**ПРЕАМБУЛА**

Данная серия задумана как справочно-теоретическая.

Реферирование и аннотирование научной литературы по специальности является прямо или косвенно неотъемлемой частью профессиональной и академической деятельности любого состоявшегося экономиста. Можно не быть собственно референтом по роду своих служебных обязанностей, но оперативно и максимально эффективно пользоваться реферативными текстами, предсказуемо извлекая из них существенную, представленную в конденсированной форме информацию текста-первоисточника, необходимо.

Сказанное справедливо как для работы с родным языком, так и с иностранным. Знание структурно-композиционных, лексических и лексико-синтаксических особенностей организации реферативных текстов на том или ином языке должно сопрягаться с общими для всех языков сведениями о сути реферирования и аннотирования, их основных коммуникативных задачах, используемых процедурах (алгоритмах) их составления. Наконец, оперируя определениями того или иного типа реферативного текста, нужно четко видеть их основные отличия друг от друга уже внутри научного жанра рефератов и аннотаций.

Все эти вопросы так или иначе затрагиваются в серии.

Выпуск I посвящен, с одной стороны, языковому оформлению английских Abstract, Summary, Review, с другой стороны, в нем делается попытка через определения и примеры, если не обособить, то сравнить эти типы текстов реферативного как по их основному коммуникативному заданию, так и используемым языковым средствам на уровне семантики, синтаксиса и стилистики.

Выпуск II описывает процедуры написания в учебных целях реферата и аннотации с использованием схемы передаваемой информации и структурно-языковых средств, описанных в Выпуске I. Даются образы реферата и аннотации, созданных на основе английского оригинального текста по экономике.

**ПРОЦЕДУРА СОСТАВЛЕНИЯ ВТОРИЧНЫХ ДОКУМЕНТОВ**

**Реферат**

1. Задания по составлению схемы передаваемой информации (вариант для реферата).
2. Разделите текст на логические части и озаглавьте их.
3. Внутри каждой логической части отделите избыточную информацию по внешним формальным признакам.
4. Найдите в тексте и выпишите под заголовками соответствующих логических частей ключевые фрагменты.
5. Перегруппируйте ключевые фрагменты по значимости.
6. При необходимости перегруппируйте названия логических частей по значимости.
7. Запишите полученную вами схему передаваемой информации, которая явится основой для последующего написания реферата текста.
8. Задания по подготовке собственно реферата.

На основе схемы, используя ключевые фрагменты, конспективно и объективно изложите все существенные положения текста. Используйте средства межфразовой связи.

**Аннотация**

1. Задания по составлению схемы передаваемой информации (вариант для аннотаций).
2. На основе заданий I(1) и I (5) по составлению схемы передаваемой информации (см. вариант для реферата) перечислите темы и основные подтемы текста.
3. Сформулируйте главную идею текста и его выводы.

Выразите свое критическое отношение к содержанию и выводам текста.

1. Задания по подготовке собственно аннотации.

На основе схемы, используя обороты речи, характерные для вторичного документа, обобщенно изложите тему и подтемы текста и выразите свое критическое отношение к его идее и выводам.

**ОБРАЗЕЦ СОСТАВЛЕНИЯ РЕФЕРАТА И АННОТАЦИИ**

**The firm and its objectives**

We have now discussed the data which the firm needs for its decision-making – the demand for its products and the cost of supplying them. But, even with information, in order to determine what decisions are optimal it is still necessary to find out the businessman’s aims. The decision which best serves one set of goals will not usually be appropriate for some other set of aims.

