

# Production and Costs in the Short run

EE311

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SR  
(at least one  
fixed FoP)



Law of Diminishing Returns



SR Production

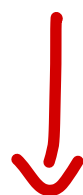


SR Cost

LR  
(all FoP's are  
variable)



Returns to Scale



LR Production



LR Cost (Economies of Scale)

# What tasks should be done in-house and what should be done by out-sourcing?

- In-house production generates **internal managerial costs** that increase with the production scale
  - Monitoring costs: costs associated with quality assurance and shirking minimization
  - Coordination costs: the cost related to team-work coordination efforts

# What tasks should be done in-house and what should be done by out-sourcing?



- Out-sourcing generates **transaction costs** that decrease with the production scale
  - Information costs
  - Negotiation costs
  - Enforcement costs
- The optimal firm size is where the combined costs are minimized.

# Transaction costs: determinants

- The faster we need the information, the higher the information costs.
  - Inventory can decrease the transaction costs.
- The more the market is changed, the higher the transaction cost.
  - Need to update information.
- Advertisement and middlemen can reduce the transaction costs.
- Standardization decreases transaction costs.

# Transaction costs: applications

- Similar products are sold at different prices
  - Each product has different quality, terms.
  - Each consumer has different information.
  - Each consumer has different opportunity cost of time
    - > willing to search for information differently.
- Hotels often have extra rooms. Restaurants, theaters, barber shops often have excess seats.

# Production Decisions of a Firm



- Production Technology
  - Describe how *inputs* can be transformed into *outputs*
    - Inputs: land, labor, capital & raw materials
    - Outputs: cars, desks, books, etc.
  - Firms can produce different amounts of outputs using different combinations of inputs
  - We can represent the firm's production technology in for form of a **production function**

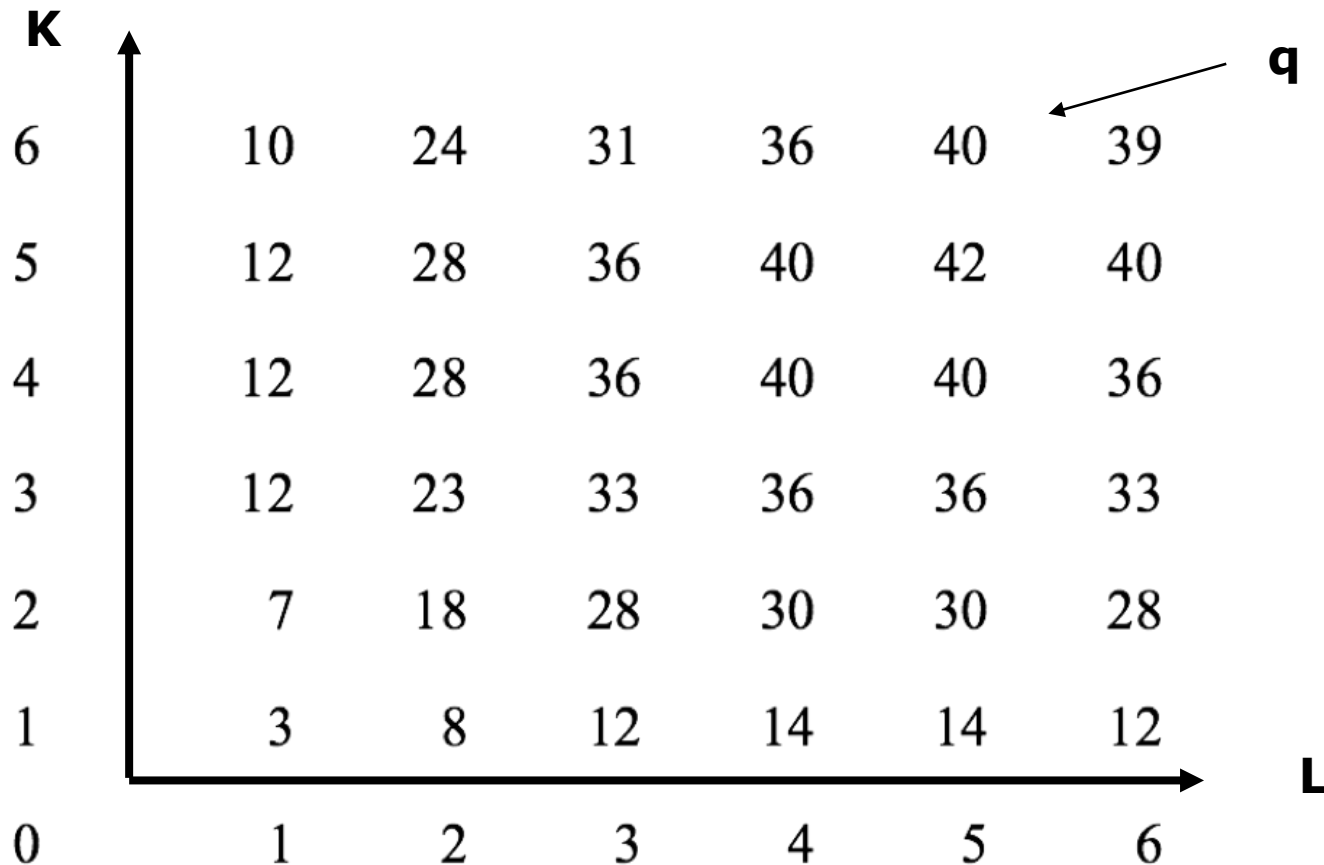
# The Technology of Production



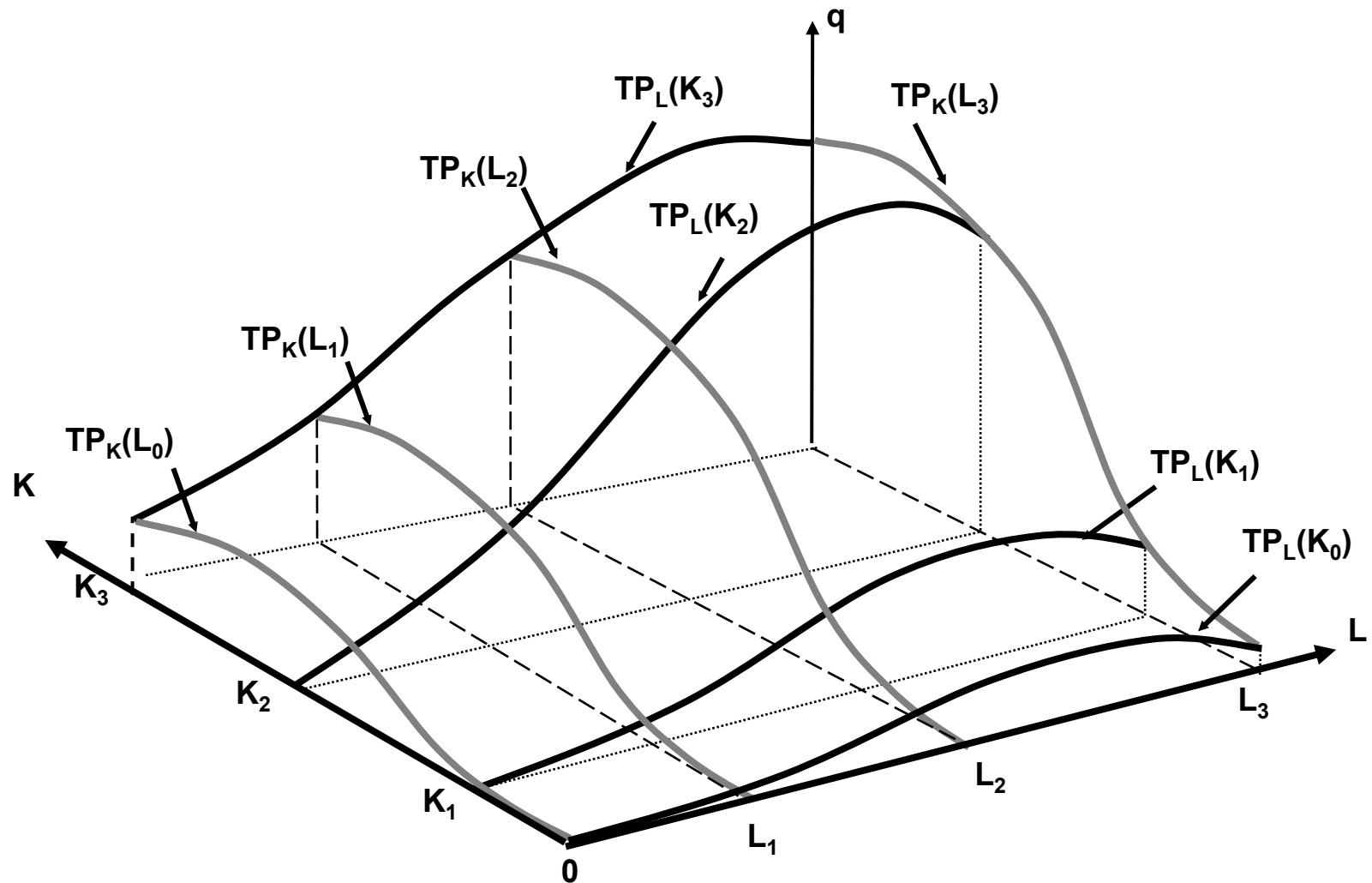
- Production Function:
  - Indicates the highest output ( $q$ ) that a firm can produce for every specified combination of inputs.
  - For simplicity, we will consider only labor (L) and capital (K)
  - Shows what is technically feasible when the firm operates efficiently
- The production function for two inputs:

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

# Representation of a production function



# Representation of a production function



# The Technology of Production

- Short Run

- Period of time in which quantities of one or more production factors cannot be changed.
- These inputs are called fixed inputs.
- Those that can change are called variable input.



- Long-run

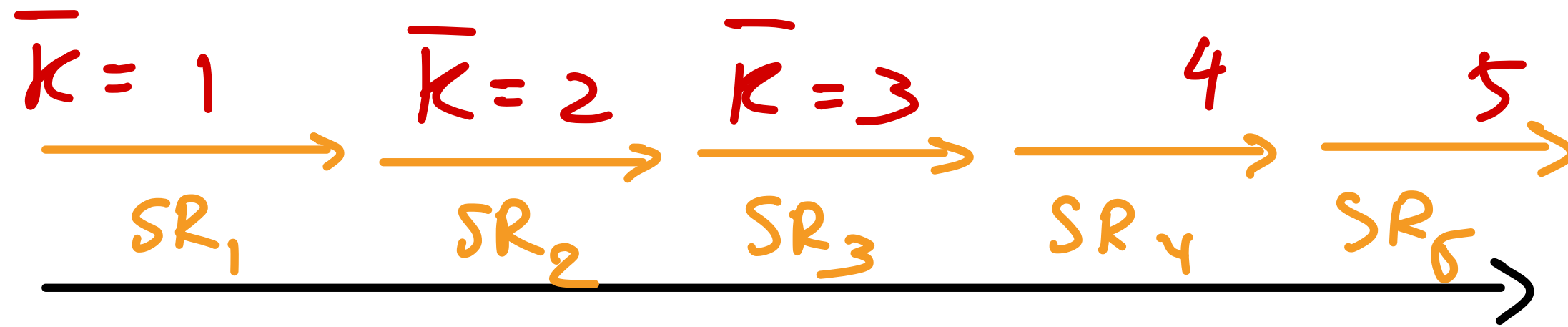
- Amount of time needed to make all production inputs variable.



- Short run and long run are not time specific

in SR  $\rightarrow$  fixed  $\bar{K}$

in LR  $\rightarrow$   $K$  can change



LR

# S-R Production: One Variable Input

- We will begin looking at the short run when only one input can be varied
- We assume capital is fixed and labor is variable
  - Output can only be increased by increasing labor
  - Must know how output changes as the amount of labor is changed

# S-R Production: One Variable Input

Amount of Labor (L)	Amount of Capital (K)	Total Output (q)	Average Product (q/L)	Marginal Product ( $\Delta q / \Delta L$ )
0	10	0	—	—
1	10	10	10	10
2	10	30	15	20
3	10	60	20	30
4	10	80	20	20
5	10	95	19	15
6	10	108	18	13
7	10	112	16	4
8	10	112	14	0
9	10	108	12	-4
10	10	100	10	-8

*Handwritten annotations:*  
 - A red arrow points down from L=0 to L=10.  
 - The 'Amount of Capital (K)' column is highlighted in yellow.  
 - The word "fixed" is written in red next to the K=10 values.  
 - An orange bracket groups rows 1 through 7, with a "+" sign next to it.  
 - An orange bracket groups rows 8 through 10, with a "-" sign next to it.

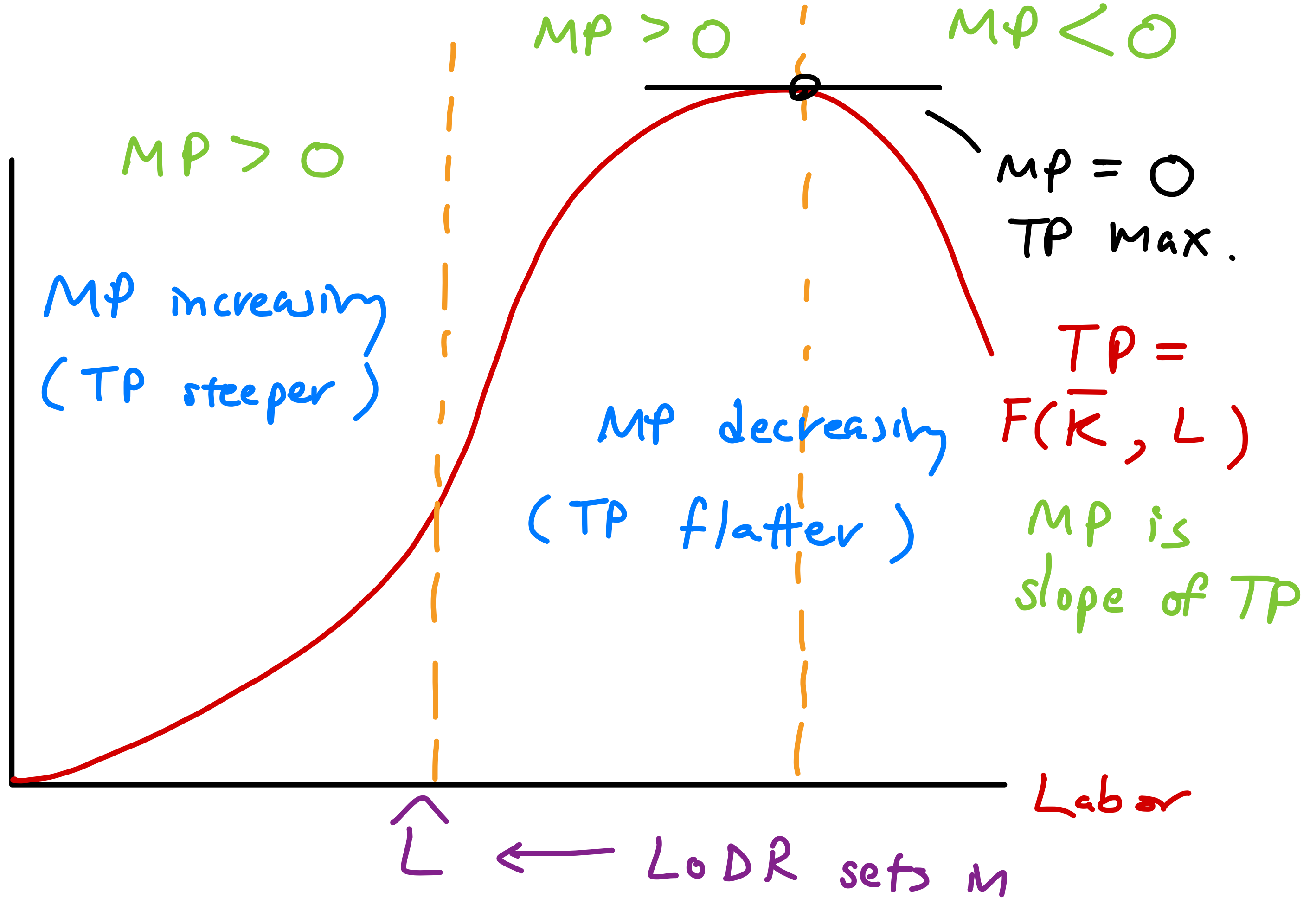
SR Production is characterized by the  
Law of Diminishing Returns.

