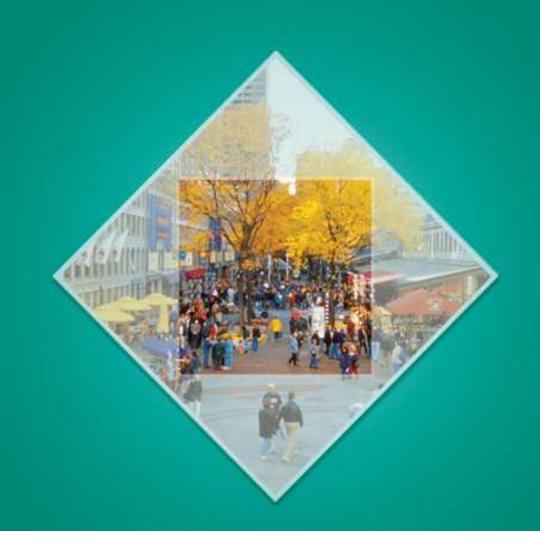
PARKIN MICROECONOMICS

TENTH EDITION



10 ORGANIZING PRODUCTION



The invention of the World Wide Web has paved the way for the creation of thousands of profitable businesses, such as Facebook, Apple, and Google.

Most of the firms don't make the things they sell. They buy them from other firms. For example, Apple doesn't make the iPhone. Intel makes its memory chip and Foxconn assembles the iPhone.

Why doesn't Apple make its iPhone?

How do firms decide what to make themselves and what to buy from other firms?

How do the millions of firms around the world make their business decisions?



A **firm** is an institution that hires factors of production and organizes them to produce and sell goods and services.

The Firm's Goal

A firm's goal is to maximize profit.

If the firm fails to maximize its profit, the firm is either eliminated or taken over by another firm that seeks to maximize profit.



Accounting Profit

Accountants measure a firm's profit to ensure that the firm pays the correct amount of tax and to show it investors how their funds are being used.

Profit equals total revenue minus total cost.

Accountants use Internal Revenue Service rules based on standards established by the Financial Accounting Standards Board to calculate a firm's depreciation cost.



Economic Accounting

Economists measure a firm's profit to enable them to predict the firm's decisions, and the goal of these decisions is to maximize economic profit.

Economic profit is equal to total revenue minus total cost, with total cost measured as the opportunity cost of production.



A Firm's Opportunity Cost of Production

A firm's opportunity cost of production is the value of the best alternative use of the resources that a firm uses in production.

A firm's opportunity cost of production is the sum of the cost of using resources

- Bought in the market
- Owned by the firm
- Supplied by the firm's owner



Resources Bought in the Market

The amount spent by a firm on resources bought in the market is an opportunity cost of production because the firm could have bought different resources to produce some other good or service.



Resources Owned by the Firm

If the firm owns capital and uses it to produce its output, then the firm incurs an opportunity cost.

The firm incurs an opportunity cost of production because it could have sold the capital and rented capital from another firm.

The firm implicitly rents the capital from itself.

The firm's opportunity cost of using the capital it owns is called the **implicit rental rate** of capital.



The implicit rental rate of capital is made up of

- 1. Economic depreciation
- 2. Interest forgone

Economic depreciation is the change in the *market value* of capital over a given period.

Interest forgone is the return on the funds used to acquire the capital.



Resources Supplied by the Firm's Owner

The owner might supply both entrepreneurship and labor.

The return to entrepreneurship is profit.

The profit that an entrepreneur can expect to receive *on* average is called **normal profit**.

Normal profit is the cost of entrepreneurship and is an opportunity cost of production.



In addition to supplying entrepreneurship, the owner might supply labor but not take a wage.

The opportunity cost of the owner's labor is the wage income forgone by not taking the best alternative job.

Economic Accounting: A Summary

Economic profit equals a firm's total revenue minus its total opportunity cost of production.

The example in Table 10.1 on the next slide summarizes the economic accounting.



TABLE 10.1 Economic Item	Accounting	Amount
Total Revenue		\$400,000
Cost of Resources Bought in N	tarket	
Wool	\$80,000	
Utilities	20,000	
Wages	120,000	
Computer lease	5,000	
Bank interest	5,000	\$230,000
Cost of Resources Owned by I	Firm	
Economic depreciation	\$25,000	
Forgone interest	15,000	\$40,000
Cost of Resources Supplied by	Owner	
Cindy's normal profit	\$45,000	
Cindy's forgone wages	55,000	\$100,000
Opportunity Cost of Produc	tion	\$370,000
Economic Profit		\$30,000



The Firm's Decisions

To maximize profit, a firm must make five basic decisions:

- 1. What to produce and in what quantities
- 2. How to produce
- How to organize and compensate its managers and workers
- 4. How to market and price its products
- 5. What to produce itself and what to buy from other firms



The Firm's Constraints

The firm's profit is limited by three features of the environment:

- Technology constraints
- Information constraints
- Market constraints



Technology Constraints

Technology is any method of producing a good or service.

Technology advances over time.

Using the available technology, the firm can produce more only if it hires more resources, which will increase its costs and limit the profit of additional output.