1. There is no simple method for determining the goals of the firm (or of its executives). One think, however, is clear. Very often the last person to ask about any individual’s motivation is the person himself (as the psychoanalysts have so clearly shown). In fact, it is common experience when interviewing executives to find that they will agree to every plausible goal and also to maximize profits; that they wish, in the bargain, to minimize costs; and so on, Unfortunately, it is normally impossible to serve all of such a multiplicity of goals at once.
2. For example, suppose an advertising outlay of half a million dollars minimizes unit costs, an outlay of 1.2 million maximizes total profits, whereas an outlay of 1.8 million maximizes the firm’s sales volume. We cannot have all three decisions at once. The firm must settle on one of the three objectives or some compromise among them.
3. Of course, the businessman is not the only one who suffers from the desire to pursue a number of incompatible objectives. It is all too easy to try to embrace at one time all of the attractive – sounding goals one can muster and difficult to reject any one of them. Even the most learned have suffered from this difficulty. It is precisely on these grounds the one great economist was led to remark that the much-discussed objective of the greatest good for the greatest number contains one ‘greatest’ too many.
4. It is most frequently assumed in economics analysis that the firm is trying to maximize its total profits. However, there is no reason to believe that all businessmen pursue the same objectives. For example, a small firm which is run by its owner may seek to maximize the proprietor’s free time subject to the constraint that his earnings exceed some minimum level, and, ended, there have been cases of overworked businessmen who, on medical advice, have turne down profitable business opportunities.
5. It has also been suggested, on the basis of some observation, that firms often seek to maximize the money value of their sales (their total revenue) subject to a constraint that their profits do not fall short of some minimum level which is just on the borderline of acceptability. That is, so long as profits are at a satisfactory level, management will devote the bulk of its energy and resources to the expansion of sales. Such a goal may, perhaps, be explained by the businessman’s desire to maintain his competitive position, which is partly dependent on the sheer size of his enterprise, or it may be a matter of the interests of management (as distinguished from shareholders), since management’s salaries’ may be related more closely to the size of the firm’s operations than to its profits, or it may simply be a matter of prestige.
6. In any event, though they may help him to formulate his own aims and sometimes be able to show him that more ambitious goals are possible and relevant, it is not the job of the operations researcher or the economist to tell the businessman what his goals should be. Management’s aims must be taken to be whatever they are, and the job of the analyst is to find the conclusions which follow from these objectives – that is, to describe what businessmen do to achieve these goals, and perhaps to prescribe methods for pursuing them more efficiently.
7. The major point, both in economic analysis and operations – research investigation of business problems, is that the nature of the firm’s objectives cannot be assumed in advance. It is important to determine the nature of the firm’s objectives before proceeding to the formal model building and the computations based on it. As is obviously to be expected, many of the conclusions’ of the analysis will vary with the choice of objective function. However, as some of the later discussion in this chapter will show, a change is objectives can, sometimes surprisingly, leave some significant relationships invariant. Where this is true, it is very convenient to find it out in advance before embarking on the investigation of a specific problem. For if there are some problems for which the optimum decision will be the same, no matter which of a number of objectives the firm happens to adopt, it is legitimate to avoid altogether the difficult job of determining company goals before undertaking an analysis.
8. Let us first examine some of the conventional theory of the profit-maximizing firm. In the chapter on the differential calculus, the basic marginal for profit maximization was derived as an illustration. Let us now redeliver this marginal-cost-equals-marginal-revenue condition with the aid of a verbal and a geometric argument.
9. The proposition is that no firm can be earning maximum profits unless its marginal cost and its marginal revenue are (at least approximately) equal, t.e., unless an additional unit of output will bring in as much money as it costs to produce, so that its marginal profitability is zero.
10. It is easy to show why this must be so. Suppose a firm is producing 200,000 units of some item, *x*, and that at output level, the marginal revenue from *x* production is $1.10 whereas its marginal cost is only 96 cents. Additional units of *x* will, therefore, each bring the firm some 14 cents = $1.10 – 0,96 more than they coat, and so the firm cannot be maximizing its profits by sticking to its 200,000 production level. Similarly, if the marginal cost of *x* exceeds its marginal revenue, the firm cannot be maximizing its profits, for it is neglecting to take advantage of its opportunity to save money – by reducing its output it would reduce its income, but it would reduce its costs by an even greater amount.
11. We can also derive the marginal-costs-equals-marginal-revenue proposition with the aid of Figure 1. At any output, OQ, total revenue is represented by the area OQPR under the marginal revenue curve (see Rule 9 of Chapter 3). Similarly, total cost is represented by the area OQKC immediately below the marginal cost curve. Total profit, which is the difference between total revenue and total cost is, therefore, represented by the difference between the two areas – that is, total profits are given by the lightly shaded area TKR minus the small, heavily shaded area, RTC. Now, it is clear that from point Q a move to the right will increase the size of the profit area TKR. In fact, only at output OQm will this area have reached its maximum size – profits will encompass the entire area TKMP. But at output OQm marginal cost equals marginal revenue – indeed, it is the crossing of the marginal cost and marginal revenue curves at that point which prevents further moves to the right (further output increases) from adding still more to the total profit area. Thus, we have once again established that at the point of maximum profits, marginal costs and marginal revenues must be equal.

