CA Foundation

(New Syllabus)

Business Economics Abhyaas Notes

By CA Mohnish Vora (MVSIR)

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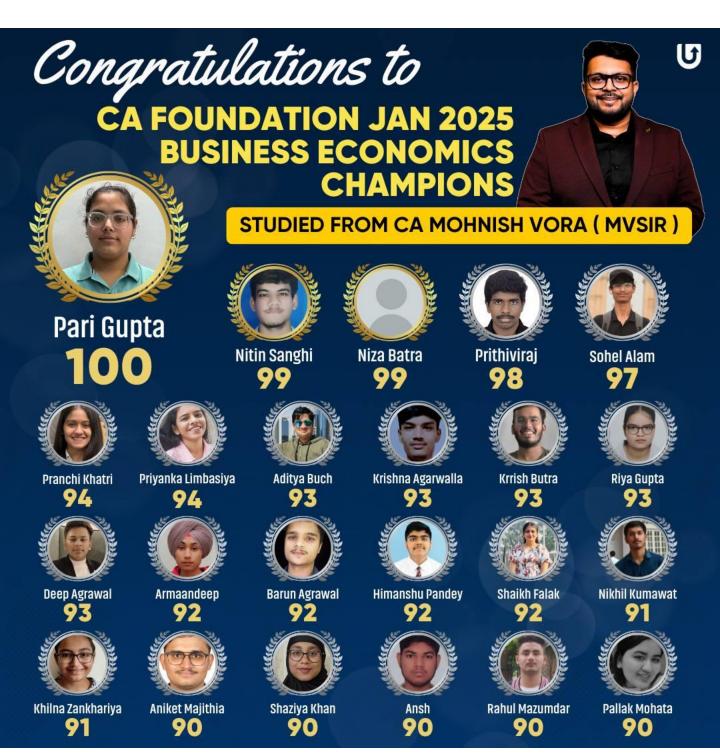




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Chapter 1 Nature & Scope of Business Economics

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Economics Chapter 1 - Nature & Scope of Business Economics

UNIT 1 - INTRODUCTION

**	Basics

<u>Busics</u>	
> Two fundamental facts of Economics	
1) Wants (aka ends) (which are graded priori	tised)
2) Resources (aka means) are(Problem of Scarcity)
and haveuses	(9)
> We cannot have everything we want with resources	we have, we are
forced to make	
Therefore, we choose to satisfy only of our want wants unsatisfied.	s leaving many other
> Problem of scarcity is faced by in this world	
> Thus Economics is " कहानी घर घर की"	
> 'Economics' is derived from word '	'. Its meaning is
<u></u>	
Economics is the study of processes by which	scarce resources are
allocated to satisfy competingwants of human beings	in a society.
Till 10th contunt Economics was because as (,
Till 19th century, Economics was known as '	
Father of Economics – He wrote a book	'An Inquiry into the
Nature and Causes of the′ (1776)	
Economists Important Definitions of Economists	onomics
Wealth Definition	
Limitation : neglect of immaterial servic	
Economics is a "Science which deals with	n wealth"
Welfare Definition	
Scarcity Definition Economics is neutral between ends.	
Growth Definition	

- ❖ The study of economics helps us in-
 - > Developing an _____ approach
 - > Choosing _____ course of action from among different alternative courses
- ❖ Most economic problems are of _____ nature & are affected by _____ forces
- The study of Economics _____ ensure that all problems will be appropriately tackled; but, it enable student to examine a problem in its _____

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V	١
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*	<u>Decision making</u> refers to process of	
	> selecting an	that will provide the
	> most efficient means of attaining a de	
	> from alternative	
	accornacto	On the second se
*	<u>Business Economics</u>	
	It may be defined as the use of	to make
	involving the best use	of an organization's scarce resources.
	> defined "Business	Economics" as use of economic analysis in
	formulation of business policies.	
	Business Economics is aka.	Economics or Economics
*		
•		er of Economic
	Micro Economics	Macro Economics
	Study of behaviour of	Study of economy
	or rather than all the units combined	It analyzes theeconomic environment.
	att the units combined	environment.
	It examines how individual units make	Aka – Economics
	decisions as to how to efficiently	
	Few areas under Micro- Economics are:	Few areas under Macro- Economics are:
	(i) Product pricing;	(i) National Income & National Output;
	(ii) Consumer behaviour;	(ii) & interest rates;
	(iii);	(iii) Balance of trade & balance of
	(iv) The economic conditions of	payments;
	(v) Behaviour of firms; and	(iv) External value of currency;
	(vi) Location of industry.	(v) The overall level of; and
	2	(vi) The level of and
		rate of economic growth.
**	Nature of Business Economics	
	1) Business Economics is a Science □ Economics is a branch of	of how people in a society
		ution & consumption of goods/services.
	Based largely on Micro Economics	
	3) Incorporates elements of Macro Analy	vsis
	4) Business Economics is an art	

5) Use of Theory of	Markets and Private Ente	rprises		
unrealist ☐ Business 7) Interdisciplinary	conomics → ic assumptions) Economics → pragmatic (tackles	rely (due s problems) (subjects)	to
situation objective <u>Normativ</u>	Economics –	············	, "" curre tionship between variables "" do nts	in
	Scope of Business	Econon	nics	
	/ Internal Issues Micro-Economics)		ironmental / External Factor: lved using Macro-Economics)	
Those issues that organisation and of n	are	of mo	are <u>cont</u> anagement; thus organizati d fine-tune its policies nise their adverse effects	on
2) In a two-good the maximum amount of the3) A wise individu capacity." This	ves which aspects of norm economy, the amount of one good other good is produced all or a society likes to requires some resource	that co	economics: refle an be produced when a give e for its growth of product ald be used for production	ven ive
ECONOMICS Vs. BUSIN				
Basis of Difference	Economics		Business Economics	
Meaning	principles to solve ecc problems	nomic	economic principles to sol business problems.	of ve
Character	Micro & econor	nic	economic	
Main Task	Fulfilment of needs individuals & also entities	- •	Proper decision making in a particular business entity	
Nature	Positive as well as norma	itive		
Scope	Wider Scope		scope	
Branches	It has business economic its applied branch.	s as	It is an applied branch of economics	
Canagement	Theories relating	to	Onlytheory ignori	ng

distribution

production,

consumption

Concerned with

other theories

&

Concentration like growth, inflation & emp. like demand, supply & profit Both economic as well as neconomic aspects economic aspects of business problem Validity of Based on certain assumptions Some assumptions become	Basis of Difference	Economics	Business Economics
Concentration only on economic aspects economic aspects of business problem Validity of Based on certain assumptions Some assumptions become	Analysis Invovled	•	Analysis oflevel issues like demand, supply & profit
I KACPA ON COTTAIN ACCIIMATIONS I	Concentration	only on economic aspects	
Assumptions when applied.	Validity of Assumptions	Based on certain assumptions	Some assumptions become when applied.

	UNIT 2 - BASIC PROBLEMS OF AN ECONOMY & ROLE OF PRICE MECHANISM
*	Every economic system has to deal with central problem of scarcity of resources relative to the wants for them. This is generally called 'the central economic problem'.
	1) What to produce? → What (more of capital or consumer goods) & how much to
	produce (quantity)
	2) How to produce? → Capital or Labour Intensive technique (Depends on availability & relative prices)
	3) For whom to produce? → How G/S distributed
	4) What provisions are to be made for economic growth? → Decide how much
	saving and investment should be made for future progress.
*	An refers to the sum total of arrangements for the production and distribution of goods and services in a society.
*	3 Types of Economies- 1) Capitalist - All resources are owned and controlled by private individuals for
	 2) Socialist - Material resources are owned by (aka Govt. or Central Planning Authority)
	3) Mixed - It depends on both and for allocation of resources
	CAPITALIST ECONOMY
>	Aka freeeconomy oreconomy or market economy
>	All means of production are owned and controlled by private individuals for is the mainstay of capitalism and
	is its driving force.
	Eg- USA, UK, Hong Kong etc.
*	Characteristics of Capitalist Economy is driving force. Absence of Govt. Interference - All economic decisions are guided by
	> Consumer Sovereignty > Competition (The regulatory mechanism discretized by the state of the s
	of the market system is) alrection by govt. authorities.

*	Merits of Capitalist Economy	
	Consumers – many quality goods atprices	s-
	results in higher standard of living	
	>regulating and resources allocated automatically by price mechanism	
	 Functions in a framework High degree of operative efficiency & Cost of production is 	
	> Offers incentives for efficient decisions, innovation ar	nd
	technological progress	
	> Preserves fundamental rights such as right to freedom and right to private	te
	property	
	Encourages enterprise & risk taking	
*	Demerits of Capitalist Economy	
	> Vast economic and social injustice, splits society into 'haves'	&
	'have-nots' human welfare > Precedence ofrights overrights	
	Precedence ofrights overrights	_
	Of labour & consumers. Often strikes & lock outs. No security	of
	employment.	
	> Resource misallocation - more production of goods & less of	_
	goods & merit goods. Unplanned production- economic instability - results in a lot of human misery	,
	 Waste of resources - huge amounts spent on 	•
	> Leads to formation of as large firms may drive out small ones	:.
	Excessive as well as conspicuous and unethical consumption	on
	lead to environmental degradation.	
*	How do capitalist economies solve their central problems?	
	Capitalist economy uses the impersonal forces of market &	
	or the to solve its central problems	
	1) Deciding (what to breduce)	
	1) Deciding 'what to produce'✓ Decided by consumers who show their preferences by on the	20
	goods which they want	10
	goods which they want	
	2) Deciding 'how to produce'	
	✓ The of factors of production help in deciding how to produce. If labour is relatively, he will use labour-intensive method	to
	produce. If labour is relatively, he will use labour-intensive method	
	3) Deciding 'for whom to produce'✓ Production is done for those who have Higher the	
	income, higher buying capacity and higher demand for goods.	ie
	theome, higher buying capacity and higher demand for goods.	
	4) Deciding about consumption, saving and investment	
	✓ Higher the interest rates, higher will be the savings	
	√ The greater the profit expectation, greater will be the investment.	
	SOCIALIST ECONOMY	
٥	Aka or Economy or Economy	21 /
	Concept given by and in 'Th	1e
	Production by Govt. is aimed at maximizing of public. Here goods	&
	services are produced	

•		cteristics of Socialist Economy Collective Ownership (ownership)
	2)	Economic planning : Central Planning Authority takes all economic decisions & solve central problems.
		Absence of Consumer Choice: Freedom from hunger is guaranteed, but range of choice is limited by planned production.
	✓	Right to work is guaranteed, but the choice of occupation gets restricted.
	4)	Relatively Equal Income Distribution
	✓	Minimum role of Price Mechanism or Market forces Price mechanism has secondary role, e.g., for disposal of accumulated stocks. The prices prevailing under socialism are ' prices' which are set by central planning authority on the basis of socio-economic objectives.
	6)	Absence of Competition: Since the state is the sole entrepreneur
•		of Socialist Economy
		distribution of wealth & provision of opportunities.
	>	and balanced economic development as central planning authority coordinates all resources in an efficient manner.
	>	utilization of resources & ensuring maximum production. Wastes of all kinds are through strict economic planning.
	>	Since competition is absent, there is wastage on advertisement also.
	>	In a planned economy, unemployment is, business fluctuations are and stability is brought about and maintained.
	>	Absence of profit motive helps community to develop a of the society.
	>	Socialism ensures right to andstandard of living.
	>	Under socialism, labourers and consumers are from exploitation.
	>	Provision ofsocial security which makes citizens feel secure
٠	<u>Demer</u>	its of Socialist Economy
		Bureaucracy & red tapism, inefficiency and delays, corruption, favouritism
		Takes away the basic right- right to
		Does provide necessary incentives to hard work
		monopolies - sometimes become
		No freedom of what the state produces has to be accepted No importance to efficiency & productivity - disincentive to work.
		Extreme form of socialism is practicable (Socialist economy is a)
*		o socialist economies solve their central problems? By using the tool of to solve the central problems

	MIXED ECONOMY
>	It includes the best features of capitalism & socialism
A	Private enterprises are to do any type of economic activity. However, the Govt. imposes measures to and private sector
A	The Government itself runs important and selected industries and eliminate the free play of profit motive and self-interest.
*	In a mixed economy, there are three sectors of industries: 1) Private sector 2) Public sector 3) Combined sector
*	Merits of Mixed Economy ➤ Economic freedom & private property → incentive to work & capital formation.
	Price mechanism & competition promotes efficient decisions & better resource allocation.
	➤ Consumers are benefitted → consumers' sovereignty and freedom of choice.
	> Appropriate incentives for innovation and technological progress.
	> Encourages enterprise and risk taking.
	> Advantage of economic planning & rapid economic devp. on basis of planning.
	Comparatively greater economic and social equality and freedom from exploitation due to greater govt. participation.
	Disadvantages of cut-throat competition averted through government's legislative measures such as environment and labour regulations.
*	Demerits of Mixed Economy ➤ Excessive control by state → reduced incentives & constrained growth of pvt sector. ➤ Corruption ➤ Wastage of resources
	Poor implementation of planning Undue delays in economic decisions.
	> Higher rates of taxation > Poor performance of the public
	sector. Difficult to maintain a proper balance between public & pvt sector
*	How do Mixed economies solve their central problems? ➤ It uses a mix of both &

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Chapter 2 THEORY OF DEMAND & SUPPLY

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	<u>Chapter 2 - THEORY OF DEMAND & SUPPLY</u> UNIT 1 - THEORY OF DEMAND
*	'Demand' refers to quantity of a good or service that buyers are willing and able to
	purchase at various prices during a given period of time.
*	In Economics, demand is the same thing as desire to purchase.
*	The effective demand for a thing depends on
	i
	iito purchase and
	iiito use those means for that purchase.
*	Two things about quantity demanded-
	1) Quantity demanded is always expressed at a given At different prices
	different quantities are demanded.
	2) Quantity demanded → concept → we must thus express demand as 'so
	much per period of time
	Determinants of Demand
	Factors which influence the demand for a commodity are determinants of demand
1)	Price of the good
	Ceterus paribus, price increases → demand & vice versa
2)	Price of related goods
	Price of related goods Complementary goods (goods) → Eg Car & Petrol → Price of
>	Price of related goods Complementary goods (goods) → Eg Car & Petrol → Price of Petrol increases, demand of car [relation]
>	Price of related goods Complementary goods (goods) → Eg Car & Petrol → Price of Petrol increases, demand of car [relation] Substitute/Supplementary/Competing goods (goods which satisfy) →
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>	Price of related goods Complementary goods (goods) → Eg Car & Petrol → Price of Petrol increases, demand of car [relation] Substitute/Supplementary/Competing goods (goods which satisfy) → Eg Tea & Coffee → Price of tea increases, demand of coffee [relation] Disposable Income of Consumers
>	Price of related goods Complementary goods (goods) → Eg Car & Petrol → Price of Petrol increases, demand of car
> > 3)	Price of related goods Complementary goods (goods) → Eg Car & Petrol → Price of Petrol increases, demand of car
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> > 3)	Price of related goods Complementary goods (goods
3)	Price of related goods Complementary goods (goods
3)	Price of related goods Complementary goods (goods
3)	Price of related goods Complementary goods (goods

j			
	Nature of Good		Meaning
	Normal Goods Eg- Furniture, Automobile, Consumer Durables	Increase in inc	come leads to demand.
	Essential Consumer Goods Eg- Food Grain, Cooking Oil, Fuel		of consumers. come leads to higher demand, but this <mark>incr.</mark> proportionate to increase in income
	Durable Goods Eg- TV, Car, House	As people beco	ome richer, there is decline in importance of goods ∈ importance of durable goods.
	Inferior Goods Eg- Cheap substitutes, Local goods	decreases wit	only up to a certain level of income & the an increase in income beyond this level. ay be normal for one condition & inferior in
	Luxury / Prestige Goods Eg- Sports Car etc		beyond a certain level of consumers' income g as income increases.
	4 Types of "Effects" which	influences consi	umers' Tastes and preferences of consumers
		of people to	(imitate) the consumption of others. ney see that other people have them.
	Effect that ot	thers are also co se commodity	which demand is due to fact nsuming same commodity. (Mentality) in order to be fashionable or stylish or to cople they wish to be associated with.
	(function of fact th	at others are als	which demand is owing to so consuming same commodity. be; to be different; to nselves from the "common herd."
	(function of people > People	priced goo	ds are consumed by seeking rich need for consumption. ds to that they have style, class,
	0		
_	Bandwagon Effec	ct	Snob Effect
	A psychological effect in w the same what others are a have their own belief a	loing. They do	It is understood as the desire to possess a unique commodity having a prestige value. It is quite opposite to the bandwagon or demonstration effect.
	It leads to in demand of a particular commodity.		It leads to in demand of a particular commodity.
	Example: When some investing money in share many people start followi without considering its ad disadvantages	ng the same	Example: If Miss. X and Miss. Y are rich rivals of each other and if in any party Miss. X wears an expensive dress and on seeing it Miss. Y who also having the same dress decided to reject the use of the same dress further. Rather Miss. Y will try to use even more expensive one.
- 1			

6)	Other Factors	
	a) Size of population	the size of population, higher demand
	population	More old people, then demand for spectacles, sticks→
	b) Age Distribution of	If more of children, demand for toys, toffees, etc. will be
	population	If there is migration from rural areas to urban areas, there decrease in
		demand in areas. Higher the national income, the demand
	c) The level of	Rich people has propensity to consume (PTC) and poor have
	National Income & its	higher PTC.
	Distribution	Uneven Distribution, then PTC, demand
	d) Consumer-	Even Distribution, then PTC, demand
	credit facility	interest rate, demand
	and interest rates	credit available, then high demand
	e) Government	Tax increase, demand
	policies and regulations	Subsidy increase, demand Ban or restriction increase, demand
	Law of Demand	
>	As per	, Law of demand states- ceterus paribus (other things
	being equal), if p	rice of commodity falls, quantity demanded will and vice versa
	The quantity dam	nanded is amount of a good or service that consumers areto buy
	· ·	holding other factors constant.
A		nanded <u>can</u> quantity actually sold.
	Demand Schedule	
		ale is a showing quantities of a good that buyers would
	aemana at aiffere	nt prices, per unit of time, with all other variables held constant.
	Demand schedule	law of demand.
	Demand Curve	
	A demand curve is apresentation of the demand schedule. It is obtained	
	by plotting Price onaxis & Quantity Demanded onaxis.	
	Slope of demand	curve is →
	Negative sign in	slope → consistent with law of demand.
	Demand curve c	an be <mark>linear</mark> (straight line) or <mark>curvilinear</mark> (slope may vary along curve).
	·	

	Market Demand Schedule
	Market demand is total quantity thatbuyers of a commodity are willing to buy per
	unit of time at a given price, other things remaining constant.
	Market Demand Schedule
	The market demand curve is obtained by(lateral) summation of all
	individual demand curves. If we plot the market demand schedule on a graph, we get the
	market demand curve.
	Demand Function
	Demand function states relationship between
	for a product (dependent variable) and
	its (independent or explanatory variables).
	A demand function may be expressed as follows:
	Dx = f (Price of Good X, Income, Price of Related Goods)
	Demand Equation
	The straight-line demand curve where we hold everything else constant other than price,
	can be described by a linear demand function.
	Q =
	Where 'a' is the vertical intercept and 'b' is the slope.
	Rationale of the law of demand
<u>1)</u>	Utility maximising behaviour of Consumers
	According to Marshall, consumer has diminishing utility for each additional unit of a
	commodity and thus, he will be willing to pay only for each additional unit.
<u>2)</u>	Arrival of new consumers
	When price falls, some consumers who could afford to buy earlier may now be able to
	buy it, & thus increase the qty demanded.
<u>3)</u>	<u>Different Uses</u>
	Goods having multiple uses→ Price decrease → used for varied purposes & demand
	Eg- Milk, Electricity etc.
<u>4)</u>	Price effect
	The in quantity demanded due to an increase in price is termed as <u>Price effect</u> .
	The price effect is sum of its two components namely: (as explained by)
i)	substitution effect
ii)	income effect.

<u>i)</u>	Substitution effect:		
	When the price of a commodity falls, it becomes relativelythan other commodities,		
	& it induces consumers todemand of commodity whose price has fallen.		
	When price falls, substitution effect is always		
	The substitution effect will be when:		
a)	the goods aresubstitutes		
b)	there is <mark>of switching</mark> to the substitute good		
c)	there iswhile switching to the substitute good		
<u>ii)</u>	Income effect		
>	Increase in demand on account of an increase in real income is known as income effect.		
>	When price falls, consumer can		
	□ buy quantity with money or		
	☐ he can buy of same commodity with amount.		
>	In case of <u>inferior goods</u> ,		
	☐ income effect works in direction to substitution effect.		
	expansion in demand due to a price fall will take place only if		
	☐ Here, violation of law of demand takes place when		
	Exceptions to the law of demand		
1.			
>	Conspicuous goods		
>	Conspicuous goods Aka. Prestige goods, Snob goods, Veblen goods.		
A	Conspicuous goods Aka. Prestige goods, Snob goods, Veblen goods. Some consumers measure utility of a commodity by its i.e., if commodity is		
AAAA	Conspicuous goods Aka. Prestige goods, Snob goods, Veblen goods. Some consumers measure utility of a commodity by its i.e., if commodity is expensive they think that it has got utility. Higher the price > higher the demand		
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3.	Conspicuous necessities	•		
>	Demand for certain goo	ds is affected by	effect of	consumption pattern
	of their social group. These goods, due to			
>	For example, despite increase in prices of TV, refrige		frigerators, \rightarrow demand	does not fall .
4.	Future expectations abo	out prices		
>	When prices are rising,	households expecting t	hat <mark>prices in future wil</mark>	l be still,
	tend to <mark>buy</mark>	_quantities currently & \	vice versa.	9
5.	Irrational Consumer			
>	A person may deman	d <mark>larger quantity even</mark>	at a higher price b	ecause he may be
	of rulin		- 12	
>	Irrational people make	purcha	ases <mark>without any ration</mark>	al calculations
6.	Demand for necessaries		<u> </u>	
>		nges, people have to cor	rsume qua	ntities of necessities.
	Eg- Food, power, water	r, gas etc.		
7	Shoulative doods		0	
7. >	Speculative goods	re is demanded when	priess are	and loss will be
	demanded when prices		rices are	_ and less will be
	demanded when prices	dectine.		
	Changes in demand			
	Dem		Quantity 1	Demanded
	between price & quant		Quantity demanded is is demanded at a spe	s the quantity which cific price.
	It is represented b schedule & demand cur	ve. demand	Represented by a	on demand curve.
	"Changes in Demand" occur due to changes in factorsprice of the good. Favourable change in Unfavourable change			cy Demanded" occur of goods
	any factor other than price Increase in Demand → shift	in any factor other than price Decrease in Demand → shift	Increase in price of goods concerned	Decrease in price of goods concerned
	in demand curve Eg- Increase in	in demand curve Eg- Decrease in	Contraction of Demand →	Expansion or Extension of Demand
	Income (normal goods) Increase in price of substitutes etc.	Income (normal goods) Increase in price of complements etc.	movement along the same demand curve	movement along the same demand curve
>	Objective of advertiseme	ent by any firm is to-		
	> shift demand cur	ve to &		
	> elastic	ity of demand.		