Information Constraints

A firm never possesses complete information about either the present or the future.

It is constrained by limited information about the quality and effort of its work force, current and future buying plans of its customers, and the plans of its competitors.

The cost of coping with limited information limits profit.



Market Constraints

What a firm can sell and the price it can obtain are constrained by its customers' willingness to pay and by the prices and marketing efforts of other firms.

The resources that a firm can buy and the prices it must pay for them are limited by the willingness of people to work for and invest in the firm.

The expenditures that a firm incurs to overcome these market constraints limit the profit that the firm can make.



Technology and Economic Efficiency

Technological Efficiency

Technological efficiency occurs when a firm uses the least amount inputs to produce a given quantity of output.

Different combinations of inputs might be used to produce a given good, but only one of them is technologically efficient.

If it is impossible to produce a given good by decreasing any one input, holding all other inputs constant, then production is technologically efficient.



Technology and Economic Efficiency

Economic Efficiency

Economic efficiency occurs when the firm produces a given quantity of output at the least cost.

The economically efficient method depends on the relative costs of capital and labor.

The difference between technological and economic efficiency is that technological efficiency concerns the quantity of inputs used in production for a given quantity of output, whereas economic efficiency concerns the cost of the inputs used.

Technology and Economic Efficiency

An economically efficient production process also is technologically efficient.

A technologically efficient process may not be economically efficient.

Changes in the input prices influence the value of the inputs, but not the technological process for using them in production.

Table 10.3 on the next slide illustrates.

TABLE 10.3 The Costs of Different Ways of Making 10 TVs a Day

(a) Wage rate \$75 per day; Capital rental rate \$250 per day

	Ing	puts	Labor cost		Capital cost		
Method	Labor	Capital	(\$75 per day)		(\$250 per day)		Total cost
A	1	1,000	\$75	+	\$250,000	=	\$250,075
В	10	10	750	+	2,500	=	3,250
C	1,000	1	75,000	+	250	皇	75,250

TABLE 10.3 The Costs of Different Ways of Making 10 TVs a Day

(a) Wage rate \$75 per day; Capital rental rate \$250 per day

		puts	Labor cost		Capital cost		
Method	Labor	Capital	(\$75 per day)		(\$250 per day)		Total cost
Α	1	1,000	\$75	+	\$250,000	=	\$250,075
B	10	10	750	+	2,500	=	3,250
C	1,000	1	75,000	+	250	琧	75,250

(b) Wage rate \$150 per day; Capital rental rate \$1 per day

	In	puts	Labor cost		Capital cost		
Method	Labor	Capital	(\$150 per day)		(\$1 per day)		Total cost
A	1	1,000	\$150	+	\$1,000	=	\$1,150
В	10	10	1,500	+	10	=	1,510
C	1,000	Ť	150,000	+	ñ	=	150,001

TABLE 10.3	The Costs of Different	Ways of Making	10 TVs a Day
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(a) Wage rate \$75 per day; Capital rental rate \$250 per day

50.0 90200-5002		outs	Labor cost		Capital cost		
Method	Labor	Capital	(\$75 per day)		(\$250 per day)		Total cost
Α	1	1,000	\$75	+	\$250,000	=	\$250,075
В	10	10	750	+	2,500	=	3,250
C	1,000	1	75,000	+	250	≅	75,250

(b) Wage rate \$150 per day; Capital rental rate \$1 per day

		outs	Labor cost		Capital cost		
Method	Labor	Capital	(\$150 per day)		(\$1 per day)		Total cost
A	1	1,000	\$150	+	\$1,000	=	\$1,150
В	10	10	1,500	+	10	#	1,510
C	1,000	1	150,000	+	ĭ	=	150,001

(c) Wage rate \$1 per day; Capital rental rate \$1,000 per day

Method	In _l Labor	puts Capital	Labor cost (\$1 per day)	0.000	Capital cost (\$1,000 per day)		Total cost
Α	1	1,000	\$1	+	\$1,000,000	ā	\$1,000,001
В	10	10	10	+	10,000	₹	10,010
C	1,000	1	1,000	+	1,000	=	2,000

A firm organizes production by combining and coordinating productive resources using a mixture of two systems:

- Command systems
- Incentive systems



Command Systems

A **command system** uses a managerial hierarchy.

Commands pass downward through the hierarchy and information (feedback) passes upward.

These systems are relatively rigid and can have many layers of specialized management.



Incentive Systems

An **incentive system** is a method of organizing production that uses a market-like mechanism to induce workers to perform in ways that maximize the firm's profit.



Mixing the Systems

Most firms use a mix of command and incentive systems to maximize profit.

They use commands when it is easy to monitor performance or when a small deviation from the ideal performance is very costly.

They use incentives whenever monitoring performance is impossible or too costly to be worth doing.



The Principal-Agent Problem

The **principal-agent problem** is the problem of devising compensation rules that induce an agent to act in the best interests of a principal.

For example, the stockholders of a firm are the principals and the managers of the firm are their agents.



Coping with the Principal-Agent Problem

Three ways of coping with the principal—agent problem are

- Ownership
- Incentive pay
- Long-term contracts

Ownership, often offered to managers, gives the managers an incentive to maximize the firm's profits, which is the goal of the owners, the principals.

