



面向“十二五”高等教育课程改革项目研究成果

# ENGLISH FOR ACCOUNTING

# 会计英语

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## 前 言

近年来,随着我国社会主义市场经济的建立与发展,中国与世界各国的交往日益频繁。为了与国际接轨,我国的财税、会计体制也进行了重大变革,这一新形势对会计英语教学提出了更高的要求。目前,培养新世纪的合格会计人员已成为当务之急。为此,我们总结了自己多年来从事会计英语的教学经验,编写了这本《会计英语》。本书的特点是:

(1) 各单元的独立性和全书的系统性相结合。全书共分十六单元,每单元集中介绍一种记账方法,并自成体系,可以单独讲授;各单元中都有实例说明,各单元所研究的会计方法构成一个完整的会计循环,全书是一个有机整体。

(2) 理论和实践相结合。为了保证学生通过本书的学习,不仅能够阅读会计单据,了解会计业务,而且还能够达到用英语记账的水平,本书在每单元后都有要求用英语处理的问题和练习。

(3) 课文简明通俗。通过编者的努力,全书专业术语压缩到 300 个左右。这些专业术语在课文中反复出现,在各课的练习中要求学生在反复练习。这种编写方法,便于学生对专业术语的记忆和运用,激发学生学习的兴趣,提高学生的熟练程度,避免“消化不良”。

(4) 全书还编有课外阅读。这是配合课文而编写的,为的是让学生更加熟悉西方会计专业术语和记账方法。

(5) 本书的特色表明它不同于现有的同类教材,比较适合高等院校及在职人员在校学习,也可用于财经院校、综合性大学在职继续教育和自学参考,还可供研究人员和实际工作者学习之用。但要学好本书,需要掌握以下几点:①本书的学习者应具备《会计学基础》和《财务会计》基础知识。②每单元后均汇总了本单元的双语专业词汇表,学习每单元前,先看该表必定会大大提高学习效率。学习每单元后,适当做些辅助练习。③会计英语就在你身边,在日常学习、工作中尽量多用会计英语。

本书在编写过程中,得到了翁志强教授和张宝荣教授的大力支持,在此谨致谢意。由于水平所限,不当之处在所难免,恳请批评指正。

编 者

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# Unit One

## The Purpose and Nature of Accounting

### Learning Objectives :

*To understand what accounting is.*

*To understand the main fields where accountants are engaged in.*

*To understand the role of accounting.*

*To understand the accounting process.*

Accounting has often been called “the language of business.” People in the business world — owners, managers, bankers, stockbrokers, attorneys, engineers, investors — use accounting terms and concepts to describe the events that make up the day-to-day existence of every business, large or small.

The underlying purpose of accounting is to provide financial information about an economic entity. In this book the economic entity which we shall be concentrating upon is a business enterprise. The financial information provided by an accounting system is needed by managerial decision makers to help them plan and control the activities of the economic entity. Financial information is also needed by outsiders — owners, creditors, investors, the government, and the public — who have supplied money to the business or who have some other interest that will be served by information about its financial position and operating results.

How do business executives know whether a company is earning profits or incurring losses? How do they know whether the company is solvent or insolvent, and whether it will probably be solvent, say, a month from today? The answer to both questions in one word is accounting. Accounting is the process by which the profitability and solvency of a company can be measured, and it also provides information needed as a basis for making business decisions that will enable management to guide the company on a profitable and solvent course.

Stated simply, managing a business is a matter of deciding what should be done, seeing to it that the means are available, and getting people employed in the business to do it. At every step in this process management is faced with alternatives, and every decision to do something or to refrain from doing something involves a choice. Successful managers must make the right choice when “the chips are down.” In most cases the profitability that a good decision will make depends on the amount and validity of the information that the manager has about the alternatives and their



consequences. It is seldom that all the information needed is either available or obtainable. Often a crystal ball in good working order would be helpful. As a practical matter, however, information which flows from the accounting records, and which can be developed by special analysis of accounting data constitutes the basis on which a wide variety of business decisions should be made.

