

CHAPTER **13**

# The Costs of Production

PRINCIPLES OF  
**Economics**  
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Premium PowerPoint Slides  
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**ACTIVE LEARNING 1**  
**Brainstorming costs**

You run Foxconn Electronics Inc. (鴻海/富士康).

- List 3 different costs you have.
- List 3 different business decisions that are affected by your costs.
- How would your answers change if you run 台北農產運銷公司 instead?



1

**In this chapter, look for the answers to these questions:**

- What is a production function? What is marginal product? How are they related?
- What are the various costs, and how are they related to each other and to output?
- How are costs different in the short run vs. the long run?
- What are “economies of scale”?

2

**Total Revenue, Total Cost, Profit**

- We assume that the firm's goal is to maximize profit.

$$\text{Profit} = \text{Total revenue} - \text{Total cost}$$

the amount a firm receives from the sale of its output

the market value of the inputs a firm uses in production

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3

**Costs: Explicit vs. Implicit**

- Explicit costs** require an outlay of money, e.g., paying wages to workers.
- Implicit costs** do not require a cash outlay, e.g., the opportunity cost of the owner's time.
- Remember one of the Ten Principles:  
*The cost of something is what you give up to get it.*
- This is true whether the costs are implicit or explicit. Both matter for firms' decisions.

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4

**Explicit vs. Implicit Costs: An Example**

You need \$100,000 to start your business. The interest rate is 5%.

- Case 1: borrow \$1,000,000
  - explicit cost = \$50,000 interest on loan
- Case 2: use \$400,000 of your savings, borrow the other \$600,000
  - explicit cost = \$30,000 (5%) interest on the loan
  - implicit cost = \$20,000 (5%) *foregone* interest you could have earned on your \$400,000.

**In both cases, total (exp + imp) costs are \$50,000.**

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5

## Economic Profit vs. Accounting Profit

- **Accounting profit**  
= total revenue minus total explicit costs
- **Economic profit**  
= total revenue minus total costs (including explicit and implicit costs)
- Accounting profit ignores implicit costs, so it's higher than economic profit.

## ACTIVE LEARNING 2

### Economic profit vs. accounting profit

The equilibrium rent on office space has just increased by \$5,000/month.

Compare the effects on accounting profit and economic profit if

- you rent your office space
- you own your office space

## ACTIVE LEARNING 2

### Answers

The rent on office space increases \$5,000/month.

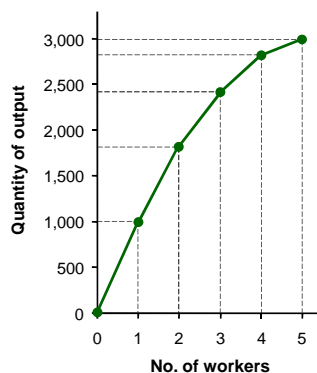
- You rent your office space.  
Explicit costs increase \$5,000/month.  
Accounting profit & economic profit each fall \$5,000/month.
- You own your office space.  
Explicit costs do not change, so accounting profit does not change.  
Implicit costs increase \$5,000/month (opp. cost of using your space instead of renting it), so economic profit falls by \$5,000/month.

## The Production Function

- A **production function** shows the relationship between the quantity of inputs used to produce a good and the quantity of output of that good.
- It can be represented by a table, equation, or graph.
- Example 1:
  - Farmer Jack grows vegetables.
  - He has 5 acres of land.
  - He can hire as many workers as he wants.

## Example 1: Farmer Jack's Production Function

L (no. of workers)	Q (bushels of veggie)
0	0
1	1000
2	1800
3	2400
4	2800
5	3000



## Marginal Product

- If Jack hires one more worker, his output rises by the *marginal product of labor*.
- The **marginal product** of any input is the increase in output arising from an additional unit of that input, holding all other inputs constant.
- Notation:  
 $\Delta$  (delta) = "change in..."  
Examples:  
 $\Delta Q$  = change in output,  $\Delta L$  = change in labor
- Marginal product of labor ( $MPL$ ) =  $\frac{\Delta Q}{\Delta L}$

### EXAMPLE 1: Total & Marginal Product

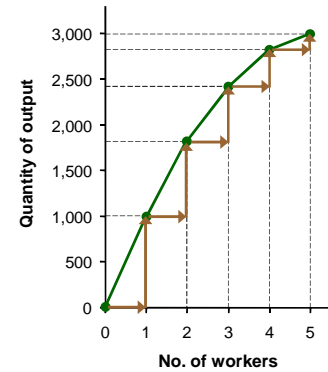
	L (no. of workers)	Q (bushels of veggie)	MPL
	0	0	
$\Delta L = 1$	1	1000	1000
$\Delta L = 1$	2	1800	800
$\Delta L = 1$	3	2400	600
$\Delta L = 1$	4	2800	400
$\Delta L = 1$	5	3000	200

