

Production and Costs in the Short run

EE311

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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**

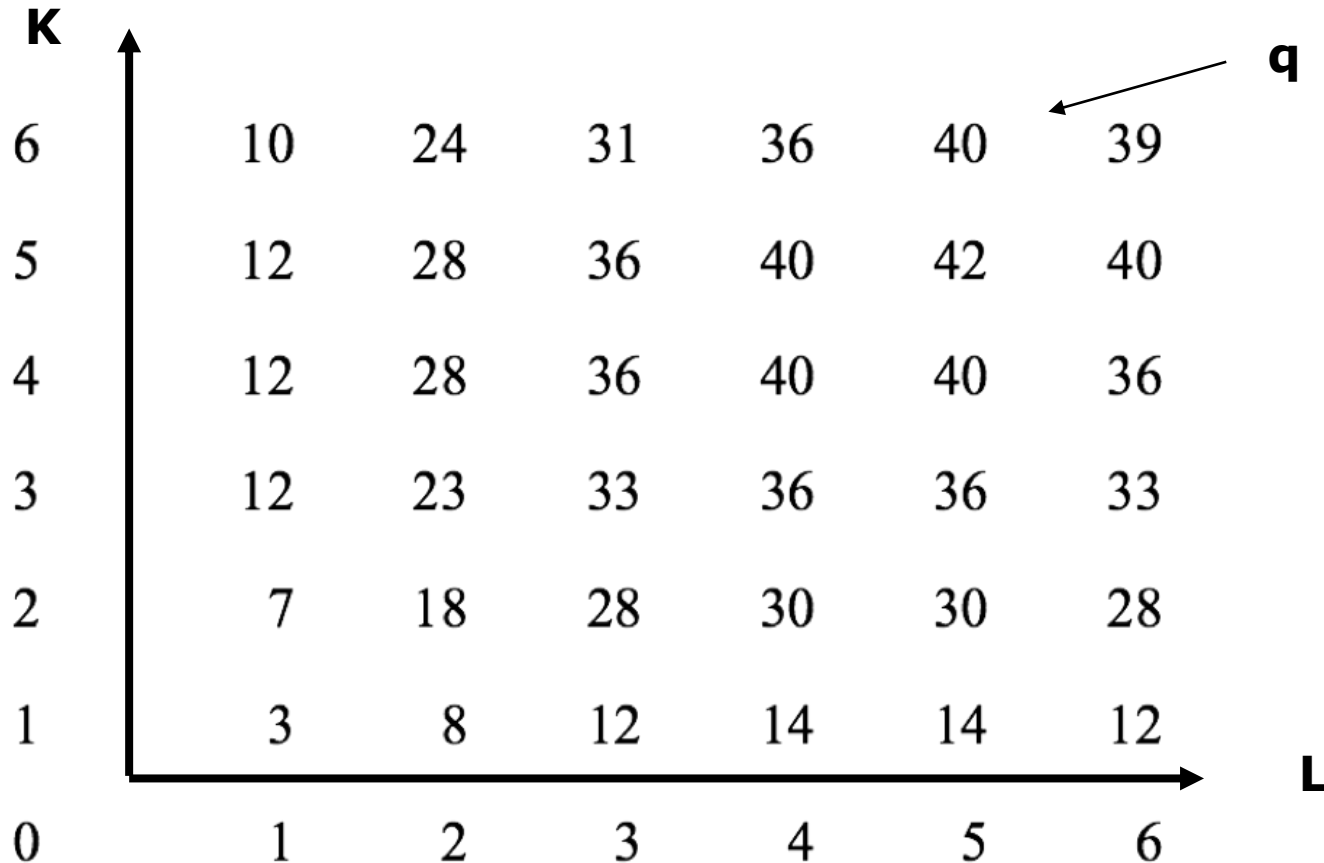
The Technology of Production



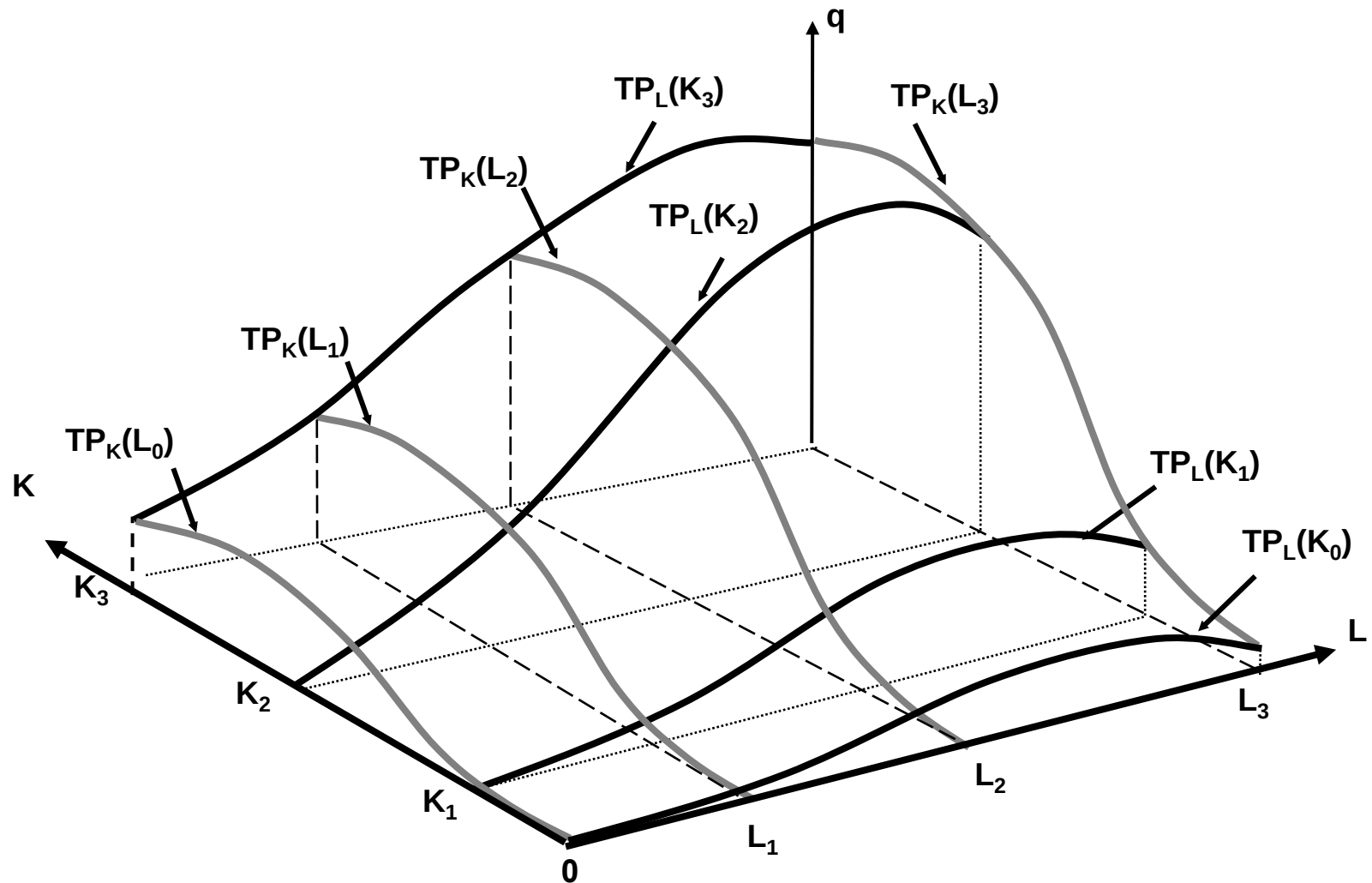
- Production Function:
 - Indicates the highest output (q) that a firm can produce for every specified combination of inputs.
 - For simplicity, we will consider only labor (L) and capital (K)
 - Shows what is technically feasible when the firm operates efficiently
- The production function for two inputs:

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

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



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

<i>Amount of Labor (L)</i>	<i>Amount of Capital (K)</i>	<i>Total Output (q)</i>	<i>Average Product (q/L)</i>	<i>Marginal Product ($\Delta q/\Delta L$)</i>
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