LoDR: In SR where at least one FOP is fixed,  
as variable input (e.g. labor) is added to  
to fixed input (e.g. land), the MP of  
variable input eventually diminishes.

$$MP_L = \frac{\Delta TP}{\Delta L}$$

e.g.  $MP_L = 3$  :  $L \uparrow 1 \text{ unit} \rightarrow TP \uparrow 3 \text{ units}$

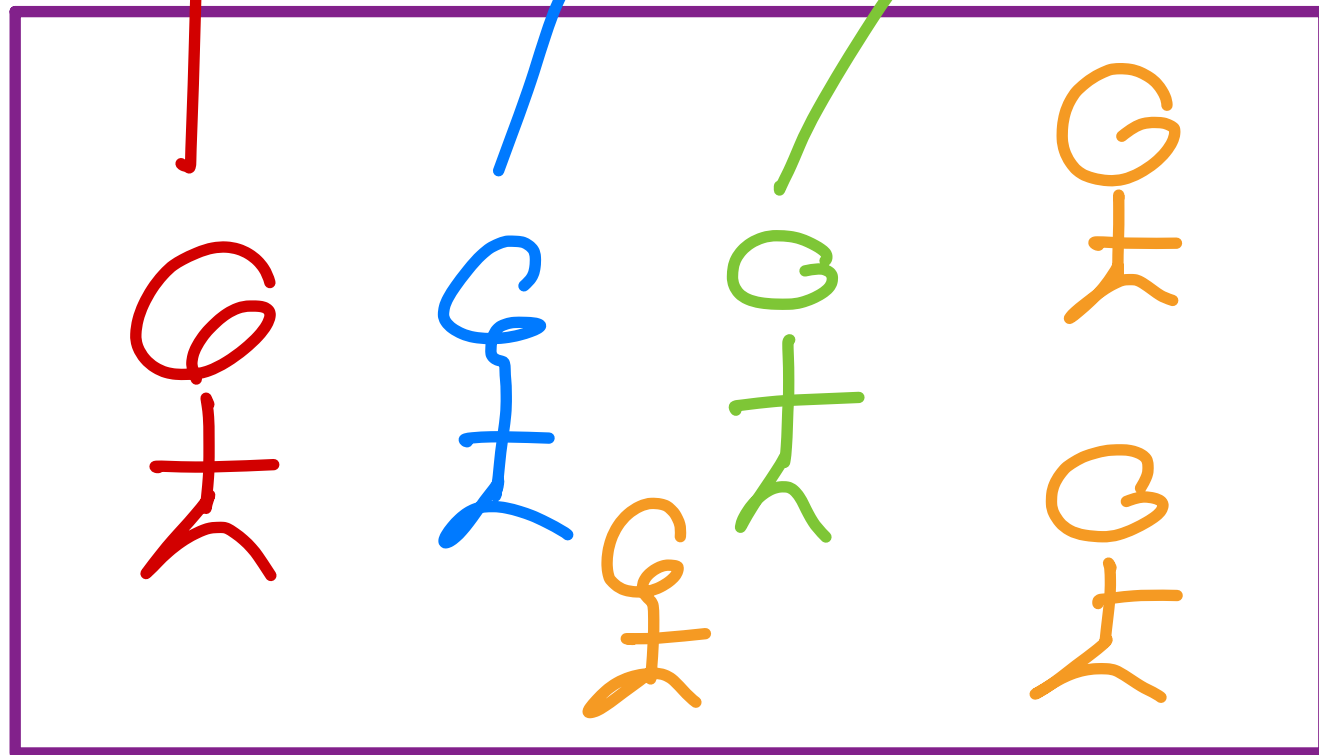
TP



burgers

french  
fries

ice cream



fixed space  
M SR

★ MP represents productivity of workers ★

$MP > 0$  :  $L \uparrow \rightarrow TP \uparrow$

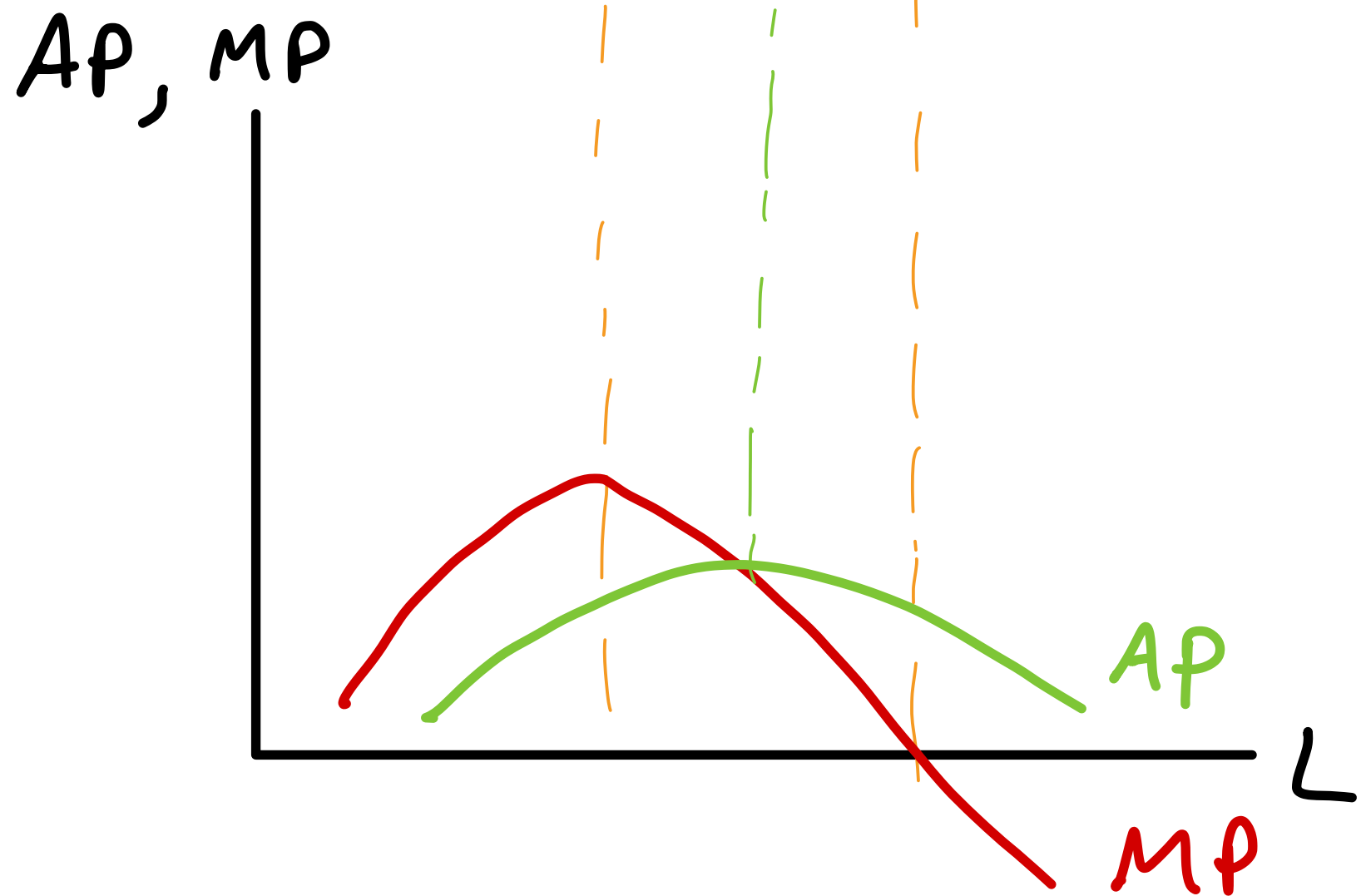
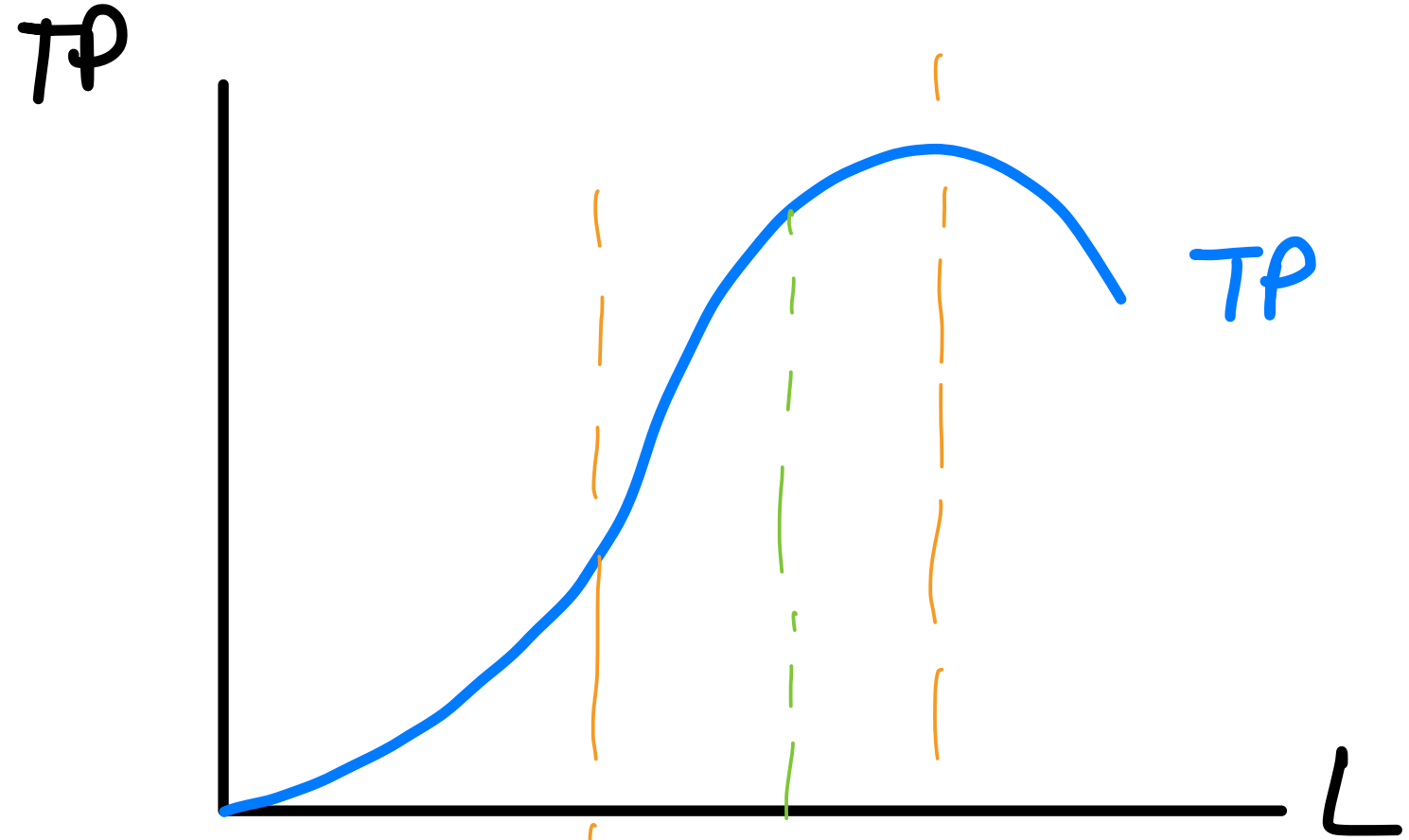
$MP < 0$  :  $L \uparrow \rightarrow TP \downarrow$

MP increasing due to Division of Labor <sup>Effect</sup>

→ productivity of each extra worker increases

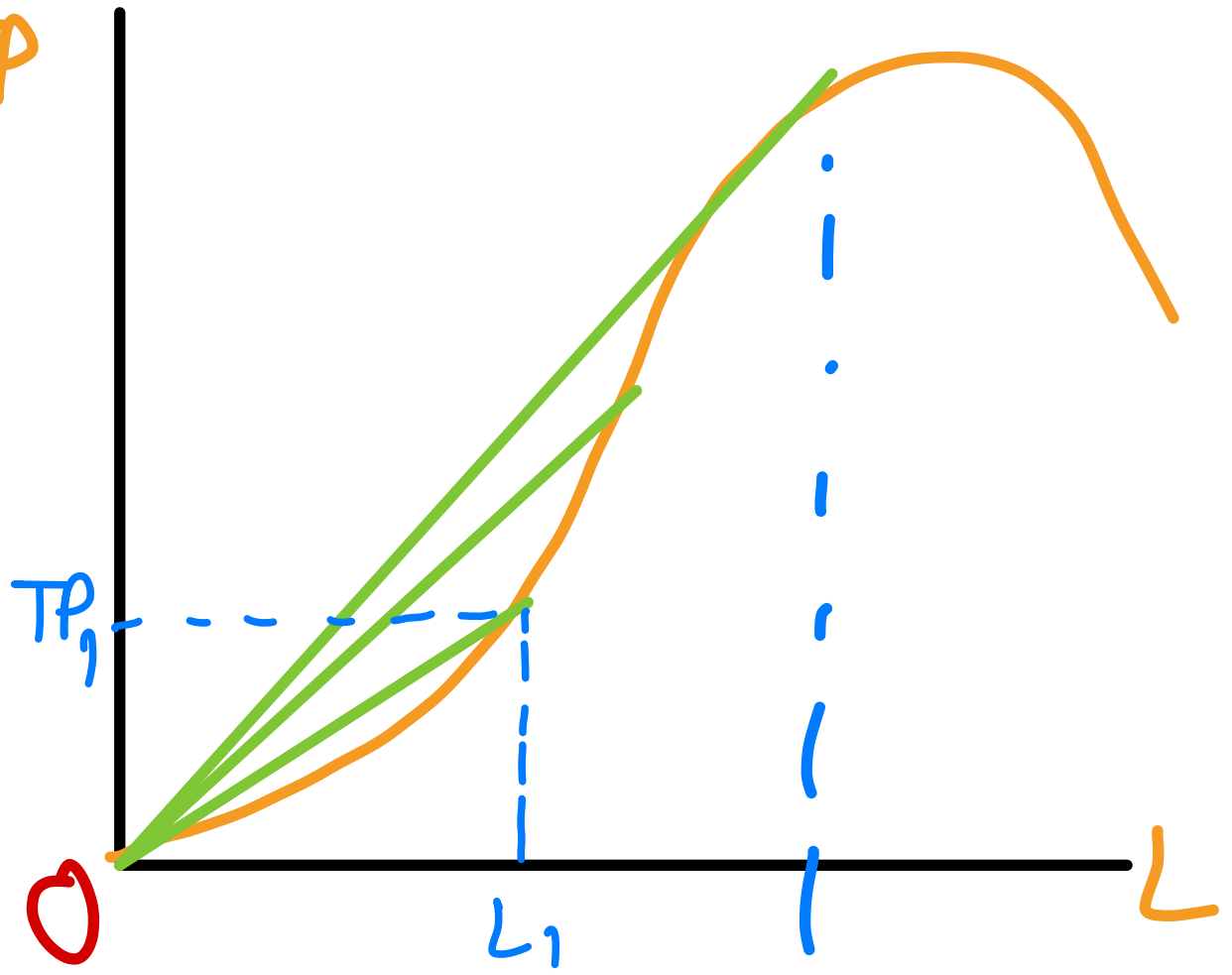
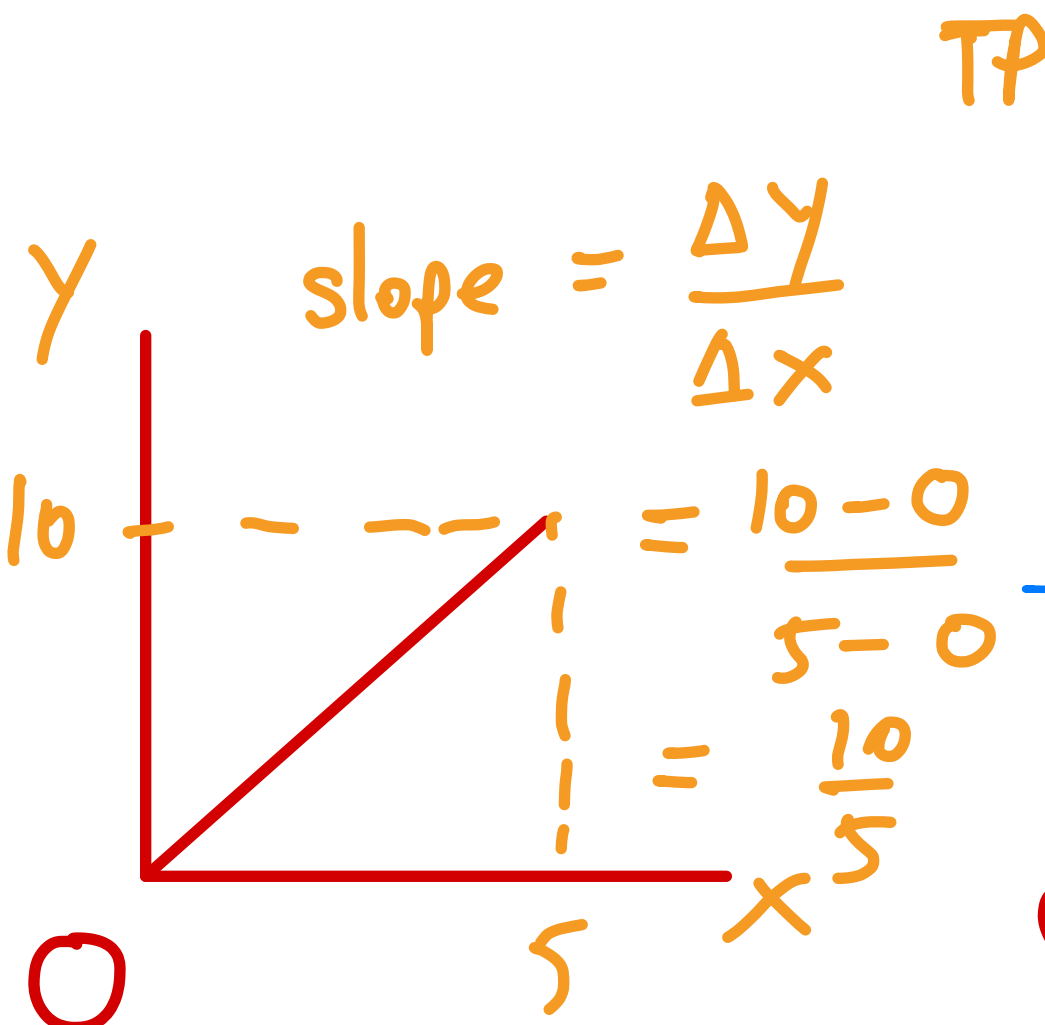
MP decreasing due to LoDR (fixed input)