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12

### EXAMPLE 1: MPL = Slope of Prod Function

L (no. of workers)	Q (bushels of veggie)	MPL
0	0	
1	1000	1000
2	1800	800
3	2400	600
4	2800	400
5	3000	200



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13

### Why MPL Is Important

- Recall one of the Ten Principles:  
*Rational people think at the margin.*
- When Farmer Jack hires an extra worker,
  - his costs rise by the wage he pays the worker
  - his output rises by *MPL*
- Comparing them helps Jack decide whether he would benefit from hiring the worker.

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14

### Why MPL Diminishes

- Farmer Jack's output rises by a smaller and smaller amount for each additional worker. Why?
- As Jack adds workers, the average worker has less land to work with and will be less productive.
- In general, *MPL* diminishes as *L* rises whether the fixed input is land or capital (equipment, machines, etc.).
- Diminishing marginal product:** the marginal product of an input declines as the quantity of the input increases (other things equal)

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15

### EXAMPLE 1: Farmer Jack's Costs

- Farmer Jack must pay \$10,000 per month for the land, regardless of how much wheat he grows.
- The market wage for a farm worker is \$20,000 per month.
- So Farmer Jack's costs are related to how much wheat he produces....

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16

### EXAMPLE 1: Farmer Jack's Costs

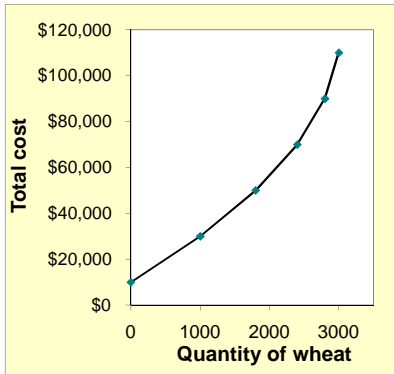
L (no. of workers)	Q (bushels of veggie)	Cost of land	Cost of labor	Total Cost
0	0	\$10,000	\$0	\$10,000
1	1000	\$10,000	\$20,000	\$30,000
2	1800	\$10,000	\$40,000	\$50,000
3	2400	\$10,000	\$60,000	\$70,000
4	2800	\$10,000	\$80,000	\$90,000
5	3000	\$10,000	\$100,000	\$110,000

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17

### EXAMPLE 1: Farmer Jack's Total Cost Curve

Q (bushels of veggie)	Total Cost
0	\$10,000
1000	\$30,000
1800	\$50,000
2400	\$70,000
2800	\$90,000
3000	\$110,000



### Marginal Cost

- Marginal Cost (MC)** is the increase in Total Cost from producing one more unit:

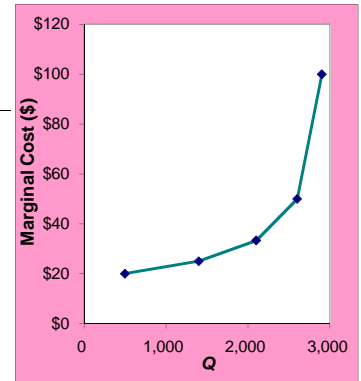
$$MC = \frac{\Delta TC}{\Delta Q}$$

### EXAMPLE 1: Total and Marginal Cost

	Q (bushels of veggie)	Total Cost	ΔTC	Marginal Cost (MC)
	0	\$10,000		
ΔQ = 1000	1000	\$30,000	\$20,000	\$20.0
ΔQ = 800	1800	\$50,000	\$20,000	\$25.0
ΔQ = 600	2400	\$70,000	\$20,000	\$33.3
ΔQ = 400	2800	\$90,000	\$20,000	\$50.0
ΔQ = 200	3000	\$110,000	\$20,000	\$100.0

### EXAMPLE 1: The Marginal Cost Curve

Q (bushels of veggie)	TC	MC
0	\$10,000	
1000	\$30,000	\$20.0
1800	\$50,000	\$25.0
2400	\$70,000	\$33.3
2800	\$90,000	\$50.0
3000	\$110,000	\$100.0



### Why MC Is Important

- Farmer Jack is rational and wants to maximize his profit. To increase profit, should he produce more or less vegetables?
- To find the answer, Farmer Jack needs to "think at the margin."
- If the cost of additional vegetable (MC) is less than the revenue he would get from selling it, then Jack's profits rise if he produces more.