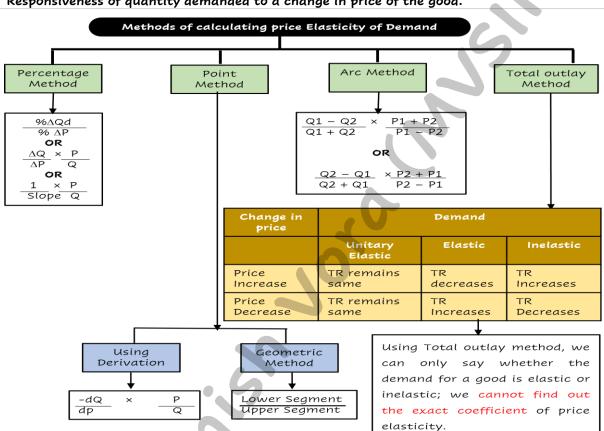
Elasticity of Demand

Elasticity of demand \rightarrow ____ of quantity demanded to a change in one of

of demand

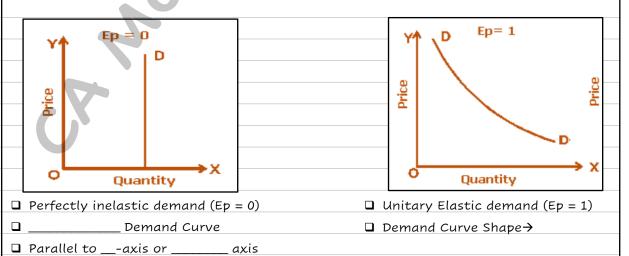
I) Price Elasticity of Demand (Ep)

Responsiveness of quantity demanded to a change in price of the good.



Interpretation of Values of Price Elasticity of Demand

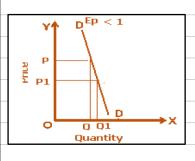
Value of **price elasticity of demand** varies from ____ _ to approach _

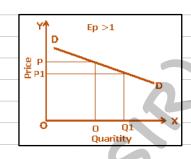


□ When price changes \rightarrow % Δ Q =

%ΔΡ

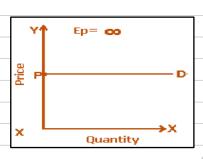
■ %∆Q





- ☐ Relatively inelastic demand (Ep < 1)
- Demand Curve
- □ %ΔQ < %ΔP
 </p>
- When price falls →buyers are unwilling to significantly contract demand.
- to price changes.

- ☐ Relatively elastic demand (Ep > 1)
- □ _____ Demand Curve
- □ %ΔQ > %ΔP
- ☐ Qty dem. is relatively _____ to price changes
- Qty dem. here is relatively _____



- ☐ Perfectly elastic demand
- \Box Ep = ∞ (Infinite)
- __ Demand Curve
- ☐ Parallel to ____axis or _____axis
- ☐ Small price increase, Qd= 0
- ☐ Found in _____ competition market

 \square Small price reduction raises demand from 0 to ∞

Additional Notes – Total Outlay Method

Generally, when price increases, there are two effects which act in opposite directions on revenue.

Price effect

Quantity effect

After a price increase, each unit sold sells at a higher price, which leads to _____ revenue.

After a **price increase, fewer** units are sold, which leads to revenue

What will be the net effect on total revenue?

When price increase, & demand is		PE vs QE	Net effect on TR
Inelastic Demand (Ep < 1)	QE < PE	Decr in TR < Incr in TR	TR will
Elastic Demand (Ep > 1)	QE > PE	Decr in TR > Incr in TR	TR will
Unit Elastic Demand (Ep = 1)	QE = PE	Decr in TR = Incr in TR	TR will

Determinants of Price Elasticity of Demand					
1	Availability of Substitutes	petrol)	→ up (generic) brands→	Dem →	
2	Position of a commodity in a consumer's budget	— elas ➤ Salt, matches, b ➤ Rental apartmen	ticity of dem uttons → nts, clothing	nand & vi →	dem dem
3	Nature of the need that a commodity satisfies	➤ Luxury goods (p→ d➤ Necessities (ossible to emand be p	ostponed	consumption) →dem.
4	No. of uses of which a commodity	> the po		f a comr	nodity,
5	Time period	Long time perioShort time perio	d to adjust t od→	to price o	change→ and
6	Consumer habits	Consumer is habit	ual of a good	ı→	demand
7	Tied demand	Tied demand→	(E	g pen &	refill)
8	Price Range	 Very high price or very low-price range→ Middle range → demand. 			
			(aemana.	
9	Minor complement items	Cheap & compleme product →	ntary items t	to be use	
	items	product →	ntary items t	to be use	
	<u> </u>	product →	ntary items t	to be use	
	items Income Elasticity of Demo	product →and (Ey)	ntary items t deman	to be <mark>use</mark>	d with a costlier
	items	product →and (Ey)	ntary items t deman	to be <mark>use</mark>	d with a costlier
	items Income Elasticity of Demo	product →and (Ey)	ntary items t deman a change in i	to be <mark>use</mark>	d with a costlier
	Responsiveness of qua	and (Ey) antity demanded to a	ntary items to deman	to be <mark>use</mark>	d with a costlier f the consumer Arc
	Responsiveness of qua	product > and (Ey) antity demanded to a Percentag Method (E Proportionate M me, the proportion	ntary items to demand	ncome o	d with a costlier f the consumer Arc
	Responsiveness of qua Proportionate Method (Ey) f after an increase in incom	product > and (Ey) antity demanded to a Percentag Method (E Proportionate M me, the proportion	ntary items to demand a change in i	ncome o	f the consumer Arc Method (Ey)
	Responsiveness of qua Proportionate Method (Ey) f after an increase in incom	product > and (Ey) antity demanded to a Percentag Method (E Proportionate M me, the proportion	ntary items to demand a change in items in items to demand a change in items to demand	ncome of Income El	f the consumer Arc Method (Ey)
	Responsiveness of qua Proportionate Method (Ey) f after an increase in incom	product > and (Ey) antity demanded to a Percentag Method (E Proportionate M me, the proportion	ntary items to demand d	ncome of Income El	f the consumer Arc Method (Ey) ome Elasticity asticity = 1
	Responsiveness of qua Proportionate Method (Ey) f after an increase in incom	product > and (Ey) antity demanded to a Percentag Method (E Proportionate M me, the proportion	ntary items to demand d	ncome of Income El	d with a costlier f the consumer Arc Method (Ey) ome Elasticity asticity = 1 asticity > 1
	Responsiveness of qua Proportionate Method (Ey) f after an increase in incom	product > and (Ey) antity demanded to a Percentag Method (E Proportionate M me, the proportion	ntary items to demand a change in i	ncome of Income El	d with a costlier f the consumer Arc Method (Ey) ome Elasticity asticity = 1 asticity > 1
	Proportionate Method (Ey) f after an increase in incomo fincome spent of	product > and (Ey) Percentage Method (E Proportionate Method (E Proportionate Method (E) Proportionate Method (E) Percentage Method (E)	ntary items to demand a change in i	ncome of Income El	d with a costlier f the consumer Arc Method (Ey) ome Elasticity asticity = 1 asticity > 1

Arc Method (Ey)

$$\mathbf{E}\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} Q2 - Q1 & & P2 + P1 \\ \hline Q2 + Q1 & & P2 - P1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{OR} \quad \mathbf{E}\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} Q1 - Q2 & & P1 + P2 \\ \hline Q1 + Q2 & & P1 - P2 \end{bmatrix}$$

IV) Cross Elasticity of Demand (Ec)

Responsiveness of quantity demanded of Good X to a change in price of related good Y. Where Goods X & Y can be-

Substitute Goods

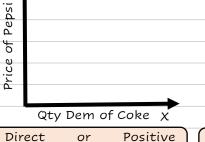
Complementary Goods

Unrelated Goods

Two goods which ____ the ____ Eg- Pepsi & Coke Two goods which are to be _____.
Eg- Pen & Ink

Two goods having ___ relation between them Eg- Laptop & Burger

No relation between Price of Laptop & Qd of Burger.



Qty Dem of Ink X

Negative or Inverse

relation between Price of Pepsi & Qd of Coke.
________sloping

relation between Price of Pen & Qd of Ink.

_____ sloping cross demand curve

cross demand curve

Cross Elasticity of Demand (Ec)

Percentage Method (Ec)

Ec =
$$\frac{\%\Delta \text{ Qty Dem of X}}{\%\Delta \text{ Price of Y}}$$

of Pen

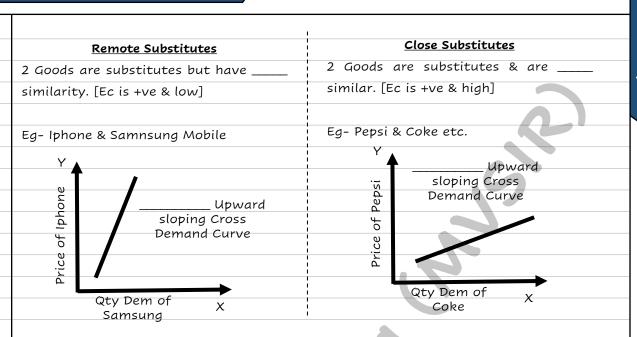
OR

$$\mathbf{Ec} = \frac{\Delta Qx}{\Delta Py} \quad \mathbf{x} \quad \frac{Py}{Qx}$$

Arc Method (Ec)

	Value of Ec	Type of Good	
	Ec = 0	Unrelated Goods	
-[Ec is Positive & Low	Substitutes
1	Ec is Positive → Ec > 0	Ec is Positive & High	Substitutes
1		Ec is Positive & Infinite	Perfect Substitutes
1		Ec is slightly below zero	Complements
1	Ec is Negative → Ec < 0	Ec is Negative & High	Complements
1		Ec is Negative & Infinite	Perfect Complements

Introduction



Chapter 2 - THEORY OF DEMAND & SUPPLY UNIT 2 - THEORY OF CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR

	All desires, tastes and motives of human beings are called wants in Economics. Since
	resources are limited, we must choose between urgent wants and not so urgent wants.
	Nature of Human Wants
>	→ never completely satisfied.
>	Differ in → Some are urgent ,others are less intensely felt
>	(capable of being satisified)
>	→ resources are scarce in relation to wants.
>	→ Some wants satisfied only by using multiple goods together.
>	A particular want may be satisfied in ways
>	Wants are(vary person to person) and(vary with time & place)
>	Some wants (non-durable goods) whereas others do occur again and
	again (durable goods)
>	Wants may become and
>	Wants are affected by income, taste, fashion, advertisements and social norms and
	customs
>	Wants arise from such as physical and psychological instincts,
	social obligations and individual's economic and social status

	Classification o	f Wants	
		Necessaries for life or existence	Necessary to meet minimum needs → food, clothing & shelter.
	Necessaries	Necessaries for efficiency	Necessities required to maintain energy and efficiency of work. Eg- nourishing food, adequate clothing, clean water etc
		Conventional necessaries	Not necessaries in reality but arise either due to pressure of or due to compelling
	Comforts	satisfying. Comforts are _ Eg- Tasty and wholesome	ife possible comforts make life comfortable and urgent than necessaries. e food, good house, clothes that suit different abour saving equipments etc.
	Luxuries		and expensiveessential for living. cclusive motor cars, classy furniture, etc.
	What is Utility	?	
A	·		nereby it tends to produce benefit, advantage,
	pleasure, good, o		
A	-	/	satisfaction
		utility even when it is	
>	It is subjective 8	& <mark>varies</mark> with person, time 8	place. Utility is same thing as usefulness.
>	From the econo	mic standpoint, <mark>even harmf</mark>	ul things like liquor, may be said to have utility
	because people	want them. Concept of util	ity is ethically
>	People know uti	lity of goods by means of	
	Utility		
		sis forms basis of theory of c	
	Cardin	al Utility Approach	Ordinal Utility Approach
	the satisfac consumers fro	ty is the utility wherein tion derived by the om the consumption of vice can be measured	which a consumer derives be
	Marginal Utilit	cy Analysis propounded by	Indifference Curve Analysis propounded by
	Marginal Utility	/ Analysis	
>	The law of dimi	nishing marginal utility sta	ates that -> "The benefit which
	a person derives	from a given increase in the	stock of a thing with every
	increase in the s	tock that he already has."	
>	Since each wan	t is satiable, as a consume	r consumes more and more units of a good, the
	intensity of his	want for the good goes o	on and a <mark>point</mark> is reached
	where the consi	ımer <mark>no longer wants it</mark> .	

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1st Piece

2nd Piece 3rd Piece

4th Piece

5th Piece

6th Piece

otes	CA Foundation	cono
Marginal Utility (MU) (in Utils)	Total Utility (TU) (in Utils)	mics
50	50	S
40	90	gr
28	118	1
10	128	

128

123

Observations from above table

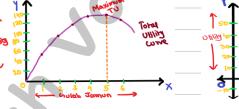
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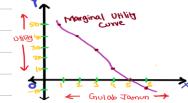
-5

- MU can be ____ 1)
- MU _____ throughout. 2)
- TU rises as long as MU is positive, but at a diminishing rate because MU is diminishing. 3)
- 4) When MU = 0, TU is ______. It is a satiation point or saturation point. Once this point is reached, consumer would refuse any extra unit even if it were free
- When MU is _____, TU is diminishing. 5)
- 6) _ = Slope of TU.

Total Utility (TU) TU is _____ of marginal utilities with

> Tu= Mu1 + Mu2 +....+ Mun





Marginal Utility (MU)

- MU is addition made to TU by consumption of 1 additional (marginal) unit of a commodity.
- \rightarrow Mun = Tun Tun-1

Assumptions of Marginal Utility Analysis

	Rationality	Consumer is rational & attempts to attain from his limited money income.	
	Cardinal Measurability of Utility	Utility is a cardinal concept > & > in utils. Compare different commodities & express which commodity gives him greater utility & by	
	Money is the measuring rod of utility	The of money which a person is for a unit of a good is a measure of utility which he derives.	
	Other factors 'constant'	Price of commodity, tastes & preferences, income, habits, etc are assumed constant.	
		or interval between consumption of different units.	
	Homogenous Units	All units consumed should be in nature. If successive units show variation or are of superior quality, diminishing utility may occur.	

Standard Units could consider the normal units as a glass of commodity should be in nature.		Eg- spoonfuls of juice areunits & in such cases we could consider the normal units as a glass of juice. Also, the commodity should bein nature.
	Constancy of the Marginal Utility of Money	If MU of money changes as income changes, the measuring-rod of utility becomes & thus would be for measurement.
	The Hypothesis of Independent Utility	Total utility which a person gets from whole collection of goods is simply the sum total of separate utilities of the goods. The theory complementarity between goods.
	Assumptions of Marg	inal Utility Analysis
	accumptions	Assumptions like cardinal measurability of utility, constancy of marginal utility of money, continuous consumption & consumer rationality are unrealistic.
		Utility is independent. Shape of utility curve may be affected by presence or absence of substitutes or complements.
	Law is not universal	goods → gold, cash, diamond etc
	(Not in syllabus, but ICAI asked MCQ on below topic)	
	Marshallian theory of consumer's behavior is based on- Hypothesis of	
	utilities & Hypothesis	of <u>utilities</u> .
	Consumer Equilibrium in Single Commodity Case (Cardinal Approach)	
A		n equilibrium (will be deriving maximum satisfaction) in respect of
_	the quantity of one g	
A		a good till MU = Price
A		nal utility of money spent on X >
		Im = = 1 Price Po 1
A	P _K ,	
A	When price rises→ Buy	
	so as to equate the marginal utility to price. $\longleftrightarrow 0$	
A	Thus, we can say tha	t downward sloping demand curve is directly derived from
	curve.	

Law of Equi-Marginal Utility

- ➤ When consumer spends his income on _______ good→ then consumer equilibrium is explained with <u>Law of Equi-Marginal utility</u>.
- ➤ Consumer will be in equilibrium → spending money in such a way that MU of each good is proportional to its price & last rupee spent on each commodity yields him equal MU.

$$(MUx / Px) = (MUy / Py) = MUm$$

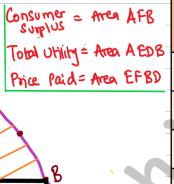
or

(MUx / MUy) = (Px / Py)

Consumer Surplus (CS)

Alfred Marshall gave concept of CS.

CS = what consumer is _____ - what he



Gulab Jamon

White he				
Gulab Jamun	Marginal Utility (MU) (in Utils)	Total Utility (TU) (in Utils)	Price	Consumer Surplus
1 st Piece	50	50	10	40
2 nd Piece	40	90	10	30
3 rd Piece	28	118	10	18
4 th Piece	10	128	10	0
5 th Piece	0	128	10	-
6 th Piece	-5	123	10	-

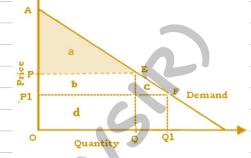
OR CS =

- The concept of consumer's surplus is derived from the ______.
- of demand curve measures buyers willingness to pay.
- Difference between his willingness to pay and price that he actually pays is _______
 to consumer, called the ______ consumer surplus.
- consumer surplus in a market is sum of individual consumer surpluses in market & is equal to area market demand curve but price.

Consumer Surplus – New Point

A fall in price from P to P1 → increases consumer surplus from APE to AP1F. Increase in CS has _____ components-

- ✓ Increase in CS of ______buyers (rectangle marked by "b")
- ✓ CS now available to ______ buyers who now started buying due to lower prices (the triangle c)



Imp Limitation of CS- In case of necessaries -> CS is always

Ordinal Approach

- As per ordinal approach, Human satisfaction → psychological phenomenon & ______ be measured in monetary terms.
- It is easier & more sound to ______preferences than to measure them in money terms.

Assumptions of Indifference Curve Analysis

- 1) Consumer _____ his own tastes & preferences and possesses full information
- 2) Consumer is _____ → result in a more preferred consumption bundle over a less preferred bundle.
- 3) Utility is _____ expressible. The consumer is capable of ranking all conceivable combinations (But he cannot tell quantitatively)
- 4) _____choices > If consumer prefers combi. A to B, & B to C, then he must prefer A to C
- 5) If combination A has more commodities than B, then ___ must be preferred to ___.

♦ (Not in syllabus, but ICAI asked MCQ on below topic)

