good→ by vulnerable groups – children.
8)	restrictions e.g. smoking in public places, sale of tobacco to be away from schools
	IV) Government intervention in case of Public goods
>	of public good by government → overcome free-rider problem.
>	Important public goods- Eg- defence, establishment & maintenance of legal system, disease
	prevention etc are provided by the government.
>	public goods can be provided by govt & same can be financed through
>	Grantto private firms to build a public good facility→ goods will be provided
	to public on paying entry fee. Govtlevel of entry fee & keeps strict
	on functioning of licensee to guarantee equitable distribution of welfare.

corporate entities and NGOS.  Certain goods are produced and consumed as public goods and services despite the fact that they can be produced or consumed as goods. As, left to the markets and profit motives, these may prove to society. Eg	>		<b>contributions</b> and private donations by			
that they can be produced or consumed as goods. As, left to the markets and profit motives, these may prove to society. Eg-  1) scientific approval of 2) production of strategic products such as 3) provision of etc  V) Price provision of etc  V) Price Intervention: Non-Market Pricing  Price intervention → form of price controls which are on price.  Price Controls may take the form of either-Price Floor (a price buyers are required to pay) or Eg-Minimum Support Price (MSP), to guarantee steady and assured incomes to farmers.  Price Ceiling (a price sellers are allowed to charge)  Eg-Fixing of Fixing Organization Fixing Fi		·				
profit motives, these may prove	~					
1) scientific approval of 2) production of strategic products such as 3) provision of						
2) production of strategic products such as  3) provision of		profit motives, these may prove	to society. Eg-			
3) provision of		<ol> <li>scientific approval of</li></ol>				
V) Price Intervention: Non-Market Pricing  Price intervention → form of price controls which are		<ol><li>production of strategic products su</li></ol>	ch as,			
Price intervention → form of price controls which are		3) provision of	etc			
Price intervention → form of price controls which are						
Price controls may take the form of either- Price Floor (a		V) Price Intervention: Non-Market Pricing				
Price Floor (a price buyers are required to pay) or  Eg- Minimum Support Price (MSP), to guarantee steady and assured incomes to farmers.  Price Ceiling (a price sellers are allowed to charge)  Eg- Fixing of & rise excessively, government resort to price ceilings for making commodity available to all at reasonable prices. Egmaximum prices of food grains and essential items are set by government during times of  VI) Correcting Information Failure  1) Make it mandatory-> accurate & disclosures by producers. Eg. Labelling on cigarette packets, in food packages.  2) Mandatory of information Eg: SEBI requires accurate information be provided to prospective buyers of new stocks. (prospectus)  Public of information to improve knowledge  4) Regulation of and setting of advertising to make advertising more responsible, informative and less persuasive.  VII) Equitable Distribution  Redistribute incomes so that there is correct market failure  Some common policy interventions include inefficiency & leads to misallocation.  1) income tax, Sovernment failure occurs when:  2) budgetary allocations  3) compensation wastage of resources expended for the intervention produces & more	>	Price intervention → form of price controls	which areon price.			
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Price Ceiling (a		Price Floor (a price buyers	are required to pay) or			
When prices of certain	✓	Eg- Minimum Support Price (MSP), to guarantee steady and assured incomes to farmers.				
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maximum prices of food grains and essential items are set by government during times of  VI) Correcting Information Failure  1) Make it mandatory→ accurate & disclosures by producers.  Eg. Labelling on cigarette packets, in food packages.  2) Mandatory of information Eg: SEBI requires accurate information be provided to prospective buyers of new stocks. (prospectus)  Public of information to improve knowledge  4) Regulation of and setting of advertising to make advertising more responsible, informative and less persuasive.  VII) Equitable Distribution Government Failure  Redistribute incomes so that there is bullenged intervention in economy to equity and fairness in the society. correct market failure correct market failure income tax, bullenged inefficiency & leads to misallocation.  1) income tax, bullenged Government failure occurs when:  2) budgetary allocations intervention is causing wastage of resources expended for the intervention produces & more	✓	When prices of certain	rise excessively, government			
VI) Correcting Information Failure  1) Make it mandatory→ accurate & disclosures by producers.  Eg. Labelling on cigarette packets,		resort to price ceilings for making comm	odity available to all at reasonable prices. Eg-			
Make it mandatory → accurate & disclosures by producers.  Eg. Labelling on cigarette packets,		maximum prices of food grains and essenti	al items are set by government during times of			
Make it mandatory → accurate & disclosures by producers.  Eg. Labelling on cigarette packets,						
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Eg. Labelling on cigarette packets,		VI) Correcting Information Failure				
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provided to prospective buyers of new stocks. (prospectus)  3) Public of information to improve knowledge  4) Regulation of and setting of advertising to make advertising more responsible, informative and less persuasive.  VII) Equitable Distribution		Eg. Labelling on cigarette packets,	in food packages.			
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more responsible, informative and less persuasive.  VII) Equitable Distribution  Redistribute incomes so that there is equity and fairness in the society.  Some common policy interventions include  1)income tax,	3)		•			
VII) Equitable Distribution  Redistribute incomes so that there is equity and fairness in the society.  Some common policy interventions include inefficiency & leads to misallocation.  1)income tax,	4)	Regulation of and setting of advertising to make advertising				
Redistribute incomes so that there is  equity and fairness in the society.  Some common policy interventions include  income tax,  income tax,  budgetary allocations  compensation  year allocation is causing wastage of resources expended for the intervention  security schemes, job, 2 intervention produces & more						
Redistribute incomes so that there is  equity and fairness in the society.  Some common policy interventions include  income tax,  income tax,  budgetary allocations  compensation  year allocation is causing wastage of resources expended for the intervention  security schemes, job, 2 intervention produces & more						
equity and fairness in the society.  Some common policy interventions include  inefficiency & leads to misallocation.  1)income tax,		VII) Equitable Distribution	Government Failure			
Some common policy interventions include  1)income tax,		Redistribute incomes so that there is	> When govt intervention in economy to			
<ol> <li>income tax,</li> <li>budgetary allocations</li> <li>compensation</li> <li>payments, subsidies, social</li> <li>security schemes, job</li> <li>pintervention is</li> <li>intervention is</li> <li>causing</li> <li>wastage of resources expended for the</li> <li>intervention</li> <li>intervention</li> <li>intervention</li> <li>intervention</li> <li>intervention</li> <li>intervention</li> <li>intervention</li> <li>intervention</li> </ol>		equity and fairness in the society.	correct market failure			
2)budgetary allocations 1) intervention is causing 3)compensation		Some common policy interventions include	inefficiency & leads to misallocation.			
3) compensation wastage of resources expended for the 4) payments, subsidies, social intervention security schemes, job, 2) intervention produces & more		1)income tax,	Government failure occurs when:			
4)payments, subsidies, social intervention security schemes, job, 2) intervention produces & more		2) budgetary allocations	1) intervention is causing			
security schemes, job, 2) intervention produces & more		3)compensation	wastage of resources expended for the			
		4)payments, subsidies, social	intervention			
etc. serious problems.		security schemes, job,	2) intervention produces & more			
		etc.	serious problems.			

7.16

## Chapter 7 - Public Finance Unit 3 - THE PROCESS OF BUDGET MAKING: SOURCES OF REVENUE, EXPENDITURE MANAGEMENT AND MANAGEMENT OF PUBLIC DEBT

I) Basics
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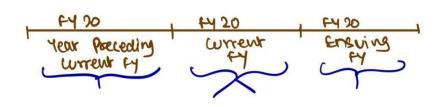
II) The Process Of Budget Making

III) Sources Of Revenue IV) Public Expenditure Management

V) Public Debt Management

	Making Of Revenue Management Management
	I) Basics
>	Budget is a powerful policy instrument → to regulate & restructure a country's priorities.
>	The <u>need for budgeting</u> arises from the need to-
	✓ <b>efficientlylimited resources</b> to ensure maximum social welfare.
	✓ to ensure <mark>of income</mark> and wealth.
	✓ reduce/ <mark>eliminate economic</mark> & bring in,
	✓ sustainable increase in and
	✓ reduction in
>	In simple terms, a <u>budget</u> -
	✓ Is a statement showing 'where money' & 'where the money'
	✓ Is a of entire revenues & exp. that govt expects to receive & plans to
	spend during following year.
	✓ contains estimates of govt's accounts for next fiscal year → estimates.
	√ includes projections of economy & its various sectors → agri, industry, and services.
	✓ is the mostreport of government's finances.
	II) The Process Of Budget Making
>	Budgetary process is means by which executive & legislative branches together formulate a
	coherent set of taxing & spending proposals.
>	Finances of govt of India have traditionally been controlled by
	The budget is <b>prepared by</b> in consultation with
	& other relevant ministries.
>	Budget must be presented & approved by houses of parliament before beginning of
	the fiscal year (April 1 to March 31).
>	The term 'budget' has been used in the Indian Constitution, the process of making it
	is referred to as <b>budgeting</b> .
>	Article of the constitution → for every financial year ' shall cause to be
	laid before houses of parliament a statement of receipts & expenditure
	of the government for that year, referred to as "
>	The <b>budgetary procedures</b> are – <b>Budget process</b> consists of two activities:
i.	Preparation of the budget 1. Administrative process > budget along with
ii.	Presentation & enactment accompanying documents are
iii.	Execution of the budget.  2. Legislative process wherein the budget isby
	the parliament after discussions.

PROCESS OF BUDGET (SUMMARY)				
Aug-Seq '25 1/4/26 fy 26-27 31/3/27				
Budget Prep shart for Transforming In	dia			
Budget is prepared by Mof in consultation with NITI Aayog.				
17 MOF -> Budget				
• Detailed instructions 4 formats _ sin				
for preparing estimates of exp Automotion				
2) Pre- Budget consultations.  Union FM -> State FM, Industry Associations, Representatives from various sec				
expects from NITI Aayog & economists ex.				
34 Proposed Budget is prepared				
47 Union fm -> Minister y Budget				
54 Ceremony -> Marking of budget downers.				
• Budget Downents  (AFS) > Growt. Receipts Consolidated funding  the penditure consolidated funding  t	4			
by	•			
dy <u>Statements mandated under FRBM Act.</u>				
in Mauro Eusnomic Statement				
er other downents -> Explanatory statements.				
· Budget shows into of Rec. & Exp. of 2 years.				
Fy 2026-27 La Budger hai Sensing year > Fy 2026-27				
Actual Receipts Budgeted Revised 2 Exp Estimates Estimates				
Year Preceding · Current fy · current fy the current f.y. · Ensuing fy				



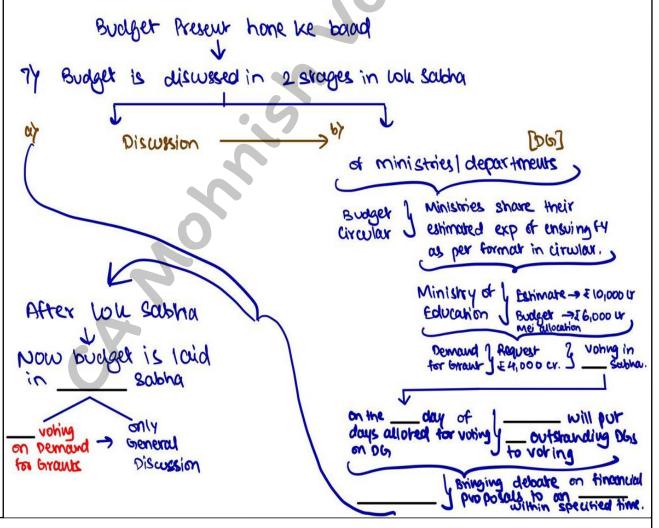
64 Budger speech -> Fm -> Lok Saloha.

#### Part A

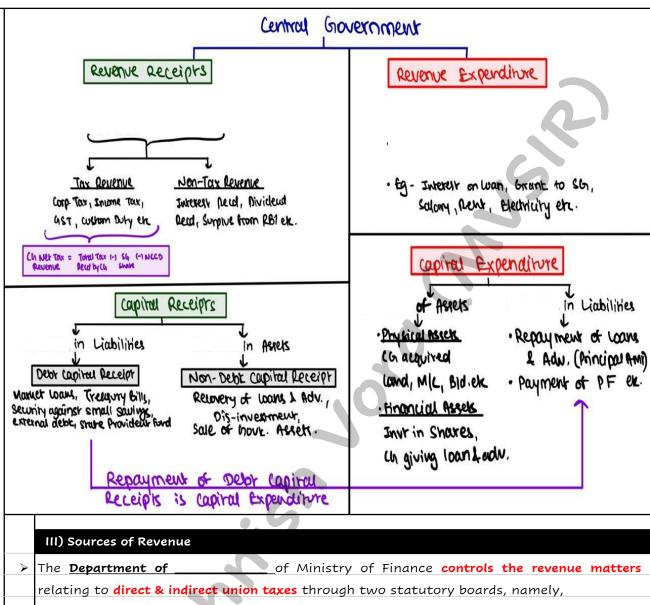
- Eumomic Situation
- Estimates for Ensuing FY.
   of Govt.
  - raised by Taxes, 2 Borrowing.
- · Imposed of Expenditure to diff. sectors [Appropriation Bill]
  · Schemes for Diff. sectors.

#### Part B

- developmental measures
- · Direction of policies
- proposals & variations in current taxation system [finance Bill]



48	After general discussion & voing on Dh, now cour. introduces -
	Bill > Give authority to bout. >
	After Appr. Bill from consolidated fund of snalla
	up for consideration of motion for leave to introduce file opposed.
	-> Parliament how to park F.B. withindays
72	After finance Bill J sent J Raijya - Has to return it Paused by to J sabha with _ days with without recommendations
	Recommendations of RS
	accepted or rejected by Ls.
	LOUTHY, FB will be sent to
	After degent & FB -> finance
(0)	from fy presentation y of Budger
117	Earlier Railway Budget was presented seperately by Mininster of Railways. Bur
	from Fy Railway Budget is merged with General Budget

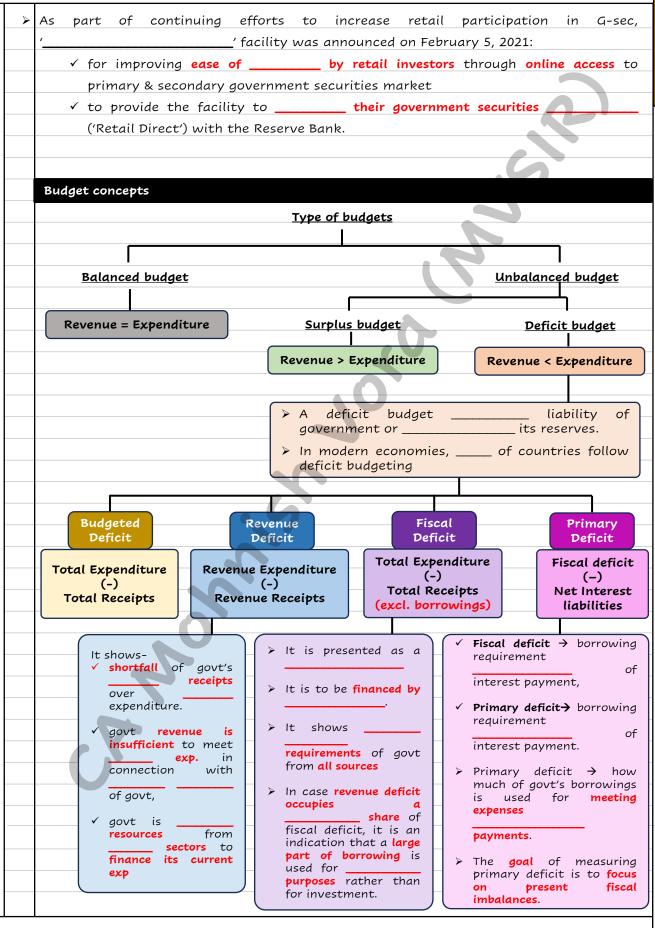


	III) Sources of Revenue
>	The <b>Department of</b> of Ministry of Finance controls the revenue matters
	relating to direct & indirect union taxes through two statutory boards, namely,
	1(CBDT)
	2(CBIC).
>	It is also entrusted with administration & enforcement of regulatory measures of all taxes.
>	Levy & collection of direct taxes→ looked after by, whereas
>	Levy & collection of GST, Customs & central excise duties & other IDTs→ looked by
>	Centre's net tax revenue = Total tax revenue (-) States' share (-) National Calamity
	Contingent duty (NCCD)
>	Various <b>services</b> provided by govt. also yield revenue for govt., like-
✓	medical services, public health, broadcasting, education, sports, housing and economic
	services such as communication, energy, transport, railways etc.

