

Definition of DEMAND

- Demand is the amount of a good or service that consumers are willing and able to buy at various prices, over a particular period of time, ceteris paribus.

LAW OF DEMAND

- States that there is an **INVERSE** relationship between the **price** and the **quantity demanded** of a good, ceteris paribus.
- Hence, demand curve is ALWAYS sloping DOWNWARDS.

The Demand **CURVE**

- Changes in **Quantity Demanded**: Represented by a **MOVEMENT** along the curve. Affected by **price factors**.
- Changes in *Demand*: Represented by a <u>SHIFT</u> of the entire curve (leftwards if fall in demand and rightwards if rise in demand). Affected by **non-price factors**.



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Quantity

NON-PRICE factors affecting **DEMAND**

Expectation of future prices

Government Regulations

Y(I)ncome of Household

Price of related goods

<u>**T**</u>aste and Preference

Population changes

Interest Rates

<u>E</u>xchange Rates



Expectation of future prices

- When consumers <u>expect prices to increase in the future</u>, they tend to <u>buy more</u> <u>now</u> to avoid paying more in the future \rightarrow <u>RISE</u> in current demand.
- Tends to be non-perishable goods which can be stored over a long period of time (e.g. detergent, cup noodles, canned food).



<u>G</u>overnment Regulations

- Regulations can **forcefully** cause demand to rise or fall.
- E.g. Regulation that requires babies to be placed in baby seats \rightarrow <u>**RISE</u>** in demand for baby seats.</u>
- Excludes indirect taxes and subsidies as these affect price hence are **PRICE FACTORS**.



Y(I)ncome of Households

- When income rises, consumers tend to purchase more of a good, ceteris paribus \rightarrow <u>**RISE**</u> in demand of good.
- However, it depends on the **<u>nature of goods</u>** and the level of income.
 - **Normal** goods: Cars, movies, smartphones will enjoy a higher rise in demand when income rises.
 - **Inferior** goods: Budget mobile phones, poor quality rice will see a greater fall in demand when income rises.



Price of related goods

- <u>2</u> main types of related goods: Substitutes and Complements

Substitutes

 Can be used <u>in place</u> of another good (known as competitive demand) → Demand may fall due to innovation/other non-price related factors changing.

Complements

 Used on <u>conjunction</u> with another good (known as joint demand) → <u>Demand will</u> rise when demand of another product increases. [E.g. Petrol and Car]

Taste and Preference

- A more **IMPORTANT** determinant of demand.
- Tastes and Preferences are influenced by factors such as advertising, fashion trends, education, culture, health considerations \rightarrow Causes demand to <u>**RISE</u>** or <u>**FALL**</u>.</u>



Population changes

- With aging population → Demand for healthcare services and products will <u>RISE</u> as more consumers demand for it.
- With growing baby population \rightarrow Demand for strollers and baby powder will <u>RISE</u>.



Interest Rates

- Prompts consumers to buy more or less of a good.
- Applies more to big-ticket items such as cars and properties.
 - E.g. When mortgage rates increase \rightarrow Less affordable for people to borrow for a house due to higher costs \rightarrow Demand <u>FALLS</u>.



Exchange Rates

- Refers to current market price at which one currency can be exchanged for another.
 - E.g. If there is an appreciation for SGD, one SGD = more RM (malaysian dollar) \rightarrow Trips to Malaysia become cheaper $\rightarrow \underline{RISE}$ in demand for RM.





- Understand the difference between **demand** and **quantity demanded** and how they affect the demand curve.
- Remember that changes in price factors will change quantity demanded.
- Remember that changes in **<u>non-price</u>** factors will change **demand**.
- Non-price factors can come out as essay questions where you will need to identify the non-price factor stated in the preamble. This comes in conjunction with supply non-price factors.

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Price Elasticity of Demand [PED]

<u>Definition</u>

- PED measures the <u>degree of responsiveness</u> of quantity demanded due to a change in **price** of the same good, ceteris paribus.

Formula

PED = % change in Qdd / % change in Price

- ALWAYS negative due to law of demand. Usually ignore negative sign and just take absolute value.
- E.g. 10% increase in price causes a 50% decrease in Qdd \rightarrow PED = -5

TAKE NOTE!

Use **PED** if there is a change in <u>SUPPLY</u>.