A consumer's preferences are ______, if & only if between any two bundles,

the consumer prefers the bundle which has-

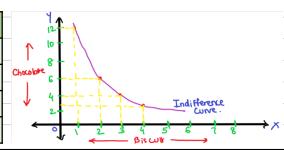
✓ More of ______ of the goods, &

√ _____ of the _____ good

as compared to the other bundles

Indifference Curve

1				
	Combination	Biscuit	Chocolate	MRS
	А	1	12	-
	В	2	6	6
	С	3	4	2
	D	4	3	1



>	An indifference curve is a curve which represe	nts all those combina	ations of <u>goods</u>
	which give satisfaction to consum	er.	
>	If a consumer equally prefers two product bund	dles, then consumer	is indifferent between
	the two bundles. An Indifference curve is als	o called -utili	ty curve or
	utility curve.		
	Marginal Rate Of Substitution (MRS)		
>	MRS of X for Y \rightarrow amount of whose	can just be compensa	ted by a unit of
	in such a manner that the level of satisfac	ction remains same.	.63
>	MRS is absolute value of of IC		
>	$MRS = \Delta Y / \Delta X$ OR $MRS = MUx$: / Muy	
*	Why MRS keeps falling ?	. 63	
>	Wants are → when consumer h	nas more of a good,	his intensity to want
	more of it		
>	Most goods aresubstitutes of o	one another.	
	Indifference Map		
>	Indifference map→ of	1 The	KFFERENCE MAP
	indifference curves where each curve repre	sents	IC3
	certain level of satisfaction. (set of ICs)	Good y	IC ₂
>	It depicts of consu	mer's	—— <u>IC,</u> → ×
	tactor 9. professiones	•	04
	tastes & preferences.		Good X
		1	
	Properties of IC	Indifference	Curve in case of
1)	Properties of IC Indifference curves slope		Curve in case of
·	Properties of IC Indifference curves slope to the right	Indifference Substitute Goods	
1)	Properties of IC Indifference curves slope to the right Indifference curves are always		Curve in case of Complementary Goods
·	Properties of IC Indifference curves slope to the right	Substitute Goods > Downward Sloping > Straight Line	Complementary Goods L-shaped Convex to origin
2)	Properties of IC Indifference curves slope to the right Indifference curves are always to the origin (since which is slope is)	Substitute Goods > Downward Sloping > Straight Line	Curve in case of Complementary Goods L-shaped Convex to origin 2 straight lines with right
·	Properties of IC Indifference curves slope to the right Indifference curves are always to the origin (since which is slope is) Indifference curves can intersect	Substitute Goods > Downward Sloping > Straight Line	Complementary Goods L-shaped Convex to origin
2)	Properties of IC Indifference curves slope to the right Indifference curves are always to the origin (since which is slope is) Indifference curves can intersect each other (necessary that they are	Substitute Goods > Downward Sloping > Straight Line	Curve in case of Complementary Goods L-shaped Convex to origin 2 straight lines with right
2)	Properties of IC Indifference curves slope to the right Indifference curves are always to the origin (since which is slope is) Indifference curves can intersect each other (necessary that they are parallel to each other)	Substitute Goods > Downward Sloping > Straight Line	Curve in case of Complementary Goods L-shaped Convex to origin 2 straight lines with right
3)	Properties of IC Indifference curves slope to the right Indifference curves are always to the origin (since which is slope is) Indifference curves can intersect each other (necessary that they are parallel to each other) Higher IC represents satisfaction	Substitute Goods > Downward Sloping > Straight Line	Curve in case of Complementary Goods L-shaped Convex to origin 2 straight lines with right
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3)	Properties of IC Indifference curves slope to the right Indifference curves are always to the origin (since which is slope is) Indifference curves can intersect each other (necessary that they are parallel to each other) Higher IC represents satisfaction Indifference curve will touch either axes	Substitute Goods > Downward Sloping > Straight Line	Curve in case of Complementary Goods L-shaped Convex to origin 2 straight lines with right
2) 3) 4) 5)	Properties of IC Indifference curves slope to the right Indifference curves are always to the origin (since which is slope is	Substitute Goods Downward Sloping Straight Line MRS is constant	Complementary Goods L-shaped Convex to origin Straight lines with right angle bent
2) 3) 5)	Properties of IC Indifference curves slope to the right Indifference curves are always to the origin (since which is slope is) Indifference curves can intersect each other (necessary that they are parallel to each other) Higher IC represents satisfaction Indifference curve will touch either axes Budget Constraint A consumer → to maximise satisfaction → try to	Substitute Goods Downward Sloping Straight Line MRS is constant	Curve in case of Complementary Goods L-shaped Convex to origin 2 straight lines with right angle bent
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2) 3) 5)	Properties of IC Indifference curves slope to the right Indifference curves are always to the origin (since which is slope is) Indifference curves can intersect each other (necessary that they are parallel to each other) Higher IC represents satisfaction Indifference curve will touch either axes Budget Constraint A consumer → to maximise satisfaction → try to goods &, 1) for goods &,	Substitute Goods Downward Sloping Straight Line MRS is constant reach he has to work under	Curve in case of Complementary Goods L-shaped Convex to origin 2 straight lines with right angle bent IC. constraints:
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	Budget Line (aka. Price Line)
>	Budget constraint → explained by budget line
>	A budget line shows all those combinations of two
	goods which consumer can buy spending his
	money income on the two goods at their given prices.
	☐ Any point on BL → spends his money income
	☐ Any point above BL (pt. B) →spending
	(beyond reach)
	\square Point within (below) BL (pt. A) \rightarrow spending
>	Slope of budget line = '' = Px / Py
>	The budget line will shift when there is:
	☐ A change in of one or both goods, or
	☐ A change in level of
	☐ A change in income and relative prices
	Consumer's Equilibrium (Ordinal Approach)
>	Consumer is in equilibrium → derivingsatisfaction & thus is
	in no position to rearrange his purchases of goods.
	Combination 9
>	A consumer's optimal choice should satisfy
	two criteria→ Equi. point should
	✓ Be a point on his; &
	✓ Lie on IC possible
	Great X
>	Consumer is in equilibrium at 'Combination', where budget line PL is
	to indifference curve IC3
>	At equilibrium point,
	Slope of IC = Slope of BL OR [MUx/Muy] = [Px/Py]
	IC Analysis Va Heilier Analysis
	IC Analysis Vs Utility Analysis
	IC analysis is superior to utility analysis:
1)	IC analysis is superior to utility analysis: No assumption of of utility
1) 2)	IC analysis is superior to utility analysis: No assumption of of utility Studies commodity at a time
1) 2) 3)	IC analysis is superior to utility analysis: No assumption of of utility Studies commodity at a time Does not assume of MU of money
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	<u>Chapter 2 - THEORY OF DEMAND & SUPPLY</u> Unit 3 – THEORY OF SUPPLY		
	Introduction		
	Demand → Consumer point of view		
	Supply → point of view (Sellers can be individuals, firms & governments)		
	'Supply' refers to amount of G/S that producers are		
	and		
	✓to offer to the market		
	✓ at various <mark>prices</mark>		
	✓ during a		
	Three important things about supply		
	Supply→ what a firm → not necessarily to what they succeed in selling.		
	Supply is aconcept-> 'so much' per unit of time		
3)	Supply requires → willingness & ability to supply.		
	Determinants of Supply		
<u>1)</u>	Price of the good		
2)	Ceterus paribus, price increases → supply (since profit increase) & vice versa		
<u>2)</u>	Price of related goods		
	If a farmer produces & sells wheat and soya. If price of wheat rises, farmer may shift his land toproduction away from soya (decreasing supply of soya)		
3)	Prices of factors of production		
<u> </u>	Rise in price of factors of prod. → increase in cost of prod. → profit decreases → supply		
	Rise in price of factors of prod. Therease in cost of prod. Throng decreases Tappiy		
4)	State of technology		
	Use of advanced tech→ low cost→ supply		
5)	Government Policy		
	☐ Increase in Taxes→ cost rises→ supply		
	☐ Increase in Subsidy→ cost falls→ supply		
	☐ Restrictions→ import quota or rationing on inputs→ production fall→ supply		
<u>6)</u>	Number of sellers, Nature of competition and size of industry		
	No. of sellers rise→ Competition increase→supply and vice versa.		
<u>8)</u>) Expectations		
	An increase in anticipated future price -> its supply today		
<u>9)</u>	Other Factors		
	government policies,		
	goals of firm,		
	☐ infrastructural <mark>facilities</mark> ,		
	□ natural factors → weather, floods, earthquake		
	□ man-made factors → war, labour strikes, communal riots etc.		

Law of Supply

- > Other things remaining constant, quantity supply will increase as price rises and vice versa.
- The **behavior of supply is affected** by the **time taken** into consideration-
 - ☐ In short run→____ easy to increase supply,
 - ☐ In long run→ can be _____adjusted
 - in response to changes in price.
- ► Law of supply → explained through supply schedule & supply curve.

Supply Schedule

_____presentation of law of supply

l		Price (Rs)	Qty Supplied (in units)
l	А	2	10
l	В	4	20
l	С	6	35
İ	D	8	60
I	E	10	80

Supply Curve

A supply curve is the _____presentation

of supply schedule. Here price is plotted on the

Y-axis & quantity supplied on the X-axis.

> Supply curve depicts ______ relation between price & qty supplied → thus it is

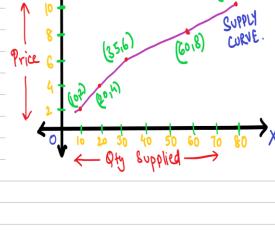
_____sloping.

- > Supply curve shows simultaneously:
- quantity willingly supplied by the suppliers at each price &
- price which will induce

suppliers to offer the various quantities for

sale

- ➤ Market supply→ sum of supplies of a commodity made by all sellers in a market
- ➤ Market supply curve→ Obtained by adding horizontally the supply curves of various firms.



Changes in Supply vs Quantity Supplied

Supply

<u>Supply</u> refers to <u>entire relationship</u> between <u>price</u> & <u>quantity supplied</u>.

Represented by _____ supply schedule & curve.

"Changes in Supply" occur due to changes in factors

of good.

Favourable change in any factor other than price

Increase in Supply → _____ shift in supply curve

Eg- Decrease in price of related good, Advance tech, fall in tax etc. <u>Unfavourable change in any factor other than</u> <u>price</u>

Decrease in Supply → shift in supply curve

Eg- Increase in price of related good, Govt restriction, fall in tax etc.

Quantity Supplied

Quantity supplied is the quantity which is supplied at a specific price.

It is represented by a _____ on the supply curve.

"Changes in Quantity Supplied" occur due to changes in ______ of goods concerned.

Increase in price of goods concerned

Expansion or Extension of Supply → movement along the

same supply curve

Decrease in price of goods concerned

Contraction of Supply \rightarrow

_____ movement along the same supply curve

Elasticity of Supply

Elasticity of supply \rightarrow Responsiveness of quantity supplied of a good to a change in its price.

Percentage Method

OR

 $\frac{\Delta Q}{\Delta P} \times \frac{P}{Q}$ OR

 $\frac{1}{\text{Slope}} \times \frac{P}{Q}$

Point Method

 $\frac{dQ}{dP} \times \frac{P}{Q}$

Where, dQ/dP =
Derivative of qty
with respect to a
point on supply
curve

Arc Method

 $\frac{Q^2 - Q^1}{Q^2 + Q^1} \times \frac{P^2 + P^1}{P^2 - P^1}$

 $\frac{Q1 - Q2}{Q1 + Q2} \times \frac{P1 + P2}{P1 - P2}$

OR

▶ Value of price elasticity of supply is always _____, since price & qty supplied have direct (positive) relation ▶ When no method is specified in question → use percentage method. Use method > When price change is infinitesimal small, When data of Qty supplied is given as an _____ ▶ When price elasticity is to be calculated between two points → use _ method. Interpretation of Values of Elasticity of Supply x QUANTITY QUANTITY □ Perfectly inelastic ☐ Unitary Elastic Supply ☐ Relatively inelastic supply □ Ep = 1 supply □ Es < 1</p> □ Es = 0 ☐ Supply Curve→ □ _____Supply Curve __ Supply through ____ (irrespective □ %ΔQs < %ΔP</p> of degree with X axis) Curve ☐ Parallel to ____-axis \square % $\triangle Q = %\Delta P$ or Price axis \mathbf{y} ■ When price changes \rightarrow % Δ Q = 0 QUANTITY Q3 Q4 X Quantity Supplied ☐ Perfectly elastic supply If firms have- \Box Es = ∞ (Infinite) □ Idle capacity→ Supply Curve ☐ Relatively elastic supply supply (Es > 1) ☐ Parallel to ____-axis or qty Reached their full _____Supply Curve axis capacity> □ %ΔQs > %ΔP □ Small increase in price demand causes supply to rise from zero to an infinitely

	How to improve price elasticity of supply ?		
	A business organization generally tries to keep their price elasticity of supply as		
	they want to earn more profit when prices rise, or shorten their production when price		
	fall.		
	To impr	ove price elasticity of supply an organsation can-	
	Improve	e the used, such as upgrading equipment	
		ecapacity	
		ng for stock while making sure tha	it products can
	last lon	g while stored.	
	Dotom	in out of Electivity of County	
	Determ	ninants of Elasticity of Supply	
		Increase in Production → substantial cost increase → Profit decrease	
	1.	Increase in Production → negligible rise in cost or constant cost	
		Complex production process → require long time to produce (Eg- aircraft, cruise ship)	
		If after increase in price → short time period	
	2.	If after increase in price → long time period→ build new plants or new firms	
	More no. of sellers → More competition → Fewer barriers to entry		
	4. Not working on full capacity → more spare capacity		
Key raw material → easily & cheaply available			
	5.	Procuring resources is difficult or costly	
	6.	Raw material & finished goods → easily & cheaply stored → have adequate stock	
	7. Sellers expect → rise in future price		
	8. Inputs→ Short in supply→ require longer delivery period→ highly specialized nature		
	9. Labour→ highly skilled→ scarce→ require longer training period		
		Capital & labour→ occupationally mobile	
	10.	Products continuously produced	
		Products infrequently produced	

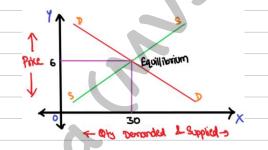
Equilibrium Price

Market Equilibrium is a market situation where,

Qty dem Qty supplied

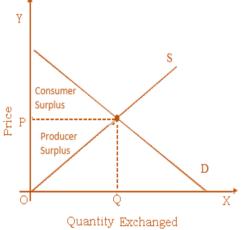
- Intersection of demand & supply determines equilibrium price (aka. market clearing price)
- Determination of market price is central theme of micro economic analysis. Thus, microeconomic theory → aka. _____theory.

Р	Q	Ö	Impact on Price
8	15	52	
6	30	30	
3	40	18	



Social Efficiency

- Social efficiency represents net gains to society from all exchanges that are made in a particular market. It is achieved when both producers & consumers enjoying maximum possible surplus.
- ➤ Consumer surplus → measure of consumer welfare. [MU - Price] ☐ It is represented by area
 - curve & _____ price line
- Producer surplus → benefit derived by producers from the sale of a unit above & beyond their cost of producing that unit. [SP - Cost]
 - ☐ It is represented by **area** _____supply ____price line.



CA Foundation (New Syllabus)

Business Economics Abhyaas Notes

Chapter 3
Theory of Production & Cost

By CA Mohnish Vora (MVSIR)

Complete these notes by watching classes of MVSIR

Summary of Important Points

Enroll in classes from- www.ultimateca.com
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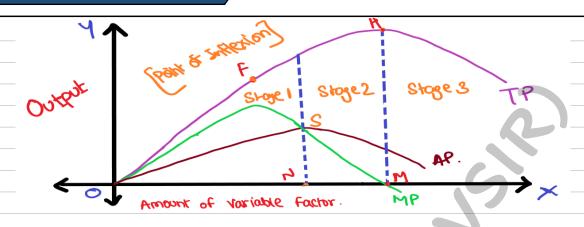
	<u>Chapter 3 - Theory of Production & Cost</u> UNIT 1 - THEORY OF PRODUCTION
	Basics
>	<u>Production</u> is a process → man utilises resources to transform them into goods & services to
	satisfy human wants. (similar definition given by James Bates and J.R. Parkinson)
A	Mancreate matter, but can add utility to resources existing in nature.
	Production can also be defined as creation or addition of
>	During production we can confer 4 types of utility-
1)	Form Utility- Changing of things to add utility to it. Eg- Wood to chair.
2)	Place Utility- Changing place of resources from a place where they are of
	to another place where they are of greater use. Eg- extraction of
	minerals from earth, apple from Kashmir to Mumbai etc.
3)	Time Utility- Making available materials at times when they are
	Eg- Canning of seasonal fruits
4)	Personal Utility- Making use of in form of services, e.g., those
	of organisers, merchants, transport workers etc
>	Production <u>does</u> <u>include</u> <u>work done within a household</u> by anyone out of <u>love and</u>
	affection, voluntary services and goods produced for self consumption. Eg- Food made by
	mother in home is NOT production
	Factors of Production (Inputs)
	•
	An input is a good or service which a firm buys for use in its production process.
	1 Land 2 Labour 3 Capital 4 Entrepreneur
	or original factor, as
	factor it is produced by man
	Land
	It refers to soil or earth's surface and to all gifts of like natural resources, soil, water, air, light, etc.
	<u>Characteristics of Land</u> 1) Land is a <u>free gift of nature</u> <u>human effort</u> in making it, <u>no supply price</u>)
	2) Supply of land is
	Supply of land is perfectly inelastic from view of; & Relatively elastic from the point of view of a
	3) Land is and has indestructible powers
	4) Land is afactor5) Land is
	6) Land hasuses 7) Land isuses
	/) Laria is

	Labour All human of mind or body undergone to secure an income apart from pleasure derived directly from work & directed to produce g/s. Human efforts which require use of physical exertion, skill & intellect. Labour must be done with motive of reward. If done out of love & affection or pleasure or love, is labour Characteristics of Labour Labour is requires human effort, factor, from labourer, all labour may not be productive Labour power from labourer to labourer Labour has bargaining power Supply of labour be increased or decreased instantly Supply curve of labour shape		
	Capital		
>	Capital is ' means of production' or 'man	-made instruments of production'.	
	It refers to all man made goods (assets) that are a	of wealth (total assets) and	
	are <mark>used for further production</mark> of wealth.		
	Eg- Machine tools and instruments, factories, etc.		
>	Capital →concept which yields a periodical i	ncome →concept	
>	Whereas, <u>wealth</u> refers to those goods & human		
	which can be passed on for value, only a of wealth can be characterised as		
	capital because if these resources are lying idle they will o	constitute wealth but not capital.	
	Types of Capital		
	Fixed capitalnature & renders services over	·	
2)	Circulating capital – For use and is available for further use. Eg, seeds,		
2)	fuel, raw materials etc Page (Tangible) against - Physical goods (can be beregived by cances)		
	Real (Tangible) capital - Physical goods (can be perceived by senses)		
	Intangible Captial - Whichbe perceived by senses. Eg- patents, goodwill etc.		
	Human capital - Human skill and ability		
6) 7)			
7)	Social capital - Belongs to as a whole in form of roads, bridges, etc.		
	Capital Formation (aka Investment)		
~	Capital formation means a sustained increase in stock of	capital in a country	
	It involves production of more like		
	are used for further production of other goods.	e, maenines, jaccones, ecc. winter	
>	To accumulate capital goods -> current consumption has t	o be sacrificed.	
<u> </u>	consumption ->savings & investment (devoted to new capital formation)		
>	Higher rate of capital formation will	,	
		Stages of Capital Formation	
	 ✓ enhance production and productive capacity, 	stages of Capital Formation	
	 ✓ enhance production and productive capacity, ✓ increase the efficacy of production efforts, 	1)	

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	<u>Entrepreneur</u>		
	Entrepreneur is a factor which mobilises other factors of production,		
	combines them in right proportion,		
	initiates process of production and bears risks involved in it.		
	Functions of Entrepreneur 1)business enterprise and resource co-ordination		
	2) Risk bearing or uncertainty bearing		
	✓ Financial risks & Technological risks, Profit is reward,		
	✓ Need not bear the foreseeable risks like fire, theft, burglary etc. as these can be insured against. But, uncertainties cannot be insured against- like change in taste,		
	competition,		
	✓ Risk bearing be delegated		
	3) – Most Important Function		
	Enterprise Objectives		
1)	Organic objectives		
	Basic minimum objective- survival, growth & expansion.		
2)	Economic objective		
	Profit & sales maximization. As per, four functional goals in addition to		
	profit goal are-		
i.	goal,		
ii.	goal,		
iii	goal		
iv	goal		
	Social objectives		
	Maintain continuous & sufficient supply of unadulterated goods & of standard quality.		
	Avoid <u>& anti-social</u> practices.		
	Create opportunities for		
	Ensure that output does not cause air, water or noise.		
4)	Human objectives		
<u> </u>	Provideto employees at different levels Develop new skills & abilities & provide good work climate.		
<u> </u>	Provide employees opportunity to participate in decisions \rightarrow in matters affecting them.		
<u> </u>	Make job contents interesting & challenging.		
A	Secure loyalty & support.		
	Secure toyatty & support.		
5)	National objective		
<u> </u>	Remove of opportunities & provide fair opportunity to all to work.		
<u> </u>	To produce according to national priorities.		
A	To help country become self-reliant and avoid dependence on other nations.		
>	To train young men as apprentices & contribute in skill formation.		

	Enterprise Problems
1)	Objectives 5) Organisation structure
2)	Location & size of the plant 6) Marketing
3)	Selecting & organising physical facilities 7) Legal formalities
4)	Finance 8) Industrial Relations
	Production Function
	Production function is a mathematical statement of relationship between
	variable (output) and variable (inputs). [similar definition given by
	Samuelson]
	Q = f (Labour , Capital) = f (L,K)
	Assumptions of Production Function
1)	Relationship between inputs and outputs exists for a specific
2)	Production technology remains
3)	Output resulting from use of inputs is at thelevel (no wastage)
	Short Run Production Function
	Short-run production function shows maximum amount of a good or service that can be
	produced by set of inputs, assuming that amount of of inputs used
	remains
	In short run, Capital is and Labour is
	It is the subject matter of the law of
	Long Run Production Function
	A long run production function shows maximum quantity of a good or service that can
	be produced by set of inputs, assuming that are
	It is the subject matter of the law of
	Law of Variable Proportions
	Aka. Law of returns to a OR Law of
	Law states that as we increase quantity of one input () which is combined with
	other fixed inputs, marginal product (MP) of theinput must eventually
1)	Assumptions of Law of Variable Proportions
1)	Production technology remains (Short Run) Must be inputs which are (Short Run)
2) 3)	Law does apply where factors must be used in proportions to yield output
4)	Consider onlyinputs and outputs (unit terms) and not in monetary terms
	TP vs AP vs MP Total Product (TP): Total output resulting from efforts of all factors of production
	combined together at any time
	Average Product (AP): Total product per unit of the AP = TP / No. of Units of Variable Factor
	Marginal Product (MP): Change in TP per unit change in quantity of $MP = \Delta TP / \Delta Q$
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-						
Stages		Stages	TP	MP	АР	
	1	Increasing Returns	TP increases at rate till POI After POI, TP increases withrate.	MP rises & is maximum corresponding to POI, and the falls. MP > AP, throughout.	AP is rising. Stage ends= AP is & AP MP	
	2	Diminishing Returns	TP increases with decreasing rate Stage ends= TP is max.	MP is decreasing but positive. Stage ends= MP is MP < AP, throughout.	AP is decreasing but positive.	
	3	Negative Returns	TP is	MP is decreasing &	AP is decreasing but positive.	

Relationship between AP & MP

- ➤ When AP ______ → MP > AP
- \rightarrow When AP is \rightarrow MP = AP
- ➤ When AP _____ → MP < AP

Stage of Operation

- Never produce in Stage 1 & 3 are → 'economic ______' or 'economic ______'
- > Rational producer -> Produce in stage

Returns to Scale

Occurs in _____RUN

A change in scale means that ____ factors of production are increased or decreased in ____ proportion.

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

Eg- When ALL inputs are increased by 40%

> Constant Returns to Scale (CRS)

% Increase in Output % Increase in Input Eg; If output increases by 40%, then it is CRS

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

Increasing Returns to Scale (IRS)

% Increase in Output % Increase in Input Eg; If output increases by 70%, then it is IRS

Decreasing Returns to Scale (DRS)

% Increase in Output $\,\%$ Increase in Input Eg; If output increases by 35%, then it is DRS

Cobb-Douglas Production Function

This function applies _____ to an individual firm but to _____ of manufacturing _____. Labour contributed about 3/4th & capital about 1/4th of increase in production Earlier formula....... Q = K. La. C(1-a)

Later updated the formula..... $Q = K. L^a. C^b$

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

- > a + b > 1, ______ returns to scale
- > **a + b = 1**, ______ returns to scale
- a + b < 1, ______returns to scale

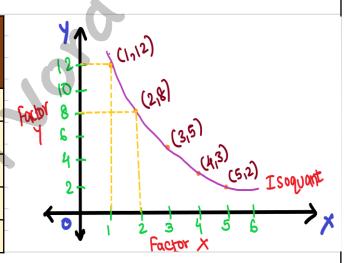
Isoquants

An isoquant represents all those combinations of _____ which can produce _____

of <u>output</u>. Isoquants are **aka** : equal-product curves, production indifference

curves or iso-product curves.

Factor combin ation	Factor X	Factor Y	MRTS
А	1	12	-
В	2	8	4
С	3	5	3
D	4	3	2
E	5	2	1



Properties of Isoquants-

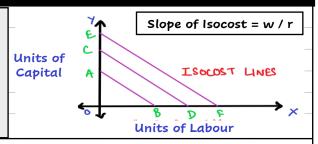
- > ______sloped, (Slope of Isoquant = MRTS) > Curve on right → _____output,
 - _____to the origin due to diminishing MRTS > _____intersecting.

However, one difference between isoquant (chp 3) & indifference curve (chp 2) is that in an

- Isoquant -> level of production is easily _____ whereas
- Indifference curve → _____possible to quantify level of _____

Isocost

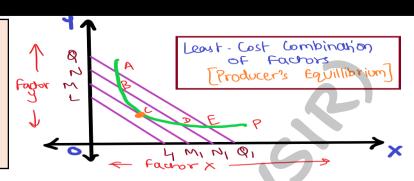
- > Isocost line, aka. Equal-Cost Line or budget line or budget constraint line,
- > It shows various alternative combinations of two factors which the firm can buy with ______.
- Whatever be the combination of factors the firm chooses on isocost line, the total _____ to firm remains the _____.