→ productivity of each extra workers decreases

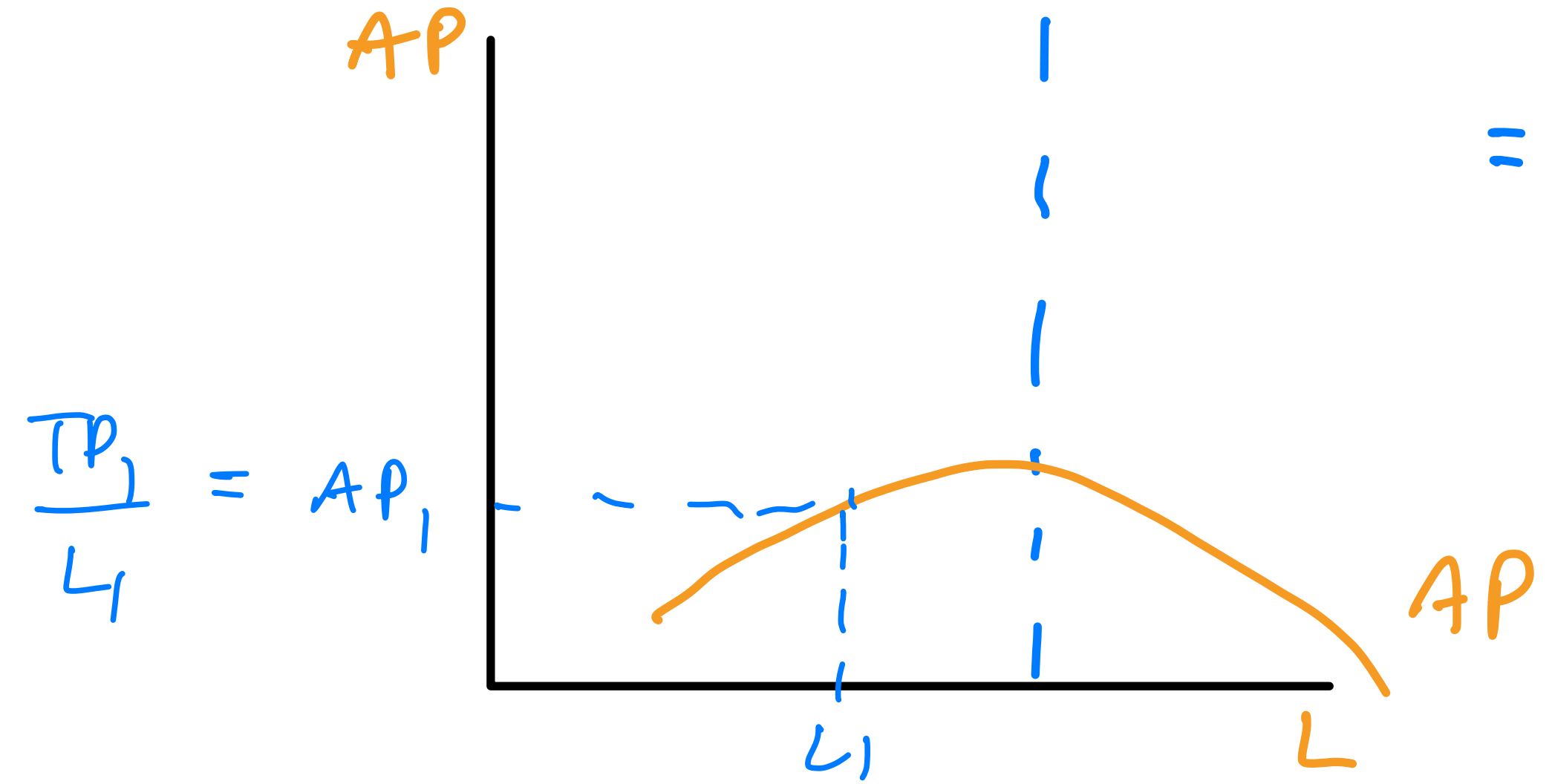


$$AP_L = \frac{TP}{L}$$

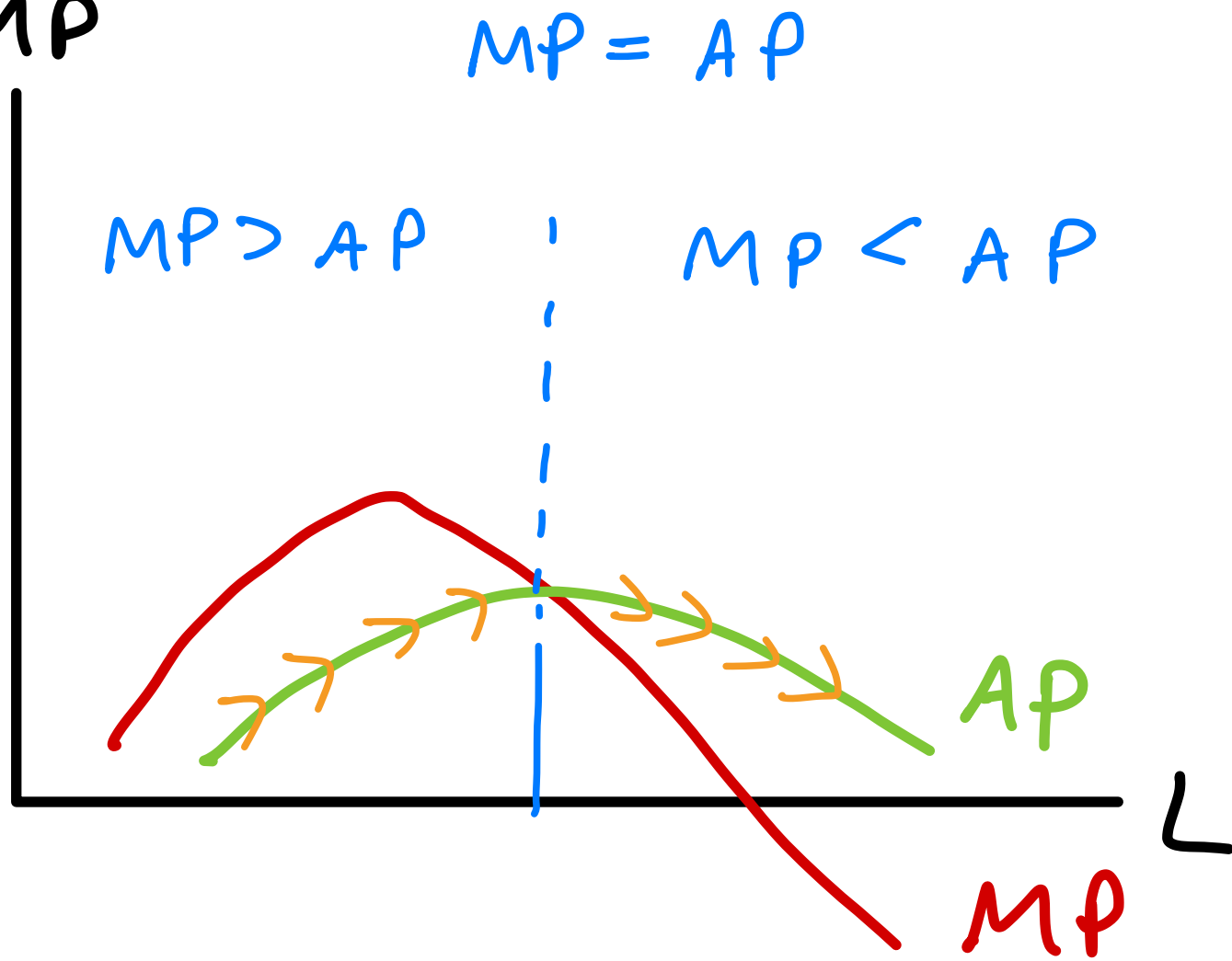
$$MP_L = \frac{\Delta TP}{\Delta L}$$



slope of green lines  
 $= \frac{\Delta TP}{\Delta L}$   
 $= \frac{TP - 0}{L - 0}$   
 $= AP$



AP, MP



$MP > AP$

→ AP rising

$MP < AP$

→ AP falling

$MP = AP$

→ AP max.

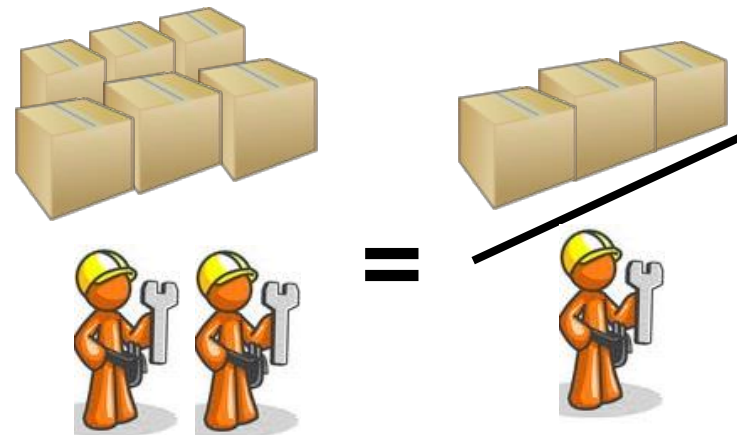
# S-R Production: One Variable Input

- Observations:
  - When labor is zero, output is zero as well
  - With additional workers, output ( $q$ ) increases up to 8 units of labor.
  - Beyond this point, output declines
    - Increasing labor can make better use of existing capital initially
    - After a point, more labor is not useful and can be counterproductive

# S-R Production: One Variable Input

- Average product of Labor - Output per unit of a particular product
- Measures the productivity of a firm's labor in terms of how much, on average, each worker can produce

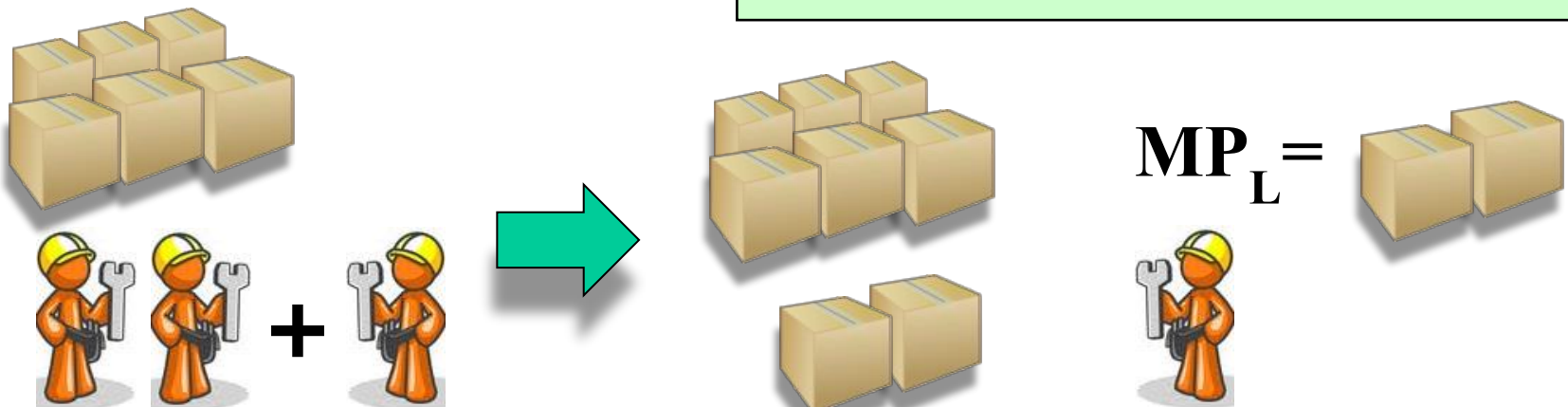
$$AP_L = \frac{\text{Output}}{\text{Labor Input}} = \frac{q}{L}$$



# S-R Production: One Variable Input

- Marginal Product of Labor – additional output produced when labor increases by one unit
- Change in output divided by the change in labor
- $MP_L$  is the slope of  $TP_L$

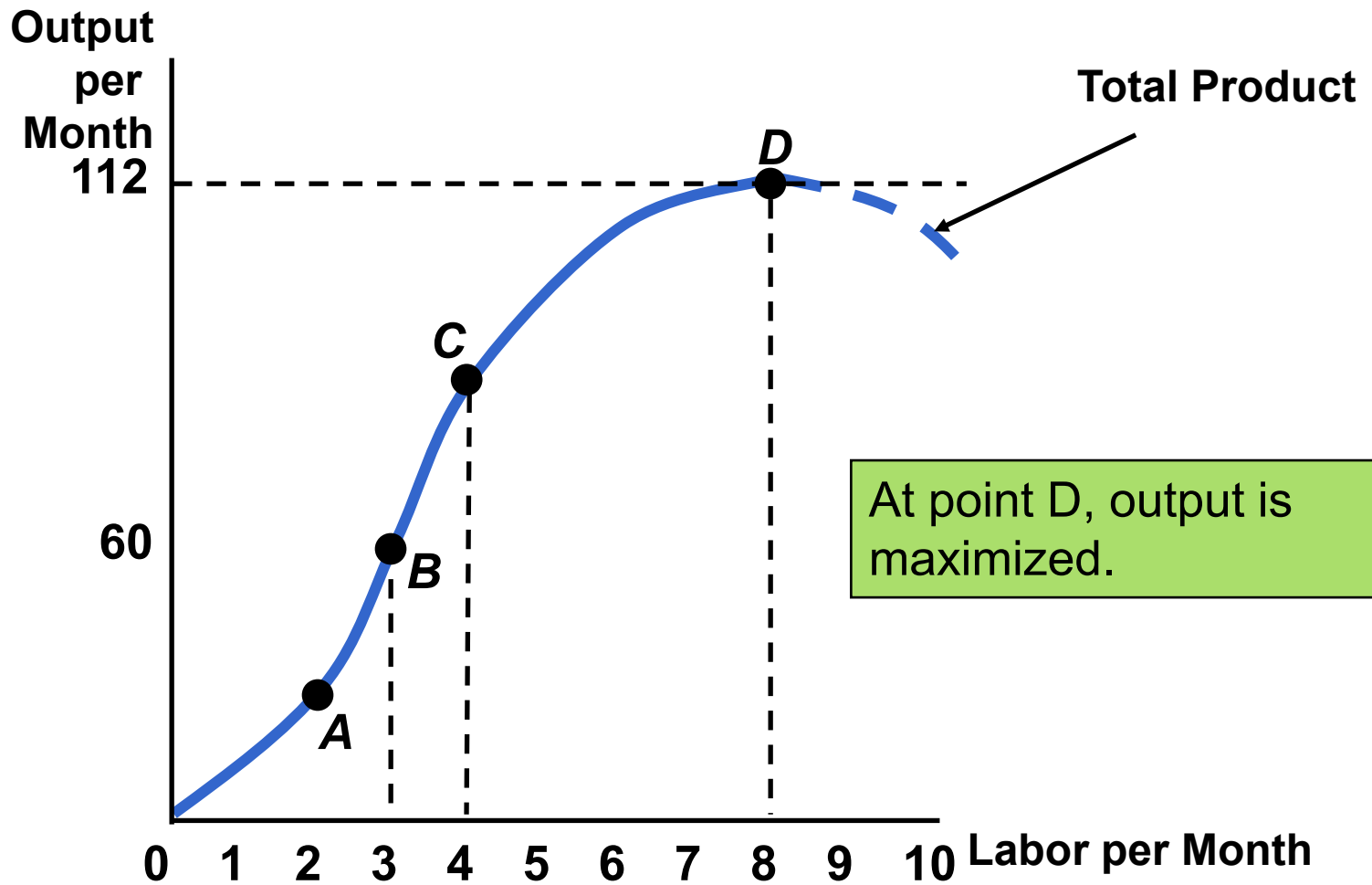
$$MP_L = \frac{\Delta \text{Output}}{\Delta \text{Labor Input}} = \frac{\Delta q}{\Delta L}$$



