

Inputs and Production Functions

Chapter 6 Lecture Slides

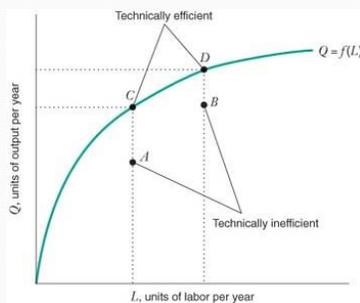
Inputs and the Production Function

- **Inputs (factors of production)** are resources, such as labor, capital equipment, and raw materials, that are combined to produce finished goods.
- The **production function** is a mathematical representation that shows the maximum quantity of output a firm can produce given the quantities of inputs that it might employ.

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

- The *production function* tells us the maximum amount of production, Q , for a given amount of inputs L and K . (analogous to utility function in consumer choice theory).

- Example...



- This graph shows the maximum amount of output this firm will produce from any given quantity of labor.

- Real World Example: Technical Inefficiency among U.S. Manufacturers, 1990, where inefficiency is measured as

$$\frac{\text{Observed output}}{\text{Potential output, } f(L, K)}$$

- (63% of efficiency or alternatively, 39% of inefficiency).
- But efficiency is much higher (closer to 1, i.e., closer to the frontier) where the firm:
 - Faces competition
 - The firm is not a major player in its industry

Marginal and Average Products

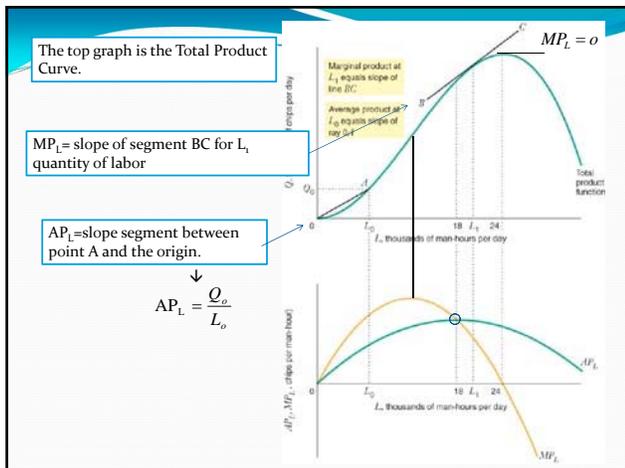
- Looking at the production function we can derive two distinct types of productivity for a given input: the average productivity and the marginal productivity of a certain input.

- The first is the **Average Product of Labor**, which tells us the average output per worker, which we write as the AP_L .

$$AP_L = \frac{\text{total product}}{\text{quantity of labor}} = \frac{Q}{L}$$

- The second is the **Marginal Product of Labor**, which tells us the rate at which total output rises as the firm increases its quantity of labor. We write this as MP_L .

$$MP_L = \frac{\text{change in total product}}{\text{change in quantity of labor}} = \frac{\Delta Q}{\Delta L} \quad \frac{\partial Q}{\partial L}$$



Relationship between AP and MP

- Consider the example of adding one test score to a number of scores...
- average grade increases \rightarrow the marginal effect of the last test was positive
- average grade decreases \rightarrow the marginal effect of the last test was negative

Similarly,

- AP is increasing $\rightarrow MP_L > AP_L$
- AP is decreasing $\rightarrow MP_L < AP_L$
- AP is flat $\rightarrow MP_L = AP_L$

Labor Productivity = AP_L
Growth in Labor Productivity in the U.S., 1947-2009

Year	Annual Growth Rate in Labor Productivity
1947-1955	3.21 %
1955-1965	2.61 %
1965-1975	2.18 %
1975-1985	1.38 %
1985-1995	1.51 %
1995-2005	2.94 %
2005-2009	1.90 %

Oil shocks

Capital "deepening": Increase in K and in its quality.

