CA Foundation – June 2024 (New Syllabus)

Business Economics Last Day Summary

By CA Mohnish Vora (MVSIR)

Note-

These notes are only a summary of some important topics of relevant chapters for LAST DAY STUDIES.

Students can refer following MVSIR's

- Micro Eco Shastra- for detailed topics
- Super Chart Book All important topics for revision

Students can order above books frommvsir.in (Super Charts can also be bought in e-book form)

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CA Mohnish Vora (MVSIR)

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Business Economics Last Day Summary

Chapter 6 National Income

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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 output of goods and services produced by it, which is measured by National Income.
- In order to calculate National Income, first we need to understand the concept of GDP.
- Gross domestic product (GDP) is a measure of-
 - √ monetary value of
 - √ all final
 - ✓ economic goods and services,
 - ✓ gross of depreciation,
 - ✓ produced within the domestic territory of a country
 - √ during a given time period.
- National Income is defined as the -
 - √ net value of
 - ✓ all economic goods and services
 - √ produced
 - ✓ within the domestic territory of a country
 - √ in an accounting year
 - ✓ plus the net factor income from abroad.

Also, according to the <u>Central</u> <u>Statistical</u> <u>Organisation</u> (CSO)

'National income is the <u>sum total</u> of factor incomes generated by the <u>normal residents</u> of a country in the form of <u>wages</u>, <u>rent</u>, <u>interest and profit</u> in an <u>accounting year</u>.

EXCLUSIONS FROM GDP & NATIONAL INCOME

- 1) Transfer Payments (Govt. making a payment, without goods or services received in return)
- 2) Financial transactions (Stocks & bonds transactions do not involve current production)

But, value of services accompanying sale (e.g. fees to agents/broker) is included.

- 3) Sale of 2nd Hand goods
- 4) Non-reported output illegal transactions. Eg narcotics and gambling

NOMINAL GDP VS REAL GDP

- 'Nominal GDP' or 'GDP at current prices' changes due to 2 reasons-
 - 1) Qty produced changes, and/or
 - 2) When market prices change.

Changes in GDP due to changes in price fail to explain performance of economy

Real GDP or GDP at constant prices is an

inflation adjusted measure of GDP

- Not affected by changes in prices;
- Changes only when there is change in qty produced.

Thus, Real GDP is a **better measure** of

economic well being

GDP Deflator

GDP Deflator = Nominal GDP x 100

Real GDP

Inflation rate = GDP deflator in Yr 2 - GDP deflator in Yr 1 x 100

GDP Deflator in Yr 1

DOMESTIC VS NATIONAL 'National' -> normal residents of a country who may be within or outside domestic territory of a country & is a broader concept compared to the term 'domestic'. > The term 'domestic' refers to production done by people WITHIN the domestic territory IMPORTANT FORMULAS Net Factor income from abroad (NFIA) Factor income earned by Factor income earned by factors domestic factors of production (-) of production of rest of world employed in rest of world employed in domestic territory Operating Surplus = Rent + Interest + Profit(also add Loyalty if given in Question) Total 8 Aggregates 3 Golden Rules of NI 5) GNP at MP GDP at MP Gross - Depreciation = Net 1) 6) GNP at FC 2) GDP at FC MP = FC + IDT - Subsidyor MP = FC + NIT 2) 7) NNP at MP 3) NDP at MP 8) NNP at FC 4) NDP at FC Domestic + NFIA = National 3) Net Domestic Product at Factor Cost (NDP FC) (aka. - Domestic Income or Factor Income earned in Domestic Territory) = Compensation of employees (+) Operating Surplus (+) Mixed Income National Income (NNPFC) = NDPfc + NFIA GDP Per Capita Measure of country's economic output per person. Indicator of standard of living of country GDP Per Capita = Real GDP / Total Population Basic Price Market Price Indirect Taxes and Subsidies Factor Price Basic Price = Production Taxes & Production Subsidies Production Product These are independent of the volume of actual production Taxes Taxes 2) Product Taxes & Product Subsidies Production Product Subsidy Subsidy Paid or received on per unit of product Personal Income Disposable Personal Income Income from domestic product It is a measure of amount of Income received by household accruing to private sector sector including Non-Profit money in the hands of the NDP fc Institutions Serving Households individuals that is available for from all sources their consumption or savings. Income from Prop. & Ent accruing to govt admin National Income Personal Income

Personal Income Tax

Non Tax Payment

+

income recd but not earned

income earned but not recd

_

Non

dep

dep

Savings

enterprises

of

Private Income

It is a measure of the income (both factor income and transfer income) which accrues to private sector from all sources within and outside the country.

Private Income Income from domestic product accruing to private sector Net factor income from abroad

- National debt interest
 - Current transfers from government & rest of world

Net National Disposable Income (NNDI) The amount of G/S domestic economy has at its disposal.

- National Income (NNP fc)
- + Net Indirect Taxes
- Net Current Trf. from rest of world
- GNDI = NNDI + Depreciation
- Ignore "Govt transfer pay" in calculation og GNDI / NNDI

Circular flow of income Circular flow of income refers to the continuous circulation of-

income generation & expenditure involving different sectors of the economy. There are 3 phases-

Firms produce G/S with help of factor services.

n phase

The flow of factor incomes in the form of rent, wages, interest and profits from firms to the households occurs

by factors is Exp. or Disposition consumption of G/S and investment goods. This exp. leads to further production of G/S & sustains circular flow.

Method	Data Required	What is measured?
Value Added Method or Product Method or Industrial Origin or Net Output Method	The sum of net values added by all the producing enterprises of the country	Contribution of production units
Factor Income Method or Factor Payment or Distributed Share	Total factor incomes generated in the production of goods and services	Relative contribution of factor owners
Expenditure method or Income Disposal	Sum of exp. of 3 spending units- 1. government, 2. consumer households, and 3. producing enterprises (firms)	Flow of consumption and investment expenditures

VALUE ADDED METHOD

Step 1- Calculate GVA for

Intermediate Cons.

Gross Value Added

Step 2- Calculate GVAmp by

GVA by Primary Sector

Step 3- Calculate

adding GVA of all sectors each sector

Value of Output

GVA by Secondary Sector +

GVA mp (GDP mp)

GVA by Tertiary Sector

NNP fc from GDP mp NNP fc (National Inc.)

