Chapter 6

Microeconomics

Theory and Applications with Calculus

Firms and Production

Hard work never killed anybody, but why take a chance? Charlie McCarthy

Second Edition Jeffrey M. Perloff

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Chapter 6 Outline

- 6.1 The Ownership and Management of Firms
- 6.2 Production
- 6.3 Short Run Production: One Variable and One Fixed Input
- 6.4 Long Run Production: Two Variable Inputs
- 6.5 Returns to Scale
- 6.6 Productivity and Technical Change

6.1 Ownership & Management of Firms

- A *firm* is an organization that converts inputs (labor, materials, and capital) into outputs.
- Firm types:
 - 1. <u>Private (for-profit) firms</u>: owned by individuals or other non-governmental entities trying to earn a profit (e.g. Toyota, Walmart). Responsible for 77% of GDP.
 - <u>Public firms</u>: owned by governments or government agencies (e.g. Amtrak, public schools). Responsible for 11% of GDP.
 - 3. <u>Not-for-profit firms</u>: owned by organizations that are neither governments nor intended to earn a profit, but rather pursue social or public interest objectives (e.g. Salvation Army, Greenpeace). Responsible for 12% of GDP.

6.1 Ownership & Management of Firms

- Legal forms of organization:
 - 1. <u>Sole proprietorship</u>: firms owned by a single individual who is personal liable for the firm's debts.
 - 72% of firms, but responsible for 4% of sales.
 - <u>General partnership</u>: businesses jointly owned and controlled by two or more people who are personally liable for the firm's debts.

• 9% of firms, but responsible for 13% of sales.

- 3. <u>Corporation</u>: firms owned by shareholders in proportion to the number of shares or amount of stock they hold.
 - 19% of firms, but responsible for 83% of sales.
 - Corporation owners have limited liability; they are not personally liable for the firm's debts even if the firm goes into bankruptcy.

6.1 What Owners Want

- We focus on for-profit firms in the private sector in this course.
- We assume these firms' owners are driven to maximize profit.
 - Profit is the difference between revenue (R), what it earns from selling its product, and cost (C), what it pays for labor, materials, and other inputs.

 $\pi = R - C$ where R = pq.

 To maximize profits, a firm must produce as efficiently as possible, where *efficient production* means it cannot produce its current level of output with fewer inputs.

6.2 Production and Variability of Inputs

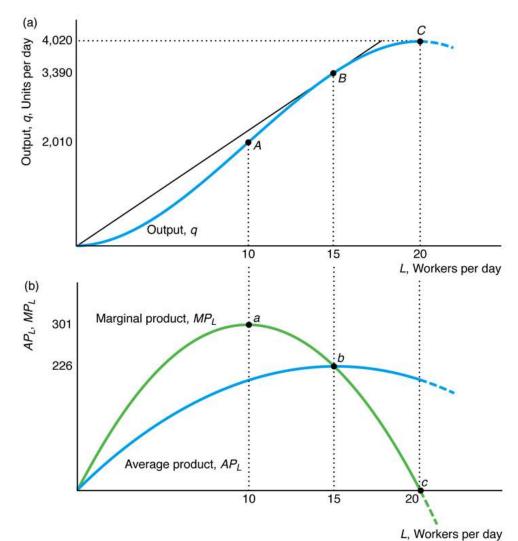
- The various ways that a firm can transform inputs into the maximum amount of output are summarized in the *production function*.
 - Assuming labor (L) and capital (K) are the only inputs, the production function is q = f(L, K).
- A firm can more easily adjust its inputs in the long run than in the short run.
 - The *short run* is a period of time so brief that at least one factor of production cannot be varied (the fixed input).
 - The *long run* is a long enough period of time that all inputs can be varied.

6.3 Short Run Production

- In the short run (SR), we assume that capital is a fixed input and labor is a variable input.
 - SR Production Function: $q = f(L, \overline{K})$
 - q is output, but also called total product; the short run production function is also called the total product of labor
 - The *marginal product of labor* is the additional output produced by an additional unit of labor, holding all other factors constant. $MP_L = \frac{\partial q}{\partial L} = \frac{\partial f(L, K)}{\partial L}$
 - The *average product of labor* is the ratio of output to the amount of labor employed.

$$AP_L = \frac{q}{L}$$

6.3 SR Production with Variable Labor



6.3 SR Production with Variable Labor

- Interpretations of the graphs:
 - Total product of labor curve shows output rises with labor until L=20.
 - AP_L and MP_L both first rise and then fall as L increases.
 - Initial increases due to specialization of activities; more workers are a good thing
 - Eventual declines result when workers begin to get in each other's way as they struggle with having a fixed capital stock
 - *MP_L* curve first pulls *AP_L* curve up and then pulls it down, thus, *MP_L* intersects *AP_L* at its maximum.