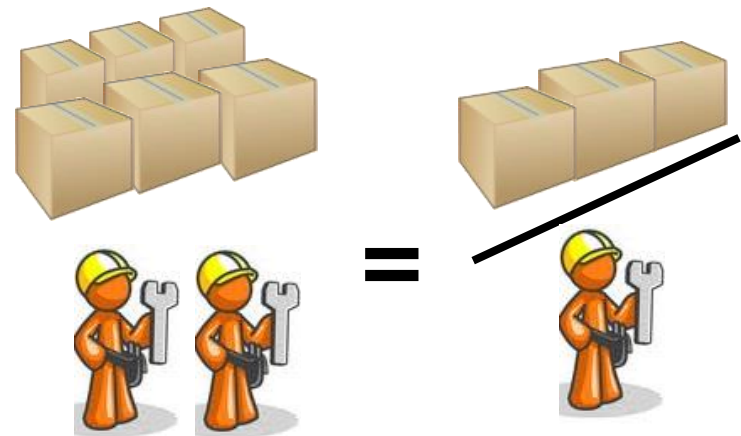
S-R Production: One Variable Input

- 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

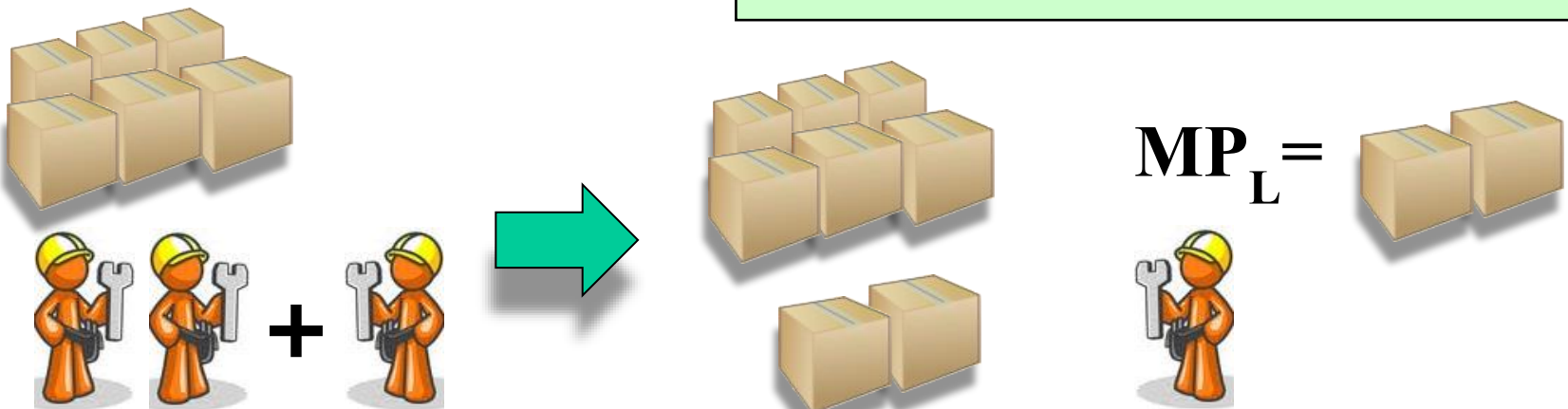
$$AP_L = \frac{\text{Output}}{\text{Labor Input}} = \frac{q}{L}$$



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

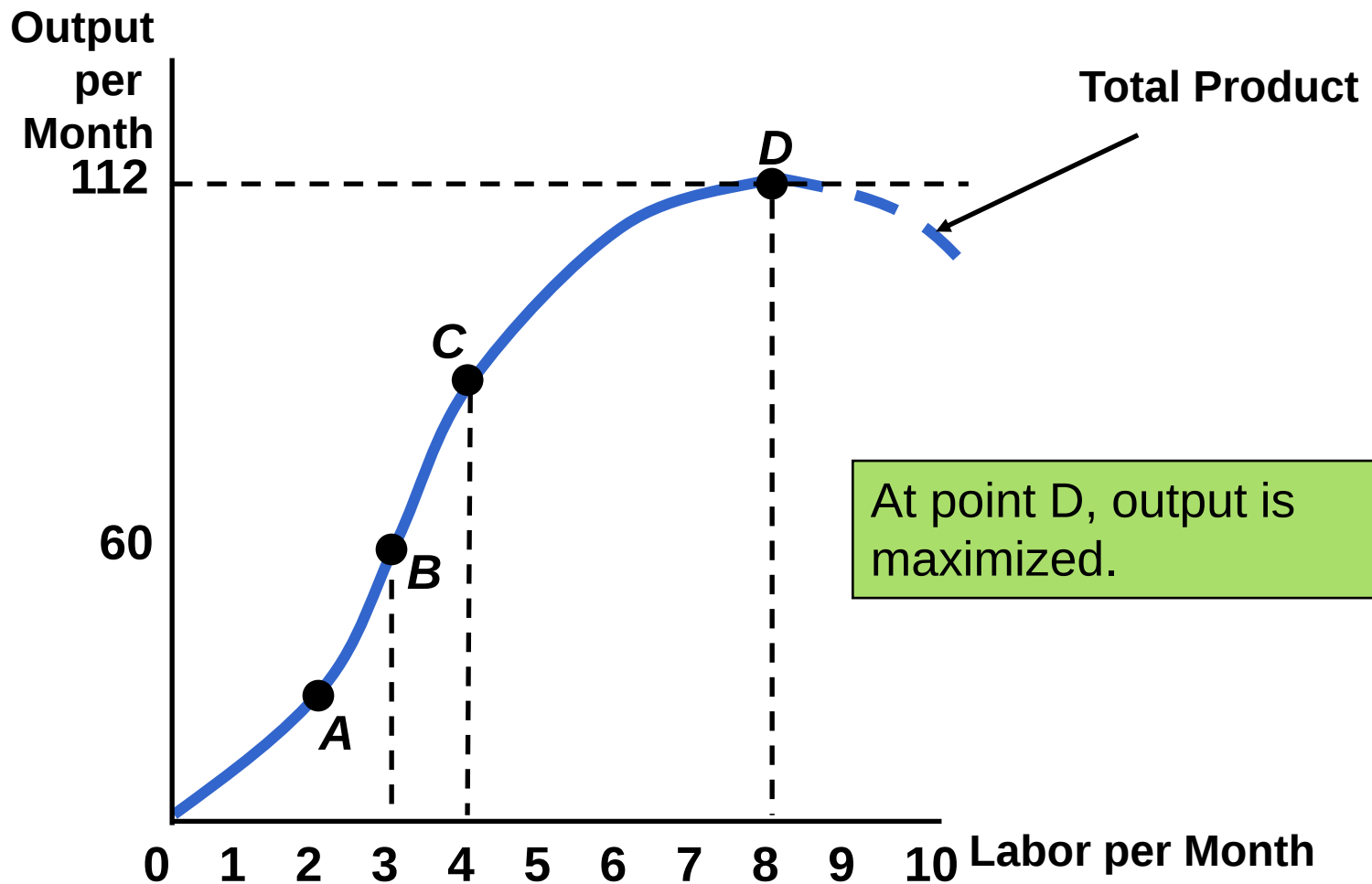
$$MP_L = \frac{\Delta \text{Output}}{\Delta \text{Labor Input}} = \frac{\Delta q}{\Delta L}$$



