高等服装专业教材

服装英语

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内容提

本书课文选自英、美等国出版的服装书籍,内容包括服装材料、功能,设计师任务,服装样板,生产加工,服装性能,服装卫生保养,消费者需求以及销售和广告等。英语专业词类覆盖面广,内容丰富,可读性强。通过本书学习,可以掌握有关服装设计、生产和营销的专业英语。本书可作为高等院校服装设计、工程、营销专业的英语教材,也可供广大服装工作者和业余爱好者阅读。

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为了尽快提高服装专业师生和广大服装工作者阅读服装英语文献、书刊的能力,以利于汲取国外先进经验,促进我国服装业尽快与国际接轨,我们从原版书籍中选编了这本专业英语教材,全书内容包括服装用纤维、织物、辅料,服装目的和功能,服装设计师的任务、工作范围和素质要求,服装设计、生产与加工,零售店与营销技能,服装卫生和保养等。书末附有设计师和国际流行影响年表及原文词汇释义供读者参考。书中专业词汇覆盖面广,文字规范,所选文章具多种风格,有利于训练读者对不同文体的适应能力。内容丰富生动,观点新颖,不仅能使读者掌握更广更地道的专业用语,而且可以学习到更多更新的有关时装设计、生产和营销的新观念,以开拓读者的视野,提高读者对学习专业英语的兴趣和动力。

全书共十三章,可作为服装设计、服装工程和服装贸易专业的英语教材。按教学计划这门 课的总学时约 90 学时,其中的学时分配:讲课 80 学时,课堂练习 4 学时,考试 6 学时。讲课学 时分配建议如下: Chapter 1 Materials for Clothing 4 学时: Chapter 2 Why Wear Clothing? 6 学时; Chapter 3 What Does a Designer Do? 8 学时; Chapter 4 Women's and Men's Wear 8 学时; Chapter 5 General Care and Hygiene of Clothing 4学时; Chapter 6 Concepts of Performance 6 学时; Chapter 7 The Apparel Manufacturer 8 学时; Chapter 8 Support 6 学时; Chapter 9 Materials Pattern Making 4学时; Chapter 10 Making and Applying Collars 8 学时; Chapter 11 Consumer Demand 6 学时; Chapter 12 Retail Stores 6 学 时:Chapter 13 Retail Fashion Promotion 6 学时。

本课程的教学目的和任务是训练学生阅读服装专业英语书刊的能力,努力提高学生听说和书写专业短文的能力,让学生掌握尽可能多的专业用语,正确理解原文,译文达意,既要有较高的准确度,又要有一定的速度,基本要求 1500 印刷符号/小时,准确率达 70% 为合格。为便于读者阅读和理解,每章末附有生词和难句注释。经我们几年的教学实践发现,书中的课文引起了学生的兴趣,收到了很好的教学效果。参加本书选编工作的有北京服装学院服装系昌逸华、易曙晖、王越平、张辉和曲军峰,全书由昌逸华统编和审定

本书除了供高等院校服装设计和服装工程专业作教材用书,也适于服装营销、贸易专业和广大服装工作者和业余爱好者阅读。

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编者

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前言版

在全国教育事业迅速发展的形势下,为了适应教育体制和教学改革的需要,中国纺织出版社组织有关专家对原中国纺织总会教育部组织编写的高等服装专业教材进行了修订。该套教材自 20 世纪 90 年代问世以来,受到了服装专业广大师生的好评,在广大社会读者中产生了深远的影响,对培养服装专业高等人才起到了积极的作用。但随着教育改革的逐步深入,服装工业新技术、新设备、新工艺、新材料的不断应用,各类新标准的实施,高等服装专业教材的内容已显得陈旧,亟须更新。为了满足教学的需要,我们组织专家对教材进行了修改补充,力争使教材的内容新、知识涵盖面宽,有利于学生专业能力的培养。