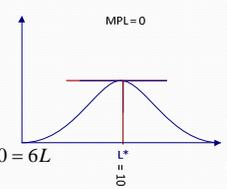
Example

$$q = f(L, K) = 0.1LK + 3L^2K - 0.1L^3K$$

Assume $\bar{k} = 10$, so that $f(L, 10) = 0.1L \cdot 10 + 3L^2 \cdot 10 - 0.1L^3 \cdot 10$
 $= L + 30L^2 - L^3$ MPL

1) $MP_L = \frac{dq}{dL} = 1 + 60L - 3L^2$

Where does MPL reach a max?



$$\frac{d(1 + 60L - 3L^2)}{dL} = 60 - 6L = 0 \rightarrow 60 = 6L$$

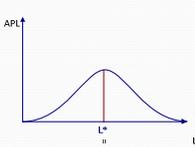
and solving for L, we obtain $L^* = 10$

$$AP_L = \frac{f(L, 10)}{L} = \frac{L + 30L^2 - L^3}{L} = 1 + 30L - L^2$$

2) Where does it reach a max?

$$\frac{\partial(1 + 30L - L^2)}{\partial L} = 30 - 2L = 0$$

which, solving for L, yields $L=15$.



3) Is this point $L=15$ the crossing point between AP_L and MP_L ?

$$MP_L = AP_L$$

$$1 + 60L - 3L^2 = 1 + 30L - L^2$$

$$30L = 2L^2$$

$$30 = 2L \rightarrow L = 15$$

4) Generally, why does AP_L and MP_L cross each other at the max of AP_L ?

If $AP_L = \frac{f(L)}{L}$, then AP_L reaches its max at the point where its derivative becomes zero:

$$\frac{dAP_L}{dL} = \frac{f'(L) \cdot L - 1 \cdot f(L)}{L^2} = \frac{f'(L)}{L} - \frac{f(L)}{L^2} = 0$$

$$\leftrightarrow \left(f'(L) - \frac{f(L)}{L} \right) \cdot L = \underbrace{(MP_L - AP_L)}_{MP_L = AP_L} \cdot L = 0$$

Law of Diminishing Marginal Returns

- As we continually increase the quantity of one input while holding other inputs constant, the marginal product for that increasing input will eventually decrease.
- This is so pervasive that economists refer to it as the “Law of Diminishing Marginal Returns.”

Two Input Production Function

- So far we analyzed one input production function $Q=f(L)$
- It is more realistic to consider production functions in which the firm is allowed to use more than one input, e.g., labor and capital

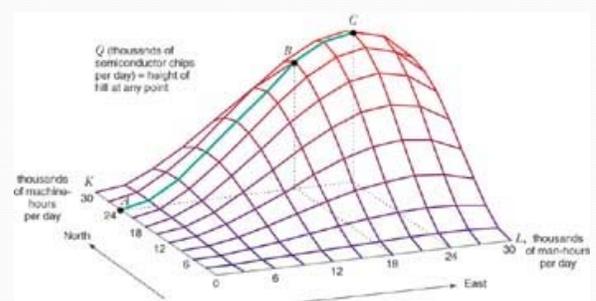
$$Q = f(L, K)$$

Two Input Production Functions

- A two-input production function gives us a three dimensional graph called the **Total Product Hill**.
- On the horizontal axis's are the two inputs, and on the vertical axis is the quantity produced.

Figure.....

- Note: height of the hill= Q



- How much does output increase...
...as a result of an increase in labor?

$$MP_L = \frac{\Delta Q}{\Delta L} \Big|_{K \text{ constnt}} = \frac{\partial f(L,K)}{\partial L}$$

(This is the slope of the mountain as we move east.
Note that we maintain K fixed and increase only L)

- ...as a result of an increase in capital?

$$MP_K = \frac{\Delta Q}{\Delta K} \Big|_{L \text{ constnt}} = \frac{\partial f(L,K)}{\partial K}$$

(This is the slope of the mountain as we move north.
Note that we now keep L fixed and increase only K)