### Fixed and Variable Costs

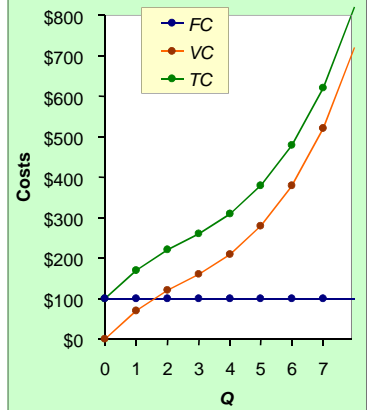
- Fixed costs (FC)** do not vary with the quantity of output produced.
  - For Farmer Jack, FC = \$10,000 for his land
  - Other examples: cost of equipment, loan payments, rent
- Variable costs (VC)** vary with the quantity produced.
  - For Farmer Jack, VC = wages he pays workers
  - Other example: cost of materials
- Total cost (TC) = FC + VC**

### EXAMPLE 2

- Our second example is more general, applies to any type of firm producing any good with any types of inputs.

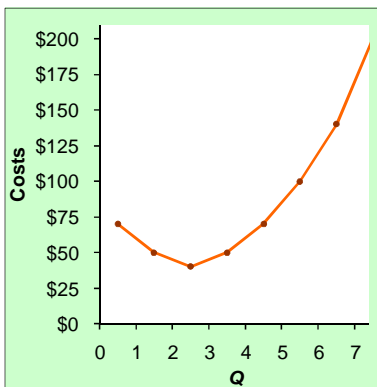
### EXAMPLE 2: Costs

Q	FC	VC	TC
0	\$100	\$0	\$100
1	100	70	170
2	100	120	220
3	100	160	260
4	100	210	310
5	100	280	380
6	100	380	480
7	100	520	620



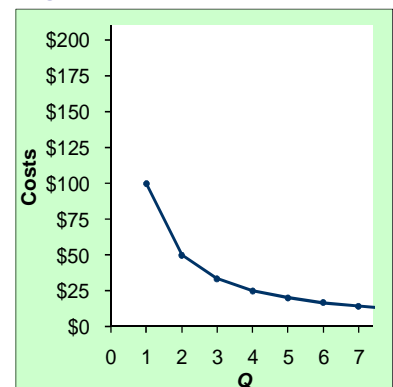
### EXAMPLE 2: Marginal Cost

Q	TC	MC
0	\$100	
1	170	\$70
2	220	50
3	260	40
4	310	50
5	380	70
6	480	100
7	620	140



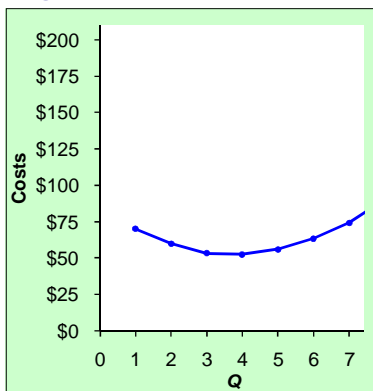
### EXAMPLE 2: Average Fixed Cost

Q	FC	AFC
0	\$100	n/a
1	100	\$100
2	100	50
3	100	33.33
4	100	25
5	100	20
6	100	16.67
7	100	14.29



### EXAMPLE 2: Average Variable Cost

Q	VC	AVC
0	\$0	n/a
1	70	\$70
2	120	60
3	160	53.33
4	210	52.50
5	280	56.00
6	380	63.33
7	520	74.29



### EXAMPLE 2: Average Total Cost

Q	TC	ATC	AFC	AVC
0	\$100	n/a	n/a	n/a
1	170	\$170	\$100	\$70
2	220	110	50	60
3	260	86.67	33.33	53.33
4	310	77.50	25	52.50
5	380	76	20	56.00
6	480	80	16.67	63.33
7	620	88.57	14.29	74.29