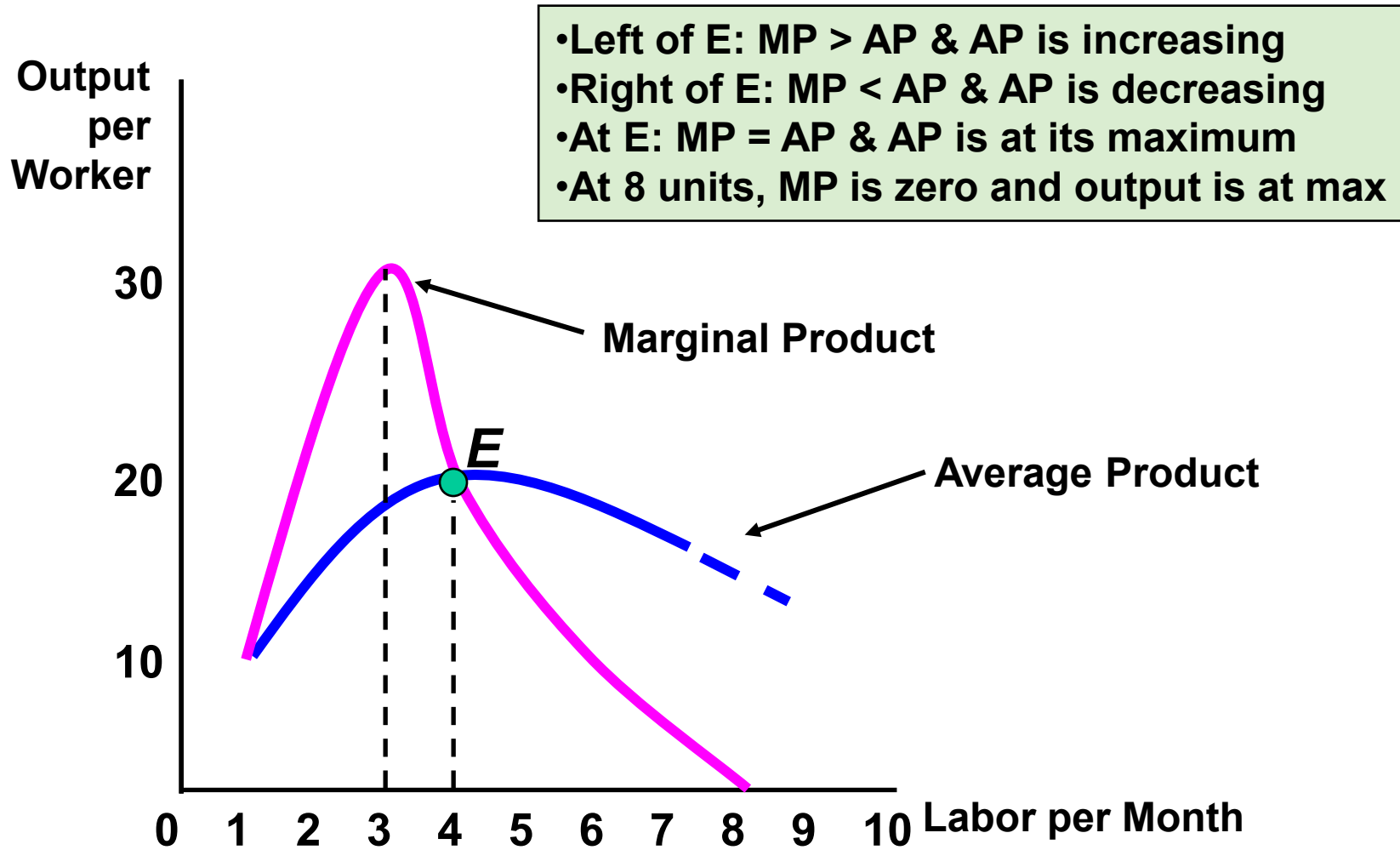
# S-R Production: One Variable Input

- We can graph the information in the Table to show
  - How output varies with changes in labor
    - Output is maximized at 112 units
  - Average and Marginal Products
    - Marginal product is positive as long as total output is increasing
    - Marginal Product crosses Average Product at its maximum

# S-R Production: One Variable Input



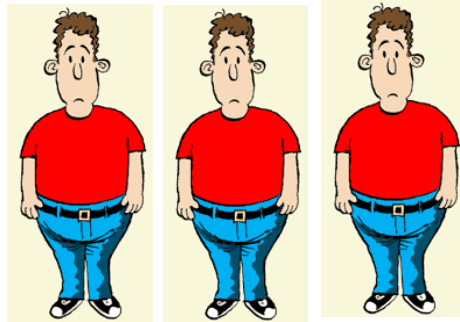
# S-R Production: One Variable Input



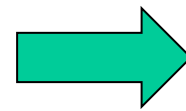
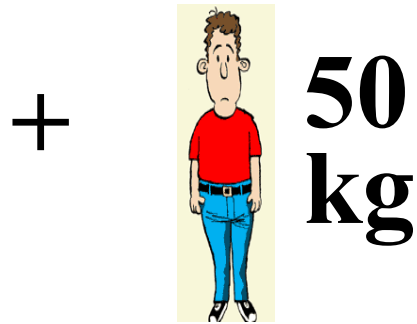
# Marginal & Average Product

- When  $MP > AP$ ,  $AP$  is increasing
- When  $MP < AP$ ,  $AP$  is decreasing
- $MP$  crosses  $AP$  at its maximum
- When  $MP = 0$ ,  $TP$  is at its maximum

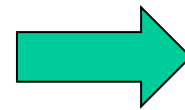
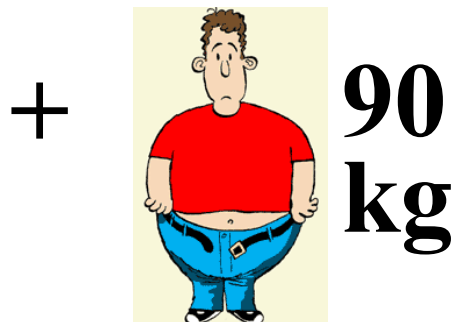
# Example



= 70kg/person



< 70kg/Person



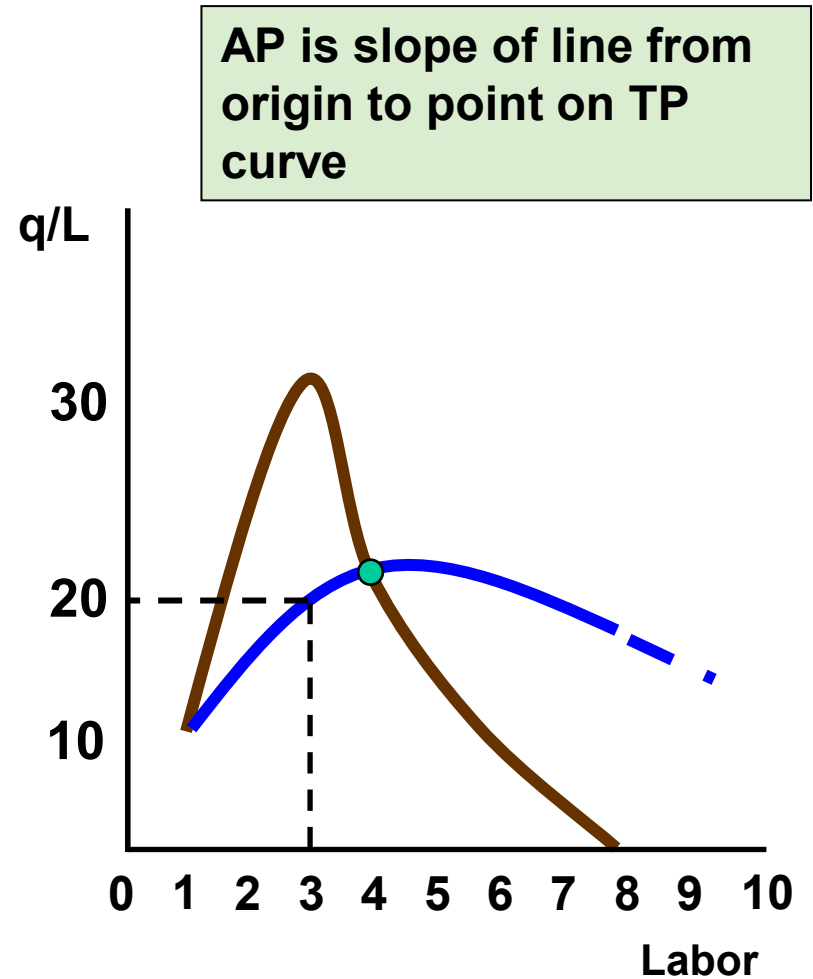
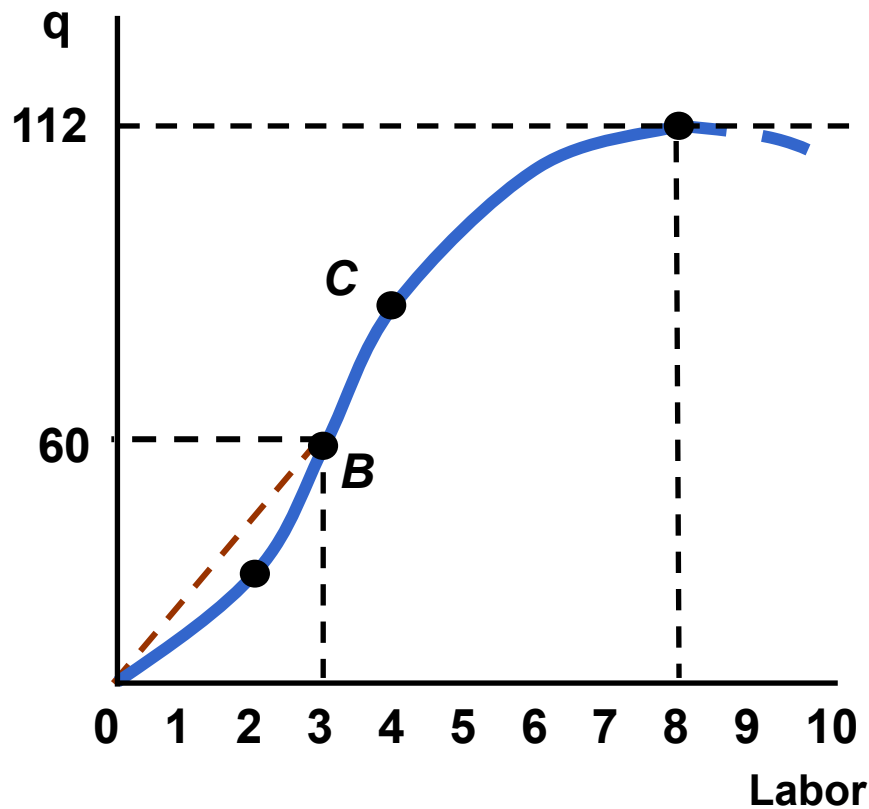
> 70kg/Person

# Product Curves

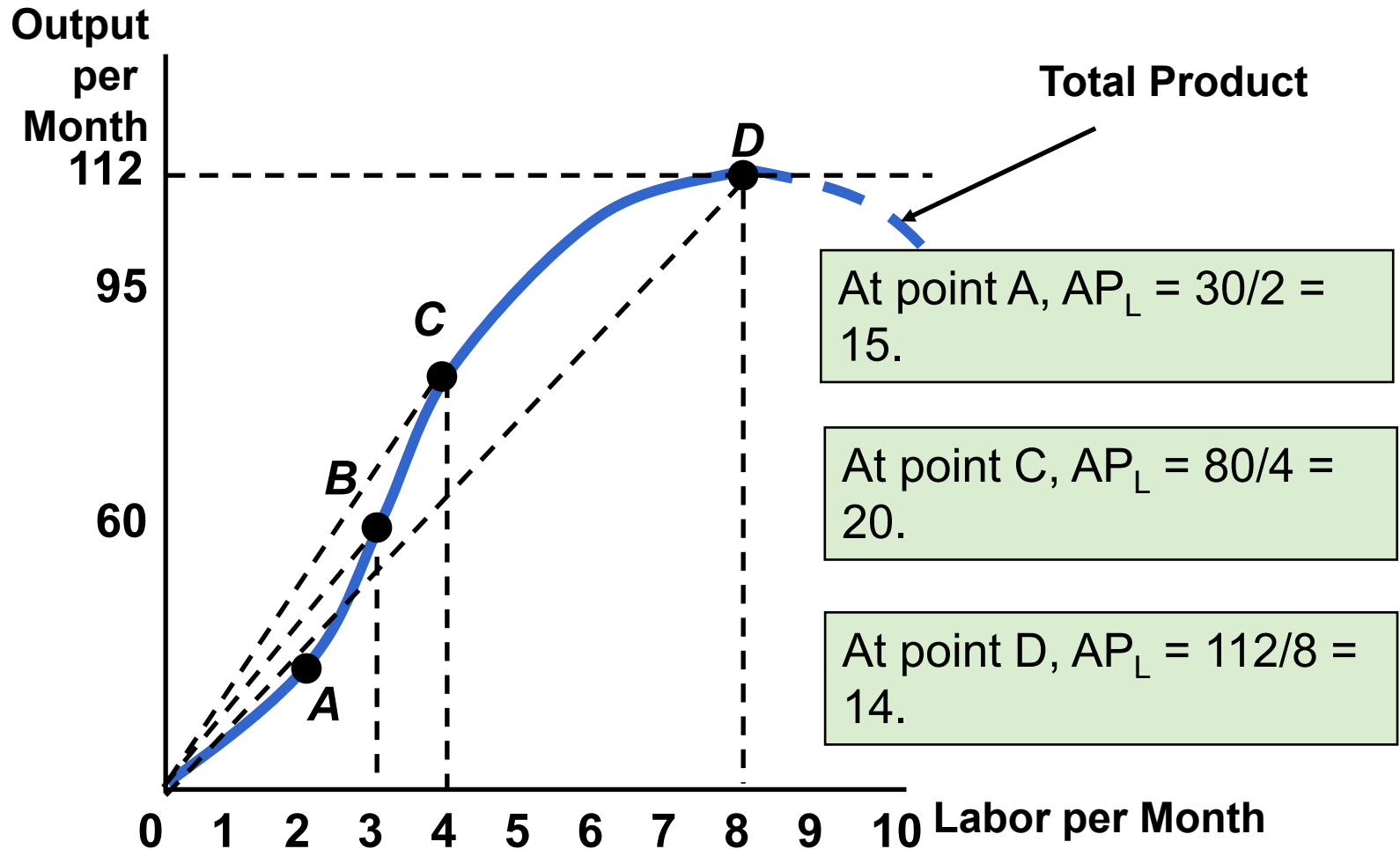


- We can show a geometric relationship between the total product and the average and marginal product curves
  - Slope of line from origin to any point on the total product curve is the average product
  - At point B,  $AP = 60/3 = 20$  which is the same as the slope of the line from the origin to point B on the total product curve

# Product Curves



$AP_L$  = the slope of the line from the origin to the point on  $TP_L$  curve.