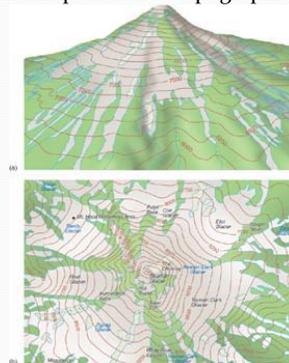
Example

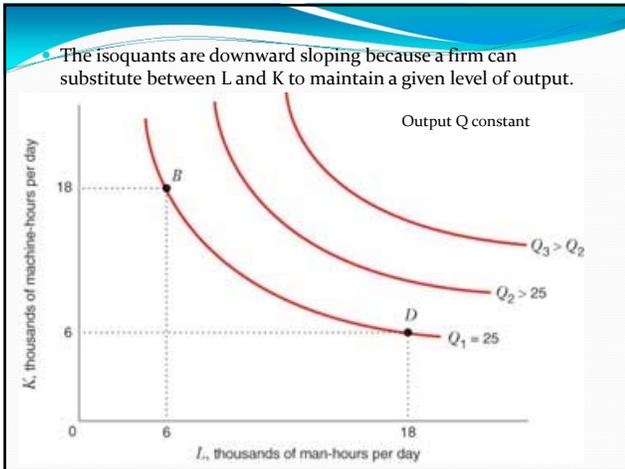
- K=24 and ΔL (eastward movement up hill), we move from A to B to C (peak).
- Given the red line is our *TP* when K is fixed at K = 24.
- MP_L is the slope of the red line, when we hold K fixed at K =24.

Isoquants

- An **isoquant** is a curve that shows all the combinations of labor and capital that can produce a given level of output.
- Graphically, they are the level curves representing all the points of the mountain (combinations of L and K) yielding the same height (same output Q).

- You can think of an isoquant as one of the lines on a topographic map. Here is a topographic map of Mt. Hood...





Example: We take a certain production function and fix the level of Q to mathematically illustrate an isoquant...

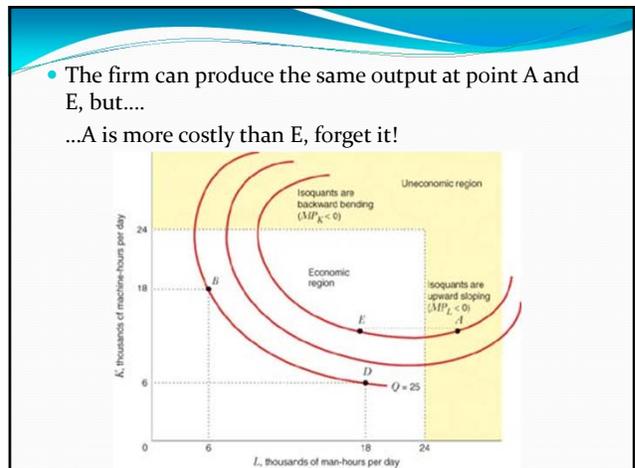
- Q=20, what is the isoquant?
 $Q = \sqrt{KL} \rightarrow 20 = \sqrt{KL} \rightarrow 400 = KL \rightarrow K = \frac{400}{L}$ → Isoquant for an output level of Q = 20
- And more generally, for any output level Q, we have that
 $Q = \sqrt{KL} \Rightarrow Q^2 = KL \rightarrow K = \frac{Q^2}{L}$ → Isoquant for any output level Q
- In order to obtain the isoquant, we only need to solve for the variable in the vertical axis, K
- For instance, for Q = 10, the isoquant is given by
 $K = \frac{10^2}{L} = \frac{100}{L}$

- But why don't we include the full circle of the isoquant (think of topographic map) on the actual plot of isoquants?

Distinction between Economic and Uneconomic Regions:

- In the upward and backward sloping regions of the isoquant, that firm would be producing a certain output level at an unnecessarily high cost (negative marginal product).
- In short, they could produce the same level of output by using far fewer inputs.

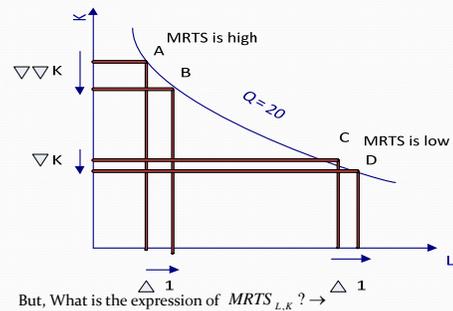
Figure.....



Marginal Rate of Technical Substitution

- Intuitively, it represents how many machines the firm can substitute for one worker (or vice versa), keeping output level unaffected.
- **MRTS** is the rate at which the quantity of capital can be reduced for every one unit of increase in the quantity of labor, holding the quantity of output constant.
 - Put simply, it is the slope of the isoquant.
 - Analogous to the concept of MRS in Consumer Choice

- MRTS is diminishing:



- Intuitively, the MRTS is diminishing because:
 - When capital is abundant (point A in the previous figure), the firm can give up a **large amount of capital** in order to hire one more worker, keeping output unaffected.
 - However, when capital is scarce (point C), the firm can only give up a **small amount of capital** when hiring one more worker, and still keep its output unaffected.