GDP mb

(-) Depreciation

(+) NFIA

(-) Net Indirect Taxes

If "Value of Output" is not given separately, then

Value of Output = Sales (+) Change in Stock

(where→ Change in Stock = Cl. Stock - Op. Stock)

EXPENDITURE METHOD

Step 2- Calculate

NNP fc from GDP mp

NNP fc (National Inc.) Private Final Consumption

Formation (GDCF) (1)

Gross Domestic Capital Government / Public Final

Step 1- Calculate

GDP mp

Expenditure (PFCE) (C)

(GFCE) (G) Net Exports (X-M)

Consumption Exp.

GDP mp

+

=

- GDP mp (-) Depreciation

(+) NFIA

(-) Net Indirect Taxes

GDCF (if not given in Q)

- = Gross Domestic Fixed Capital Formation (H/B/G) (+) Inventory Investment
- (+) Net Acq. of Valuables

INCOME METHOD

- Compensation of Employees Operating Surplus (R, I, P)
- Mixed Income of Self-Emp +
- NDP fc =
- NFIA
 - NNP fc (National Income)

Comp. of Emp. does not include Employee's Contributio n to PF"

NI as per Inc. Method does not include-→Int. paid by govt/firm gains, → Capital windfall profits etc

NATIONAL INCOME IN INDIA

Ministry of Statistics and Programmed Implementation (MoSP&I)

> Central Statistical Organization (CSO)

National Accounts Division

National Accounts Statistics

Reliable statistical data is not available → not possible to estimate India's NI wholly by one method.

Therefore, a combination of methods is used.

- Value-added method -> commodity producing sectors like agriculture and manufacturing.
- > In small scale sector > income method, &
- In construction sector -> expenditure method.

Method used for National Income in developed economies:

Income method → most suitable

But, sometimes expenditure method also used.

SYSTEM OF REGIONAL ACCOUNTS IN INDIA

State Income or Net State Domestic Product (NSDP) is a measure in monetary 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 State Income Units of respective State Directorates of Economics and Statistics (DESs). CSO assists & advices in preparation

Certain activities such as railways, communications, banking and insurance and central government administration, that cut across state boundaries, and thus their economic contribution cannot be assigned to any one state directly are known as the 'Supraregional sectors' of the economy. The estimates for these compiled for economy as a whole & allocated to states on basis of relevant indicators.

Can GDP be index of welfare?

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

- a) Income distributions
- b) Quality improvements \rightarrow technological & managerial innovations.
- c) Productions hidden from govt.,

 → evading taxes or illegal (drugs, gambling etc.).
- Non-market production and Non-economic contributors > health, education levels etc.
- e) Economic 'bads' crime, pollution, traffic congestion etc which make us worse off.
- f) Volunteer work -> without remuneration
- g) Leisure time, fairness, gender equality, security of community feeling etc.,

Limitations And Challenges of NI

Conceptual difficulties

- lack of an agreed definition of national income,
- accurate distinction between final & intermediate goods,
- 3) issue of transfer payments,
- difficulty of incorporating distribution of income,
- 5) valuation of a new good at constant prices, and

Challenges

- Inadequacy of data and lack of reliability of available data,
- 2) absence of recording of incomes due to illiteracy and ignorance,
- 3) lack of proper occupational classification, and
- 4) accurate estimation of consumption of fixed capital
- 5) production for selfconsumption

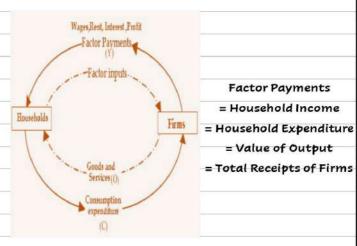
Chp 6: Determination of National Income Unit 2: The Keynesian Theory of Determination of National Income

INTRODUCTION

- In previous unit, 'ex post' (realized) values were used. In this unit, Ex-ante (anticipated) values are used, if we want to predict what equilibrium value of output or GDP is.
- Before Keynes, classical economists said that economy is self-regulating and is always capable of automatically achieving equilibrium at 'natural level' of real GDP
- However, Keynes in his "General Theory of Employment Interest & Money" > markets would not automatically lead to full-employment equilibrium, as prices & wages are sticky (rigid), especially downward. This prevents economy from returning to natural level of real GDP. So, output will remain at less than full employment level unless there is insufficient spending.
- Keynesian theory of income determination is presented in 3 models:
- 1) Two-sector = household + business,
- 2) Three-sector = household + business + government,
- 3) Four-sector = household + business + govt. + foreign

Circular Flow in a Simple Two-sector Model

- The <u>circular flow of income</u> is a process where the <u>national income</u> and <u>expenditure</u> of an economy <u>flow in a circular manner continuously</u> through time.
- Two sector economy model assumes
 only two sectors in economy viz.,
 households and firms, with only
 consumption and investment outlays.
- In the figure-
- □ Circular broken lines factor and product flows- 'real flows'
- Continuous line with arrows show money flows



Important Concepts

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

APC = C / Y

Consumption is decreasing function of income.

3) Marginal Propensity to Consume (MPC = "b")- Increment in consumer expenditure per unit

of increment to income. \rightarrow MPC = Δ C / Δ Y = b

✓ Keynes assumes that consumption increases with an increase in Yd, but that

increase in consumption < increase in Yd

- ✓ Value of MPC is between 0 & 1.
- ✓ MPC is also the slope of consumption line
- 4) Saving function- Functional relationship between saving & income \rightarrow S = f(Y) = -a + (1-b).Yd
- 5) Marginal Propensity to Save
- ✓ Increment in saving per unit increase in disposable income.

$$MPS = \Delta S / \Delta Y = 1 - b$$

2

MPC + MPS = 1 ; MPS 0 < b < 1

Also, MPS is slope of savings line

6) Average Propensity to Save- Ratio of total saving to total income. > APS = S / Y

Saving is increasing function of income.

- 7) Aggregate Supply (AS)- Ex ante or planned AS → total supply of G/S which firms plan on selling during a specific time period.
- ✓ AS = Agg. Production = Factor Payments = Factor Incomes [National Income→ Y]
- 8) Aggregate Demand (AD) Total planned expenditure in the economy.
- 9) Equilibrium output- Desired amount of output demanded = amount produced. (AD = AS)

Two Sector Model

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

Three Sector Model

- Household + Business + Govt Sector
- > AD = C + I + G
- (I & G are assumed to be constant)
- AS = C + S + T
- Fequilibrium is achieved when AD = AS or C + I + G = C + S + Tor I + G = S + T

Govt sector adds following flows to 2 sector model:

- 1) Taxes
- 2) Transfer payments & subsidy payments
- 3) Govt purchases
- 4) Govt borrowing to finance deficits (when G > T)

Four Sector Model

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

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

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

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

If (X > M) is +ve then NI increases.