	IV) Public Expenditure Management
<b>A</b>	In view of resources > govt to ensure that level of public expenditure is
	consistent with a sustainable
>	Developing economies require amount of public spending to accelerate
	economic & promote opportunities.
>	in fiscal deficit requires mix of revenue and expenditure policies.
>	Government expenditure $\frac{\text{affects allocation of resources}}{\text{care should be taken to}}$
	channelize resources to areas.
>	<u>Public expenditure management</u> → process to make governments <u>fiscally</u>
>	Economic costs of unproductive public expenditures can be extensive & may lead to:
	✓ deficits
	✓ higher levels of,
	✓ economic growth,
	✓ resources available for use elsewhere, and
	✓ greater burden in the future.
	The <b>Department of</b> of Ministry of Finance → nodal department for
	overseeing the public financial management system of government.
	It is responsible for-
>	implementation of recommendations of Finance Commission & Central Pay Commission,
<b>&gt;</b>	of <mark>audit comments</mark> /observations, and
>	of central government <mark>accounts</mark> .
<b>&gt;</b>	assisting central ministries/departments in-
	✓costs & prices of public services,
	✓ reviewing systems & procedures to optimize outputs & outcomes of public exp.
~	The requirements of funds for all types of expenditure & receipts of departments are
	discussed during the pre-budget meetings chaired by(Expenditure).
<b>A</b>	Expenditure estimates are provisionally finalized & communicated to
	ministries/departments after the approval of Finance Minister.
<b>A</b>	One of the explanatory documents of the budget document is the ',
	(earlier known as expenditure budget)→ consists data of all ministries/departments to
	outline a profile of the general of government of India.
	of government of mata.
<b>A</b>	It gives an of various types of expenditure and certain other items
	across demands.

A	In Expenditure budget, Central govt expenditure is classified into six broad categories:
Α.	<u>Centre's Expenditure</u> :
	✓Expenditure of Centre;
	✓schemes, and
	✓ Other central expenditures including those on CPSEs and Autonomous Bodies
В.	Centrally Sponsored Schemes and other Transfers:
	✓schemes
	✓ <b>Other</b> transfers to states
	IV) Public Debt Management
>	In developing economies, government is generally theborrower.
>	Government debt from internal & external sources contracted in the
	is defined as
>	Public debt - means debt incurred by government in mobilizing of people in
	the form of loans, which are to be repaid at a future date with interest.
>	Public debt is <mark>a one-time exercise</mark> of borrowing and repaying.
>	<b>Debt</b> is a <b>exercise</b> as a portion of debt falls due each month,
	government does not cut expenditure or raise taxes $\rightarrow$ rather, it $debt$ ,
	i.e. it sells bonds and uses the proceeds to pay off holders of maturity bonds.
>	Productive use of public debt → contributes to economic <b>growth</b> & <b>welfare</b> .
>	Sustainability of sovereign debt is an indicator of overall
>	Debt sustainability is a <mark>function</mark> of-
	> of debt, &
	> govt'sthe outstanding debt.
>	Public debt management refers to task of determining-
	√ the size and composition of debt,
	✓ the maturity pattern, ✓ redemption of debt etc.
>	The overall objective of central govt's debt management policy is to-
	✓ meet central govt's needs at lowest possible costs &
	✓ to keep total debt within
	✓ It also aims at supporting development of
>	<b>Debt management strategy</b> is based on <b>three broad pillars</b> namely,
	1)
	2)
	3)

Institutions responsible for public de	ebt management are
<b>Domestic marketable debt</b> i.e., dated securities, treasury bills and cash management bills.	
External Debt  / loans- (loan from one country/govt)  / loans ( part of external debt)- loans from from multilateral agencies (International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, Asian Development Bank, etc.)	
Other liabilities such as small savings, deposits, reserve funds etc.	
acts as debt manager for marketable intern	al debt.
are issued to meet short-term	cash req. of govt.
are issued to mobilise longer terr	n resources to finance fiscal deficit.
There is sovereign borrowing from international	capital markets.
Risk of external debt is in value of	
currency of external loans leading to	in government's debt servicing cost.
From onwards, RBI also provides short-term	credit up to months to state
	•
	(*******)
to priage temporary mismateries in easily tows.	
Fiscal Responsibility and Budget Management (FRBM)	
It was passed in to provide	a legislative framework for
	al government to a sustainable level.
a chereby debe of center	at government to a sustainable level.
The <b>chiectives</b> of the act are:	
	anadement
	anagement,
	in policy and
	• • •
in fiscal operation of the govern	ment.
(PI	OMC) was created in 2016 under the
	the state of the state of the state of the
Stra	tegy or MTDS 2021-24 is a framework
to accermine appropriate composition of dept portjoin	<u>.</u>
	Domestic marketable debt i.e., dated securities, treasury bills and cash management bills.  External Debt



Торіс	Meaning
Outcome budget	They establishes a direct link between budgetary of schemes & its annual measured by output & outcome indicators.  It is a on what various ministries & departments have done with outlays in previous annual budget.  It measures the of all government programs and whether the money has been spent for the it was sanctioned including the outcome of the fund
Guillotine	<ul> <li>Parliament has very time for examining the expenditure demands of all the ministries.</li> <li>Once prescribed period for discussion on demands for grants is over, the of Lok Sabha puts outstanding demands for grants, whether discussed or not, to vote of house.</li> <li>This process is known as 'Guillotine'.</li> </ul>
Cut Motions	Motions for to various demands for grants are made in form of cut motions seeking to the sums sought by govt. on grounds of or of opinion on matters of policy or just in order to
Public Account	<ul> <li>Under provisions of Article of the Constitution of India, public account is used in relation to all the fund flows where government is acting as a</li> <li>Eg &amp;</li> <li>This money does belong to govt but is to be returned to depositors.</li> <li>Expenditure from this fund need be approved by the parliament.</li> </ul>
Consolidated Fund of India	<ul> <li>All received, raised and all received by government in repayment of loans are credited to the Consolidated Fund of India and all of the government are incurred from this fund.</li> <li>Money can be spent through this fund only if appropriated by the</li> <li>The consolidated Fund has further been divided into' &amp; '' divisions.</li> </ul>
Contingency Fund of India	<ul> <li>A fund (Rs 30,000 cr.) placed at the disposal of the to enable him/her to make advances to the executive/Government to meet expense.</li> <li>It does require prior legislative approval, unlike with the Consolidated Fund.</li> <li>For meeting such exigencies, advances are made to the executive from the contingency fund which is subsequently reported to the Parliament for from the Consolidated Fund of India.</li> </ul>

		er 7 - Public Finance 4 - FISCAL POLICY
	I) Basics  II) Types of fiscal policy	III) Instruments of Fiscal Policy  IV) Fiscal policy for long- run economic growth
	V) Fiscal policy for reduction inequalities of income and wealth	VI) Limitations of fiscal policy
	I) Basics	
>	Fiscal policy involves use of governmer	nt
	√,	&
	to influence both-	<b>A</b>
	√ pattern of	and
	✓ level of growth of	
	<u>Objectives</u>	10
	The most common objectives of fiscal	policy are:
	·	of
	✓ Maintenance of	
	✓ Acceleration of rate of	
	·	of income and wealth
>	The <b>importance</b> as well as order of <b>pri</b> c	prity of these objectives may from country to
	country and from time to time. For ins	•
	√&	may be the priorities of developed nations,
	√ economic,	&→ more priority in developing country
	II) Types of Fiscal Policy	
	Expansionary fiscal policy	Contractionary fiscal policy
	To stimulate economy during	To stimulate economy during
	phase.	phase.
	aggregate exp, and	>aggregate exp, and
	>in taxes	> in taxes
	Thus aggregate demand	Thusaggregate demand in future
	in future	It leads to government budget deficit or
		larger budget surplus.
	It leads to government budget	CFP is resorted to close thegap
	deficit or smaller budget surplus.	If growth rate is very causing inflation &
		asset bubbles→ CFP will be used to control it.

	III) Instruments of Fiscal Policy
	III)a) Government (Public) expenditure
>	Public expenditures are income-generating and include-
✓	<u>Current expenditures</u> to meet therunning of government
	income is only transferred, any direct contribution from the receivers
>	During Recession
✓	It may initiate of public works, such as construction of roads,
	irrigation facilities, ports, electrification of new areas etc.
>	During Inflation
✓	To reduce severity of & to bring prices
✓	Govt <b>reduces expenditure</b> → Reduced incomes→ excess aggregate demand.
>	From where will govt find resources to increase its expenditure, during recession?
✓	If govt increases taxes > as increased taxes will reduce incomes & AD
✓	The govt should in such cases go for a <b>deficit budget</b> which may be <b>financed</b> either
	<ul> <li>through (but it may have risk of crowding out private spending)</li> </ul>
	or
	<ul> <li>through (creation of additional money to finance expenditure).</li> </ul>
	Programme of public investment
	. 9
>	Primary employment in public works will employment, & economy will be
	put on an expansion track.
	III)b) Taxes
۶	Taxation policies are used for establishing in an economy.
	During <b>recession &amp; depression</b> ,
	✓ Taxes are → to encourage private consumption & investment.
	During <b>inflation</b> ,
	✓ taxes can be levied & rates of existing taxes are raised → to reduce
	disposable incomes & to wipe off surplus purchasing power.
	✓ However, excessive taxation & thus govt has
	to be cautious about it
>	The of tax reduction &/or increase in government spending required
	depends on the <mark>of recessionary gap</mark> and <mark>of the multiplier</mark> .

	III)c) Public Debt
>	Public debt may be;
1)	<u>Internal Debt</u>
	When government borrows from itspeople in country.
2)	External Debt
	When government borrows fromsources.
3)	Market Loans
	<ul> <li>Government issues treasury bills and government securities of varying</li> </ul>
	denominations and duration which are
	• For financing capital projects -> are issued
	<ul> <li>For meeting short-term government expenditure -&gt; are issued.</li> </ul>
4)	Small Savings
	• Borrowings which are <u>negotiable</u> & are not <u>in market</u> .
	• Eg- National Savings Certificates, National Development Certificates, etc.
>	Borrowing from public through of bonds & securities aggregate demand .
>	Repayments of debtthe availability of money & aggregate demand.
	III)d) Government Budget
>	The budget is simply a statement of revenues earned from taxes and other sources and
	expenditures made by a nation's government in a year.
>	The net effect of a budget on aggregate demand depends on the government's budget
	balance.
	Balanced budget: (Revenue = Exp)
	✓ net effect on aggregate demand since leakages (taxes) = injections (exp)
	Budget surplus: (Revenues > Exp)
	✓ It has net effect on aggregate demand since leakages > injections
	√ Itnational debt
	Budget deficit: (Revenues < Exp)
	✓ It has <mark>net effect</mark> on aggregate demand since injections > leakages
	✓ Itto the national debt

	IV) Fiscal policy for long-run economic growth
~	Demand-side policies by policies to stimulate aggregate
	cannot produce long-run economic growth.
>	For eg-
✓	Fiscal policies involving infrastructure spending havesupply-side effects.
✓	Government provision of public goods such as education, healthcare, etc. facilitate long-
	run economic growth through Increase in human
	capital makescapital more productive.
✓	Taxes can have either or impact on economic growth
	depending on whether it encourages or discourages saving and investment.
>	A well designed tax policy that rewards & entrepreneurship, without
	discouraging incentives will promote private businesses who wish to invest & thus help
	economy grow. For eg, an increase in corporate taxes to raise extra revenue may have
	adverse consequences on incentives and output.
>	Increase in environment taxes increase the cost of firms and their output
>	Subsidies on inputs and support prices to producers (e.g. farmers) generateoutput.
	V) Fiscal policy for reduction in inequalities of income and wealth
>	Distribution of income is influenced by fiscal policy-
	✓ <b>Directly</b> incomes of are dependent on direct taxes,
	✓ Indirectly- Potential for earnings is indirectly influenced
~	Few measures as to how <b>govt</b> can achieve <b>desired redistribution of income-</b>
	✓direct tax system
	✓ Indirect taxes can be (More tax on Luxury goods, Less tax on
	Necessities)
~	
	Spending programmes targeted on welfare measures for disadvantaged-
	✓ Poverty alleviation programmes
	✓ Free or subsidized,
	provision on a selective basis
	Subsidized production of products of consumption
	✓ Public production or grant of subsidies → for sufficient supply of essential goods,
	✓ <b>Strengthening</b> for enhancing employability etc
	1

	VI) Limitations of fiscal policy
1)	– An expansionary policy initiated when economy is already on recovery.
2)	Difficulties in governments' spending & taxation policies
3)	Practically difficult to reduce government spending on → &
	as well as on huge capital projects which are already
4)	Public worksbe adjusted easily → as huge projects have long gestation period.
5)	Certain fiscal measures cause For eg, increase in profits tax may
	adversely affect incentives of firms to & an increase in social security
	benefits may adversely affect incentives to
6)	Deficit financing increases the of people. The production
	of G/S, in under-developed countries may not catch up simultaneously, resulting in prices
	beyond control.
7)	Increase is government borrowing creates on future generations.
8)	Crowding Out
•	During <b>recession</b> , <b>government</b> uses expansionary fiscal policy by <b>govt exp</b> .
	However, if taxes (revenue of govt) are not sufficient for the increased spending, then
	government increases its spending by from market → thus
	demand for loans & pushes the interest rates
•	Similarly, when govt increases budget deficit by selling bonds or treasury bills, the amount
	of money with private sector & thus interest rates will be pushed
	As a result, <b>private investments→</b> which are <b>interest- sensitive</b> , will be
•	Fiscal policy becomes as decline in private spending partially or
	completely offsets expansion in demand resulting from an increase in govt exp.
•	Thus, an increase in size of govt spending during recessions will '
	private spending in an economy &
	> lead to in an economy's ability to from recession,
	possibly reduce economy's prospects of
	Lags
i.	Recognition Lag
•	Lag in for a policy change
ii.	Decision Lag
•	on most appropriate policy.
iii.	
•	Delays in and implementing them
iv.	Impact Lag
•	of a policy are <mark>visible for some time</mark>

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# Business Economics Revision Notes

## Chapter 8 Money Market

By CA Mohnish Vora (MVSIR)

These notes are in "FILL IN THE BLANKS" format
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	<u>Chapter 8 - Money Market</u> Unit 1 - The Concept Of Money Demand: Important Theories
	anti I - The Concept of Money Demana. Important Theories
	BASICS
>	Money is something that holds its value over time, can be easily translated into prices, and
	is widely accepted.
>	<u>Fiat Money-</u> aka money has <mark>intrinsic value</mark> (materially) →
	no value if it were not used as money. It is used as medium of exchange as govt has, by
	law, made them "" which means, they serve, by law, as means of payment.
	DEFINITION OF MONEY
	Money can be defined <b>for <u>policy purposes</u></b> as the set of
	variation in the of which could impact on aggregate economic activity.
	As a <u>statistical concept</u> , money could include certain of a
	particular set of financial intermediaries or other issuers'.
	CHARACTERISTICS OF MONEY
	Money should be:
>	generally
>	or long-lasting
	effortlessly
	difficult toi.e. not easily reproducible by people
<b>A</b>	relatively, but has elasticity of supply
<b>&gt;</b>	or easily transported
<b>&gt;</b>	possessing; and
<b>A</b>	into smaller parts or fractions <mark>losing value</mark>
	FUNCTIONS OF MONEY
1)	Convenient
2)	Explicitly definedor unit of account
3)	Serves as a unit or standard of
4)	
	DEMAND FOR MONEY
	If peopletomoney, we say there is demand for money.
	in peopleto money, we say there is demand for money.
	Demand for money is in the nature of demand; it is demanded for its
	Demand for money is in the nature of demand, it is demanded for its

