



新基点(New Benchmark) 全国高职高专院校商务英语系列规划教材

NEW BENCHMARK

会计英语

(第三版)

Accounting English

(Third Edition)

房玉靖 主编



对外经济贸易大学出版社
University of International Business and Economics Press



新基点 (New Benchmark) 全国高职高专院校商务英语系列规划教材

NEW BENCHMARK

会计英语 (第三版)

Accounting English (Third Edition)

主 编 房玉靖

副主编 张 怡

参 编 王晓红 杨文侠 孙 明

对外经济贸易大学出版社

中国·北京

图书在版编目 (CIP) 数据

会计英语 / 房玉靖主编. —3 版. —北京: 对外经济贸易大学出版社, 2020.6

新基点全国高职高专院校商务英语系列规划教材
ISBN 978-7-5663-2144-2

I. ①会… II. ①房… III. ①会计-英语-高等职业教育-教材 IV. ①F23

中国版本图书馆 CIP 数据核字 (2020) 第 054467 号

会计英语 (第三版) **Accounting English (Third Edition)**

房玉靖 主编
责任编辑: 董 黛

出版发行: 对外经济贸易大学出版社
社 址: 北京市朝阳区惠新东街 10 号
网 址: www.uibep.com
资源网址: www.uibepresources.com

邮政编码: 100029
邮购电话: 010-64492338
发行部电话: 010-64492342
E-mail: uibep@126.com

成品尺寸: 185mm×260mm
印 张: 14.25
字 数: 329 千字
ISBN 978-7-5663-2144-2

印 刷: 三河市少明印务有限公司
版 次: 2020 年 6 月北京第 3 版
印 次: 2020 年 6 月第 1 次印刷
定 价: 49.00 元

出版说明

“新基点 (New Benchmark) 全国高职高专院校商务英语系列规划教材”是对外经济贸易大学出版社联合全国重点职业学院的骨干教师推出的一套全新的商务英语系列教材。本套教材适用于全国高职高专院校英语专业商务/应用/外贸英语方向以及财经类专业的学生。

目前高职教育提出了“工学结合，项目为中心，案例驱动教学，边讲边练”为核心理念。本套教材就是贯彻这个理念，着眼于提高学生实际操作能力和就业能力，采取模块化、多案例、互动式、重实训的编写方式，让学生在理论够用的基础上，在实训环节上有所突破。

根据国家教育指导思想，目前我国高职高专教育的培养目标是以能力培养和技术应用为本位，其基础理论教学以应用为目的、够用为尺度、就业为导向；教材强调应用性和适用性，符合高职高专教育的特点，既能满足学科教育又能满足职业资格教育“双证书（毕业证和技术等级证）”教学的需要。本套教材编写始终贯彻商务英语教学的基本思路：将英语听说读写译技能与商务知识有机融合，使学生在提高英语语言技能的同时了解有关商务知识，造就学生“两条腿走路”的本领，培养以商务知识为底蕴、语言技能为依托的新时代复合型、实用型人才。

本套教材包括《商务英语综合教程》(1-4 册)、《商务英语听说》(1-2 册)、《商务英语口语》(1-2 册)、《国际商务报刊选读》《商务英语写作》《商务英语翻译》《国际商务函电》《国际商务谈判》《国际商务制单》《商务礼仪》《英语应用文》《跨文化交际》《英美概况》《旅游英语》《酒店英语》《物流英语》《财经英语》和《国际商务英语模拟实训教程》等。本套教材不是封闭的，而是随着教学模式、课程设置和课时的变化不断推出新的内容。

本套教材的作者不仅具有丰富的商务英语教学经验，而且具有本专业中级以上职称、企业第一线工作经历，主持或参与过多项应用技术研究，这是本套教材编写质量的重要保证。

此外，本套教材配有教师用书或课件等立体化教学资源，供教师教学参考。

对外经济贸易大学出版社

2020 年 1 月

第三版前言

随着经济全球化程度的日益加深，我国企业与国际市场的接触越来越频繁，同时会计市场开放，大量的外国企业、会计公司涌入我国，许多国内公司也走出国门，因此需要大批具有国际社会文化知识、懂外语、熟悉国际会计和商业惯例并能将其融会贯通的复合型人才。

企业经营者和职工文化素质的提高，直接影响着会计工作的社会地位和会计作用的发挥。目前社会对会计人员的要求越来越高，会计人员必须既是一名高水准的会计师，又是一名出色的计算机操作员。此外，会计人员还必须懂外语，熟悉国际会计、商务惯例，具有较广博的国际社会文化背景知识。而随着我国经济的发展，自 2007 年国家陆续颁布实施了一系列新的会计准则。基于此，我们组织相关人员对《会计英语》一书进行了再次修订。除与时俱进地对原教材内容加以更新，并涵盖了国际会计与审计基本知识外，也对课后练习的内容进行了调整与丰富。每个章节之后增加了课外阅读内容，拓展了知识学习的深度和广度，引导学习者在学会基本会计知识、拓宽英语词汇构成的基础上，进一步提升英语综合运用能力。本书的课文译文请到 <http://www.uibepresources.com> 下载使用。