Producer Equilibrium

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

Producer equilibrium will be achieved where isocost line is ____ to isoquant (at point C)



<u>Chapter 3 - Theory of Production & Cost</u> UNIT 2 - THEORY OF COST

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

Cost Concepts

1) Accounting Costs & Economic Costs

Accounting (Explicit or Outlay) costs → exp. which will have to be incurred by firm &

recorded in financial statements.

Economic Cost = Cost (+) Cost

Implicit Cost is cost of using ______factors.

2) Outlay costs & Opportunity costs

Outlay costs involve actual expenditure

Opportunity cost is the cost of _____ alternative opportunity which was foregone to

pursue certain action. It is **cost of the** _____ opportunity

3) Traceable (Direct) costs & Non-Traceable (Indirect) costs

Direct costs → readily ______ & traceable to a particular product

Indirect costs → _____ easily & definitely identifiable. Eg- Electricity exp, common exp etc.

4) Incremental costs & Sunk costs

Incremental cost → _____ cost incurred by a firm as result of a business decision

Sunk Costs → costs _____incurred once & for all & _____be recovered. Based on past

commitments and ______be revised or reversed. Eg- advertising, R&D etc

5) <u>Historical costs & Replacement costs</u>

Historical cost → cost incurred in past on _____ of a productive asset

Replacement cost \rightarrow exp. to be incurred for replacing an old asset

6)	Private costs & Social costs		
	Private costs -> costs actually incurred by firms and are either explicit or implicit		
	Social cost → total cost borne by on account of a business activity		
	Social Cost = Cost (+) Cost		
7)	Fixed Costs & Variable costs		
>	Fixed or constant or costs \rightarrow do vary with output upto a certain		
	level of activity.		
	Fixed cost (FC) is a function of		
	If the firm closes down for some time in short run → F.Cbe avoided (inescapable)		
	→ costs which will continue even after operations are suspended.		
	Eg- for storing of old machines which cannot be sold in market.		
	Verificial Control (VC) Norman (Video en la Video de la Control (Control en la Video en la		
	Variable Costs (VC) → costs which vary with the level of output (function of)		
	If a firm shuts down for a short period, then VC avoided Eg- wages of labour, prices of raw material, fuel, transportation cost etc		
	Eg- wages of tabout, prices of raw material, fuel, transportation cost etc		
8)	Semi - Variable Cost YA Semi-Variable Cost		
	Costs which are neither variable nor completely fixed.		
	Eg: Electricity exp, Postpaid Phone Bill etc		
	Output X Output		
9)	Stair-Step Variable Cost		
	Costs which may increase in a stair-step fashion → remain over of		
	output; but suddenly to new higher level when output goes beyond a given limit.		
	Short Run Total Costs		
	☐ TC = TFC + TVC Short-Run Total Cost CONES		
	☐ Total Fixed Cost curve (TFC)		
	> straight line parallel to X-axis > Starts from a point on the		
	☐ <u>Total Variable Cost (TVC)</u> ➤ Initially increases at a rate &		
	then atrate. (Inverted-S shaped)		
	□ Total Cost Curve (TC)		
	 Obtained by adding vertically the curve & curve. 		
	> Slopes of TC & TVC are (Inverted-S		
	shaped) > At each point the TC & TVC curves have		
	vertical distance equal to		

Short Run Average Costs

Average Fixed Cost curve (AFC)

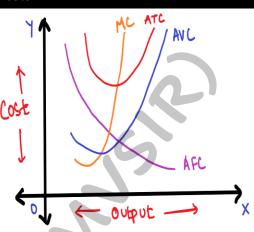
- > AFC = TFC / Q
- AFC is fixed cost per unit of output.
- > AFC _____ as output increases.
- > AFC curve will slope downwards throughout its length but will ____ touch the X-axis as AFC cannot be zero. (shape-

Average Variable Cost (AVC)

- > AVC = TVC / Q
- AVC curve will **first** ____, then reach a _____ and then ____ (___-shaped)

Average Total Cost (ATC or AC)

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



Marginal Cost Curve (MC)

Marginal cost is addition made to total cost by production of an additional unit of output. $MC = \Delta$ in TC / Δ in Output

 $MC = \Delta$ in TVC / Δ in Output

- MC is independent of ____
- The value of MC comes due to the changes in
- MC curve becomes _____corresponding to point of inflection on total cost curve
- MC curve declines first, reaches its minimum and then rises (____ shaped)
- MC Curve intersects AC & AVC curve at their respective _____ (minimum points).

MC & AC

AC falls → MC < AC

AC rises → MC > AC

 $AC min. \rightarrow MC = AC$

MC & AVC

AVC falls → MC < AVC

AVC rises → MC > AVC

AVC min. \rightarrow MC = AVC

Long Run Average Cost Curve

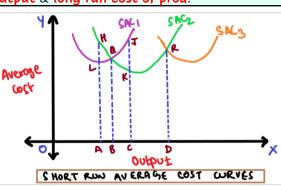
- Long run → where firm can vary all inputs.
- > In long run, firm can build ____ size or scale of plant & thus, can ____ from one plant to another. Long run is _____ horizon.
- A firm plans for the _____ run and operates in _____ run.
- ▶ Long run cost of production → least possible cost → when all inputs are variable.
- Long run cost curve -> relationship between output & long run cost of prod.

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

SAC Curve is aka. ___

As per above figure,

- For making output upto OB use SAC __
- For output more than OB, but less than OD – use SAC ___
- For output more than OD use SAC _



A	LAC Curve is akaCurve or	Curve or Curve
	LAC Curve is drawn so as to be	
	However, LAC curve is tangent to m	
		Triminarii petries er sine carves
<u> </u>	When LAC curve is declining→ tangent to	portions of SAC
	When its rising → tangent topor	100
	por	SACG
<u> </u>	"OQ" is output → as its pro	duced at
	minimum point of LAC.	werds 4
<u> </u>	Production ot OQ is done at capacity	wst.
· ·	If producing output less than "OQ", >	
	full advantu	
<u> </u>	If outputs larger than OQ \rightarrow its	optimum O MNV a W
	capacity.	LONG LUN AVERAGE COST CURVES
		\$ 100 K 100
<u> </u>	The falling portion (negatively sloped) region	of LAC curve is dueReturns
	to Scale andof Scale	100000
<u> </u>		of LAC curve is dueReturns
	to Scale andof Scale	The barre is due
	to seale and	
	SCALE OF PRODUCTION	
	Economies of scale are cost advantages that	enterprises obtain due to their
		which causes scale increasing.
	Internal Economies	External Economies
	Internal economies accrue to firm	External economies are benefits accruing
	when it expands output, so that cost of production would come down.	to each member firm of the industry as a result of
	Internal economies arise purely due to	They are dependent on the output
	endogenous () factors	level of individual firms.
	Internal Economies and Diseconomies	External Economies and Diseconomies
	1) Technical	Cheaper raw materials & equipment Technological external economies
	2) Managerial 3) Commercial	3) Development of skilled labour
	4) Financial	4) Growth of ancillary industries 5) Better transportation & marketing
	5) Risk bearing	6) Economies of Information
	> External diseconomies are disadvantages	that originate firm, like in input
	markets. Eg- Rise in various factor prices.	<u> </u>
		→ result in transportation cost,
	marketing cost & high pollution control co	
	Government's location policy can restrict	<mark>expansion</mark> of an industry.
*	Economies ofrefers to the decrease	in average total cost that can occur when a
	firm produces pr	roduct. (Asked in ICAI MTP)

CA Foundation (New Syllabus)

Business Economics Abhyaas Notes

Chapter 4 Price Determination in Different Markets

By CA Mohnish Vora (MVSIR)

Complete these notes by watching classes of MVSIR

Summary of Important Points

Enroll in classes from- www.ultimateca.com
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Economics Chapter 4 – Price Determination in Different Markets

UNIT 1 - MEANING AND TYPES OF MARKETS

From where does the concept of price arises ?	
These goods are free or have zero prices. in supply thus do not have scarcity. Example: air, sunlight	
> They are scarce in relation to their demand a	
opportunity cost. They are exchangeable in the market and command clothes, mobile phone etc	
> signifies the quantity of money necessary to acquire service. It is money-value > purchasing power expressed in terms of	
Value in exchange or exchange value, according to Ricardo, means over commodities or power in exchange over purchasable goods in gen	
'Value in Use' and 'Value in Exchange'	
> Value in use refers to usefulness or utility i.e, attribute which a the satisfy human needs	ning has to
Value in exchange or economic value is amount of goods and service may obtained in market in exchange of a particular thing.	s which we
In Economics, we are only concerned with Considerations such as sentimental value is not considered, as it is su	 ubjective.
 Meaning of Market Exchange value is determined in the market where exchange of services takes place 	goods and
> A market is a collection of and with the potential to	trade.
 A market need be formal or held in a particular place. Eg- 2nd are often sold through listing it in an online websites. (OLX, Quikr et 	hand goods
> Elements of Markets	
1) and;	
2) A product or service;	
for a price;	
4) Knowledge about market conditions; (rational buyers & sellers5) for a product/service at a given time.	s) and
Classification of Markets > 1) General Classification	
a) Market in which firms buy the resources	(inputs) to
produce G/S. They allocate productive resources toin factor markets – factor prices.	
b) Markets in which households buy G/S they	want from
firms. They allocate goods to	want from
> II) Geographical Area Classification	
a) Here buyers & sellers are limited to a local are	a or region,
Highly goods & articles, (transport of	over lona
distance is uneconomical) are sold here.	
Also it is limited to a particular Eg- locally suppli	ied services
- hair dressers & retailers.	

Classification (> II) Geogr	of Markets aphical Area Classification
_	Market – They cover a area such as a few cities, parts of states etc.
E	g- <mark>Mekhela Chador</mark> (Assamese Saree), Yewle Tea etc.
	Market - When demand is limited to
	f a country. The of government may restrict rading of a commodity to within country.
E	g- <mark>Hindi books</mark> - national markets in India.
d) _	Market – value & bulk commodities
	re demanded and traded internationally. ig- <mark>Gold</mark> and <mark>Silver</mark> .
	ve classification has become as in modern days even shable goods have international market.
> <u>III) Regul</u>	lation
a) _	Market – Here transactions are egulated, to put an end to unfair practices. Eg. Stock exchange
b) _	Market – Aka. free market - no stipulations on
	ransactions. Eg- Weekly (Haat) Baazaars.
> <u>IV) Time</u>	conceived the 'Time' element in markets
a) V	'ery Short Period Market - Aka period -here supply is
Ea- 1	cannot be increased or decreased. perishable goods- vegetables,, fish, milk, etc
	e supply is, very short period price is dependent on
b) s	hort Period Market – Slightly longer than very short period. Here, supply an be adjusted.
c) L	ong-period Market - In long period, all factors become
а	nd supply can be to changes in demand by
d d	ltering scale of production. The interaction between long run supply and emand determines long run equilibrium price or 'normal price'.
d) V	' ery long-period Market – Aka period
	e of Transaction
	or Cash Market- Goods are exchanged for money payable either mmediately or within short span of time
b)	or Future Market- Transactions involve contracts with a
	romise to pay and deliver goods at some future date
•	ne of Business
	Market- Goods are sold in or large quantities. ransactions between (B2B)
	Market- Goods are sold in quantities. This is the
n	narket <mark>for ultimate (B2C)</mark>

Classification of Markets

VII) Competition

	Market Types			
Assumptions	Perfect Competition	Monopolistic Competition	Oligopoly	Monopoly
Number of Sellers	Very Large	Large	Small Numbers	One
Product Differentiation	None	Slight	None to substantial	
Price Elasticity of Demand of firm		Large	Small	Small
Degree of control over price	None	Some	Some	Very Considerable

*	Concepts	of TR	, AR	& MR

1) Total Revenue (TR)

> Amount of money which a firm realises by selling a commodity. [TR = _____]

II) Average Revenue (AR)

- > AR is revenue earned per unit of output.
- > AR = Price = _____
- > Also, AR curve = ____ Curve of firm

III) Marginal Revenue (MR)

- MR is change in TR resulting from sale of an additional unit of commodity.
- > MR is _____ of TR

MR = _____ or

MRn = TR n - TR n-1

or

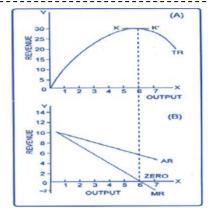
MR = dTR / dQ

AR = Price → Happens in ALL types of market

AR = Price = MR -> ONLY in Perfect Comp.

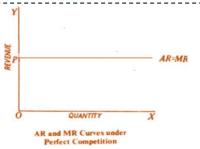
TR, AR & MR in Imperfect Competition

- \rightarrow AR curve slopes downwards \rightarrow AR (Price) is **falling** \rightarrow inverse relationship between price & qty dem
- > MR < AR → MR declines _____ rapidly than AR → because any reduction in price applies to ____ units sold.
- \triangleright TR _____ when MR is +ve & TR ____ when MR is -ve
- > TR initially increases at _____ rate due to diminishing MR & reaches maximum & then it falls. (_____ shaped)
- ➤ When MR (Slope of TR) = _____, TR = maximum



TR, AR & MR in Perfect Competition

- > Constant average revenue (or price) schedule
- AR = Price = _____
- ➤ AR Curve = ____ Curve = MR Curve → Horizontal straight line parallel to X axis → ____ demand (Ep = ∞)
- > TR will be upward sloping straight line



❖ Relationship → AR, MR, TR & Price Elasticity of Demand

 $MR = AR \times$ OR $MR = AR \times$

Portion of Demand Curve	Value of e	MR	TR
Mid Point	e = 1		
Upper	e > 1		
Lower	e < 1		

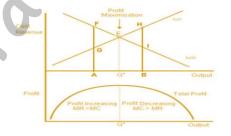
* Behavioural Principles

Principle 1

- A firm should ____ produce at all if its total ____ costs are not met (TR ≤ TVC)
- \rightarrow When AR = \longrightarrow Shutdown point
- Shutting down is _____ & does ____ mean going out of business.
- > At shut down point :
- ☐ Price is equal to _____
- □ TR = _____
- ☐ Total loss =

Principle 2

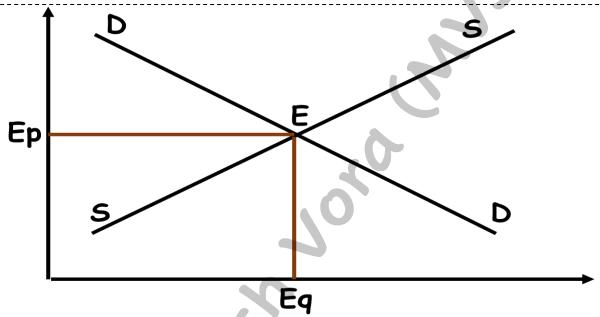
A firm will maximum profits (or minimize losses) at _____



UNIT 2 - MEANING AND TYPES OF MARKETS

	SHALL MENTAL THE SALE OF THE S				
S. No	Situation	• S Eff	fect	Diagram	
1.	Mkt Price > Equi Price i.e., Qs > Qd (Surplus)	Pressure on Price	Qty Suppliedcreases & Qty Demandedcreases Upto Equilibrium	Eq Pile S S S S S S S S S S S S S S S S S S S	
2.	Mkt Price < Equi Price i.e., Qs < Qd (Shortage)	Pressure on Price	Qty Suppliedcreases & Qty Demandedcreases Upto Equilibrium	EQPINE S S S S S S S S S S S S S S S S S S S	

S. No.	Situation	Eff	ect
3. NO.	Situation	Equi Price	Equi Qty
3.	Increase in Demand	Increase	
4.	Decrease in Demand	Decrease	
5.	Increase in Supply		Increase
6.	Decrease in Supply	Increase	5

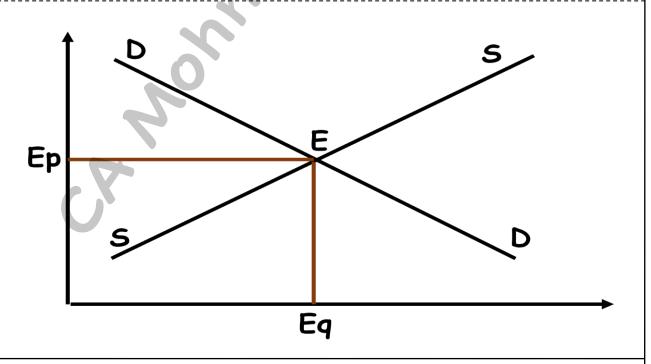


S. No.	Situation	Effect	
5. NO.	Situation	Equi Price	Equi Qty
7.	Increase in Demand is equal to Increase in Supply		Increase
8.	Increase in Demand is greater than Increase in Supply		Increase
9.	Increase in Demand is less than Increase in Supply		Increase
10.	Decrease in Demand is equal to Decrease in Supply		Decrease
11.	Decrease in Demand is greater than Decrease in Supply		Decrease
12.	Decrease in Demand is less than Decrease in Supply		Decrease

- When both demand & supply increase, but no other data given→ then EQ _______
 but effect on EP cannot be determined
- > Similarly, when **both demand & supply decrease**, but no other data given→ then **EQ**______, but effect on EP cannot be determined

C. Ma	Otto atten	Eff	ect (
S. No.	Situation	Equi Price	Equi Qty
13.	Increase in Demand is equal to Decrease in Supply	Increases	5
14.	Increase in Demand is greater than Decrease in Supply	Increases	
15.	Increase in Demand is less than Decrease in Supply	Increases	
16.	Decrease in Demand is equal to Increase in Supply	Decreases	
17.	Decrease in Demand is less than Increase in Supply	Decreases	
18.	Decrease in Demand is greater than Increase in Supply	Decreases	

- ▶ When demand incr & supply decr → EP ____ but effect on EQ cannot be determined
- ▶ When demand decr & supply incr → EP ____ but effect on EQ cannot be determined



UNIT 3 – PRICE OUTPUT DETERMINATION UNDER DIFFERENT MARKET FORMS

- Market structure → the way sellers & buyers interact to determine equilibrium price and quantity. It determines a firm's power to fix the price of its product. [Bargaining Power]
- I) Perfect Competition

	Features / Characteristics of Perfect Competition			
1		Share of each seller & buyer in market → is too small → to influence price, demand or supply		
2	Homogenous or Identical Products	 substitutes Buyers have preference between different sellers and different units of goods 		
3	Free Entry & Exit	Legal or market related barriers to entry & no special costs to enter an industry.		
	Above 3 characteristics are conditions forcompetition			
4	Perfect knowledge of market condition	Both buyers and sellers have all information relevant to their decision to buy or sell		
5	Very low transaction costs	 Buyers and sellers do not have to spend much time and money finding each other advertisement required. 		
6	All firms individually are price takers	 Firms price determined by market forces Price taking applies to consumers as well There is perfect knowledge and perfect mobility, if any seller raises his price, he would lose his customers. 		

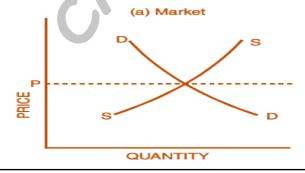
Perfect comp is a _____. Eg- agricultural products, financial instruments (stock, bonds, foreign exchange), precious metals (gold, silver, platinum) the above examples approach the condition of perfect competition

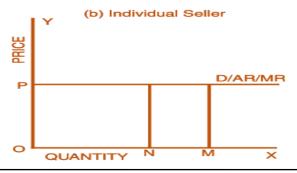
Equilibrium of PC Industry in Short Run

- ➤ Industry → large number of independent firms in similar business
- When total output (Mkt supply) of industry is equal to total demand (Mkt Demand)→ industry is in equilibrium in short run

Equilibrium of PC Firm

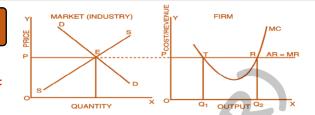
- Firm is in equilibrium → maximizes its profit.
- > Output which gives maximum profit to the firm is called equilibrium output. In the equilibrium state, the firm has no incentive either to increase or decrease its output.
- PC Firms are _____. They price determined by market forces.
- Demand curve of each PC firm is
- In PC firm, MC curve above AVC has identical shape of firm's _____curve.





Conditions for Equilibrium of PC Firm in Short Run

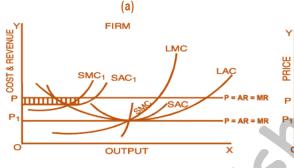
- ▶ 1st order condition→
- > 2nd order condition > MC curve should cut MR curve from _____ (MC → _____ slope)

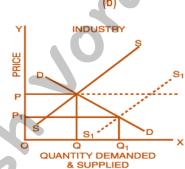


- A PC firm can in short run-
 - □ Normal Profit→ _____
 - □ Super Normal Profit → _____ or
 - □ Losses → _____

Equilibrium of PC Firm in Long Run

- In long run→ firms can alter scale of operation & freely enter/exit PC industry.
- > PC firms are in long run equilibrium > when they have adjusted their plant to produce ____ of their LAC curve, which is tangent to the demand curve defined by the market price.
- ▶ In **long run**, all PC firms → earn just _____ profits, which are included in the ATC.





- > The condition for long equilibrium of PC firm is that MC = Price (AR) and MC
- > At equilibrium, SMC = LMC = SAC= LAC = P = MR

Equilibrium of PC Industry in Long Run

- ❖ Three conditions:
 - 1) ____ firms in industry are in _____ (maximizing profit)
 - 2) No firm has incentive either to _____ > all firms are earn normal profit
 - 3) Price is such that mkt supply mkt demand
- ❖ A firm producing output at optimum cost (min pt of LAC) → optimum firm. In long run, all PC firms are _____ firms having _____ size
- Thus, under PC, in long run market mechanism leads to optimal allocation of resources which is shown by-
 - (a) Output is produced at ______feasible cost.
 - (b) Consumers pay minimum possible price→
 - (c) Plants used at full capacity → no wastage of resources i.e. ___
 - (d) Firms earn **only normal profits** i.e. _____
 - (e) Firms maximize profits (i.e. _____), but level of profits → normal.
 - (f) There is **optimum number of firms** in the industry.
- ❖ In other words, in the long run,

LAR = LMR = $P = LMC = LAC \rightarrow$ optimum allocation of resources.

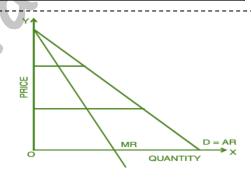
- Pure monopoly is _____ found in practice. However, in ____ such as transport, water & electricity, we may find monopoly market.