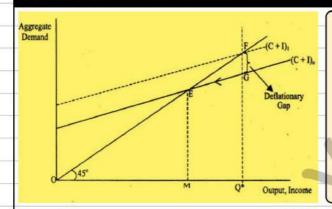
If (X > M) is -ve then NI decreases.

LEAKAGES & INJECTIONS

- Leakage- Outflow of income from circular flow) part of income not used to purchase goods.
- > 2 sector Model : Leakages = S
- > 3 sector Model : Leakages = S + T
- ➤ 4 sector Model : Leakages = S+ T + M
- □ Injection- It is an inflow of income to the circular flow. Due to injection, the volume of income increases.
- > 2 sector Model : Injection = 1
- > 3 sector Model : Injection = I + G
- ➤ 4 sector Model : Injection = I + G + X

- \Box If AS = AD \rightarrow Leakages = Inj. NI will be in equilibrium.
- ☐ If AS > AD → Leakages > Inj. Stock Surplus or Deficient Demand -> (NI will fall)
- ☐ If AS < AD → Leakages < Inj. Stock Shortage or Excess Demand -> (NI will rise)

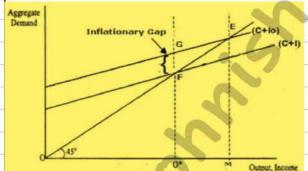
DEFLATIONARY & INFLATIONARY GAP



Deflationary Gap If actual AD < full employment level of output -> deficient demand.

It leads to gap' recessionary or contractionary gap'. Occurs when economy is in contraction.

Firms will experience unplanned build-up of inventories -> decrease in output & income future until under-employment equilibrium is reached at E.



Inflationary Gap

If actual AD > full employment level of output > excess demand.

It leads to 'inflationary gap',. Occurs during expansion & causes demand pull 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) -> how many times equilibrium NI (Y) increases as result of increase in autonomous investment (1).

More the leakages -> Smaller the multiplier

1 1 ΔУ 1 - MPC MPS

IMPORT Import function is-M = M + mYMarginal propensity to import -> $m = \Delta M / \Delta Y$ assumed to be constant.

How to solve Numerical SUMMARY OF MULTIPLIER MCQs of National Income?

> Will make students write above in marathon class on "Ultimate CA" YouTube Channel.

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Business Economics Last Day Summary

Chapter 8 Money Market

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Chapter 8 - Money Market 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.
- Fiat Money- Fiat money (aka. token money) has no intrinsic value (materially worthless), that is, it has no value if it were not used as money. It is used as medium of exchange as govt has, by law, made them "legal tender," which means, they serve, by law, as means of payment.

DEFINITION OF MONEY

Money can be defined for <u>policy purposes</u> as the set of <u>liquid financial assets</u>, the <u>variation</u> in the stock of which could <u>impact</u> on <u>aggregate economic activity</u>.

As a <u>statistical concept</u>, money could include certain <u>liquid liabilities</u> of a particular set of <u>financial intermediaries</u> or other issuers'.

CHARACTERISTICS OF MONEY

Money should be:

- > generally acceptable
- > durable or long-lasting
- > effortlessly recognizable.
- > difficult to counterfeit i.e. not easily reproducible by people
- relatively scarce, but has elasticity of supply
- > portable or easily transported
- possessing uniformity; and
- divisible into smaller parts in usable quantities or fractions without losing value

FUNCTIONS OF MONEY

- 1) Convenient medium of exchange
- 2) Explicitly defined unit of value or unit of account
- 3) Serves as a unit or standard of deferred payment
- 4) Store of value

DEMAND FOR MONEY

- If people desire to hold money, we say there is demand for money.
- > Demand for money is in the nature of derived demand; it is demanded for its purchasing power.

THEORIES OF DEMAND FOR MONEY

I) CLASSICAL APPROACH: QUANTITY THEORY OF MONEY

- Given by Irving Fisher in his book 'The Purchasing Power of Money'
- As per QTM, money in circulation (M) & price level (P) are directly 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. 'equation of exchange' or 'transaction approach'

MV = PT

Later, Fisher extended the equation of exchange to include demand (bank) deposits (M') and their velocity (V')

Expanded Form : MV + M'V' = PT

As per QTM, people would **hold money** in a quantity **proportional to total transactions** irrespective **of interest rate** [More Transactions -> More Demand of Money]

II) CAMBRIDGE APPROACH

- Aka Cash Balance Approach or Neo-Classical Theory
- Money increases utility in the following two ways-
 - 1) Split-up of sale and purchase to two different points of time (transaction motive)
 - 2) hedge against uncertainty. (temporary store of wealth)
- > Since sale & purchase do not take place simultaneously, people need 'temporary abode' of purchasing power as hedge against uncertainty.
- > How much money will be demanded as per Cambridge Approach?
- → Higher the income -> greater the transactions -> greater demand for money.

Md = k PY

PY = nominal income,

k = Cambridge k = proportion of nominal income (PY) that people want to hold as cash

lil) Keynesian Theory of Demand for Money

Aka. 'Liquidity Preference Theory' > people demand money for three motives:

Transactions motive, Precautionary motive, & Speculative motive

a) Transactions motive

Money for current transactions for personal & business exchange (income motive & business motive).

Money is demanded to bridge time gap between receipt of income & planned exp.

Transaction demand for money is directly related to level of income

Lr = kY

k is the ratio of earnings which is kept for transactions purposes

b) Precautionary motive

Portion of income kept to finance unanticipated exp which occur due to unforeseen contingencies.