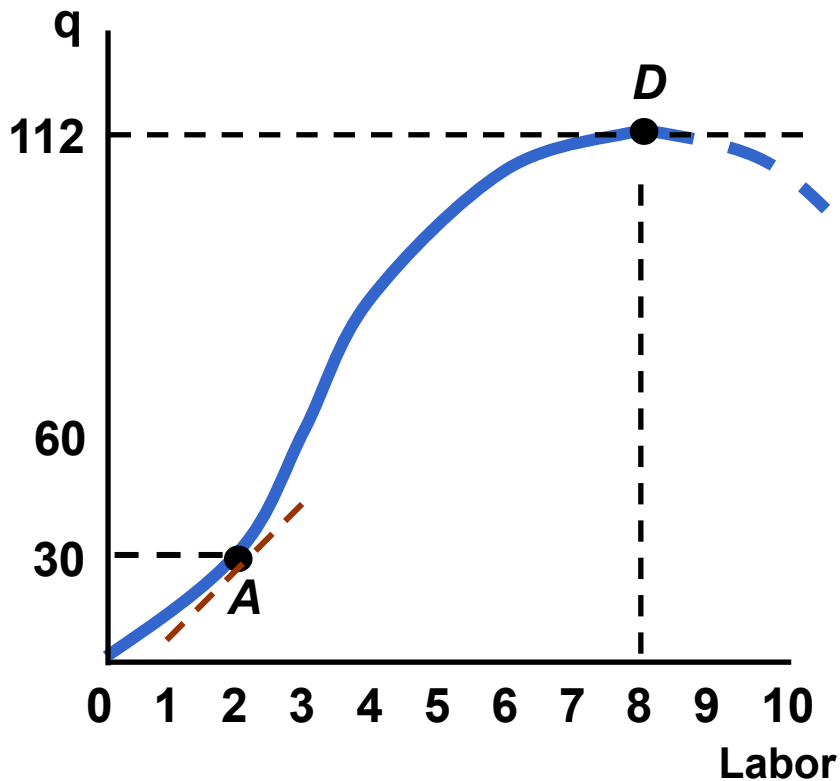


# Product Curves

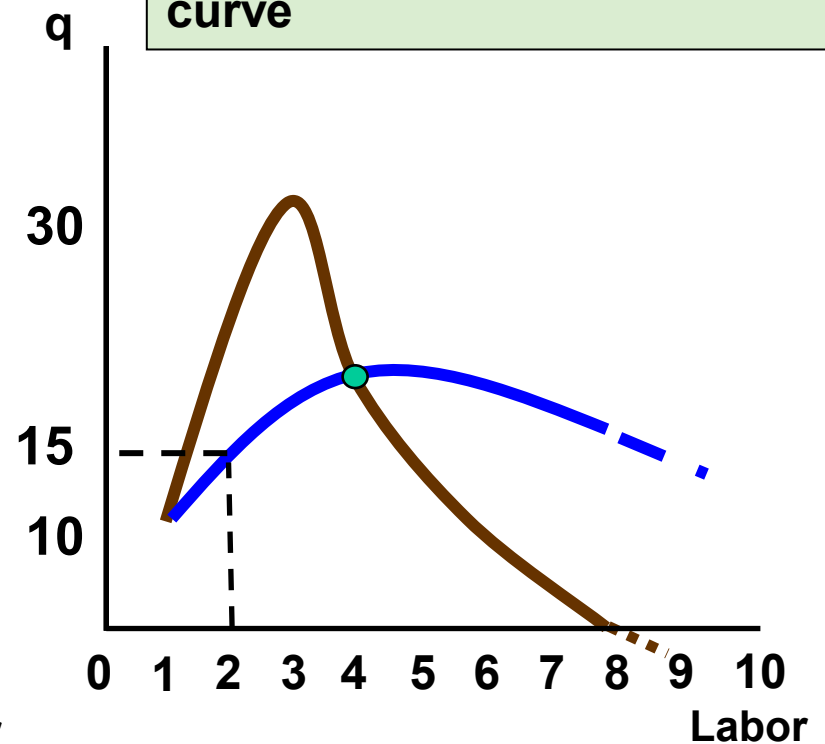


- Geometric relationship between total product and marginal product
  - The marginal product is the slope of the line tangent to any corresponding point on the total product curve
  - For 2 units of labor,  $MP = 30/2 = 15$  which is slope of total product curve at point A

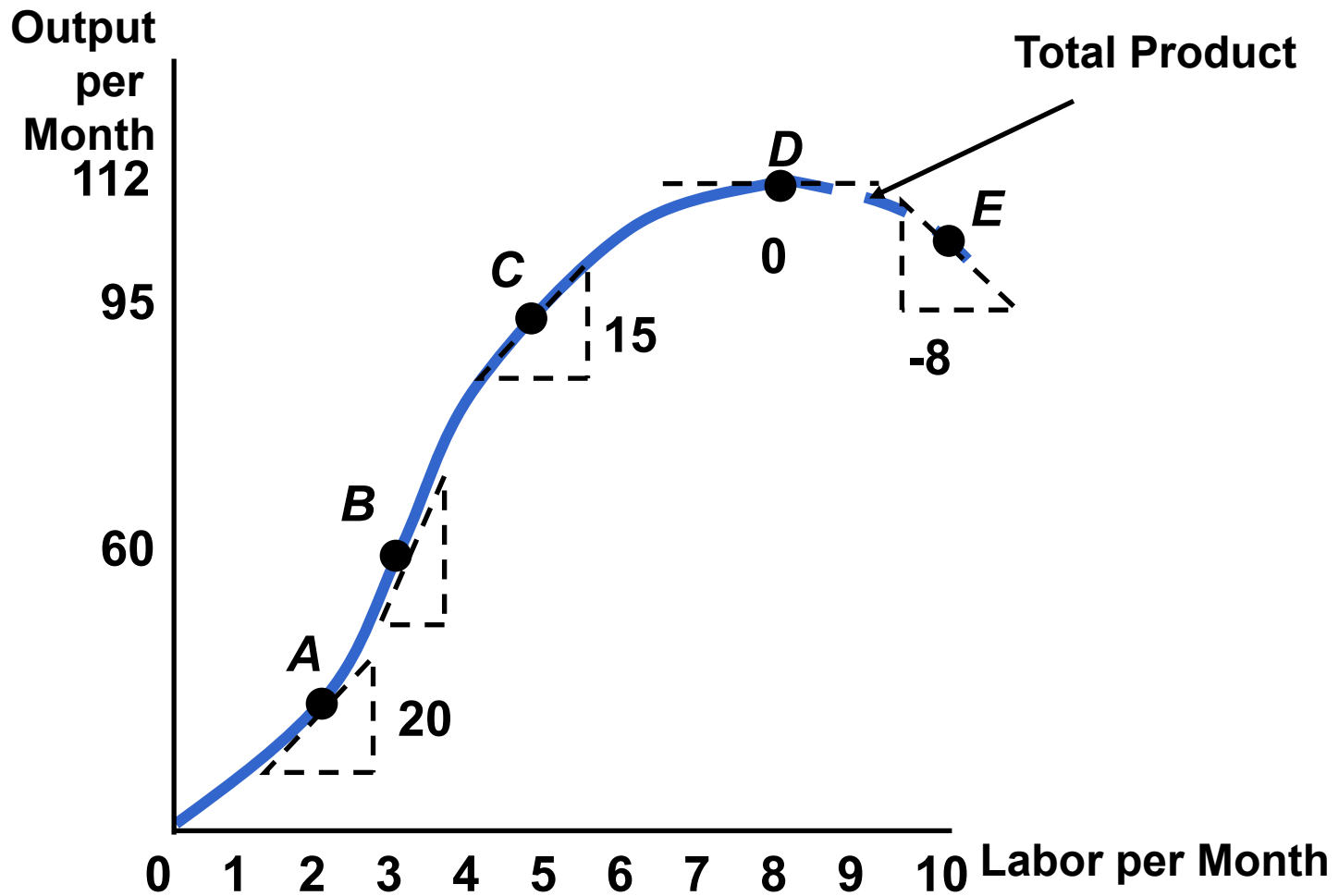
# Product Curves



MP is slope of line tangent to corresponding point on TP curve



$MP_L$  = the slope of the line tangent to the  $TP_L$  curve.



# Production: One Variable Input

- From the previous example, we can see that as we increase labor the additional output produced declines
- **Law of Diminishing Marginal Returns:** As the use of an input increases with other inputs fixed, the resulting additions to output will eventually decrease.

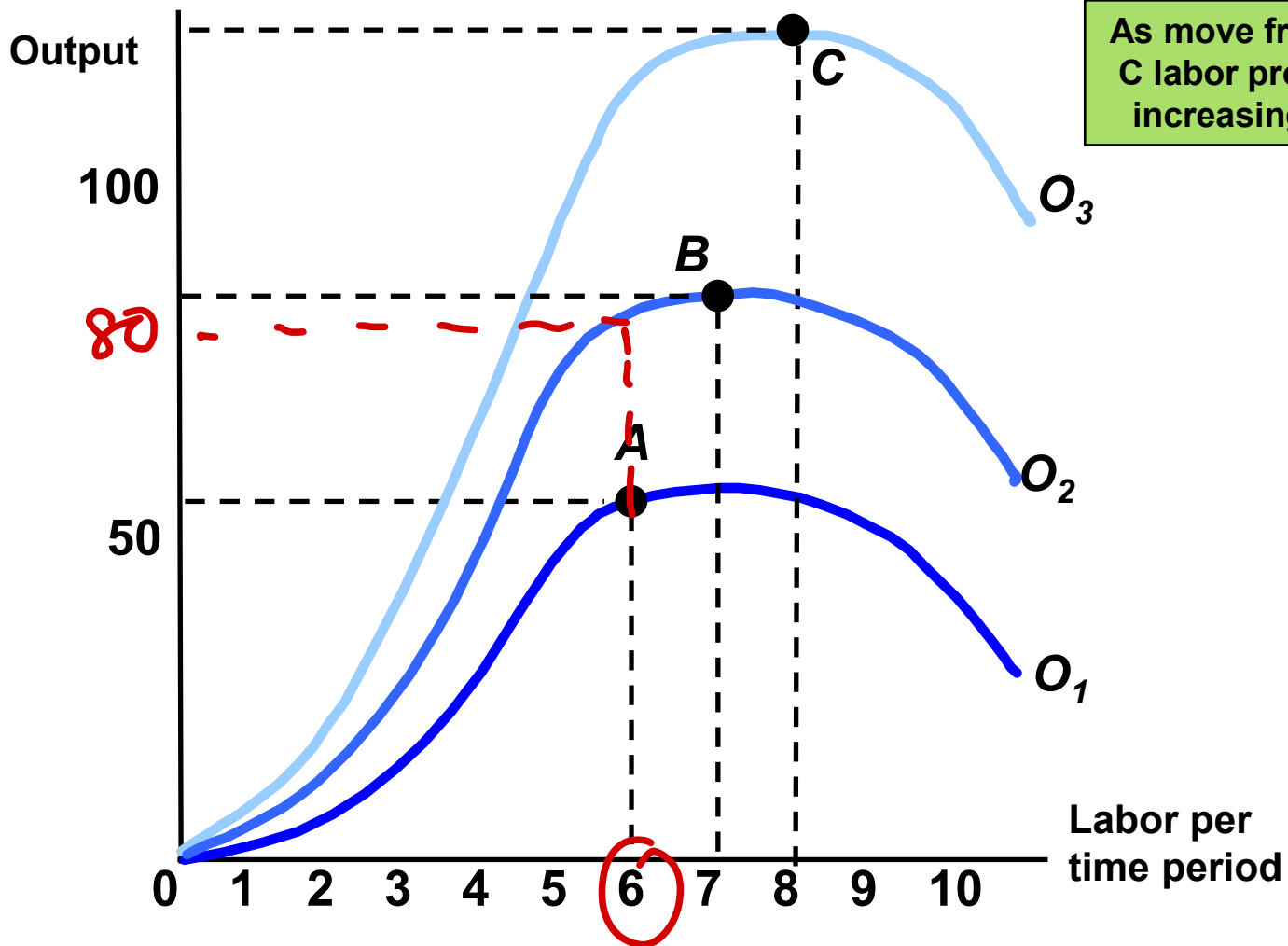
# Law of Diminishing Marginal Returns

- When the labor input is small and capital is fixed, output increases considerably since workers can begin to specialize and MP of labor increases
- When the labor input is large, some workers become less efficient and MP of labor decreases

# Law of Diminishing Marginal Returns

- Easily confused with negative returns – decreases in output.
- Explains a *declining* marginal product, **not** necessarily a negative one
  - *Additional* output can be declining while *total* output is increasing