**Average total cost (ATC)** equals total cost divided by the quantity of output:

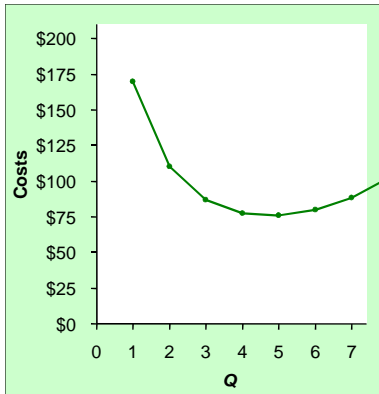
$$ATC = TC/Q$$

Also,

$$ATC = AFC + AVC$$

### EXAMPLE 2: Average Total Cost

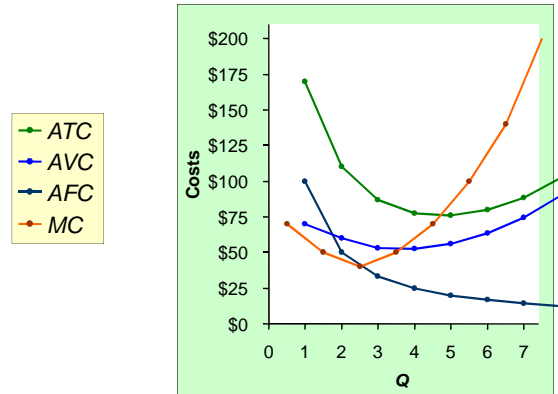
Q	TC	ATC
0	\$100	n/a
1	170	\$170
2	220	110
3	260	86.67
4	310	77.50
5	380	76
6	480	80
7	620	88.57



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30

### EXAMPLE 2: The Various Cost Curves Together



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31

### ACTIVE LEARNING 3 Calculating costs

Fill in the blank spaces of this table.

Q	VC	TC	AFC	AVC	ATC	MC
0		\$50	n/a	n/a	n/a	
1	10			\$10	\$60.00	\$10
2	30	80				30
3			16.67	20	36.67	
4	100	150	12.50		37.50	
5	150			30		60
6	210	260	8.33	35	43.33	

32

### ACTIVE LEARNING 3 Answers

First, deduce  $FC = \$50$  and use  $FC + VC = TC$ .

Q	VC	TC	AFC	AVC	ATC	MC
0	\$0	\$50	n/a	n/a	n/a	
1	10	60	\$50.00	\$10	\$60.00	\$10
2	30	80	25.00	15	40.00	20
3	60	110	16.67	20	36.67	30
4	100	150	12.50	25	37.50	40
5	150	200	10.00	30	40.00	50
6	210	260	8.33	35	43.33	60

33

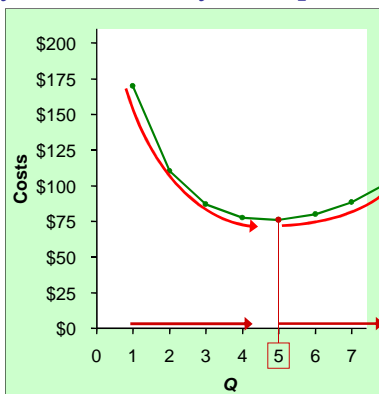
### EXAMPLE 2: Why ATC Is Usually U-Shaped

As  $Q$  rises:

Initially, falling  $AFC$  pulls  $ATC$  down.

Eventually, rising  $AVC$  pulls  $ATC$  up.

**Efficient scale:**  
The quantity that minimizes  $ATC$ .



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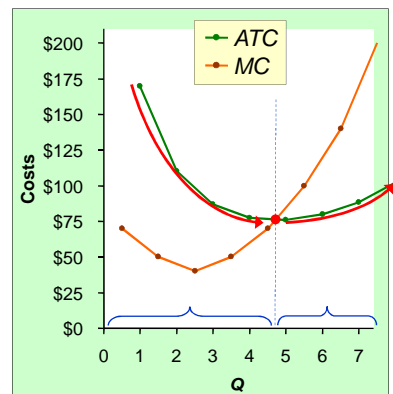
34

### EXAMPLE 2: ATC and MC

When  $MC < ATC$ ,  $ATC$  is falling.

When  $MC > ATC$ ,  $ATC$  is rising.

The  $MC$  curve crosses the  $ATC$  curve at the  $ATC$  curve's minimum.



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35

## Costs in the Short Run & Long Run

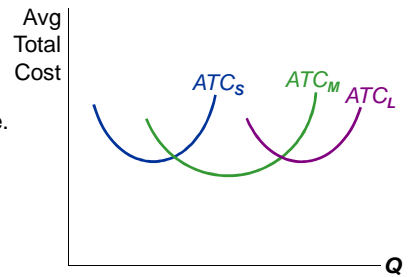
- Short run:
  - Some inputs are fixed (e.g., factories, land).
  - The costs of these inputs are *FC*.
- Long run:
  - All inputs are variable (e.g., firms can build more factories, or sell existing ones).
- In the long run, *ATC* at any *Q* is cost per unit using the most efficient mix of inputs for that *Q* (e.g., the factory size with the lowest *ATC*).