For specific examples of these decisions, consider the following questions. What price should a firm set on its products? If production is increased, what effect will this have on the cost of each unit produced? Will it be necessary to borrow from the bank? How much will costs increase if a pension plan is established for employees? Is it more profitable to produce and sell product A or product B? Shall a given part be made or be bought from suppliers? Should an investment be made in new equipment? All these issues call for decisions that should depend, in part at least, upon accounting information. It might be reasonable to turn the question around and ask: What business decisions could be intelligently made without the use of accounting information? Examples would be hard to find.

We have already stressed that accounting is a means of measuring the results of business transactions and of communicating financial information. In addition, the accounting system must provide the decision-maker with predictive information for making important business decisions in a changing world.

## Special Terms:

- |   |            |
|---|------------|
| 1. accounting [ə'kauntɪŋ] <i>n.</i>           | 会计学, 会计    |
| 2. owner ['əʊnə] <i>n.</i>                    | 业主, 所有人    |
| 3. manager ['mænɪdʒə] <i>n.</i>               | 经理         |
| 4. manage ['mænɪdʒ] <i>v.</i>                 | 经营, 管理     |
| 5. banker ['bæŋkə] <i>n.</i>                  | 银行家        |
| 6. stockbroker ['stɒk,broʊkə] <i>n.</i>       | 股票经纪人      |
| 7. attorney [ə'tə:ni] <i>n.</i>               | 代理人, 被委托人  |
| 8. investor [ɪn'vestə] <i>n.</i>              | 投资人        |
| 9. business ['biznis] <i>n.</i>               | 商业, 工商业    |
|   | 企业, 经营, 营业 |
| 10. control [kən'trəʊl] <i>v. n.</i>          | 控制, 管理     |
| 11. creditor ['kredɪtə] <i>n.</i>             | 债权人        |
| 12. executive [ɪg'zekjʊtɪv] <i>n.</i>         | 高级管理人员     |
| 13. firm [fə:m] <i>n.</i>                     | 商号, 公司     |
| 14. earn [ə:n] <i>v.</i>                      | 挣得, 赚得     |
| 15. profit ['prɒfɪt] <i>n.</i>                | 利润         |
| 16. profitable ['prɒfɪtəbl] <i>adj.</i>       | 有利可赚的      |
| 17. profitability [,prɒfɪtə'bɪlɪti] <i>n.</i> | 获利能力       |
| 18. loss [lɒs] <i>n.</i>                      | 亏损, 损失     |



19. solvent ['sɒlvənt] <i>adj.</i>	有偿付能力的
20. insolvent [in'sɒlvənt] <i>adj.</i>	无偿付能力的
21. employee [ˌemplɔɪ'i:] <i>n.</i>	雇员
22. produce [prə'dju:s] <i>v.</i>	生产
23. price [praɪs] <i>n.</i>	价格
24. production [prə'dʌkʃən] <i>n.</i>	生产
25. cost [kɒst] <i>n.</i>	成本
26. pension ['penʃən] <i>n.</i>	退休金
27. measure ['meʒə] <i>v.</i>	考核, 衡量
28. equipment [i'kwɪpmənt] <i>n.</i>	设备
29. accounting system	会计系统
30. accounting record ['rekɔ:d]	会计记录
31. accounting data ['deɪtə]	会计数据
32. business enterprise [ˌentəpraɪz]	商业企业
33. managerial [ˌmænə'dʒɪəriəl] decision maker	经营决策人
34. financial [faɪ'nænʃəl] position	财务状况
35. operating result	经营效果
36. chips and down	情况危机

### Exercise One

#### Review Questions:

1. What is the purpose of accounting?
2. Who need financial information? Why?
3. What is accounting?
4. What is the managers' job?
5. A good decision will make profitability, what does it depend on?

## Reading Comprehension:

### Passage

### Introduction to Accounting

#### 1. Accounting: an Information System

#### Basic Function of an Accounting System

In developing information about the activities of a business, every accounting system performs the following basic functions:

- (1) Interpret and record the effects of business transactions.
- (2) Classify the effects of similar transactions in a manner that permits determination of the various totals and subtotals useful to management and used in accounting reports.
- (3) Summarize and communicate the information contained in the system to decision makers.