[E.g. if there is an increase in supply → Use PED to show whether price/Qdd changed in a huge/small proportion as a result, as the type of elasticity (price elastic or inelastic) will determine this]



2 main **Types** of PED

Price Elastic Demand	Price Inelastic Demand
 Absolute value of PED lies between	 Absolute value of PED lies between
1 and infinite. Occurs when a change in price	0 and 1. Occurs when a change in price
causes a more than proportionate	causes a less than proportionate
change in Qdd. E.g. If PED=2, demand is price elastic	change in Qdd. E.g. If PED=0.5, demand is price
as a 1% fall in price brings a 2%	inelastic as a 1% fall in price brings a
increase in Qdd	0.5% increase in Qdd

Main **DETERMINANTS** of PED

<u>1. Number and Closeness of substitutes</u>

- The greater the number of substitutes and the closer the substitutes of a good \rightarrow MORE PRICE ELASTIC the demand for the good.
- When the price of good rises \rightarrow Qdd falls more than proportionately.
 - E.g. Nike shoes are more price elastic as there is always substitutes such as Adidas, Reebok, etc.

Availability of substitutes affected by:

- **Definition of good** [More price inelastic for goods which are broadly defined, e.g. Fanta vs drinking water (more broadly defined).
- **Nature of good** [The greater the need, the more price inelastic the demand, e.g. additives such as drugs, cigarettes]

Main **DETERMINANTS** of PED

Proportion of Income spent on the good

- The **higher** the income spent on the good→ <u>MORE PRICE ELASTIC</u> the demand for the good.
- When the price of good rises \rightarrow Qdd falls more than proportionately.
 - E.g. Cars vs Salt: Salt is price inelastic as it takes up a very small proportion of income as compared to a car hence changes in price will be more price elastic for the car.

Income Elasticity of Demand [YED]

<u>Definition</u>

- YED measures the <u>degree of responsiveness</u> of quantity demanded due to a change in **level of income**, ceteris paribus.

Formula

YED = % change in Qdd / % change in Income

- Can be positive or negative.
- E.g. 10% increase in income causes a 50% increase in Qdd \rightarrow YED = 5

2 main **Types** of YED

Positive YED value [+]	<u>Negative YED value [-]</u>
 Known as <u>NORMAL</u> goods. Rise in income → Leads to a rise in Qdd for the good. <i>E.g. Smartphones, tour packages.</i> Broken down further into <u>2</u> <u>subcategories [Necessities vs Luxury goods]</u>. 	 Known as INFERIOR goods. Rise in income → Leads to a fall in Qdd for the good. E.g. Value-dollar shop products.

NORMAL goods

Income ELASTIC demand	Income INELASTIC demand
 YED>1 Change in income causes a more than proportionate change in Qdd. Luxury goods like cars, club memberships are income elastic. 	 0<yed<1 <ul=""> Change in income causes a less than proportionate change in Qdd. Goods such as necessities like food are income inelastic. </yed<1>

Main **DETERMINANTS** of YED

1. Degree and necessity of the good

- The higher the degree of necessity of the good \rightarrow LOWER YED.
 - E.g. Basic goods like food, clothing will have a low YED while luxury goods like overseas holidays will have a higher YED.

2. Consumers' Income level

- For consumers with very low income levels → Food and clothing can be considered as luxuries while necessities to the richer lot. However, as their income increases → These items that were once luxury goods may become necessities.
- YED for the same good depends on income levels of the individuals or countries.

Cross Elasticity of Demand [XED]

<u>Definition</u>

- XED measures the <u>degree of responsiveness</u> of **quantity demanded** of good A due to a change in **price** of a different good B, ceteris paribus.

Formula

XED = % change in Qdd of good A / % change in Price of good B

- Cannot ignore sign and magnitude.
- E.g. 10% increase in price of good A causes a 50% decrease in Qdd of good B → XED
 = -5

2 main **Types** of XED

Positive XED value [+]
 <u>Rise</u> in price of one good → Leads to a <u>rise</u> in Qdd of another good. The two goods are <u>substitutes</u>. E.g. When the price of Pepsi increases → Less people will buy Pepsi and switch to relatively cheaper coke → Qdd of coke increases → Positive CED.

Main **DETERMINANTS** of XED

1. Magnitude

- The greater the magnitude \rightarrow Closer the substitute/complement of the 2 goods.
- The **closer** the substitute or the **stronger** the complementary relationship \rightarrow <u>Higher</u> absolute value of XED.