	THEORIES OF DEMAND FOR MONEY						
	I) CLASSICAL APPROACH: QUANTITY THEORY OF MONEY						
>	Given by in his book 'The Purchasing Power of Money'						
>	As per QTM, money in circulation (M) & price level (P) are related to each						
	other. (Linear) That is, changes in prices or changes in the value or purchasing power of						
	money are determined by changes in quantity of money in circulation.						
>	QTM is aka. ' <mark>equation of</mark> ' or ' <mark>approach</mark> '						
	MV =						
>	Later, Fisher extended the equation of exchange to include demand (bank) deposits (M')						
	and their velocity (V')						
	Expanded Form :						
>	As per QTM, people would hold money in a quantity proportional to total						
	irrespective <b>of interest rate</b> [ More Transactions -> Demand of Money ]						
	II) CAMBRIDGE APPROACH						
>	AkaApproach orTheory						
>	Money increases utility in the following two ways-						
	1)of sale and purchase to two different points of time (transaction motive)						
	2)against uncertainty. (of wealth)						
>	Since sale & purchase do not take place simultaneously, people need 'temporary'						
	of purchasing power as hedge against uncertainty.						
>	How much money will be demanded as per Cambridge Approach?						
<b>→</b>	Higher the> greater the> greater demand for						
	Md =						
	where, PY = nominal income ,						
	k =  = proportion of nominal income (PY) that people want to hold as cash						
	III) Keynesian Theory of Demand for Money						
<b>A</b>	Aka. '						
	Transactions motive, Precautionary motive, & Speculative motive						
	a) <u>Transactions motive</u>						
	Money for <mark>current transactions</mark> for						
	&exchange (income motive & business motive).						
	Money is demanded totime gap between receipt of income & planned exp.						
	Transaction demand for money isrelated to level of income						
	Lr =						
	k is the ratio of earnings which is kept for transactions purposes						

b) Precautionary motive	
Portion of income kept to <mark>finance</mark>	<b>exp</b> which occur due
contingencies.	
Precautionary money balances are <b>income</b>	and & interest
c) Speculative motive	
People also demand money to <mark>take advantage c</mark>	
which is same as future changes in	(to exploit any attrac
investment opportunity)	
Assumed that <b>return on money is</b> , 1	while <b>returns on bonds</b> are of <mark>two ty</mark>
&	
Market Value of Bond inversely related	to Market Rate of Interest
Current rate of Critical rate	Current rate of Critical
interest (rn) of interest (rc)	interest (rn) of interest
People expect a in	People <b>expect a</b> i
interest rate ( in bond	interest rate ( in bor
prices)	prices)
. 62	
People will convert their	People would hold their wealth i
balances into	cash rather than
(SDM & Bond)	(SDM & Bond)
Individual's Speculative Demand for Money	Aggregate Speculative Demand for Mor
	<b>+</b>
rn +	R*
rn > rc	
+	
nterest Rate	r1
25 +	r2 Liquidity Trap Region
rn < rc -	r3

Speculative Demand for Money

M2 Speculative Demand for Money

	Liquidity Trap					
>	When interest rates fall to very, the expectation is that now					
	go further & will move in future.					
A	Thus, when interest rates rise in future, the bond prices will leading to taking risk					
	of ain future					
	in jucure					
	Thus at such low interest rates-					
	desire to hold bonds is very and approaches, and					
	demand to hold money in liquid form approaches					
~	The speculative demand of money curve becomes parallel to the axis, i.e,					
	with respect to interest rate.					
~	This situation is called a 'Liquidity trap'. (ineffective monetary policy)					
>	Empirical evidence of Liquidity Trap is found during "(2008)"					
	Post-Keynesian developments in Theory of Demand for Money					
	IV) Inventory Approach to Transaction  V) Friedman's Restatement of					
	to Transaction  Restatement of  Quantity Theory					
	<ul> <li>Aka. Inventory Theoretic Approach</li> <li>Given by Baumol and Tobin, in which money is viewed as an inventory held for transaction purposes.</li> <li>Inventory models assume that there are two media for storing value:         <ol> <li>an interest-bearing financial asset</li> <li>There is of making transfers between money &amp; alternative assets e.g</li> <li>As per Baumol, people hold an</li> </ol> </li> <li>Milton Friedman extended Keynes' speculative money demand within the framework of</li> <li>Friedman's determinants of the demand for money</li> <li> = Permanent Income / discount rate is average return on five asset</li> <li>Positively related to the p</li> <li> = Positive inflation rate reduces the real value of money balances, thereby increasing the opportunity costs of money holdings</li> </ul>					
	optimum of bonds and cash balance, i.e., an amount that					
	cash balance. i.e., an amount that minimizes cost. to Transaction  Balances					
	The level of inventory holding (holding money in cash)- is					

	<u>Chapter 8 - Money Market</u> Unit 2 - CONCEPT OF MONEY SUPPLY							
	BASICS							
>	The term money supply denotes the total quantity of money available with							
>	Two things about any measure of money supply:							
	Supply of money is a It refers to stock of money available to							
	Change in stock of money is than thevariable total stock of money that really exists in							
	economy.							
>	'Public' all economic units except the of money (i.e. the government and							
	the banking system).							
>	Government = CG, all SGs, and local bodies.							
>	Banking system means RBI and all banks that accept demand deposits							
>	Thus, 'supply of money'							
	☐ interbank deposits and							
	☐ money held by government and							
	money held by banking system							
	Rationale of measuring money supply							
	Empirical analysis of money supply is important because-							
	1) Facilitates analysis of → to understand causes of							
	money growth.							
	2) Provides a <b>framework</b> to evaluate whether money supply is consistent with-							
	standards for and to understand nature of deviations. It helps							
	in making							
	Sources of money supply							
	Central Banks Banking system							
	<b>—</b>							
	It is <b>issued by</b> , & is <b>source</b> of all other forms of money.  Banks create money supply in							
	The currency issued by is the process of&							
	' money' & is backed by supporting reserves → its value is guaranteed by the public.							
	7							
	High powered money + Credit Money = Total money stock of a country							

^	The concept of money has experienced evolution from Commodity to Metallic to Paper to Digital Currency.						
>	Reserve Bank has introduced a concept of(CBDCs)-						
	as l	egal tender issued by a central bank ir	ad	<mark>igital form.</mark> It is like <b>s</b> o	vereign pap	er currency	
	but	takes a different form, exchangeal	ole a	t par with existing	<mark>currency</mark> ar	nd shall be	
	accepted as a medium of payment, legal tender and a safe store of value. CBDCs would appear as liability on a central bank's balance sheet.						
	ΔΙςς	o, Crypto currencies are legally re	code	nizad in India as curran	cy & are no	t money	
	7130	egany re	cogi	nzed in india as carren	cy & are no	c money.	
	Me	asurement of money supply					
<b>&gt;</b>		erve money (M0) is aka central bank	mon	ey or base money or nig	in-powerea	money	
	Res	erve money determines -					
		✓ level of liquidity and					
		✓ price level in economy and,		V			
		thus, its management is of crucial i	mpor	tance to stabilize the	economy.		
		Currency in circulation		Currency with Public			
	+		+				
	+		+				
		Reserve Money (M0)		M1 (Narrow Money)			
		. 9					
		M1		Notes in Circulation			
	+		+				
		M2	Ė				
		ME	+				
		M1	-				
	_	712		Currency with Public			
	+						
		M3 (Broad Money)					
		1 112		Difference M0 & M1	Mo	M1	
		M3		Raula Rasawasa			
	+			Bank Reserves			
				Bank Deposits			
		M4					
	>	The above are given in Liquid) & M4 (		_ order of liquidity –			
	MI (LIQUIA) & M4 (LIQUIA)						
	>	'Other deposits' with the RBI		_ those <b>held by govt</b> (C	entral & Sta	ite Govt.)	

	Money Multiplier (m)
	The money multiplier process explains how an increase in monetary base causes money supply to increase by a multiplied amount
	1st Formula 2nd Formula
	Money Multiplier (m) =
	Money Multiplier (m) = where,
	> c = currency ratio = currency / dep.
	where, Monetary Base = Currency in = required reserve ratio = required reserves / deposits
	circulation + Bank reserves  • e = excess reserve ratio
	= excess reserves / deposits
	m = 1 / R
	3rd Formula Above formula can also be
	If we assume-  Multiplier or
	2) Individuals and non-hank corporations never
	hold(c = )Multiplier
	Then, money multiplier isof
	the required reserve ratio.  additional money created by commercial bank through
	Money Multiplier (m) - 1 / Required Reserve Ratio process of lending the
	available money it has in excess of central bank's
	reserve requirements.
	Determinants of Money Supply
<b>A</b>	Money multiplier approach to money supply given by Milton Friedman and Anna
	Schwartz, (1963) considers three determinants-
	1. Stock of high-powered money (H) → Depends upon Behaviour of
	2. Reserve-ratio (r) = R / D → Depends upon Behaviour of
	3. Currency Deposit Ratio (c) = C / D → Depends upon Behaviour of
1.	Stock of high-powered money (H)
>	Money supply <b>varies</b> with supply of high-powered money.
2.	Reserve-ratio $(r) = R / D$
>	If required reserve ratio increases –
	✓ banks will lending,
	✓ causing a in deposits
	and hence money supply will& vice versa
<b>\</b>	Smaller the 'r' → the 'm'

	Excess Reserves (ER) are funds that a bank keeps as reserve beyond what is required by						
	regulation as a <u>against</u> <u>requiring cash.</u>						
	Excess reserves (ER) =						
>	Excess Reserves do lead to any additional loans.						
>	Smaller the Excess Reserve Ratio 'e' →the 'm'						
>	When opportunity cost to bank of holding ER, level of ER→ m will be						
>	If expected deposit outflows increase, banks will will increase ER ratio. Thus, m will						
>	Eg- During festival season, people decide to use ATMs very often						
3.	Currency Deposit Ratio (c) = C / D						
>	If public keeps more money in cash, leads to an increase in 'c' & banks can create less credit						
	money, thus m						
	Eg- Fearing shortage of money in ATMs, people decide to hoard money						
>	Currency-deposit ratio (c) also represents degree of of banking habits by people,						
	affected by degree of financial, ease & access to financial services etc.						
	Eg- 1) Banks open large number ATMs all over the country, or						
	2) E-banking becomes very common and nearly all people use them						
✓	Above factors will′c′; thus′m′ & money supply						
	The <b>time deposit-demand deposit ratio</b> ( TD/DD ratio ) i.e. how much money is kept as						
	deposits compared todeposits.						
>	An increase in TD/DD ratio → the 'm'						
	Monetary Policy and Money Supply						
	If the central bank of a country wants toeconomic activity it does so by						
	liquidity into the system.						
	Eg - Open Market Operations (OMO) by central banks.						
	of govt. securitieshigh powered money (monetary base) into system.						
	$\Delta$ Money Supply = $\frac{1}{R}$ X $\Delta$ Reserves						
	R						
	Effect of government expenditure on money supply						
	When RBI lends to governments under (WMA)/overdraft (OD)						
	→ leads to <b>generation of money supply in economy</b> through money multiplier						
	process.						

#### Chapter 8 - Money Market UNIT 3 - MONETARY POLICY

	UNIT 3 - MONETARY POLICY
	Introduction
>	RBI uses monetary policy to manage economic & achieve price,
	which means that inflation is and
>	RBI conducts monetary policy by adjusting supply of money, usually through buying or
	selling securities in open market.
>	Open market operations affect short-term interest rates, which in turn influence longer-
	term rates & economic activity.
✓	When RBI lower interest rates, monetary policy is
✓	When it <b>raises</b> interest rates, monetary policy is
	The Monetary Policy Framework
	It has three basic components-
	(i) of monetary policy,
	(ii) of monetary policy which focus on transmission mechanisms, &
	(iii) which focuses on operating targets & instruments
	Objectives of monetary policy
	The primary objective of monetary policy is maintenance of judicious balance between
	&
	Objectives of Monetary Policy in case of developing countries
1)	maintenance of
2)	ensuring of credit to
3)	sustaining a moderate structure of
4)	creation of an efficient market for
	Transmission of Monetary Policy
	It describes how changes made by RBI to its monetary policy settingsto
	and inflation.
	The transmission has stages.
	1. Changes to monetary policy affect in economy.
	2. Changes to interest rates affect &
	Channels of Monetary Policy Transmission
	1) Saving and Investment Channel
	2) Cash-flow Channel
	3) Asset Prices and Wealth Channel
	4) Exchange Rate Channel
	·

	Operating Procedures and Instruments						
4							
	Quantitative tools Credit control tools that impact money supply of entire economy						
	1.	Reserve Ratio	Reserve r	ratio is of two types-			
	1a.	Cash Reserve Ratio (CRR)					
	1b.	Statutory  1b. Banks are also required to set aside a portion of NDTL wassets- cash, gold or RBI approsection (SLR)  Banks are also required to set aside a portion of NDTL wassets- cash, gold or RBI approsection (SLR)  Securities. Banks are					
	2.	Open Market Operations (OMO)	perations from market→ it is done toinflation.				
		are selective crea nole economy.	lit control :	Qualitative tools tools that have affect money supply of specific sector &			
	1.	Margin require	ments	When margin requirements are→ customers borrow			
	2. Moral suasion		By way of, the RBI convinces banks to keep money in government securities, rather that certain sectors.				
	3.	Selective credi	t control	control Controlling credit by lending to selective industries.			
		•		2			
		t Stabilisation e (MSS)	its norma	borrows from (additional to l borrowing) and issues treasury-bills, for uidity from market arising from large capital inflows.			
-							
_				Policy Rates			
	1.	Bank Rate	Aka. Disc Bank rate	est rate at which RBI <b>lends term funds</b> to banks. ount rate. e is used to prescribe <b>to bank</b> if it does <b>not</b> prescribed <b>SLR or CRR</b>			
	2.	Liquidity Adjustment Facility (LAF)	nent RBI uses LAF as an instrument to adjust liquidity and				
	2a.	Repo Rate	Repo rate is the rate at which borrow from aterm basis against a repurchase agreement.				
	2b.	Reverse Repo Rate	It is the reverse of repo rate, i.e., this is the rateposterior in order to keep additional funds in RBI.  It is to repo rate ->  Reverse Repo Rate = Repo Rate -				
	3.	Marginal Standing Facility (MSF) Rate	banks, _	e is the rate at which lends money to the rate available under the repo policy. Banks MSF Rate can use a maximum of of SLR securities.  MSF Rate = Repo Rate +			
_							