Accounting system is designed to provide information that managers and outsiders can use in decision making. They also serve other purposes: to produce operating documents, to protect the



company's assets, to provide data for company tax returns, and, in some cases, to provide the basis for reimbursement of costs by clients or customers. The accounting organization also must prepare documents that serve what might be called private information purpose, such as the employees' own records of their salaries and wages. Many of these documents aim to serve other accounting purpose, but they would have to be prepared even if no information reports were necessary. Measured by the number of people involved and the amount of time required, document preparation is one of accounting's biggest jobs.

Accounting is a system of gathering, summarizing, and communicating financial information for a business firm, government, or other organization. Accounting, also called accountancy, enables decision makers to interpret financial information and use results in planning for the future. For example, such data tell executives which products or departments are doing well and which poorly.

### **Accounting: The basis for Decision Making**

Accounting is the basis for decision making. Its purpose is to provide useful information to a variety of users so they can make informed decisions.

Accounting and accounting information are used more than commonly realized. The following sections discuss the range of people and group who use accounting information and decisions they make.

## **2. The Role of Accounting**

It has been said that accounting is the language of business. Every part of business is affected by accounting. Management of a business depends on financial information in making sound operational decisions. Stockholders must have financial information in order to measure management's performance and to evaluate their own holdings. Potential investors need financial data in order to compare prospective investments. Creditors must consider the financial strength of a business before permitting it to borrow funds. Also, many laws require that extensive financial information be reported to the various governmental agencies at least annually.

### **Decision Makers Who Use Accounting Information.**

Decision makers need information. The more important the decision is, the greater the need is. All businesses and most individuals keep accounting records to aid in making decisions. If managers in a business designed a slogan to expand the company, the result might be the company's income statement. Let's look at some decision makers who use accounting information as follows.

#### **Individuals:**

Individuals often keep accounting records to aid decision-making. People often use accounting information to manage their bank accounts, to evaluate job prospects, and to decide whether to rent an apartment or buy a house.

#### **Business:**

Managers of businesses use accounting information to set goals, to evaluate progress toward those goals, and to take corrective actions if necessary. Decision based on accounting information may include where to locate a store, how many goods to keep on hand, and how much cash to borrow.



### **Investors and Creditors:**

Investors and creditors provide the money a business needs to get started. When a company opened its first store, the company had no track record. To decide whether to help start a new venture, potential investors evaluate what income they can expect on their investment. This means analyzing the financial statements of the business. Before deciding to invest in a company, for example, they may examine the company's financial statements. Before making a loan to the company, banks evaluate the company's ability to meet scheduled payments.

### **Government Regulatory Agencies:**

Most organizations face government regulation. For example, the Securities and Exchange Commission (SEC), a federal agency, requires businesses to report certain financial information to the investing public. The other companies publish annual reports.

### **Taxing Authorities:**

Local, state, and federal governments levy taxes on individuals and businesses. A company pays property tax on its assets and income tax on its profits. The company also collects sales tax from customers and forwards the money to the government. Individuals pay income tax on their earnings. All of these taxes are based on accounting data.

### **Nonprofit Organization:**

Nonprofit organizations — such as churches, hospitals, and government agencies, which operate for purposes other than profit — use accounting information as profit-oriented business. Both profit-driven organizations and nonprofit organizations deal with payroll, rent payment, and the like information from the accounting system.

### **Other Users:**

Employees and labor unions demand wages that come from the employer's reported income. And newspapers report "improved profit pictures" of companies. Such news, which depends on accounting, reports information that affects our standard of living.

### **Accounting and Bookkeeping:**

Persons with little knowledge of accounting may fail to understand the difference between accounting and bookkeeping. Bookkeeping means the recording of transactions, the record-making phase of accounting. The recording tends to be mechanical and repetitive; it is only a small part of the field of accounting and probably the simplest part. At the computer times, people are using computers to do detailed bookkeeping.

