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电子商务

英语

English for

吴坚 吴群 吴琼 编著

Electronic Commerce



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21 世纪电子商务与现代物流管理系列教材

电子商务英语

English for Electronic Commerce

吴坚 吴群 吴琼 编著

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内 容 提 要

本书以电子商务和网络技术为背景,精选了15篇英语文章。内容涉及网络的历史、信息技术、网络安全、商务经验、广告和商务计划书等各个领域。本书课文语言具有较强的时代气息,内容具有较强的可读性和实用性。每课内容主要包括:课文、单词、难句分析、技能训练和两种阅读材料。阅读材料其一是对课文的补充,其二是商务或计算机领域词汇的定义或术语。为了方便自学,书后附有参考译文和练习答案。

本书可作为本、专科电子商务专业或其他相关专业的英语教材,也可供自学者使用。

本书配有电子教案,读者可从中国水利水电出版社网站(<http://www.waterpub.com.cn/softdown/>)下载。

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21 世纪电子商务与现代物流管理系列教材

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序

随着经济全球化和我国加入“WTO”、改革开放的进一步深化,商业市场逐步向国际化的方向发展,我国电子商务技术和物流产业也有了迅速的发展,已成为极具活力的产业。由于高新技术和现代管理方法的应用,我国传统的商务、物流活动在管理理念、组织方式、管理制度、业务流程、信息处理手段及作业方式等诸多方面已不能适应现代商务、物流行业发展的需要,由此引发了对电子商务、现代物流等行业专业技术人才和管理人才的竞争。这些人才应具有现代管理思维方式、组织管理方法和现代技术手段。这就对教育部门提出了新的要求:如何培养出适合现代商务、物流等行业急需的专门人才。

本套教材是为了配合培养电子商务、现代物流行业专门人才的需要而组织编写的。现在,有许多高等院校为了适应人才市场的需要,已经或正在准备成立电子商务、物流管理或物流工程专业。为此,我们组织在这方面具有较高教学水平和教学经验的一线教师精心编写了这套教材,为培养电子商务、现代物流行业的专门人才尽一份力量。

本套《21 世纪电子商务与现代物流管理系列教材》具有如下特点:

(1) 面向 21 世纪电子商务与物流人才培养的需求,结合本专业学生的培养特点,针对性强。本套教材的作者都是长期在第一线从事教学的教授、副教授,有的还是硕士生导师、博士生导师,他们都有丰富的教学经验,对学生的基本情况、特点和认知规律等有深入的了解。

(2) 本套教材以基本的理论知识为主,阐述相关的实用技术和方法。在写法上,为了激发学生的兴趣,采用以案例教学的方式,用典型的实例讲解有关的理论与技术的具体操作方法,使学生易于接受。

(3) 每本书的编写注重以“深入浅出”、“言简意明”为原则,论述基本原理与使用方法,以实例分析的形式阐述具体的分析、操作过程,使读者从一般理论知识到实际运用有一个全面的认识。

(4) 书中每章前面有:知识点、难点提要与本站的要求、需要熟练掌握的内容和一般了解的内容;每章结尾有“小结”。为了方便学生自学自查,各章配有较多数量的练习题,习题的形式多种多样,有选择题、判断题、填空题、简答题、论述题和思考题等。

(5) 为了便于多媒体教学, 每本教材都配有电子教案, 教师可以根据授课情况任意修改。教案可以到中国水利水电出版社网站 www.waterpub.com.cn 下载。

总之, 本套教材凝聚了许多一线教师多年的教学经验和智慧, 内容新颖、结构完整、概念清晰、深入浅出、通俗易懂, 可读性、可操作性和实用性强。

本套教材适用于电子商务、物流管理或物流工程专业的本科生, 同时也可供研究生、大专学生选用。

培养适合现代商务、物流行业的应用型人才的教育研究是一项具有深远意义的改革探索课题。我们愿意与从事这方面应用型人才教育的广大教师合作, 为培养高质量的应用型人才共同努力。

在此, 我们向关心、支持以及参与本套丛书的研究、写作和发行的领导、专家和朋友们表示衷心的感谢! 本套教材的不足之处, 恳请专家和读者批评指正。

编委会

2005 年 1 月

前 言

《电子商务英语》是适应高等职业教育本、专科电子商务专业或相关专业的需要而编写的专业英语教材。在编写设计上出于以下考虑:

首先,它是专业英语教材而不是电子商务专业教材,是让学生将英语作为学习电子商务专业知识的工具。因此,该书的课文部分并没有按电子商务系统知识为主线编写,而是选择当前最新的、最具有时代感的、与商务活动和计算机网络相关的经济类和科普类文章为主要学习内容。大多数课文及阅读材料的内容可读性强。

其次,每课中所设计的“常用定义与术语”都是涉及计算机和电子商务活动的常用词汇解释,旨在扩大学生专业英语的词汇量和提高学生阅读专业文章的能力。

第三,考虑到本书的主要对象是大专院校的学生,他们的英语语法知识都已经在中学阶段和大学公共英语课程的学习阶段中掌握,所以,本书不再重新介绍语法知识。个别语法现象在句子分析中解决。

第四,在每一课中都设有“技能训练”一项,旨在帮助学生提高英语应用文写作的能力,以便适应电子商务活动主要依靠书面文字进行沟通的特点。

第五,为了方便学生阅读,也为了提高学生快速阅读与归纳总结的能力,以及英文书面表达的能力,在每课课文及阅读材料的前面都配有该文的摘要和关键词。

最后,为了方便自学者,在书后附有课文、阅读材料和常用定义与术语的中文译文以及练习答案。

本书共设 15 课,建议安排 120 学时。使用者可根据实际情况对课程内容灵活使用,对课时安排予以调整。本书配有电子教案,可供读者参考。

由于编者水平有限,书中错误及不当之处敬请读者批评指正。

编 者

2005 年 5 月

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Lesson One The Ancient History of the Internet

Key point: word-formation in the computer and e-commerce fields

Difficult points: derivation

Requirements:

By the end of this lesson, you should be able to have a good command of

- three methods of word-formation in the computer fields
- e-commerce terms given in the lesson

By the end of this lesson, you should be able to

- know the history of the Internet
- describe your experience of using Google
- give samples of changes in marketing thanks to the Internet

Abstract: The article introduces the history of the Internet which began with a modest analytical system, devised early in World War II, and set the stage for the supportive research environment and the key technical developments that produced today's global network.

Key words: the history of the Internet; the World War II; Pentagon; RAND; Cerf; information superhighway

The Internet seems so information-age, that its devotees might find the circumstances of its birth hard to grasp. More than anything else, the computer network connecting tens of millions of users stands as a modern—albeit unintended—monument to military plans for fighting three wars. Specifically, the Net owes its existence to Allied battle strategies during World War II, to the geopolitical pressures of the Cold War, and to preparations for the post apocalypse of nuclear holocaust (the never-fought “final war” with the Soviet Union).

As with most great advances in the history of ideas, there was no one defining Internet event. It began with a modest analytical system, devised early in World War II, that set the stage for the supportive research environment and the key technical developments that produced today's global network.

The analytical system, called operations research (O.R.), applied scientific modeling principles to military planning. The first O.R. was done for the Allies by military scientists and civilian technologists. These boffins conducted statistical studies of antisubmarine tactics that showed how the Allies could increase the U-boat kill rate by setting the charges to explode at a different depth.

Following the victories in Europe and Japan, American military planners turned attention to their new Cold War adversaries, primarily the Soviet Union but also China (Known then as Red China). The three U.S. military services contracted out O.R. work to universities and nonprofit corporations. This produced, among others, the Center for Naval Analysis, administered by the Franklin Institute, in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania; the Army-backed Operations Research Office, run by Johns Hopkins University in Baltimore, Maryland; and, perhaps the most effective of all, the RAND Corporation, the Air Force's principal advisory organization. The Defense Department created yet another O.R. group, the Advanced Research Projects Agency, and charged it with doling out high-tech research funds.

Among ARPA's first priorities were projects on command, control and communication, known among war planners as C3. The Defense Department wanted to use computers not only in the Pentagon but also in the field. Bulky, balky mainframes of the era were ill suited for the battlefield, so ARPA sought a communications solution. For signals sent from a battlefield terminal to reach a headquarters-based computer, they would have to be translated from wire to radio to satellite and back. Nothing like it had ever been done before. In fact, most computer time-sharing then involved transportation rather than communication: Computer scientists keyed their jobs onto paper tapes or punch cards and then shipped them to the closest computing center.