	Organi	sation	al Structure F	or Monetar	y Policy De	cisions					
<b>A</b>	It is	an	agreement	reached	between	Governme	ent of	India	&	RBI	on
				inflation	rate that 1	RBI should t	arget to	achieve	price	stabil	ity.
>	Announ	ceme	nt of an offic	ial target r	ange for in	flation is k	nown as	inflation	1		·
	('Flexib	le infl	ation targetin	g framewor	k')				1		
>	The infl	ation	target is to b	e <mark>set by the</mark>	Governme	nt of India,	in <b>consul</b>	tation w	ith R	BI,	
	in every	<b>'</b>	years.								
>											
>	Accordi	ngly,	Central Gove	rnment has	notified-						
>	4 per ce	nt Co	nsumer Price	Index (CPI)	inflation a	s the <b>targe</b> t	for peri	od from	Aug !	5, 201	5 to
	Mar 31,	2021									
	wi	th the	!-								
	✓	upper	tolerance lim	it of	and						
	✓	lower	tolerance lim	it of		V					
>	Moneta	ry Pol	icy Report is t	to be publis	hed every	month	s, explair	ing <mark>sour</mark>	rces o	f infla	tion
	& foreco	asts of	f inflation for	the coming	gn	nonths					
>	The following are factors lead to a failure to achieve inflation target										
						,	m cargo				
>	Average	infla	tion upper	tolerance le					qu	arters;	or
			tion upper tion lower t		vel, for any	·				arters; arters.	
	Average	infla	tion lower	<mark>tolerance</mark> le	vel, for any	·					
	Average Moneta	infla	tion lower t	tolerance le	vel, for any	·					
	Average Moneta	inflat ary Po m	tion lower to licy Committee ember commi	t <mark>olerance</mark> le ee (MPC) ttee consist	vel, for any vel, for any ting of-	·					
	Average Moneta	inflat ary Po m > RE	tion lower to licy Committee ember commits	tolerance le ee (MPC) ttee consist (Chairperso	vel, for any vel, for any cing of- on),	,					
	Average Moneta	inflat ary Po m > RE > RE	tion lower to licy Committee to commit to licy Committee to lice to li	tolerance le ee (MPC) ttee consist (Chairperso	vel, for any vel, for any ting of- on), _ in charge	of moneta					
	Average Moneta	inflation in the inflat	tion lower to licy Committee ember committee and licenses	tolerance le se (MPC) ttee consist (Chairperso	vel, for any vel, for any cing of- on), in charge the	of moneta	ıry policy	′,	qua	arters.	
	Average Moneta	inflation in the inflat	tion lower to licy Committee to commit to licy Committee to lice to li	tolerance le se (MPC) ttee consist (Chairperso	vel, for any vel, for any cing of- on), in charge the	of moneta	ıry policy	′,	qua	arters.	
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	Moneta It is a  MPC is  publish	m  RE  RE  RE  Re  Re  required affined affine	licy Committee ember commi Bl Bl ne official none emaining three uired to meet ter conclusion	tolerance le  ee (MPC)  ttee consist  (Chairperso  ninated by te  t at least  n of every r	vel, for any vel, for any cing of- on), in charge the times neeting.	of moneta and nomi	nees repr	resentino s adopte	<b>qua</b> g Gov	t of In	ndia
	Moneta It is a  MPC is  publish	m  RE  RE  RE  Re  Re  required affined affine	licy Committee ember commi Bl Bl ne official none emaining three uired to meet ter conclusion	tolerance le  ee (MPC)  ttee consist  (Chairperso  ninated by te  t at least  n of every r	vel, for any vel, for any cing of- on), in charge the times neeting.	of moneta and nomi	nees repr	resentino s adopte	<b>qua</b> g Gov	t of In	ndia
	Moneta It is a  MPC is  publish	m  RE  RE  RE  Re  Re  required affined affine	licy Committee ember commi Bl Bl ne official none emaining three uired to meet ter conclusion	tolerance le  ee (MPC)  ttee consist  (Chairperso  ninated by te  t at least  n of every r	vel, for any vel, for any cing of- on), in charge the times neeting.	of moneta and nomi	nees repr	resentino s adopte	<b>qua</b> g Gov	t of In	ndia
	Moneta It is a  MPC is  publish	m  RE  RE  RE  Re  Re  required affined affine	licy Committee ember commi Bl Bl ne official none emaining three uired to meet ter conclusion	tolerance le  ee (MPC)  ttee consist  (Chairperso  ninated by te  t at least  n of every r	vel, for any vel, for any cing of- on), in charge the times neeting.	of moneta and nomi	nees repr	resentino s adopte	<b>qua</b> g Gov	t of In	ndia

### **CA Foundation**

(New Syllabus)

## Business Economics Revision Notes

## Chapter 9 International Trade

By CA Mohnish Vora (MVSIR)

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#### <u>Chapter 9 - International Trade</u> Unit 1 – Theories of International Trade

	Unit 1 – Theories of International Trade				
	Basics				
	International trade is exchange of G/S as well as resources between countries.				
>	It involves transactions-				
	✓ between residents of				
	✓ involves transactions in				
	✓ greater as it involves of customers & currencies,				
	differences in legal systems, business practices, more elaborate documentation etc				
	Benefits of International Trade				
1)	Stimulus to economic & contributes to economic & rising incomes.				
2)	Efficient deployment of productive resources → leading to productivity gains. It also				
	likelihood of domestic monopolies.				
3)	Trade providesto new markets & materials internationally at competitive prices.				
	This reflects in products at prices & wider choice for consumers.				
	It also <b>enables nations</b> to <b>acquire reserves</b> necessary for imports.				
4)					
	innovations, & facilitates greater investment in R&D & productivity improvement.				
5)	Stimulus to innovative in banking, insurance, logistics, consultancy services etc				
6)	For emerging economies, improvement in the of output of G/S, superior products,				
	finer labour etc. enhance value of products & lead to move up the global				
7)	Opening up of new markets results in broadening the productive base & facilitates				
	diversification so that new production possibilities are opened up.				
8)					
	exchange of & best practices between trade partners.				
9)	Strengthens bonds between nations -> promotes ∈ nations.				
	Major arguments put forth against trade openness				
1)	Not to all nations. Potential unequal market &				
	disregard for principles of				
2)	Economic → growing political power of corporations operating globally.				
	Domestic entities can be by financially stronger transnational cos.				
	Substantial environmental & of natural resources.				
	Trade cycles & associated economic crises in a country get to other country				
4)	Risky of underdeveloped countries on foreign nations, impairs economic				
	& endangers their political → exploitation &of cultural identity.				
	Too much export orientation mayactual investments				
6)	Lack of & of trade policies of trading partners				
	Changes in govts' policies→ imposition of import, import tariffs or				

	Theories of international trade						
1)	The Mercantilists' View of International Trade						
2)							
3)	The Theory of Comparative Advantage						
4)	The Heckscher-Ohlin Theory of Trade						
5)	New Trade Theory – An Introduction						
	The Mercantilists' View of International Tr	ade					
>	Mercantilism → derived from word 'merca	ntile'→ " &	affaii	<b>'s</b> ".			
>	Mercantilism → was economic policy in	from 16th	to 18th centur	ies.			
>	Mercantilism advocated	_ exports → to bring i	n more "	" (money in			
	form of) &	i <mark>mports</mark> through impo	sing very high to	triffs.			
>	This view argues that trade is a '	<b>game</b> ′→ winners wi	in only at				
	→ one country's gain is						
	→ so that <b>net</b>	or benefits <mark>among the</mark>	participants is _	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·			
	The Theory of Absolute Advantage						
>	According to a c	ountry will <b>specialize</b>	in production ar	nd export of			
	commodity in which it has an		<u></u> .				
>	The principle of absolute advantage re	fers to the <mark>ability o</mark>	of a country to	produce a			
	quantity of a G/S than compe	etitors, using the					
>	Principle of absolute advantage → uses _	as the only	input.				
>	Exchange of goods between two countries	es will take place <mark>onl</mark> y	y if of tw	o countries			
	can produce commodity at an absolu	tely production	cost than	country.			
		Productivity	of Labour				
	Commodity		of Labour				
	Wheat (units/hour)	Country A  6	Country B				
	Cloth (units/hour)	4	<u> </u>				
		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·					
>	has absolute advantage in production of	of wheat, so country _	will export 8	k specialize			
	in production of wheat						
>	has absolute advantage in produc	tion of cloth, so co	untry wil	l export &			
	specialize in production of cloth						
	The description of the second						
✓	The above theory explained that		is	possible.			

	The Theory of	Comparative Advantag	e		
>	This law, aive	n by by sta	tes that even <b>if one natic</b>	on is efficien	nt than (has
			n respect to) other na		
			scope for		
	commodities,		•		
		Commodity	Productivity of Lab Hour of Lab		
			Country A		
		Wheat (units/hour)	6	1	
		Cloth (units/hour)	4	2	
>	In above ea.	has absolute advai	ntage in production of bot	h wheat & cloth	
	_	]	•		
		]			
>	_		(comparative	advantage) in case o	of
			on & export of		
	THETICE TO STITUTE	a specialize in producti	<u></u>		
>	Further, B has	, ,	(comparativ	ve advantade) in ca	se of
			on & export of		
✓		<b>(2009)</b> calls	comparative advanta	ge <b>"</b>	
	economic development. "Even if a developing country lacks an absolute advantage in any			age in any	
	field, it will always have advantage in the production of goods,"				
	and will trade with advanced economies.			-	
		0.6	2		
	The Hecksche	r-Ohlin Theory of Trade			
>	Aka		_ Theory or	Theory or Hecks	cher-Ohlin
	Samuelson th	eorem			
>	This theory	states that compara	tive advantage in cost	of production is	explained
	exclusively by		of t		
>	''Factor endou	<u>vment</u> ' refers to <mark>overall</mark>	of usabl	e resources- <mark>labou</mark> r	& capital
>	It states that	a country tends to-			
	√ specia	lize in the <mark>export</mark> of a d	commodity whose <b>produc</b>	tion requires	
	use of	its re	esources and		
	<u> </u>	a commodi	ty whose <b>production</b> re	equires intensive	use of its
		resources.			
>	Capital abund	ant country- Produce	and export	intensive goods	
>	Labour-abund	ant country- Produce	and export	intensive goods	

	Theory of Comparative Adv.	Modern Theory
	Trade occurs due to difference between countries'	<b>Explains causes of differences</b> in comparative costs as <b>differences in</b>
	Based ontheory of value	Based oncost - more
	Considered <b>labour</b> as factor of production one factor (labour) model	Widened scope - labour and capital as factors of production. It isfactor model
	Treats <b>international trade</b> as quite from <b>domestic trade</b>	International trade is only a case of trade.
	Studies only of the goods concerned	Considers of factors which influence comparative costs
	Diff. in cost due to <b>differences in</b> of	
	Does take into account the factor price differences	
	New Trade Theory	
>	NTT (given by) he	elps in understanding why developed & big
	countries are trade partners when they are tra	
>	Those <b>countries with</b> wil	l dominate the market, & the market takes
	the form ofcompet	ition.
>	Two key concepts give advantages to coun	tries that import goods to compete with
	products from the home country	
	1) Economies of Scale- If firm serves _	as well as market,
	then it can reap <mark>benefit of large scale</mark> (	of production & increase profits.
	<b>2) Network Effects-</b> The value of G/S is e	
		ed ' effect'. Consumers like
		so want G/S with, &
	network effectutility.	Eg- WhatsApp, Instagram, Windows etc

#### <u>Chapter 9 - International Trade</u> Unit 2 – The Instruments of Trade Policy

	Basic Definitions
>	Free Trade- Buyers and sellers from separate economies voluntarily trade with
	of
>	<u>Protectionism:</u> It is a state policy aimed to <u>protect</u> <u>producers</u> against <u>foreign</u>
	competition through the use of, & non-tariff trade policy instruments.
>	Trade liberalization: It refers to of domestic markets to G/S from
	rest of world bytrade barriers.
~	<u>Trade policy:</u> It consists of all instruments that govts may use to or
	imports & exports. Instruments of trade policy are-
	✓ price- related measures such as and
	✓ Non-price measures or(NTMs).
	Tauisso.
	Tariffs  Tariffs (also) evertence duties ) and duties on C/S vulsion and
~	Tariffs, (aka) customs duties→ or duties on G/S which are or
	It is a in form of a tax, imposed at the on goods going from
	one country to another.
	one source y so another.
>	They are the most and trade measures that
	determine market access. Countries generally have a tariff
>	Tariffs are aimed at the relative prices of G/S imported, so as to
	domestic demand & thus of their
>	Tariffs also of government.
	Types of Tariffs
	Types of Tarrins
1)	Specific Tariff- It is fixed amount of money per or according to
	or of commodity.
	Eg- Specific tariff of Rs. 1000/- on each imported bicycleof its value.
	<b>Disadvantage-</b> Its <b>protective value varies</b> with <b>price</b> of the import

2)	Ad Valorem Tariff- When duty is levied as of of trade commodity.		
	Eg- A 20% ad valorem tariff on any bicycle.		
	This tariff protective value of tariff on home producer, but it gives		
	incentives togood's price on invoices to reduce tax burden.		
3)	Mixed Tariffs- Expressed on basis of of imported goods (an ad		
	valorem rate) on basis of a of the imported goods (a specific duty)		
	whichever is		
4)	Compound Tariff- Calculated by up duty to an duty.		
	CT = ts.q + ta.p.q		
5)	<u>Technical/Other Tariff-</u> Calculated on basis of specific of imported goods		
	i.e. duties are payable by its or related items.		
6)	Tarrif Rate Quota- TRQs combine two policy instruments: &		
	Imports under specified quota portion → or tariff rate.		
	Imports quantitative threshold of quota →tariff		
7)	Most-Favoured Nation Tariffs- Import tariffs which countries promise to impose on imports		
	from other In practice, MFN rates are the		
	that WTO members charge each other.		
8)	<u>Variable Tariff-</u> A duty typically fixed to <u>bring the price of an imported commodity up to</u>		
	level of for the commodity.		
9)	<u>Preferential Tariff-</u> Countries promise to give another country's products		
	tariffs than their MFN rate.		
	These agreements are→ (Eg- preferential duties in EU region)		
	Countries, may also have 'preferential treatment' → Eg- GSP		
10	Bound Tariff- A WTO member binds itself with commitment to raise		
	tariff rate (level of import duty).		
	A member is <b>free to impose a tariff that is</b> than bound level.		
	Once bound, a tariff rate becomes & a member can only		
	it after with trading partners & compensating them for possible losses.		
11	Applied Tariffs- Duty that is on imports on a MFN basis.		
	Applied tariff should be higher than the bound level.		

12)	Escalated Tariff- Tariff rates on imports of goods are
	than tariff <b>rates on</b> This type of
	tariff is as it <b>protects</b> manufacturing industries in
	countries & adversely affects industries ofcountries.
13)	Prohibitive tariff- It is setthat no imports can enter.
14)	<u>Import subsidies-</u> It is simply a per or as a
	for importation of a good (i.e., a import tariff)
15)	Tariffs as Response to Trade Distortions- Countries affected by '' foreign-trade
	practices, respond quickly by measures in form of tariff responses to offset distortion.
	(aka "" mechanisms)
16)	Anti-dumping duty- It is a protectionist tariff that a domestic govt imposes on imports
	that it believes are <b>priced</b>
•	<b>Dumping</b> occurs when manufacturers sell goods in a foreign country-
	□ below thein theiror
	□ below their full of the product.
•	Dumping may also be used as practice to drive out
	producers from market and to establish
•	Charging ADD is <b>justified</b> domestic industry is
	by import competition, & protection is in
17)	<u>Countervailing duties-</u> CVD is charged in an importing country to advantage that
	get from (from their govt.) to ensure fair pricing of
	imported G/S & thus protecting firms.
	Effects of Tariffs
4)	
1)	Create obstacles to trade, decrease imp & exp. Mkt access ofcountry is worsened.
2)	Tariffs discourage domestic consumers from buying goods.
2)	consumers suffer a loss in
3)	Tariffs encourage consumption & production of domestically produced  & thus protect domestic industries.
4)	
<b>4)</b>	Producers in country experience an increase in well being ( producer surplus)
5)	Price increase induces an increase in output of existing firms & possibly addition of newto industry to take advantage of high profits & hence increase in
<b>6</b> )	Tariffs increase government of importing country.
6) 7)	It discourage production in & encourage
/)	inefficient prod. in country, by comparative advantage
	of foreign countries.
	of foreign countries.

Non – tariff m	easures (NTMs)
They comprise all types of measures v	vhich conditions of international
<b>trade</b> , including	that restrict trade &
	facilitate it.
Technical Measures	Non-Technical Measures
Technical measures refer to properties such as characteristics of product, technical specifications and production processes  These measures are intended for ensuring product environmental national security and protection of animal and plant series are applied to protect or life from risks arising from additives, pests, etc. or disease-causing organisms and to protect ban of import of certain goods due to quality and hygienic requirements.  For Eg- prohibition of import of poultry from countries affected by avian flu etc	They relate to; for eg- shipping requirements, custom formalities, trade rules, etc  These are further distinguished as:  1) Hard measures (e.g. Price and quantity control measures),  2) Threat measures (e.g. Antidumping and safeguards) and  3) Other measures such as traderelated finance & investment measures.  Furthermore, the categorization also distinguishes between:  a) Import-related measures b) Export-related measures c) Procedural obstacles (PO) - practical problems in administration, transportation, delays in testing, certification etc → difficult for org. to comply.
Technical Barriers to Trades (TBT)  Covers both & products - refer to mandatory  & Technical Regulations' - define specific that product should have, like size, design, packaging, etc. excluding measures covered by SPS.  procedures e.g. testing, & certification). Eg: food law, quality standard	
taw, quarry standard	
Non – tariff Barriers (NTBs)	
NTBs are NTMs, wh	ich are used as means to
free-trade rules anddomestic	industries at expense of foreign competition.
NTBs are thus a of NTMs that ha	ve a 'protectionist or discriminatory intent'.