Precautionary money balances are income elastic and & interest inelastic

c) Speculative motive

People also demand money to take advantage of future changes in rate of interest, which is same as future changes in bond prices. (to exploit any attractive investment opportunity)

Assumed that return on money is zero, while returns on bonds are of two types: interest payment & capital gain

Market Value of Bond inversely related to Market Rate of Interest

Current rate of Critical rate interest (rn) of interest (rc)

Current rate of Critical rate interest (rn) of interest (rc)

People expect a fall in interest
rate (rise in bond prices)

People will convert their cash

balances into bonds

(SDM Decr & Bond Incr)

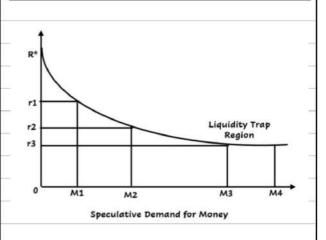
People expect a rise in interest rate (fall in bond prices)

People would hold their wealth in **liquid cash** rather than bonds. (SDM Incr & Bond Decr)

Individual's Speculative Demand for Money

rn > rc rn < rc M2 Speculative Demand for Money

Aggregate Speculative Demand for Money



Economics Summary Liquidity Trap When interest rates fall to very low levels, the expectation is that now cannot go further lower & will move upwards in future. > Thus, when interest rates rise in future, the bond prices will fall leading to taking risk of a capital loss in future Thus at such low interest ratesdesire to hold bonds is very low and approaches zero, and demand to hold money in liquid form approaches infinity. The speculative demand of money curve becomes parallel to the X axis, i.e, perfectly elastic with respect to interest rate. This situation is called a 'Liquidity trap'. (ineffective monetary policy) Empirical evidence of Liquidity Trap is found during "Global Financial Crisis (2008)" Post-Keynesian developments in Theory of Demand for Money IV) Inventory Approach to Transaction Balances Aka. Inventory Theoretic Approach price theory. > Given by Baumol and Tobin, in which money is viewed as an inventory held for money for transaction purposes. > Inventory models assume that there are two media for storing value: asset 1) Money & interest-bearing 2) an alternative financial asset > There is fixed cost of making transfers between money & alternative assets e.g. brokerage holdings > As per Baumol, people hold an optimum combination of bonds and cash balance, i.e., an amount that minimizes opportunity cost. > The level of inventory holding (holding money in cash)-

Restatement of Quantity Theory

V) Friedman's

Milton Friedman extended Keynes' speculative money demand within the framework of asset

Friedman's four determinants of the demand

1. Total wealth = Permanent Income / discount

Where, discount rate is average return on five

- 2. Positively related to the Price Level, P
- 3. Rises if opportunity costs of money holdings (i.e. returns on bonds and stock) decline
- 4. Inflation Positive inflation rate reduces the real value of money balances, thereby increasing the opportunity costs of money

IV) Inventory Approach Balances

Given by Tobin in his article, 'Liquidity Preference as Behaviour towards Risk'

This theory is based on the principles of "Portfolio Management"

An individual would hold optimally structured portfolio which is comprised of both

- > Bonds- (provides return for the risk borne)
- > Money- (No return, but also no risk) Just as Keynes' theory, Tobin's theory also implies that demand for money depends negatively on the interest rate.

☐ Carrying cost

made

is DIRECTLY RELATED to

money and bonds

is INDIRECTLY RELATED to

☐ Cost of making transfer between

Number of times bond transaction are

☐ Income of person

Chapter 8 - Money Market Unit 2 - CONCEPT OF MONEY SUPPLY

BASICS

- The term money supply denotes the total quantity of money available with public
- Two things about any measure of money supply:

Supply of money is a stock variable

Change in stock of money is a flow variable

It refers to stock of money available to 'public'.

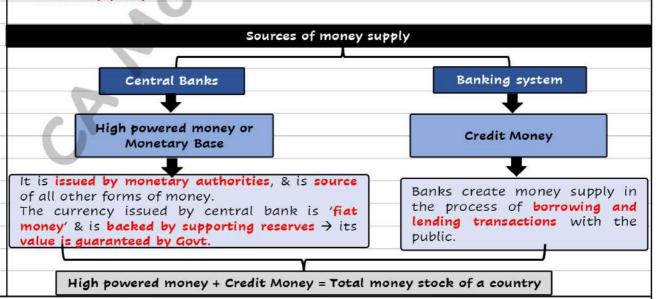
This is always smaller than the total stock of money that really exists in economy.

- > 'Public' all economic units except the producers of money (i.e. the government and the banking system).
- ➤ Government = CG, all SGs, and local bodies.
- Banking system means RBI and all banks that accept demand deposits
- Thus, 'supply of money' EXCLUDES
 - interbank deposits and
 - ☐ money held by government and
 - ☐ money held by banking system

Rationale of measuring money supply

Empirical analysis of money supply is important because-

- 1) Facilitates analysis of monetary developments > to understand causes of money growth.
- 2) Provides a framework to evaluate whether money supply is consistent withstandards for price stability and to understand nature of deviations. It helps in making monetary policy



- The concept of money has experienced evolution from Commodity to Metallic to Paper to Digital Currency.
- Reserve Bank has introduced a concept of Central Bank Digital Currencies (CBDCs)- as legal tender issued by a central bank in a digital form. It is like sovereign paper currency but takes a different form, exchangeable at par with existing currency and shall be accepted as a medium of payment, legal tender and a safe store of value. CBDCs would appear as liability on a central bank's balance sheet.
- > Also, Crypto currencies are not legally recognized in India as currency & are not money.

Measurement of money supply

- Reserve money (M0) is aka. central bank money or base money or high-powered money Reserve money determines -
 - ✓ level of liquidity and
 - ✓ price level in economy and,

thus, its management is of crucial importance to stabilize the economy.

	Reserve Money (M0)	X
+	Other deposits with the RBI	
+	Bankers' deposits with RBI	
	Currency in circulation	

9	M1 (Narrow Money)
+	Other deposits with RBI
+	Demand deposits with banks (Current A/c & Saving A/c)
	Currency with Public

	M1
+	Savings dep with Post Office
	M2

M3 (Broad Money)		
Time deposits with Banks		Currency
M1		Cash on
		Casla sia

	M3
+	Total dep. with Post Office (excl. National Savings Cert.)
	M4

	Currency with Public	
-	Cash on Hand with Banks	
+	Circulation of Small Coins	
+	Circulation of Rupee Coin	
	Notes in Circulation	

Difference M0 & M1	мо	M1
Bank Reserves	Ø	8
Bank Deposits	8	

- > The above are given in descending order of liquidity -M1 (Most Liquid) & M4 (Least Liquid)
- 'Other deposits' with the RBI excludes those held by govt (Central & State Govt.)

Money Multiplier (m)

The money multiplier process explains how an increase in monetary base causes money supply to increase by a multiplied amount

1st Formula

Money supply (M) Money Multi

Money Multiplier (m) = Monetary Base (MB)

where, Monetary Base = Currency in circulation + Bank reserves

Money Multiplier (m) = $\frac{1+c}{r+e+c}$

where,

> c = currency ratio = currency / dep.