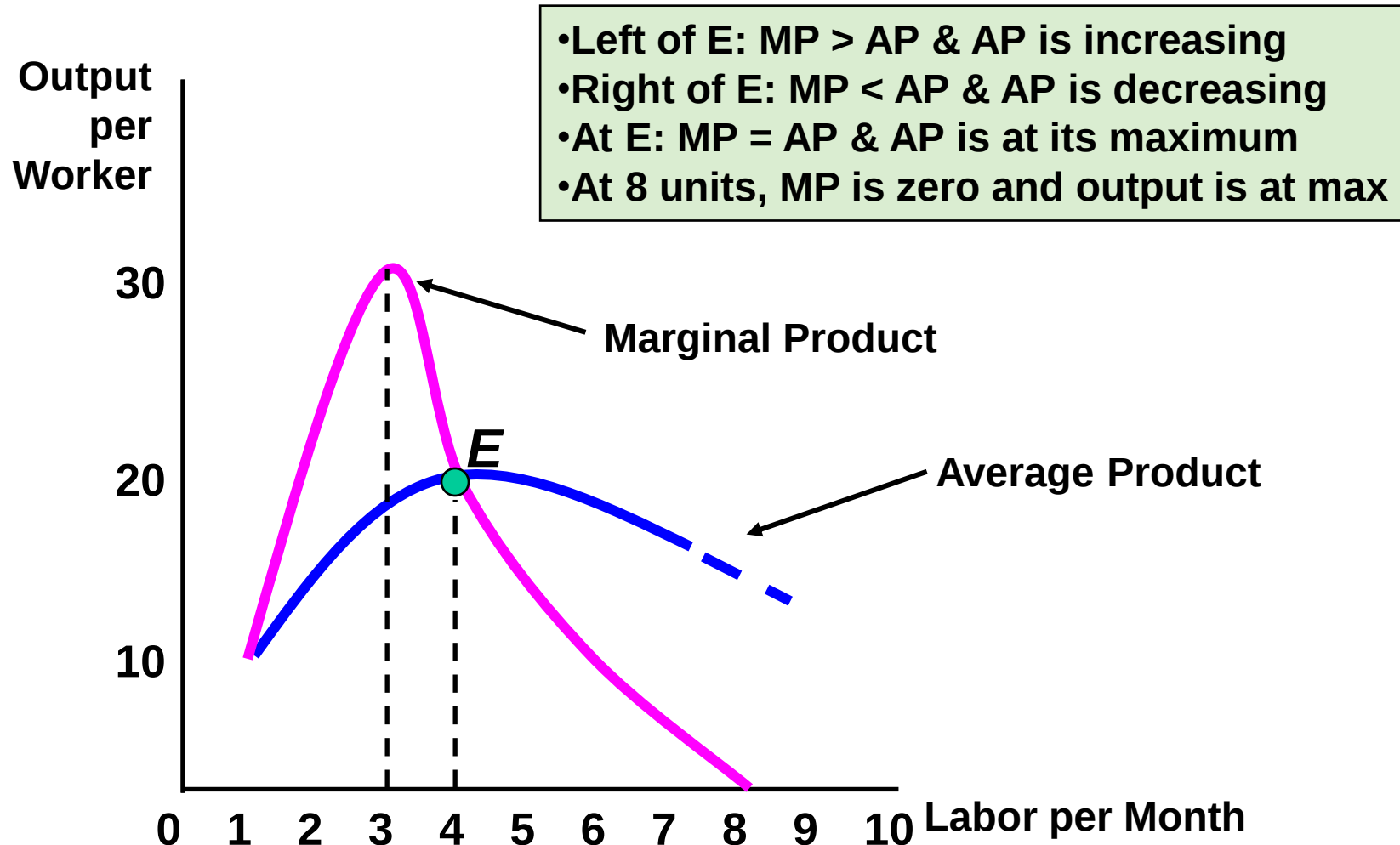
S-R Production: One Variable Input

- 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



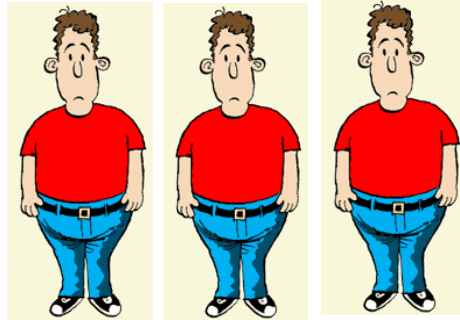
S-R Production: One Variable Input



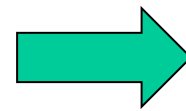
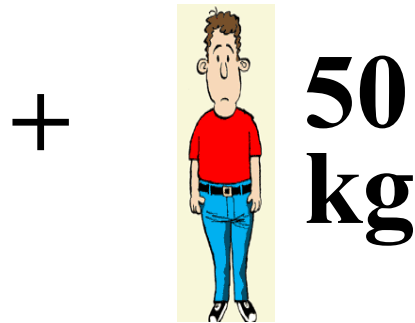
Marginal & Average Product

- 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

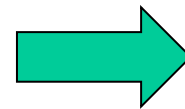
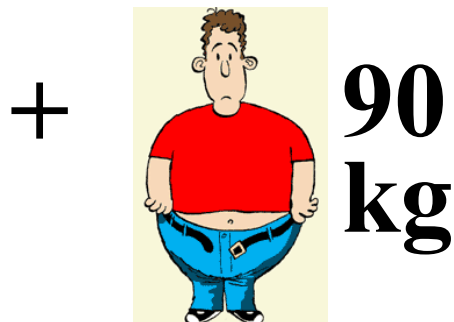
Example



= 70kg/person



< 70kg/Person



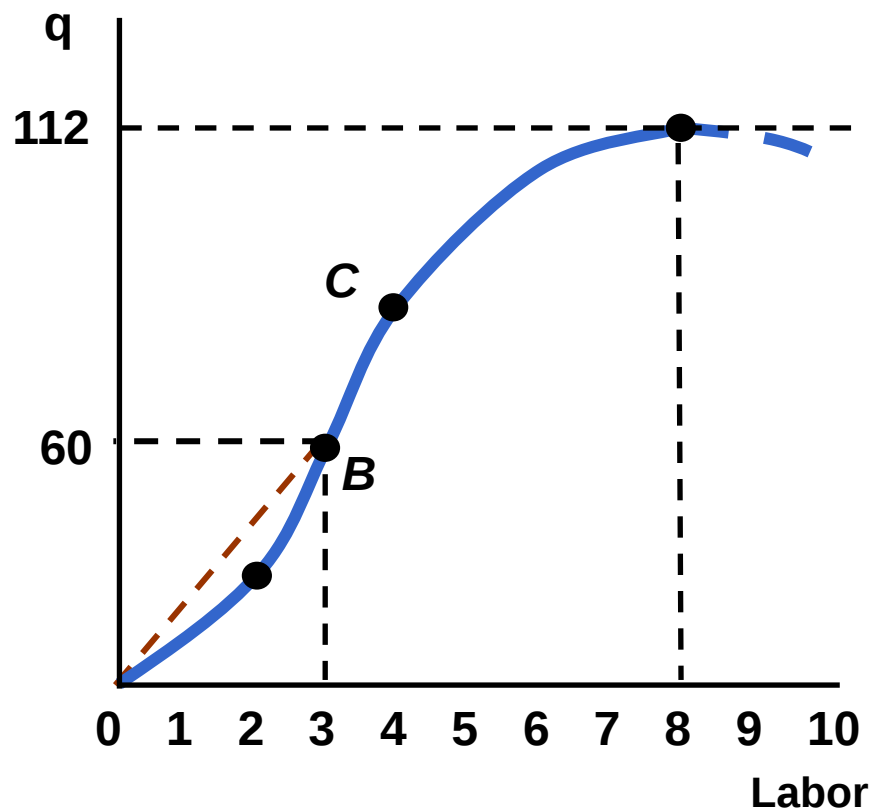
> 70kg/Person

Product Curves

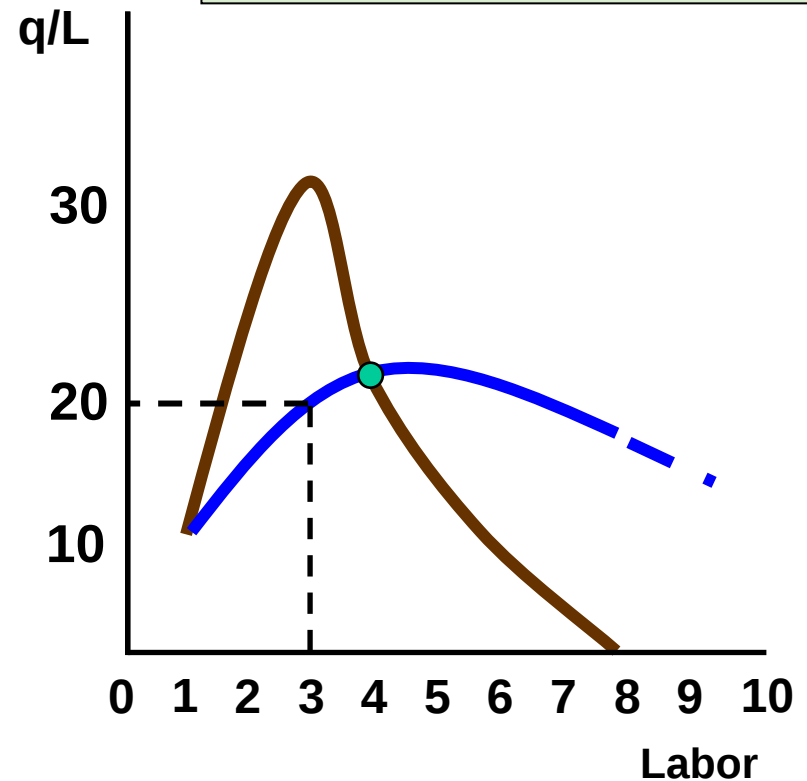


- We can show a geometric relationship between the total product and the average and marginal product curves
 - Slope of line from origin to any point on the total product curve is the average product
 - At point B, $AP = 60/3 = 20$ which is the same as the slope of the line from the origin to point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