- Understand fully the various elasticity concepts of PED, YED, XED, PES (to be covered in another video). This consists of the **definition**, **magnitude**, **sign values**, etc.
- Be able to explain the different determinants of the various elasticities.
- Apply the elasticity concepts to demand/supply essay questions in a form of analysis and evaluation.

Test test



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Definition of **SUPPLY**

- Supply is the quantity of a good or service that producers are willing and able to sell at any given price, over a particular period of time, ceteris paribus.

LAW OF SUPPLY

- States that there is a **DIRECT** relationship between the **price** and the **quantity supplied** of a good, ceteris paribus.
- Hence, supply curve is **ALWAYS** sloping **UPWARDS**.
- At higher output levels, the marginal cost of producing increase, hence producers want to be compensated with higher prices so as to be willing to produce more → Qss will increase only if price increases.

The Supply **CURVE**

- Changes in **Quantity Supplied**: Represented by a **MOVEMENT** along the curve. Affected by **price factors**.
- Changes in *Supply*: Represented by a <u>SHIFT</u> of the entire curve (leftwards if fall in supply and rightwards if rise in supply). Affected by **non-price factors**.



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Quantity

NON-PRICE factors affecting **SUPPLY**

 \underline{W} eather

Expectation of future prices

 $\underline{\mathbf{T}}echnological \ Changes$

Price of related goods

Input Costs

Government Policies





- Changes in weather can affect the supply of some goods \rightarrow <u>**RISE</u>** or <u>**FALL**</u> in supply .</u>
 - E.g. The supply of lettuce can fall if there are prolonged droughts.


Expectation of future prices

 If market price of a good is expected to rise in the future → Producers will hold back supply and still in the future for higher price and profits → Results in a <u>FALL</u> in current supply.



$\underline{\mathbf{T}}echnological\ Changes$

- With technological changes → Producers can produce faster or more goods with each factor or production.
 - E.g. Pre-fabricated parts for construction off-site \rightarrow Supply for housing increases as more can be completed off-site.



Price of related goods

- <u>2</u> main types of related goods: Joint Supply and Competitive Supply

Joint Supply

- E.g. Beef & Hide (leather)
- If price of beef increases → Quantity supplied increases. While there is no increase in the price of hide → Supply increases due to killing of cows.

Competitive Supply

- E.g. Cattle vs Vegetables
- Increase in rearing of cattles due to increased price \rightarrow **Supply** of vegetables will fall even though there is no price changes as more land was taken up to rear cattles.

Input Costs

- When input costs increases \rightarrow Less profit will be made with the same selling price.

- 1. Increase in cost of factors of production \rightarrow Supply falls as producers are less willing and able to produce at the same price.
- 2. Increase in worker productivity → Results in a fall in costs of production as more goods can be produced with the same amount of labour. Hence, labour unit cost for one unit of good decreases.
- 3. Improvement in state of technology \rightarrow More goods can be produced with the same amount of resources \rightarrow Costs of one unit of good falls.

<u>G</u>overnment Policies

Subsidies

- With government subsidies \rightarrow Cost of production will be reduce by the subsidized amount \rightarrow Increases profit \rightarrow **Increase** in supply.

Indirect Taxes

- An additional cost to production \rightarrow Rises unit cost of good \rightarrow Fall in supply.



- Understand the difference between **supply** and **quantity supply** and how they affect the demand curve.
- Remember that changes in **price** factors will change **quantity supplied**.
- Remember that changes in **<u>non-price</u>** factors will change **supply**.
- Non-price factors can come out as essay questions where you will need to identify the non-price factor stated in the preamble. This comes in conjunction with demand non-price factors.

Test test



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Price Elasticity of Supply [PES]

<u>Definition</u>

- PES measures the <u>degree of responsiveness</u> of quantity supplied due to a change in **price** of the same good, ceteris paribus.

Formula

PES = % change in Qss / % change in Price

- ALWAYS **positive** due to the law of supply.
- E.g. 10% increase in price causes a 50% increase in Qss \rightarrow PES = 5

TAKE NOTE!

Use **PES** if there is a change in **DEMAND**.