However, accounting includes not only the maintenance of accounting records, but also the design of efficient accounting systems, the performance of audits, the development of forecasts, the planning of income tax, and the interpretation of accounting information. Because the work of interpreting accounting information is such an important part of the accountant's function, accounting has usually been described as an art. A person might become a reasonably proficient bookkeeper in a few weeks or months, however, to be a qualified professional accountant or a certified accountant requires several years of study and experience.





### 3. The Accounting Process

Accounting is the process of analyzing, recording, classifying, summarizing, reporting and interpreting. These six major phases of accounting process are described below.

**Analyzing** is the first phase of accounting process. The accountant must look at a transaction or event and determine its importance to the business.

**Recording** these transactions is the second phase. Traditionally this meant writing something by hand. Even today, much of the record keeping in accounting is done manually. However, some major changes in the business world have been caused by introduction of computers. Even though the method of entering or recording accounting information has changed, the concept behind the process has not.

**Classifying**, phase three of the process, relates to the grouping of like transactions together rather than keeping a narrative record of many transactions. Like items are grouped in separate accounts.

**Summarizing** is the process of bringing together various items of information to determine or explain a result.

**Reporting** involves communicating results. In accounting it is common to use tables of numbers rather than narrative-type reports. Sometimes, however, a combination of tables and narratives is used.

**Interpreting** the reported results is the final phase of the process. At this time, attention is directed to the significance of various matters and relationships. Percentage analyses and ratios are often used to help explain the difference among accounting periods. Footnotes and special captions also may be valuable in the interpreting phase of accounting.

#### Words and Expressions:

1. accounting <i>n.</i>	会计, 会计学
2. enterprise <i>n.</i>	企业
3. business <i>n.</i>	商业, 企业
4. bookkeeping <i>n.</i>	簿记
5. transaction <i>n.</i>	交易, 经济业务
6. investor <i>n.</i>	投资者
7. creditor <i>n.</i>	债权人
8. interpret <i>v.</i>	解释

#### Review and Discussion Questions:

1. What is the meaning of the term "accounting system"?
2. What is the purpose of an accounting system and what is its basic function?
3. Who is responsible for designing and implementing an accounting system?
4. What does an accounting process include?

# Unit Two

## The Generally Accepted Accounting Principles

### Learning Objectives :

*To explain the meaning of generally accepted principles.*

*To explain the basic accounting assumptions.*

*To apply generally accepted accounting principles.*

The generally accepted accounting principles may be described as board rules adopted by the accounting profession as guides in measuring, recording and reporting the financial affairs and activities of a business. They consist of a number of concepts, principles and assumptions. The following are the main ones.

#### 1. Separate Entity Concept

“Separate Entity Concept” is applied to all organization forms of business concerns: single proprietorship, partnership and corporation. A business owned by one person is called a single proprietorship. Single proprietorship is the most numerous of all business concerns. The owner is personally responsible for the debts. As a result, if the assets of such a business are not sufficient to pay its debts, the personal assets may be taken to satisfy them. When a concern is owned by two or more people, it is called partnership. The owner (known as partners) may distribute the income of the concern according to the ratio of their investment amount or ratio specifically agreed. Nevertheless, a partner is personally responsible for all the debts of the partnership, both his (her) own share and shares of other partners who are unable to pay. Limited partnership is a form of business where part of the partners bear limited responsibility; while the other part bear unlimited responsibility who manage the concern and are responsible for all the debts if it isn't able to pay off.

The capital of corporation is divided into shares with equal amount, the evidence of which is stock and buyers (owners) of which are stockholders (shareholders). Unlike the owners of single proprietorship or partnership, the owners of a corporation (stockholders) are not responsible for the corporation's debts if it is unable to pay them. Under separate entity concept, for accounting purpose, all kinds of business concerns are conceived and treated as a separate entity, separate and distinct from its owners or owners from other concerns. Either the transactions or the assets of a concern should not include those of the owner or owners. As for the transactions between the concern and the owners in accounting procedures, they should be treated as those with other concerns. As a result, all



the accounting records and reports should be made by a concern as an independent entity rather than by owners personally. From this point of view, the separate entity is also called “accounting entity.”