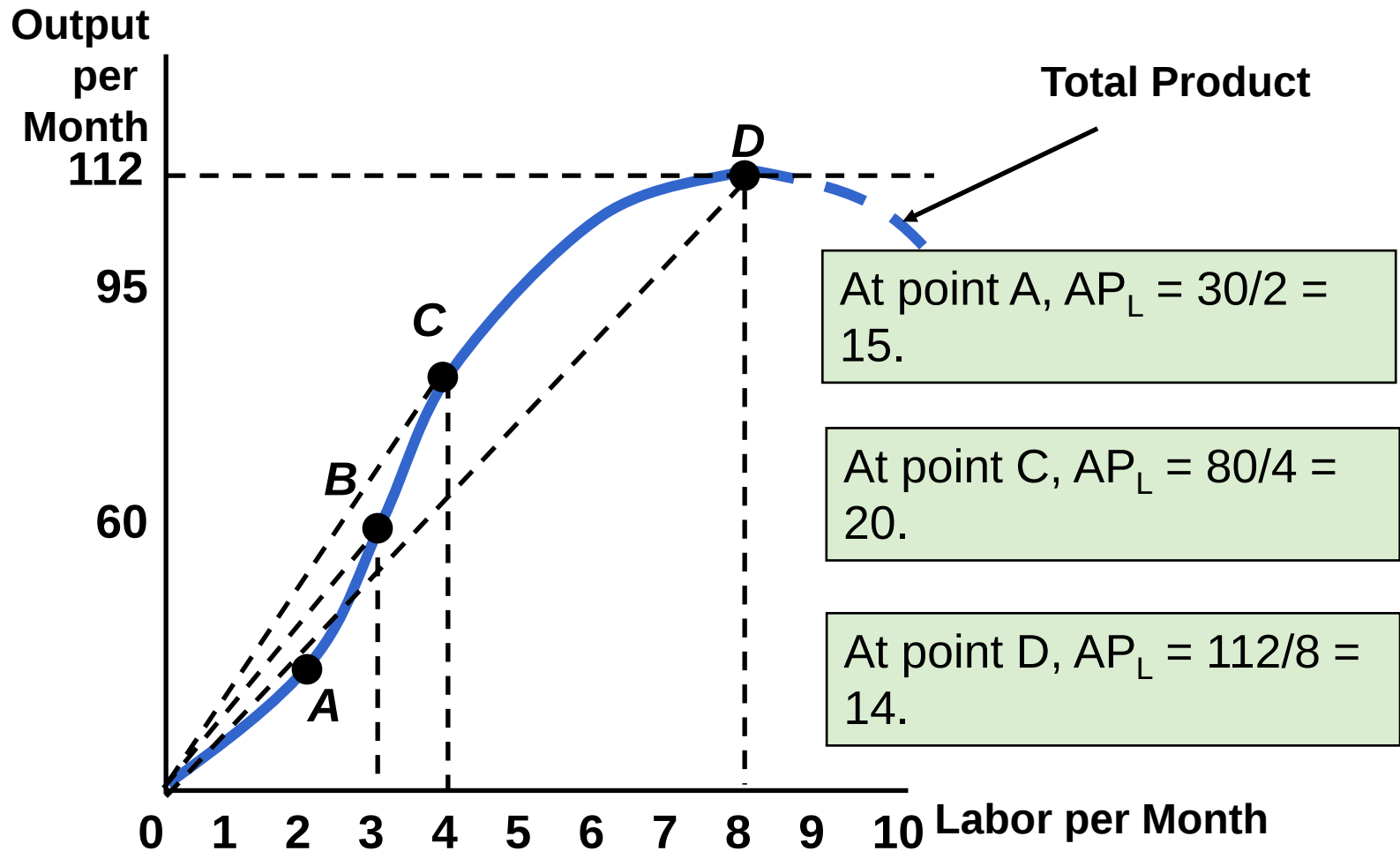
Product Curves



AP is slope of line from origin to point on TP curve



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

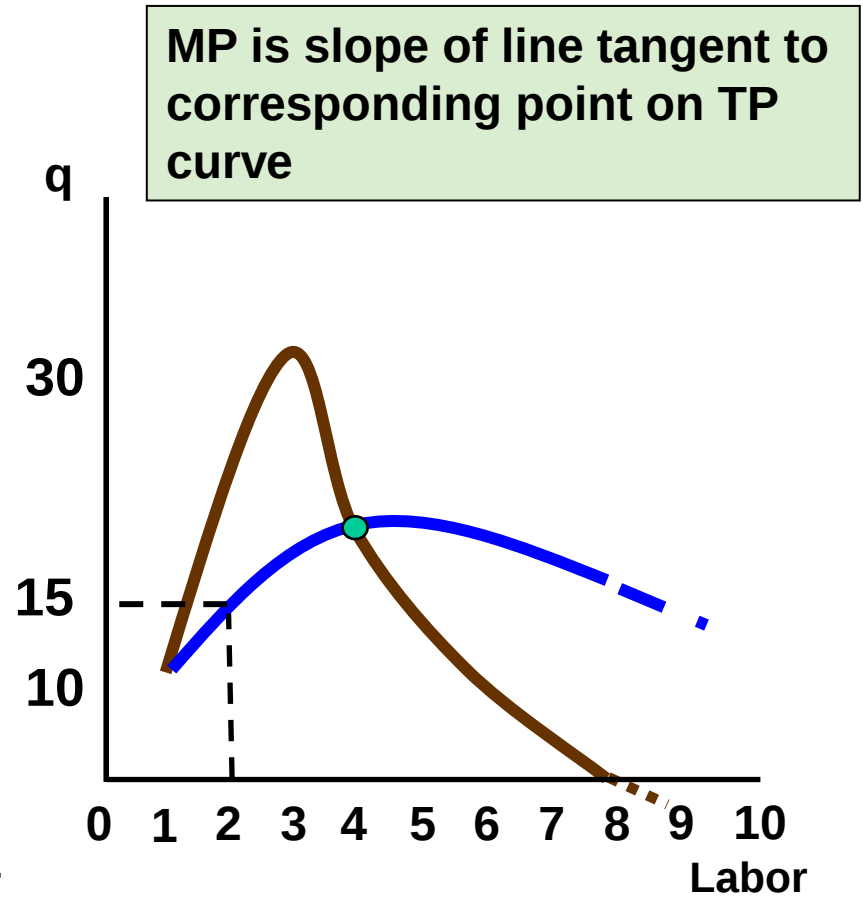
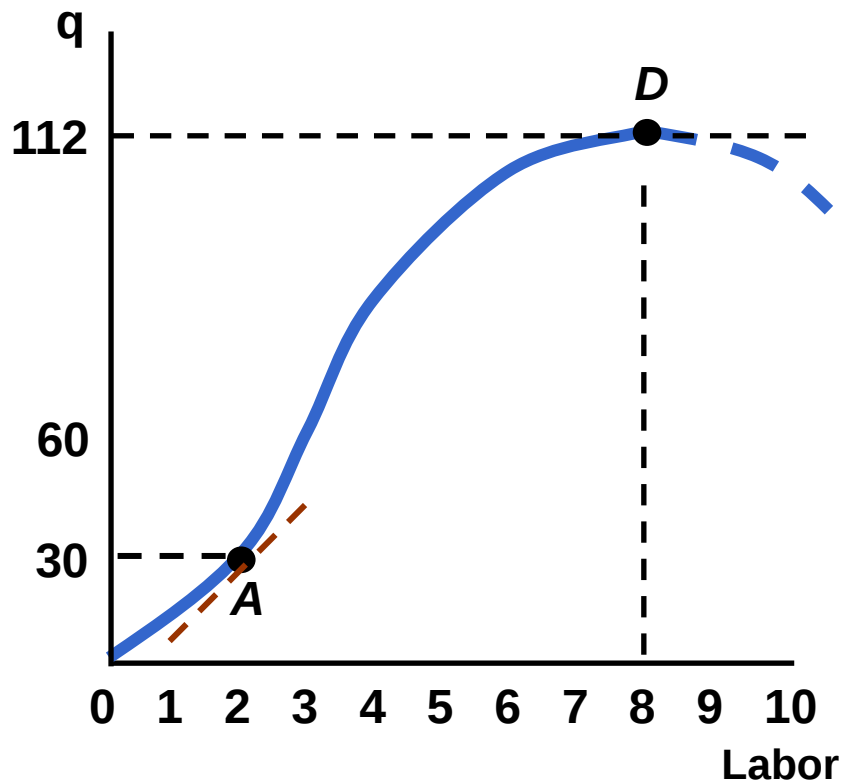