这套教材包括:《服装设计学》、《服装色彩学》、《服装材料学》、《服装工艺学》(结构设计分册)(成衣工艺分册)、《服饰图案设计》、《服装机械原理》、《服装生产管理与质量控制》、《服装市场营销学》、《服装心理学》、《服装英语》、《服装专业日语》等12本。希望本套教材修改后能受到广大读者的欢迎,教材中的不足之处恳请读者批评指正。

陪者

2000年

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Materials for Clothing

服装材料

FIBRES

All textile fibres are complex long-chain polymers. The difference between them is in the chemical nature of the polymer and in the physical structure. A number of fibres are made of the same polymer, cellulose, but while they are similar in many ways, there are also considerable differences caused by the way in which the chemical cellulose is physically arranged to produce the fibre. [1] Examples are cotton, linen, viscose and modal.

The terms "natural", "regenerated" and "synthetic" fibres, the last two being grouped together as man-made, refer to the origin of the polymer. Natural fibres are obtained directly from a plant or animal and, apart from cleaning processes, are used largely as they occur naturally. Regenerated fibres are those made from a natural polymer, almost invariably cellulose, which has either been regenerated in a fibre form (as in viscose from woodpulp) or has been subjected to some chemical modification and then spun in fibre form (as in acetate and triacetate). [2] Synthetic fibres are made by industrial processes from polymers which have been built up from simple chemicals; these chemicals, almost invariably, come from oil.

NATURAL FIBRES

In general, natural fibres score on aesthetics, are variable in performance and are tending to become higher in price. Some are very expensive. Regenerated fibres have a poor aesthetic image and poor performance but are cheap. Synthetic fibres have good performance and are relatively cheap, despite the vagaries of the oil market, but are not good aesthetically.

The most important natural fibre is cotton which accounts for about 50 percent of world fibre usage, although in western Europe and the USA it has been overtaken by polyester. Although growing is limited to frost-free areas, cotton is widely produced all over the world and owes part of its popularity to the fact that the seed from which the cotton fibres are detached in processing is a valuable source of oil and protein, both of which can be used as a foodstuff. Cotton has a good aesthetic image and is believed to be comfortable to wear (related to its ability to absorb moisture); but it has several performance drawbacks, notably the need for ironing unless it is resin treated, and its high flammability. [3] Although the cheapest of the natural fibres, the price movement is upwards as land values and labour costs rise

even in under developed countries. It is now more expensive than polyester.

Linen is another natural fibre based on cellulose, although very different aesthetically from cotton. It is much more expensive to produce than cotton and does not perform as well, but the linen appearance which can be copied by using regenerated fibres, and the handle produced by certain finishing processes, still give it an aesthetic appeal.

There are a large number of other natural fibres derived from cellulose, such as hemp, manilla and jute, but none of these has significant use in clothing. Although they are cheap, the handle is generally too harsh and unattractive for clothing; they are more suited to their use in ropes, carpets etc.

After cotton, the next significant natural fibre is wool. It has a high aesthetic image, although only in Western Europe, Japan and parts of the USA. Customers overestimate the performance qualities of wool, although for certain types of outer wear it is the most acceptable fibre. It is becoming increasingly expensive, however, partly through economic manipulations of the market since production is virtually static.

There are several other natural fibres derived from animal hair, the most important being mohair, alpaca, cashmere and llama. All have high aesthetic appeal, particularly in the upper end of the market, and are used either as substitutes for, or in blends with wool. World production is limited, although there is no problem concerning animal rights since the animals do not need to be killed in order to obtain the fibre. This is not the case with the vicuna goat for here, although the yield is a highly prized fibre, the animal does generally die. While the price is high, fibre sometimes becomes available more cheaply when, for example, an underdeveloped country wishes to obtain foreign currency and releases relatively large quantities on to the market. This occasionally happens with cashmere.

Another fibre which is generally expensive but sometimes dumped on the world market is silk. Despite this its high aesthetic value remains undiminished. It does, however, have considerable drawbacks in terms of creasing particularly when wet. For this reason, even when the price is relatively low and the market expands, there is soon customer reaction against the use of silk in, for example, blouses and shirts.