Features of Monopoly

1	Single seller of product	 Only one firm producing or supplying a product. distinction between firm and industry (absence of competition)
2	Barriers to Entry	• barriers to entry which could be economic, institutional, legal or artificial.
3	Market power	Monopoly firm has ability to charge a price MC and earn a positive profit (AR > MC)
4	No close substitutes	 Monopoly firm has control over market(price) Sells a product which has close substitutes. Cross elasticity of demand = Price elasticity of demand is 1. downward sloping demand curve.

Monopolist's Revenue Curves

- AR & MR both are ______ sloping curves.
- \triangleright Slope of ___ = 2 x Slope of ___
- MR curve lies half-way between AR curve & Y axis. i.e. it cuts horizontal line between Y axis & AR into ______ parts
- > AR _____ be zero, but MR can be zero or even negative.



Monopolies are mainly of two types

1) Simple monopoly

Here the monopolist charges _____price from all buyers

For eg, Indian Railways charging same fare from all AC 3Tier passengers

2) Discriminating monopoly

Monopolist **charges** _____ **prices** from **different buyers** of same good/service

For eg. Dynamic fare charged by Indian Railways in specific trains.

Conditions for Equilibrium of Monopoly in Short Run

- ≥ 2 conditions → _____ and MC should cut MR from _____
- Can a monopolist incur losses in short run? YES, if
 - ☐ Should firm shutdown in such case?
 - ☐ It depends, If ______, then shutdown or else continue

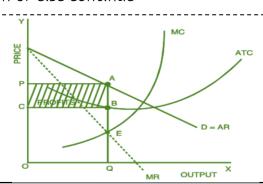
Equilibrium of Monopoly in Long Run

In absence of competition, monopolist _____ produce at optimal level. He can produce at a sub-optimal scale also.

He _____ reach minimum of LAC curve; he can stop at any point on the LAC where his profits are maximum.

Monopolist will ____ continue if → losses in long run.

He will continue to make _____ profits even in long run as entry of outside firms is _____.



*	Price Discrimination > Price discrimination occurs when producer sells specific G/S to different buyers at two or more prices for reasons associated with difference in cost.		
	> Adopted by a	ı <mark>mono</mark> t	olist → to earn profits.
	• •	nination	n cannot persist under as they have no
*	Conditions for Price	e Discrir	<u>mination</u>
	1) Seller should	d have s	omeof his product (price-setting power)
	2) Seller should	d be <mark>abl</mark>	e to divide his market into sub-markets.
	3) Price-elasticity of product should be in different sub-markets. Charge price → for buyers having inelastic demand Charges price → for buyers having elastic demand		
	4) Not be possible for buyers ofpriced market to resell to buyers ofpriced market (no market arbitrage)		
*	Degrees for Price D	<u>iscrimin</u>	ation by
	Degree (Customer		ating market into each individual consumer & charge them ent prices (extract consumer surplus)
	Wise)		octors, lawyers, consultants etc., charging different fees, decided, auctions
	Degree (Quantity wise) 1) Lar Eg- fa than s 2) Eac		are two possibilities here: Tger quantities available at unit price. The pack of soaps or biscuits tends to cost less per kg unit price packs. The pack of soaps or biscuits tends to cost less per kg unit price packs. The pack of soaps or biscuits tends to cost less per kg unit price packs. The pack of soaps or biscuits tends to cost less per kg unit prices per kg unit price packs. The pack of soaps or biscuits tends to cost less per kg unit price. The pack of soaps or biscuits tends to cost less per kg unit price. The pack of soaps or biscuits tends to cost less per kg unit price. The pack of soaps or biscuits tends to cost less per kg unit price. The pack of soaps or biscuits tends to cost less per kg unit price. The pack of soaps or biscuits tends to cost less per kg unit price. The pack of soaps or biscuits tends to cost less per kg unit price packs. The pack of soaps or biscuits tends to cost less per kg unit price packs. The pack of soaps or biscuits tends to cost less per kg unit price packs. The pack of soaps or biscuits tends to cost less per kg unit price packs. The pack of soaps or biscuits tends to cost less per kg unit price packs.
		consumption exceeds a particular limit.	
		Price v	varies by attributes → location or customer segment.
	Degree (Attribute	prices	consumers into separate sub-markets & chargein different sub-markets.
	wise)	Eg- I	Dumping, charging different prices for domestic and ercial uses, lower prices in railways for senior citizens, etc.
, l			
*	 III) Monopolistic Competition Large no. of sellers selling (similar but identical) products → to attract customers on some basis other than price. Eg of monopolistic market- soaps, detergent, toothpaste etc Features of Monopolistic Competition		
	1 Large no. of so	ellers	Large number of sellers→ small share in mkt
			Products → differentiated on basis of substitutes→
	2 Product differentiation		demand is Firms use size, design, colour, shape, performance, features, packaging & promotional techniques to make their products different. (may be true or fancied)
	2 Frankow of sut-	nul ovit	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
	3 Freedom of enti	y/ exit	Firms areto enter or exit the market
1			They indulge in aggressive advertising, product development, efficient

after-sales service etc.

Non-price competition

price wars \rightarrow throw few firms out of market or reduce profit

*	In Monopolistic Competition ➤ Since product is differentiated→ each firm makes independent decisions abour price & output.			
		Less	price > some control on price due to prod diff. More Similar to other products Substitutability Elastic Demand Curve	
*	Conditions for Equilibrium of Monopolistic Competition in Short Run → 2 conditions → and MC should cut MR from			
*	 In long run → all monopolistic comp. firms → earn only At equi. → produce at min point of LAC → do not fully realize economies of large scale prod→ not used to optimum capacity. Any attempt to produce more → → fall in AR fall in AC Long run equilibrium → produce at portion of LAC curve→ producing 			
*	<pre>quantity than its full capacity level→ leading to capacity. IV) Oligopoly > Oligopoly→ 'competition among' (2 to 10 firms) > Prof defines oligopoly → "situation in which a firm bases its mark policy, in part, on expected behaviour of a few close rivals". > Eg of Oligopoly automobile, Airlines, petroleum refining, pow generation, & Internet service providers etc.</pre>			
			Features of Oligopoly	
	Strategic		Each seller is big enough to influence market. A firm must to its rivals' actions, and simultaneously rivals also respond to the firm's actions.	
	Importance of advertising and selling costs Group Behaviour		Firms use aggressive & defensive marketing weapons to gain greater market share. Firms avoid price cutting & compete on non-price basis	
			No generally accepted theory of group behaviour. Firms may agree to pull together as a group in promotion of their common interest. May or may not have a leader.	
	Types of Oligopoly			
Pure oligopoly or perfect oligopoly occurs when the product is e.g. Aluminium industry.			ly or perfect oligopoly occurs when the product is in nature, um industry. orocess (intermediate goods) that are used as	
		Differentiate differentiation	d or imperfect oligopoly occurs when goods sold is based on product on, e.g powder.	
$\frac{\text{oligopoly}}{\text{oligopoly}} \rightarrow \text{new firms can enter} \text{ market & compete with existing firms.}$				

oligopoly entry is restricted.

*

*

*

		Types of Oligopoly		
	3	When few firms of oligopoly market come to common understanding or act in collusion →price or output or both, it is collusive oligopoly.		
	J	When there is of such an understanding among the firms and they compete with each other, it is called competitive oligopoly.		
	4	Oligopoly is <u>partial</u> when <u>industry is dominated by large firm</u> → looked upon as of group. Dominating firm will be		
		Full oligopoly of price leadership.		
		<u>oligopoly</u> Firms their products through a centralized syndicate.		
	5	oligopoly → Firms organize themselves into a		
Pri	ce	& output Decision in Oligopoly		
An oligopoly firm have sure & determinate demand curve, since demand curve keeps as rivals change their price in reaction to price change made by a firm.				
	 Now, what price & output to be fixed cannot be ascertained. 			
 However, economist have given some price-output models 1) Ignore firm's inter dependence 				
		2) a)model → firms' control variable is output. They do not collude.		
		2) b)model → leader commits to an output → rest of firms are followers		
		3) c) model → price is control variable		
		4) Enter into agreement and pursue common interests. Eg- OPEC		
Pri	<u>Price Leadership</u>			
		→ A group of firms that explicitly agree (collude) to coordinate their activities→ leads to high market power & earn monopoly profits		
	➤ But it is possible that there is a dominant firm surrounded by many small firms (fringe firms). These firms are too unreliable→ large firm then decides how to set its price			
	1) Live and let live philosophy > Dominant firm accepts presence of fringe firms and sets price to maximize its profit (price-leadership by dominant firm) – [TTMM]			
	2) Price leadership by low cost firm→ Price leader sets price in a manner that it allows some profits to followers also.			
	3) <u>Barometric price leadership</u> An old or most respected firm acts as a leader and assesses market conditions about demand, cost, competition etc. and makes changes in price which are best from view point of all firms.			
Kinked Demand Curve				
	A A	As per, prices in oligopoly remain or inflexible under oligopoly is explained by kinked demand curve hypothesis ('s Model) Kinked demand curve \(\rightarrow\) 'kink' at level of price. segment of demand curve above prevailing price is highly		
		(when firm raises price, competitors do not follow) segment of demand curve below prevailing price is (when firm decreases price, competitors will follow)		

♦ Other Market Form

Other Market Forms		
	A subset of oligopoly where there are only two firms in market.	
	Market where there is single buyer of G/S & is applicable to factor markets in which a single firm is the only buyer of a factor.	
	Market where there is a small number of large buyers & is relevant to factor markets .	
	Market structure where there is only a single buyer and a single seller i.e. it is combination of market & a	

CA Foundation (New Syllabus)

Business Economics Abhyaas Notes

Chapter 5
Business Cycles

By CA Mohnish Vora (MVSIR)

Complete these notes by watching classes of MVSIR

Summary of Important Points

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Economics Chapter 5 – Business Cycles

- * Rhythmic fluctuations in _____ that economy experiences over a period of time > business cycles or trade cycles.
- ❖ A trade cycle is composed of-
 - Periods of _____ characterised by rising prices and low unemployment percentage, (Expansion)
 - Periods of _____ characterised by falling prices and high unemployment percentages. (Contraction)
- Business cycles is that they occur again & again but ____ always at regular intervals, nor are they of same length.

Phases of Business Cycles Expansion (aka Boom or Upswing) <mark>Peak</mark> (aka Prosperity) Contraction (aka Downswing or Recession) Trough (aka Depression)

GDP Continue
Time

Peak & Trough are collectively called _____ of business cycle.

Expansion (aka Boom or Upswing)

in national output
(production of G/S)

- Increase in employment;
- Involuntary unemployment is almost _____
- Frictional unemp. (change of jobs, strikes) or
- Structural unemp. (skills mismatch) may exist.

in income

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

Increase in capital & consumer exp.

Expansion stage continues till there is

of resources & production is maximum possible

*	In later stages of inputs are difficult to find as they are short of their demand and therefore		
	input prices rapidly leading to increased cost of living and		
	greater strain on fixed income earners. > Consumers begin to on housing,		
	durable goods etc.		
**	<u>Peak (aka Prosperity)</u> > Growth rate in expansion stage eventually slows down and reaches its peak.		
	Peak = top or point of business cycle.		
	> Actual demand		
	It is end of expansion and it occurs when economic growth has reached point where it will stabilize and then move in reverse direction, starting contraction stage		
*	Contraction (aka Downswing or Recession) Producers instantaneously recognize pulse of economy (that contraction is coming) & keep anticipating high level of demand (because earlier expansion was going on), and maintain their investments.		
	 Consequence is mismatch between demand & supply. Supply		
	 Producers, now being aware of above, respond by holding back future plans, of orders for equipments & inputs incl. labour. 		
	This in turn generates a of reactions in input markets and producers of capital goods and raw materials in turn respond by cancelling and curtailing their orders. This is beginning of		
	 Decline of aggregate economic activity over		
	in input demand pulls input prices down Investor confidence is at its & stock prices		
	in employment; Leads to decrease in income Bank credit		
	Producers their prices about future and Investments, producers and emp. further decline		
	Consumers, expect in prices and postpone their purchases Aggregate demand further, & gap between demand & supply gets further widened and recession becomes severe		

**

_	Trough (aka Depression)			
	contraction pushes economy into phase of depression.			
	> Growth rate becomes national income & exp. declines rapidly.			
	 Agg. demand decreases, prices are lowest - forcing some firms to It leads to mounting which leaves consumers with little incom 			
>	A typical feature of depression is in interest rate. With low interest people's demand for holding liquid money (i.e. in cash)			
>	Despite lower interest rates, demand for credit because investors confidence has It may lead to possible banking or financial crisis.			
>	Industries, especially and consumer goods industry suffer from excess capacity. Large number of bankruptcies and liquidation.			
Recov	verv			
	Economy cannot conti	nue to contract endlessly. To and beginning of optimism.		
>	Process of reversal is initially felt in market unemployment forces workers to accept lower wages.			
>	> The producers anticipate costs and better business environment. Slowly business confidence takes off, & firms start to invest again and to build stocks			
>	> Technological advancements require fresh investments; thus bank credit increases. employment incr, agg. demand picks up and prices gradually rise.			
>	ac	ts as a self-correcting proces	ss in free market economy.	
>	of investment causes recovery of economy. This acts as a turning point from depression to expansion.			
Featu 1)	Features Of Business Cycles 1) Business cycles occur periodically, but exhibit the same regularity. The duration & intensity of fluctuations varies.			
2)) The phases	_ display smoothness and reg	ularity.	
) Generally originate in	economies. Get	transmitted to all sectors.	
4)	4) goods & consumer goods industries are disproportionately (more) affected sector is more prone compared to agri. sector			
		they do have uniform o		
6)	6) Repercussions of get felt on nearly all economic variables			
7)	7) Contagious and are international in character.			
8)	8) Have serious consequences on well-being of society.			
 Indicators ➤ Economists use changes in a variety of activities to measure business cycle and to predict where economy is headed towards. These are called indicators 				
_	Indicators	Indicators	Indicators	
	that changes (prior to) economy ts to follow a particular	Reflect economy's historical performance & changes in these indicators are observable only	They <u>coincide</u> <u>or occur</u> <u>simultaneously</u> with business- cycle movements. They <u>describe</u>	

already occurred.

Eg- unemployment, corporate profits, labour cost per unit, interest rates, consumer price index, commercial lending

Eg- Changes in Stock Price, value

of new orders for goods, building

permits for private houses,

delayed deliveries

cycle.

inflation,

retail sales

income,

Eg- GDP, industrial production,

personal

*	Causes Of Business Cycles			
	Internal or Endogenous Causes	External or Exogenous Causes		
	Fluctuations in Effective Demand	Wars		
	Fluctuations in Investment	Post War Reconstruction		
	Variations in government spending	Technology shocks		
	Macroeconomic policies	Natural Factors		
	Money Supply	Population growth		
	Psychological factors			
٠,	<u>Macroeconomic policies</u> (monetary & fiscal	policies) also cause business cycle		
	 Expansionary policies – Policies res (Results in booms) 	sulting in agg. demand		
	Exp. Fiscal Policy-Exp. Monetary Policy-	government spending and tax (decr) interest rates.		
	 Anti-inflationary measures – Police demand (Controlling inflation) 	cies resulting in agg.		
	> Cont. Fiscal Policy- > Cont. Monetary Policy-	govt spending & tax, interest rates.		
	Business Cycles are effective demand	caused due to fluctuations in aggregate		
		e caused due to anticipations of business by waves of <mark>optimism or pessimism</mark>		
	Business Cycles are caused due to innovation theory.			
		e caused due to cobweb theory - present influence production at some future date.		
		purely <mark>monetary</mark> phenomenon. Unplanned <mark>f money</mark> may cause business fluctuation.		
*	Other Important Points > Businesses whose fortunes are closely linked to the rate of economic growth are referred to as			
	These include fashion retailers, electrical goods,, house-builders, restaurants, advertising, overseas tour operators, construction and other infrastructure firms.			
	During a, such businesses during a, they usually suff	see a strong demand for their products but er a sharp drop in demand.		
*	Examples of Business Cycles 1) Great Depression of			
	2) Information Technology bubble burst of Aka. Dot.Com bubble (1997-2000)			
	3) Global Economic Crisis (20) →	sub-prime crisis		

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Business Economics Abhyaas Notes

Chapter 6 National Income

By CA Mohnish Vora (MVSIR)

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Summary of Important Points

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	Chp 6: Determination of National Income Unit 1: Macro Economic Aggregates 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	erritory of a country			
	√ during a				
		Also gooding to the Control			
>	National Income is defined as the -	Also, according to the <u>Central</u>			
	✓ value of	Statistical Organisation (CSO)			
	✓ all economic goods and services	'National income is the sum total			
	√ produced	of generated by			
	✓ within the domestic territory of a cou	ntry the of a			
	✓ in an accounting year	country in the form of wages,			
	✓ the net factor income from abr	rent, interest and profit in an oad.			
	^	accounting year'.			
	EXCLUSIONS FROM GDP & NATIONAL INCOME				
1)	Payments (Govt. making a payment,	, without goods or services received in return)			
2)	transactions (Stocks & bonds tran	sactions - do not involve current production)			
	But, value of services accompanying sale (e.g.	fees to agents/broker) is included.			
3)	Sale ofgoods				
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,	and/or			
	2) Whencha	ange.			
	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	Nominal CDD			
	✓affected by changes in prices;	GDP Deflator = Nominal GDP x 100			
	✓ Changes only when there is change	Real GDP			
	in	Inflation rate = GDP deflator in Yr 2 - GDP deflator in Yr 1 x 100			
	Thus, Real GDP is ameasure of	in Yr 2 GDP Deflator in Yr 1			
	economic	GDF Deliator in Fr 1			

	DOMESTIC VS NATIONAL					
>	'National' → normal residents of a country who may be wit	hin	or	outside don	nest	ic territory
	of a country & is aconcept compared to the term 'domestic'.					
>	The term 'domestic' refers to production done by people			_ the dome	stic	territory
	IMPORTANT FORMULAS					
>	Net Factor income from abroad (NFIA)					
	= Factor income earned by Factor income				of	
	factors of production (-) production of				_	
	employed in employed in			territ	ory	
			8			
A	<u>Operating Surplus</u> = <u>ent +nterest +rofit(also ad</u>	d L	oyal	ty if given i	in Q	uestion)
A	3 Golden Rules of NI		To	otal 8 Aggre	gat	<u>es</u>
1)	Gross – Depreciation = Net	GI	OP a	t MP 5)	G	NP at MP
2)	MP = FC + IDT - Subsidyor MP = FC + NIT 3)	GI N1	DP a	t FC 6)) (4)) N	NP at FC NP at MP
3)	Domestic + NFIA = National	N1	DP a			NP at FC
>	Net Domestic Product at Factor Cost (NDP FC)					
	(aka Domestic Income or Factor Income earned in Domest	ic	Terri	tory)		
	=					
>	National Income (NNPFC) = NDPfc +					
	GDP Per Capita					
✓	Measure of country's economic output per person. Indicator	of	sta	ndard of liv	ing	of country
✓	GDP Per Capita =					
				1		
>	Indirect Taxes and Subsidies	L	Ва	sic Price	^	Market Price
1)		Ŀ	= F	actor Price	=	Basic Price
	These are of volume of actual production	+	F		+	
2)	Product Taxes & Product Subsidies	H	.		_	
	Paid or received on of product	<u> </u>				
	Bishosakla Rewand Income		Lo	come from d	oma	ctic broduct
	Income by household sector including Disposable Personal Income It is a measure of amount of money in the hands of the			Income from domestic product accruing to private sector = NDP fc		
	Institutions Serving individuals that is available for		=			
	Households from sources their consumption or savings.					Prop. & Ent
	= National Income = Personal Income		-	accruing dep	to g	govt admin
	+ -			Savings	of	Non dep
			_	enterprise	s	

Net National Disposable Income Private Income Private Income (NNDI) The amount of G/S domestic Income from domestic product economy has at its disposal. It is a measure of the accruing to private sector income (both _ National Income (NNP fc) income & + income) which private accrues to + sector from æ sources GNDI = NNDI + Depreciation __country. Ignore "Govt transfer pay" in calculation og GNDI / NNDI Method Data Required What is measured? Circular flow of income Circular flow of income refers to the continuous circulation of-Value Added Method production, income generation & expenditure The sum of net values added by all or Product Method involving different sectors of the economy. There are 3 phases-Contribution of or Industrial Origin the producing enterprises of the production units or Net Output country Firms produce G/S with help of factor services. phase Method Factor Income Method Total factor incomes generated in Relative The flow of factor incomes in the form of rent, or Factor Payment the production of goods and contribution of Distributio wages, interest and profits from firms to the or Distributed Share factor owners services n phase households occurs Sum of exp. of 3 spending unitsreceived by factors is spent Expenditure method consumption and 1. government, Exp. or Disposition consumption of G/S and investment goods. This or Income Disposal 2. consumer households, and investment exp. leads to further production of G/S & sustains 3. producing enterprises (firms) expenditures **VALUE ADDED METHOD** Step 2- Calculate GVAmp by **Step 3-** Calculate Step 1- Calculate GVA for adding GVA of all sectors NNP fc from GDP mp each sector NNP fc (National Inc.) GVA by Primary Sector Value of Output **GVA** by Secondary Sector GDP mp (-) + **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) **EXPENDITURE METHOD** INCOME METHOD Step 2- Calculate Step 1- Calculate NNP fc from GDP mp GDP mp Private Final Consumption NNP fc (National Inc.) + Expenditure (PFCE) (C) GDP mp NDP fc (-) Depreciation Gross Domestic Capital (+) NFIA Formation (GDCF) (I) **NFIA** + (-) Net Indirect Taxes Government / Public Final NNP fc (National Income)

GDCF (if not given in Q)

Capital Formation (H/B/G)

= Gross Domestic Fixed

Consumption Exp.

Net Exports (X-M)

(GFCE) (G)

+

+

Comp. of

Emp. does

not include

Employ<u>ee</u>'s

Contributio

n to PF"

gains,

NI as per Inc. Method

→Int. paid by govt/firm

does not include-

windfall profits etc

→Capital

(MoSP&I)	
*	
Central Statistical Organization (CSO)	
*	
National Accounts Division	\mid
•	
National Accounts Statistics	

Reliable statistical data is estimate India's NI wholly b	s $\underline{\hspace{1cm}}$ available \rightarrow not possible to $\dot{\hspace{1cm}}$ y one method.				
Therefore, a > sectors like agriculture an	of methods is used method → commodity producing d manufacturing.				
> In					
	sector -> expenditure method.				
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 inde	x of wel	fare?
---------	---------	----------	-------

No, since GDP measures <u>exclude</u> the following which are <u>critical</u> for the overall wellbeing of citizens.