Incentive pay links managers' or workers' pay to the firm's performance and helps align the managers' and workers' interests with those of the owners, the principals.

Long-term contracts can tie managers' or workers' longterm rewards to the long-term performance of the firm. This arrangement encourages the agents work in the best long-term interests of the firm owners, the principals.



Types of Business Organization

There are three types of business organization:

- Proprietorship
- Partnership
- Corporation



Proprietorship

A proprietorship is a firm with a single owner who has unlimited liability, or legal responsibility for all debts incurred by the firm—up to an amount equal to the entire wealth of the owner.

The proprietor also makes management decisions and receives the firm's profit.

Profits are taxed the same as the owner's other income.



Partnership

A *partnership* is a firm with two or more owners who have unlimited liability.

Partners must agree on a management structure and how to divide up the profits.

Profits from partnerships are taxed as the personal income of the owners.



Corporation

A *corporation* is owned by one or more stockholders with limited liability, which means the owners who have legal liability only for the initial value of their investment.

The personal wealth of the stockholders is not at risk if the firm goes bankrupt.

The profit of corporations is taxed twice—once as a corporate tax on firm profits, and then again as income taxes paid by stockholders receiving their after-tax profits distributed as dividends.



Pros and Cons of Different Types of Firms

Each type of business organization has advantages and disadvantages.

Table 10.4 and the following slides summarize the pros and cons of different types of firms.



Proprietorships

- Are easy to set up
- Managerial decision making is simple
- Profits are taxed only once as owner's income
- But bad decisions made by the manager are not subject to review
- The owner's entire wealth is at stake
- The firm dies with the owner
- The cost of capital and labor can be high



Partnerships

- Are easy to set up
- Employ diversified decision-making processes
- Can survive the withdrawal of a partner
- Profits are taxed only once
- But achieving a consensus about managerial decisions difficult
- Owners' entire wealth is at risk
- Capital is expensive



Corporation

- Limited liability for its owners
- Large-scale and low-cost capital that is readily available
- Professional management
- Lower costs from long-term labor contracts
- But complex management structure may lead to slow and expensive
- Profits taxed twice—as corporate profit and shareholder income.

Economists identify four market types:

- 1. Perfect competition
- 2. Monopolistic competition
- 3. Oligopoly
- 4. Monopoly

Perfect competition is a market structure with

- Many firms and many buyers
- All firms sell an identical product
- No restrictions on entry of new firms to the industry
- Both firms and buyers are all well informed about the prices and products of all firms in the industry.

Examples include world markets in rice, wheat, corn and other grain crops.

Monopolistic competition is a market structure with

- Many firms
- Each firm produces similar but slightly different products—called product differentiation
- Each firm possesses an element of market power
- No restrictions on entry of new firms to the industry

Oligopoly is a market structure in which

- A small number of firms compete.
- The firms might produce almost identical products or differentiated products.
- Barriers to entry limit entry into the market.

Monopoly is a market structure in which

- One firm produces the entire output of the industry.
- There are no close substitutes for the product.
- There are barriers to entry that protect the firm from competition by entering firms.

To determine the market structure of an industry economists measure the extent to which a small number of firms dominate the market.



Measures of Concentration

Economists use two measures of market concentration:

- The four-firm concentration ratio
- The Herfindahl–Hirschman index (HHI)



The Four-Firm Concentration Ratio

The **four-firm concentration ratio** is the percentage of the total industry sales accounted for by the four largest firms in the industry.

The Herfindahl-Hirschman Index

The **Herfindahl–Hirschman index** (HHI) is the square of percentage market share of each firm summed over the largest 50 firms in the industry.

The larger the measure of market concentration, the less competition that exists in the industry.



Limitations of a Concentration Measure

The main limitations of only using concentration measure as determinants of market structure are

- The geographical scope of the market
- Barriers to entry and firm turnover
- The correspondence between a market and an industry



Firm Coordination

Firms hire labor, capital, and land, and by using a mixture of command systems and incentive systems organize and coordinate their activities to produce goods and services.



Market Coordination

Markets coordinate production by adjusting prices and making the decisions of buyers and sellers of factors of production and components consistent.

Chapter 3 explains how demand and supply coordinate the plans of buyers and sellers.

Outsourcing—buying parts or products from other firms—is an example of market coordination of production.

But firms coordinate more production than do markets.

Why?



Why Firms?

Firms coordinate production when they can do so more efficiently than a market.

Four key reasons might make firms more efficient. Firms can achieve

- Lower transactions costs
- Economies of scale
- Economies of scope
- Economies of team production

Produce or Outsource? Firms and Markets

Transactions costs are the costs arising from finding someone with whom to do business, reaching agreement on the price and other aspects of the exchange, and ensuring that the terms of the agreement are fulfilled.

Economies of scale occur when the cost of producing a unit of a good falls as its output rate increases.

Economies of scope arise when a firm can use specialized inputs to produce a range of different goods at a lower cost than otherwise.

Firms can engage in team production, in which the individuals specialize in mutually supporting tasks.