Microeconomic Theory — ECON 323 503 Chapter 6: Firms and Production

Vikram Manjunath

Texas A&M University

November 11, 2014

1. The ownership and management of firms: Who owns the firm and makes decisions about what/how much to produce?

- 1. The ownership and management of firms: Who owns the firm and makes decisions about what/how much to produce?
- 2. Production: What are the firms possible choices?

- 1. The ownership and management of firms: Who owns the firm and makes decisions about what/how much to produce?
- 2. Production: What are the firms possible choices?
- 3. Short-run production: Only some of the inputs can be varied.

- 1. The ownership and management of firms: Who owns the firm and makes decisions about what/how much to produce?
- 2. Production: What are the firms possible choices?
- 3. Short-run production: Only some of the inputs can be varied.
- 4. Long-run production: All of the inputs can be varied.

- 1. The ownership and management of firms: Who owns the firm and makes decisions about what/how much to produce?
- 2. Production: What are the firms possible choices?
- 3. Short-run production: Only some of the inputs can be varied.
- 4. Long-run production: All of the inputs can be varied.
- 5. Returns to scale: Does output double when inputs are doubled?

- 1. The ownership and management of firms: Who owns the firm and makes decisions about what/how much to produce?
- 2. Production: What are the firms possible choices?
- 3. Short-run production: Only some of the inputs can be varied.
- 4. Long-run production: All of the inputs can be varied.
- 5. Returns to scale: Does output double when inputs are doubled?
- 6. Productivity and technical change: output changes with time for fixed amount of input.

Kinds of firms

1. Private sector: Owned by individuals and seek to maximize profits. Majority of GDP comes from such firms.

Kinds of firms

- 1. Private sector: Owned by individuals and seek to maximize profits. Majority of GDP comes from such firms.
- 2. Public sector: Owned by the government.

Kinds of firms

- 1. Private sector: Owned by individuals and seek to maximize profits. Majority of GDP comes from such firms.
- 2. Public sector: Owned by the government.
- 3. Non-profit: Not owned by government, but pursue social objectives.

Ownership of for-profit firms

1. Sole proprietorship: Owned by an individual who is solely liable for the firm's debts.

Ownership of for-profit firms

- 1. Sole proprietorship: Owned by an individual who is solely liable for the firm's debts.
- 2. Partnerships: Owned by two or more people who are liable for the firm's debts.

Ownership of for-profit firms

- 1. Sole proprietorship: Owned by an individual who is solely liable for the firm's debts.
- 2. Partnerships: Owned by two or more people who are liable for the firm's debts.
- 3. Corporations: Owned *shareholders* who are not liable for the firm's debts.

Limited liability

Shareholders in a corporation cannot be held responsible for its debts.

Limited liability

Shareholders in a corporation cannot be held responsible for its debts.

Their personal assets are not used to pay those debts. They can only lose what they paid for shares in the company (when the share price drops).

Limited liability

Shareholders in a corporation cannot be held responsible for its debts.

Their personal assets are not used to pay those debts. They can only lose what they paid for shares in the company (when the share price drops).

This allows firms to raise funds and take risks that wouldn't be possible under the other ownership structures.

Decision making

Typically the ownership of a firm appoints the management.

Decision making

Typically the ownership of a firm appoints the management.

Management's goal is (supposed to be) to make decisions in the owners' interest.

Decision making

Typically the ownership of a firm appoints the management.

Management's goal is (*supposed to be*) to make decisions in the owners' interest.

We will ignore the fact that this isn't often the case in reality.

The owners' interest

 ${\bf Profit\ maximization.}$

The owners' interest

Profit maximization.

Profit (π) is the difference between revenue (R) and cost (C).

$$\pi = R - C$$
.

R—what the firm earns from selling goods.

If there's only one good: R = pq.

C—what the inputs of producing the goods cost.

Efficient production

To maximize profit, the firm must produce its output using the least amount of input.

Efficient production

To maximize profit, the firm must produce its output using the least amount of input.

Obvious that this is a $necessary \ condition$ for profit maximization.

Efficient production

To maximize profit, the firm must produce its output using the least amount of input.

Obvious that this is a *necessary condition* for profit maximization.

Not a *sufficient condition* though: the output level needs to be right as well.