2nd Formula

- > r = required reserve ratio
- = required reserves / deposits
- > e = excess reserve ratio
- = excess reserves / deposits

3rd Formula

If we assume-

- 1) Banks never hold excess reserves. (e = 0)
- 2) Individuals and non-bank corporations neverhold currency (c = 0)

Then, money multiplier is reciprocal of the required reserve ratio.

Money Multiplier (m) = 1 / Required Reserve Ratio = 1 / R

m = 1/R

Above formula can also be referred as

Credit Multiplier or Deposit Multiplier or Deposit Expansion Multiplier

It describes amount of additional money created by commercial bank through process of lending the available money it has in excess of central bank's reserve requirements.

Determinants of Money Supply

- Money multiplier approach to money supply given by Milton Friedman and Anna Schwartz, (1963) considers three determinants-
 - 1. Stock of high-powered money (H) → Depends upon Behaviour of Central Bank
 - 2. Reserve-ratio (r) = R / D Depends upon Behaviour of Commercial Banks
 - 3. Currency Deposit Ratio (c) = $C/D \rightarrow$ Depends upon Behaviour of Public
- 1. Stock of high-powered money (H)
- Money supply varies directly with supply of high-powered money.
- 2. Reserve-ratio (r) = R / D
- > If required reserve ratio increases -
 - ✓ banks will decrease lending,
 - ✓ causing a decline in deposits
 - and hence money supply will decline vice versa
- > Smaller the 'r' -> larger the 'm'

- Excess Reserves (ER) are funds that a bank keeps as reserve beyond what is required by regulation as a buffer against unexpected events requiring cash.
 - ☐ Excess reserves (ER) = Total reserve (TR) Reqd. Reserve (RR)
- Excess Reserves do not lead to any additional loans.
- > Smaller the Excess Reserve Ratio 'e' -> larger the 'm'
- When opportunity cost to bank of holding ER rises, level of ER falls m will be larger
- If expected deposit outflows increase, banks will will increase ER ratio. Thus, m will fall
- > Eg- During festival season, people decide to use ATMs very often
- 3. Currency Deposit Ratio (c) = C / D
- If public keeps more money in cash, leads to an increase in 'c' & banks can create less credit money, thus m falls.
 - Eg- Fearing shortage of money in ATMs, people decide to hoard money
- Currency-deposit ratio (c) also represents degree of adoption of banking habits by people, affected by degree of financial sophistication, 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 reduce 'c'; thus increasing 'm' & money supply
- ☐ The time deposit-demand deposit ratio (TD/DD ratio) i.e. how much money is kept as time deposits compared to demand deposits.
- An increase in TD/DD ratio > higher the 'm'

Monetary Policy and Money Supply

If the central bank of a country wants to **stimulate economic activity** it does so by **infusing liquidity into the system**.

Eg - Open Market Operations (OMO) by central banks.

Purchase of govt. securities injects high powered money (monetary base) into system.

$$\Delta$$
 Money Supply = $\frac{1}{R}$ X Δ Reserves

Effect of government expenditure on money supply

When RBI lends to governments under Ways & Means Advances (WMA)/overdraft (OD)

→ leads to generation of excess money supply in economy through money multiplier process.

Chapter 8 - Money Market UNIT 3 - MONETARY POLICY

Introduction

- > RBI uses monetary policy to manage economic fluctuations & achieve price stability, which means that inflation is low and stable.
- 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 easing.
- √ When it raises interest rates, monetary policy is tightening

The Monetary Policy Framework

It has three basic components-

- (i) objectives of monetary policy,
- (ii) analytics of monetary policy which focus on transmission mechanisms, &
- (iii) operating procedure which focuses on operating targets & instruments

Objectives of monetary policy

The primary objective of monetary policy is maintenance of judicious balance between price stability & economic growth.

Objectives of Monetary Policy in case of developing countries

- 1) maintenance of economic growth
- 2) ensuring adequate flow of credit to productive sectors
- 3) sustaining a moderate structure of interest rates,
- 4) creation of an efficient market for govt securities.

Transmission of Monetary Policy

It describes how changes made by RBI to its monetary policy settings flow through to economic activity and inflation.

The transmission has two stages.

- 1. Changes to monetary policy affect interest rates in economy.
- 2. Changes to interest rates affect economic activity & inflation

Channels of Monetary Policy Transmission

- 1) Saving and Investment Channel
- 2) Cash-flow Channel
- 3) Asset Prices and Wealth Channel
- 4) Exchange Rate Channel

Operating Procedures and Instruments				
Outputies the stands				
Credit	control tools that	t impact mo	Quantitative tools oney supply of entire economy	
1.	Reserve Ratio	Reserve r	ratio is of two types-	
1a.	Cash Reserve Ratio (CRR)		e required to set aside a portion of NDTL in cash with not required to pay interest on CRR amount.	
1b.	Statutory Liquidity Ratio (SLR)	itself, in	e also required to set aside a portion of NDTL with form of liquid assets- cash, gold or RBI approved Banks are allowed to earn interest on these securities.	
2.	Open Market Operations (OMO)	When RB from mar The ob	and sells government securities in the market. I sells government securities, the liquidity is sucked rect. I it is done to control inflation. Jective is to keep a check on temporary liquidity These in market owing to foreign capital flow.	
	are selective crea	lit control 1	Qualitative tools tools that have affect money supply of specific sector :	
1.	Margin require	ments	When margin requirements are raised→ customer borrow less	
2. Moral suasion			By way of persuasion, the RBI convinces banks t keep money in government securities, rather tha certain sectors.	
3.	Selective credi	t control	Controlling credit by not lending to selectivindustries.	
Market Stabilisation Scheme (MSS) Under MSS, the Govt of India borrows from RBI (additional to normal borrowing) and issues treasury-bills, for absorbing excliquidity from market arising from large capital inflows.		rrowing) and issues treasury-bills, for absorbing exces		
			Policy Rates	
1.	Bank Rate	Aka. Disc Bank rat	est rate at which RBI lends long term funds to bank ount rate. e is used to prescribe penalty to bank if it does no prescribed SLR or CRR	
2.	Liquidity Adjustment Facility (LAF)		LAF as an instrument to adjust liquidity and apply. The following types of LAF are-	
2a.	Repo Rate		Repo rate is the rate at which banks borrow from RBI on a short-term basis against a repurchase agreement.	
2Ь.	Reverse Repo Rate	It is the reverse of repo rate, i.e., this is the rate RBI pays to banks in order to keep additional funds in RBI. It is linked to repo rate -> Reverse Repo Rate = Repo Rate - 1		
3.	Marginal Standing Facility (MSF) Rate	over the	e is the penal rate at which RBI lends money to bank : rate available under the rep policy . Banks availing MS use a maximum of 1% of SLR securities . MSF Rate = Repo Rate + 1	