## **2. Cost Principle**

Under cost principle all goods and services purchased are recorded at cost and appear on the statements at costs. If several years later the market price has risen, the assets should continue to appear on the balance sheet at the cost value. This makes no difference.

Costs are cash or cash equivalent basis at the entire cash outlay made to secure the assets or service. The Objectivity Principle and Continuing Concern Concept discussed below will further reinforce the argument in this area.

## **3. Objectivity Principle**

The objectivity principle supplies the reason that transactions are recorded at cost, since it requires that transaction amounts be objectively established. All accounting information must be based on objective data. As a rule, costs are objective, since they normally are established by buyers and sellers, each striking the best possible bargain for themselves. Objectivity principle and cost principle are mutually supported.

## **4. Continuing Concern Concept**

A balance sheet is prepared under the assumption that the concern for which the statement is made will continue in operation, so for a going concern the assets used in carrying on its operations are not for sale. Their current market values are not relevant and need not be shown. Also, without a sale, their current market values usually can not be objectively established as is required by “objectivity principle.”

However, if a concern is about to be sold or liquidated, the continuing concern concept and the cost and objectivity principle do not apply in the statements. In such cases, amounts other than costs, such as estimated market price, become more useful and informative.

## **5. Stable-Money-Unit Concept**

All transactions are measured, recorded and reported in terms of a money unit. Every country has its own money unit. In the USA, the dollar has been treated as a stable unit of measure, like gallon, a mile or a meter. However, the dollar, like many other currencies, is not stable in its value. When the general price level, for instance, doubled, the value of money 50% declined. Nevertheless, all the assets (liabilities) continue to remain at the cost value when acquired. For example, assume a company purchased a piece of land ten years ago for \$10,000 and sold it today for \$20,000. If during this period the purchasing power of the dollar declined 50%, it can be said that the company is no better off from this bargain, because the \$20,000 will buy no more goods and services today than the \$10,000 ten years ago. Yet the accounting reports show a \$10,000 gain from the purchase and sale.

The instability of the dollar or many other currencies as a unit of measure is recognized. Techniques have been devised to convert the historical dollar of statement amounts into dollar of current purchasing power. Such statement is called price-level-adjusted statement.

## **6. Time-Period Concept**

The life of a business often spans many years and its activities go on without interruption over



the years. However, taxes based on annual income must be paid to governmental units, and the owners and managers of a business must have a periodic report on its financial progress. Consequently, a time-period concept is required in accounting. This concept results in division of the life of a business into time periods of equal length, called accounting periods. Annual accounting periods, periods of one year in length, are the normal.

## Special Terms:

1. assumption [ə'sʌmpʃən] <i>n.</i>	假设
2. concern [kən'sə:n] <i>n.</i>	公司, 企业
3. proprietorship [prə'praɪətəʃɪp] <i>n.</i>	业主
4. partnership ['pɑ:tənʃɪp] <i>n.</i>	合伙
5. partner ['pɑ:tən] <i>n.</i>	合伙人
6. corporation [kɔ:pə'reɪʃən] <i>n.</i>	公司
7. equivalent [i'kwɪvələnt] <i>adj.</i>	相当于
8. reinforce [ri:'ɪn'fɔ:s] <i>v.</i>	加强
9. bargain [bə'ɡɪn] <i>n.</i>	成交条件, 交易
10. transaction [træn'zækʃən] <i>n.</i>	交易
11. establish [ɪs'tæblɪʃ] <i>v.</i>	建立
12. strike [straɪk] <i>v.</i>	成交, 定约
13. estimate ['estɪmeɪt] <i>v.</i>	估计
14. informative [ɪn'fɔ:mətɪv] <i>adj.</i>	提供资料的, 增加知识的
15. currency ['kʌrənsɪ] <i>n.</i>	货币
16. technique [tek'ni:k] <i>n.</i>	技巧, 方法
17. device [dɪ'vaɪs] <i>n.</i>	设计
18. convert [kən'veɪt] <i>v.</i>	换算
19. interruption [ɪntə'rʌpʃən] <i>n.</i>	中断
20. length [lenθ] <i>n.</i>	长度
21. normal ['nɔ:məl] <i>adj.</i>	通常的
22. price-level-adjusted statement	物价水平调整表
23. generally accepted accounting principle ['prɪnsəpl]	公认的会计原则
24. separate entity ['entɪtɪ] concept ['kɒnsɛpt]	独立实体概念
25. limited responsibility [rɪ'spɒnsə'bɪlɪtɪ]	有限责任
26. cost principle	成本原则
27. objectivity [ˌɒbdʒek'tɪvəti] principle	客观原则
28. continuing concern concept	继续经营概念
29. stable ['steɪbl] -money-unit concept	稳定的货币单位概念
30. time-period ['piəriəd] concept	期间概念