## EXAMPLE 3: LRATC with 3 factory Sizes

Firm can choose from 3 factory sizes: **S, M, L**.

Each size has its own *SRATC* curve.

The firm can change to a different factory size in the long run, but not in the short run.

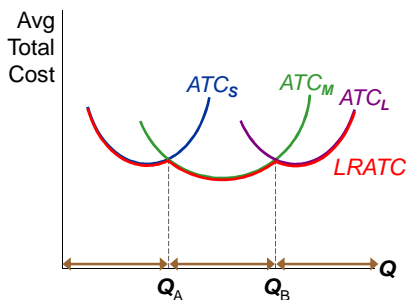


## EXAMPLE 3: LRATC with 3 factory Sizes

To produce less than  $Q_A$ , firm will choose size **S** in the long run.

To produce between  $Q_A$  and  $Q_B$ , firm will choose size **M** in the long run.

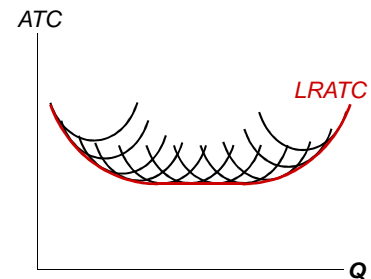
To produce more than  $Q_B$ , firm will choose size **L** in the long run.



## A Typical LRATC Curve

In the real world, factories come in many sizes, each with its own *SRATC* curve.

So a typical *LRATC* curve looks like this:

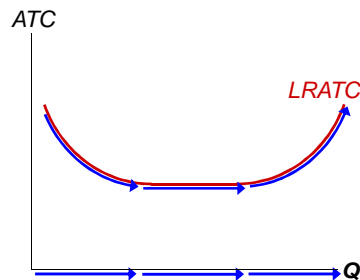


## How ATC Changes as the Scale of Production Changes

**Economies of scale:** *ATC* falls as *Q* increases.

**Constant returns to scale:** *ATC* stays the same as *Q* increases.

**Diseconomies of scale:** *ATC* rises as *Q* increases.



## How ATC Changes as the Scale of Production Changes

- Economies of scale occur when increasing production allows greater specialization: workers more efficient when focusing on a narrow task.
  - More common when *Q* is low.
- Diseconomies of scale are due to coordination problems in large organizations. E.g., management becomes stretched, can't control costs.
  - More common when *Q* is high.

## CONCLUSION

- Costs are critically important to many business decisions, including production, pricing, and hiring.
- This chapter has introduced the various cost concepts.
- The following chapters will show how firms use these concepts to maximize profits in various market structures.

## CHAPTER SUMMARY

- Implicit costs do not involve a cash outlay, yet are just as important as explicit costs to firms' decisions.
- Accounting profit is revenue minus explicit costs. Economic profit is revenue minus total (explicit + implicit) costs.
- The production function shows the relationship between output and inputs.

## CHAPTER SUMMARY

- The marginal product of labor is the increase in output from a one-unit increase in labor, holding other inputs constant. The marginal products of other inputs are defined similarly.
- Marginal product usually diminishes as the input increases. Thus, as output rises, the production function becomes flatter, and the total cost curve becomes steeper.
- Variable costs vary with output; fixed costs do not.

## CHAPTER SUMMARY

- Marginal cost is the increase in total cost from an extra unit of production. The MC curve is usually upward-sloping.
- Average variable cost is variable cost divided by output.
- Average fixed cost is fixed cost divided by output. AFC always falls as output increases.
- Average total cost (sometimes called "cost per unit") is total cost divided by the quantity of output. The ATC curve is usually U-shaped.

## CHAPTER SUMMARY

- The MC curve intersects the ATC curve at minimum average total cost.  
When  $MC < ATC$ , ATC falls as  $Q$  rises.  
When  $MC > ATC$ , ATC rises as  $Q$  rises.
- In the long run, all costs are variable.
- Economies of scale: ATC falls as  $Q$  rises.  
Diseconomies of scale: ATC rises as  $Q$  rises.  
Constant returns to scale: ATC remains constant as  $Q$  rises.

## The Cost of Production

- Opportunity Cost (Explicit / Implicit)
- Accounting Profit vs. Economic Profit
- Marginal Product
- $MC, TC = FC + VC, ATC = AFC + AVC$
- Economies of Scale (for LR)
- Homework: Mankiw, Chp. 13, pp. 285-287, Problem 2, 6, 7, 9, 10, 12.