REGENERATED FIBRES

The first man-made fibres were regenerated but their popularity has gradually recoded. The main regenerated fibre is viscose (the former name rayon is not permissible). Its performance is markedly inferior to cotton, particularly in wet strength, although it is cheaper. Its former market, such as linings, has gradually been lost but it is still popular for certain print fabrics for blouses and dresses, as well as in household textiles. It is always cheaper than cotton, although where demand for cotton greatly exceeded supply it might manage price comparability.

A better fibre than viscose in performance terms but closely related to it is modal. This is stronger than viscose and much nearer cotton in performance although, of course, it cannot be used under that name. Its price is generally between that of cotton and viscose.

Two other regenerated fibres are made by chemically modifying cellulose: acetate and triacetate. Both are cheap and both have been promoted with a fashion image. Acetate was used extensively for cheap linings but is now largely superseded. Performance is markedly inferior to polyester and nylon and the price difference is not now very great. The main attraction is aesthetic. Acetate was formerly known as artificial silk but that term is now illegal. It has some of the characteristics of that natural fibre and is capable of giving bright coloured prints.

SYNTHETIC FIBRES

By far the most important man-made fibre, and second only to cotton in total world usage, is polyester. It has a high standard of performance, except in terms of moisture absorption, but its aesthetic image has suffered with the change in the social climate towards natural fibres. It is, however, cheaper than all the natural fibres, and although it is subject to oil price changes and, therefore, like all fibres subject to opportunistic pricing by the market, it is likely to retain its popularity.

For clothing, nylon (generally now known as polyamide) has yielded the lead to polyester. The reasons for this are partly aesthetic, i. e. the association of nylon with the warp knitted fabrics of 20 years ago but also include important technological differences in processing and in ability to blend with other fibres. Two varieties of nylon are generally used, known as 66 and 6, but from a consumer performance viewpoint these are indistinguishable. Commercial production now is geared more towards 6 because production is cheaper. The performance of nylon is at least comparable with that of polyester.

Acrylic fibre retains a significant market share as an alternative to wool, particularly in knitwear. It can be extremely price competitive with wool and it does have the advantage over the natural fibre that it is machine washable. This advantage has been partly eliminated by the machine washable finishes now available for wool, but the price difference remains. Essentially, the decision is based on price versus aesthetics.

Some use has been made commercially of polyethylene and polypropylene fibres, particularly the latter, but they both suffer the grave disadvantage that they melt at temperatures not much greater than 100°C. This is below the normal cool setting on a domestic iron. The low price and relatively good properties, although suffering from the usual poor aesthetics of synthetics, have not been sufficient to overcome the problem of melting.

The other synthetic fibre of note is a very specialised one—elastane. This is now almost universally used as a substitute for rubber, and because it does not have the same deterioration characteristics has enabled a wide variety of stretch garments to be produced. Although expensive, it is used in small quantities within the material and therefore can give marketing advantages of stretch for a relatively low price increase.

FILAMENT AND STAPLE

Fibres may be available in two forms; filament or staple. The natural fibres, with the exception of silk, are all in staple form, whereas man-made fibres can, in theory, be produced in both. In practice,

market considerations now mean that viscose is available generally only in staple form, with acetate and triacetate in filament. Acrylic is invariably staple but polyester and nylon are available in both.

BLENDS

The balance of aesthetics, performance and price in the choice of fibres has inevitably led to the production of blends. The objective is to achieve an optimum level at which the factors are balanced but the decision is often weighted by the relative importance of one factor. [4]

Many of the present blends include polyester which gives a performance level with relatively low cost. It is allied to wool and cotton for aesthetic reasons. Some blends are designed to impart a specific property like the addition of elastane for stretch. The difficulty is determining the exact percentage of each fibre to incorporate in the blend. If the percentage is too low-generally less than 10 percent except in the case of elastane, the property of the fibre would hardly be significant; although even here the psychological effect may be desirable, such as incorporating a low percentage of cashmere in a blend of wool.