12. Before leaving the discussion of this proposition, it is well to dusting wish explicitly between it and its invalid converse. It is not generally true that any output level at which marginal cost and marginal



revenue happen to be equal (i.e., where marginal profit is zero) will be a profit – maximizing level. There may be several levels of production at which marginal cost and marginal revenue are equal, and some of these output quantities may be far from advantageous for the firm. In Figure I this condition is satisfied at output OQt as well as at OQm. But at OQt the firm obtains only the net loss (negative profit) represented by heavily shaded area RTC. A move in either direction from point Qt will help the firm either by reducing its costs more than it costs its revenues (a move to the left) or by adding to its revenues more than to its costs. Output OQt is thus a point of minimum profits even though it meets the marginal profit – maximization condition, “marginal revenue equals marginal cost”.

13. This peculiar result is explained by re recalling that the condition, “marginal profitability equals zero”, implies only that neither a small increase nor a small decrease in quantity will add to profits. In other words, it means that we are at an output at which the total profit curve (not shown) is level – going neither uphill nor downhill. But while the top of a hill (the maximum profit output) is such a level spot, plateaus and valleys (minimum profit outputs) also have the same characteristic – they are level. That is, they are points of zero marginal profit, where marginal cost equals marginal revenue.

14. We conclude that while at a profit –maximizing output marginal cost must equal marginal revenue, the converse is not correct – it is not true that at an output at which marginal cost equals marginal revenue the firm can be sure of maximizing its profits.

15. The preceding theorem permits us to make a number of predictions about the behavior of the profit – maximizing firm and to set up some normative “operations research” rules for its operation. We can determine not only the optimal output, but also the profit – maximizing price with the aid of the demand curve for the product of the firm. For, given the optimal output, we can find out from the demand curve what price will permit the company to sell this quantity, and that is necessarily the optimal price. In Figure 1, where the optimal output is OQm we see that the corresponding price is QmPm where point Pm is the point on the demand curve above Qm (note that Pm is not the point of intersection of the marginal cost and the marginal revenue curves).

16. It was shown in the last section of Chapter 4 how our theorem can also enable us to predict the effect of a change in tax rates or some other change in cost on the firm’s output and pricing. We need merely determine how this change shifts the marginal cost curve to find the new profit-maximizing price-output combination by finding the new point of intersection of the marginal cost and marginal revenue curves. Let us recall one particular result for use later in this chapter –the theorem about the effects of a change in fixed cost. It will be remembered that a change in fixed costs never has any effect on the firm’s marginal cost curve (Chapter 3, Section 6) because marginal fixed cost is always zero (by definition, an additional unit of output adds nothing to fixed costs). Hence, if profit – maximizing firm’s rents, its total assessed taxes, or some other fixed cost increases, there will be no change in the output –price level at which its marginal cost equals its marginal revenue. In other words, the profit – maximizing firm will no price or output changes in response to any increase or decrease in its fixed costs! This rather unexpected result is certainly not in accord with common business practice and requires some further comment which will be supplied presently.

17. The firm’s output decisions are normally more complicated, even in principle, than the preceding decisions suggest. Almost all companies produce a variety of products and these various commodities typically compete for the firm’s investment funds and its productive capacity. At any given time there are limits to what the company can produce, and often, if it decides to increase its production of product *x,* this mast be done at the expense of product *y*. In other words, such a company cannot simply expand the output of *x* to its optimum level without taking into account the effects of this decision on the output of *y.*

18. For a profit –maximizing decision which takes both commodities into account we have a marginal rule which is a special case of Rule 2 of Chapter 3.

Any limited input (including investment funds) should be allocated between the two outputs *x* and *y* in such a way that the marginal profit yield of the input, I, in the production of *x* equals the marginal profit yield of the input in the production of *y.*

19. The reasoning behind this result is straightforward. If the condition is violated the firm cannot be maximizing its profits, because the firm can add to its earnings simply by shifting some of 1 out of the product where it obtains the lower return and 5x – 1300 into the manufacture of the other.

20. Stated another way, this last theorem asserts that if the firm is maximizing its profits, a reduction in its output of *x* by an amount which is worth, say, $5, should release just exactly enough productive capacity, C, to permit the output of *y* to be increased $5 worth. This means that the marginal return of the released capacity is exactly the same in the production of either *x* or *y,* which is what the previous version of this rule asserted.