Finding the MRTS (slope of the isoquant) for any given Production Function

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

We first totally differentiate:

$$dQ = \overbrace{\frac{\partial f(K, L)}{\partial K}}^{MP_K} dK + \overbrace{\frac{\partial f(K, L)}{\partial L}}^{MP_L} dL$$

Since we move along the same isoquant, Q doesn't change, i.e., $dQ = 0$,

$$0 = MP_K \cdot dK + MP_L \cdot dL$$

Rearranging, $-MP_L \cdot dL = MP_K \cdot dK$

And solving for $\frac{dK}{dL}$ we obtain,

$$-\frac{MP_L}{MP_K} = \frac{dK}{dL} \rightarrow \frac{MP_L}{MP_K} = -\frac{dK}{dL}$$

↘
Slope of isoquant, $-\frac{dK}{dL}$, is equal to the ratio of marginal productivities

Example

$$Q = KL$$

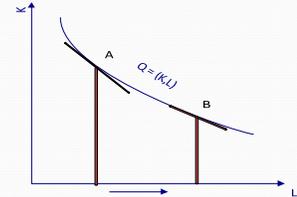
The marginal products are:

$$MP_L = K$$

$$MP_K = L$$

Hence,

$$MRTS_{L,K} = \frac{MP_L}{MP_K} = \frac{K}{L}$$



- $MRTS_{L,K}$ diminishes as L increases and K falls, i.e., as we move along the isoquant.
- So MRTS of Labor for Capital is hence diminishing. (Flatter Isoquant as we move rightward)

• Real World Example:

- The MRTS between low- and high-skilled workers in the United States ≈ 6 .
- In words, firms would be able (and willing!) to substitute 6 low-skilled workers for one high-skilled worker and still maintain their output unaffected.
- Let's continue studying...

Query #1

Consider the production function $Q = 5K + 10L$. The $MRTS_{L,K}$ is

- 2.00
- 1.50
- 1.00
- 0.50

Answer Query #1

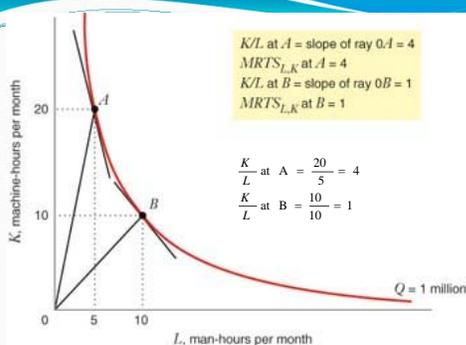
- Answer A
- The Marginal Rate of Technical Substitution of Labor for Capital, $MRTS_{L,K}$, is the rate at which the quantity of capital can be reduced for every one unit increase in the quantity of labor, holding the quantity of output constant.
- The $MRTS_{L,K}$ is equal to MP_L / MP_K
- Since $MP_L = 10$ and $MP_K = 5$, then $MRTS_{L,K} = 10/5 = 2.00$
- Pages 201-203

Elasticity of Substitution

- But how easy is it for a firm to substitute between L and K?
- The **Elasticity of Substitution** is a measure of how easy it is for a firm to substitute L for K. It is equal to the percentage change in the K-L ratio for every one percent change in the $MRTS_{L,K}$ as we move along an isoquant.

$$\sigma = \frac{(\% \Delta (K / L))}{(\% \Delta MRTS_{L,K})}$$

$$\Delta 1\% \text{ in } MRTS_{L,K} \Rightarrow \Delta \sigma\% \text{ in } \frac{K}{L}$$



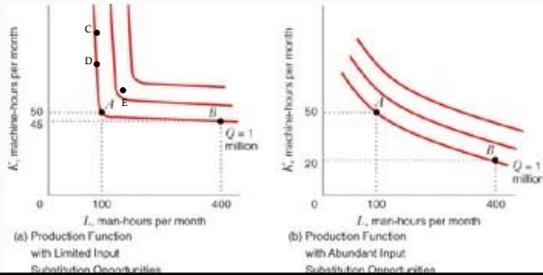
- Remember, K/L is the slope of the rays from origin to a given point on the isoquant.
- $MRTS$ is the slope of the isoquant at a given point, e.g., A or B