Product Curves

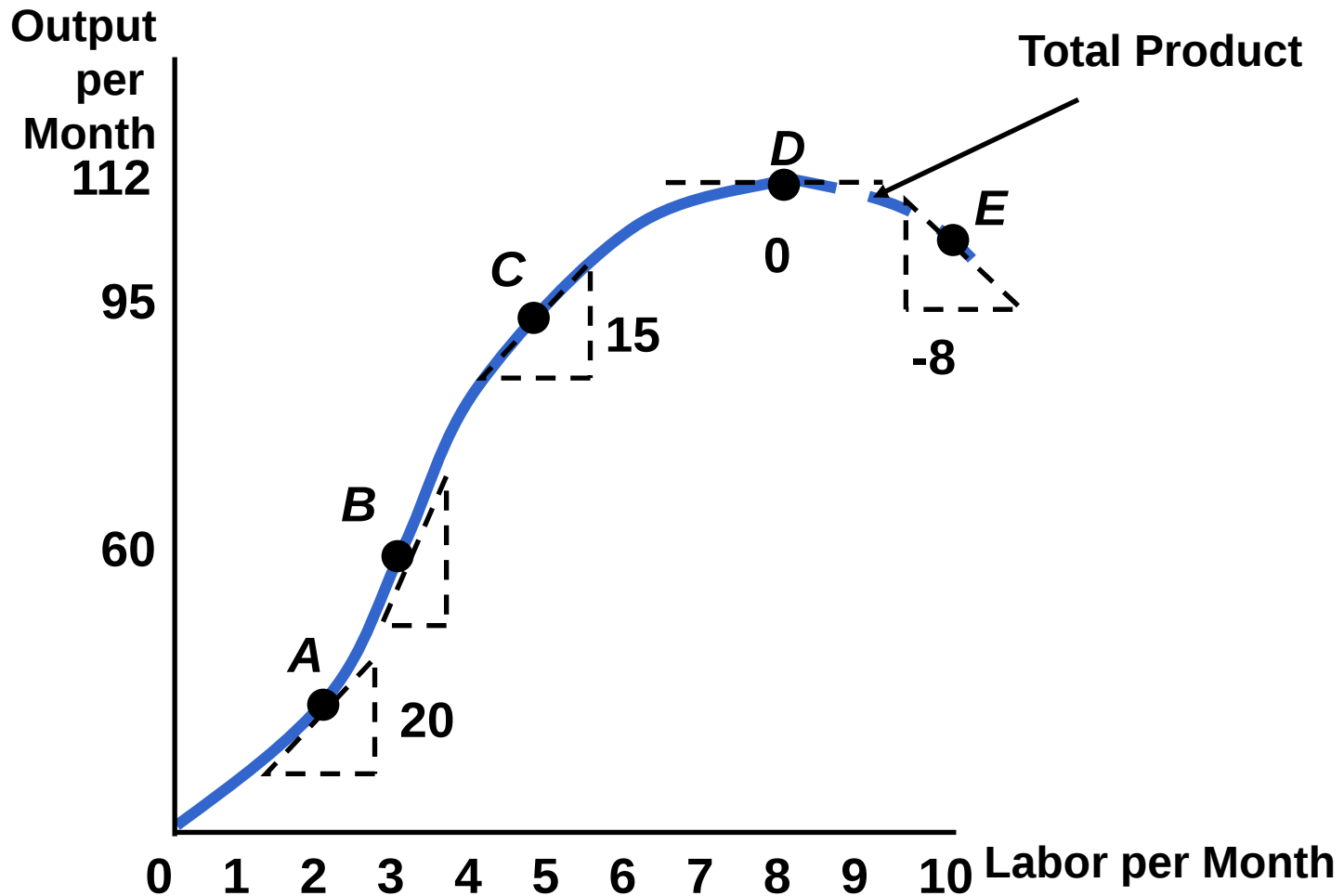


- Geometric relationship between total product and marginal product
 - The marginal product is the slope of the line tangent to any corresponding point on the total product curve
 - For 2 units of labor, $MP = 30/2 = 15$ which is slope of total product curve at point A

Product Curves



MP_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.