## Exercise Two

### Review Questions:

1. What is "Separate Entity Concept"?
2. What kinds of the business concerns are there?
3. What is "Cost Principle"?
4. What is "Objectivity Principle"?
5. What is "Continuing Concern Concept"?
6. What is "Stable-Money-Unit Concept"?
7. What is "Time-period Concept"?

## Reading Comprehension:

### Passage

### Accounting Profession

#### 1. Introduction of Accounting

Accounting is a process of recording, classifying, summarizing, and interpreting of those business activities that can be expressed in monetary terms. A person who specializes in this field is known as an accountant.

Accounting frequently offers the qualified person an opportunity to move ahead quickly in today's business world. Indeed, many of the heads of large corporations throughout the world have advanced to their positions from the accounting department. Accounting is a basic and vital element in every modern business. It records the past growth or decline of the business. Careful analysis of these results and trends may suggest the ways in which the business may grow in the future. Expansion or reorganization should not be planned without the proper analysis of the accounting information; and new products and the campaign to advertise and sell them should not be launched without the help of accounting expertise.

Accounting is one of the fastest growing professions in the modern business world. Every new store, school, restaurant, or filling station — indeed, any new enterprise of any kind — increases the demand for accountants. Consequently, the demand for competent accountants is generally much greater than the supply. Government officials often have a legal background; similarly, the men or women in management often have a background on accounting. They are usually familiar with the methodology of finance and the fundamentals of fiscal and business administration.

#### 2. Distinction Between Bookkeeping and Accounting

Earlier accounting procedures were simple in comparison with modern methods. The simple bookkeeping procedures of a hundred years ago have been replaced in many cases by the data-processing computer. The control of the fiscal affairs of an organization must be as scientific as possible in order to be effective.

In the past, a bookkeeper kept the books of accounts for an organization; the present-day accountants' job developed from the bookkeeper's job. Today, a sharp distinction is made between the relatively unchanged work performed by a bookkeeper and the more sophisticated duties of the accountants. The bookkeeper simply enters data in financial record books; the accountant must





understand the entire system of records so that he or she can analyze and interpret business transactions. To explain the difference briefly, the accountant sets up a bookkeeping system and interprets the data in it, whereas the bookkeeper performs the routine work of recording figures in books. Because interpretation of the figures is such an important part of the accountant's function, accounting has often been described as an art.

### 3. Divisions of Accounting

The field of accounting is divided into three broad divisions: public, private, and governmental. A certified public accountant or a CPA, as the term is usually abbreviated, must pass a series of examinations, after which he or she receives a certificate. In the United States, the certification examinations are prepared and administered by the American Institute of Certified Public Accountants. The various states or other major governmental jurisdictions set additional qualifications for residence, experience, and so on. The British equivalent for a CPA is called a chartered accountant.

CPAs can offer their services to the public on an individual consultant basis for which they receive a fee. In this respect and many others, they are similar to doctors or lawyers. Like them, CPAs may be self-employed or partners in a firm; or they may be employed by an accounting firm.

Many accountants work in government offices or for nonprofit organizations. These two areas are often joined together under the term governmental and institutional accounting. The two are similar because of legal restrictions in the way in which they receive and spend funds. Therefore, a legal background is sometimes necessary for this type of accounting practice.

All branches of governments employ accountants. In addition, government-owned corporations have accountants on their staff. All of these accountants, like those in private industry, work on a salary basis. They tend to become specialists in limited fields like transportation or public utilities.