Organisational Structure For Monetary Policy Decisions It is an agreement reached between the Government of India and the RBI on the maximum tolerable inflation rate that the RBI should target to achieve price stability. > Announcement of an official target range for inflation is known as inflation targeting. ('Flexible inflation targeting framework') The inflation target is to be set by the Government of India, in consultation with RBI, once in every five years. Accordingly, Central Government has notified-4 per cent Consumer Price Index (CPI) inflation as the target for period from Aug 5, 2016 to Mar 31, 2021 with the-√ upper tolerance limit of 6 per cent and √ lower tolerance limit of 2 per cent. Monetary Policy Report is to be published every 6 months, explaining sources of inflation & forecasts of inflation for the coming 6-18 months The following are factors lead to a failure to achieve inflation target Average inflation > upper tolerance level, for any three consecutive quarters; or Average inflation < lower tolerance level, for any three consecutive quarters. Monetary Policy Committee (MPC) It is a 6-member committee consisting of-RBI Governor (Chairperson), > RBI Deputy Governor in charge of monetary policy, > One official nominated by the RBI Board and Remaining three central government nominees representing Govt of India MPC is required to meet at least 4 times a year & decisions adopted by MPC are published after conclusion of every meeting. MPC shall determine policy rate required to achieve inflation target.

CA Foundation – June 2024 (New Syllabus)

Business Economics Last Day Summary

Chapter 10 Indian Economy

By CA Mohnish Vora (MVSIR)

Note-

These notes are only a summary of some important topics of relevant chapters for LAST DAY STUDIES.

Students can refer following MVSIR's Books-

- Micro Eco Shastra- for detailed topics
- Super Chart Book All important topics for revision

Students can order above books frommvsir.in (Super Charts can also be bought in e-book form)

Enroll in classes from- www.ultimateca.com
Buy Books from- www.mvsir.in
Telegram Channel- @camvsir

STATUS OF INDIAN ECONOMY: PRE INDEPENDENCE PERIOD (1850 -1947)

- ▶ Between 1st & 17th century AD→ India was largest economy of ancient & medieval world.
- > It was prosperous & self-reliant → controlled between 1/3rd & 1/4th of world's wealth.
- Agriculture was dominant occupation, & main source of livelihood for majority of people.
- It also had a highly skilled set of artisans & craftsmen who produced handicrafts & textiles.

Ancient Economic Philosophy of India

- The earliest treatise on ancient Indian economic philosophy is 'Arthashastra' by Kautilya (Chanakya) (321–296 BCE).
- Arthashastra -> important works on statecraft in the genre of political philosophy.
- > 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 material well-being.
- Arthashastra

 science of 'artha' or material prosperity, or "the means of subsistence of humanity," which is, primarily, 'wealth' and, secondarily, 'the land'.
- ➤ Major focus → means of fruitfully maintaining and using land.
- > Kautilya emphasized on robust agricultural initiatives which will fill state's treasury.
- ➤ Taxes → charged equal for private & state-owned business, fair to all & easily understood.
- > True kingship -> ruler's subordination of his own desires to the good of his people;
- > King's policies should reflect -> concern for greatest good of greatest number of his subjects.
- > 7 vital elements ->King, Ministers, Farmlands, Fortresses, Treasury, Military and Allies.

Period of British Rule

- The period of British rule can be divided into two sub periods:
 - ☐ Rule of East India Company from 1757 to 1858
 - ☐ British government in India from 1858 to 1947
- Industrial revolution in Britain in latter half of 18th century → required raw material & markets for finished goods → led to change in nature of India's foreign trade from exporter of manufactures to exporter of raw materials
- Indian exports of finished goods were subjected to heavy tariffs and the imports were charged lower tariffs under the policy of discriminatory tariffs followed by the British.

 This made the India's exports of finished goods costlier & imports cheaper. Thus, Indian goods lost their competitiveness.
- > The following led to destruction of Indian handicrafts & manufactures
 - > external & domestic demand for indigenous products fell sharply
 - hostile imperial policies to serve British interests & competition from machinemade goods
 - Problem aggravated by shift in demand by domestic consumers favouring foreign goods as Indians wanted to affiliate themselves with western culture & life.

Stagnated Nature of Industrialisation: During the Colonial Era

- > Indian cotton mill industry had 9 million spindles in 1930s→ (5th position in no. of spindles)
- > Jute mills expanded rapidly in Calcutta → global demand for ropes. At the end of the 19th century, Indian jute mill industry was largest in world in amount of raw jute consumed.
- Heavy industries like iron industry were established in 1814 by British capital.
- India's iron industry was ranked 8th in world in terms of output in 1930.
- Before Great Depression(1930), India was ranked 12th largest industrialised country measured by the value of manufactured products.
- The producer goods industries did not show expansion because of pressure exerted by the English producers to discourage development of industries in India which were likely to compete with them.
- > The share in Net Domestic Product (NDP) of manufacturing sector → 7% in 1946.

Indian Economy: Post-independence (1947- 1991)

- At time of independence, India → literacy rate 18% & 32 yrs life expectancy in 1951. India's poverty was in terms of income & human capital.
- Nehruvian model which supported social & economic redistribution and industrialization directed by the state came to dominate the post-Independence Indian economic policy.
- ➤ Planning Commission of India established in 1950 → plan for economic development in line with socialistic strategy → through 5-year plans (First FYP- 1951)
- Rapid industrialization of economy was cornerstone of Nehru's development strategy.
- > The concept of 'planned modernization' meant a systematic planning to support industrialization. (bureaucrats and technocrats)

Industrial Policy Resolution

- The Industrial Policy Resolution (1948) -> expanded role of public sector & licensing to the private sector. It granted state (govt.) monopoly for strategic areas such as
 - atomic energy, arms and ammunition, & railways.
 - 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. Nehru's visualization to build a socialistic society with emphasis on heavy industry, and
- 2. The Gandhian philosophy of small scale and cottage industry and village republics

- The Industrial Policy Resolution of 1956

 framework for industrial development, but was lopsided as it supported enormous expansion of scope of public sector. (lead to dampening 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.
- In first 3 decades after independence (1950-80), India's average annual rate of growth of GDP- 'Hindu growth rate'- was 3.5 %.