[E.g. if there is an increase in demand → Use PES to show whether price/Qss changed in a huge/small proportion as a result, as the type of elasticity (price elastic or inelastic) will determine this]



2 main **Types** of PES

Price Elastic Supply	Price Inelastic Supply
 Absolute value of PES lies between	 Absolute value of PES lies between
1 and infinite. Occurs when a change in price	0 and 1. Occurs when a change in price
causes a more than proportionate	causes a less than proportionate
change in Qss. E.g. If PES=3, supply is price elastic as	change in Qss. E.g. If PES=0.7, supply is price
a 1% increase in price brings a 3%	inelastic as a 1% increase in price
increase in Qss	brings a 0.7% increase in Qss

Main **DETERMINANTS** of PES

<u>1. Availability and Mobility of Factors of Production</u>

- Greater factor mobility \rightarrow <u>More price elastic</u> supply.
- FoP can move from one use to another easily.
- In the long run \rightarrow Goods tend to be more price elastic \rightarrow Firms can find more FoP to increase Qss.

Main **DETERMINANTS** of PES

2. Level of Stocks or Inventories

- Greater availability and durability of stocks, the **more price elastic the supply**.
- When a good can be stored as part of its inventory without any loss of quality or incurring any undue expenses → Supply tends to be <u>price elastic</u> as long as there are stocks available.
- E.g. Canned foods are more price elastic than fresh fruits and vegetables.

Main **DETERMINANTS** of PES

3. Length and Complexity of production processes

- More **price inelastic** if production process is more complex and takes a long time.
 - E.g. Crops, oil \rightarrow Long cultivating processes \rightarrow Supply is **price inelastic**.
- Producers are unable to respond quickly to rise in prices as they cannot increase the Qss in a short time.
- The higher the availability of spare capacity → More **price elastic the supply** due to ability to respond quickly in the short run.



- Understand fully the various elasticity concepts of PED, YED, XED (Part 4), PES. This consists of the **definition**, **magnitude**, **sign values**, etc.
- Be able to explain the different determinants of PES.
- Apply the elasticity concepts to demand/supply essay questions in a form of analysis and evaluation.





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Price Adjustment



Microeconomics

Change in **DEMAND**

Change in Taste and Preference \rightarrow Increase in demand \rightarrow Demand curve shifts rightwards from D1 to D2.







Assuming SS remains constant \rightarrow At original price, P1, Qdd>Qss \rightarrow Creating a <u>shortage</u>.

Consumers will apply an **upward pressure** on price + Shortage causes price to rise \rightarrow Qdd will decrease while Qss increases.



When Qdd = Qss \rightarrow Market reaches a new equilibrium with a higher equilibrium price and quantity at P2, Q2.



Conversely, when there is a fall in demand $\rightarrow \underline{Surplus}$ occurs \rightarrow Fall in eqm price and quantity.

Change in **SUPPLY**

Change in technology \rightarrow Increase in supply \rightarrow Supply curve shifts rightwards from S1 to S2.







Assuming DD remains constant \rightarrow At original price, P1, Qss>Qdd \rightarrow Creating a <u>surplus</u>.

Producers are willing to accept a lower price to clear the surplus \rightarrow Qdd will increase while Qss decreases.



When Qdd = Qss \rightarrow Market reaches a new equilibrium with a lower equilibrium price and higher equilibrium quantity at P2, Q2.



Conversely, when there is a fall in supply $\rightarrow \underline{Shortage}$ occurs \rightarrow Rise in eqm price and fall in quantity.

Change in BOTH demand and supply

- When there is a change in both demand and supply, to determine the impact on equilibrium price and quantity \rightarrow Look at the **EXTENT** of each change.

Higher DD	Eqm Qty increases	Eqm Price increases
Higher SS	Eqm Qty increases	Eqm Price decreases
Effect of both	Eqm Qty increases	Eqm Price <u>UNCERTAIN</u> *

* Need to look at 2 cases (Increase DD>Increase SS) or (Increase SS>Increase DD).





- Understand how a <u>change in demand or supply</u> (increase or decrease) can have impacts on the equilibrium market price and quantity of a good/service.
- Understand how to write the price adjustment process in a neat and orderly causal linked fashion.
- Come up with <u>conclusive results</u> on the change in equilibrium price and quantity based on the question requirements (Is it an increase in demand but fall in supply?) Greater increase in demand than supply?).

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Total Revenue & Strategies [Impact of market outcome]

Microeconomics



Part 8A

- Definition of Total Revenue (producers).
- Consumer expenditure vs Producer revenue.
- How PED, YED, XED affects total revenue.
- Strategies which producers should employ, in order to maximise profits.