It is important in evaluating a blend to decide the objective of that blend, for example the use of polyester with cotton. In the early days of this development the blends most favoured were 65 percent or 67 percent polyester, depending on the fibre producer, but the main aim of both was to achieve a dominant position for polyester in the blend, so maximising the use of the product and achieving optimum performance levels. The move towards natural fibres generated increased use of a 50 percent polyester blend. This did not alter the performance significantly although it did increase the price, but it was certainly more acceptable to cotton producers.

The continuation of this trend has led to the so-called cotton rich blends where the percentage of cotton at 55 percent or 60 percent is greater than that of polyester, thus allowing the name of cotton to feature first on the label under the Fibre Labelling Regulations. These Regulations do affect what can be done since they require the dominant fibre in a blend to be listed first, thus giving it the maximum marketing impact.

Blends may, therefore, have a variety of origins: lower price, as in the incorporation of viscose and to some extent polyester; enhanced performance, as in the incorporation of polyester and nylon; and improved aesthetics, as in the incorporation of wool or silk. Blends with a wide variety of fibres may simply result from the price advantage of re-using fibres reclaimed from scrap garments, as in the cheap woollen type fabrics often used in skirtings.

YARNS

Staple fibres generally require conversion into yarns as the first stage in the production of fabric. The traditional names "woollen" and "worsted" refer to spinning systems used to deal with wool and are not, although they are often used as such, substitutes for the name wool. The woollen system gives

high bulk yarns with relatively lower strength and the worsted system high twist yarns with relatively higher strength. In fact, synthetic fibres may be processed on both these systems, as indeed they may be on the system originally designed for cotton.

The growth in the use of man-made fibres has caused many modifications in the traditional spinning systems to enable them to operate more efficiently with synthetic fibres. The general characteristics of the cotton system and the woollen and worsted systems remain, but they are overlaid by the fibres or blends used on them. The requirements of a yarn with sufficient strength and aesthetic characteristics, such as bulk, are constantly weighed against the need to simplify the spinning process in order to reduce costs. Silk, although a filament fibre, can be spun using the Schappe system to give the equivalent of a staple yarn, but the process is relatively little used for fabric production.

Filament yarn can be used with little modification to produce fabric, but while its characteristic of flat, shiny, low bulk is aesthetically acceptable for silk and lining materials generally, it is not considered aesthetically correct or desirable for many other types of apparel. Filament yarn users were therefore concerned to develop yarn which had bulk characteristics similar to those of staple fibre yarns. This was achieved through a variety of textured yarn processing systems, by far the most popular of which is the false twist method developed originally for nylon but used extensively on polyester. Recently another system, using air jets, has become popular for modifying filament nylon.

Although these textured processes do markedly change the aesthetic characteristics of flat filament yarn, the result is distinguishable from the conventional spun staple fibre. For example, 100 percent polyester false twist textured is vastly different from 100 percent polyester filament and very different again from 100 percent polyester spun on the cotton system. The advantage, however, is that textured yarns are considerably cheaper than staple spun yarns as the process is far quicker. This has led to the continued popularity of 100 percent textured polyester.

In addition to the standard type of yarn a large range of novelty or fancy effect yarns is possible, such as boucle. These novelty yarns may combine two, three or more different yarns and are aimed solely at aesthetic effect. The problem is that the more work done in the production of a yarn, be it simply increasing twist or introducing variety, the higher the price. Twofold or even threefold yarns improve aesthetics and sometimes performance, but cost considerably more than a single yarn because of the extra twisting and processing involved. This also applies to novelty yarns and considerably reduces their usage except in occasional fashion outbursts.

FABRICS

The principal methods of converting yarn to fabric remain weaving and the two basic forms of knitting-warp and west. Warp knitting became very important in the 1960s because it represented the fastest means of converting yarn to fabric. Unfortunately the machinery was limited in that it could only use flat filament yarn, and although attempts have been made to modify warp knitting machines to

incorporate staple fibre yarns these have generally not been commercially successful. The result, for aesthetic reasons, has been a decline in the popularity of warp knitting.