Production

Categories of input:

1. Capital (K): long-term inputs. E.g. Land, buildings, equipment.

Production

Categories of input:

- 1. Capital (K): long-term inputs. E.g. Land, buildings, equipment.
- 2. Labor (L): hours of work provided by managers, skilled-workers, and unskilled-workers.

Production

Categories of input:

- 1. Capital (K): long-term inputs. E.g. Land, buildings, equipment.
- 2. Labor (L): hours of work provided by managers, skilled-workers, and unskilled-workers.
- 3. Material (M): raw inputs. E.g. wood for a paper company.

Production functions

Given certain amounts of inputs, what is the most output that a firm can produce?

Production functions

Given certain amounts of inputs, what is the most output that a firm can produce?

If a firm uses only capital and labor,

$$q = f(L, K)$$

Short run:

Short run:

Some inputs can't be changed (can't build a factory overnight). These are *fixed inputs* (or fixed factors).

Short run:

Some inputs can't be changed (can't build a factory overnight). These are $\it fixed inputs$ (or fixed factors).

Others can be varied. These are *variable inputs* (of variable factors).

Short run:

Some inputs can't be changed (can't build a factory overnight). These are *fixed inputs* (or fixed factors).

Others can be varied. These are *variable inputs* (of variable factors).

Long run: Everything is variable.

Short-run production

We'll assume that there are two factors to production: K and L.

Short-run production

We'll assume that there are two factors to production: K and L.

K is fixed in the short run while L is variable.

Short-run production

We'll assume that there are two factors to production: K and L.

K is fixed in the short run while L is variable.

K is fixed at the level \overline{K} .

Short-run production

We'll assume that there are two factors to production: K and L.

K is fixed in the short run while L is variable.

K is fixed at the level \overline{K} .

Short run production function only depends on L:

$$q = f(L, \overline{K}).$$

Short-run production

We'll assume that there are two factors to production: K and L.

K is fixed in the short run while L is variable.

K is fixed at the level \overline{K} .

Short run production function only depends on L:

$$q = f(L, \overline{K}).$$

This is the total product of labor.

Marginal product

Total output from L units of labor is $q = f(L, \overline{K})$,

Marginal product

Total output from L units of labor is $q=f(L,\overline{K}),$

What is the marginal output from an additional unit of labor?

Marginal product

Total output from L units of labor is $q = f(L, \overline{K})$,

What is the *marginal* output from an additional unit of labor?

The marginal product of labor:

$$MP_L = \frac{\delta q}{\delta L} = \frac{\delta f(L, \overline{K})}{\delta L}.$$



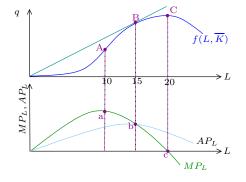
What is the average output from each unit of labor being used?

Average product

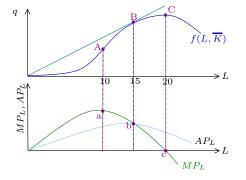
What is the average output from each unit of labor being used?

The average product of labor:

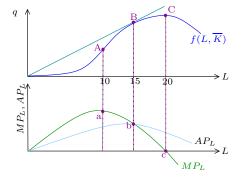
$$AP_L = \frac{q}{L} = \frac{f(L, \overline{K})}{L}.$$



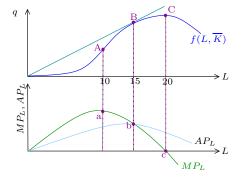
Total output increases up to 20 units of labor and then decreases.



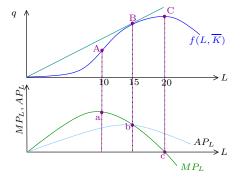
Typically AP_L rises (due to specialization) and then falls (because other factors are limiting).



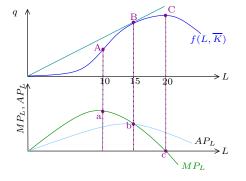
Beyond 15 units of labor, the increase in total output is less than in proportion to labor. So AP_L falls.



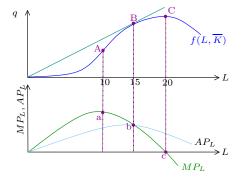
If $MP_L > AP_L$, AP_L is increasing: an additional unit of labor is more productive than average. So the new average is higher.



If $MP_L < AP_L$, AP_L is decreasing: an additional unit of labor is less productive than average. So the new average is lower.