# The Effect of Technological Improvement



SR Production  $\rightarrow$  SR Cost

$$\text{SR TC} = \text{fixed cost (FC)} + \text{variable cost (VC)}$$

FC : cost of fixed inputs

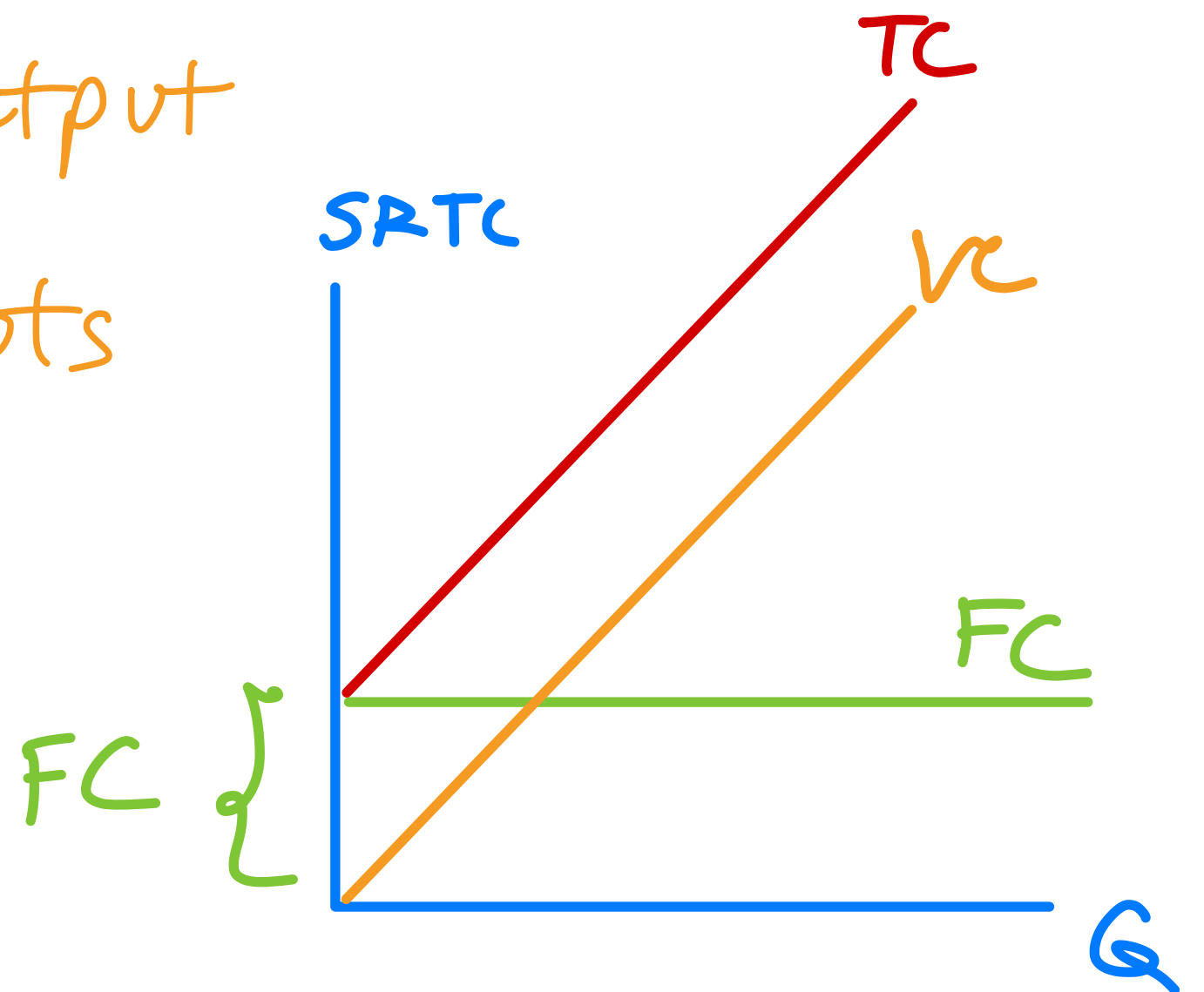
constant regardless of output

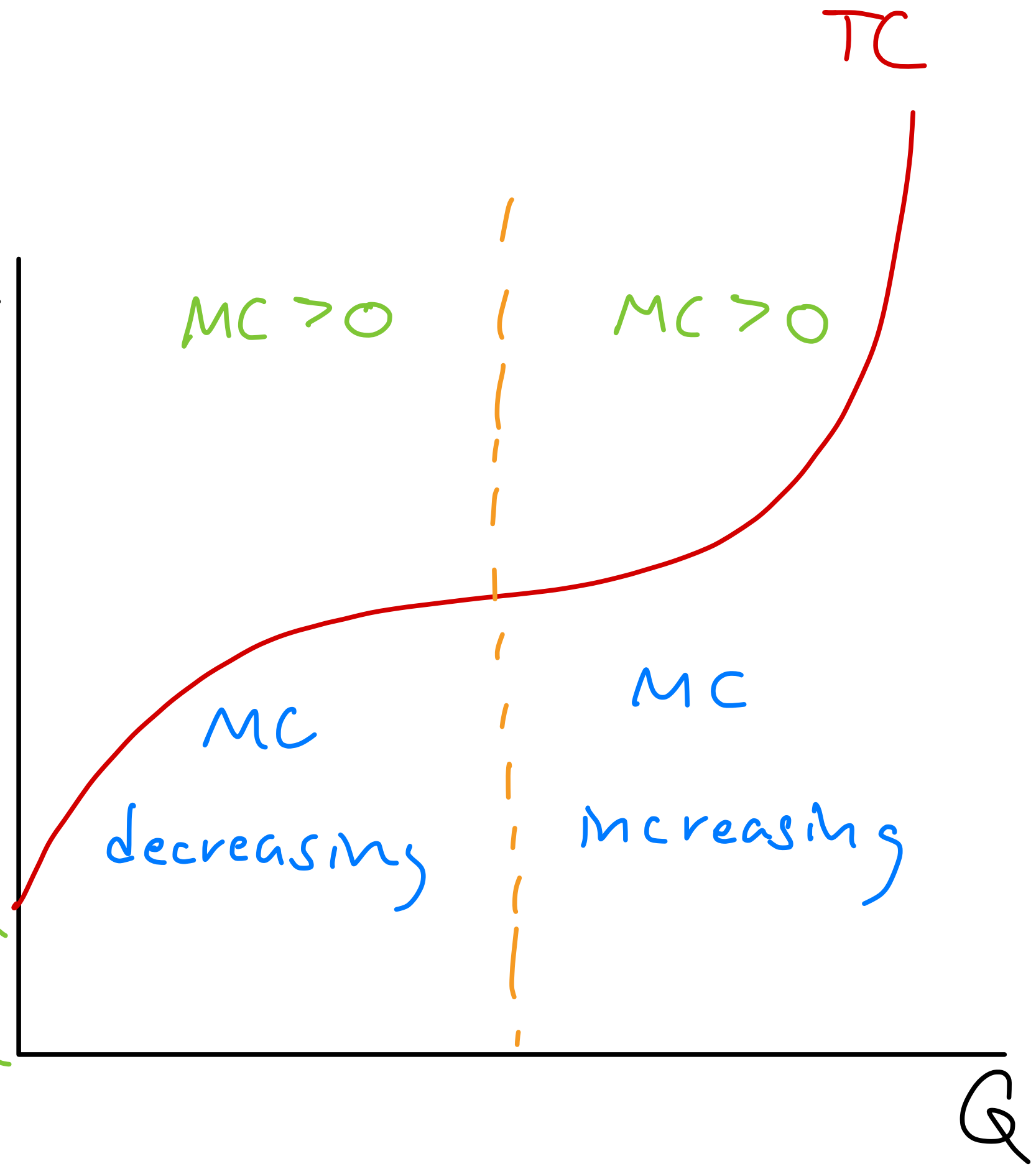
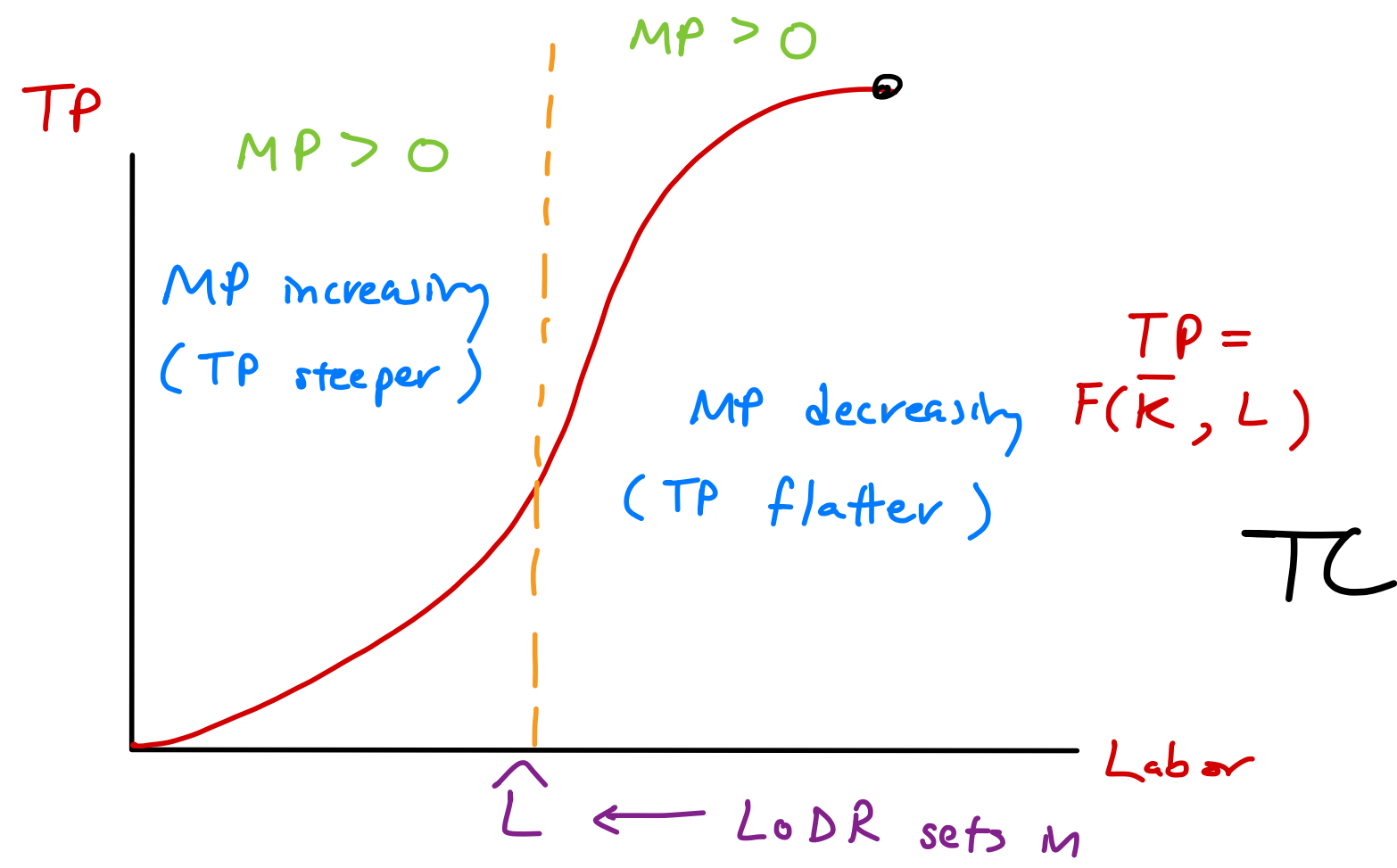
VC : cost of variable inputs

increasing with output

when  $Q = 0$ ,  $VC = 0$

but  $FC > 0$





$MC = \frac{\Delta TC}{\Delta Q} = \text{slope of } TC$

e.g.  $MC = 3$  :  
 $Q \uparrow 1 \rightarrow TC \uparrow 3$

$AC = \frac{TC}{Q}$

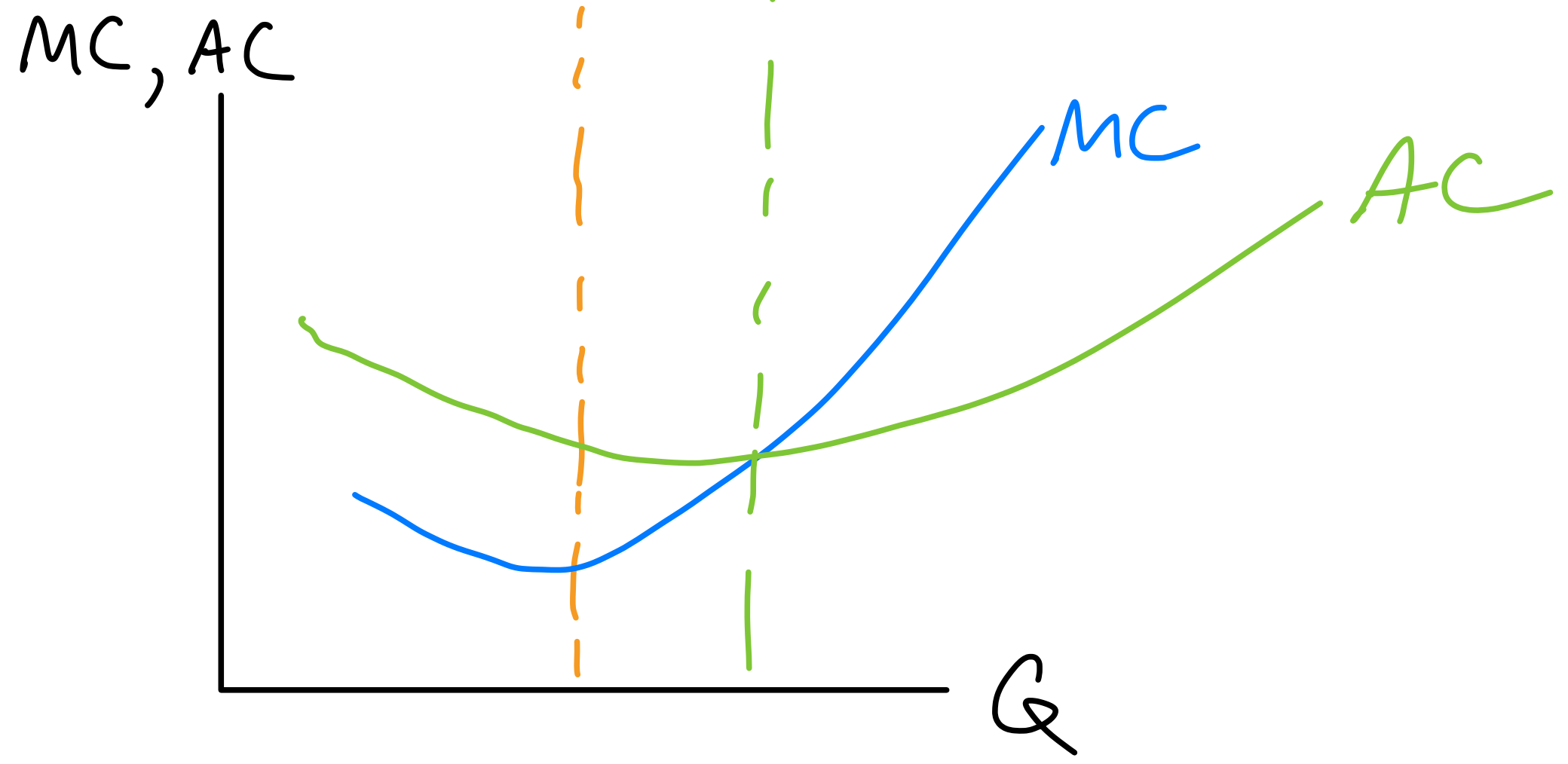
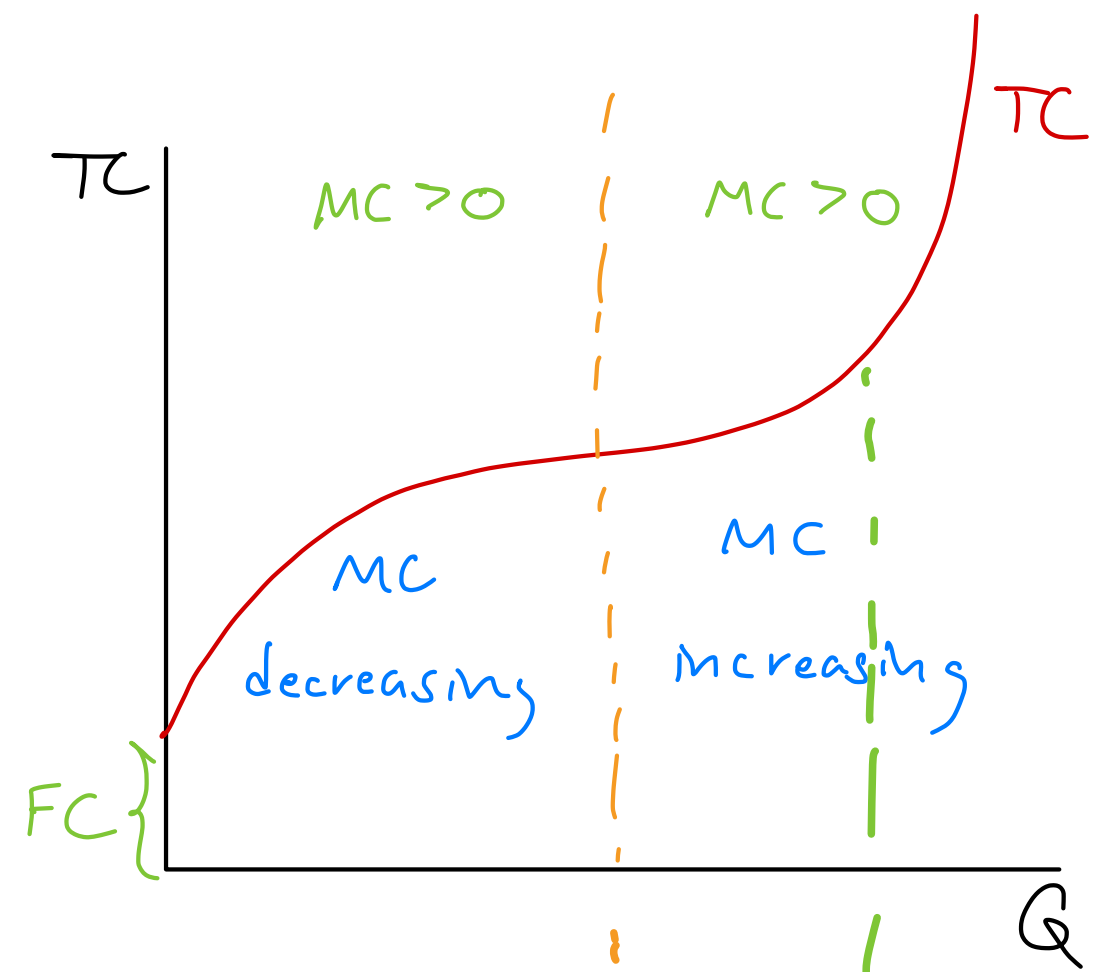
$$MC > 0 : Q \uparrow \rightarrow TC \uparrow$$

When MP is increasing, MC is decreasing

→ extra worker is more productive, so hiring him gives a lot of output, which mean extra cost

to produce extra output falls

$$= MC$$



$$\text{Profit} = \text{TR} - \text{TC}$$

normal profit :  $\pi = 0$   
level of profit that is just sufficient to keep the firm running  
economic profit

abnormal profit :  $\pi > 0$

$$\text{economic profit} = \text{TR} - \text{explicit cost} - \text{implicit cost}$$

$$\text{account profit} = \text{TR} - \text{explicit cost}$$

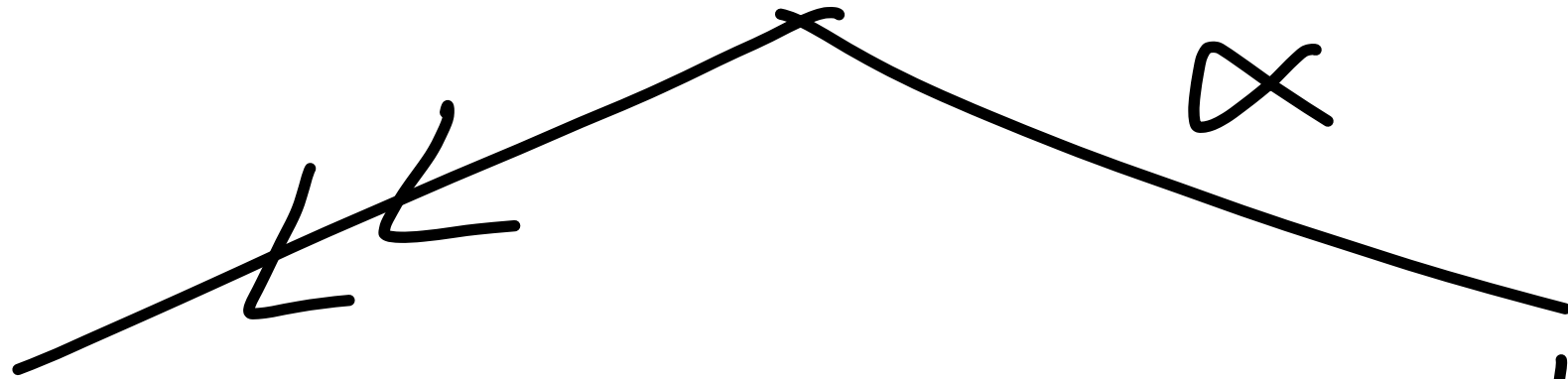
explicit cost : cost that involves **payment**  
and arises from the use of FOP

e.g. material cost

implicit cost : cost that **does not involve**  
**payment** but arises from the  
foregone use of FOP

e.g. opportunity cost of running a firm  
(foregone salary from working as salaryman)