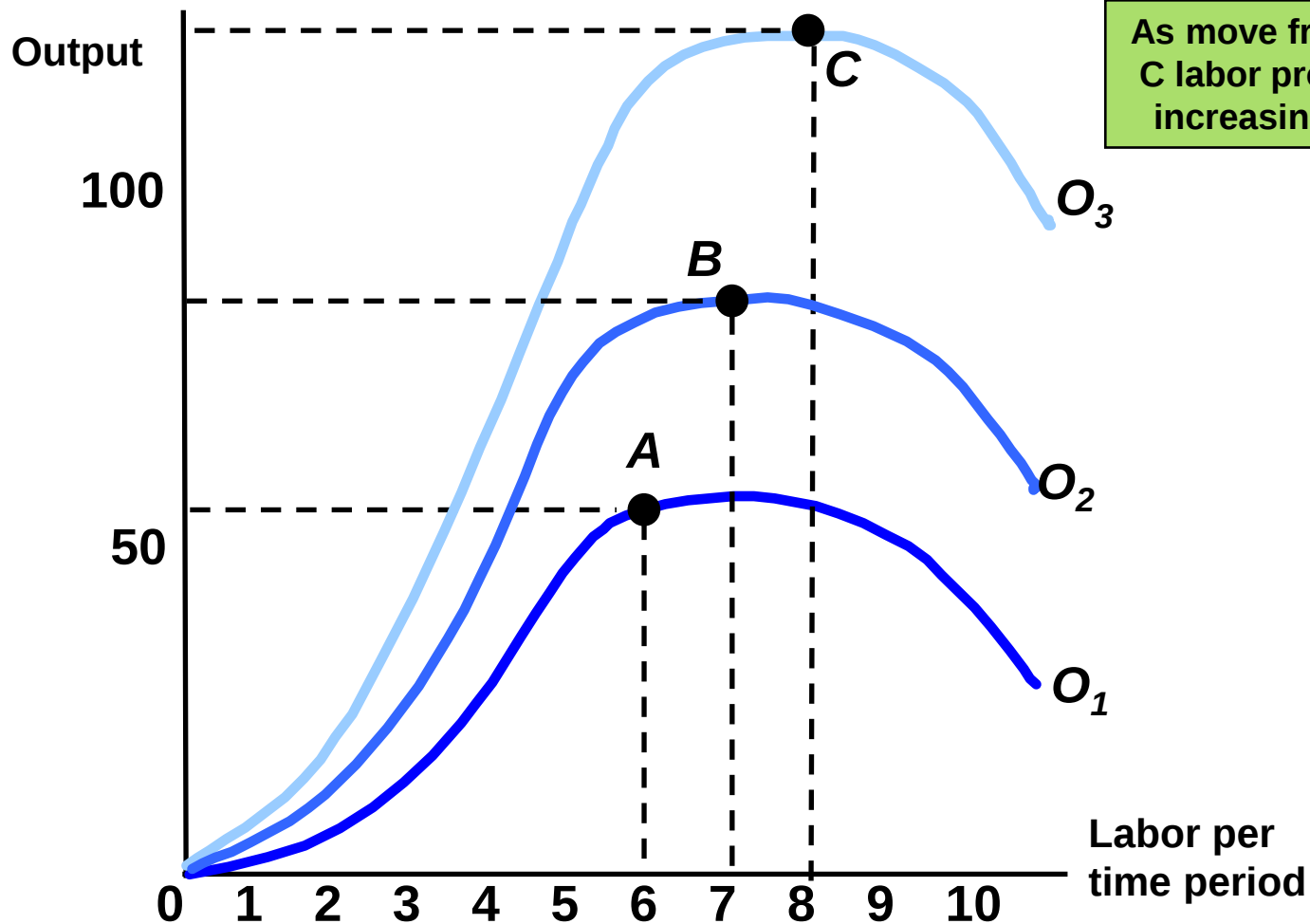
Law of Diminishing Marginal Returns

- 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



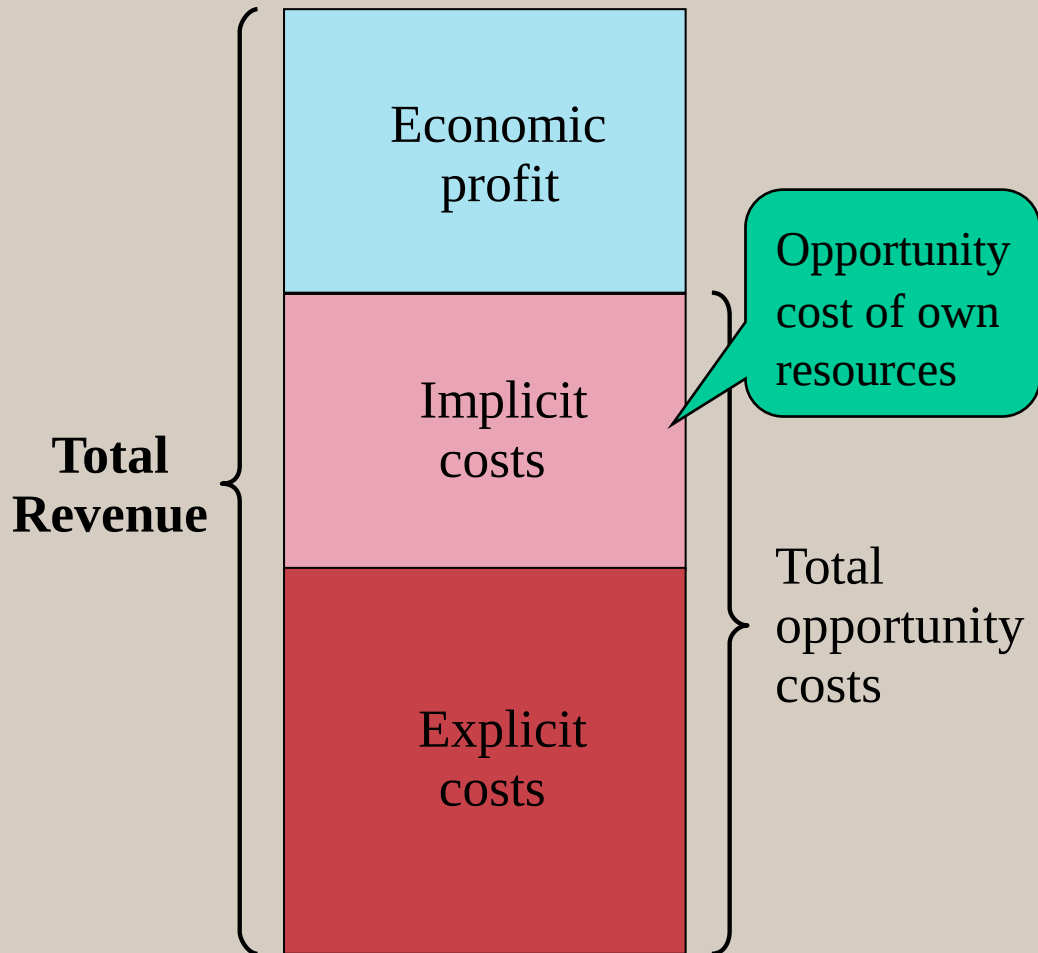
Measuring Cost:

Which Costs Matter?

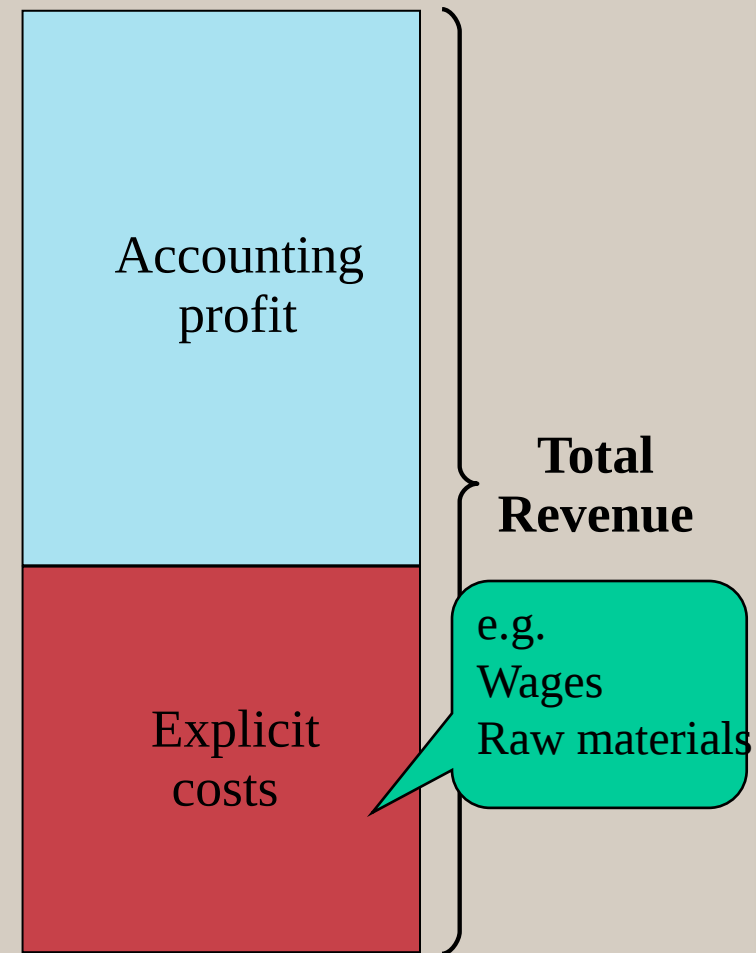
- Accountants tend to take a retrospective view of firms costs, where as economists tend to take a forward-looking view
- Accounting Cost
 - Actual expenses plus depreciation charges for capital equipment --> only explicit costs
- Economic Cost
 - Cost to a firm of utilizing economic resources in production,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



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

Accounting Versus Economic Profit



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

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

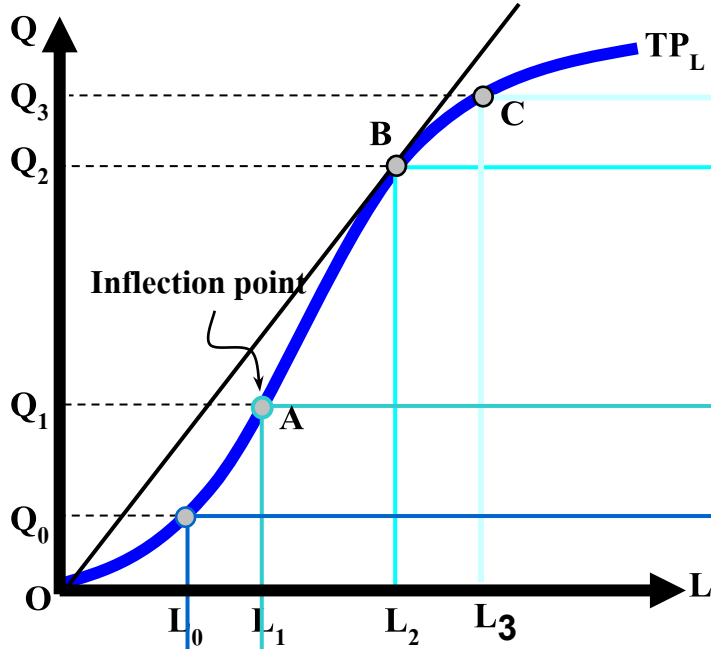
$$L = \left(Q/K^{0.5}\right)^2 = \left(Q/4^{0.5}\right)^2 = Q^2/4$$