 AP_L is the slope of the straight line from the origin to the total product of labor. This is highest at point B.



 MP_L is the slope of the tangent to the total product of labor. It is increasing until A and then starts to fall.

This is a "law" in the same way as the "law of demand": it's an empirical regularity.

This is a "law" in the same way as the "law of demand": it's an empirical regularity.

If a firm keeps increasing an input without changing the others, or technology, the increases in output eventually become smaller.

This is a "law" in the same way as the "law of demand": it's an empirical regularity.

If a firm keeps increasing an input without changing the others, or technology, the increases in output eventually become smaller.

In other words: MP_L eventually diminishes.

This is a "law" in the same way as the "law of demand": it's an empirical regularity.

If a firm keeps increasing an input without changing the others, or technology, the increases in output eventually become smaller.

In other words: MP_L eventually diminishes.

Mathematically:

$$\frac{\delta M P_L}{\delta L} = \frac{\delta \left(\frac{\delta q}{\delta L}\right)}{\delta L} = \frac{\delta^2 q}{\delta L^2} = \frac{\delta^2 f(L, \overline{K})}{\delta L^2} < 0.$$

Diminishing marginal returns

This is not to be confused with "diminishing returns."

Diminishing marginal returns

This is not to be confused with "diminishing returns."

That would mean that as you increase L, total output decreases.

Diminishing marginal returns

This is not to be confused with "diminishing returns."

That would mean that as you increase L, total output decreases.

There is no "law of diminishing returns."

Both K and L can be varied.

Both K and L can be varied.

There's more than one way to produce the same amount of output.

Both K and L can be varied.

There's more than one way to produce the same amount of output.

More labor can make up for less capital and vice versa.

Both K and L can be varied.

There's more than one way to produce the same amount of output.

More labor can make up for less capital and vice versa.

Example:

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

For a fixed \overline{q} we can draw a line through every pair of L and K that yields \overline{q} units of output.

Both K and L can be varied.

There's more than one way to produce the same amount of output.

More labor can make up for less capital and vice versa.

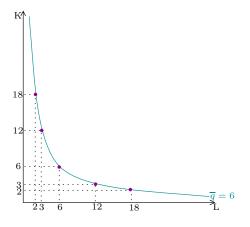
Example:

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

For a fixed \overline{q} we can draw a line through every pair of L and K that yields \overline{q} units of output.

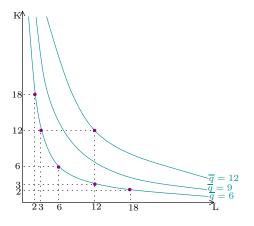
Each of (1,36), (2,18), (3,12), (4,9), (6,6), (9,4), (12,3), (18,2), and (36,1) yield 6 units of output.

Isoquants



The isoquant is a curve through all of those points.

Isoquants



For higher values of \overline{q} we get higher isoquants.

Much like indifference curves, they

1. correspond to higher levels as you move \nearrow .

Much like indifference curves, they

- 1. correspond to higher levels as you move /.
- 2. don't cross.

Much like indifference curves, they

- 1. correspond to higher levels as you move /.
- 2. don't cross.
- 3. slope downwards.

Much like indifference curves, they

- 1. correspond to higher levels as you move /.
- 2. don't cross.
- 3. slope downwards.
- 4. are thin.

Much like indifference curves, they

- 1. correspond to higher levels as you move /.
- 2. don't cross.
- 3. slope downwards.
- 4. are thin.

Biggest difference: the number associated with an isoquant (the quantity produced) has meaning, unlike utility which we can represent using more than one function.

Shapes of isoquants

We saw the isoquants for Cobb-Douglas production.

Shapes of isoquants

We saw the isoquants for Cobb-Douglas production.

What about perfect substitutes? If you're making french fries, potatoes from Idaho and potatoes from Maine are perfect substitutes.

$$q = x + y$$
.

Shapes of isoquants

We saw the isoquants for Cobb-Douglas production.

What about perfect substitutes? If you're making french fries, potatoes from Idaho and potatoes from Maine are perfect substitutes.

$$q = x + y$$
.

Isoquant at \overline{q} is given by pairs (x, y) such that $x + y = \overline{q}$. Or $y = \overline{q} - x$.