You



run business

$$TR = 50k$$

$$\text{explicit cost} = 20k$$

$$\text{accounting profit} = 30k$$

work as salary man

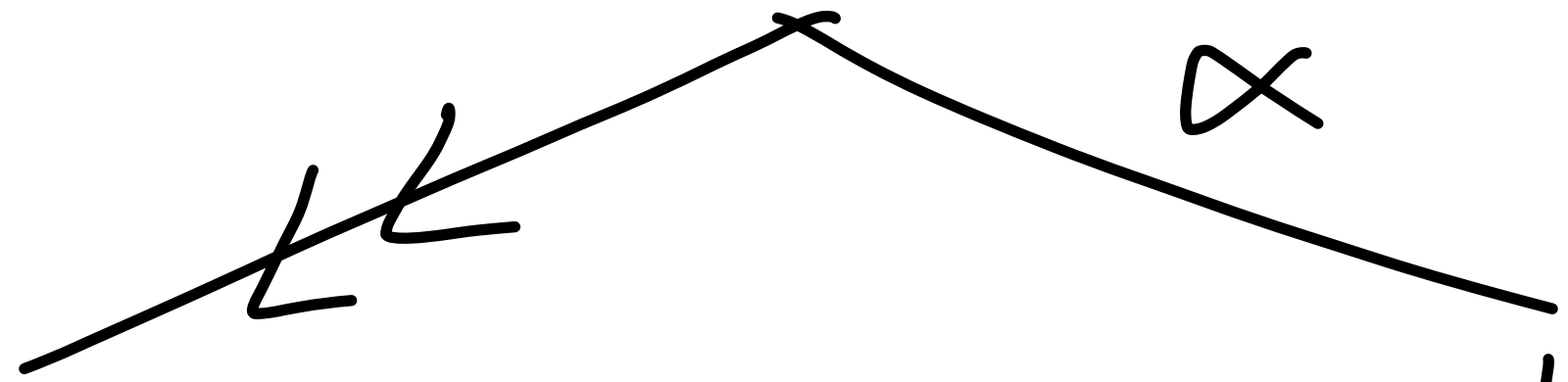
$$\text{salary} = 30k$$

$$(\text{implicit cost} = 30k)$$

$$\text{economic profit} = 0$$

(normal profit)

You



run business

TR = 50k

explicit cost = 40k

accounting profit = 10k

work as salary man

salary = 30k

(implicit cost = 30k)

economic profit = -20k

(loss → shutdown)

& work as salary man

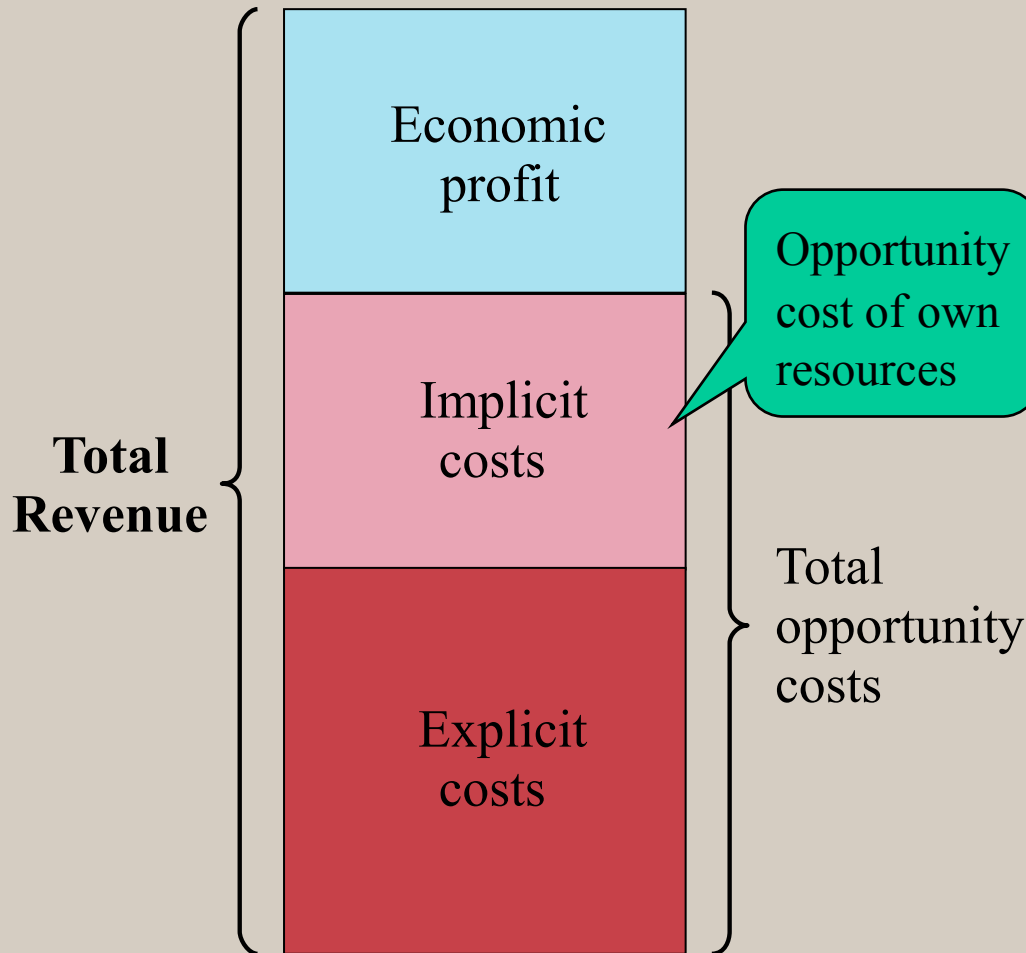
# Measuring Cost:

## Which Costs Matter?

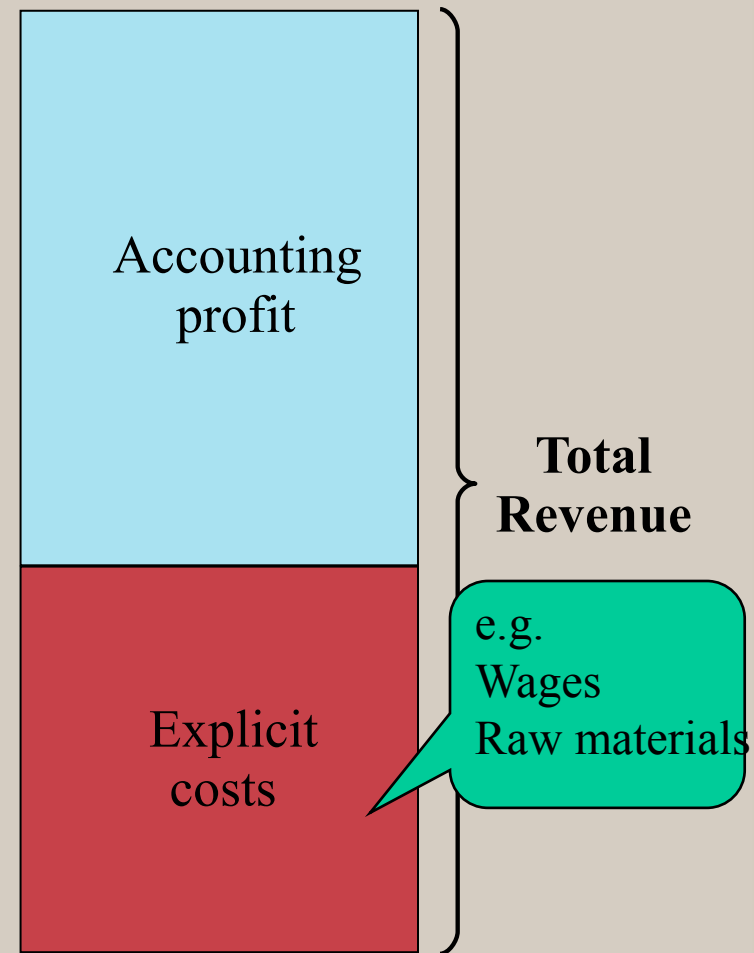
- Accountants tend to take a retrospective view of firms costs, where as economists tend to take a forward-looking view
- Accounting Cost
  - Actual expenses plus depreciation charges for capital equipment --> only explicit costs
- Economic Cost
  - Cost to a firm of utilizing economic resources in production, including opportunity cost
  - >both explicit and implicit costs

# Economics versus Accountancy

## How an Economist Views a Firm



## How an Accountant Views a Firm



# Measuring Cost: Which Costs Matter?



- Economic costs distinguish between costs the firm can control and those it cannot
- **Opportunity cost**
  - Cost associated with the highest opportunities that are foregone when a firm's resources are used.
  - The minimum payment needed to pay the resource owners so it continues be used in that operation.



# Opportunity Cost



- An Example
  - A firm owns its own building and pays no rent for office space
  - Does this mean the cost of office space is zero?
  - The building could have been rented instead
  - Foregone rent is the opportunity cost of using the building for production and should be included in economic costs of doing business



# Opportunity Cost



- A person starting their own business must take into account the opportunity cost of their time
  - Could have worked elsewhere making a competitive salary
- Accountants and economists often treat depreciation differently as well
  - depreciation in economic means the user cost of that capital
  - the different between the value of capital selling today and selling one year from now.

# Accounting Versus Economic Profit

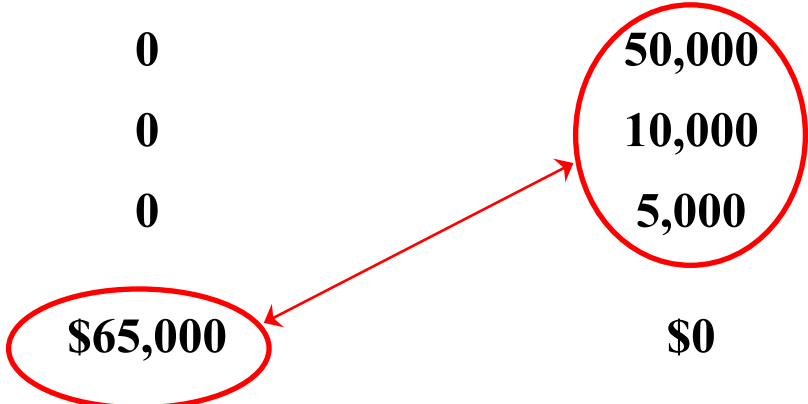


<b>Item</b>	<b>Accounting Profit</b>	<b>Economic Profit</b>
<b>Total Revenue</b>	<b>\$500,000</b>	<b>\$500,000</b>
<b>Less Explicit costs:</b>		
<b>Wages &amp; salaries</b>	<b>\$400,000</b>	<b>\$400,000</b>
<b>Materials</b>	<b>\$50,000</b>	<b>\$50,000</b>
<b>Interest paid</b>	<b>\$10,000</b>	<b>\$10,000</b>
<b>Other payments</b>	<b>\$10,000</b>	<b>\$10,000</b>
<b>Less implicit costs:</b>		
<b>Foregone salary</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>50,000</b>
<b>Foregone rent</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>10,000</b>
<b>Foregone interest</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>5,000</b>
<b>Equals profit</b>	<b>\$30,000</b>	<b>-\$35,000</b>

# Accounting Versus Economic Profit



Item	Accounting Profit	Economic Profit
Total Revenue	\$535,000	\$535,000
<b>Less Explicit costs:</b>		
Wages & salaries	\$400,000	\$400,000
Materials	\$50,000	\$50,000
Interest paid	\$10,000	\$10,000
Other payments	\$10,000	\$10,000
<b>Less implicit costs:</b>		
Foregone salary	0	50,000
Foregone rent	0	10,000
Foregone interest	0	5,000
<b>Equals profit</b>	<b>\$65,000</b>	<b>\$0</b>



# Normal profit

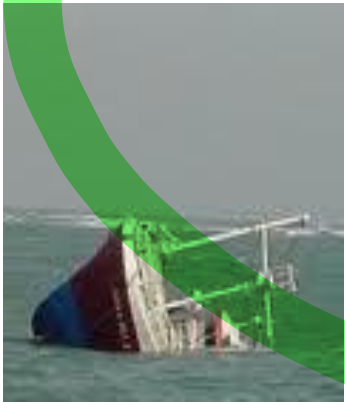


- Normal profit is a minimum accounting profit that is just sufficient to compensate for the opportunity costs of the firm owner
- When a firm earns a normal profit, the economic profit must be zero
- The firm owner is compensated exactly equals to his best alternative

# Measuring Cost: Which Costs Matter?



- Although opportunity costs are hidden and should be taken into account, **sunk costs should not**
- **Sunk Cost**
  - **Expenditure that has been made and cannot be recovered**
  - **Should not influence a firm's future economic decisions.**



# Sunk Cost



- Firm buys a piece of equipment that cannot be converted to another use
- Expenditure on the equipment is a sunk cost
  - Has no alternative use so cost cannot be recovered – opportunity cost is zero
  - Decision to buy the equipment might have been good or bad, but now does not matter



# Measuring Cost: Which Costs Matter?



- Some costs vary with output, while some remain the same no matter amount of output
- **Total cost** can be divided into:
- **Fixed Cost**
  - Does not vary with the level of output
- **Variable Cost**
  - Cost that varies as output varies

# Fixed and Variable Costs

- Total output is a function of variable inputs and fixed inputs.
- Therefore, the total cost of production equals the fixed cost plus the variable cost

$$TC = TFC + TVC$$

$$TC = rK + wL$$

- Example: If  $q = 5$  units needs  $K = 2$ ,  $L = 10$ ,  $r = 10$ ,  $w = 0.5$ .  $TC = (10)(2) + (0.5)(10) = 20 + 5$

# Example

- From  $Q = K^{0.5}L^{0.5}$ . Capital is fixed,  $K = 4$ ; hence

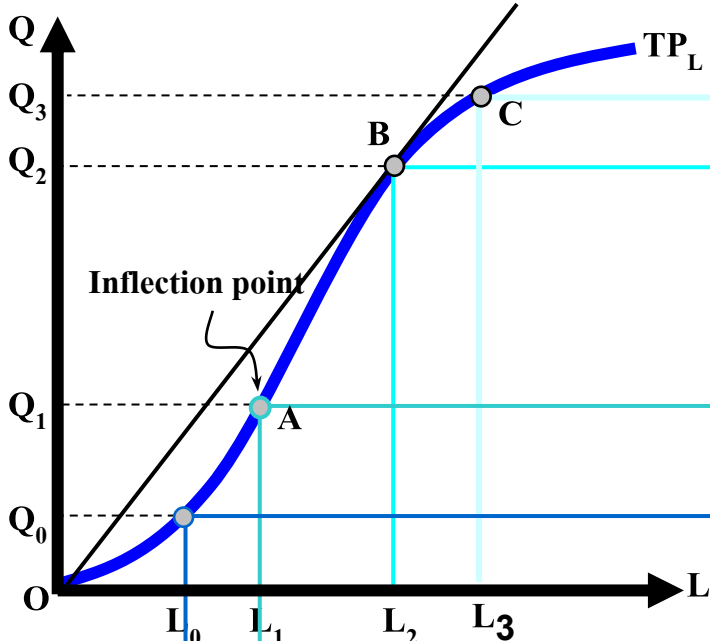
$$L = \left(Q/K^{0.5}\right)^2 = \left(Q/4^{0.5}\right)^2 = Q^2/4$$