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Part 8B

- Consumer and Producer surplus

Consumer Expenditure vs Total Revenue

<u>Total Revenue</u> = Price × Quantity

- * Total Revenue is the **<u>SAME</u>** as Total Expenditure
- * Total Revenue = Producers
- * Total Expenditure = Consumers
- * Profit = Total Revenue Total Cost [Learn in a later video]



Changes in **PRICE** [**PED**]

- Changes in price will affect producers' <u>revenue</u> and consumers' <u>expenditure</u> \rightarrow This depends on the <u>PED</u> of the good.

1. Price Elastic Demand (PED>1)

- Total Revenue will increase when price **falls** for goods with a price elastic demand as this leads to a *more than proportionate* increase in Qdd.
- Hence, producers should <u>decrease price</u> to increase revenue.

2. Price Inelastic Demand (0<PED<1)

- Total Revenue will decrease when price falls for goods with a price inelastic demand as this leads to a *less than proportionate* decrease in Qdd.
- Hence, producers should **increase price** to increase revenue.

Changes in **PRICE** [**PED**]

Evaluation of PED

- Not easy to estimate PED value cause environment changes all the time.
- Ceteris paribus condition does not hold in the real world.
- Firms objective may be to maximise profits rather than total revenue.



Changes in **INCOME** [YED]

YED has an important effect on <u>resource allocation</u> and <u>output</u>.

- High YED: Very sensitive to a change in income.

<u>2 Cases:</u>

- Economic Boom \rightarrow Firms should stock up more **income elastic goods (luxury goods)** in anticipation of a more than proportionate increase in Qdd \rightarrow Increase TR.
- Economic Recession → Firms should reduce the scale of production and increase advertising efforts for <u>inferior goods</u>, and possibly focus resources to exports into other countries which can yield a greater TR.

 \rightarrow Companies need to focus on a <u>product mix</u> to maximise profits in different economic situations.
Changes in **INCOME** [YED]

TAKE NOTE:

- Only variable that can change is **INCOME**. Do **NOT** bring in marketing strategies like discounts.

Changes in **DIFFERENT PRODUCTS** [XED]

- XED is important for producers to estimate the effects on demand of their products when prices of related goods change.

1. Highly POSITIVE XED (Substitutes)

- Fall in price of Good A will take away a significant market share from Good B →
 Good A forced to respond by dropping price → Leads to a price war → Not desirable in the long run.
- Good A may engage in non-price competition such as aggressive advertisements and product innovation to boost sales $\rightarrow \underline{\text{Reduces CED}}$ with respect to rivals.
- However, if XED is low due to brand loyalty → Good A may choose to ignore fall in price of Good B.
- Alternatively, substitutes can consider merging to eliminate competition and gain market share.

Changes in **DIFFERENT PRODUCTS** [XED]

2. Highly NEGATIVE XED (Complements)

- Firms may want to collaborate with another firm that sells complementary goods by **jointly promoting** their products.
- **Joint promotion** can usually be seen frequently amongst airlines and tour agencies, mobile phones and mobile service providers.
- **Loss-leader strategy**: Producers of printers lower price so more consumers will buy printers and later end up spending more on printer ink cartridges.





- Understand how to derive total revenue.
- Explain how PED, YED and XED affects the total revenue earned by producers.
- Derive appropriate <u>strategies</u> which makes use of the knowledge on PED, YED and XED in order for producers' to maximise their profits.
- Tends to come out as essay questions.





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<u>Surplus</u>

[Impact of market outcome]

Microeconomics



Part 8B

- Consumer and Producer surplus

Part 8A

- Definition of Total Revenue (producers).
- Consumer expenditure vs Producer revenue.
- How PED, YED, XED affects total revenue.
- Strategies which producers should employ, in order to maximise profits.

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Consumer Surplus

- Consumer Surplus is the difference between the price that consumers pay and the price that they are <u>willing</u> to pay.
- It is the difference between equilibrium price and the demand curve.



Producer Surplus

- Producer Surplus is the difference between the price a firm receives and the price it would be willing to sell the good/service at.
- It is the difference between the **supply curve** and **market price**.



Consumer Surplus vs Producer Surplus

- Consumers can only gain consumer surplus if prices are kept low \rightarrow Firms have to keep prices as low and as competitive as possible in order for consumers' to gain.

- If markets were not competitive, the consumer surplus would be less and there would be greater inequality due to a <u>higher</u> amount of **producer surplus** relative to consumer surplus.



- Understand the definitions of consumer and producer surplus and be able to identify which part of the demand/supply curve indicates these surpluses.