- a) Income_
- b) _____ improvements

 → technological & managerial
 innovations.
- c) Productions _____ from govt., \rightarrow evading taxes or illegal (drugs, gambling etc.).
- d) Non-market production and Non-economic contributors -> health, education levels etc.
- e) Economic '_____' crime, pollution, traffic congestion etc which make us worse off.
- f) _____ work → without remuneration
- g) Leisure time, fairness, gender equality, security of community feeling etc.,

Limitations And Challenges of NI

Conceptual difficulties

- 1) lack of an agreed definition of national income,
- 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, and
- 4) accurate **estimation** of **consumption of fixed capital**
- 5) production for selfconsumption

Chp 6: Determination of National Income 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, **classical economists** said that **economy is _____-regulating** and is always achieving equilibrium at 'natural level' of real GDP > 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 at _____full employment level unless there is insufficient _ Keynesian theory of income determination is presented in <u>3 models</u>: Two-sector = household + business, 1) 2) **Three-sector** = household + business + government, Four-sector = household + business + govt. + foreign 3) Circular Flow in a Simple Two-sector Model ➣ The circular flow of income is a process where the national income and expenditure of an economy flow in a circular manner continuously through time. Two sector economy model assumes ▶ Wages, Rent, Interest, Profit Factor Payments only two sectors in economy viz., households and firms, with only Factor inputs. Factor Payments consumption and investment outlays. = Household Income Households = Household Expenditure \triangleright In the figure-= Value of Output Circular **broken** lines - factor and = Total Receipts of Firms Services (()) product flows- 1 ____ flows' Continuous line with arrows show flows **Important Concepts**

- 1) Consumption function- Functional relationship between consumption spending and disposable income \rightarrow C = f(Y) =
- 2) Average Propensity to Consume Ratio of total consumption to total income.

 APC =

Consumption is ______ function of income.

3)	Marginal Propensity	to Consum	e (MPC = "b")-	Increment in consumer	expenditure per unit
	of increment to incon	ne. >	MPC =	= b	
✓	Keynes assumes that	consumpt	ion increases w	<mark>ith an increase in Yd</mark> , bu	ıt that
	inc	crease in co	onsumption <	increase in Yd	
✓	Value of MPC is betw	<i>i</i> een & _			
✓	MPC is also the	of co	onsumption line	!	
4)	Saving function - Fund	ctional <mark>rel</mark> a	ationship betwe	en saving & income→ S	= f(Y) =
5)	Marginal Propensity t	o Save			
✓	Increment in saving pe	er unit incr	ease in disposab	ole income.)
	MPS =	= 1- b	&	MPC + MPS =	; MPS 0 < b < 1
	Also, MPS is	of savin	gs line		
6)	Average Propensity to) Save- Rat	tio of <mark>total savi</mark>	ng to total income. >	APS =
	Saving is		function of in	ncome.	
7)	Aggregate Supply (AS	<u>;)</u> - Ex ante	or planned AS	→ total supply of G/S	which firms plan on
	selling during a spec	ific time pe	eriod.	<u> </u>	
✓	AS = Agg. Production	= Factor Pa	ayments = Fact	or Incomes [National In	ncome→ Y]
8)	Aggregate Demand (A	<u>(D)</u> - Total p	olanned	in th	e economy.
9)	 Eauilibrium outbut- 1	Desired am	ount of output	demanded = amount bro	oduced (AD = AS)

Two Sector Model

Economics – Abhyaas Notes

- Household Sector & Business Sector only
- AD = C + I (I is assumed to be constant)
- \rightarrow AS = C + S
- > Equilibrium is achieved when -AD = ASor C+I=C+Sor

Three Sector Model

- > Household + Business + Govt Sector
- AD = C + I + G
- (I & G are assumed to be constant)
- \rightarrow 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) Taxes
- 2) Transfer payments & subsidy payments
- Govt purchases
- Govt borrowing finance deficits (when G > T)

Four Sector Model

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

$$AD = AS$$
 or $C + I + G + (X - M) = C + S + T$
or

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

- 1) exports,
- imports and 2)
- 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

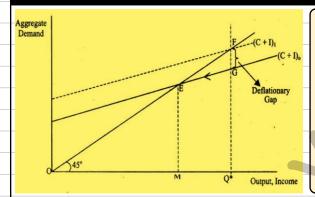
Demand \rightarrow (NI will $_$

☐ If AS < AD → Leakages < Inj.

Stock _____ or Excess

Demand → (NI will _____)

DEFLATIONARY & INFLATIONARY GAP

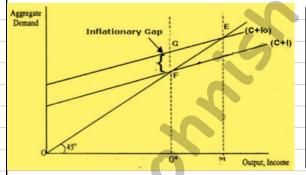


Deflationary Gap

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.



<u>Inflationary Gap</u>

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 _____ 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.

Economics Chp 6

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

CA Foundation (New Syllabus)

Business Economics Abhyaas Notes

Chapter 7 Public Finance

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Summary of Important Points

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	<u>Chapter 7 – Public Finance</u> Unit 1 – Fiscal Functions: An Overview, Centre And State Finance				
	INTRODUCTION				
>	Macroeconomics → study of economy as a				
>	3 main macroeconomic goals for any nation.				
1)	Economic → Growth of Real GDP > population → leads to higher standard of living.				
2)	High levels of				
3) ✓	price levels Inflation real incomes and purchasing power				
· ·	Deflation signals a→ which cause recession & unemployment.				
	y which eads recession a unemptoyment				
>	The objective of economic system & role of govt → improveof people.				
>	Adam Smith was a bold advocate ofmarkets & governmental activity.				
	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				
	functionsfunctions				
	Allocation Re-distribution				
	function Function aims to correct ensures that the Monetary & fiscal				
	the sources of distribution of policies,				
	wealth and income in the economy is stability problems				
	the economy scaping problems				
	ALLOCATION 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				
	resources. Thus, market failures provide rationale for government's allocative function				
>	Absence of govt. intervention lead to- Under-Production or Over-Production of goods				

	Allocation instruments which govt. can use to influence resource allocation
1)	Government mayproduce an economic good
2)	Government may <mark>private allocation</mark> through-
✓	Incentives :
✓	Disincentives :
3)	Government may influence allocation through its policies. Eg-
	Competition Act 2002
4)	Governments'activities such as licensing, minimum wages etc.
5)	Government sets legal and administrative frameworks
6)	any <mark>mixture</mark> of above methods
	REDISTRIBUTION FUNCTION
>	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
^	
	healthcare, housing, food etc to deserving people
	the state of the s
~	Revenue side of budget- Redistribution is done throughtaxation
	An optimal budgetary policy towards any distributional change should reconcile the
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	STABILISATION FUNCTION			
	Macroeconomic stability is said to exist when:	Stabilisation function ensures		
	economy's output = production capacity,	achievement of-		
2)		> M_croeconomic		
	economy's labour resources are fully employed, and	maintenance of levels of employment &		
4)		>stability.		
	Rationale of Stabilisation Function			
>	In absence of govt intervention, the instabilities in f	orm of recessions , inflation etc. may		
	befor longer periods causing enorm	ous hardships to poor people .		
>	Also situation of(inflation + unemployn	nent) is possible.		
>	Stabilization issue becomes more complex due to 'cor	ntagion effect'.		
	Stabilization function is concerned with performance of aggregate	ilization intervention may be through		
		policy - Controlling size of		
	1) Labour employment and capital	and, which		
	utilisation 2) Overall output and income	ct consumption, invt. & prices.		
	3) General price levels Fiscal policy	– It relates to		
	4) Balance of international payments	decisions & decisions of govt		
	5) Rate of economic growth Which can	stimulate economic activities		
	Expansionary fiscal policy is adopted to alleviate recessi	on Deficit by Love (5 to 2 2 2)		
	During recession , government-	Deficit badgets (Exp > Rev)		
	>its expenditure or ta	economic activity		
	Contractionary fiscal policy is resorted to for control	ling (2 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 -		
	<u>high inflation</u> During high inflation, government-	Surplus budgets (Rev > Exp) tend to		
	> its expenditure or tax	economic activity.		
>	Notes:			

	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 & income, 8	ķ			
	✓ state govt >				
>	ndia → 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 .				
~	Article of Constitution of India → powers of union & states-				
1)	Union list- union parliament				
2)	State list- state legislative assemblies				
3)	Concurrent list- both union & state can legislate.				
	In event of conflicting legislation in concurrent→ law passed by prevails.				
~	Union (Central) govt. can levy taxes liketax (on agricultura	al			
	ncome), customs duties, excise duties, corporation tax, tax on capital value of assets	۶,			
	security transaction tax, central GST, taxes other than stamp duties etc				
>	State governments can levy taxes on income, lands & buildings, minera				
	rights, electricity, vehicles, tolls, professions, land revenue and impose excise duties o	n			
	certain items.				
	The property of the union is exempt from state taxation.				
~	Similarly, the property and income of the states are not liable to be taxed by the centre .				
	Articles to of constitution $ o$ distribution of finances among states by central gov				
	TIMANUSE COMMISSION				
	FINANCE COMMISSION				
<u> </u>	Article → "Finance Commission". It is responsible for-				
	1) evaluating the of union & state govt,				
	2) recommending the of taxes between them and				
	3) laying down determining of 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).		
A	The 15 th 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 <mark>unitary</mark> in nature.		
>	For any particular goods & service, SGST & CGST rates are		
>	GST (IGST) is applied onstate movement of G/S & on imports/exports.		
	✓ IGST is simply a <mark>of SGST & CGST</mark>		
	✓ administered & collected bygovernment,		
	✓ kept in a <mark>account</mark> ,		
	✓ & distributed between the &		
>	GST \rightarrow 35% of gross tax revenue of union & 44% of own tax revenue of states.		
>	As per supreme court verdict in , 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 abased 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		
	> Central govt → nationally important Article &		
	areas like, foreign affairs, foreign trade, money & banking, etc > The centre may borrow within limits fixed by		
	> State doyts -> agriculture & industry parliament upon security of Consolidated Fund of		
	health & education, police India. The state governments may borrow within territory		
	protection, state infra. protection, state infra. of India upon security of Consolidated Fund of State		
	> Local self governments -		
	services such as water supply		
	& sanitation, local roads, electricity. States need to obtain centre's in order to borrow in case state is indebted to centre.		

	<u>Chapter 7 - Public Finance</u> Unit 2 – Market Failure / Government Intervention To Correct Market Failure			
	MARKET FAULUSE			
	MARKET FAILURE			
	It is a situation in which the free market leads to of society's			
	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			
	TIMO TYPES OF MARKET FAILURE			
	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)				
	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 <mark>inefficient</mark> because-			
	> producers output, &			
	> 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 costs or benefits 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-			
	➤ Negative externalities → action of one party imposes 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 received by another in or			
>	NPE received in			
	Eg- Factory discharges waste into river → affects fish output			
>	NPE received in			
	Eg- Factory discharges waste into river → health hazards for people → drinking & bathing			
	NEGATIVE CONSUMPTION EXTERNALITY			
A	A Negative Externality			
	✓ initiated in			
	✓ which imposes an on others			
	✓ may be received by another in or			
>	NCE Received In			
	Eg- Undisciplined Students Creating Disturbance → Preventing Teachers from teaching			
>	NCE Received In			
	Eg- Smoking Cigarettes In Public Place → Passive Smoking By Others			

	POSITIVE PRODUCTION EXTERNALITY			
>	A positive externality			
	✓ initiated in			
	✓ that confers on others			
	✓ may be received 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.			
>	PPE received in			
✓	Eg- An individual raises an attractive garden → persons walking by enjoy the garden			
	POSITIVE CONSUMPTION EXTERNALITY			
>	A positive externality			
	✓ initiated in			
	✓ that conferson others			
	✓ may be received inor in			
	PCE received in			
✓	Eg- Consumption of services of health club by employees → benefit to firm → increased			
	efficiency & productivity			
	PCE received in			
✓	Eg- If people get immunized against contagious diseases → social benefit to others as well			
	by preventing others from getting infected			
	How Externalities Cause Inefficiency And Market Failure ?			
	Private cost is money cost of production incurred by i.e. wages, raw			
	materials, etc, whichfor production, & wouldin firm's accounts. Supply curve here corresponds to only			
	supply curve here corresponds to only			
	Social costs → total costs to on account of production or consumption activity.			
	Social Cost =			
	Social Cost =			
	External costs are included in firms' costs or consumers' decisions.			
	thetages in jums costs of consumers decisions.			
	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			
	cost & would not their porque			

>	Such prices send signals to producers & consumers → 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	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 individualdeny other		
	individuals' consumption, even if they have for it.		
4)			
	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		
	<u>Private goods</u> are & anyone who wants it, must them at a		
>			
>	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 when seller knows			
	more than buyer or vice versa. This can distort choices and lead to market failure.			
>	For eg,			
	✓ the landlords know more about their properties than the tenants,			
	✓ a borrower knows more about their ability to repay a loan than the lender etc.			
B)	Adverse Selection			
>	Asymmetric information generates adverse selection .			
>	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 party 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 offer prices to offset the risk of getting a 'lemon'.		
A	car owners thenselling, leaving mostly in the market.		
A	The result is market distortion with lower prices and lower average quality of cars.		
>	Thus, asymmetric information leads to <mark>of high-quality goods from market.</mark>		
>	Economic agents end up either-		
	✓ selecting a product (lemon), or		
	✓the market altogether.		
c)	Moral Hazards		
>	It is about informed person's taking advantage of a person		
	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 engages inbehaviour or fails to act in		
>	For eg, A driver who has comprehensive insurance \rightarrow had greater taste for risk-taking &		
	hence his interests contradict with insurer. This causes insurance premiums to rise for		
	everyone, driving many potential customers out of market.		

	GOVERNMENT INTERVENTION TO CORRECT MARKET FAILURE		
	I) Minimize Market Power		
A	Market power leads to → as it output which results in		
>	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:		
	Market → introducing competition in previously monopolistic sectors		
	Controls on		
3)			
4)			
5)			
6)			
7)			
8)			
9)	Profit or rate of return regulation - Govt's regulatory agency determines an		
	price→ to ensure a rate of return → called rate-of return 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->		
>	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		
	 The key to an externality (both external costs and benefits) is to 		
	ensure that those who the externalities them while making decisions.		
	(Catting principality through the law		
	✓ Setting price indirectly- by		
	 Second approach to establishing prices indirectly is '		
	(Carbon Creatts)		
	POLLUTION TAX		
	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.		
>	Tax increases & output of good which creates –ve externality.		
>	Proceeds from tax→ used for projects thatenvironment.		
	Problems in administering an efficient pollution tax		
1)	Difficult to & → complex & costly administrative procedures		
2)	If demand for good is, such tax will an effect in reducing demand.		
	In such case, producers will easily in form of higher prices.		
3)	Negative consequences on employment & investments → high pollution taxes may		
	encourage producers to their factories to those countries with taxes.		
	TRADABLE EMISSION PERMITS The way of tradable promite to limit emissions in often called (
	The use of tradable permits to limit emissions is often called ''		
>			
	time. By issuing a number of permits, the government determines total level of pollution that can be emitted during each period (the 'cap').		
>	A firm that generates emissions above allowed limit is with substantial fines.		
	sell for a price), a polluting firm faces an opportunity cost → for each unit of pollution →		
	it must either, or it could earn by selling permit		
>	Firm producing less pollution → permits & money.		
>	High polluters have to permits→ increasing their costs, and makes them		
	less competitive and less profitable. Thus, firms will have incentive not to pollute.		

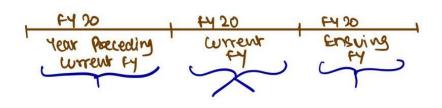
>	In 1994, USA began a cap & trade system for emissions that cause acid			
	rain by issuing permits to power plants.			
>	In India, (PAT) scheme, carbon tax in the form of a cess			
	on coal, lignite and peat,.			
>	In, coal cess was abolished and replaced by the GST compensation cess.			
>	(Amendment) Bill, 2022 empowers 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 → still market failure as, left to			
	market, there will beoptimal output.			
>	Since they promote welfare , govt implement policies > positive externalities.			
>	Govt may intervene to correct Positive Externalities by–			
✓	corrective subsidies to→ for increasing supply. (Eg- fertilizer subsidy)			
✓	corrective subsidies to → increasing demand (Eg- Subsidy on education fee →			
	consumption subsidy)			
>	A corrective involves government paying part of cost to			
	firms to production of goods having positive externalities. This is in fact a			
	policy as subsidies to producers wouldcost 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, treatment of sewage etc.			
	III) a) Government intervention in case of merit goods			
~	Merit goods→ goods having substantial positive externalities & are socially desirable.			
>	They are under & under through the market mechanism so			
	that social welfare will be maximized.			
	Eg - education, health care, welfare services, waste management, public libraries, museum			
>	Govt responses→ regulation, subsidies, direct government provision & combination of govt			
	provision & market provision.			
1)				
	imparted is government regulated.			
2)	Govt can some type of activities, set standards and issue mandates. Eg,			
	govt may make it compulsory to avail insurance protection , compulsory vaccination etc			
3)				
	externalities. E.g. use of helmets, seat belts etc.			

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 complete on a demerit good. e.g. Intoxicating drugs		
2)	Effect of total ban is realized in form ofof demerit good;		
	conversely such goods are secretly driven & traded in market		
3)			
•	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)			
	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. Govt level of entry fee & keeps strict on functioning of licensee to guarantee equitable distribution of welfare.		

>		contributions and private donations by	
	corporate entities and NGOs.		
>		d as public goods and services despite the fact	
		goods. As, left to the markets and	
	profit motives, these may prove		
	1) scientific approval of drugs,		
	 production of strategic products such 		
	 provision of security at airports etc 		
	V) Price Intervention: Non-Market Pricing		
		vulsiala ava	
>	Price intervention → form of price controls	which areon price.	
	Price controls may take the form of either		
	Price Floor (a price buyers		
•	Eg- Minimum Support Price (MSP), to guarantee steady and assured incomes to farmers.		
	Price Ceiling (a price sellers	s are allowed to charge)	
✓	Eg- Fixing of &		
✓	When prices of certain essential commodities rise excessively, government resort to price		
	ceilings for making commodity available to all at reasonable prices. Eg- 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 disclosure of information Eg: SE	BI requires accurate information be provided to	
	prospective buyers of new stocks. (prospec	tus)	
3)	Public of information to im	prove knowledge	
4)	Regulation of and setting of	advertising to make advertising	
	more responsible, informative and less pers	suasive.	
	VII) Equitable Distribution	Government Failure	
	Redistribute incomes so that there is	When govt intervention in economy to	
	equity and fairness in the society.	correct market failure	
	Some common policy interventions include	inefficiency & leads to misallocation.	
	1) income tax,	Government failure occurs when:	
	2) budgetary allocations	1) intervention is causing	
	3)compensation	wastage of resources expended for the	
	4) payments, subsidies, social	intervention	
	security schemes, job,	2) intervention produces & more	
	etc.	serious problems.	

	Chapter 7 - Public Finance Unit 3 - THE PROCESS OF BUDGET MAKING: SOURCES OF REVENUE, EXPENDITURE MANAGEMENT AND MANAGEMENT OF PUBLIC DEBT			
	I) Basics II) The Process Of Budget Making III) Sources Of Revenue IV) Public Expenditure Management V) Public Debt Management			
	I) Basics			
A	Budget is a powerful policy instrument → to regulate & restructure a country's priorities.			
>	The <u>need for budgeting</u> arises from the need to-			
	✓ efficientlylimited resources to ensure maximum social welfare.			
	✓ to ensure of income and wealth.			
	✓ reduce/eliminate economic & 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			
<u> </u>				
,	coherent set of taxing & spending proposals.			
>	Finances of govt of India have traditionally been controlled by			
	The budget is prepared by 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 budgeting .			
>	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 budgetary procedures are – Budget process 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 syam for Trainsforming India
Budget is prepared by Mof in consultation with NITI Aayog.
17 MOF -> Budget
Budget Ministria
for preparing estimates of exp cure
27 Pre-Budget consultations
· Union fm — State Fm, Industry Associations, Representatives from various sectors, expects from NITI Advog & economists etc.
34 Proposed Budgetis prepared
47 Union fm -> Minister y Budget
54 Ceremony -> marking of budget downers. Printing of
• Budget Downente Of Shout. Receipts Consolidated fund Of Shout. Receipts Of Shout. Recei
dy gratements mandated under FRBM Act.
iy Mauro Eusnomic Statement
"7
er other downers -> Explanatory statements.
Budget shows into of Rec. & Exp. of 2 years. Fy 2026-27 Lea Budget hai Sensing year -> Fy 2025-26 Lea Budget hai
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 sabha.

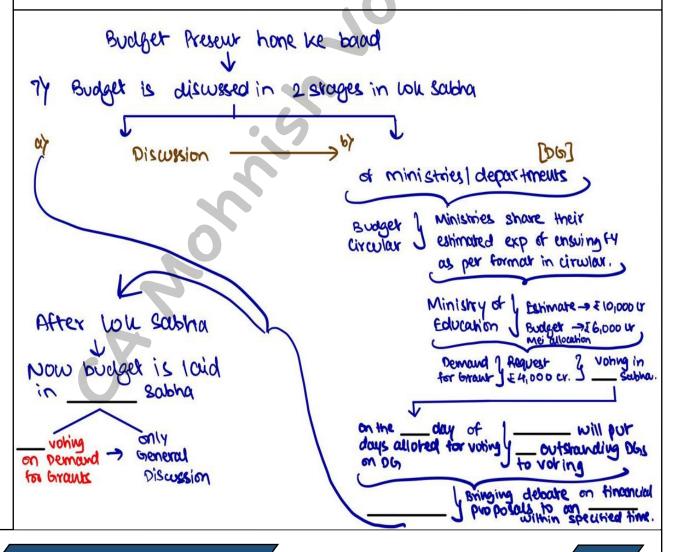
Port A

- Euthomic Situation
- · Estimates for Ensuing Fy.
- · of Govt.
- raised by Taxes 2 Borrowing.
- · Proposed of Expenditure to diff. sectors [Appropriation Bill]
- . schemes for Diff. sectors.