6.3 Law of Diminishing Marginal Returns (LDMR)

- The law holds that, if a firm keeps increasing an input, holding all other inputs and technology constant, the corresponding increases in output will eventually becomes smaller.
 - Occurs at L=10 in previous graph
- Mathematically:

$$\partial MP_L / \partial L = \partial (\partial q / \partial L) / \partial L = \\ \partial^2 q / \partial L^2 = \partial^2 f(L, K) / \partial L^2 < 0$$

- Note that when MP_L begins to fall, TP is still increasing.
- LDMR is really an empirical regularity more than a law.
 - Application: Malthus and the Green Revolution.

6.4 Long Run Production

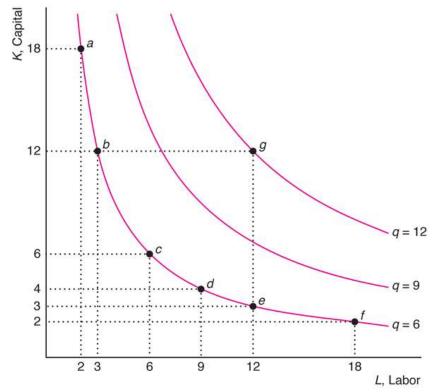
- In the long run (LR), we assume that both labor and capital are variable inputs.
- The freedom to vary both inputs provides firms with many choices of *how* to produce (labor-intensive vs. capital-intensive methods).
- Consider a Cobb-Douglas production function where A, a, and b are constants:

$$q = AL^a K^b$$

• Hsieh (1995) estimated such a production function for a U.S. electronics firm:

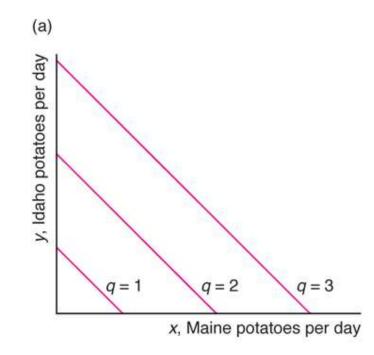
$$q = L^{0.5} K^{0.5}$$

 A production *isoquant* graphically summarizes the efficient combinations of inputs (labor and capital) that will produce a specific level of output.

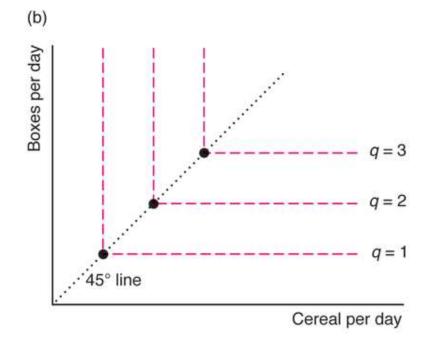


- Properties of isoquants:
 - 1. The farther an isoquant is from the origin, the greater the level of output.
 - 2. Isoquants do not cross.
 - 3. Isoquants slope downward.
 - 4. Isoquants must be thin.
- The shape of isoquants (curvature) indicates how readily a firm can substitute between inputs in the production process.

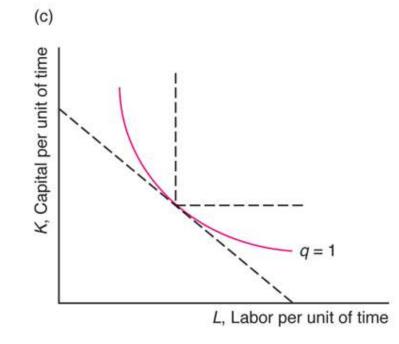
Types of isoquants:
1.Perfect substitutes (e.g. q = x + y)



Types of isoquants:
2.Fixed-proportions (e.g. q = min{g, b})



• Types of isoquants: 3.Convex (e.g. $q = L^{0.5}K^{0.5}$)



6.4 Substituting Inputs

- The slope of an isoquant shows the ability of a firm to replace one input with another (holding output constant).
- *Marginal rate of technical substitution* (*MRTS*) is the slope of an isoquant at a single point.

$$MRTS = \frac{\text{change in capital}}{\text{change in labor}} = \frac{\Delta K}{\Delta L} = \frac{\mathrm{d}K}{\mathrm{d}L}$$

 MRTS tells us how many units of K the firm can replace with an extra unit of L (q constant)