Weft knitting, however, has remained popular both for garment sections made to require minimum make-up, and as fabric used on a cut and sew basis. The large market generated in the 1960s and early 1970s for weft-knitted fabric based on textured polyester has greatly declined, but other forms of knitted goods continue in popularity. In performance terms the main difference is in the stretch capability. A weft-knitted fabric has, in general, considerably more stretch than a woven one, with warp-knitting coming in between. Different structures can cause variations on this but the general principle remains. Weft-knitting remains a faster process than weaving but looms have, with the replacement of the old shuttle, increased in productivity in the last 20 years so weaving is now reasonably competitive with knitting. [5]

There remains the aesthetic evaluation by the customer of woven as opposed to knitted fabric and, except in knitwear, this has tended to favour wovens once the large price disadvantage was removed.

In performance terms, the density of yarn usage and the type of weave or knit structure considerably influence performance, not only in terms of stretch.

The main competitor to weaving and knitting in fabric production has been the rise of the so-called "non-wovens". The name generally applies to those fabrics where the conversion is direct from fibre to fabric, without the usual stages of yarn production. In practice the first stage of yarn production is followed with the manufacture of a web of fibres, and these are bonded together (hence the name bonded fibre fabrics) by a variety of mechanical and chemical means. The result is an extremely cheap form of fabric production but with significant aesthetic, in terms of customer perception and performance drawbacks.

The aesthetics vary depending on the bonding method used but generally nonwovens are stiffer and less flexible and drape less well than the traditional woven or knitted structure. They have virtually no stretch and, generally, poor durability. Where price is a prime consideration, as in disposable garments, non-wovens have a ready market, but the move back towards the traditional textile image has lessened their impact on clothing which in the late 1960s and early 1970s appeared to be becoming significant.

While there are clear differences in general terms between weven, knitted and non-wovens, these difference can be offset as far as costs are concerned by the variety of structure and the density of yarns used. A closely woven or knitted structure made from fine yarns may be considerably more expensive than a heavier loosely woven or knitted structure made from bulky yarns, despite the fact that the latter will have considerably more fibre. The added value of the processing in yarn and fabric production will more than have offset the cost of the fibre involved.

SUMMARY

A knowledge of the classification of textile fibres is the first step in the study of textile.

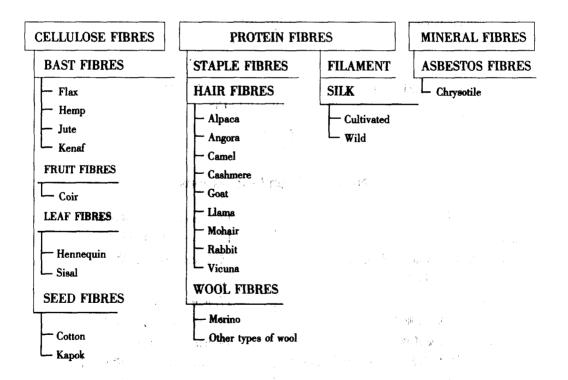
Blends of various fibres will probably increase in importance because the blending of proper amounts of certain fibres will give the consumer a fabric that should serve his or her purpose better than one fibre alone.

The type of yarns used has an effect on the fabric's texture, hand, warmth, weight, resiliency, durability and luster.

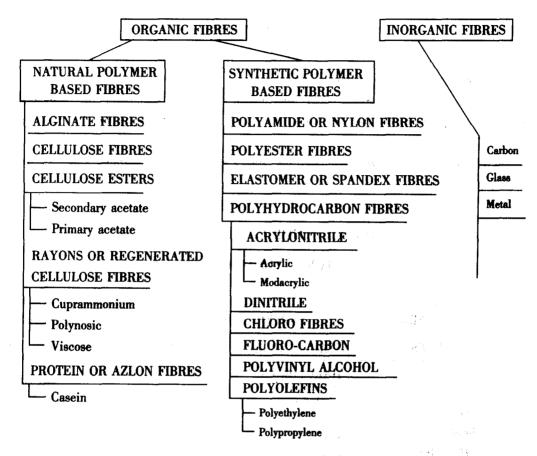
Specification for a particular yarn are determined by the fabric's end use.