9.8

	Types of Non-technical measures
1.	<u>Import Quotas</u> - restriction → only certain physical amount of good will be allowed into
	country during a given time period, usually one year.
a)	Binding Quota- Set free trade level of imports & enforced by issuing
b)	Non-binding quota- Setfree trade level of imports→ little effect on trade.
c)	Tariff rate quotas (TRQs) combine policy instruments →&
d)	Absolute quotas or quotas of a permanent nature- They limit quantity of imports to a
	specified level during a specified period of time & imports can be done any time of year-
	✓ Either no condition of country of of product. or
	✓ can be specified.
e)	Seasonal quotas and
f)	Temporary quotas
	With a quota, government receives revenue. The profits received by holders of such
	import licenses are known as '
	If <b>quota is set free trade level,</b> amount of imports will It will
	lower of good in domestic market & domestic price of
	consumer surplus & in producer surplus.
2.	<u>Price Control Measures</u> - These are steps taken to control prices of imported goods in order
<b>✓</b>	to support of products when import prices are  Aka. '' measures & include measures → that increase cost of imports by a
•	fixed percentage or by a fixed amount.
<b>✓</b>	Eg: A minimum import price established for sulphur.
	eg. 77 minimum impore price escapitation surpriar.
3.	Non-automatic Licensing and Prohibitions- These are aimed at limiting of goods
	that can be imported, of whether they originate from different
	or from one particular
✓	These measures include non-automatic licensing, or complete prohibitions.
✓	Eg- India prohibits import/exp of arms and related from/to Iraq.
4.	Financial Measures - The objective is to import costs by regulating
	to & of foreign exchange for imports & to define terms of payment. It includes
	measures like requirements & foreign exchange controls
	of foreign exchange for certain types of imports
5)	Measures Affecting Competition- These measures are aimed at granting or
	special preferences to economic operators. It may include government imposed
	or enterprises, and compulsory use of national services.
✓	Eg, a statutory marketing board may be granted exclusive rights to import wheat: or a
	canalizing agency (like State Trading Corp.) may be given monopoly right to distribute
	palm oil.

6)	Government Procurement Policies - It involve mandates that whole of		
	of governmentshould be fromfirms rather than foreign firms		
	In accepting public tenders, a government may give preference to		
	rather than foreign tenders		
7)	<u>Trade-Related Investment Measures</u> - These measures include rules on local content		
	requirements that mandate a specified fraction of a final good should be produced		
	domestically.		
	a) requirement to use certain minimum levels of locally made		
	components,		
	b) restricting the level of imported components, and		
	c) limiting the purchase or use of imported products to an amount related to the		
	quantity or value of local products that it exports.		
8)	Distribution Restrictions - Limitations imposed on distribution of goods in importing country		
	involving additional or requirement. These may relate to		
	restrictions or restrictions as to who may resell.		
	Eg: a restriction that imported fruits → sold only through outlets having		
	refrigeration facilities.		
9)	Restriction on Post-sales Services - Producers may be restricted from providing		
	for exported goods in the importing country. Such services may be reserved		
	to of importing country.		
10)	Administrative Procedures & administrative procedures		
	which are mandatory for import of foreign goods. These will increase		
	<u>imports.</u>		
	Eg-specifying procedures & formalities, requiring licenses, administrative delay,		
	corruption in customs clearing, procedural obstacles linked to prove compliance etc.		
11)	Rules of origin- Country of origin means country in which a good was, or		
/	country of service provider. Rules of origin are criteria needed by governments		
	of importing countries to determine of a product. Duties &		
	restrictions in some cases depend upon of imports.		
12)	Safeguard Measures - Restrict imports of a product if its		
	industry is with serious injury caused by a in imports. These measures		
	are fortime &		
13)	Embargos imposed by government on import/export of some commodities to		
	particular for a specified period. This may be done due to or		
	,		

These refer to all measures applied	-related measures by government of country cal and non-technical measures.
Eg- during periods of shortages, export of products such as onion, wheat etc. may be prohibited to make them available for domestic consumption  Ban on exports  Tage Comparison  Tage Comparison	Export Subsidies and Incentives  ariffs on imports hurt exports & thus countries have developed easures of different types for exporters access to imported termediates etc.  Export Subsidies and Incentives  and Incentives
An export tax is a tax collected goods & may be eit or  The effect of an export tax is to exports  It domestic supply it reduces domestic & leads domestic consumption.	administered by an exporting country  the  quantity of goods that can be exported out of that country during a specified period of time.  Such restraints originate from

#### <u>Chapter 9 - International Trade</u> Unit 3 – Trade Negotiations

#### Regional Trade Agreements (RTAs)

RTAs are defined as **groupings of countries** → with the **objective of to trade** between member countries.

#### Types of RTAs

	, pes 0, ki/is		
S. No.	Type of RTA	Meaning	Example
1.	Unilateral trade agreements	Importing country offers tradein order to encourage exporting country, to engage in international economic activities that will	
2.	Bilateral Agreements	Agreements which set rules of trade between two countries, two blocs or a bloc and a country. ()	
3.	Regional Preferential Trade Agreements	Among a group of countries reduce trade barriers on & of the group	
4.	Trading Bloc	Group of countries that have a agreement between themselves & may apply a to other countries.	
5.	Free-trade area	Group of countries that all tariff & quota barriers.  Members retain in determining their tariffs with	
6.	Customs union	Group of countries that eliminate all tariffs on trade among but maintain a on trade with countries outside union (thus, technically violating MFN)	
7.	Common Market	It deepens a customs union by providing for the free flow of & by reducing or eliminating internal tariffs on goods and by creating a set of external tariffs. There are also common barriers against non-members	
8.	Economic and Monetary Union	Here members share a This requires strong in macroeconomic policies.	

	GATT		
A	General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) was a multilateral trade agreement which		
	provided rules of international trade fromto(47 years)		
>	GATT governed international trade working along with World Bank & IMF.		
>	Theround of GATT (Round) of 1986- 94, was→ lead to the birth		
	of		
	GATT lost its relevance by 1980s		
1)	to fast-evolving world trade scenario		
2)	investments had expanded substantially		
3)	and trade in were not covered		
4)	Worldtrade increased & was beyond its scope.		
5)	in the multilateral system could be heavily exploited		
6)	Efforts at liberalizingtrade were not successful		
7)	There were inadequacies in institutional &system		
8)	it was a treaty & thus terms of GATT were binding only insofar as they are		
	incoherent with a nation's domestic rules.		
	Functions of WTO		
1)	Acts as a forum for among member govt,		
2)	Administering <b>trade</b> ,		
3)	Reviewing		
4)	Assistingcountries in trade policy issues, through		
	&		
5)	Cooperating with otherorganizations		
	Objectives of WTO		
>	The <b>principal objective</b> of the WTO is to <b>facilitate flow of international trade</b> smoothly,		
	freely, fairly and predictably.		
	The WTO has <u>six key objectives-</u>		
1)			
2)			
3)	further trade		
4)			
5)			
6)	·		
٦١.	economic management, and		
7)	to helpcountries benefit fully from		

>	The <b>objectives</b> of the WTO	Agreements is a	lso given in <b>preamble</b>	of Agreement
	creating WTO,			
	✓ raising			
	✓ ensuring full	& growth of	& effective	
	✓ expanding the	of and	in G/S.	
	Structure of the WTO			
	> The WTO activities are supp	ported by a	located in _	,
	headed by atier syst	tem of decision mak	 ina	
	0.000		9	
	4st lavel	> 15 5-15-15 desirie	us su all matters unde	a.f. tila.a.
	1 <sup>st</sup> level (Top-		ns on all matters unde trade agreement.	
	Level)	> It meets at least	trade agreement <mark>every</mark>	_years.
		> It moots	times a year at Geneva	1 HO
	2 <sup>nd</sup> Level		the trade policy Review	
		alspute settleme	пс воду	
		> These councils	report to	&
	3 <sup>rd</sup> Level	are <b>responsible</b> :	for overseeing	of
	Level	specialisation	<b>its</b> in their respectiv	e areas of
	The Guiding Principles of World	Trade Organization (	WTO)	
1)	Most-favoured-nation (MFN) –	Trade without discri	mination]	
	Treating other countries equally -> Countries cannotbetween their			between their
	trading partners.			
A	Grant someone a special favour	(such as a lower du	ity rate) then you have t	ro do
	for all other WTO members.	(Such as a lower as	icy race, enem you have e	
	joi all other wto members.			
	Some <b>exceptions</b> are allowed. For	_		
✓	Countries can set up a		•	
	the group — discriminating against goods from outside. Or			
✓		•	l access to their markets.	Or
✓	A country canbarri	ers against products	that are <b>traded unfairly</b> .	
2)	<u>National treatment</u>			
>	Treating foreigners & locals	→	<u> </u>	
	goods should be treated equally	– at leastfo	oreign goods have	market.
	(giving others the same treatm	ent as one's own na	tionals)	
>	Charging customs duty on imp	ort is a v	iolation of national trea	<b>tment</b> even if
	locally-produced goods are not			
	, F. 54.554 95543 4.5 1100	gos, sir oquivate		

3)	Freer trade: gradually, through negotiation		
>	From time to time issues such as &policies have also		
	been discussed.		
>	WTO agreements allow countries to introduce changes gradually, through "		
	liberalization". Developing countries are usually given longer time to fulfil this obligation.		
<u>4)</u>	Promoting fair competition		
>	WTO is described as a "free trade" institution, but it is entirely accurate. The		
	system does allow tariffs and, in limited circumstances, other forms of protection. More		
	accurately, it is a system of rules dedicated to open, fair, and undistorted competition.		
>	Eg- Agreement on government procurement (a "plurilateral" agreement because it is		
	signed by only a WTO members) extends competition rules to purchases by		
	thousands of government entities in many countries. And so on.		
5)	Predictability: through binding and transparency		
>	Sometimes, promising not to raise a trade barrier can be as important as lowering one,		
	because the promise gives businesses a of their opportunities.		
~	With stability & predictability, is encouraged, jobs are created and		
	consumers can fully enjoy the benefits of competition — choice and lower prices.		
>	One achievement of <b>Uruguay Round of multilateral trade</b> talks was to increase amount of		
	trade under commitments.		
>	In, <b>100% of products</b> now have <b>bound tariffs</b> results in high degree of		
	market security for traders & investors.		
>	Predictability & stability can be improve in other ways as well-		
1)	Dscourage use of Administering quotas lead to red-tape & unfair play.		
2)	Make countries' trade rules as & (transparent) as possible.		
6)	Encouraging development and economic reform		
>	WTO agreements themselves allow for &		
	forcountries.		
>	Over of WTO members are developing countries & countries in		
	transition to market economies.		
>	A decision adopted at end of Uruguay round says countries should		
	implementing commitments on goods exported		
	by		
>	Recently developed countries have started to allow free &free imports		
	mesorially approved continuous matter seal of allient proc at		
	for almost products fromdeveloped countries.		

	WTO Agreements (aka. WTO's trade rules → WTO is described as "rules-based")		
1.	Agreement on Agriculture > binding commitments made by WTO Members in three areas		
	of &		
2.	Agreement on the Application of Sanitary and Phytosanitary (SPS) Measures		
3.	Agreement on Textiles and Clothing (ATC) later replaced Multi-Fibre Arrangement (MFA)		
4.	Agreement on Technical Barriers to Trade (TBT)		
5.	Agreement on Trade-Related Investment Measures (TRIMs)		
6.	Anti-Dumping Agreement		
7.	Customs Valuation Agreement		
8.	Agreement on Pre-shipment Inspection (PSI)		
9.	Agreement on Rules of Origin		
9.	Agreement on Import Licensing Procedures		
_			
10.	Agreement on Subsidies and Countervailing Measures		
11.	Agreement on Safeguards		
12.	General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS):		
13.	Agreement on Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS): This		
	agreement stipulates treatment &		
	for intellectual properties, such as copyright, trademarks, patents, etc. It also requires		
	member countries to maintain high levels of intellectual property protection.		
14.	Trade Policy Review Mechanism (TPRM) provides the procedures for the trade policy review		
	mechanism to conduct periodical reviews of members' trade policies and practices		
	conducted by(TPRB).		
15.	Plurilateral Trade Agreements:		
✓	Multilateral negotiations are negotiations involving WTO contracting parties.		
✓	Plurilateral trade agreements involve several countries with a common interest but do		
	involve WTO countries.		

	The Doha Round		
>	The Doha Round was round since Second World War was officially launched at the		
	WTO's Fourth Ministerial Conference in Doha, Qatar, in Nov 2001.		
>	The negotiations include areas of trade.		
>	Most controversial topic of Doha round was		
	WTO Achievements		
>	G-20 was founded in, as a forum for countries to discuss global		
	&issues.		
>	620 members are:		
✓	Argentina; Australia; ✓ Japan;		
✓	Brazil; ✓ Korea;		
✓	Canada; China; ✓ Mexico;		
✓	European Union; ✓ Russian Federation;		
✓	France; ✓ Saudi Arabia; South Africa;		
✓	Germany; ✓ Türkiye (Turkey);		
✓	India; Indonesia; Italy; ✓ UK & USA		
>	The WTO have been prepared by the WTO		
	Secretariat since 2009.		

## Chapter 9 - INTERNATIONAL TRADE Unit 4 - Exchange Rates and its Economic Effects

	Foreign Exchange
	It refers to money denominated in a currency the domestic currency.
	Similar to any other commodity, foreign exchange has a
	Exchange rate
	Aka. foreign exchange (FX) rate, is price of one currency expressed in terms of units of
	number of units of one country's
	currency required to purchase one unit of other country's currency. (1\$ = Rs 85)
	2 ways to express nominal exchange rate-
	1) Direct Quote (European Currency Quotation)
	Number of units of currency exchangeable for one unit of currency
	Foreign currency (USD) = currency
	Domestic currency (INR) = currency
	Eg: USD 1 = INR 75
	2) Indirect Quote (American Currency Quotation)
	Domestic currency (INR) = currency
	foreign currency (USD) = currency.
	Indirect Quote =
	Eg: INR 1 = USD 0.013
	A foreign currency transaction is a transactions arising when an enterprise either-
	a)goods or serwices whose price is in foreign currency,
	b)funds in foreign currency.
	c) becomes a party to an unperformed;
	d) acquires or disposes of, or incurs or settles, in foreign currency.
	The Exchange Rates Regimes
<b>&gt;</b>	Exchange rates are determined by & But governments can
	influence those exchange rates in various ways.
≻	There are three broad categories of exchange rate systems/regime-
a)	fixed exchange rate regime (aka exchange rate)
b)	floating exchange rate regime (aka exchange rate),
c)	managed float exchange rate regime (aka exchange rate)

>	Exchange rate regime → system by which a country its with
	respect to currencies. It is a method where value of curr. in
	terms of foreign curr. is
	Floating exchange rate regime (aka. Flexible exchange rate)  Fixed exchange rate regime (aka. pegged exchange rate)
	Here equilibrium value of exchange rate is i.e. demand & supply.  There is interference by government or central bank.  Any interference in would be only for the rate of exchange. [Eg- India, USA etc]- (Managed Float)  Advantages  1) Allows central bank to pursue its own monetary policy.  2) Allows exchange rate to be used as a to intervene in currency markets, central bank is required to maintain a huge foreign exchange reserves.  Disadvantages  1) exchange rates generates a lot of exchange rates a lot of to courages investment.
	the costs of goods & assets traded across borders.  5) Pegging enhances of the country's monetary-policy (more stable)  Disadvantages  1) flexibility
	2) Central bank is required to stand ready to intervene & maintain foreign exchange reserves for this.
	Managed Float System
>	Govts & central banks seek to increase or decrease their exchange rates by or
	their <mark>own currencies</mark> .
>	Exchange rates are still <b>free to float</b> , but govt. try totheir values.
<b>&gt;</b>	Govt or central bank in floating exchange rate system is called a
	managed float.
>	Typically, the purpose of such intervention is to prevent
	in value of nation's currency.