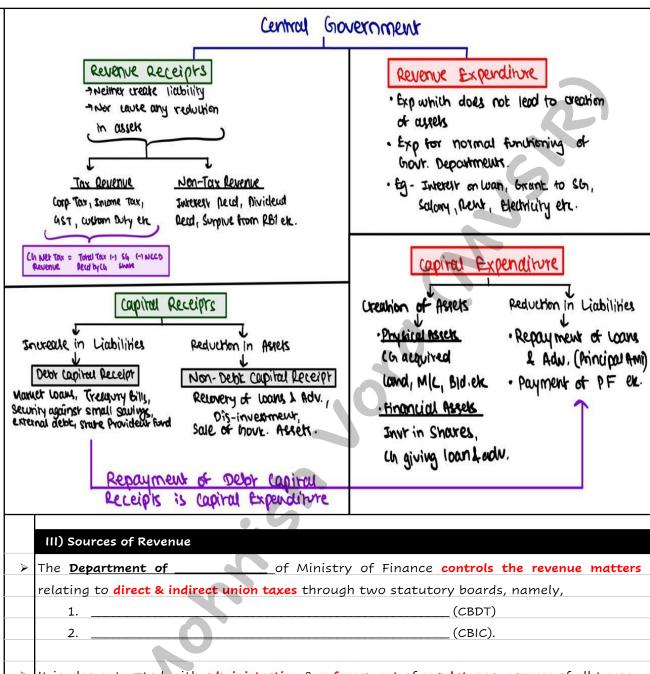
Part B

· of Gov'r on Various developmental measures

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



-				
	84	After general discussion & voing on Dh,		
		now bout introduces -		
		Bill > Give authority to bout. >		
		After Appr. Bill is passed		
		Bill is taken I motion for leave to introduce AB		
		up for consideration U be opposed.		
		-> Parliament how to pass F.B. withindays		
	97	After finance Bill Jeent Jeanya - Has to return it passed by to yearna with _ days with without		
	31	Passed by 4 to 4 somme with days		
		Lok Salpha , with / without		
		recommendations		
		Recommendations of RS		
accepted or rejected by Ls.				
		LOUTY, FB will be sent to		
		After degent & FB -> Finance		
		<u>~</u> .		
	104	from CV		
	(0)	pate of preservation 1.		
		pate of presentation y		
	117	Earlier Railway Budget was presented seperately by Mininster of Railways.		
		BUT		
		from Fy		
		Railway Budget is merged with General Budget		



	IV) Public Expenditure Management		
>	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 affects allocation of resources -> care should be taken to		
	channelize resources to areas.		
>	Public expenditure management > process to make governments fiscally		
>	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 Department of 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,		
>	of <mark>audit comments</mark> /observations, and		
>	of central government <mark>accounts</mark> .		
>	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).		
>	Expenditure estimates are provisionally finalized & communicated to		
	ministries/departments after the approval of Finance Minister.		
>	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.		
>	It gives an of various types of expenditure and certain other items		
	across demands.		

>	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			
	✓transfers, &			
	✓ Other 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.			
>	Debt is aexercise as a portion of debt falls due each month,			
	government does not cut expenditure or raise taxes → 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 growth & welfare.			
>	Sustainability of sovereign debt is an indicator of overall			
>	Debt sustainability is a function of-			
	> of debt, &			
	> govt'sthe outstanding debt.			
>	Public debt management refers to task of determining-			
	✓ the size and composition of debt, ✓ interest rates,			
	✓ 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			
>	Debt management strategy is based on three broad pillars namely,			
	1)			
	2)			
	3)			

	IV) Public Debt Management		
	Institutions responsible for public debt management are		
	Domestic marketable debt 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 internal debt.		
>	are issued to meet <mark>short-term</mark> cash req. of govt.		
>	are issued to mobilise longer term resources to finance fiscal deficit.		
	There is sovereign borrowing from international capital markets.		
>	Risk of external debt is in value of currency compared to		
	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		
	governments banking with it in the form of (WMA)		
	to bridge temporary mismatches in cash flows.		
	Fiscal Responsibility and Budget Management (FRBM)		
>	It was passed in to provide a legislative framework for		
	& thereby debt of central government to a sustainable level.		
<u> </u>	The objectives of the act are:		
1) 2)	in fiscal management,		
3)			
4)			
• • •	, nook operation of the government.		
>	(PDMC) was created in 2016 under the		
	Department of Economic Affairs.		
>	Strategy or MTDS 2021-24 is a framework		
	to determine appropriate composition of debt portfolio.		

> A	s part of continuing	efforts to ir	crease retail	participation in G-sec,
		′ facility was anr	ounced on Februa	ry 5, 2021:
				through online access to
	primary & secondary o			
	✓ to provide the facili	ty to	their governmen	t securities
	('Retail Direct') with t	he Reserve Bank.		
	Budget concepts			
		Type of l	<u>oudgets</u>	
	I Balanced budget			I <u>Unbalanced budget</u>
	<u>Batancea buaget</u>			unbalancea buaget
+	- ".			
	Revenue = Expenditure	Surplu	s budget 	<u>Deficit budget</u>
		Revenue >	Expenditure	Revenue < Expenditure
			i a i t I la u d'a a t	liability of
		A def govern	ment or	liability of its reserves.
		> In mod	ern economies, _	of countries follow
		deficit	budgeting	
	Budgeted	Revenue	Fiscal	Primary
	Deficit	Deficit	Deficit	Deficit
	Total Expenditure Reve	nue Expenditure	Total Expendi	ture Fiscal deficit
Щ	(-)	(-)	(-) Total Receit	(-) ots Net Interest
	Total Receipts Rev	venue Receipts	(excl. borrowi	
	It shows-	> It is pres	sented as a	Fiscal deficit → borrowing requirement
	✓ shortfall of govt's receipts			of
	over	> It is to be		interest payment,
	expenditure.			Primary deficit borrowing requirement
_	✓ govt revenue is insufficient to meet	<u> </u>	. —	interest payment.
	exp. in connection with	requiremen	nts of govt	·
			venue deficit	Primary deficit → how much of govt's borrowings
-	of govt,	occupies	a	is used for meeting expenses
-	✓ govt is from		share of cit, it is an	payments.
	sectors to	indication	that a large	• •
	exp	used for		primary deficit is to focus
		for investi		on present fiscal imbalances.
			$\overline{}$	

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	 Parliament has very time for examining the expenditure demands of all the ministries. 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. This process is known as 'Guillotine'. 			
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	 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 Eg & This money does belong to govt but is to be returned to depositors. Expenditure from this fund need be approved by the parliament. 			
Consolidated Fund of India	 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. Money can be spent through this fund only if appropriated by the The consolidated Fund has further been divided into' & '' divisions. 			
Contingency Fund of India	 A fund (Rs 30,000 cr.) placed at the disposal of the			

	Chapter 7 - Public Finance Unit 4 - FISCAL POLICY		
	I II BASICS I I '''	II) Instruments of Fiscal Policy run economic growth	
	V) Fiscal policy for reduction in inequalities of income and wealth		
	I) Basics		
>	Fiscal policy involves use of government		
	✓,	&	
	to influence both-		
	✓ pattern of	and	
	✓ level of growth of	, & employment	
		~O`	
	<u>Objectives</u>		
~	The most common objectives of fiscal po	olicy are:	
	✓ Achievement and maintenance of	£	
	✓ Maintenance of		
	✓ Acceleration of rate of)	
		of income and wealth	
	The importance of call of order	the of these elections were first	
-	country and from time to time. For inst	ity of these objectives may from country to	
	v &	may be the priorities of developed nations,	
	✓ economic	 ** may be the priorities of developed flations, * more priority in developing country 	
	<u> </u>	7 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 the gap	
	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			
A	Public expenditures are income-generating and include-			
✓	<u>Current expenditures</u> to meet therunning of government			
✓	Capital expenditures - investments made by Govt in & infrastructure,			
✓	<u>Transfer payments</u> - government spending which does contribute to GDP because			
	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.			
>	<u>During Inflation</u>			
✓	To reduce severity of & to bring prices			
✓	Govt reduces expenditure → 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 deficit budget which may be financed either			
	 through (but it may have risk of crowding out private spending) 			
	or			
	 through(creation of additional money to finance expenditure). 			
	Programme of public investment			
>	Primary employment in public works will employment, & economy will be			
	put on an expansion track.			
	III)b) Taxes			
>	Taxation policies are used for establishing in an economy.			
	During <u>recession & depression</u> ,			
	✓ Taxes are → to encourage private consumption & investment.			
	During inflation ,			
	✓ 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
	 Government issues treasury bills and government securities of varying
	denominations and duration which are
	• For financing capital projects -> are issued
	 For meeting short-term government expenditure -> are issued.
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 debt the 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)
	✓ No net effect on aggregate demand since leakages (taxes) = injections (exp)
	✓ It has negative net effect on aggregate demand since leakages > injections
	✓ It reduces national debt
	Budget deficit: (Revenues < Exp)
	✓ It has positive net effect on aggregate demand since injections > leakages
	✓ It adds to the national debtxx

	IV) Fiscal policy for long-run economic growth
A	Demand-side policies by policies to stimulate aggregate
	cannot produce long-run economic growth.
A	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 andtheir 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-
	✓ Directly - incomes of are dependent on direct taxes,
	✓ Indirectly- Potential forearnings is indirectly influenced
	• 9
>	Few measures as to how govt can achieve desired redistribution of income-
	✓direct tax system
	✓ Indirect taxes can be (More tax on Luxury goods, Less tax on Necessities)
~	A carefully planned policy of public exp. helps in redistributing income from rich to poor.
	Spending programmes targeted on welfare measures for disadvantaged-
	✓ Poverty alleviation programmes
	✓ Free or subsidized,
	✓ provision on a <mark>selective basis</mark>
	Subsidized production of products of consumption
	✓ Public production or grant of subsidies → for sufficient supply of essential goods,
	✓ Strengthening for enhancing employability etc

	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 recession , government uses expansionary fiscal policy by govt exp .
•	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, private investments→ which are interest– sensitive , 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 toin an economy's ability to from recession,
	possibly reduce economy's prospects of
9)	<u>Lags</u>
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>

CA Foundation (New Syllabus)

Business Economics Abhyaas Notes

Chapter 8 Money Market

By CA Mohnish Vora (MVSIR)

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Summary of Important Points

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	<u>Chapter 8 - Money Market</u> Unit 1 – The Concept Of Money Demand: 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 intrinsic value (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 for policy purposes as the set of variation in the of which could impact on aggregate economic activity.
	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'.
	paralesian see of maneau mornisalarios er corier issuers.
	CHARACTERISTICS OF MONEY
	Money should be:
>	generally
>	or long-lasting
>	effortlessly
>	difficult toi.e. not easily reproducible by people
>	relatively, but has elasticity of supply
>	or easily transported
>	possessing; and
>	into smaller parts or fractions <mark>losing value</mark>
	TIMETIONS OF MONEY
>	FUNCTIONS OF MONEY
1)	Convenient
2)	Explicitly definedor unit of account
3)4)	Serves as a unit or standard of
7)	
	DEMAND FOR MONEY
>	If peopletomoney, we say there is demand for money.
	meno, a cost a demand por meno,
>	Demand for money is in the nature of demand; it is demanded for its

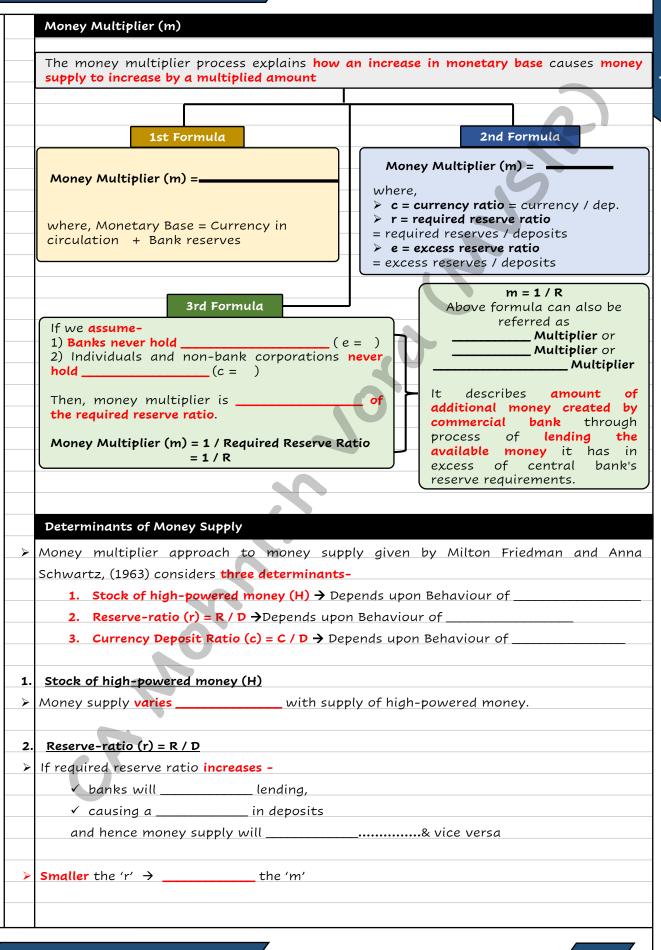
	THEORIES OF DEMAND FOR MONEY				
	I) CLASSICAL APPROACH: QUANTITY THEORY OF MONEY				
>	Given by in his book 'The Purchasing Power of Money'				
>	As per QTM, money in circulation (M) & price level (P) are related to each				
	other. (Linear) That is, changes in prices or changes in the value or purchasing 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 of interest rate [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?				
→	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				
~	Aka. '				
	Transactions motive, Precautionary motive, & Speculative motive				
	a) <u>Transactions motive</u>				
	Money for current transactions 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 finance ______ exp which occur due to _____ contingencies. Precautionary money balances are income _____ and & interest _ c) Speculative motive People also demand money to take advantage of which is same as future changes in _______. (to exploit any attractive investment opportunity) Assumed that return on money is ______, while returns on bonds are of two types: Market Value of Bond inversely related to Market Rate of Interest Current rate of Current rate of Critical rate Critical rate interest (rn) interest (rn) of interest (rc) of interest (rc) People expect a _____ in People expect a _____ in interest rate (______ in bond interest rate (_____ in bond prices) prices) People would hold their wealth in People will convert their _____ cash rather than _____. balances into ____ (SDM _____ & Bond ____ (SDM _____ & Bond _ Individual's Speculative Demand for Money Aggregate Speculative Demand for Money R* Liquidity Trap r2 r3 Speculative Demand for Money Speculative Demand for Money

	Liquidity Trap	
>	When interest rates fall to very	, the expectation is that now
	go further & will move _	in future.
>	Thus, when interest rates rise in future, t	ne bond prices will leading to taking risk
	of ain future	
A	Thus at such low interest rates-	
	desire to hold bonds is very and a	pproaches , and
	demand to hold money in liquid form appro	
	,	
Δ	The speculative demand of money curve b	pecomes parallel to the axis, i.e,
	with respect to interest rate	
	This situation is called a 'Liquidity trap'. (i	
	This situation is called a Liquidity trap. (neffective monetary policy)
	Empirical evidence of Liquidity Trap is fou	nd during "(2008)"
	empirical evidence of Liquidity Trap is fou	na during(2008)
	Post-Keynesian developments in Theory of	Demand for Money
	IV) Inventory Approach	V) Friedman's
	to Transaction	Restatement of
	Balances	Quantity Theory
	 Aka. Inventory Theoretic Approach Given by Baumol and Tobin, in which money is viewed as an inventory held for transaction purposes. Inventory models assume that there are two media for storing value: an interest-bearing financial asset There is of making transfers between money & alternative assets e.g As per Baumol, people hold an 	Milton Friedman extended Keynes' speculative money demand within the framework of asset price theory. Friedman's determinants of the demand for money 1 = Permanent Income / discount rate Where, discount rate is average return on five asset 2. Positively related to the P 3. Rises if of money holdings (i.e. returns on bonds and stock) decline 4 Positive inflation rate reduces the real value of money balances, thereby increasing the opportunity costs of money holdings
	optimum of bonds and cash balance, i.e., an amount that	IV) Inventory Approach
	minimizes cost.	to Transaction Balances
	The level of inventory holding (holding money in cash)- is RELATED to Income of person Cost of making transfer between money and bonds 8 is RELATED to	Given by Tobin in his article, 'Liquidity Preference as Behaviour towards Risk' This theory is based on the principles of ———————————————————————————————————
	Carrying cost Number of times bond transaction are made	borne) and - (No return, but also no risk) Just as Keynes' theory, Tobin's theory also implies that demand for money depends on interest rate.

<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 su	apply:					
Supply of money is a	It refers to stock of money available to					
variable	·					
Change in stock of money is	This is always than the					
variable	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.	A					
Banking system means RBI and all banks the	at accept demand deposits					
,						
> Thus, 'supply of money'	0,					
interbank deposits and	10					
☐ money held by government and						
☐ money held by banking system						
Rationale of measuring money supply						
Empirical analysis of money supply is impo	rtant because-					
1) Facilitates analysis of	→ to understand causes of					
money growth.						
2) Provides a framework to evaluate	whether money supply is consistent with-					
standards for a	nd to understand nature of deviations. It helps					
in making						
Sources of	f money supply					
Central Banks	Banking system					
→						
High powered money or	Constitution and					
Monetary Base	Credit Money					
It is issued by	COURSE					
It is issued by , & is of all other forms of money.	Banks create money supply in					
The currency issued by	the process of & transactions with					
' money' & is backed by sup reserves → its value is guaranteed by	the public.					
γ						
High powered money + Credit Money	= Total money stock of a country					

A	The concept of money has experienced evolution from Commodity to Metallic to Paper to						
	Digital Currency.						
>							
	as legal tender issued by a central bank in						
	but takes a different form, exchangea						
	accepted as a medium of payment, lega appear as liability on a central bank's ba			of value. CE	bucs would		
	appear as hability on a central bank's ba	lanc	e sneet.				
>	Also, Crypto currencies are legally r	ecod	nized in India as current	ry & are not	money		
	raso, etypes carrenees areaagaary r	ooog	THE CALL THE CALL THE CALL THE CALL	by ware not	a money.		
	Measurement of money supply						
>	Reserve money (M0) is aka central bank	mor	ney or base money or hig	h-powered	money		
	Reserve money determines -			•			
	✓ level of liquidity and		<u> </u>				
	✓ price level in economy and,						
	thus, its management is of crucial i	тро	rtance to stabilize the	economy.			
	Currency in circulation		Currency with Public				
	+	+			-		
	+	+			-		
		-	M1 (Narrow Money)				
	Reserve Money (M0)		MI (Narrow Money)				
	N1						
	M1		Notes in Circulation				
	+	+			-		
	M2	+			-		
	M1	-			_		
			Currency with Public				
	+						
	M3 (Broad Money)		Difference M0 & M1	МО	M1		
	M3 _		Difference Mo & MI	7010	MI		
			Bank Reserves				
	+						
	M4		Bank Deposits				
	> The above are given in		order of liquidity – Liquid)				
	> 'Other deposits' with the RBI		those <mark>held by govt</mark> (Ce	entral & Sta	te Govt.)		



	Excess Reserves (ER) are funds that a bank keeps as reserve beyond what is required by
	regulation as aagainstrequiring cash.
	Excess reserves (ER) =
>	Excess Reserves dolead 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
	Currency Deposit Ratio (c) = C / D
A	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 time deposit demand deposit matic (TD/DD natic) is how make meaning least as
_	The time deposit-demand deposit ratio (TD/DD ratio) i.e. how much money is kept as deposits compared to deposits.
<u> </u>	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.
	Δ Money Supply = $\frac{1}{R}$ X Δ Reserves
	R
	Effect of government expenditure on money supply
	When RBI lends to governments under (WMA)/overdraft (OD)
	→ leads to generation of money supply in economy through money multiplier
	process.