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

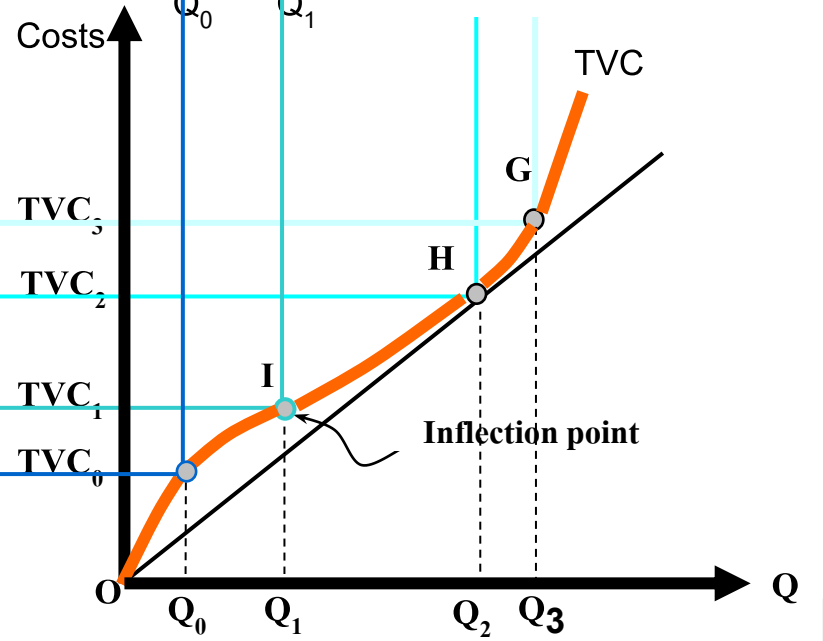
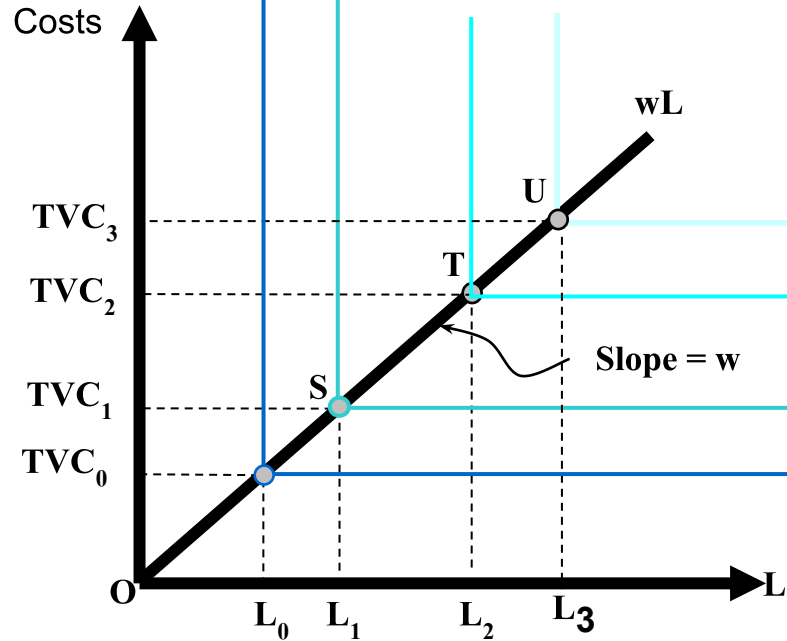
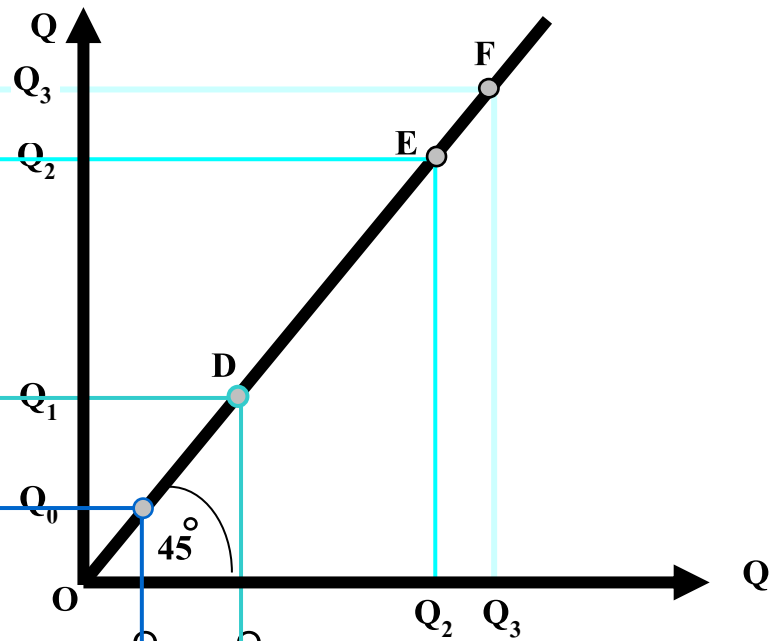
$$TC = rK + wL$$

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

(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).

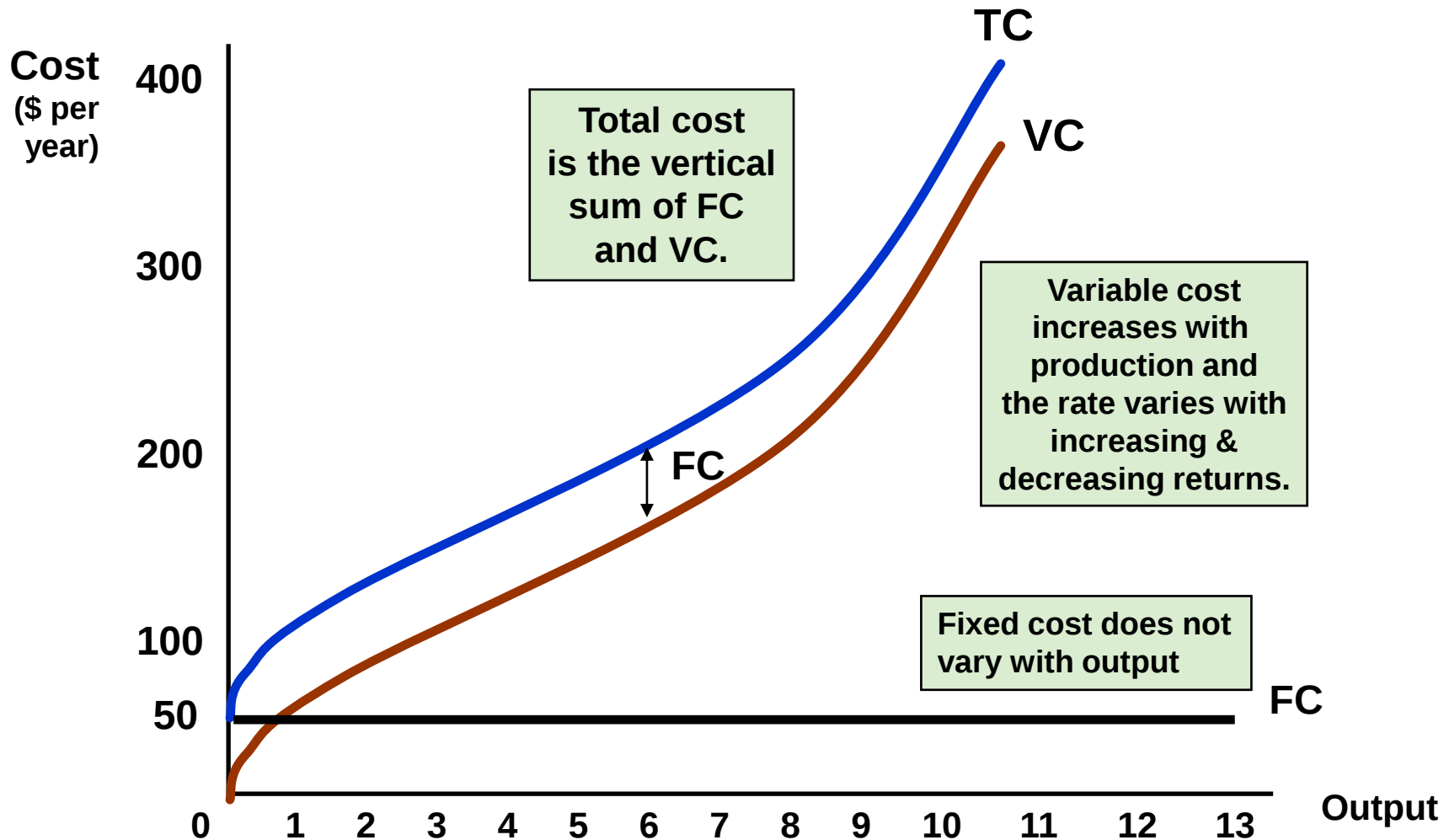
$$\begin{aligned} \text{ATC} &= \frac{\text{TC}}{q} = \text{AFC} + \text{AVC} \\ \text{ATC} &= \frac{\text{TFC}}{q} + \frac{\text{TVC}}{q} \end{aligned}$$