Example (From previous Figure)

$$\sigma = \frac{\% \Delta \frac{K}{L}}{\% \Delta MRTS_{L,K}} = \frac{\left(\frac{K}{L}\right)_B - \left(\frac{K}{L}\right)_A}{\left(\frac{K}{L}\right)_A} \cdot \frac{MRTS_{L,K}^A}{MRTS_{L,K}^B - MRTS_{L,K}^A} = \frac{1 - 4}{4} = \frac{-0.75}{-0.75} = 1$$

Elasticity of Substitution- Extreme Cases

- If σ is close to zero, then MRTS changes drastically (large denominator in σ), as in Figure 6.11 (a)
- If σ is large, then MRTS is almost constant (small denominator in σ), as in Figure 6.11 (b)



Special Production Functions

- (1) **Linear Production Function:**
 - General Form: $Q=aL + bK$, where a and b are positive constants

Example: $Q=20K+10L$

If we want to depict the isoquant of $Q=200$

$$200=20K+10L$$

Solving for K, $K=10-\frac{1}{2}L$ ← Equation of Isoquant

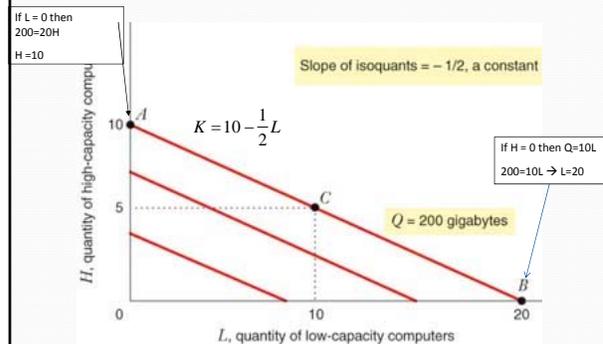
Slope of Isoquant ($MRTS_{K,L}$) is -0.5, which does not depend on L.

Hence, $MRTS_{K,L}$ is constant in L.

Special Production Functions

- MRTS is constant, e.g. 0.5 in our example (isoquants are therefore straight lines).
- For instance, a firm that is flexible enough to use either oil and gas has...
 - a linear production function because these inputs are perfect substitutes for the firm.

- $Q=20H + 10L$ (always additive)



- What about its elasticity of substitution, σ ?
- The linear production functions have an elasticity of substitution of ∞ because the denominator of the equation ($\% \Delta MRTS$) equals zero:

$$\sigma = \frac{\% \Delta \frac{K}{L}}{\% \Delta MRTS_{K,L}} = \frac{\% \Delta \frac{K}{L}}{0} = +\infty$$

Since the slope of the isoquant ($MRTS_{K,L}$) doesn't change along all points of the isoquant, the denominator equals 0.

- (2) **Fixed Proportions Production Functions**
- The K/L ratio does not change because the two inputs must be used in a constant proportion if we seek to increase production.
- That is, an increase in one input without a proportional increase in the other input will not result in any added production.
- **General form:** $Q = \min\{aL, bK\}$, where $a > 0$ and $b > 0$.
- Remember that 'min' means that you take the minimum of the two numbers in parentheses.

Fixed Proportions Production Function - Example

- $Q = \min\{L, 2K\}$, i.e., 2 additional units of labor must be accompanied by one unit of K in order to raise output in one more unit.

$$Q = \min\left\{\frac{L}{2}, K\right\}$$

$$3 = \min\left\{\frac{6}{2}, 3\right\}$$

$$3 = \min\left\{\frac{10}{2}, 3\right\}$$

Fixed Proportions Production Function - Example

- Usual trick in order to find the kink of the L-shaped isoquants:
 - Set the two arguments of the min equal to each other. That is, $L=2K$, and then solve for the input on the vertical axis (usually K), which yields $K=L/2$.
 - Graphically, this implies that the kink is crossed by a straight line originating at $(0,0)$ and with a slope of $1/2$.