al bank can implement <b>s</b> o Soft peg	oft peg and hard	d peg policies.  Hard peg
der which the exchange nerally determined , in case the e e tends to be move sp then centi	e rate is by exchange eedily in ral bank	Here, the central bank  2 value for exchange rate.  Both soft peg and hard peg policy require that the central bank in foreign exchange market.
	Normal Vs. Real	Exchange Rate
		Real exchange rate  It is the rate at which a person can
any country, there are ninal exchange rates l	ecause its	trade of one country for of another.  It describes ' ' of a good or service in one country can be traded for 'one' of that good or service in a country.
Real Exchange Rate	e - Nominal Exc	hande Rate (v) Foreign Price
Real Exemange Rate	z – Nominat exe	Domestic Price
Please follow above form	ula in exam. Fo	rmula given in ICAI Material is wrong]
<ul> <li>It is the</li></ul>	effective ncy against a ivided by a implies that ex ;	cports become more & thus, an increase in REER indicates a
eign Exchange Market o types of transactions  ent Transactions  are carried out in market and the involves delivery  re Transactions contracts are agreed to buy or sell	2) Forward E foreign exch date  3) Currency spot rate; currencies ta  4) Forward P	Other Terms  Lange Rates - Exchange prevailing for clement takes max days).  Exchange Rates - The exchange rates quoted in lange transactions that specify a  Forward contracts - They are quoted just like however, the of lakes place in  remium = Forward exch rate spot exch rates iscount = Forward exch rate spot exch rates
	refers to an exchange rather which the exchange rather which the exchange rather which to be move spond then centrally determined in material with the central in material effers to rate at which a determined effers to rate at which a determinal exchange rates for any country, there are minal exchange rates for any foreign currencies.  Real Exchange Rate of a domestic currencies of a domestic c	Real Exchange Rate = Nominal Exception currencies of a domestic currency against a foreign currency against a foreign currencies of a domestic currency against a foreign currency ag

#### Changes in exchange rates

#### Appreciation

#### Depreciation

Currency appreciates when its value increases with respect to value of another currency

#### Example

Old Rate  $\rightarrow$  \$ 1 = Rs 73 New Rate  $\rightarrow$  \$ 1 = Here, Indian Rupee is Dollar is

& US

Currency depreciates when its value falls with respect to the value of another currency

#### Example

Dollar is

Old Rate → \$ 1 = Rs 70 New Rate  $\rightarrow$  \$ 1 = Here, Indian Rupee is

& US

#### Home Currency Appreciates

Exporter of Domestic Country	
Importer of Domestic	

Country

#### Home Currency Depreciates

Exporter of Domestic Country

Importer of Domestic Country

	Devaluation	Depreciation
1	adjustment in value of a country's	Depreciation is a <b>decrease in a currency's</b> value with respect to other currencies  due to of
2.	Occurs in <u>exchange rate system</u>	Occurs inexchange rate system
		opposite of depreciation, is an increase in a currency's value due to market forces
l		

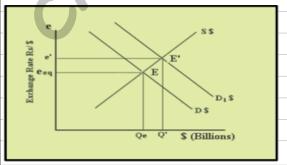
#### Changes in exchange rate under floating rate system

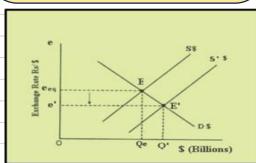
#### Demand of Foreign currency increases, Supply remains unchanged

The exchange value of foreign currency \_\_\_\_\_ & domestic currency\_ in value

#### Supply of Foreign currency increases, Demand remains unchanged

The exchange value of foreign currency \_\_\_\_\_ & domestic in value currency\_





	Impacts of currency depreciation	
1)	(unexpected/sudden inc	rease in income) for <mark>-oriented sectors</mark>
2)	Remittances to homeland → fetches	in terms of domestic currency
3)	government revenues from	related taxes
4)	Results in amount of local cu	rrency for a given amt of foreign currency
	borrowings of government.	
5)	impact on country's trade de	ficit → as imports & exports cheaper
6)	Depreciation also can have a	impact on controlling
	(increasing) gold &	trade balance.
	Impacts of currency appreciation	
1)	price of <b>exports</b> →	quantity of exports would
	Imports become→	in the quantity of imports
	Thus domestic aggregate demand & e	conomic growth is impacted.
2)	Appreciation in recessionary phase->	_ in agg. demand & unemployment
3)	<u>Appreciation in boom phase</u> i	n inflation; growth rate of economy
4)	It leads to inflation	because imports are
	Lower price of imported inputs lead to	in cost of production , thus decrease
	prices of output &std of li	iving
5)	With increasing export prices, the compet	itiveness is affected & thus,
	firms have <b>incentives</b> to <b>introduce</b>	& capital-intensive
	<b>production</b> to <b>costs</b> to remain compet	citive
6)	Increasing imports and declining exports	are liable to cause deficits &
	the current account	
	<u>Cross Rate</u>	Other Imp Points
	The rate between Y and Z which is	> The wide-reaching collection of
	derived from the given rates of set of two pairs of currency	markets and institutions that handle
	(say, X and Y, and, X and Z) is called	the exchange of foreign currencies is known as
	cross rate	known as
	There may be two pairs of currencies	> It is <b>not physical place</b> ; rather, an <b>network</b>
	with currency being between the two pairs.	bringing buyers and sellers together.
		> On account of,
	Eg- USD 1 = INR 75 ; 1 GBP = USD 1.30	regardless of physical location, at any
	Cross Rate = INR × USD	given moment, all markets tend to have the same exchange rate for a
	USD <i>G</i> BP = 75 × 1.30 = 97.50	given currency.
	= /3 x 1.30 = 9/.50	

	<u>Chapter 9 - INTERNATIONAL TRADE</u> <u>Unit 5 - International Capital Movements</u>
•	'Foreign Capital' includes any of capital into home country from
	Foreign capital may flow into an economy in different ways
	Components of foreign capital flows
	<ul> <li>Bilateral or direct inter government loans</li> <li>Multilateral aid from many governments who pool funds with</li> <li>Direct inter government loans</li> <li>Loans from international institutions (e.g. world bank, IMF, ADB)</li> <li>Foreign portfolio investment (FPI) in bonds, stocks and securities, and</li> </ul>
	international organizations like the World Bank.  > Tied aid with strict mandates regarding the use of money or untied aid where there are no such stipulations  > Soft loans for e.g. from affiliates of World Bank such as IDA  > External commercial borrowing, [ECBs are loans in India made by non-resident lenders in foreign
	Foreign grants which are voluntary transfer of borrowers] and
	resources by governments, institutions,
	agencies or organizations
	Foreign Direct Investment
	According to IMF manual on 'Balance of payments'
✓	FDI is "all investments involving relationship & reflecting
	interest & control of resident entity in a economy in an enterprise resident in economy
	that of direct investor".
	Access the same of
	According to IMF and OECD definitions,
•	FDI occurs through acquisition of of the shares of the target asset.
	3 Components of FDI 1) 2) 3) Other direct capital in the form of  3 Components of FDI 1) individuals, 2) Incorporated or unincorporated private or public enterprises, 3) associated groups of individuals or enterprises, 4) governments or government agencies, estates, trusts, or other organizations 5) or any combination of above

	The main forms of direct investments / Modes Of FDI
	1) the opening ofcompanies, (Equity injection into an overseas co.)
	2) including the establishment of subsidiaries or,
	3) creation of on a contract basis or M&A
	4) of natural resources &
	5)of companies in country receiving foreign capital
	6)field investment (starting production)
	7) investments (using infrastructure by merging)
	FDI may be categorized as
	When the investor establishes or acquires a business activity in a foreign country which is different from the investor's main business activity yet in its home country.  For example, a cell phone service provider based in the United States moving to India to provide the same service.  When the investor establishes or acquires a business activity in a foreign country which is different from the investor's main business activity yet in its major activity.  For example, a cell phone service provider based in the United States moving to India to provide the same service.  When an investor makes a foreign investment in a business activity yet in its home country.  This is often in form of a joint venture with a foreign company may acquire an interest in a foreign company acquire an interest in a foreign company that supplies parts or raw materials required for the company  These are investments occur when some industries are more advanced in one nation (for example, computer industry in USA), while other industry, as investor has no previous experience.
	Foreign Portfolio Investment
	FPI flow of 'capital' & does not involve ownership or control.
<u> </u>	Eg of FPI are deposit of funds in India by an Italian company etc
<u> </u>	FPI > investment in financial stocks, bonds and other financial instrument
<u> </u>	FPI has <b>immediate effects</b> on or
<b>A</b>	It is concerned with either manufacture of goods or with provision of services.
<b>&gt;</b>	Sole <b>intention</b> of FPI is to <b>earn a</b> through investment in foreign
	securities
<b>A</b>	Portfolio investments are characterised by lower stake in companies with their total
	stake in a firm

Investment involves creation of assets  Has a term interest & thus remain invested for long  Relatively to withdraw Relatively to withdraw  Relatively to withdraw  Relatively to withdraw  Relatively to withdraw  Relatively to withdraw  Relatively to withdraw  Relatively to withdraw  Relatively to withdraw  Relatively to withdraw  Relatively to withdraw  Relatively to withdraw  Relatively to withdraw  Relatively to withdraw  Relatively to withdraw  Relatively to withdraw  Relatively to withdraw  Relatively to withdraw  Relatively to withdraw  Relatively to withdraw  Relatively to withdraw  Relatively to withdraw  Relatively to withdraw  Relatively to withdraw  Relatively to withdraw  Relatively to withdraw  Relatively to withdraw  Relatively to withdraw  Relatively to withdraw  Relatively to withdraw  Relatively to withdraw  Relatively to withdraw  Relatively to withdraw  Relatively to withdraw  Relatively to withdraw  Relatively to withdraw  Relatively to withdraw  Relatively to withdraw  Relatively to withdraw  Relatively to withdraw  Relatively to withdraw  Relatively to withdraw  Relatively to withdraw  Relatively to withdraw  Relatively to withdraw  Relatively to withdraw  Relatively to withdraw  In accompanied by technology transfer  Relatively to withdraw  In accompanied by technology transfer  Accompanied by technology transfer  Accompanied to Accompanied  Accompanied by technology transfer  Accompanied to Accompanied  Accompanied to Accompanied  Accompanied to A		Foreign direct investment (FDI)	Foreign portfolio investment (FPI)
Relatively to withdraw Relatively to withdraw inclined to be speculative inclined to be speculative inclined to be speculative in nature Often accompanied by technology transfer accompanied by technology transfer accompanied by technology transfer accompanied by technology transfer and wages			Investment is only inassets
inclined to be speculative in nature  Often accompanied by technology transfer  Direct impact on employment of labour and wages  Enduring interest in management and control  Securities are held with significant degree of influence by the investor on the management of the Enterprise  Reasons of FDI  Investments move across borders on account of- (Reasons for FDI)  Investments move across borders on account of- (Reasons for FDI)  Increasing of countries & consequent trade relations  of production & investment of transnational companies  operation arising from technological growth lack of feasibility of agreements with foreign producers in view of the rapid rate of technological innovations  desire toa promising foreign firm to avoid future & possible loss of export markets  risk so that recessions may be experienced with reduced severity  shared common or common & possible in time & transport costs because of geographical proximity  promoting of physical, human, financial and other resources  desire to capture large and rapidly growing high potential  100 ease of penetration into markets of those countries that have established import restrictions → 'getting the tariff wall'.  environmental standards in host country & relative savings in costs  political environment & investment climate in host country  110 High GDP & high per capita income coupled with their high rate of growth in host country.  111 Prevalence of high standards of social amenities and possibility of good quality of life in the		Has aterm interest & thus remain invested for long	
Direct impact on employment of labour and wages  Enduring interest in management and control  Securities are held with significant degree of influence by the investor on management of the Enterprise  Reasons of FDI  Investments move across borders on account of (Reasons for FDI)  Increasing of countries & consequent trade relations  of production & investment of transnational companies  desire to reap operation arising from technological growth lack of feasibility of agreements with foreign producers in view of the rapid rate of technological innovations  desire to a promising foreign firm to avoid future & possible loss of export markets  risk so that recessions may be experienced with reduced severity shared common or common & possible in time & transport costs because of geographical proximity  promoting of physical, human, financial and other resources desire to capture large and rapidly growing high potential environment & investment climate in host country  130 ease of penetration into markets of those countries that have established import restrictions → 'getting the tariff wall'.  141 environment & investment climate in host country  152 better tax policies of host country which support FDI.  163 High GDP & high per capita income coupled with their high rate of good quality of life in the		Relativelyto withdraw	Relativelyto withdraw
Direct impact on employment of labour and wages  Enduring interest in management and control  Securities are held with significant degree of influence by the investor on management of the Enterprise  Reasons of FDI  Investments move across borders on account of- (Reasons for FDI)  increasing of countries & consequent trade relations  of production & investment of transnational companies  desire to reap operation arising from technological growth lack of feasibility of apromising foreign firm to avoid future & possible loss of export markets  risk so that recessions may be experienced with reduced severity  shared common or common & possible in time & transport costs because of geographical proximity  promoting of physical, human, financial and other resources desire to capture large and rapidly growing high potential environment & investment climate in host country  positical environment & investment climate in host country  higher degree of openness to foreign capital exhibited by recipient country  Prevalence of high standards of social amenities and possibility of good quality of life in the		inclined to be speculative	in nature
Enduring interest in management and control  Securities are held with significant of influence by the investor on the management of the Enterprise  Reasons of FDI  Investments move across borders on account of- (Reasons for FDI)  increasing of production & investment of transnational companies  desire to reap operation arising from technological growth agreements with foreign producers in view of the rapid rate of technological innovations;  desire to a promising foreign firm to avoid future & possible loss of export markets  risk so that recessions may be experienced with reduced severity  shared common or common & possibile in time & transport costs because of geographical proximity  promoting of physical, human, financial and other resources desire to capture large and rapidly growing high potential  environmental standards in host country & relative savings in costs  political environment & investment climate in host country  higher degree of openness to foreign capital exhibited by recipient country  Prevalence of high standards of social amenities and possibility of good quality of life in the		Often accompanied by <b>technology transfer</b>	accompanied by technology transfer
Securities are held with significant of influence by the investor on the management of the Enterprise  Reasons of FDI  Investments move across borders on account of- (Reasons for FDI)  Increasing of countries & consequent trade relations  of production & investment of transnational companies  desire to reap operation arising from technological growth  lack of feasibility of agreements with foreign producers in view of the rapid rate of technological innovations  desire to a promising foreign firm to avoid future & possible loss of export markets  risk so that recessions may be experienced with reduced severity  shared common or common & possible in time & transport costs because of geographical proximity  promoting of physical, human, financial and other resources  desire to capture large and rapidly growing high potential  ophysical, human, financial in host country & relative savings in costs  political environmental standards in host country & relative savings in costs  political environments to foreign capital exhibited by recipient country  higher degree of openness to foreign capital exhibited by recipient country  Prevalence of high standards of social amenities and possibility of good quality of life in the		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	No direct impact on employment of labour and wages
Securities are held with significant degree of influence by the investor on the management of the Enterprise investor on the management of the Enterprise investment and no significant degree of influence on the management of the Enterprise influence on the management of the man			
Investments move across borders on account of- (Reasons for FDI)  1) increasing of countries & consequent trade relations  2) of production & investment of transnational companies  3) desire to reap operation arising from technological growth  4) lack of feasibility of agreements with foreign producers in view of the rapid rate of technological innovations  5) desire to a promising foreign firm to avoid future & possible loss of export markets  6) risk so that recessions may be experienced with reduced severity  7) shared common or common & possible in time & transport costs because of geographical proximity  8) promoting of physical, human, financial and other resources  9) desire to capture large and rapidly growing high potential  10) ease of penetration into markets of those countries that have established import restrictions → 'getting the tariff wall'.  11) environmental standards in host country & relative savings in costs  13) political environment & investment climate in host country  14) higher degree of openness to foreign capital exhibited by recipient country  15) Better tax policies of host country which support FDI.  16) High GDP & high per capita income coupled with their high rate of growth in host country.  17) Prevalence of high standards of social amenities and possibility of good quality of life in the		<b>of influence</b> by the investor on the	investment and no significant degree of influence on the management of the
Investments move across borders on account of- (Reasons for FDI)  1) increasing of countries & consequent trade relations  2) of production & investment of transnational companies  3) desire to reap operation arising from technological growth  4) lack of feasibility of agreements with foreign producers in view of the rapid rate of technological innovations  5) desire to a promising foreign firm to avoid future & possible loss of export markets  6) risk so that recessions may be experienced with reduced severity  7) shared common or common & possible in time & transport costs because of geographical proximity  8) promoting of physical, human, financial and other resources  9) desire to capture large and rapidly growing high potential  10) ease of penetration into markets of those countries that have established import restrictions → 'getting the tariff wall'.  11) environmental standards in host country & relative savings in costs  13) political environment & investment climate in host country  14) higher degree of openness to foreign capital exhibited by recipient country  15) Better tax policies of host country which support FDI.  16) High GDP & high per capita income coupled with their high rate of growth in host country.  17) Prevalence of high standards of social amenities and possibility of good quality of life in the			
of countries & consequent trade relations  of production & investment of transnational companies  desire to reap operation arising from technological growth  lack of feasibility of agreements with foreign producers in view of the rapid rate of technological innovations  desire to a promising foreign firm to avoid future & possible loss of export markets  risk so that recessions may be experienced with reduced severity shared common or common & possible in time & transport costs because of geographical proximity  promoting of physical, human, financial and other resources desire to capture large and rapidly growing high potential  oease of penetration into markets of those countries that have established import restrictions → 'getting the tariff wall'.  environmental standards in host country & relative savings in costs political environment & investment climate in host country  higher degree of openness to foreign capital exhibited by recipient country  High GDP & high per capita income coupled with their high rate of growth in host country.  Prevalence of high standards of social amenities and possibility of good quality of life in the		Reasons of FDI	
of production & investment of transnational companies  desire to reap		Investments move across borders on accoun	t of- (Reasons for FDI)
desire to reap	1)	increasing of count	c <mark>ries</mark> & consequent trade relations
lack of feasibility of agreements with foreign producers in view of the rapid rate of technological innovations	2)	of production & inves	tment of transnational companies
lack of feasibility of agreements with foreign producers in view of the rapid rate of technological innovations	3)	desire to reap	operation arising from technological growth
so that recessions may be experienced with reduced severity  shared common or common & possible in time & transport costs because of geographical proximity  promoting of physical, human, financial and other resources desire to capture large and rapidly growing high potential  10 ease of penetration into markets of those countries that have established import restrictions → 'getting the tariff wall'.  11 environmental standards in host country & relative savings in costs  13 political environment & investment climate in host country  14) higher degree of openness to foreign capital exhibited by recipient country  15) Better tax policies of host country which support FDI.  16) High GDP & high per capita income coupled with their high rate of growth in host country.  17) Prevalence of high standards of social amenities and possibility of good quality of life in the	4)	lack of feasibility of agree	ements with foreign producers in view of the
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17) Prevalence of high standards of social amenities and possibility of good quality of life in the	15	Better tax policies of host country which supp	ort FDI.
	16	High GDP & high per capita income coupled wi	th their <b>high rate of growth</b> in host country.
	17	Prevalence of high standards of social amenit	ies and possibility of good quality of life in the