At the same time, America's command posts were burrowing underground in the name of C3 and "nuclear survivability." NORAD, the air defense headquarters, carved a control center into the side of a Colorado mountain. In Washington, nuclear-war plans called for evacuating the president and key officials to supersecret reinforced shelters in the Catocin Mountains in nearby Maryland, while all 535 members of Congress were supposed to hole up in an elaborate complex under the grounds of the Greenbrier Hotel in White Sulphur Springs, West Virginia. From these subterranean hideouts, federal officials would govern the nation—that is, the parts that survived.

The war-planning needs of the military and the research interests of computer scientists began to converge. The Pentagon asked RAND to analyze how the military could communicate (by voice telephone as well as data hookups) after a nuclear war. The existing phone network seemed far too fragile for such a task.

RAND's solution, developed by Paul Baran on an Air Force contract, was a network that could route around damage and continue to communicate. "In such a system," Baran wrote, "there would be no obvious central command and control point, but all surviving points would be able to re-establish contact in the event of an attack on any one point through 'a redundancy of connectivity.'" The key to creating this survivable grid was what later came to be called packet switching.

Baran, at RAND, did the basic research on packet switching, but many of his reports were classified. Donald Davies of the National Physical Laboratory in Britain independently outlined the same general concept and contributed the word "packet" for the message components. Other researchers also began to focus on the idea of a packet-switching architecture.

It was an idea that appealed to ARPA, particularly its Command and Control Research Office, headed by a computer scientist named J.C.R. Licklider.

As part of its research support, ARPA agreed to fund an experimental computer network. The network, ARPA officials hoped, would demonstrate the feasibility of remote computing from the battlefield as well as test the potential of a post-World War III military communications network. In addition, the network would be enable widely dispersed researchers to share the few supercomputers of the era, so that the Defense Department would not have to buy one for every contractor. In 1968, ARPA solicited bids for an expandable network linking four sites already conducting ARPA research: the University of California campuses at Los Angeles (UCLA) and Santa Barbara (UCSB), the Stanford Research Institute (SRI) in Stanford, California, and the University of Utah (Salt Lake City).

The ARPAnet construction contract was awarded to Bolt Beranek & Newman (BBN), a research firm based in Cambridge, Massachusetts, which had close ties to MIT. BBN shipped the new communications software in August 1969 to UCLA and then to SRI in October. At a November demonstration the two California machines exchanged data. The first long-distance packet-switching network was in operation. By the end of the year, all four nodes were online.

At this point, the striking figure of Vinton Cerf, the computer scientist The New York Times called the father of the Internet, begins to take a leading role in the narrative. Born in 1943 in New Haven, Connecticut, Cerf turned his back on Yale University to do his undergraduate work in mathematics at Stanford University and to get his master's and doctorate in computer science from UCLA. In 1969, Cerf was a graduate student working at UCLA's Network Measurement Center, observing how the new four-node ARPAnet was functioning—and what it would take to make it malfunction.

Soon he was collaborating with Robert Kahn, an MIT math professor on leave to work at BBN. Cerf and Kahn developed a set of software “protocols” to enable different types of computers to exchange packets, despite varying packet sizes and computer clock speeds. The result, TCP/IP was released in 1973 (by which time Cerf was teaching at Stanford). TCP—Transmission Control Protocol—converts messages into packet streams and reassembles them. IP—Internet Protocol—transports the packets across different nodes, even different types of networks. Cerf credits the computer-network communications system we have come to know.

In 1977, having left Stanford for ARPA (then called DARPA, the D for “Defense” added in 1972), Cerf worked on a different sort of interconnectivity. From a van cruising along a San Francisco Bay Area freeway, a computer sent messages that traveled, by packet radio, satellite, and landlines, a total of 94,000 miles (150,400km). “We didn’t lose a bit!” Cerf later recalled. The project demonstrated that computers could communicate to and from the battlefield.

Cerf has suffered severely impaired hearing since birth and has worn a hearing aid since he

was 14. It is serendipitous but fitting, then, that his TCP/IP made possible the textbased Net communications systems so popular today, including electronic mail (e-mail), discussion lists, file indexing and hypertext. E-mail, of course, is the most widely used of the Net services, the most convenient and the most functional.