本教材的突出特点是：

体系完整，结构合理，系统性强；

通俗易懂，深入浅出，适用面广；

内容充实，习题丰富，难易适中；

案例具体，解释详细，思路清晰。

本书由房玉靖担任主编，张怡任副主编，王晓红、杨文侠、孙明参与了编写工作。教材的编写得到了对外经济贸易大学出版社的鼎力支持和帮助，在此致谢。

编者

2020 年 5 月

再版前言

随着经济全球化程度的日益加深，我国企业与国际市场的接触越来越频繁，同时会计市场开放，大量的外国企业、会计公司涌入我国，许多国内公司也走出国门，因此需要大批具有国际社会文化知识、懂外语、熟悉国际会计和商业惯例并能将其融会贯通的复合型人才。

企业经营者和职工文化素质的提高，直接影响着会计工作的社会地位和会计作用的发挥。目前社会对会计人员的要求越来越高，会计人员必须既是一名高水准的会计师，又是一名出色的计算机操作员。此外，会计人员还必须懂外语，熟悉国际会计、商务惯例，具有较广博的国际社会文化背景知识。而随着我国经济的发展，国家陆续颁布实施了一系列新的会计法规、政策，为了适应这些变化和实际工作的需要，我们组织相关人员对《会计英语》一书进行了修订，对教材中的练习进行了更新，并在书后附录中增加了练习题的参考答案及课文译文，更加方便学生的学习和领会。本教材的突出特点是：

1. 体系完整，结构合理，系统性强；
2. 通俗易懂，深入浅出，适用面广；
3. 内容充实，习题丰富，难易适中；
4. 案例具体，解释详细，思路清晰。

本书由房玉靖担任主编，张怡任副主编，王晓红、杨文侠、孙明参与了编写工作。教材的编写得到了对外经济贸易大学出版社的鼎力支持和帮助，胡小平老师在整个编写过程中一直予以关心和指导，在此致谢。

编者

2015年3月

前 言

随着经济全球化程度的日益加深，我国企业与国际市场的接触越来越频繁，会计市场开放，大量的外国企业、会计公司涌入我国，许多国内公司也走出国门，因此需要大批具有国际社会文化知识、懂外语、熟悉国际会计和商业惯例并能将其融会贯通的复合型人才。

企业经营者和职工文化素质的提高，直接影响着会计工作的社会地位和会计作用的发挥。目前社会对会计人员的要求越来越高，会计人员必须既是一名高水准的会计师，又是一名出色的计算机操作员。此外，会计人员还必须懂外语，熟悉国际会计、商务惯例，具有较广博的国际社会文化背景知识。因此改革会计尤其是会计英语的教学方法，调整教育内容，开阔学生的知识面，提高学生的创新能力、职业判断能力和解决实际问题的能力，加快复合型会计人才的培养，已成为正规院校会计教育的当务之急；同时必须有计划、有步骤、有针对性地加强对在职会计人员的后续教育，不断更新知识，以适应日新月异的客观环境的需要。

在长期的专业英语教学实践中，笔者感到一本适合高职高专学生水平的教材的重要性，因此，结合多年的教学经验参考丰富的专业资料，根据高职高专的教学要求及岗位需求，编写了本教材。本教材的突出特点是：

1. 体系完整，结构合理，系统性强；
2. 通俗易懂，深入浅出，适用面广；
3. 内容充实，习题丰富，难易适中；
4. 案例具体，解释详细，思路清晰。

此外，本教材还提供了非常丰富的案例分析讲解，并且根据不同的单元内容配备了大量的针对性实训练习。除了适合高职院校会计专业的学生学习外，还适合有初步会计基础的社会人才进行自学，是自我提升的很好途径。

本书由房玉靖担任主编，张怡任副主编，王晓红、王君妍、杨文侠、李平参与了编写工作。教材的编写得到了对外经济贸易大学出版社的鼎力支持和帮助，胡小平老师在整个编写过程中一直予以关心和指导，在此致谢。