21. Still another version of this result is worth describing: suppose the price of each product is fixed and independent of output levels. Then we require that the marginal cost of each output be proportionate to its price, i.e., that MCx/Px = MCy/Py, where Px and MCx are, respectively, the price and the marginal cost of *x,* etc.

22. In this discussion we have considered only the output decisions of a profit – maximizing firm. Of course, the firm has other decisions to make. In particular, it must decide on the amounts of its inputs including its marketing inputs (advertising, sales force, etc.). There are similar rules for these decisions, as discussed in Chapter 11 and in Chapter 17, Section 6. The main result here is that profit maximization requires for any inputs *i* and *j*.

MPi*/P*i= MPj / Pj ;

where MPi represents the marginal profit contribution of input *i* and Pi is its price, etc.

23. Having discussed the consequences of profits maximization, let us see now what difference it makes if the firm adopts an alternative, one to which we have already alluded – the maximization of the value of its sales (total revenue) under the requirement that the firm’s profits not fall short of some given minimum level.

24. Sales maximization under a profit constraint does not mean an attempt to obtain the largest possible physical volume (which is hardly easy to define in the modern multi – product firm). Rather, it refers to maximization of total revenue (dollar sales) which, to the businessman; is the obvious measure of the amount he has sold. Maximum sales in this sense need not require very large physical outputs. To take an extreme case, at a zero price physical volume may be high but dollar sales volume will be zero. There will normally be a well-determined output level which maximizes dollar sales. This level can ordinarily be fixed with the aid of the well-know rule that maximum revenue will be obtained only at an output at which the elasticity of demand is unity, i.e., at which marginal revenue is zero. This is the condition which replaces the “marginal cost equals marginal revenue” profit – maximizing rule.

25. But this rule does not take into account the profit constraint. That is, If at the revenue-maximizing output the firm does, in fact, earn enough or more that enough profits to keep its stockholders satisfied then it will want to produce the sales- maximizing quantity. But if at this output profits are too low, the firm’s output must be changed to a level which, though it fails to maximize sales, does meet the profit requirement.

26. We see, then, that two types of equilibrium appear to be possible: one in which the profit constraint does not provide an effective barrier to sales maximization, and one in which it does. This is illustrated in Figure 2, which shows the firm’s total revenue, cost, and profit curves as indicated.

27. The profit – and sales – maximizing outputs are, respectively, OQp and OQ3. Now if, for example, the minimum required profit level is OP1, then the sales –maximizing output OQ5 will provide plently of profit, and that is the amount it will pay the sales maximize to produce. His selling price will then be set at Q3R8 /OQ3. But if the producer’s required profit level is OP2, output OQ3, which yields insufficient profit, clearly will not do. Instead, his output will bе reduced to level OQc, which is just compatible with his profit constraint.



required profit level is OP2, output OQ3, which yields insufficient profit, clearly will not do. Instead, his output will be reduced to level OQc, which is just compatible with his profit constraint.

28. It will be argued presently that in fact only equilibrium points in which the constraint is effective (OQc rather than OQ3) can normally be expected to occur when other decisions of the firm are taken into account.

29. The profit – maximizing output, OQp, will usually be smaller than the one which yields either type of sales maximum, OQ3 or OQc. This can be proved with the aid of the standard rule that at the point of maximum profit marginal cost must equal marginal revenue. For marginal cost is normally a positive number (we can’t usually produce more of a good for nothing). Hence marginal revenue will also be positive when profits are at a maximum, i.e., a further increase in output will increase total sales (revenue). Therefore, if at the point of maximum profit the firm earns more profit than required minimum, it will pay the sales maximize to lower his price and increase his physical output.

30. The decision as to how far to carry advertising expenditure can also be influenced profoundly by the firm’s choice of objectives – whether it chooses to maximize sales or profits.

31. Whereas an increase in physical volume produced by a price reduction may not increase dollar sales, depending on whether demand is elastic or inelastic, an increase in volume brought about by advertising outlay must always be accompanied by a proportionate increase in total revenue.

32. The interrelationship between output and advertising decisions now permits us to see the reason for the earlier assertion that an unconstrained sales-maximizing output OQ3 (Figure 2) will ordinarily not occur. For if price is say at a level which yields such an output, profits will be above their minimum level and it will pay to increase sales by raising expenditure on advertising, service, or product specifications. This is an immediate implication of the theorem that there will ordinarily be no unconstrained sales-maximizing advertising level. Since its marginal revenue is always positive, advertising can always be used to increase sales up to a point where profits are driven to their minimum level.