By the mid-1980s, TCP/IP was linking ARPAnet to other networks, including the NSFnet of the National Science Foundation, another federal agency, and Usenet, a network created by graduate students at the University of North Carolina and Duke University, also in North Carolina. The result was first called ARPA-Internet and then simply the Internet. ARPAnet split in two. With military communications going onto MILNET and the computer researchers finally taking over ARPAnet in name as well as in practice. ARPAnet shut down in 1990, and NSFnet went off-line last April, the most heavily traveled routes of the information superhighway now are in private hands. Nearly all the various networks used the TCP/IP language. "I take great pride in the fact that the Internet has been able to migrate itself on top of every communications capability invented in the past twenty years," Cerf told Computerworld in 1994. "I think that's not a bad achievement."

New Words

information-age	n. 本课中意为“信息技术发展的结果”；名词+age表示活动、动作、结果，或身份、境遇、状态	bit	n. 二进制制，比特
devotee	n. 爱好者	albeit	conj. 尽管；虽然
geopolitical	a. 地缘政治学的	postapocalypse	n. 有重大意义的事件；暴力事件
holocaust	n. 大屠杀	set the stage for	打好基础；为……创造条件
operations research	n. 运筹学；操作研究	boffins	n. (俚) 科技人员
dole out	v. 分发	Pentagon	n. 五角大楼（美国国防部大楼）
balky	a. 顽劣的	mainframes	n. 计算机主机
elaborate complex	n. 综合建筑物	subterranean	a. 地下的；隐蔽的
hideouts	n. 躲藏处	hookup	n. 无线电通讯网
redundancy	n. 多余度	grid	n. 格网
packet switching	n. 封装交换	classified	a. 保密的
feasibility	n. 可行性	turn one's back on	不理睬
malfunction	n. 故障	protocol	n. 协议；规程
		hearing aid	n. 助听器
		serendipitous	a. 善于发现有价值物品的

Sentence Explanations

1. The Internet seems so information-age, that its devotees might find the circumstances of its birth hard to grasp. 因特网似乎与信息时代同出一辙，就连因特网的老手也说不清它是产生的由来。hard to grasp 是宾语 circumstances of its birth 的补足语。这是一个“主语+谓语+

宾语+宾语补足语”句型。

2. “In such a system,” Baran wrote, “there would be no obvious central command and control point, but all surviving points would be able to re-establish contact in the event of an attack on any one point through ‘a redundancy of connectivity.’” 巴兰写到, 在这样一个系统里, “没有明显的指挥中心和控制点, 当任何一个点遭受攻击时, 所有幸存的点就能够通过‘多备份技术’重新建立联系。” in the event of 如果……发生。

Exercises (I)

1. Try to tell of the history of the Internet.
2. Please describe your experience of using Google. (Read the following Reading Materials first.)

Skill Training Word-formation in the E-commerce Fields

在电子商务和计算机领域中, 新的词汇层出不穷, 究其构成规律, 仍不外乎构词法。常见的构词法主要有以下几种:

1. 派生法

英语单词最基本的部分叫做词根。它是单词中不变化的部分, 表达单词的最基本的意义。它的前面和后面都可以接上词头和词尾, 也叫做前缀和后缀。

(1) 前缀通常用来引伸或转变单词的意义。如, 词根 put, 加上不同的前缀就有不同的涵义: input 输入量; output 输出量。如果能够熟练掌握各种前缀的基本涵义, 我们就能大致了解新构成的单词的意义。例如:

前缀	例词
ad- 加添; 到	add 添加; adjoin 接; 贴; addition 加
anti- 反对; 抗	antimagnetic 抗磁的; antifreeze 防冻
auto- 自己; 自(动)	automatic 自动的; autodetector 自动检波器
co- 一起; 共; 和	co-exist 共存; co-operate 合作; cohesion 凝聚
con- 共同; 一起 (在 l 前为 col-; 在 m, b 或 p 前为 com-; 在 r 前为 cor-)	connect 联结; combine 结合; correlative 有相互关系的
hyper- 超越; 超级	hypermedia 超媒体; hypertext 超文本; hyperfine 超精度
inter- 在……间; 相互	interface 接口; 界面; Internet 互联网络; interconnect 互相联络
micro- 微; 小; 百万分之一	microcode 微代码; microprocessor 微处理器
multi- 多	multimedia 多媒体; multiprocessor 多处理器; multiprogram 多程序
over- 超过; 过分	overcharge 过量充电; overload 超载
re- 再次; 重复	recover 再覆盖; reset 再启动 (热启动); recheck 再核对