We saw the isoquants for Cobb-Douglas production.

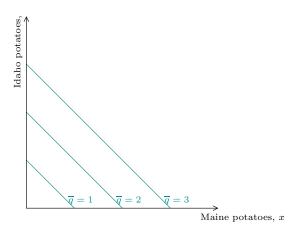
What about perfect substitutes? If you're making french fries, potatoes from Idaho and potatoes from Maine are perfect substitutes.

$$q = x + y$$
.

Isoquant at \overline{q} is given by pairs (x,y) such that $x+y=\overline{q}$. Or $y=\overline{q}-x$.

Straight lines of slope -1 and intercept \overline{q} .

Isoquants: perfect substitutes



What about perfect complements?

What about perfect complements?

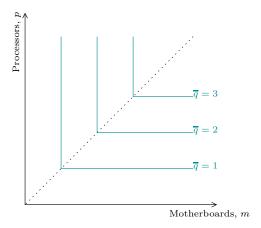
If you're making computers you need processors and motherboards.

$$q=\min\{p,m\}.$$

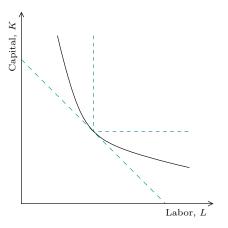
What about perfect complements?

If you're making computers you need processors and motherboards.

$$q = \min\{p, m\}.$$



Of course, between these two extremes, we have *imperfect* substitution between inputs. As with Cobb-Douglas production.



The slope of an isoquant is the rate at which we can substitute one input for another.

The slope of an isoquant is the rate at which we can substitute one input for another.

Marginal Rate of Technical Substitution

$$MRTS = \frac{\text{Change in capital}}{\text{Change in labor}} = \frac{dK}{dL}.$$

The slope of an isoquant is the rate at which we can substitute one input for another.

Marginal Rate of Technical Substitution

$$MRTS = \frac{\text{Change in capital}}{\text{Change in labor}} = \frac{dK}{dL}.$$

This is negative since isoquants slope downwards.

We can find MRTS by thinking about what happens to the amount of K needed if we increase L by one unit but hold \overline{q} fixed.

We can find MRTS by thinking about what happens to the amount of K needed if we increase L by one unit but hold \overline{q} fixed.

K(L) = Capital needed to produce \overline{q} with L units of labor.

We can find MRTS by thinking about what happens to the amount of K needed if we increase L by one unit but hold \overline{q} fixed.

K(L) =Capital needed to produce \overline{q} with L units of labor.

Then

$$\overline{q} = f(L, K(L)).$$

We can find MRTS by thinking about what happens to the amount of K needed if we increase L by one unit but hold \overline{q} fixed.

K(L) =Capital needed to produce \overline{q} with L units of labor.

Then

$$\overline{q} = f(L, K(L)).$$

Differentiating both sides of this equation with respect to L:

$$\frac{d\overline{q}}{dL} = 0 = \frac{\delta f}{\delta L} + \frac{\delta f}{\delta K} \frac{dK}{dL} = MP_L + MP_K \frac{dK}{dL}.$$

We can find MRTS by thinking about what happens to the amount of K needed if we increase L by one unit but hold \overline{q} fixed.

K(L) =Capital needed to produce \overline{q} with L units of labor.

Then

$$\overline{q} = f(L, K(L)).$$

Differentiating both sides of this equation with respect to L:

$$\frac{d\overline{q}}{dL} = 0 = \frac{\delta f}{\delta L} + \frac{\delta f}{\delta K} \frac{dK}{dL} = MP_L + MP_K \frac{dK}{dL}.$$

Rearranging this:

$$MRTS = \frac{dK}{dL} = -\frac{MP_L}{MP_K}.$$

Diminishing MRTS

Just like MRS, MRTS tends to decrease as we move along an isoquant to the right: The more you substitute one input for another, the more of it you need.

Diminishing MRTS

Just like MRS, MRTS tends to decrease as we move along an isoquant to the right: The more you substitute one input for another, the more of it you need.

When
$$f(L, K) = L^{0.5}K^{05}$$
, $MRTS = -\frac{K}{L}$.

Diminishing MRTS

Just like MRS, MRTS tends to decrease as we move along an isoquant to the right: The more you substitute one input for another, the more of it you need.