TEXTILE FIBRE CLASSIFICATION

NATURAL TEXTILE FIBRES



MAN-MADE TEXTILE FIBRES



New Words and Expressions

- 2. textile 纺织
 3. long-chain polymer 长链高聚物
 4. cellulose 纤维素
 5. cotton 棉
 6. linen 亚麻布,亚麻
 7. viscose 粘胶纤维
 8. modal 莫代尔纤维(高强和高温模量
- 8. modal 莫代尔纤维 (高强和高温模量 纤维素纤维)
- 9. regenerated 再生的

纤维

10. synthetic 合成

1. fibre

- 11. woodpulp 木梨
- 12. acetate 醋酯纤维

- 13. triacetate 三醋酯纤维
- 14. score 得分, 打记号
- 15. aesthetics 美学
- 16. hemp 大麻
- 17. jute 黄麻
- 18. manilla 马尼拉麻
- 19. handle 手感
- 20. manipulation 操纵,控制
- 21. mohair 马海毛
- 22. alpaca 阿尔帕卡(羊轮)
- 23. llama 美洲鸵
- 24. vicuna 骆马毛
- 25. crease 起敏

- 26. blouse 女衬衣
- 27. shirt (男式)衬衫
- 28. lining 里子,里料
- 29. polyester 涤纶
- 30. nylon 尼龙
- 31. indistinguishable 不可区分的
- 32. machine washable 可机洗
- 33. asbestos fibre 石棉纤维
- 34. alginate fibre 藻酸纤维
- 35. cuprammonium fibre 铜氨纤维
- 36. polynosic 波里诺西克,富强纤维
- 37. azlon fibre 人造蛋白纤维
- 38. casein 酪蛋白纤维
- 39. polyamide fibre 聚酰胺纤维
- 40. elastomer or spandex fibre 弹性纤维
- 41. acrylic fibre 腈纶
- 42. polypropylene 丙纶
- 43. polyethylene 聚乙烯纤维
- 44. filament 长丝
- 45. staple 短纤维
- 46. blend 混纺
- 47. cashmere 山羊銭
- 48. woolen 粗纺
- 50. worsted 精纺
- 51. textured yarn 变形纱
- 52. schappe system 绢纺系统
- 53. false twist 假捻
- 54. fancy varn 花式纱

- 55. boucle 结子线
- 56. twofold 双股
- 57. fabric 织物
- 58. warp knitting 经编
- 59. weft knitting 纬编
- 60. loom 织机
- 61. knitwear 针织衣
- 62. non-woven 非织造布
- 63. striation 沟纹,条花
- 64. crisp 挺夷手感
- 65. bleaching 漂白
- 66. wrinkle recovery 折皱回复性
- 67. drape 悬垂性
- 68. clammy 清腻的
- 69. smoulder 发烟燃烧
- 70. kenaf 卡纳夫纤维
- 71. coir 椰壳纤维
- 72. sisal 西沙尔麻
- 73. kapok 木棉
- 74. cultivated silk 家蚕丝
- 75. organic fibre 有机纤维
- 76. inorganic fibre 无机纤维
- 77. modacrylic fibre 变性腈纶
- 78. dinitrile 聚偏氯乙烯纤维
- 79. chloro fibre 点绘
- 80. fluoro-carbon fibre 碳氟纤维
- 81. polyvinyl alcohol fibre 聚乙烯醇纤维,维纶
- 82. polyolefin 聚烯烃纤维

Notes

[1] A number of fibres are made of the same polymer, cellulose, but while they are similar in many ways, there are also considerable differences caused by the way in which the chemical cellulose is physically arranged to produce the fibre.

许多纤维是由相同的高聚物如纤维素制成,在很多方面有其相似性,但由于物理结构不同, 它们的差异仍然很大。

[2] Regenerated fibres are those made from a natural polymer, almost invariably cellulose, which has either been regenerated in a fiber form (as in viscose from wood pulp) or has been subjected to