

<<经济学>>

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内容概要

本书是当代经济学泰斗、1970年诺贝尔经济学奖得主萨缪尔森的不朽经济学著作，自1948年问世以来就广受赞誉，先后被翻译成40多种文字出版，是有史以来发行量最大、至今在全球范围内仍然被广泛采用的经济学教科书。

第18版为2005年修订的最新版，在经历了前17版的积累和沉淀之后，无论在内容还是在形式上都已经近乎完美，而且在融入了时代变革的元素和新的案例和数据之后，《经济学》（第18版）可谓是更上一层楼。

本书分7编共34章，包括微观经济学和宏观经济学两大部分。

在保持“把注意力始终放在经济学的基本概念和核心理论”这一风格的前提下，对金融经济学、网络经济学、环境经济学，以及全球化背景下的国际经济与贸易做了重点论述或重写，对前沿的实践及理论成果，对国际化外包、股息税改革、品牌价值以及行为经济学等也给出了最新的介绍。

为了方便和丰富想通过阅读英文原著学习和研究经济学的读者的需求，特推出《经济学》第18版的双语典藏版。

该双语典藏版在保留原英文版100%内容的基础上，有选择地对知识重点、专业难点、语法难点、专业术语、标题与目录以及较生僻的字词做了翻译和注释。

本书适合于高等院校经济学专业、财经类专业本科生及教师，MPA、MBA、EMBA、IMBA学员及教师，理论研究者，政府工作人员及企事业管理者学习和研究之用。

<<经济学>>

作者简介

保罗·萨缪尔森，毕业于芝加哥大学和哈佛大学，是麻省理工学院经济学研究生部的创始人。他的许多著作使得他在年轻时就赢得了世界声誉。他是美国第一个诺贝尔经济学奖得主（1970年）。萨缪尔森教授曾长期为美国《新闻周刊》的经济学栏目撰稿，曾担任美国总统约翰·肯尼迪的经济顾问，属于那种能够同普通民众进行交流和沟通的为数极少的科学家之一。萨缪尔森常出席国会听证，并担任联邦储备、财政部、许多私人机构和非营利机构的咨询顾问。除了在麻省理工学院做研究工作和经常打网球之外，萨缪尔森教授还是纽约大学的客座教授。他的6个孩子（包括一次三胞胎）为萨缪尔森家族衍续了15个子孙。

威廉·诺德豪斯，美国杰出的经济学家之一，出生于新墨西哥州的爱伯克奇。本科就读于耶鲁大学，经济学博士学位是在麻省理工学院获得的。现任耶鲁大学惠特尼·格里斯伍德经济学教授和考尔斯经济学研究基金会理事。诺德豪斯的经济学研究范围很广，包括环境、价格、能源、技术变革、经济增长、利润和生产率的增长趋势。此外，诺德豪斯还对经济政策很感兴趣。他在1977

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1979年间是卡特总统经济顾问班子成员，曾在美国政府各种顾问理事会和委员会中任职，不时给《纽约时报》和其他报刊撰文，在耶鲁大学主讲经济学原理课程。诺德豪斯教授与他的妻子芭芭拉居住在康涅狄格州的纽黑文市，他还有一条长着金黄色毛的爱犬潘多拉。夫妇俩有共同的爱好：音乐、远足、旅游和滑雪。

<<经济学>>

书籍目录

Preface

Economics and the

Internet

PART ONE BASIC CONCEPTS

Chapter 1 The Fundamentals of

Economics

Appendix 1 How to Read

Graphs

Chapter 2 Markets and Government in a

Modern Economy

Chapter 3 Basic Elements of Supply and

Demand

PART TWO MICROECONOMICS: SUPPLY, DEMAND, AND PRODUCT

MARKETS

Chapter 4 Applications of Supply and

Demand

Chapter 5 Demand and Consumer

Behavior

Appendix 5 Geometrical Analysis of Consumer

Equilibrium

Chapter 6 Production and Business

Organization

Chapter 7 Analysis of

Costs

Appendix 7 Production, Cost Theory, and Decisions
of the Firm

Chapter 8 Analysis of Perfectly Competitive

Markets

Chapter 9 Imperfect Competition and

Monopoly

Chapter 10 Oligopoly and Monopolistic

Competition

Chapter 11 Uncertainty and Game

Theory

PART THREE FACTOR MARKETS: LABOR, LAND, AND

CAPITAL

Chapter 12 How Markets Determine

Incomes

Chapter 13 The Labor

Market

Chapter 14 Land and

Capital

Appendix 14 Markets and Economic

Efficiency

PART FOUR APPLIED MICROECONOMICS:

<<经济学>>

INTERNATIONAL TRADE, GOVERNMENT, AND THE ENVIRONMENT

Chapter 15 Comparative Advantage and Protectionism

Chapter 16 Government Taxation and Expenditure

Chapter 17 Promoting More Efficient Markets

Chapter 18 Protecting the Environment

Chapter 19 Efficiency vs. Equality: The Big Tradeoff

PART FIVE MACROECONOMICS: ECONOMIC GROWTH AND BUSINESS CYCLES

Chapter 20 Overview of Macroeconomics

Appendix 20 Macroeconomic Data for the United States

Chapter 21 Measuring Economic Activity

Chapter 22 Consumption and Investment

Chapter 23 Business Fluctuations and the Theory of Aggregate Demand

Chapter 24 The Multiplier Model

Chapter 25 Financial Markets and the Special Case of Money

Chapter 26 Central Banking and Monetary Policy

PART SIX GROWTH, DEVELOPMENT, AND THE GLOBAL ECONOMY

Chapter 27 The Process of Economic Growth

Chapter 28 The Challenge of Economic Development

Chapter 29 Exchange Rates and the International Financial System

Chapter 30 Open-Economy Macroeconomics

PART SEVEN UNEMPLOYMENT, INFLATION, AND ECONOMIC POLICY

Chapter 31 Unemployment and the Foundations of Aggregate Supply

Chapter 32 Ensuring Price Stability

Chapter 33 The Warring Schools of

<<经济学>>

Macroeconomics

Chapter 34 Policies for Growth and

Stability

Glossary of Terms

Index

前言

经济学与互联网

第一编 基本概念

第1章 经济学基础知识

第1章附录 如何看图

第2章 现代经济中的市场与政府

第3章 供给与需求的基本原理

第二编 微观经济学：供给、需求和产品市场

第4章 供给和需求的应用

第5章 需求和消费者行为

第5章附录 消费均衡的几何分析

第6章 生产和企业组织

第7章 成本分析

第7章附录 生产、成本理论和企业决策

第8章 完全竞争市场分析

第9章 不完全竞争及其极端形式——垄断

第10章 寡头和垄断竞争

第11章 不确定性和博弈论

第三编 要素市场：劳动、土地和资本

第12章 市场如何决定收入

第13章 劳动市场

第14章 土地和资本

第14章附录 市场和经济效率

第四编 应用微观经济学：国际贸易、政府和环境

第15章 比较优势和贸易保护主义

第16章 政府税收和支出

第17章 促进市场更富效率

第18章 环境保护

第19章 效率与公平：重大权衡

第五编 宏观经济学：经济增长与商业周期

第20章 宏观经济学概述

第20章附录 宏观经济数据

第21章 经济活动的衡量

第22章 消费与投资

第23章 商业周期波动和总需求理论

第24章 乘数模型

第25章 金融市场和货币的特殊形态

第26章 中央银行与货币政策

第六编 经济增长、经济发展与全球经济

第27章 经济增长的进程

第28章 经济发展的挑战

第29章 汇率与国际金融体系

<<经济学>>

第30章 开放经济的宏观经济学
第七编 失业、通货膨胀与经济政策
第31章 失业与总供给的基础
第32章 保持价格稳定
第33章 宏观经济学流派及其论战
第34章 经济增长与经济稳定的政策
专业术语表
索引

章节摘录

不完全竞争 Imperfect Competition One serious deviation from an efficient market comes from imperfect competition or monopoly elements. Whereas under perfect competition no firm or consumer can affect prices, imperfect competition occurs when a buyer or seller can affect a good's price. For example, if the telephone company or a labor union is large enough to influence the price of phone service or labor, respectively, some degree of imperfect competition has set in. When imperfect competition arises, society may move inside its PPF. This would occur, for example, if a single seller (a monopolist) raised the price to earn extra profits. The output of that good would be reduced below the most efficient level, and the efficiency of the economy would thereby suffer. In such a situation, the invisible-hand property of markets may be violated. What is the effect of imperfect competition?