33. The typical firm is a multi – product enterprise (frequently the number of distinct items runs easily into the hundreds or even thousands) and, of course, it employs a large variety of inputs. This section examines briefly the effect of sales (rather than profit) maximization on the amounts and allocation of the firm’s various inputs and outputs.

34. We obtain the following result which may at first appear rather surprising: Given the level of quantity of each output, and market it in the same ways as does the profit maximize. Similarly, given the level of their total revenues, the two types of firm will optimally use the same inputs in identical quantities and will allocate them in exactly the same way. This result may be somewhat implausible because one is tempted to think of some products or some markets as higher-profit, lower –revenue producers than others and one would expect the profit –maximizing firm to concentrate more on the one variety and the sales-maximizing firm to specialize more in the other. But we shall see in a moment why this is not so.

35. It is easy to illustrate our result geometrically. In Figure 3 let *x* and *y* represent the quantities sold of two different products (or sales of one product in two different markets) or the quantities bought of two different inputs. The curves labeled R1, R2, etc. are is so revenue curves, i.e., any such curve is the locus of all combinations of *x* and *y* yielding some fixed amount of revenue. Similarly, CC’ represents all combinations of *x* and *y* Which can be produced with a fixed outlay (total cost). The standard analysis tells us that the point of tangency, T, between CC’ and one of the R curves, is the point of profit maximization. But it is also the point of revenue maximization because it lies on the highest revenue curve attainable with this outlay. This demonstrated our result.



Figure 3

36. A little reflection should now render the result quite plausible. The point is simply that, given the level of costs, since profit equals revenue minus costs, whatever maximizes profits must maximize revenues. Hence, differences between the profit and the sales maximizer’s output composition or resource allocation must be attributed not to a reallocation of a given level of costs (or revenues) but to the larger outputs (and hence total costs and revenues) which, we have seen, are to be expected to accompany sales maximization.