Agriculture Issues & Green Revolution

- > Strategy for agricultural development till mid 1960s was reliance on institutional 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 1966 & 1967.
- The agricultural sector recorded substantial negative growth and India faced a serious food problem. India had to depend on the United States for food aid under PL 480.
- ➤ Restructuring of agricultural policy → 'green revolution' was initiated soon → which was materialised by-
 - > innovative farm technologies, including high yielding seed varieties &
 - > intensive use of water, fertilizer and pesticides

Nationalisation of Banks

- The government nationalized-
 - √ 14 banks in 1969 and
 - ✓ then followed it up with nationalizing another 6 in 1980.

Indian Economy - Worst Performance

- > The economic performance during "1965-81" 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 large firms which had relatively large market power. Several restrictions were placed on them in terms of licensing, capacity addition, mergers and acquisitions.
- Thus, policies restricting the possibility of expansion of big business houses kept their entry away from nearly all but a few highly capital intensive sectors.

Reservation for Small Scale Sector

- In 1967, many products were reserved for exclusive manufacture by the small scale sector
- It was thought that this policy will encourage labour-intensive economic growth & allow redistribution of income.
- However, this policy excluded all big firms from labour intensive industries and India was not able to compete in the world market for these products. Stringent labour laws also discouraged labour intensive industries.

The Era of Reforms

- The initiatives, spanning 1981 to 1989, were referred to as 'early liberalization' which aimed at changing prevailing thrust on 'inward-oriented' trade and investment practices.
- This liberalization is often referred to as 'reforms by stealth' 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-industry, trade and taxation.
- The prominent industrial policy initiatives during this period directed towards removing constraints on growth were:
- ✓ In 1985 delicensing of 25 broad categories of industries was done.
- ✓ The facility of 'broad-banding' was accorded for industry groups to allow flexibility and rapid changes in their product mix without going in for fresh licensing.
- The asset limit above which firms were subject to MRTP regulations was raised from 20 crore to 100 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 April 12, 1988
- ✓ 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 expand exports & reduced pressure on foreign exchange needed for imports
- Price and distribution controls on cement and aluminum were entirely abolished.
- Based on the real effective exchange rate (REER), the rupee was depreciated by about 30.0 per cent from 1985-86 to 1989-90.
- ✓ The **budget for 1986** introduced policies of
 - cutting taxes further,
 - liberalising imports &
 - reducing tariffs
- > Thus, liberalization in the 1980s served as necessary foundation for the more universal and organized reforms of the 1990s.

The Economic Reforms of 1991

- The economic reforms in 1991 under the Narsimha Rao government.
- > The causes attributed to the immediate need for such a drastic change are:
 - 1) Large fiscal deficit (financed by huge debt), & adverse balance of payments.
 - Persistent huge deficits → swelling public debt → govt revenue used for interest payments
 - 3) Surge in oil prices (due to gulf war in 1990) & thus strain on a balance of payments.
 - 4) The foreign exchange reserves touched lowest point → only \$1.2 billion → sufficient for only two weeks of imports.
 - 5) Tightening of import restrictions to collect forex for essential imports resulted in reduction in industrial output.
 - 6) India had to depend on external borrowing from International Monetary Fund which in turn puts stringent conditions.
 - 7) Fragile political situation along with economic crises > led to 'crisis of confidence'.
- > 1991 reforms -> known as LPG- Liberalization, Privatization and Globalisation, had two major objectives:
 - 1) reorientation of the economy from a centrally directed and highly controlled one to a 'market friendly' or market oriented economy.
 - 2) macroeconomic stabilization by substantial reduction in fiscal deficit.
- The policies can be broadly classified as:
 - stabilization measures → short term measures → for problems of inflation & adverse balance of payment, &
 - 2) structural reform measures → long term → aimed at bringing in productivity & competitiveness by removing structural rigidities in different sectors of economy.

Fiscal Reforms

- > Bringing in fiscal discipline by reducing the fiscal deficit was vital because-
 - √ excess domestic demand,
 - ✓ surge in imports and
 - √ widening of the current account deficit (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
 - reducing the burden of NPAs on government banks,
 - > introducing and sustaining competition, and
 - deregulating interest rates.
- These included many measures, important among them are:
- 1) Interest rate liberalization & reduction in controls on banks by RBI in respect of interest rates.
- 2) Opening of new private sector banks & facilitating competition among public, private sector and foreign banks and removal of administrative constraints.
- 3) Reduction in reserve requirements namely, SLR & CRR, in line with recommendations of the Narasimham Committee Report, 1991.
- 4) Liberalisation of bank branch licensing policy and granting of freedom to banks in respect of opening, relocating or closure of branches
- 5) Prudential norms of accounting in respect of classification of assets, disclosure of income and provisions for bad debt, to ensure books of banks reflect truthful financial position.

Reforms in Capital Markets

- > SEBI which was set up in 1988 was given statutory recognition in 1992.
- It is an independent regulator of the capital market \rightarrow creates a transparent environment which would facilitate mobilization of adequate resources and their efficient allocation.

The 'New Industrial Policy'

- The 'New Industrial Policy' was announced on 24 July 1991 \rightarrow substantially deregulate industry to promote growth of a more efficient and competitive industrial economy.
- > To facilitate domestic industry, a series of reforms were introduced-
- Ended 'License Raj' by removing licensing restrictions industries except for 18, later reduced to 5, namely-
 - 1) arms and ammunition,
 - 2) atomic substances,
 - 3) narcotic drugs and
 - 4) hazardous chemicals,
 - 5) distillation and brewing of alcoholic drinks and cigarettes and cigars
 - as these have severe implications on health, safety, and environment.
- 2. Public sector was limited to eight sectors based on security and strategic grounds.