Imperfect competition leads to prices that rise above cost and to consumer purchases that are reduced below efficient levels. The pattern of too high price and too low output is the hallmark of the inefficiencies associated with imperfect competition. In reality, almost all industries possess some measure of imperfect competition. Airlines, for example, may have no competition on some of their routes but face several rivals on others. The extreme case of imperfect competition is the monopolist—a single supplier who alone determines the price of a particular good or service. For example, Microsoft has been a monopolist in the production of Windows operating systems. Over the last century, most governments have taken steps to curb the most extreme forms of imperfect competition. Governments sometimes regulate the price and profits of monopolies such as local water, telephone, and electric utilities. In addition, government antitrust laws prohibit actions such as price fixing and agreeing to divide up markets. The most important check to imperfect competition, however, is the opening of markets to competitors, whether they be domestic or foreign. Few monopolies can long withstand the attack of competitors unless governments protect them through tariffs or regulations. **外部性**

Externalities A second type of inefficiency arises when there are spillovers or externalities, which involve involuntary imposition of costs or benefits. Market transactions involve voluntary exchange in which people exchange goods or services for money. When a firm buys a chicken to make frozen drumsticks, it buys the chicken from its owner in the chicken market, and the seller receives the full value of the hen. When you buy a haircut, the barber receives the full value for time, skills, and rent. But many interactions take place outside markets. While airports produce a lot of noise, they generally do not compensate the people living around the airport for disturbing their peace. On the other hand, some companies which spend heavily on research and development have positive spillover effects for the rest of society. For example, researchers at AT&T invented the transistor and launched the electronic revolution, but AT&T's profits increased by only a small fraction of the global social gains. In each case, an activity has helped or hurt people outside the marketplace; that is, there was an economic transaction without an economic payment. Externalities (or spillover effects) occur when firms or people impose costs or benefits on others outside the marketplace. Governments are generally more concerned with negative externalities than positive ones. As our society has become more densely populated and as the production of energy, chemicals, and other materials increases, negative externalities or spillover effects have grown from little nuisances into major threats. This is where governments come in. Government regulations are designed to control externalities like air and water pollution, damage from strip mining, hazardous wastes, unsafe drugs and foods, and radioactive materials. In many ways, governments are like parents, always saying no: Thou shalt not expose thy workers to dangerous conditions. Thou shalt not pour out poisonous smoke from thy factory chimney. Thou shalt not sell mind-altering drugs. Thou shalt not wear thy seat belt. And so forth. Finding the correct balance between free markets and government regulation is a difficult task that requires careful analysis of the costs and benefits of each approach. But few people today would argue for returning to the unregulated economic jungle where firms would be allowed to dump pollutants like plutonium wherever they wanted. **公共品** Public Goods While negative externalities like pollution or global warming command most of the headlines, positive externalities may well be

economically more significant. Important examples of positive externalities are construction of a highway network , operation of a national weather service , support of basic science , and provision of measures to enhance public health. These are not goods which can be bought and sold in markets. Adequate private production of these public goods will not occur because the benefits are so widely dispersed across the population that no single firm or consumer has an economic incentive to provide the service and capture the returns. The polar case of a positive externality is a public good. Public goods are commodities which can be enjoyed by everyone and from which no one can be excluded. A classic example of a public good is the military. When a nation goes to war—to root out terrorists , to look for weapons of mass destruction , to grab land or oil , or to stir up patriotic sentiments—all must pay the piper and all will suffer the consequences , whether they want to or not. Because private provision of public goods is generally insufficient , the government must step in to encourage the production of public goods. In buying public goods like national defense or lighthouses , the government is behaving exactly like any other large spender. By casting sufficient dollar votes in certain directions , it causes resources to flow there. Once the dollar votes are cast , the market mechanism then takes over and channels resources to firms so that the lighthouses or tanks get produced.

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“ It is difficult to exaggerate the world-wide impact of Mr. Samuelson ' s Economics. ” ——The Economist

“ 半个多世纪以来，在美国乃至全世界的课堂上，我们这本教科书都已经成为经济学入门教学的典范。

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” ——萨缪尔森，诺德豪斯

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