When
$$f(L, K) = L^{0.5}K^{05}$$
, $MRTS = -\frac{K}{L}$.

If we start substituting L for K, $\frac{K}{L}$ grows, so the isoquant gets flatter and flatter.

MRTS describes what happens when we keep output fixed and vary the proportions of the inputs.

MRTS describes what happens when we keep output fixed and vary the proportions of the inputs.

What happens as we increase all of the inputs proportionally?

MRTS describes what happens when we keep output fixed and vary the proportions of the inputs.

What happens as we increase all of the inputs proportionally?

Constant returns to scale: output increases proportionally with input. For instance, f(2L, 2K) = 2f(L, K).

MRTS describes what happens when we keep output fixed and vary the proportions of the inputs.

What happens as we increase all of the inputs proportionally?

Constant returns to scale: output increases proportionally with input. For instance, f(2L, 2K) = 2f(L, K).

Replicable production processes would yield CRS. Just set up two identical factories and you can double output.

MRTS describes what happens when we keep output fixed and vary the proportions of the inputs.

What happens as we increase all of the inputs proportionally?

Constant returns to scale: output increases proportionally with input. For instance, f(2L, 2K) = 2f(L, K).

Replicable production processes would yield CRS. Just set up two identical factories and you can double output.

Increasing returns to scale: output increases more than proportionally with input. For instance, f(2L, 2K) > 2f(L, K).

MRTS describes what happens when we keep output fixed and vary the proportions of the inputs.

What happens as we increase all of the inputs proportionally?

Constant returns to scale: output increases proportionally with input. For instance, f(2L,2K)=2f(L,K).

Replicable production processes would yield CRS. Just set up two identical factories and you can double output.

Increasing returns to scale: output increases more than proportionally with input. For instance, f(2L, 2K) > 2f(L, K).

Specialization can yield IRS: a bigger factory with more workers who can specialize in their jobs can be more productive.

Decreasing returns to scale: output increases less than proportionally with input. For instance, f(2L, 2K) < 2f(L, K).

Decreasing returns to scale: output increases less than proportionally with input. For instance, f(2L, 2K) < 2f(L, K).

Models are abstractions. Unmodeled inputs are often limited and cause decreasing returns to scale. For instance: you might run out of land to build new factories on.

Decreasing returns to scale: output increases less than proportionally with input. For instance, f(2L, 2K) < 2f(L, K).

Models are abstractions. Unmodeled inputs are often limited and cause decreasing returns to scale. For instance: you might run out of land to build new factories on.

Varying returns to scale: The most usual situation is that production technology exhibits IRS when output is low and DRS when it is high.

Technical progress and innovation cause increases in productivity. What does this mean in our models?

Technical progress and innovation cause increases in productivity. What does this mean in our models?

Suppose the production function is

$$q_1 = f(L, K).$$

Technical progress and innovation cause increases in productivity. What does this mean in our models?

Suppose the production function is

$$q_1 = f(L, K).$$

If a new invention causes a 10% increase in productivity, the new production function is

$$q_2 = 1.1f(L, K).$$

Technical progress and innovation cause increases in productivity. What does this mean in our models?

Suppose the production function is

$$q_1 = f(L, K).$$

If a new invention causes a 10% increase in productivity, the new production function is

$$q_2 = 1.1 f(L, K).$$

This is a *neutral* technical change since the firm can produce more using the same ratio of inputs.

Technical progress and innovation cause increases in productivity. What does this mean in our models?

Suppose the production function is

$$q_1 = f(L, K).$$

If a new invention causes a 10% increase in productivity, the new production function is

$$q_2 = 1.1 f(L, K).$$

This is a *neutral* technical change since the firm can produce more using the same ratio of inputs.

A *non-neutral* technical change would alter the ratios of the inputs used.

Organizational changes

Another way that a firm can become more productive is through organizational changes.

Organizational changes

Another way that a firm can become more productive is through organizational changes.

Just yesterday HP decided to split into two companies: one focusing on servers, software, and cloud tech and the other on computers and printers.

Organizational changes

Another way that a firm can become more productive is through organizational changes.

Just yesterday HP decided to split into two companies: one focusing on servers, software, and cloud tech and the other on computers and printers.

HP shares are up 7.1% today, reflecting that investors believe that his will be a more productive organization of the firm.