- With Fixed Proportions production functions, the elasticity of substitution is $\sigma=0$. Why?

$$\sigma = \frac{\% \Delta \frac{K}{L}}{\% \Delta MRTS_{K,L}}$$

where $MRTS_{L,K}$ (slope of Isoquant) goes from ∞ to 0. Hence $\% \Delta MRTS = \infty$

$$\sigma = \frac{\% \Delta \frac{K}{L}}{\% \Delta MRTS_{K,L}} = \frac{\% \Delta \frac{K}{L}}{\infty} = 0$$

- This implies that it is perfectly difficult to substitute between the two inputs because the substitution must occur in constant proportions.
- Example:* Chemical industry, where every unit of output must contain a constant proportion of inputs.

- (3) **Cobb-Douglas**

- This production function is the intermediate of the previous two. That is, the K/L and $MRTS$ ratios change as we move along the isoquant.
- General Form:** $Q = AL^\alpha K^\beta$, where A , α and β are positive constants.

Hence, $MRTS_{L,K} = \frac{-MP_L}{MP_K} = -\frac{\alpha AL^{\alpha-1} K^\beta}{\beta AL^\alpha K^{\beta-1}} = -\frac{\alpha K}{\beta L}$

- Interestingly, the elasticity of substitution for Cobb-Douglas functions is always 1, i.e., $\sigma=1$.
 - Let's see why...

- Rearranging the $MRTS$, we obtain

$$-MRTS_{L,K} \frac{\beta}{\alpha} = \frac{K}{L} \quad (1)$$

Hence, $\Delta \frac{K}{L} = \frac{-\beta}{\alpha} \Delta MRTS_{L,K}$

$$\frac{\Delta \frac{K}{L}}{\Delta MRTS_{L,K}} = -\frac{\beta}{\alpha} \quad (2)$$

We also know from (1) that:

$$-MRTS_{L,K} = \frac{\alpha K}{\beta L} \leftrightarrow \frac{MRTS_{L,K}}{\frac{K}{L}} = \frac{-\alpha}{\beta} \quad (3)$$

We can then use our results (2) and (3) to obtain the elasticity of substitution, σ .

- Hence, the elasticity of substitution is...

$$\sigma = \frac{\% \Delta \left(\frac{K}{L} \right)}{\% \Delta MRTS_{L,K}} = \frac{\frac{\Delta \frac{K}{L}}{\frac{K}{L}}}{\frac{\Delta MRTS_{L,K}}{MRTS}} = \frac{\Delta \frac{K}{L}}{\Delta MRTS} \cdot \frac{MRTS}{\frac{K}{L}} = \left(\frac{-\beta}{\alpha} \right) \left(\frac{-\alpha}{\beta} \right) = 1$$

From (2) From (3)

- Hence, the Cobb-Douglas production function has an elasticity of substitution, $\sigma=1$, for any values of parameters α , β and A .

Cobb-Douglas production function - Example

$$Q = AL^\alpha K^\beta$$

$$MRTS_{L,K} = -\frac{MP_L}{MP_K} = -\frac{-\alpha AL^{\alpha-1} K^\beta}{\beta AL^\alpha K^{\beta-1}} = -\frac{\alpha K}{\beta L}$$

Example: $\alpha = \beta = 0.5$

$MRTS_{L,K}$ becomes...

- 1) $(K,L) = (12,3) \rightarrow -\frac{0.5}{0.5} \cdot \frac{12}{3} = -4$
- 2) $(K,L) = (6,6) \rightarrow -\frac{0.5}{0.5} \cdot \frac{6}{6} = -1$
- 3) $(K,L) = (3,12) \rightarrow -\frac{0.5}{0.5} \cdot \frac{3}{12} = -\frac{1}{4}$

But, what is the elasticity of substitution, σ , in the Cobb-Douglas production function? $\sigma=1$.

- (4) CES - Constant Elasticity of Substitution Production Function

- The three other production functions are special cases of this production function.
- That is, the other 3 functions can be seen in this function:

$$Q = [aL^{\frac{\sigma-1}{\sigma}} + bK^{\frac{\sigma-1}{\sigma}}]^{\frac{\sigma}{\sigma-1}}$$

where σ is the elasticity of substitution.

In particular...