Measuring Costs

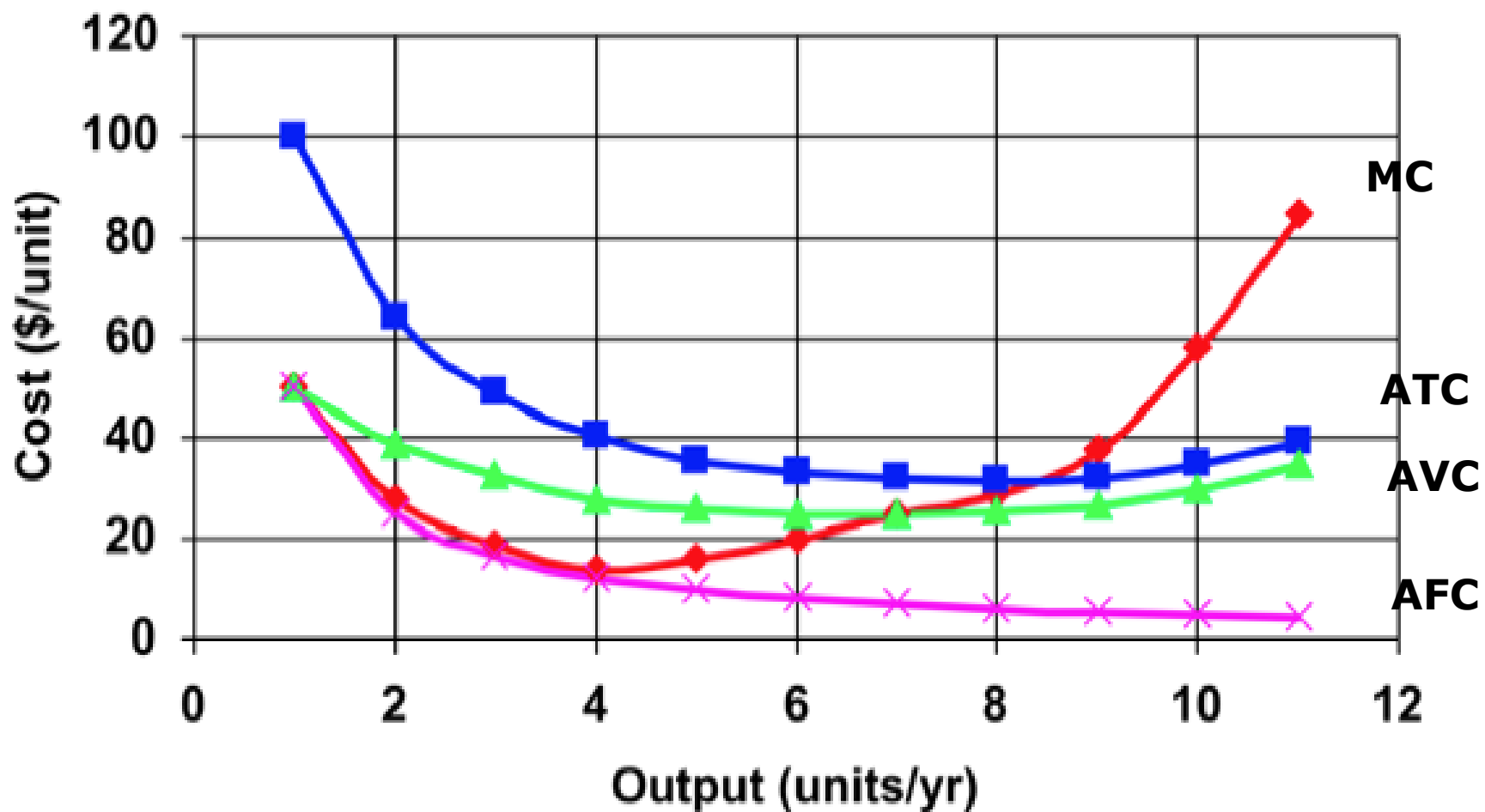
- Marginal Cost (MC):
 - The cost of expanding output by one unit.
 - Fixed cost have no impact on marginal cost, so it can be written as:

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

Cost Curves for a Firm

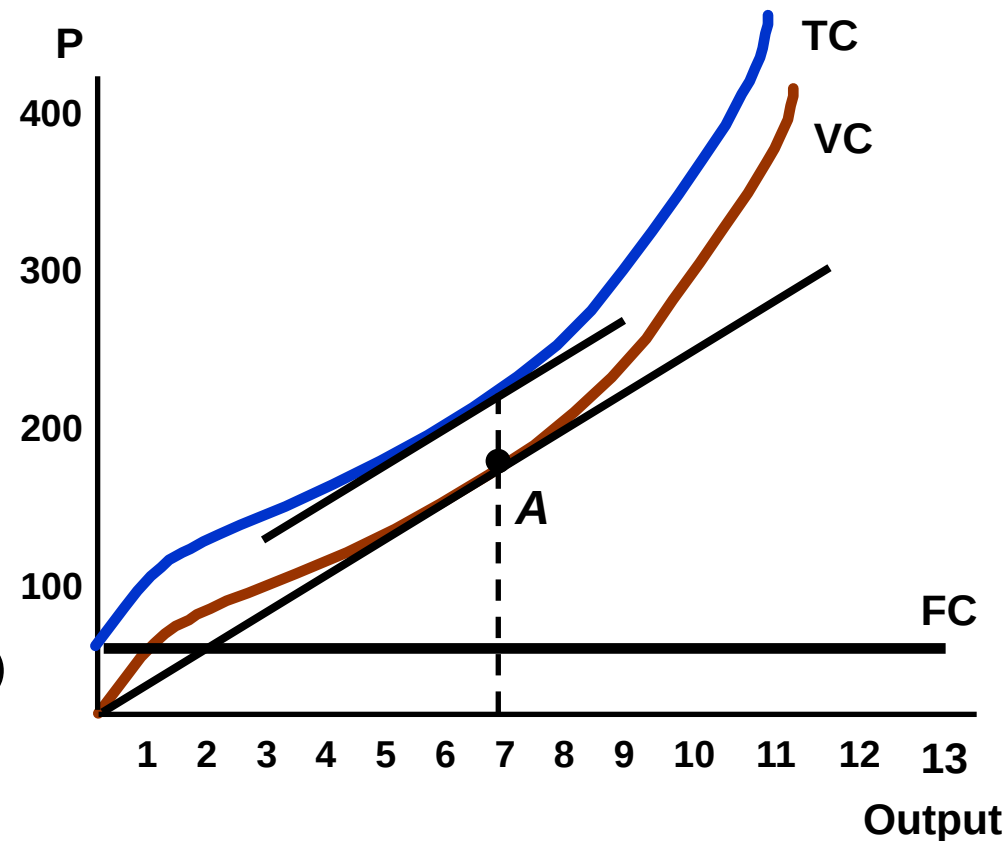


Cost Curves



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