

<<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。

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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

~
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。

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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.

编辑推荐

“ 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。每一新的版本，都要从最杰出的经济学家那里提取有关市场如何运行、社会如何提高人民生活水平等课题的思想精华。然而，自1948年本书第1版问世以来，经济学的确已经发生了深刻的变化。并且因为经济学原本就是一个活生生的不断丰富和发展的有机整体，这本书的每一次再版都是一次新生。而每经历一次新生，作者都能借此令人兴奋的契机，来展示现代经济学家最前沿的思想，来阐释经济学如何促进世界更加繁荣。.....尽管如此，这些较多的变化仍然没有改变《经济学》自第1版以来一贯的风格：简洁的文句、清晰的解释和精练的图表。”

——萨缪尔森，诺德豪斯

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