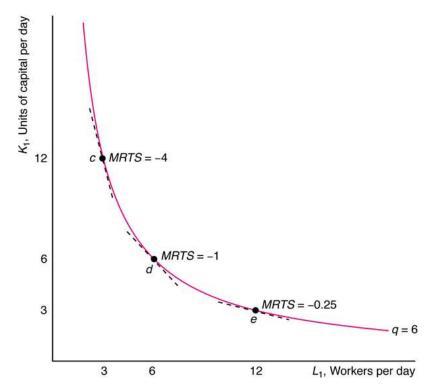
$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\bar{q}}{\mathrm{d}L} = 0 = \frac{\partial f}{\partial L} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial K}\frac{\mathrm{d}K}{\mathrm{d}L} = MP_L + MP_K\frac{\mathrm{d}K}{\mathrm{d}L}$$

• MP_L = marginal product of labor; MP_K = marginal product of capital

• Thus,
$$MRTS = \frac{dK}{dL} = -\frac{MP_L}{MP_K}$$

6.4 Substituting Inputs

- MRTS diminishes along a convex isoquant
 - The more L the firm has, the harder it is to replace K with L.



6.4 Elasticity of Substitution

• **Elasticity of substitution** measures the ease with which a firm can substitute capital for labor. $\sigma = \frac{\frac{d(K/L)}{K/L}}{\frac{dMRTS}{2}} = \frac{d(K/L)}{\frac{d(K/L)}{MRTS}} \frac{MRTS}{K/L}$

MRTS

- Can also be expressed as a logarithmic derivative: $\sigma = \frac{d \ln (K/L)}{d \ln |MRTS|}$
 - Example: CES production function, $q = (aL^{\rho} + bK^{\rho})^{\frac{\pi}{\rho}}$

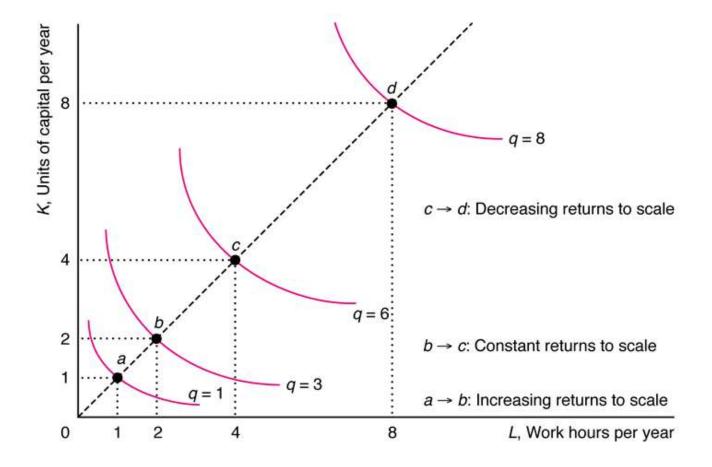
6.5 Returns to Scale

- How much does output change if a firm increases all its inputs proportionately?
- Production function exhibits *constant returns to scale* when a percentage increase in inputs is followed by the same percentage increase in output.
 - Doubling inputs, doubles output $\rightarrow f(2L, 2K) = 2f(L, K)$
- More generally, a production function is homogeneous of degree γ if f(xL, xK) = x^γf(L, K) where x is a positive constant.

6.5 Returns to Scale

- Production function exhibits *increasing returns to scale* when a percentage increase in inputs is followed by a <u>larger</u> percentage increase in output.
 - f(2L, 2K) > 2f(L, K)
 - Occurs with greater specialization of L and K; one large plant more productive than two small plants
- Production function exhibits *decreasing returns to scale* when a percentage increase in inputs is followed by a <u>smaller</u> percentage increase in output.
 - f(2L, 2K) < 2f(L, K)
 - Occurs because of difficulty organizing and coordinating activities as firm size increases.

6.5 Varying Returns to Scale



6.6 Productivity and Technical Change

- Even if all firms are producing efficiently (an assumption we make in this chapter), firms may not be equally *productive*.
- **Relative productivity** of a firm is the firm's output as a percentage of the output that the most productive firm in the industry could have produced with the same inputs.
 - Relative productivity depends upon:
 - 1.Management skill/organization
 - 2.Technical innovation
 - 3. Union-mandated work rules
 - 4. Work place discrimination
 - 5. Government regulations or other industry restrictions
 - 6.Degree of competition in the market

6.6 Productivity and Technical Change

- An advance in firm knowledge that allows more output to be produced with the same level of inputs is called *technical progress*.
 - Example: Nano by Tata Motors
 - Neutral technical change involves more output using the same ratio of inputs.
 - Non-neutral technical change involves altering the proportion in which inputs are used to produce more output.
- Organizational change may also alter the production function and increase output.
 - Examples: automated production of Gillette razor blades, mass production of Ford automobiles