- $\sigma = \infty$ (linear) substitutes (inputs are infinitely easy to substitute)
- $\sigma = 0$ (fixed proportions) Complements (Inputs cannot be substituted without affecting total output).
- $\sigma = 1$ Cobb-Douglas

- Real World Application

- Let's see some elasticities of substitution in the real world (German Industries):

Industry	Elasticity of substitution, σ
Chemicals	0.37
Iron	0.50
Motor vehicles	0.10
Food	0.66

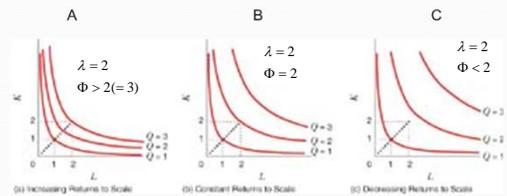
Low elasticity of substitution between L and K (Hard to substitute, almost right-angled isoquants).

High elasticity of substitution between L and K (easy to substitute, smooth curved isoquants, not straight yet).

Returns to Scale (in words)

- A proportional increase in all inputs by λ , produces a...
 - A) more than proportional increase in output (increasing returns to scale)
 - B) proportional increase in output (constant returns to scale)
 - C) less than proportional increase in output (decreasing returns to scale)

- Figure A below represents increasing returns to scale
 - $\Phi > \lambda$
- Figure B below represents constant returns to scale
 - $\Phi = \lambda$
- Figure C below represents decreasing returns to scale
 - $\Phi < \lambda$



Exercise

- Consider a Cobb-Douglas production function, where $L=5$ and $K=3$.

$$Q = L^\alpha K^\beta \rightarrow \text{e.g. } L=5, K=3 \quad Q = 5^\alpha \cdot 3^\beta$$

Let us now analyze by how much output increases if all inputs experience a common increase of λ

For instance, all inputs double, implying that $\lambda = 2$.

If all inputs double, the above Cobb-Douglas production function becomes

$$(2 \times 5)^\alpha \cdot (2 \times 3)^\beta = 2^\alpha 5^\alpha 2^\beta 3^\beta = 2^{\alpha+\beta} (5^\alpha 3^\beta) = 2^{\alpha+\beta} Q$$

Exercise

This is generally true for any Cobb-Douglas production function. In particular,

$$A(\lambda L)^\alpha (\lambda K)^\beta = \lambda^{\alpha+\beta} \underbrace{A L^\alpha K^\beta}_Q = \lambda^{\alpha+\beta} Q$$

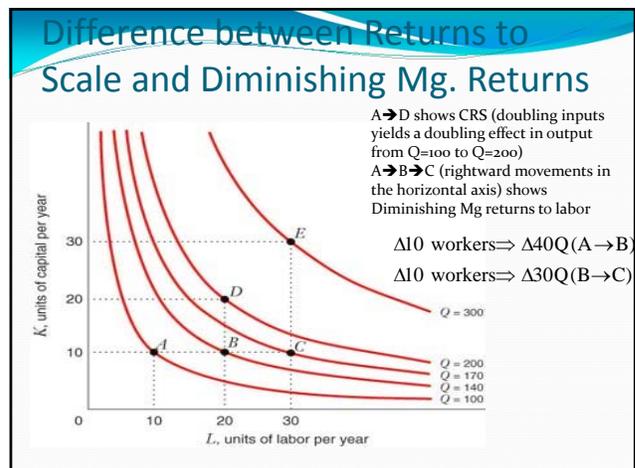
- If $\lambda^{\alpha+\beta} > \lambda$, which occurs when $(\alpha+\beta > 1)$ then the production function has increasing returns to scale
- if $\lambda^{\alpha+\beta} = \lambda$, which occurs when $(\alpha+\beta = 1)$ then the production function has constant returns to scale
- if $\lambda^{\alpha+\beta} < \lambda$, which occurs when $(\alpha+\beta < 1)$ then the production function has decreasing returns to scale

Empirical estimates of Returns to Scale

	$\alpha+\beta$
• <u>Decreasing Returns to Scale</u>	
• Tobacco	0.51
• Food	0.91
• Transportation equipment	0.92
• <u>Constant Returns to Scale</u>	
• Apparel and Textile	1.01
• Furniture	1.02
• Electronics	1.02
• <u>Increasing Returns to Scale</u>	
• Paper Products	1.09
• Petroleum and Coal	1.18
• Primary Metal	1.24