 Subsequently only two items remained railway transport and atomic energy
- 3. MRTP Act was restructured and the provisions relating to merger, amalgamation, and takeover were repealed. This has eliminated the need for pre-entry scrutiny of investment decisions and prior approval for large companies for capacity expansion or diversification.
- 4) Products reserved for small-scale industries -> dereserved enabling entry of large scale ind
- 5) The policy 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 **355%**. 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 18% against the dollar.
- 10) Disinvestment 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
	. 6
	NITI AAYOG: A bold step for transforming India
A	Planning Commission was abolished in 2014 >> & on 1st Jan 2015 it was replaced by the
	National Institution for Transforming India (NITI) Aayog.
>	The major objective of such a move was to-
	✓ 'spur innovative thinking by objective 'experts', &
	✓ promote 'co-operative federalism' by enhancing the voice & influence of states'.
>	NITI Aayog is expected to serve as a 'Think Tank' of the government & a 'directional and
	policy dynamo'.
۶	The key initiatives of NITI Aayog are:
1.	'LiFE' which envisions replacing the prevalent 'use-and-dispose' economy
2.	National Data and Analytics Platform (NDAP) facilitates and improves access to Indian
	government data
3.	Shoonya campaign aims to improve air quality in India by accelerating the deployment of
	electric vehicles
4.	E-Amrit is a one-stop destination for all information on electric vehicles

- 5. India Policy Insights (IPI)
- 6. 'Methanol Economy' programme > for reducing India's oil import bill, greenhouse gas emissions, & converting coal reserves and municipal solid waste into methanol, and
- 7. 'Transforming India's Gold 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 **limited role** → does not produce national plans, control expenditures, or review state plans.
- It is excluded from the budgeting process.
- It lacks autonomy & balance of power within policy making apparatus of central govt.
- ➤ The termination of Planning Commission → strengthened Ministry of Finance, with its 'fixation of macroeconomic stability & natural instinct to limit expenditure'.
- It lacks the independence & power to perform as a 'counterweight' to act as a "voice of development" concerned with inequities.

The Current State of the Indian Economy: A brief overview

- I) The Primary Sector
- Agriculture, with its allied sectors, is the largest source of livelihood in India.
- > India has emerged as-
 - ✓ world's largest producer of milk, pulses, jute and spices.
 - √ largest area planted under wheat, rice and cotton.
 - ✓ 2nd largest producer of fruits, vegetables, tea, farmed fish, cotton, sugarcane, wheat, rice, cotton, and sugar.
 - ✓ world's 6th largest food and grocery market is the
 - ✓ world's largest cattle herd (buffaloes).
- > 47% of India's population is directly dependent on agriculture for living. It contributed 18.80% to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP).
- Food grains production has reached 315.7 million tonnes in 2021-22.
- Private investment in agriculture has increased to 9.3% in 2020-21.
- Agri sector had a growth of 3.50% in 2022-23, driven by buoyant rabi sowing
- Export of agricultural \rightarrow 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)
- > Agricultural and Processed Food Export Development Authority (APEDA) is entrusted with the responsibility of export promotion of agri-products.

- A large number of measures were undertaken by government to improve agri. sector-
- 1) Allowing **100% FDI** in marketing of food products and in food product E-commerce under the automatic route
- 2) Income support to farmers through PM KISAN
- 3) Fixing of Minimum Support Price (MSP) at 1.50 times the cost of production
- 4) Institutional credit for agriculture sector at concessional rates
- 5) Launch of the National Mission for Edible Oils
- 6) Pradhan Mantri Fasal 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) Paramparagat Krishi Vikas Yojana (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) Per Drop More Crop (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 **E-NAM -a pan-India electronic trading portal** which networks the existing **APMC mandis** to create a **unified national market** for agricultural commodities.
- 16) Introduction of Kisan Rail for 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 30% 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. India's rank in the Global Innovation Index (GII) improved to 40th in 2022 from 81st in 2015.

- Department for Promotion of Industry and Internal Trade (DPIIT) has a role in formulation and implementation of industrial policy and strategies for industrial development.
- Some of the policies are presented below:
- 1) Introduction of GST on 1 July 2017 as 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) 'Make in India' 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 63rd in the World Bank's annual Doing Business Report (DBR), 2020
- 5) The National Single Window System is a one-stop-shop for investor related approvals & provide continuous facilitation and support to investors.
- 6) PM Gati Shakti National Master Plan to facilitate data-based decisions related to integrated planning of multi-modal infrastructure, thereby reducing logistics cost.
- 7) National Logistics Policy (NLP) -> aims to lower cost of logistics
- 8) To become 'Atmanirbhar', the **Production Linked Incentive (PLI) Scheme** was initiated for **14 key sectors** to enhance India's manufacturing capabilities and export competitiveness.
- 9) Industrial Corridor Development Programme: Greenfield Industrial regions with sustainable infrastructure and to make available 'plug and play' infrastructure at the plot level.
- 10) FAME-India Scheme (Faster Adoption and Manufacturing of Hybrid and Electric Vehicles) to promote manufacturing of electric and hybrid vehicle technology
- 11) 'Udyami Bharat' -> empowerment of Micro Small and Medium Enterprises (MSMEs).
- 12) PM Mega Integrated Textile Region and Apparel (PM MITRA): ensure world-class industrial infrastructure & boost FDI and local investment in the textiles sector.
- 13) Opening up for global investments: Make India a more attractive investment destination
- 14) 100 per cent FDI under automatic 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 Foreign Investment Facilitation Portal (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) 2021 formed to replace the existing MEIS (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) → 40th in 2022.
- 18) Public Procurement (Preference to Make in India) Order, 2017 gives preference to locally manufactured goods/serv. in public procurement thereby giving boost to industrial growth.
- 19) Emergency Credit Line Guarantee Scheme (ECLGS) is a fully guaranteed emergency credit line to monitor lending institutions.
- India is gearing up for 4th industrial revolution or Industry 4.0 in which focus will be on-cloud computing, IoT, machine learning, & artificial intelligence (AI).
- > The National Manufacturing Policy which aims to increase the share of manufacturing in GDP to 25% by 2025 is a step in this direction.

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 has unique experience of bypassing the secondary sector in the growth trajectory by a shift from agriculture to services sector.

	The broad 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		
1	13.	Other service activities		
	14.	Activities of households as employers, undifferentiated goods and services producing activities of households for own use		
	15.	Activities of extra territorial organizations and bodies		

- The service sector refers to industry producing intangible goods viz. services as output.
- The services sector is the largest sector of India & accounts for 53.89% of total India's GVA.

 Gross Value Added (GVA) of services sector is estimated at ₹ 96.54 lakh crore in 2020-21.
- The service sector is the fastest growing sector in India and has the highest labour productivity. The exceptionally rapid expansion of knowledge-based services such as professional and technical services has been responsible for the faster growth of the services sector.
- The start-ups which have grown remarkably over the last few years mostly belong to the services sector.
- India is among top 10 WTO members in service exports and imports.
- > India's services exports at US\$ 27.0 billion recorded robust growth in November 2022 due to software, 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 largest recipient 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 7th 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 74%.
- 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 World Bank 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 insulated 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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