续表

前缀	例词
super- 超	superclass 超类; superhighway 超级公路; supersonic 超音速的
tele- 远程的	telegram 电报; teletext 图文电视; telemarketing 电话购物
un- 不; 未	unable 不能的; unequal 不相等的; unstable 不稳定的

(2) 后缀通常用来改变一个词的属性, 例如, 动词 develop 发展, 开发。加上形容词后缀-able, 成 developable 可发展的; 加上名词后缀-er, 成 developer 开发者; 加上名词后缀-ment, 成 development 发展, 开发。例如:

后缀	例词
-able 形容词词尾) 能……的	movable 可移动的; programmable 可编程的; scalable 可缩放的
-graph (名词词尾) 表示写、画、记录结果或用具	photograph 照片; spectrograph 分光摄影仪; monograph 专题; 论文
-ity (名词词尾) 表示……的性质、状态; ……性	possibility 可能性; availability 可用性
-meter (名词词尾) ……计量仪器	micrometer 千分尺; telemeter 测距仪; ammeter 安培表
-scope (名词词尾) ……探测仪器	baroscope 验压器; telescope 望远镜; microscope 显微镜

2. 合成法

由两个或两个以上的词组成一个复合词, 其组成的部分之间有时用连词符号“-”连接, 有时连在一起写, 中间不用连词符号。它们可能是由形容词+名词, 形容词+形容词, 名词+形容词, 介词+名词等构成。例如:

keyboard 键盘	fanin 扇入	online 在线
hardware 硬盘	fanout 扇出	pull-down 下拉
software 软盘	login 登录	pull-up 上拉
download 下载	logout 撤消	lead-free 无线的
upload 上载	handshake 握手	jumper-free 无跳线的
point-and-click 点击	user-centric 以用户为中心的	plug-and-play 即插即用
end-user 终端用户	store-and-forward 存储转发	front-user 前端用户

3. 缩合法

两个或两个以上的词通过各自裁减之后拼接成一个新词, 它可能是两个词的前部拼接, 可能是一个词的前部和另一个词的后部拼接, 也可以将一个词的前部与另一个词拼接, 以及其他部分的拼接。这样产生的新词往往兼有所参与组合的各个词的涵义。在计算机领域中很多新词是通过这种方法诞生的。如:

新词	参与组合的词
e-commerce 电子商务	electric (电子) 和 commerce (商务) 的缩合
e-cash 电子货币	electric (电子) 和 cash (货币) 的缩合
ResEdit 资源编辑器	Resource (资源) 和 Editor (编辑) 的缩合
Compuser 计算机用户	computer (计算机) 和 user (用户) 的缩合
Codec 编码译码器	coder (编码器) 和 decoder (译码器) 的缩合
Fortran (一种高级计算机语言的名称)	formula (公式) 和 translation (翻译) 这两个词的缩合
d-base 数据库	data (数据) 和 base (基地) 的缩合

4. 缩写法

将较长的英文单词取其个别几个字母构成一个缩写词。缩写的规则不尽相同,可能取部首几个字母,可能取首尾两个字母,也可能按音节缩略等。缩略词的形成是约定俗成的,有的时候同一个词有若干个缩写词,也有时候一个缩写词可能有好几个不同的解释。这要靠上下文来确定意义。例如:

info = information 信息	ofc = office 办公室	ID = Identification 身份证
lab = laboratory 实验室	wk = week 星期	Fax = facsimile 传真
math = mathematics 数学	bldg = building 楼	ad = advertisement 广告

还有一种情况是将一组词缩写,取每个词的第一个字母或部首几个字母重新组合,成为一个新词。例如:

缩写词	缩写词英文原意
IC 集成电路卡	integrated circuit card
DES 数据加密标准	data encryption standard
PKI 公钥基础设施	public key infrastructure
PC 个人计算机	personal computer
www 全球网	world wide web
BBS 公告栏系统	Bulletin board system
UPS 不间断电源	uninterruptible power supply
asap 尽可能快地	as soon as possible
SVGA 超视频图形显示阵列	super video graphics array

在电子商务活动中缩写词是常见的,如: DSA=digital signature algorithm; DSS= digital signature standard; DES=data encryption standard; D-HTML=dynamic HTML; EDI=electronic data interchange; EDIFACT=electronic data interchange for administrators, commerce and transport; ECC=elliptic curve cryptography; IMAP=Internet message access protocol; OCR=optical character recognition; PKCS=public-key cryptography standard; VPN=virtual private network 等。