	Deterrents to FDI
	Factors in the host country discouraging inflow of foreign investments are-
	□ macro-economic environment
	✓ Infrastructure, ✓ rates of inflation and continuing instability,
	✓ balance of payment,
	✓ exchange rate,
	✓ unfavourable tax regime, ✓ size of market
	☐ Unfavourable resource and labour market conditions
	✓ natural and human resources,
	✓literacy, ✓labour skills
	☐ Unfavourable legal and regulatory framework ✓ Absence of well-defined property rights,
	✓ of security to life & property,
	<ul> <li>✓ regulations,</li> <li>✓ legal formalities &amp; delays</li> </ul>
	□ Lack of host country trade openness
	✓ lack of openness
	<ul> <li>✓ prevalence of barriers,</li> <li>✓ lack of spirit of towards foreign investors</li> </ul>
	✓ lack of spirit oftowards foreign investors
	Benefits of Foreign Direct Investment
1)	Entry of foreign enterprises & generates a competitive
	environment in host country.
2)	International capital allows countries to finance investment than can be supported
	by savings.
3)	FDI accelerates growth & foster economic development
4)	Competition for FDI among national governments also has helped to promote political &
	structural reforms important to attract foreign investors.
5)	FDI generates direct in recipient country.
6)	FDI <b>promotes wages</b> for <b>skilled jobs</b> . More <b>indirect employment</b> will be generated
	in lower-end services sector (less educated & unskilled persons).
7)	Foreign corporations provide better access to foreign markets.
8)	Promotion of units resulting in job creation and skill development for workers.
9)	If foreign capital produces goods with export potential, the host country is in a position to
	secure scarce needed for other important imports.
10)	FDI also acts as a source ofrevenue which can be used for development projects.
11)	It is likely that foreign investments enter into industries in which economies of scale can
	be realized so that consumer prices may be reduced.
12)	Increased competition due to FDI reduces domestic monopolies
	Since FDI has a impact on the host country's balance of payment position,
	Better & higher standards brought in by foreign firms
	may contribute to overall human resources development.
	,

	Potential Problems associated with Foreign Direct Investment
1)	FDIs concentrate on capital-intensive methods → hire workers.
2)	FDI flows towards regions which are well endowed in natural resources & infrastructure,
	leading to & increasing income inequalities.
3)	Inflow of foreign capital → cause govts to down its efforts to generate more domestic
	savings→ foreign cos. get incentives like tax holidays → hosttax revenues.
4)	Foreign firms partly finance their investments by borrowing funds in host country. This
	can interest rates in host country & lead to a decline in domestic investments
	through 'crowding-out' effect. Also, lenders would prefer foreign firms > due to lower risks.
5)	The expected benefits from easing of balance of payments (BOP) might reduce due to the
	likely instability in BOP & exchange rate $\rightarrow$ when inputs are imported or when profits are
	repatriated→ it strains host country's BOP & home currency depreciates.
6)	Jobs requiring expertise & entrepreneurial skills → retained in country & thus host
	country is left with management jobs that demandlevel of skills & ability
7)	High profit orientation → production concentrated on items of elite & popular consumption &
	on non-essential items.
8)	Foreign entities are anti-ethical -> aggressive advertising & anti-competitive practices.
9)	A large foreign firm with deep pockets may a competitive local industry &
	may even drive out domestic firms resulting in problems of displacement of labour.
10)	High growth of wages in foreign cos. can influence a similar escalation in the domestic cos.
	which are not able to cover this increase in cost > leads to decreasing competitiveness of
	domestic cos.
11)	FDI leads to domestic cos. 'off -shoring' or shifting jobs & operations abroad in pursuit of
	lower operating costs & consequent higher profits.
12)	The continuance of labour or environmental standards in host countries is highly
	appreciated by profit seeking foreign cos.
13)	At times, there is potential national security considerations.
14)	FDI may have adverse impact on host country's commodity "terms of trade" (defined as
	price of a country's exports divided by the price of its imports). If investments go into
	production of export-oriented goods & country does huge exports. This can lead to an
	in global market & thus export prices decreases relative to import prices.
15)	Ruthless of natural resources & environmental damage.
	Possibility of dual economy-> developed sector & underdeveloped sector
17)	A large foreign investment sector can exert <b>excessive</b> <del>→</del> loss of
	by host country overpolicies & thus host country's sovereignty is put at
18)	Multinational firms→ criticized of issues, unduly influencing policy
	making and of corporate social responsibility.

_	
	Many safeguards & performance requirements are put in place by countries to
	improve the ratio of benefits to costs associated with foreign capital. For eg-
✓	content requirements on inputs,
✓	of certain <mark>key sectors</mark> to domestic firms,
✓	requirement of a minimum percent of,
✓	(upper limit) on repatriation of profits,
✓	sourcing of requirements &
✓	stipulations for full or partial of output to earn foreign exchange.
	Foreign Direct Investment in India
>	FDI → is a <b>key driver of economic growth</b> & also <b>non-debt financial resource</b> for India.
>	Foreign corporations invest in India to benefit from $\rightarrow$ tax breaks & lower salaries. This
	helps India develop technological know- how and create jobs.
>	These investments are coming into India due to-
	✓ government's supportive policy framework,
	✓ vibrant business climate,
	✓ rising global competitiveness & economic influence.
>	According to the World Investment Report 2022, India was ranked among world's
	major FDI recipients in 2020, up from ninth in 2019.
>	Information and technology, telecommunication and automobile were the major receivers of
	FDI in FY-22.
	• 9
	The following points are not in syllabus, but ICAI can ask MCQ on them
	There are <b>two routes to for FDI</b> in India
	1) Government Route – Prior approval of govt is required
	2) Automatic Route
	Where there is no approval through Automatic Route, the company can seek permission
	from (FIFP).
	Permission for FDI is uniform for all sectors.
	Sectors where FDI in India is prohibited under both Government Route as well as Automatic
	Route:
	<ul> <li>✓ Atomic Energy</li> <li>✓ Lottery Business</li> </ul>
	✓ Gambling and Betting
	<ul> <li>✓ Business of Chit Fund</li> <li>✓ Nidhi Company</li> </ul>
	✓ Agricultural (excluding Floriculture, Horticulture, Development of seeds, Animal Husbandry,
	Pisciculture and cultivation of vegetables, mushrooms, etc. under controlled conditions and services related to agro and allied sectors) and Plantations activities (other than Tea
	Plantations)  ✓ Housing and Real Estate business (except development of townships, construction of
	residential/ commercial premises, roads or bridges to the extent specified)
	<ul> <li>✓ Trading in Transferable Development Rights (TDRs)</li> <li>✓ Manufacture of cigars, cheroots, cigarillos and cigarettes, of tobacco or of tobacco</li> </ul>
	substitutes.

Clear CA Foundation & then study Paper 6 – FM & SM of CA Inter on online mode (live/recorded) from MVSIR on "Ultimate CA" platform.

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(New Syllabus)

# Business Economics Revision Notes

# Chapter 10 Indian Economy

By CA Mohnish Vora (MVSIR)

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	STATUS OF INDIAN ECONOMY: PRE INDEPENDENCE PERIOD (1850 -1947)
<b>&gt;</b>	Between & century AD→ India was largest economy of ancient & medieval world.
>	It was prosperous & self-reliant → controlled between & of world's wealth.
>	was dominant occupation, & main source of livelihood for majority of people.
>	It also had a highly skilled set of & craftsmen who produced handicrafts & textiles.
	Ancient Economic Philosophy of India
>	The earliest treatise on ancient Indian economic philosophy is '' by
	Kautilya () (321-296 BCE).
>	Arthashastra → important works on statecraft in the genre of
>	It was handbook for King Chandragupta Maurya, founder of Mauryan empire→ containing
	directives as to how to reign over kingdom & encouraging direct action in political concerns
>	Artha is not wealth alone; → also includes all aspects of
>	Arthashastra → science of 'artha' or material prosperity, or "the means of subsistence of
	humanity," which is, primarily, '' and, secondarily, ''.
>	Major focus → means of fruitfully maintaining and using land.
>	Kautilya emphasized on robust agricultural initiatives which will fill state's treasury.
>	Taxes → charged equal for private & state-owned business, fair to all & easily understood.
>	True kingship → ruler's subordination of his to the good of his people;
>	King's policies should reflect -> concern for greatest good of greatest number of his subjects.
>	vital elements →King, Ministers, Farmlands, Fortresses, Treasury, Military and Allies.
	Period of British Rule
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	Stagnated Nature of Industrialisation: During the Colonial Era
~	Indian cotton mill industry had million spindles in 1930s→ (5 <sup>th</sup> position in no. of spindles)
<b>A</b>	Jute mills expanded rapidly in → global demand for ropes. At the end of the 19th
	century, Indian jute mill industry was in world in amount of raw jute consumed.
>	Heavy industries like iron industry were established in by British capital.
>	India's iron industry was ranked in world in terms of in 1930.
>	Before Great Depression(1930), India was ranked largest industrialised country
	measured by the value of
>	The <b>producer goods industries→ did show expansion →</b> because of pressure exerted by
	the English producers to development of industries in India which were
	likely to compete with them.
>	The <b>share in</b> Net Domestic Product ( <b>NDP)</b> of <b>manufacturing sector</b> → <b>in 1946</b> .
	Indian Economy: Post-independence (1947- 1991)
<b>A</b>	
	poverty was in terms of income & human capital.
<i>&gt;</i>	Nehruvian model which supported social & economic &
	directed by the state came to dominate the post-Independence Indian economic policy.
<u> </u>	Planning Commission of India established in → plan for economic development in
	line with socialistic strategy > through 5-year plans (First FYP- 1951)
	, and the state of
A	Rapid of economy was cornerstone of Nehru's development strategy.
>	The concept of 'planned' meant a systematic planning to support
	industrialization. (bureaucrats and technocrats)
	Industrial Policy Resolution
>	The Industrial Policy Resolution () → expanded role of sector & licensing to
	the sector. It granted state (govt.) monopoly for strategic areas such as-
	Also, rights to new investments in basic Industries were exclusively given to state.
>	The policies in 1950's were guided by two economic philosophies:
1.	to build a socialistic society with emphasis on heavy industry,
2.	of small scale and cottage industry and village republics

>	The Industrial Policy Resolution of > framework for industrial development, but
	was as it supported enormous expansion of scope of sector. (lead
	to of private sector initiatives)
>	India followed an open foreign trade policy until late 1950s. A balance of payments crisis
	emerged in 1958 causing concerns regarding foreign exchange depletion.
>	Consequently, it lead to gradual tightening of trade & reduction in investment-licensing of
	new investments requiring imports of capital goods. These import controls were till <b>1966</b> .
<u> </u>	In first 3 decades after independence (1950–80), India's average annual rate of growth of
	GDP- 'Hindu growth rate' - was%.
	Timus groven race was
	Agriculture Issues & Green Revolution
	Strategy for agricultural development till mid 1960s was reliance on
	model i.e. land reforms, farm cooperatives etc. and no importance given to technocratic
	areas like R&D , irrigation etc.
	areas like K&D, irrigation etc.
	letith and times of the action of the state
<b>&gt;</b>	With continuous failures of monsoon, two severe droughts struck India in&
	food problem. India had to depend on the United States for food aid under
	Restructuring of agricultural policy → 'green revolution' was initiated soon → which was
	materialised by-
	>farm technologies, includingseed varieties &
	> intensive use of water and
	Nationalisation of Banks
>	The government nationalized-
	✓ banks in 1969 and
	✓ then followed it up with <b>nationalizing another in 1980</b> .
	Indian Economy - Worst Performance
>	The economic performance during "" is the worst in independent India's history.
>	This happened due to-
	✓ decline in productivity.
	√ license-raj,
	✓ the autarchic policies that dominated the 1960s and 1970s,
	✓ external shocks such as <b>three wars</b> (in 1962, 1965, and 1971),
	✓ major droughts (in 1966 and 1967), and
	✓ oil shocks of 1973 and 1979.

	Monopolies and Restrictive Trade Practices (MRTP) Act, 1969
>	The MRTP Act, 1969 was aimed at regulation of firms which had relatively
	market power. Several restrictions were placed on them in terms of licensing,
	capacity addition, mergers and acquisitions.
~	Thus, policies restricting the possibility of expansion of big business houses kept their entry
	away from nearly all but a few highly capital intensive sectors.
	Reservation for Small Scale Sector
>	In, many products were reserved for exclusive manufacture by the small scale sector
>	It was thought that this policy will encourageintensive economic growth &
	allow of income.
>	However, this policy excluded all firms from labour intensive industries and India
	was able to compete in the world market for these products labour
	laws also discouraged labour intensive industries.
	The Era of Reforms
~	The initiatives, spanning <b>1981 to 1989</b> , were referred to as ' liberalization' which
	aimed at <b>changing</b> prevailing thrust on ' <b>inward-oriented</b> ' <b>trade and investment practices</b> .
~	This liberalization is often referred to as 'reforms by' to denote its ad-hoc & not
	widely publicized nature.
~	The average annual growth rate of GDP during-
	> sixth plan period (1980–1985) was <b>5.7</b> % and
	> seventh plan period (1985–1990) was 5.8 %
	The early reforms of 1980's covered three areas, &
	constraints on growth were:
<b>√</b>	In 1985 delicensing of 25 broad categories of industries was done.
✓	The facility of 'broad-banding' was accorded for industry groups to allow flexibility and
	rapid changes in their product mix without going in for fresh licensing.  The asset limit above which firms were subject to MRTP regulations was raised from 20
•	crore to crore.
<b>✓</b>	The multipoint excise duties was converted into a modified value-added (MODVAT) tax
•	which reduced taxation on inputs.
<b>✓</b>	Establishment of the Securities and Exchange Board of India (SEBI) in
·	The open general licence (OGL) list was expanded & the number of capital goods items
•	reached 1,329 in April 1990.
<b>✓</b>	Several export incentives were introduced and expanded

✓	Exchange rate was set at a level -> to exports & reduced pressure on foreign
	exchange needed for imports
✓	Price & distribution controls on cement and aluminum were entirely abolished.
✓	Based on the real effective exchange rate (REER), the rupee was depreciated by about
	<b>30.0 per cent</b> from 1985–86 to 1989–90.
✓	The <b>budget for 1986</b> introduced policies of-
	taxes,
	imports &
	tariffs.
>	Thus, liberalization in the 1980s served as necessary for the more
	universal and organized reforms of the 1990s.
	The Economic Reforms of 1991
~	The economic reforms in 1991 under the government.
~	The <b>causes</b> attributed to the immediate <b>need for such a drastic change</b> are:
	1) Large <mark>deficit</mark> (financed by huge debt), & adverse balance of payments.
	2) Persistent huge deficits → public debt → govt revenue used for
	payments
	3)in oil prices (due to gulf war in 1990) & thus strain on a balance of payments.
	4) The foreign exchange reserves touched point → only \$ billion →
	sufficient for only of imports.
	5) Tightening of import restrictions to collect forex for essential imports resulted in
	reduction in industrial output.
	6) India had to depend on borrowing from International Monetary
	Fund which in turn puts stringent conditions.
	7) Fragile political situation along with economic crises → led to 'crisis of confidence'.
A	1991 reforms→ known as LPG- Liberalization, Privatization and Globalisation, had two
	major objectives:
	1) of economy from a centrally directed and highly
	controlled one to a ' <mark>friendly' ororiented economy</mark> .
	2)stabilization by substantial reduction in fiscal deficit.
>	The policies can be broadly classified as:
	1) stabilization measures $\rightarrow$ term measures $\rightarrow$ for problems of inflation &
	adverse balance of payment, &
	2) structural reform measures → term → aimed at bringing in productivity &
	competitiveness by removing structural rigidities in different sectors of economy.