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- 1. Price Controls
 - a. Price Ceiling

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- b. Price Floor
- 2. Indirect Taxes
- 3. Subsidies

Price Controls

- A policy where the <u>government</u> can control the price of a good either by setting a price ceiling [*maximum price*] or a price floor [*minimum price*] → Leads to an efficient allocation of resources.
- A form of government intervention.

Price Ceiling

- The MAXIMUM PRICE set by the government below market equilibrium price which is deemed too high.
 - E.g. Basic Necessities
- Achieves a lower rate of inflation.
- Achieves better income distribution \rightarrow Low-income households can afford.

Price Ceiling

Causal Links

- In order to protect consumers from paying a higher price at equilibrium price, the government sets maximum price → Creates a <u>shortage</u> (Qdd>Qss).
- The **greater** the PED/PES, the **larger** the shortage.



Price Ceiling

Evaluation

- Government can resolve the shortage through implementing additional policies.
 - **Rationing**: Allocate goods through non-price rationing schemes (coupons only, first-come-first-serve)
 - Subsidies: Subsidise producers to increase supply → The price can be maintained at Pmax but taxpayers may bear a higher tax burden.
- May not be fully effective due to emergence of black markets (some may come out to sell at higher prices)

Price Floor

- The <u>MINIMUM PRICE</u> set by the government <u>above</u> market equilibrium price which is deemed too low.
 - E.g. Protecting farmers from loss of revenue, setting minimum wage law to help unskilled workers.
- Achieves more equitable distribution of income.

Price Floor

Causal Links

- At the greater equilibrium price set, Qss > Qdd → Producers are trapped with surplus.
- The **greater** the PED/PES, the **larger** the surplus.



Price Floor

Evaluation

- To remove surplus, the government will purchase the surplus and sell it during a poor harvest or sell it abroad to other markets.
 - However, this may incur a high cost/expenditure by the government, if government is low on funds they may incur an **opportunity cost**.
- When price controls are used by the government, they prevent the *price mechanism* from clearing the market \rightarrow <u>Inefficient allocation</u> of resources.

- In general, indirect taxes imposed will increase cost of production → Results in a fall in supply.
- Consists of <u>2 types</u>:
 - **Specific Tax**: Fixed sum of indirect tax per unit sold (parallel leftward shift in SS curve).

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- Ad Valorem Tax: Tax of a certain percentage of the value of the good (pivotal leftward shift in SS curve). *E.g. GST*



Effects of an indirect tax:

1. For Price Inelastic in Demand goods

- Consumers less responsive due to lesser availability of substitutes.
- Greater consumer burden, lesser producer burden on surplus.

2. For Price Elastic in Demand goods

- Lower tax shared by consumers as when prices increase, consumers are able to switch to relatively cheaper substitutes.
- Greater producer burden, lesser consumer burden on surplus.

- 3. For Price Inelastic in Supply goods
 - Higher tax borne by producers.
- 4. For Price Elastic in Supply goods
 - Lower tax borne by producers.

Evaluation

- Taxes are feasible on goods which carry negative externalities (*covered in a market failure policies video*) as they can force consumers to internalise the costs of the good.
- Able to collect **tax revenue** which can be used to fund other sectors of the economy.
- However, it may not be **equitable** for the lower-income as it can cause the price of goods to rise significantly should the producer choose to transfer all costs onto consumers.

Take Note

Indirect Taxes are only levied on <u>PRODUCERS</u>.

Subsidies

- Causes the cost of production of producers to fall \rightarrow Increase in supply.
- Benefits of subsidies depend on PED & PES
 - More **price inelastic in demand** goods will cause a greater fall in price.



Subsidies

Evaluation

- Subsidies may result in the government incurring an **opportunity cost** in funding other sectors of the economy. This is especially so if the government is in debt and runs low on funds.
- Implementation of the exact amount of subsidies could also be flawed due to **imperfect information** hence over-subsidisation could be an issue.

Take Note

- Subsidies are only levied on **PRODUCERS**.

Quotas/Quantity Controls

- Quotas on certain goods/services can be imposed if the equilibrium output is deemed too high.
 - E.g. Certificate of entitlement

Evaluation

- However, policy could be limited by a lack of information
 - Occurs especially if the government is not aware of the optimal level of output to achieve.



- Explain and discuss the **different policies** used to tackle market inefficiencies which can be caused by changes in demand and supply.
- **Evaluate** each different policy in terms of whether they are feasible in terms of scale, costs, impacts, efficiency on allocation of resources (allocative and productive efficiency), equity.





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