Nonprofit organizations are, of course, in business for some purpose other than making money. They include cultural organizations like symphony orchestras or opera societies, charitable organizations, religious groups, or corporate-owned research organizations. Although they are limited in the manner in which they can raise and spend their funds, they usually benefit from special provisions in the tax laws.

Private accountants, also called executive or administrative accountants, handle the financial records of a business. Like those who work for the government or nonprofit organizations, they are salaried rather than paid a fee. Those who work for manufacturing concerns are sometimes called industrial accountants. Some large corporations employ hundreds of employees in their accounting offices.

The chief accounting officer of a company is the controller, or comptroller, as he or she is sometimes called. Controllers are responsible for maintaining the records of the company's operations. On the basis of the data that have been recorded, they measure the company's performance; they interpret the results of the operations; and they plan and recommend future actions. This position is very close to the top of management. Indeed, a controller is often just a step away from being the executive officer of a corporation.



Many people have chosen accounting as a profession because of its many advantages. Many jobs are usually available, primarily because the education and training for the accounting career have not kept pace with the demand for accounting services. Once on the job, private or governmental accountants have security, and they are usually given the chance to move upward in the company — sometimes, as we have noted, to the top. Salaries for people with accounting training are usually good, even on the lower levels, and for those who rise to the top of the profession, they are correspondingly high. Certified public accountants now enjoy professional status similar to that of doctors or lawyers.

### Words and Expressions:

- |   |                     |
|---|---------------------|
| 1. accounting <i>n.</i>                     | 会计 (核算), 会计学        |
| 2. record <i>v.</i>                         | 记载, 记录, 登记          |
| 3. classify <i>v.</i>                       | 分类, 归类              |
| 4. summarize <i>v.</i>                      | 概括, 总结, 汇总          |
| 5. campaign <i>n.</i>                       | 战役, 活动, 运动          |
| 6. launch <i>v.</i>                         | 发动, 开展              |
| 7. filling station                          | (美) 汽车加油站           |
| 8. competent <i>adj.</i>                    | 有能力的                |
| 9. methodology <i>n.</i>                    | 方法                  |
| 10. fiscal <i>adj.</i>                      | 财政的, 财务的            |
| 11. bookkeeping <i>n.</i>                   | 簿记, 簿记学             |
| 12. transaction <i>adj.</i>                 | 交易, 事务, 经济业务        |
| 13. data processing                         | 资料加工, 数据处理          |
| 14. enter <i>v.</i>                         | 记入, 过账, 登记          |
| 15. equivalent <i>n.</i>                    | 相等物, 等量             |
| 16. abbreviate <i>v.</i>                    | 缩写                  |
| 17. jurisdiction <i>n.</i>                  | 管辖权, 管辖区域           |
| 18. chartered accountant                    | 公证会计师, 执业会计师 (英国)   |
| 19. partner <i>n.</i>                       | 合伙人                 |
| 20. nonprofit organization                  | 非营利性组织              |
| 21. government and institutional accounting | 政府和事业单位会计           |
| 22. sophisticated <i>adj.</i>               | 复杂的, 深奥的            |
| 23. public utilities                        | 公共事业                |
| 24. charitable organization                 | 慈善组织                |
| 25. executive <i>adj.</i>                   | 执行的, 行政的            |
| 26. manufacturing concern                   | 制造行业, 生产性企业         |
| 27. maintain <i>v.</i>                      | 保持                  |
| 28. keep pace with                          | 跟上, 适应              |
| 29. correspondingly <i>adv.</i>             | 相应地                 |
| 30. professional status                     | 职业 (专业) 工作者的身份 (地位) |



31. books of accounts

账簿, 账本

**Review and Discussion Questions:**

1. What does accounting frequently offer the qualified persons?
2. Why is accounting one of the fastest growing fields in the modern business world?
3. How does the job of a bookkeeper differ from that of an accountant?
4. What are the three broad divisions in the field of accounting?
5. In what respect is a CPA similar to a doctor or a lawyer?