Chapter 8 - Money Market UNIT 3 - MONETARY POLICY

	UNIT 3 - MONETART 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 raises 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)	
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

Quantitative tools Credit control tools that impact money supply of entire economy					
1.	Reserve Ratio	Reserve ratio is of two types-			
1a.	Cash Reserve Ratio (CRR)		Banks are required to set aside a portion of NDTL in cash with RBI required to pay interest on CRR amount.		
1b.	Statutory Liquidity Ratio (SLR)	l ,	Banks are also required to set aside a portion of NDTL with, in form of assets- cash, gold or RBI approved securities. Banks are to earn interest on these securities.		
2.	Open Market Operations (OMO)	RBI buys and sells government securities in the market. When RBI government securities, liquidity is from market >> it is done to inflation. The objective is to keep a check on temporary liquidity mismatches in market owing to foreign capital flow.			
	are selective crea ole economy.	lit control :	Qualitative tools tools that have affect money supply of specific sector 8		
1.	Margin require	ments	When margin requirements are customers borrow		
2.	Moral suasion		By way of, the RBI convinces banks t keep money in government securities, rather tha certain sectors.		
3.	Selective credi	t control	Controlling credit by lending to selective industries.		
Market Scheme	: Stabilisation 2 (MSS)	Under MSS, theborrows from (additional to its normal borrowing) and issues treasury-bills, forliquidity from market arising from large capital inflows.			
			Policy Rates		
1.	Bank Rate	Aka. Disc Bank rate	rest rate at which RBI <mark>lends term funds</mark> to banks count rate. re is used to prescribe to bank if it does no prescribed SLR or CRR		
2.	Liquidity Adjustment Facility (LAF)		RBI uses LAF as an instrument to adjust liquidity and money supply. The following types of LAF are-		
2a.	Repo Rate	Repo rate is the rate at which borrow from on aterm basis against a repurchase agreement.			
2b.	Reverse Repo Rate	It is the reverse of repo rate, i.e., this is the ratepays to in order to keep additional funds in RBI. It is to repo rate -> Reverse Repo Rate = Repo Rate -			
3.	Marginal Standing Facility (MSF) Rate	MSF Rate is the rate at which lends money to banks, the rate available under the repo policy. Banks availing MSF Rate can use a maximum of of SLR securities. MSF Rate = Repo Rate +			

	Organisational Structure For Monetary Pol	icy Decisions
>	It is an agreement reached bet	ween Government of India & RBI on
	inflation rate	that RBI should target to achieve price stability.
>	Announcement of an official target range	for inflation is known as inflation
	('Flexible inflation targeting framework')	
>	The inflation target is to be set by the Gove	ernment of India, in consultation with RBI,
	in every years.	
>		
>	Accordingly, Central Government has noti	fied-
>	4 per cent Consumer Price Index (CPI) infla	tion as the target for period from Aug 5, 2016 to
	Mar 31, 2021	
	with the-	
	✓ upper tolerance limit of and	
	✓ lower tolerance limit of	, 0
>	Monetary Policy Report is to be published e	every <u>months</u> , explaining sources of inflation
	& forecasts of inflation for the coming	months
>	The following are factors lead to a failure	to achieve inflation target
>	Average inflation upper tolerance level, f	or any <mark>quarters</mark> ; or
>	Average inflation lower tolerance level, f	or any <mark>quarters</mark> .
	Manager Dalian Committee (MDC)	
	Monetary Policy Committee (MPC)	
	It is a member committee consisting o	of-
	It is a member committee consisting o	
	It is a member committee consisting o	of- charge of monetary policy,
	It is a member committee consisting of PRBI (Chairperson), PRBI in the	charge of monetary policy,
	It is a member committee consisting of PRBI (Chairperson), PRBI in the	charge of monetary policy,
	It is amember committee consisting of PRBI(Chairperson), PRBIin the One official nominated by the Remaining three	charge of monetary policy,andnominees representing Govt of India
	It is a member committee consisting of PRBI (Chairperson), PRBI in a committee by the Property Remaining three MPC is required to meet at least to the committee in the property of the prop	charge of monetary policy, and nominees representing Govt of India imes & decisions adopted by MPC are
	It is amember committee consisting of PRBI(Chairperson), PRBIin the One official nominated by the Remaining three	charge of monetary policy, and nominees representing Govt of India imes & decisions adopted by MPC are
	It is a member committee consisting of PRBI (Chairperson), PRBI in a consisting of PRBI	charge of monetary policy, and nominees representing Govt of India imes & decisions adopted by MPC are ng.
	It is a member committee consisting of PRBI (Chairperson), PRBI in a committee by the Property Remaining three MPC is required to meet at least to the committee in the property of the prop	charge of monetary policy, and nominees representing Govt of India imes & decisions adopted by MPC are ng.
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CA Foundation – June 2024 (New Syllabus)

Business Economics Abhyaas Notes

Chapter 9 International Trade

By CA Mohnish Vora (MVSIR)

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Summary of Important Points

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CA Foundation	Economics
	: Ch
	p 9
ween countries.	
stomers & currencies,	
documentation etc	
_ & rising incomes.	
ctivity gains. It also	
at competitive prices.	
choice for consumers.	
sary for imports.	
cal change, stimulates	
provement.	
sultancy services etc	

	<u> Chapter 9 - International Trade</u> 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)	
	This reflects in products at prices & wider choice for consumers.
	It also enables nations to acquire reserves necessary for imports.
4)	It necessitates increased use of, supports technological change, stimulates
	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
	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 Lack of & of trade policies of trading partners
9)	Changes in govts' policies imposition of import, import tariffs or
	enanges in goves policies triposition of import import tariffs or

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	Theories of international trade		
1)	The Mercantilists' View of International	Trade	
2)	The Theory of Absolute Advantage		
3)	The Theory of Comparative Advantage		
4)	The Heckscher-Ohlin Theory of Trade		
5)	New Trade Theory – An Introduction		
	The Mercantilists' View of International	Trade	
>	Mercantilism → derived from word 'merc	antile'→ " &aff	airs".
>	Mercantilism → was economic policy in _	from 16th to 18th cent	uries.
>	Mercantilism advocated	exports → to bring in more "	″ (money in
	form of) &	imports through imposing very high	tariffs.
>	This view argues that trade is a '	game′→ winners win only at	<u> </u>
	→ one country's gain is _	to another country's	
	→ so that net	or benefits <mark>among the participants is</mark>	
	The Theory of Absolute Advantage		
>	According to a	country will specialize in production	and export of
	commodity in which it has an		
>	The principle of absolute advantage	refers to the ability of a country	to produce a
	quantity of a G/S than comp	petitors, using the	
>	Principle of absolute advantage → uses	as the only input.	
>	Exchange of goods between two countr	ries will take place only if of	two countries
	can produce commodity at an absolu	utely production cost than	country.
		Productivity of Labour	
	Commodity	of Labour	
		Country A Country B	
	Wheat (units/hour) Cloth (units/hour)	6 1 4 5	
		<u> </u>	
A	has absolute advantage in production	of wheat, so country will expor	t & specialize
	in production of wheat		
A		uction of cloth, so country v	vill export &
	specialize in production of cloth		
✓	The above theory explained that		is possible.

	The Theory of	f Comparative Advanta	je		
A	This law, give	n by by sto	ates that even <mark>if one natio</mark>	n is efficie	nt than (has
	an absolute	wit	h respect to) <mark>other na</mark>	tion in productio	n of
	commodities,	there is	scope for		
			Productivity of Lab	our (Outbut ber	
		Commodity	Hour of Lab		
			Country A	Country B	
		Wheat (units/hour)	6	1	
		Cloth (units/hour)	4	2	
>	In above eg,	has absolute adva	ntage in production of botl	wheat & cloth	
	• Wheat[]			
	• Cloth []			
>	However, A ha	as	(comparative	advantage) in case	of
	Hence A shoul	ld specialize in <mark>product</mark>	ion & export of		
>	Further, B has	5	(comparativ	ve advantage) in ca	ise of
	Hence B shoul	ld specialize in <mark>product</mark>	ion & export of		
✓		(2009) calls	s comparative advanta	ge "	
	economic deve	<mark>elopment</mark> . "Even if a d	eveloping country lacks a	ın absolute advan	tage in any
	field, it will <mark>al</mark>	lways have	advantage in the p	production of	goods,"
	and will trade		with advanced economies.		
		er-Ohlin Theory of Trade			
>	Aka		Theory or	Theory or Hecks	scher-Ohlin
	Samuelson th	neorem			
>	This theory	states that compara	tive advantage in cost	of production is	explained
	exclusively by	/	of t	he nations .	
>	'' <u>Factor endou</u>	<mark>vment</mark> ' refers to <mark>overal</mark>	of usabl	e resources- <mark>labou</mark>	r & capital.
		a country tends to-			
		·	commodity whose produc	tion requires	
	use of	itsr			
			ity whose <mark>production</mark> 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'	Explains causes of differences in comparative costs as differences in
	Based ontheory of value	Based oncost - more
	Considered labour as factor of production one factor (labour) model	Widened scope - labour and capital as factors of production. It isfactor model
	Treats international trade as quite from domestic trade	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 differences inof	
	Does take into account the factor price differences	factor price differences as the main cause price differences
	New Trade Theory	
>	NTT (given by) he	
	countries are trade partners when they are tra	ding G/S. Eg- electronics, IT, cars
>	Those countries with wil	l dominate the market, & the market takes
	the form ofcompet	ition.
<i>></i>	Two key concepts give advantages to coun products from the home country	tries that import goods to compete with
		as well as market,
		of production & increase profits.
	2) Network Effects- The value of G/S is e	enhanced as
	using it This is calle	ed ' effect'. Consumers like
	but they al	so want G/S with, &
	network effect utility.	Eg- WhatsApp, Instagram, Windows etc

	Chapter 9 - International Trade Unit 2 – The Instruments of Trade Policy
	Basic Definitions
>	<u>Free Trade-</u> Buyers and sellers from separate economies voluntarily <u>trade</u> <u>with</u>
	of
<i>></i>	<u>Protectionism:</u> It is a state policy aimed to protect producers against foreign
	competition through the use of, & non-tariff trade policy instruments.
>	<u>Trade liberalization:</u> 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).
	Tariffs
>	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.
	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
	Tariffs are aimed at the relative prices of G/S imported, so as to domestic demand & thus of their
	Of their
>	Tariffs also of government.
	o, government
	Types of Tariffs
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.
	Disadvantage- Its protective value varies with price 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 <u>specific</u> <u>of imported goods</u>
	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 free to impose a tariff that is than bound level.
	Once bound, a tariff rate becomes & a member can only
	it after with trading partners & compensating them for possible losses.
11) <u>Applied Tariffs-</u> 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 rates on This type of
	tariff is as it protects manufacturing industries in
	countries & adversely affects industries ofcountries.
13)	Prohibitive tariff- It is set that no imports can enter.
	<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 priced
•	Dumping 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 justified domestic industry is
	by import competition, & protection is in
	. 9
17)	<u>Countervailing duties-</u> CVD is charged in an importing country to <u>advantage that</u>
	get from (from their govt.) to ensure fair pricing of
	imported G/S & thus protectingfirms.
	Effects of Tariffs
1)	Create obstacles to trade, decrease imp & exp. Mkt access ofcountry is worsened.
2)	Tariffs discourage domestic consumers from buying goods.
	consumers suffer a loss in
3)	Tariffs encourage consumption & production of domestically produced
	& thus protect domestic industries.
4)	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 new
	to industry to take advantage of high profits & hence increase in
6)	Tariffs increase government of importing country.
7)	It discourage production in & encourage
	inefficient prod. in country, by comparative advantage
	of foreign countries.

Non - tariff m	easures (NTMs)
	which conditions of international
	that restrict trade &
those that	facilitate it.
Technical Measures	Non-Technical Measures
Technical measures refer to	They relate to

	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- Set <mark>free trade level</mark> 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 quota is set free trade level, amount of imports will It will
	lower of good in domestic market & domestic price of
	consumer surplus ∈ producer surplus.
2.	<u>Price Control Measures</u> - These are steps taken to control prices of imported goods in order
	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.
✓	
	fixed percentage or by a fixed amount.
	fixed percentage or by a fixed amount.
✓	fixed percentage or by a fixed amount. Eg: A minimum import price established for sulphur.
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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)	<u>Distribution Restrictions</u> - <u>Limitations imposed on distribution</u> of goods in importing country
	involving additional orrequirement. These may relate to
	restrictions or restrictions as to who may resell.
	Eg: a restriction that imported fruits $ ightarrow$ 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
	for exported goods in the importing country. Such services may be reserved to of importing country.
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<u>Export-rela</u>		
These refer to all measures applied by g		
including both technical a	na	I learning the asures.
Ban on exports Eg- during periods of shortages, export of products such as onion, wheat etc. may be prohibited to make them available for domestic consumption Including both technical and a surface of graph of the country measure like existence of graph	olies res poi edi	Export Subsidies and Incentives n imports hurt exports & thus have developed of different types for exporters rt access to imported iates etc. ent usually provide financial ion to domestic producers in form s, loans, equity infusions etc. or le form of income or price support. Voluntary Export Restraints They refer to a type of informal quota
The effect of an export tax is to		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 considerations. The inducement for exporter to agree to a VER is mostly to importing country effects of possible trade restraints that may be imposed by the importer VERs may arise when import competing industries seek from of imports from particular exporting countries. VERs cause domestic prices to and cause of domestic consumer surplus

<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 et kins		
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	7.
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
<u> </u>	General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) was a multilateral trade agreement which
	provided rules of international trade from to (47 years)
A	GATT governed international trade working along with World Bank & IMF.
A	The round 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 liberalizing trade were not successful
7)	There were inadequacies in institutional &system
8)	it was <mark>a treaty</mark> & thus terms of GATT were binding only insofar as they are
	incoherent with a nation's domestic rules.
	Functions of WTO
1)	
1)	Acts as a forum for among member govt,
2) 3)	Administering trade, Reviewing,
4)	Assistingcountries in trade policy issues, through
7)	& &
5)	Cooperating with other organizations
	Objectives of WTO
A	The principal objective of the WTO is to facilitate flow of international trade smoothly,
	freely, fairly and predictably.
>	The WTO has six key objectives-
1)	to set and enforcefor international trade
2)	
3)	further trade
4)	totrade
5)	to increase of decision-making processes
6)	to cooperate with other major international economic institutions involved in global
	economic management, and
7)	to helpcountries benefit fully from

>	The objectives of the W	TO Agreements is also given in preamble 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 s	upported by a located in,
	headed by atiers	ystem of decision making
	1st level Ministerial Conference	> It takes decisions on all matters under any of the trade agreements.
	Level)	> It meets at least every years.
	2 nd Level General council	 It meets times a year at Geneva HQ. It also meets as the trade policy Review Body and the dispute settlement Body
	Goods council, services council and intellectual property (TRIPS) council	> These councils report to & are responsible for overseeing of WTO agreements in their respective areas of specialisation
	The Guiding Principles of Wo	rld Trade Organization (WTO)
1)	Most-favoured-nation (MFN)	– [Trade without discrimination]
>	-	ually -> Countries cannot between their
	trading partners.	
		our (such as a lower duty rate) then you have to do
	for all other WTO members.	
	Some exceptions are allowed	
✓	Countries can set up a	that applies only to goods traded
		— discriminating against goods from outside. Or
√		countries special access to their markets. Or
✓	A country canbo	urriers against products that are traded unfairly.
2)	At at least of the atom out	
	National treatment	
<i>></i>	<u> </u>	→ &
		tment as one's own nationals)
>	Charging customs duty on i	mport isa violation of national treatment even if
	locally-produced goods are n	ot charged an equivalent tax. (since it has entered yet)

3)	Freer trade: gradually, through negotiation
A	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
4	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 Uruguay Round of multilateral trade talks was to increase amount of
	trade under commitments.
~	
	In, 100% of products now have bound tariffs→ results in high degree of
	In, 100 % of products now have bound tariffs→ results in high degree of market security for traders & investors.
A	market security for traders & investors. Predictability & stability can be improve in other ways as well-
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	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, geographical indications,
	industrial designs, patents, etc. It also requires member countries to maintain high levels
	of intellectual property protection and administer a system of enforcement of such rights.
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 involvingWTO 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.
<u> </u>	Most controversial topic of Doha round was
	WTO Achievements
>	,
	&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.
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	Charten O Huit 4 O F and to be served from
	Chapter 9 - Unit 4 & 5 are to be covered from
	Super Chart Book only.
	<u> </u>

CA Foundation (New Syllabus)

Business Economics Abhyaas Notes

Chapter 10 Indian Economy

By CA Mohnish Vora (MVSIR)

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Summary of Important Points

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	STATUS OF INDIAN ECONOMY: PRE INDEPENDENCE PERIOD (1850 -1947)
~	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.
	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.
1	vital elements →King, Ministers, Farmlands, Fortresses, Treasury, Military and Allies.
_	
	Period of British Rule
<i>A</i>	Period of British Rule The period of British rule can be divided into two sub periods:
	Period of British Rule The period of British rule can be divided into two sub periods: Rule of East India Company from
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	Stagnated Nature of Industrialisation: During the Colonial Era
~	Indian cotton mill industry had million spindles in 1930s→ (5th position in no. of spindles)
>	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 producer goods industries→ did show expansion → because of pressure exerted by
	the English producers to development of industries in India which were
	likely to compete with them.
>	The share in Net Domestic Product (NDP) of manufacturing sector →in 1946.
	Indian Economy: Post-independence (1947- 1991)
>	At time of independence, India → literacy rate & yrs life expectancy in 1951. India's
	poverty was in terms of income & human capital.
>	Nehruvian model which supported social & economic &
	directed by the state came to dominate the post-Independence Indian economic policy.
>	Planning Commission of India established in → plan for economic development in
	line with socialistic strategy → through 5-year plans (First FYP- 1951)
>	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 1966 .
A	In first 3 decades after independence (1950–80), India's average annual rate of growth of
	GDP- 'Hindu growth rate'- 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.
>	With continuous failures of monsoon, two severe droughts struck India in&
>	The agricultural sector recorded substantial growth and India faced a serious
	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 nationalizing another in 1980 .
	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 three wars (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.
A	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 <mark>able to compete</mark> in the world market for these products labour
	laws also discouraged labour intensive industries.
	The Era of Reforms
>	The initiatives, spanning 1981 to 1989, were referred to as 'liberalization' which
	aimed at changing prevailing thrust on 'inward-oriented' trade and investment practices.
>	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 5.7 % and
	seventh plan period (1985–1990) was 5.8 %
>	The early reforms of 1980's covered three areas,&
	The prominent industrial policy initiatives during this period directed towards removing
	constraints on growth were:
✓	In 1985 delicensing of <mark>25 broad categories</mark> 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.
✓	The multipoint excise duties was converted into a modified value-added (MODVAT) tax
	which reduced taxation on inputs.
✓	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.
✓	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 alumi	<mark>num</mark> were entirely <mark>abolished</mark> .
✓	Based on the real effective exchange rate (REE	R), the rupee was depreciated by about
	30.0 per cent from 1985–86 to 1989–90.	
✓	The budget for 1986 introduced policies of-	
	*imports &	.60
	*tariffs.	
>	Thus, liberalization in the 1980s served as ne	ecessary for the more
	universal and organized reforms of the 1990s.	. 2
	The Economic Reforms of 1991	
>	The economic reforms in 1991 under the	government.
>	The causes attributed to the immediate need for	such a drastic change are:
	1) Large <mark>deficit</mark> (financed by <mark>huge</mark>	debt), & adverse balance of payments.
	2) Persistent huge deficits →	_ <mark>public debt →</mark> govt revenue used for
	payments	
	3)in oil prices (due to gulf war in 199	0) & thus strain on a balance of payments.
	4) The foreign exchange reserves touched	point → only \$ billion →
	sufficient for only	
	5) Tightening of import restrictions to colle	ct 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 condit	ions.
	7) Fragile political situation along with ecor	omic crises → led to 'crisis of confidence'.
>	1991 reforms→ known as LPG- Liberalization ,	
>	1991 reforms→ known as LPG- Liberalization, major objectives:	
>	major objectives:	
>	major objectives:	Privatization and Globalisation, had two
>	major objectives: 1) of economy controlled one to a ' friendly'	Privatization and Globalisation, had two
>	major objectives: 1) of economy controlled one to a ' friendly'	Privatization and Globalisation, had two from a centrally directed and highly or oriented economy.
A	major objectives: 1) of economy controlled one to a ' friendly'	Privatization and Globalisation, had two from a centrally directed and highly or oriented economy.
	major objectives: 1) of economy controlled one to a ' friendly' 2) stabilization by	Privatization and Globalisation, had two from a centrally directed and highly or oriented economy. substantial reduction in fiscal deficit.
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	major objectives: 1) of economy controlled one to a ' friendly' 2) stabilization by The policies can be broadly classified as: 1) stabilization measures → term adverse balance of payment, & 2) structural reform measures → t	Privatization and Globalisation, had two from a centrally directed and highly ororiented economy. substantial reduction in fiscal deficit. measures → for problems of inflation & erm → aimed at bringing in productivity &

	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.
	These included many measures, important among them are:
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 theCommittee Report, 1991.
4)	
	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
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	SEBI which was set up in was given statutory recognition in It is an independent regulator of the market → creates a transparent
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	The 'New Industrial Policy'
>	The 'New Industrial Policy' was announced on
	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
	• 9
5)	The policy ended the public sector monopoly 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 four sectors viz. retail trade, atomic energy, lottery business & betting
	and gambling.
7)	External trade was further liberalised by substituting 'the positive list approach' of
	listing license-free items on the OGL list with the negative list approach.
8)	In 1990-91 , the highest tariff rate was%. The top tariff rate was brought down to
	10% in 2007-08, with some exceptions such as automobile at 100%
9)	Rupee was devalued by% 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 budgetary support to public sector was progressively reduced.

	Notes
	. 5
	NITI AAYOG: A bold step for transforming India
> 1	Planning Commission was abolished in→ & on it was replaced
!	by(NITI) Aayog.
> -	The major objective of such a move was to-
	✓ ' <mark>spurthinking</mark> by objective 'experts', &
	✓ promote 'federalism' by enhancing the voice & influence of states'.
>	NITI Aayog is expected to serve as a of the government & a
	'directional and policy dynamo'.
> [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 theof electric vehicles
4.	is a destination for all information on electric vehicles

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 role→ does not produce national plans, control expenditures, or
	review state plans.
	It isfrom the budgeting process.
>	It lacks & balance of power within policy making apparatus of central govt.
~	The termination of Planning Commission \rightarrow 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 exemples
	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's producer 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).
	✓ world's largest(buffaloes).
<u> </u>	of India's population is directly dependent on agriculture for living. It contributed
	18.80% to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP).
	as the gress pomestic mediaco (451).
>	Food grains production has reached 315.7 million tonnes in 2021-22.
<u> </u>	Private investment in agriculture has increased to 9.3% in 2020-21.
>	Agri sector had a growth of 3.50% 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 responsibility of export of agri-products.

	A large number of measures were undertaken by government to improve agri. sector-
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
4)	Institutional credit for agriculture sector at rates
5)	Launch of the National Mission for Edible Oils
6)	Bima Yojana (PMFBY) – a novel insurance scheme 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 Soil Health Cards
9)	(PKVY) supporting and
	promoting organic farming, and improvement of soil health.
10)	Agri Infrastructure Fund, a medium / long term debt financing facility for investment in
	viable projects for post-harvest management Infrastructure and community farming
	assets
11)	Promotion of Farmer Producer Organisations (FPOs) to ensure better income for the
	producers through an organization of their own.
12)	(PDMC) scheme to increase water use efficiency at the farm level
13)	Setting up of Micro Irrigation Fund
14)	Initiatives towards agricultural mechanization
15)	Setting up of <mark>-a pan-India trading portal</mark> which networks the
	existing mandis to create a unified national market for agricultural commodities.
16)	Introduction offor improvement in farm produce logistics, and
17)	Creation of a Start-up Eco system in agriculture and allied sectors
II)	The Secondary Sector
>	Secondary sector contributes of total gross value added in the country and
	employing over 12.1 crores of people.
>	The industrial sector in India broadly comprises of- manufacturing, heavy industries,
	fertilizers, pharmaceuticals, chemicals and petrochemicals, oil and natural gas, food
	processing, mining, defence products, textiles, retail, micro, small & medium 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 India stood at 55.4.

>	
	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
0,	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
6)	14 key sectors to enhance India's manufacturing capabilities and export competitiveness.
٥)	
9)	
40)	infrastructure and to make available 'plug and play' infrastructure at the plot level.
10)	India Scheme (Faster Adoption and Manufacturing of Hybrid and Electric
44)	Vehicles) to promote of electric and hybrid vehicle technology
11)	''→ 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.
	Opening up for global investments: Make India a more attractive investment destination
14)	FDI under route is permitted for the sale of coal , and coal mining
	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)	Start-up India Programme → facilitator for ideas & innovation in the country. India's rank
	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.
	ndia is gearing up for 4 th industrial revolution or Industry 4.0 in which focus will be on- cloud computing, IoT, machine learning, & artificial intelligence (AI).
> .	Thewhich aims to increase the share of manufacturing in GDP to 25% by 2025 is a step in this direction.
	manujacturing in UPP to 25% by 2025 is a step in this airection.

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III)	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	trajectory 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	
	• 6		
>	The se	rvice sector refers to industry producing goods viz. services as output.	
>		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	proving contact is the description and has the highest labour	
>		ervice sector is the growing sector in India and has the highest labour stivity. The exceptionally rapid expansion of knowledge-based services such as	
	•	sional and technical services has been responsible for the faster growth of the	
	_	es sector.	
	30, 0,0		
>	The st	art-ups which have grown remarkably over the last few years mostly belong to the	
		s sector.	
>	India i	s among top WTO members in service exports and imports.	
>	India's	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.
>	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-
	Russia-Ukraine war,
	increased crude oil and commodity prices,
	> persistent global supply disruptions,
	> 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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