- If  $r = 10$ ,  $w = 4$ , then

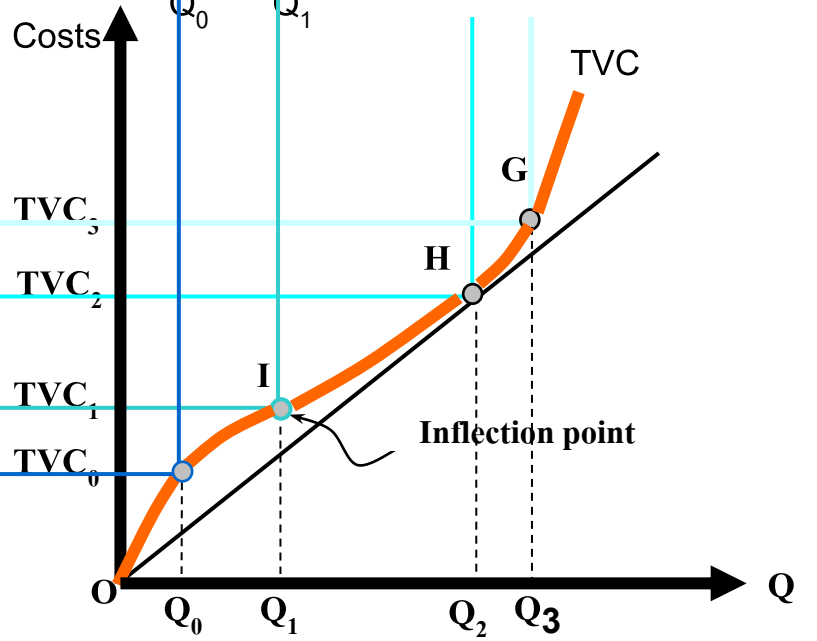
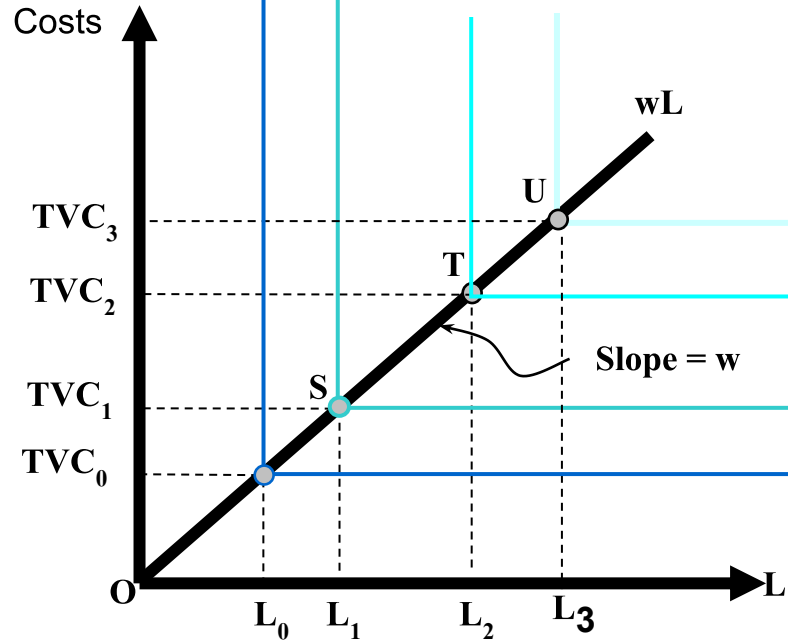
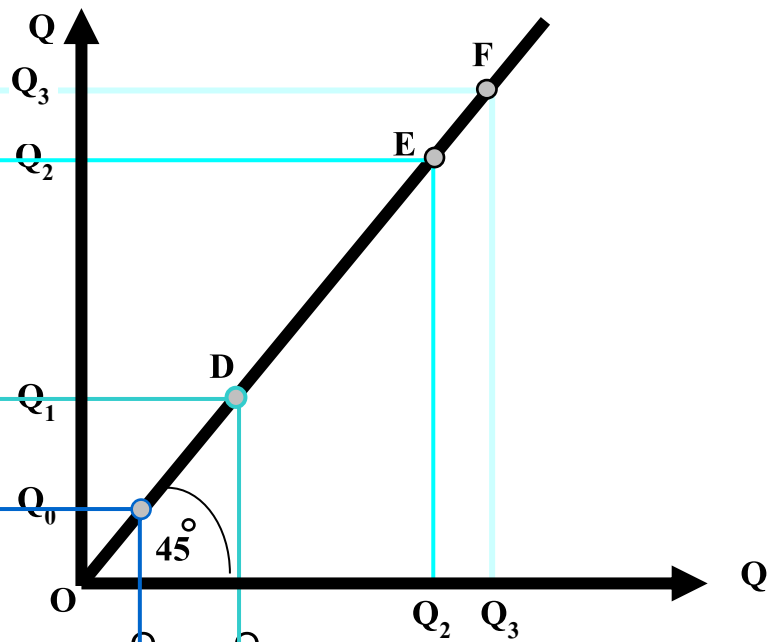
$$TC = rK + wL$$

$$= (10)(4) + 4Q^2/4 = 40 + Q^2$$

(A)  $TP_L$  curve that varies with  $L$



(C) 45° Line for switching the axis



(B) TVC that varies with  $w$  and  $L$

(D) TVC curve that varies with  $Q$



# Fixed Cost Versus Sunk Cost

- Fixed cost and sunk cost are often confused
- Fixed Cost
  - Cost paid by a firm that is in business regardless of the level of output
  - It is avoidable when the firm exit the market
- Sunk Cost
  - Cost that have been incurred and cannot be recovered
  - It is not avoidable when the firm exit the market

# Fixed Cost Versus Sunk Cost

- Example: You are about to invest to make a casting mold worth ฿50 Th. The mold is specifically designed and cannot be used for other things.
- Before the payment is done, the investment is avoidable, so it is not a sunk cost.
  - It is a fixed cost and can be used for making decision whether you should continue your business or not.
- After the payment is done, the cost is sunk.
  - The cost should not be used for making decision whether you should continue your business or not.

# Measuring Costs

- Average Total Cost (ATC)
  - Cost per unit of output
  - Also equals average fixed cost (AFC) plus average variable cost (AVC).

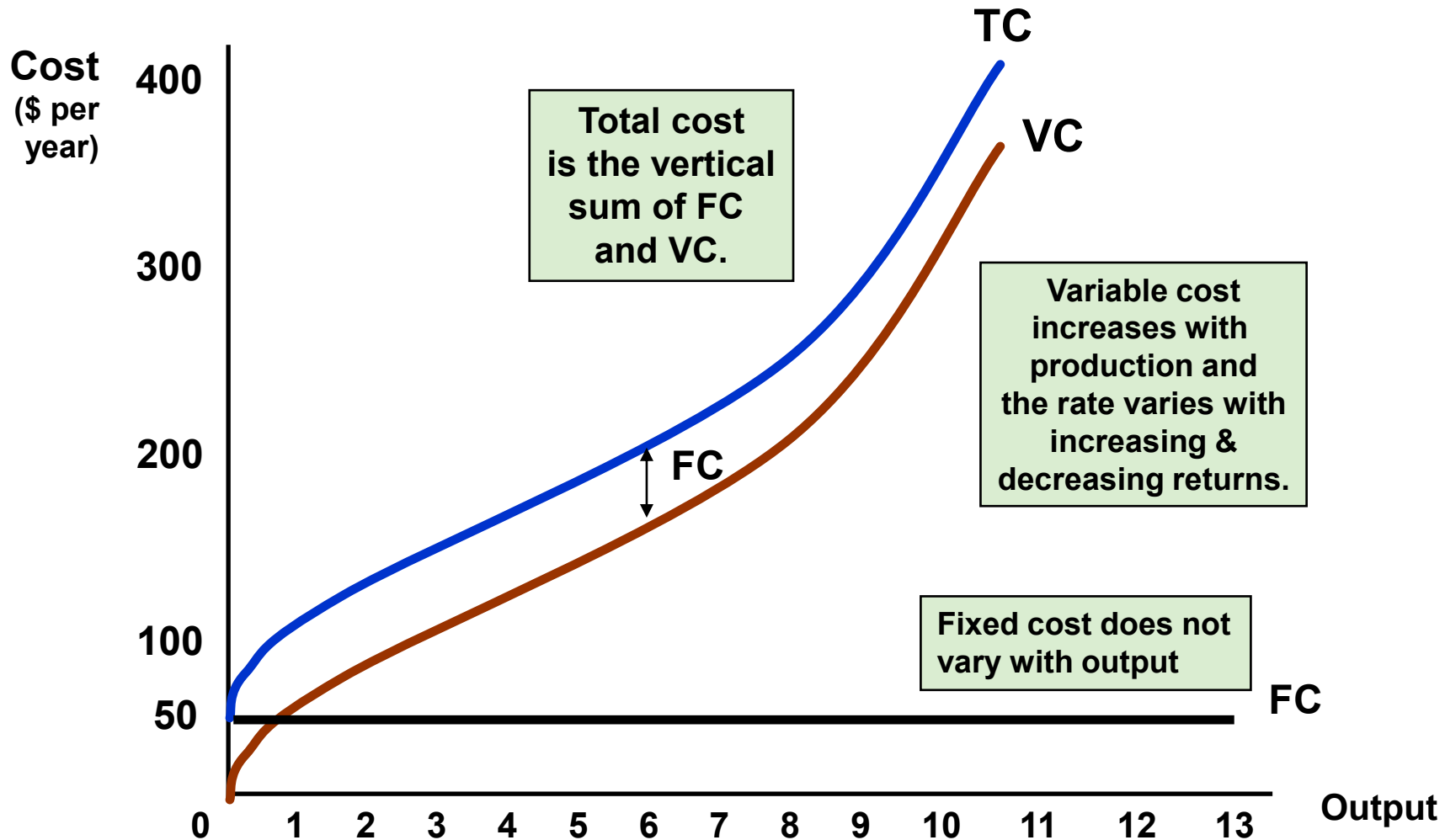
$$ATC = \frac{TC}{q} = AFC + AVC$$
$$ATC = \frac{TFC}{q} + \frac{TVC}{q}$$

# Measuring Costs

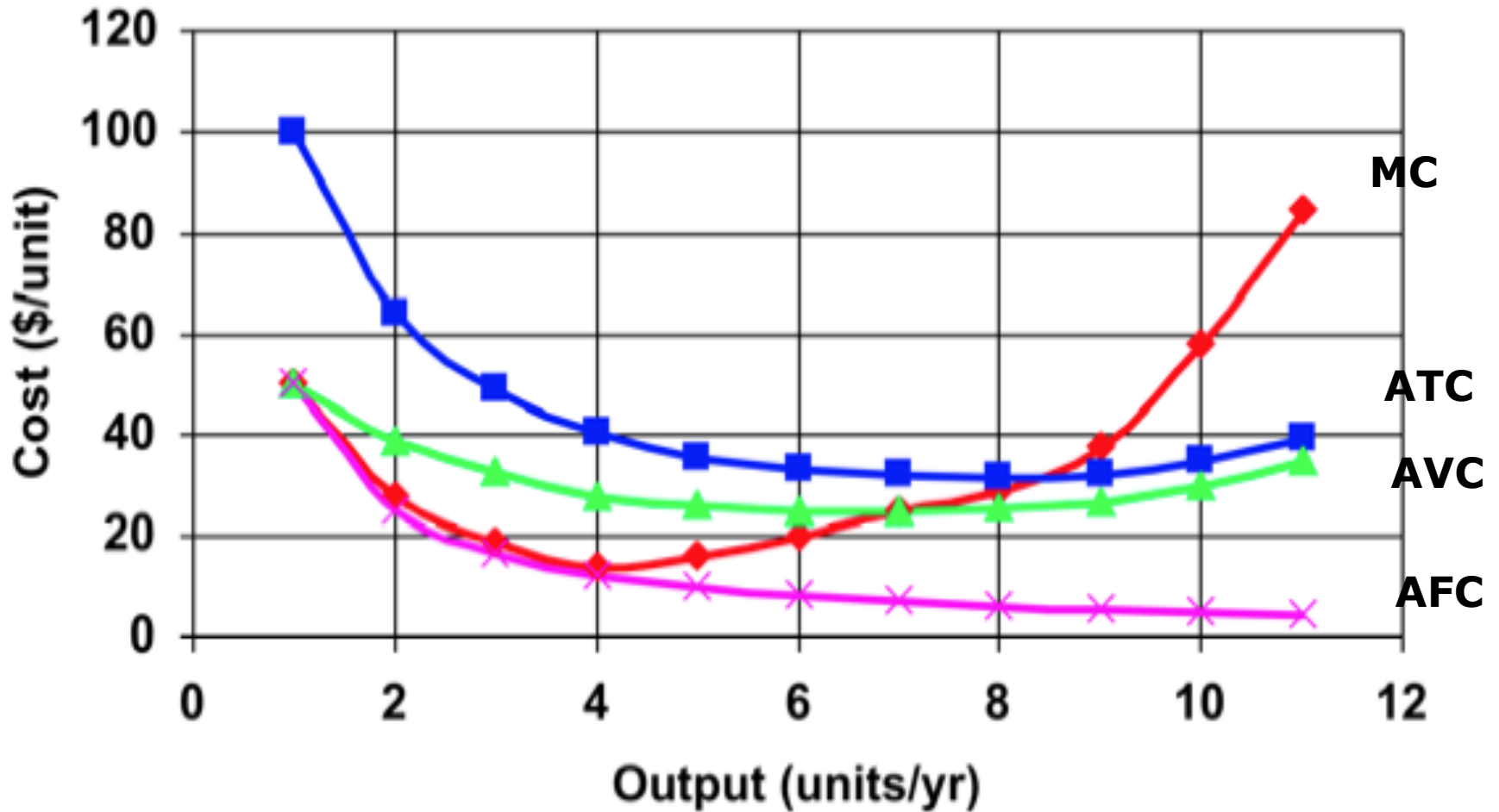
- Marginal Cost (MC):
  - The cost of expanding output by one unit.
  - Fixed cost have no impact on marginal cost, so it can be written as:

$$MC = \frac{\Delta TVC}{\Delta q} = \frac{\Delta TC}{\Delta q}$$

# Cost Curves for a Firm

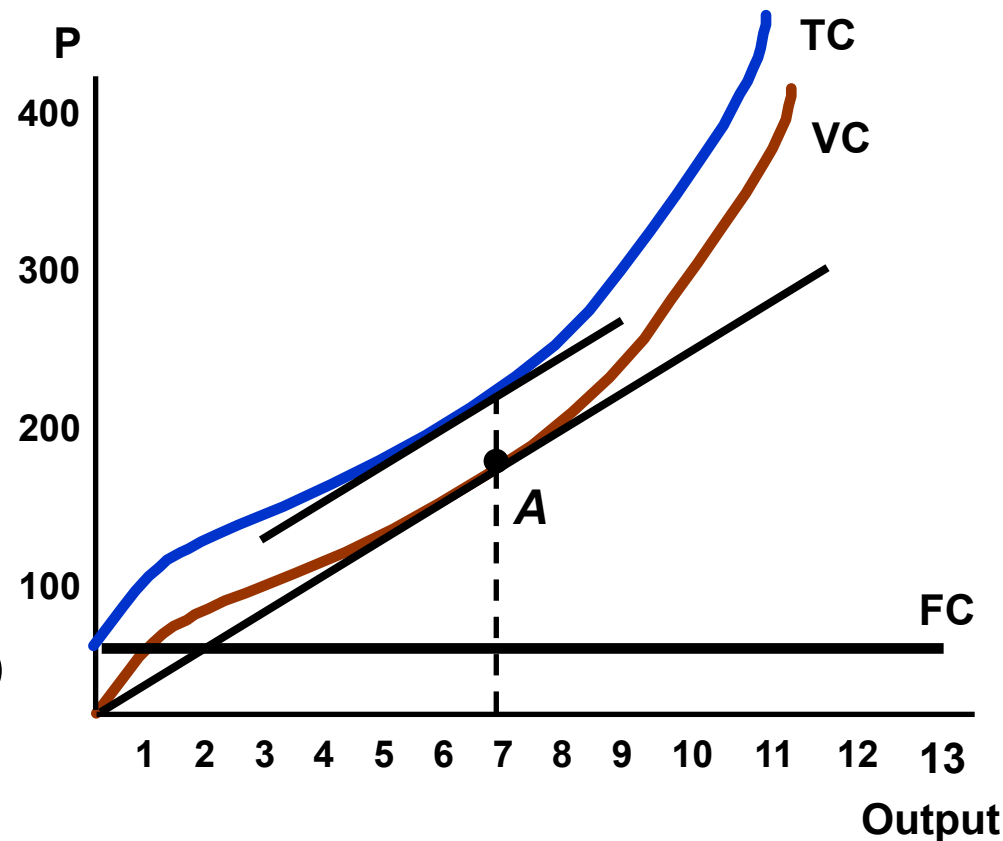


# Cost Curves



# Cost Curves for a Firm

- The line drawn from the origin to the variable cost curve:
  - Its slope equals  $AVC$
  - The slope of a point on  $TVC$  or  $TC$  equals  $MC$
  - Therefore,  $MC = AVC$  at 7 units of output (point A)



# Determinants of Short-run Costs

- If marginal product of labor decreases only slightly as labor increase
  - Costs will not rise very fast when output is increased
- If marginal product of labor decreases significantly as more labor is hired
  - Costs of production increase rapidly
  - Greater and greater expenditures must be made to produce more output

# Determinants of Short-run Costs

- Assume the wage rate ( $w$ ) is fixed,  $TVC = wL$ .

$$\begin{aligned} MC &= \frac{\Delta TVC}{\Delta q} = \frac{\Delta[wL]}{\Delta q} \\ &= \frac{w\Delta L}{\Delta q} = \frac{w}{MP_L} \end{aligned}$$

- ...and a low marginal product (MP) leads to a high marginal cost (MC) and vice versa.

# The Average – Marginal relationship

- When MC is below AVC, AVC is falling
- When MC is above AVC, AVC is rising
- When MC is below ATC, ATC is falling
- When MC is above ATC, ATC is rising
- Therefore, MC crosses AVC and ATC at the minimums