- ### • Why are Returns to Scale important?
- If a firm exhibits increasing Returns to Scale, there are cost advantages to large scale production.
 - That is, the firm will be able to produce at a lower cost per unit than the aggregate cost that two firms would incur when each produces half of the single firm output.
 - One firm is better than two! An argument for promoting industry concentration.
- Empirical evidence:**
- Electrical power generation
 - (Observed in 1950-60, but less today; see application 6.7 in your textbook).
 - Oil pipeline transportation

- ### Tricky Question
- Can a firm exhibit constant returns to scale, yet experience a diminishing marginal product for all inputs?
 - Yes!
 - Let's see why.



Query #3

Returns to scale refers to:

- the increase in output that accompanies an increase in one input, all other inputs held constant.
- a change in a production process that enables a firm to achieve more output from a given combination of inputs.
- the number of units of increase in output that can be obtained from an increase in one unit of input.
- the percentage by which output will increase when all inputs are increased by a given percentage.

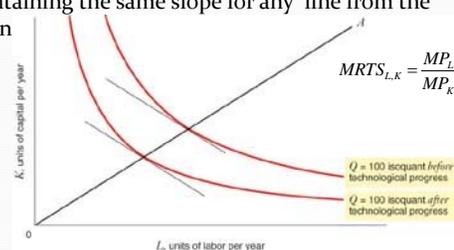
Answer Query #3

- Answer D
- By definition,
 - Returns to Scale = $\% \Delta(\text{quantity of output}) / \% \Delta(\text{quantity of all inputs})$
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Technological Progress

- A firm's production function shifts over time because of increased know-how and new investment and research.
- We refer to this phenomena as **technological progress**:
 - a change in a production process that enables a firm to achieve more output from a given combination of inputs;
 - or, equivalently, the same amount of output from fewer inputs.

- Neutral Technological Progress** decreases the amount of inputs needed to achieve a certain level of production without affecting the firm's marginal rate of technical substitution.
- Graphically, the isoquants will shift inward while maintaining the same slope for any line from the origin



- Labor Saving Technological Progress:** it causes the marginal product of capital to increase in relation to marginal product of labor.
 - Flatter isoquant: if $MRTS_{L,K} = \frac{MP_L}{MP_K}$ goes down, it must be that MP_K grows more rapidly than MP_L . "Fire workers!"

Estimated as true for countries such as the UK.

- Capital Saving Technological Progress:** it causes the marginal product of labor to increase in relation to the marginal product of capital.
 - Steeper isoquant
 - If $MRTS_{L,K}$ grows it must be that MP_L grows more rapidly than MP_K .
 - "Get rid of those machines."

$\uparrow \text{slope Isoq} \Rightarrow MRTS_{L,K} \Rightarrow \uparrow \frac{MP_L}{MP_K} \Rightarrow \uparrow \uparrow MP_L > \uparrow MP_K$

Example - Cobb-Douglas

- Here the firm's production function changes...

$$Q_1 = \sqrt{KL} \quad \text{where over time this changes to } Q_2 = L\sqrt{K}$$

$$MP_K = 0.5 \sqrt{\frac{L}{K}} \qquad MP_K = 0.5L \sqrt{\frac{1}{K}}$$

$$MP_L = 0.5 \sqrt{\frac{K}{L}} \qquad MP_L = \sqrt{K}$$
- A) Is there any tech. progress?
 - Yes, because $Q_1 < Q_2$ for any level of $K > 0$ and $L > 0$.
 - Indeed, $\sqrt{KL} = \sqrt{K}\sqrt{L} < L\sqrt{K}$, which simplifies to $\sqrt{L} < L$. This holds for any number of workers, L .

- B) The progress is Capital Saving since...

$$\left(MRTS_{L,K} = \frac{0.5 \left(\frac{K}{L}\right)^{0.5}}{0.5 \left(\frac{L}{K}\right)^{0.5}} = \frac{K}{L} \right)_{Q_1} < \left(MRTS_{L,K} = \frac{(K)^{0.5}}{0.5L \left(\frac{1}{K}\right)^{0.5}} = \frac{2K}{L} \right)_{Q_2}$$

That is, the isoquant becomes steeper (increase in MRTS) after the technological progress, as in the previous figure.