	Fiscal Reforms
>	Bringing in fiscal discipline by reducing the fiscal deficit was vital because-
	√domestic demand,
	✓in imports and
	✓ widening of the(CAD)
	This was attempted by measures to increase govt revenues & curtail govt exp.
>	Measures to this effect included:
	1) Introduction of a stable and transparent tax structure,
	2) Ensuring better tax compliance,
	3) Thrust on curbing government expenditure
	4) Reduction in subsidies and abolition of unnecessary subsidies
	5) Disinvestment of part of govt's equity holdings in select PSUs &
	6) Encouraging private sector participation.
	Monetary & Financial Sector Reforms
>	The focus was mostly on-
	>the burden of on government banks,
	> introducing and sustaining, and
	interest rates.
	The control of the co
<u> </u>	These included many measures, important among them are:  Interest rate & in controls on banks by RBI in
1)	
2)	respect of interest rates.
2)	Opening of private sector banks & facilitating competition among public, private sector and foreign banks and removal of administrative constraints.
3)	
3)	recommendations of the Committee Report, 1991.
4)	
- 1)	of opening, relocating or closure of branches
5)	
	and provisions for bad debt, to ensure books of banks reflect truthful financial position.
	Reforms in Capital Markets
>	SEBI which was set up in was given statutory recognition in
>	It is an independent regulator of the market → creates a transparent
	environment which would facilitate mobilization of adequate resources and their efficient
	allocation.

	The 'New Industrial Policy'
>	The 'New Industrial Policy' was announced on→ substantially deregulate
	industry to promote growth of a more efficient and competitive industrial economy.
>	To facilitate domestic industry, a series of reforms were introduced-
1.	Ended '' by removing licensing restrictions industries except for 18,
	later reduced to 5, namely-
	1) arms and ammunition,
	2) atomic substances,
	3) narcotic drugs and
	4) hazardous chemicals,
	5) distillation and brewing of alcoholic drinks and cigarettes and cigars
	as these have severe implications on health, safety, and environment.
2.	Public sector was limited to eight sectors based on security and strategic grounds.
	Subsequently only two items remained – railway transport and atomic energy
3.	MRTP Act was restructured and the provisions relating to merger, amalgamation, and
	takeover were repealed. This has eliminated the need for pre-entry scrutiny of
	investment decisions and prior approval for large companies for capacity expansion or
	diversification.
4)	Products reserved for small-scale industries → dereserved enabling entry of large scale ind
5)	The policy <b>ended the public sector monopoly</b> in many sectors. Now industries reserved for
	public sector are only a part of atomic energy generation and railway transport.
6)	Foreign investment → liberalized → concept of automatic approval was introduced. FDI is
	prohibited only in <b>four sectors</b> viz. <b>retail trade, atomic energy, lottery business &amp; betting</b>
	and gambling.
7)	<b>External trade</b> was further <b>liberalised</b> by substituting 'the positive list approach' of
	listing license-free items on the OGL list with the negative list approach.
8)	In <b>1990-91</b> , the <b>highest tariff rate</b> was%. The top tariff rate was brought down to
	10% in 2007-08, with some exceptions such as automobile at 100%
9)	Rupee was <mark>devalued by%</mark> against the dollar.
10)	of government holdings of equity in PSUs. PSUs were provided
	with greater autonomy in decision making and opportunity for professional management.
	The <b>budgetary support</b> to public sector was <b>progressively reduced</b> .

	<u>Notes</u>
	. 60
	NITI AAYOG: A bold step for transforming India
>	Planning Commission was abolished in→ & on it was replaced
	by(NITI) Aayog.
>	The major objective of such a move was to-
	✓ 'spurthinking by objective 'experts', &
	✓ promote ′federalism′ by enhancing the voice & influence of states'.
<b>A</b>	NITI Aayog is expected to serve as a of the government & a
	'directional and policy dynamo'.
<b>A</b>	The key initiatives of NITI Aayog are:
1.	→ envisions replacing the prevalent 'use-and-dispose' economy
2.	(NDAP) facilitates and improves access to
	Indian government data
3.	campaign aims to improve in India by
	accelerating the of electric vehicles
4.	is adestination for all information on electric vehicles
	200000000000000000000000000000000000000

5.	India Policy Insights (IPI)
6.	'Methanol Economy' programme → for reducing India'sbill,gas
	emissions, & converting reserves & solid waste into methanol, and
7.	'Transforming India's Market' → recommend measures for tapping into the
	potential of the sector and provide a stimulus to exports and economic growth.
	Shortcomings of NITI Aayog
>	NITI has a <mark>role→</mark> does not produce national plans, control expenditures, or
	review state plans.
>	It isfrom the budgeting process.
>	It lacks <mark>&amp; balance of power</mark> within policy making apparatus of central govt.
>	The termination of Planning Commission $ ightarrow$ strengthened Ministry of Finance, with its
	'fixation of macroeconomic stability & natural instinct to limit expenditure'.
>	It lacks the independence & power to perform as a 'counterweight' to act as a "voice of
	development" concerned with inequities.
	The Current State of the Indian Economy: A brief overview
I)	The Primary Sector
>	Agriculture, with its allied sectors, is thesource of livelihood in India.
>	India has emerged as-
	√ world'sproducer of milk, pulses, jute and spices.
	✓ largest under wheat, rice and cotton.
	✓ largest producer of fruits, vegetables, tea, farmed fish, cotton, sugarcane,
	wheat, rice, cotton, and sugar.
	✓ world's largest food and grocery market is the
	✓ world's largest(buffaloes).
>	of India's population is directly dependent on agriculture for living. It contributed
	18.80% to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP).
>	Food grains production has reached 315.7 million tonnes in 2021-22.
>	Private investment in agriculture has increased to 9.3% in 2020-21.
>	Agri sector had a growth of <b>3.50%</b> in 2022-23, driven by buoyant rabi sowing
>	Export of agricultural → touched an all-time peak of Rs 3,74,611 crore during last one year,
	& it rose by 25 percent within 6 months of current financial year 2022-23 (Apr-Sep)
>	(APEDA)
	is entrusted with the <b>responsibility</b> of <b>export of agri-products</b> .

1) Allowing FDI in marketing of food products and in food product	
under theroute	
2) Income support to farmers through	
3) Fixing of Minimum Support Price (MSP) attimes the cost of production	on
4) Institutional credit for agriculture sector atrates	
5) Launch of the National Mission for Edible Oils	
6) Bima Yojana (PMFBY) – a novel insurance schem	ne for financial
support to farmers suffering crop loss/damage	
7) Mission for Integrated Development of Horticulture (MIDH) for the holistic	growth of the
horticulture sector	
8) Provision of <b>Soil Health Cards</b>	
9) (PKVY) sup	porting and
promoting organic farming, and improvement of soil health.	
10) Agri Infrastructure Fund, a medium / long term debt financing facility for	r investment in
viable projects for post-harvest management Infrastructure and comr	munity farming
assets	
11) Promotion of Farmer Producer Organisations (FPOs) to ensure better i	income for the
producers through an organization of their own.	
12) (PDMC) scheme to increase water use efficiency at	t the farm level
13) Setting up of Micro Irrigation Fund	
14) Initiatives towards agricultural mechanization	
15) Setting up ofa pan-India trading portal which	n networks the
existing mandis to create a unified national market for agricultural	commodities.
16) Introduction of for improvement in farm produce logistics,	, and
17) Creation of a <b>Start-up Eco system</b> in agriculture and allied sectors	
II) The Secondary Sector	
> Secondary sector contributes of total gross value added in th	ne country and
employing over 12.1 crores of people.	
> The industrial sector in India broadly comprises of- manufacturing, he	eavy industries,
fertilizers, pharmaceuticals, chemicals and petrochemicals, oil and nat	tural gas, food
processing, mining, defence products, textiles, retail, micro, small & medi	um enterprises,
cottage industries and tourism.	
> The share of informal sector in the economy is more than 50% of GVA.	
Manufacturing sector accounts for 78% of total production.	
In Jan 31, 2023 the Manufacturing Purchasing Managers' Index (PMI) in Indi	ia stood at 55.4.
India's rank in the Global Innovation Index (GII) improved to 40th in 2022 from	m 81st in 2015.

>	(DPIIT) has a role in formulation
	and implementation of industrial policy and strategies for industrial development.
>	Some of the policies are presented below:
1)	Introduction of GST on single indirect tax replacing many indirect taxes.
2)	Reduction of corporate tax to domestic comp. giving an option to pay income-tax at 22%
3)	'' is a 'Vocal for Local' initiative launched in 2014 to- facilitate
	investment, innovation, infrastructure in India.
4)	'Ease of Doing Business' → simplification of procedures, rationalization of legal provisions,
	digitization of government processes, and decriminalization of minor defaults. India
	ranks in the World Bank's annual Doing Business Report (DBR), 2020
5)	The National Single Window System is a one-stop-shop for investor related approvals &
	provide continuous facilitation and support to investors.
6)	PM Gati Shakti National Master Plan to facilitate data-based decisions related to
	integrated planning of multi-modal infrastructure, thereby reducing logistics cost.
7)	National Logistics Policy (NLP)→ aims to lower cost of logistics
8)	To become 'Atmanirbhar', the Production Linked Incentive (PLI) Scheme was initiated for
	14 key sectors to enhance India's manufacturing capabilities and export competitiveness.
9)	Industrial Corridor Development Programme: Greenfield Industrial regions with sustainable
	infrastructure and to make available 'plug and play' infrastructure at the plot level.
10)	India Scheme (Faster Adoption and Manufacturing of Hybrid and Electric
	Vehicles) to promote of electric and hybrid vehicle technology
11)	$'$ $\rightarrow$ empowerment of Micro Small and Medium Enterprises (MSMEs).
12)	PM (PM MITRA): ensure world-class
	industrial infrastructure & boost FDI and local investment in the textiles sector.
13)	Opening up for global investments: Make India a more attractive investment destination
14)	<b>FDI under route</b> is permitted for the sale of <b>coal</b> , and <b>coal mining</b>
	activities, & insurance intermediaries.
15)	Foreign Investment Promotion Board (FIPB) was abolished in May 2017, and replaced by
	(FIFP). Under FIFP, process for granting
	FDI approvals has been simplified. FDI has increased jumped by 39% since FIFP came.
16)	Remission of Duties and Taxes on Export Products (RoDTEP) formed to replace the
	existing (Merchandise Exports from India Scheme) to boost exports. It provides for
	rebate of all hidden central, state, and local duties/taxes/levies on goods exported
17)	<b>Start-up India Programme</b> → facilitator for ideas & innovation in the country. <b>India's rank</b>
	in the Global Innovation Index (GII) → in 2022.
18)	Public Procurement (Preference to Make in India) Order, 2017 gives preference to locally
	manufactured goods/serv. in public procurement thereby giving boost to industrial growth.
19)	Emergency Credit Line Guarantee Scheme (ECLGS) is a fully guaranteed emergency credit
	line to monitor lending institutions.
	India is gearing up for 4 <sup>th</sup> industrial revolution or Industry 4.0 in which focus will be on- cloud computing, IoT, machine learning, & artificial intelligence (AI).
> -	

111)	The Tertiary Sector		
>	Unlike the usual economic development process of nations where economic growth has		
	led to	a shift from- agriculture to industries,	
	India h	as unique experience ofthe secondary sector in the growth	
	traject	tory by a shift from agriculture tosector.	
	The br	oad classification of services as per the National Industrial Classification, 2008	
	1.	Wholesale and retail trade and repair of vehicles	
	2.	Transportation and storage	
	3.	Accommodation and food service activities	
	4.	Information and communication	
	5.	Financial and insurance activities	
	6.	Real estate activities	
	7.	Professional, scientific and technical activities	
	8.	Administrative and support services	
	9.	Public administration, defence and compulsory social security	
	10.	Education	
	11.	Human health and social work activities	
	12.	Arts, entertainments and recreation	
	13.	Other service activities	
	14.	Activities of households as employers, undifferentiated goods and services producing activities of households for own use	
	15.	Activities of extra territorial organizations and bodies	
>	The <b>se</b>	rvice sector refers to industry producing goods viz. services as output.	
>	The se	rvices sector is the largest sector of India & accounts for of total India's GVA.	
	Gross '	Value Added (GVA) of services sector is estimated at ₹ 96.54 lakh crore in 2020-21.	
>	The se	ervice sector is the growing sector in India and has the highest labour	
	produc	tivity. The exceptionally rapid expansion of knowledge-based services such as	
	profess	sional and technical services has been responsible for the faster growth of the	
	service	es sector.	
>	The st	art-ups which have grown remarkably over the last few years mostly belong to the	
	service	es sector.	
>	India i	s among top WTO members in service exports and imports.	
>		services exports at US\$ 27.0 billion recorded robust growth in November 2022 due	
	to soft	tware, business, and travel services.	

^	While exports from all other sectors were adversely affected, India's services exports remained resilient during the Covid-19 pandemic. The reasons are the higher demand for digital support and need for digital infrastructure modernization.
	angitus support and need for digitus infrastructure modernization.
^	Services sector is of FDI inflows. FDI equity inflows into the services sector accounted for more than 60 per cent of the total FDI equity inflows into India.
>	The World Investment Report 2022 of UNCTAD places India as largest recipient of FDI in
	the top 20 host countries in 2021.
-	In 2021-22, India received the highest-ever FDI inflows of US\$ 84.8 billion including US\$ 7.1
	billion FDI equity inflows in the services sector.
~	To ensure liberalisation, government permitted 100% foreign participation in
	telecommunication services through Automatic Route.
>	The FDI ceiling in insurance companies was also raised from 49 to%.
>	Measures undertaken by the Government, such as the launch of the National Single-
	Window system and enhancement in the FDI ceiling through the automatic route, have
	played a significant role in facilitating investment.
	Conclusion
	The India Development Update (IDU) of the published in November
	2022, observes that India had to face an unusually challenging external environment-
	<ul> <li>Russia-Ukraine war,</li> <li>increased crude oil and commodity prices,</li> </ul>
	<ul> <li>persistent global supply disruptions,</li> </ul>
	tighter financial conditions and
	> high domestic inflationary pressures.
>	Despite all these, the real GDP of India grew by 6.3 percent in July-September of 2022-23
	driven by strong private consumption and investment.
>	The report observes that India's economy is relatively more from global
	spillovers than other emerging markets
~	As such, compared to other emerging economies, India is much more resilient to withstand
	adversities in the global arena.

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