**Схема передаваемой текстом «The firm and its objectives» информации**

| *Названия логических частей* | *Номера абзацев, входящих в логическую часть* | *Избыточная информация* | *Ключевые фрагменты, сведенные в тезисы* | *Названия тезисов* |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 1. Alternati-ve Objectives of the Firm | $$ 1–7 | $ 2 | 1.1. Executives usually agree to every plausible goal about which they are asked. They wish to maximize sales, to minimize profits, to minimize costs, and so on. Unfortunately, it is normally impossible to serve such a multiplicity of goals at once. The firm must settle on one of the objectives or some compromise among them. | 1.1. The impossibility of serving all the plausible goals. |
|  |  |  | 1.2. It is most frequently assumed in economic analysis that the firm is trying to maximize its total profits. However, there is no reason to believe that all businessmen pursue the same objectives. Firms often seek to maximize the money value of their sales (their total revenue). | 1.2. Different objectives of the firm. |
|  |  |  | 1.3. It is not the job of the operations researcher or the economist to tell the businessman what his goals should be. Management’s aims must be taken to be whatever they are, and the job of the analyst is to describe what businessmen do to achieve these goals. The nature of the firm’s objectives cannot be assumed in advance. It is important to determine the nature of the firm’s objectives before proceeding to the formal model-building. | 1.3. The job of the OR analyst |
| 2. The Profit-Maximi-zing Firm | $$ 8–14 | $$ 11–13 | 2.1. No firm can be earning maximum profits unless its marginal coat and its marginal revenue are (at least approximately) equal. | 2.1. The condition of obtaining maximum profits (the theorem). |
|  |  |  | 2.2. We conclude that while at a profit – maximizing output marginal cost must equal marginal revenue, the converse is not correct – it is not true that at an output at which marginal cost equals marginal revenue the firm can be sure of maximizing its profits. | 2.2. The converse. |
| 3. Application: Pricing and Cost Changes | $$ 15–16 |  | 3.1. The analyst can determine not only the optimal output, but also the profit – maximizing price with the aid of the demand curve for the product of the firm.The profit-maximizing firm will make no price or output changes in response to any increase or decrease in its fixed costs. | 3.1. Predictions to be made on the basis of the preceding theorem. |
| 4. Extensi-on: Multiple Products and Inputs. | $$ 17–23 | $$ 21–23 | 4.1. The firm’s output decisions are normally more complicated, even in principle, than the preceding decisions suggest. Almost all companies produce a variety of products and these various commodities typically compete for the firm’s investment funds and its productive capacity. | 4.1. A step from the model to reality. |
|  |  |  | 4.2. Any limited input( including investment funds) should be allocated between the outputs *x* and *y* in such a way that the marginal profit yield of the input, I, in the production of *x* equals the marginal profit yield of the input of *y*. | 4.2. Marginal rule for a profit-maximizing decision taking 2 commodities into account. |
| 5. Price-Output Determination: Sales Maximization | $$ 24–29 | $$ 27–29 | 5.1. There will normally be a well-determined output level which maximizes dollar sales. This level can ordinarily be fixed with the aid of the well-known rule that maximum revenue will be obtained only at an output at which the elasticity of demand is unity, i.e. at which marginal revenue is zero. | 5.1. Output level which maximizes dollar sales. |
| 5.2. If at the revenue-maximizing output the firm does, in fact, earn enough more than enough profits to keep its stockholders satisfied then it will want to produce the sales-maximizing quantity. But if at this output profits are too low, the firm’s output must be changed to a level which, though it fails to maximize sales, does meet the profit requirement. | 5.2. Profit constraint. |
|  |  |  | 5.3. Two types of equilibrium appear to be possible: one in which the profit constraint does not provide an effective barrier to sales maximization, and one in which it does. | 5.3. Two types of equilibrium. |
| 6. Advertising | $$ 30–32 |  | 6.1. Whereas an increase in physical volume produced by a price reduction may or may not increase dollar sales, depending on whether demand is elastic or inelastic, an increase in volume brought about by added advertising outlay must always be accompanied by a proportionate increase in total revenue. | 6.1. Increase in volume brought about by added advertising outlay and increase in total revenue. |
| 6.2. The interrelationship between output and advertising decisions now permits us to see the reason for the earlier assertion that an unconstrained sales-maximizing output (OQs - Figure 2) Will ordinarily not occur. | 6.2. Interrelationship between output and advertising decisions. |
| 7. Choice of input and Output Combinations | $$ 33–36 | $ 35  | 7.1. Given the level of expenditure, the sales-maximizing firm will produce the same quantity of each output, and market it in the same ways as does the profit maximize. Similarly, given the level of total revenues the two types of firm will optimally use the same inputs in identical quantities and will allocate them in exactly the same way. |   |

**ПРИМЕР УЧЕБНОГО РЕФЕРАТА**

**The firm and its objectives**

It is common experience when interviewing executives to find that they will agree to every plausible goal about which they are asked. But it is normally impossible to serve all of such a multiplicity of goals at once. It is most frequently assumed in economic analysis that the firm is trying to maximize its total profits or seeks to maximize the money value of its sales subject to a constant that its profits do not fall short of some minimum level.

To find the optimal outputs it’s necessary to find the amount, at which marginal cost and marginal revenue are equal. The optimality now means the maximization of profits. That is the main theorem. Thus the analyst can determine not only the optimal output, but also the profit –maximizing price.

For a profit –maximizing decision which takes, at least, two commodities into account we have a marginal rule: any limited input should be allocated between the two output “*x”* and “*y*” in the production of “*x*” equals the marginal profit yield of the input in the production of “*y*”.

For sales – maximizing firms the optimal output level can be fixed with the marginal revenue equal to zero. In this case there are two types of equilibrium: one in which the profit constraint does not provide an effective barrier to sales maximization, and one in which it does. Given the level of expenditure, the firms with the different objectives will produce the same quantity of each output, and market it in the same way.

**ПРИМЕР УЧЕБНОЙ АННОТАЦИИ**

**Фирма и ее цели**

В тексте затрагиваются вопросы, связанные с различным поведением фирмы в зависимости от целей ее деятельности. Подробно рассматриваются два типа фирм: максимизирующие прибыль и максимизирующие денежный объем реализацию. Для каждого из этих двух типов фирм анализируются возможности определения оптимального объема выпуска продукции. Внимание уделяется также влиянию на поведение фирмы уровня цен и издержек, а также выделения затрат на рекламу.

Знакомство с затронутыми в тексте проблемами позволит специалисту в области исследования операций избежать ряда серьезных ошибок при анализе поведения фирмы.