编 者
2009年9月

CONTENTS

Unit One	Introduction to Accounting	1
Unit Two	Accounting Elements, Accounting Equation and Double Entry	15
Unit Three	Accounting Cycle (I)	29
Unit Four	Accounting Cycle (II)	39
Unit Five	Assets	47
Unit Six	Cash	57
Unit Seven	Accounts Receivable	67
Unit Eight	Inventories	81
Unit Nine	Depreciation	93
Unit Ten	Liabilities	103
Unit Eleven	Owners' Equity	115
Unit Twelve	Revenue, Expense and Profit	125
Unit Thirteen	Journals	135
Unit Fourteen	Ledgers	149
Unit Fifteen	Balance Sheet	159
Unit Sixteen	Income Statement	167
Unit Seventeen	Statement of Cash Flows	177
Unit Eighteen	Financial Statements Analysis	187
Appendix I	Useful Terms and Expressions	197
Appendix II	Key to the Exercises	207
Bibliography	212

Unit One

Introduction to Accounting

Learning Objectives

After learning this unit, you will be able to:

1. describe the information system of accounting;
2. describe the division of accounting;
3. state the accounting equation;
4. understand accounting assumption;
5. describe professional ethics in accounting.

Warming-up

What is accounting? Is accounting important to you? Yes, accounting is important in your personal life as well as your career, even though you may not become an accountant.

Text

Introduction to Accounting

1.1 Accounting: An Information System

Accounting is an information system necessitated by the great complexity of modern business.

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 systems are 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 purposes, such as the employees' own records of their salaries and wages. Many of these documents aim to serve other accounting purposes, 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 business firms, governments, or other organizations. 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.

1.2 Divisions of Accounting

The field of accounting is divided into three broad divisions: public, governmental, and private.

1.2.1 Public Accounting

Public accounting is the field of accounting that provides a variety of accounting services to clients for a fee. A professional accountant who works in a public accounting firm usually is a Certified Public Accountant (CPA). The British equivalent for a CPA is CA, representing chartered accountants.

The scope of services offered by public accounting firms is expanding in the information age. Auditing, which is a typical type of assurance services, is one of the main functions of a CPA firm. Among audit services, the most common is the financial statement audit. Other types of audit services include operational audits and compliance audits. Tax preparation and planning is another function of a public accountant. Because tax factors are important to most major financial decisions, CPAs are often asked for advice about the possible tax consequences of a particular decision. Also, CPAs often are asked to prepare income tax returns. Management advisory services are among the fastest growing practice areas in accounting firms. In addition, many firms are expanding the traditional bounds of services to include such areas as organization design, information processing, employee benefits, and human resource management.

1.2.2 Governmental Accounting

The management of governmental affairs requires the use of accounting for record keeping, planning, and controlling operations. 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 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 staffs. 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, charitable organizations, religious groups and etc. 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.

1.2.3 Private Accounting

Private accountants, also called management accountants, work for a single business and are responsible for collecting, processing, and reporting financial information. Private accountants are employed in a variety of capacities. For example, the chief accounting officer for a private enterprise typically is known as the controller, and the head financial officer is often called the treasurer. Others working in accounting departments perform such tasks as determining the cost of items produced by the enterprise, budgeting, internal auditing, taxation, and financial reporting. 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 accountant.

Accounting specialists are highly regarded. Their professional standing often is denoted by a certificate. Certified public accountants must meet education and experience requirements, pass an examination, and exhibit ethical character. Many accounting specialists hold certificates in addition to or instead of the CPA. Two of the most common certificates are the Certified Management Accountant (CMA) and the Certified Internal Auditor (CIA). Employers also look for specialists with designations such as Certified Bookkeeper (CB), Certified Payroll Professional (CPP), and Personal Financial Specialist (PFS).

1.3 Accounting Equation

There are six elements in accounting: assets, liabilities, owner's equity, revenue, expense and profit. There exist well-organized quantitative relations among the six accounting elements.

Taking industrial enterprises as an example, with the progressing of manufacturing and operation, purchases, input, output and sale are alternating all the time. The form and amount of accounting elements are also changing without stop. However, the equation between the total amount of assets and source amount owned by an enterprise won't be changed. The total amount of assets will always be equal to the claim rights of these assets by creditors and owner's equity. Accounting equation accounts for the common quantitative relation among accounting elements:

$$\text{Assets} = \text{Liabilities} + \text{Owner's Equity}$$

The above equation shows the quantitative relation among the three accounting elements: assets, liabilities and equity, which is the fundamental account equation. The following one shows the quantitative relation among the three accounting elements: revenue, expense, and profit.

$$\text{Revenue} - \text{Expense} = \text{Profit}$$

The balance of profit distribution after tax is accumulated in "retained earnings accounts" which is an item in owner's equity. Therefore, the two equations above can be consolidated as:

$$\text{Assets} = \text{Liabilities} + \text{Owner's Equity} + (\text{Revenue} - \text{Expense})$$

Or: $\text{Assets} = \text{Liabilities} + \text{Owner's Equity} + \text{Profit}$

At the end of an accounting year, the balance of profit distribution after tax is transferred into "retained earnings" through accounting calculation. The equation restores to:

$$\text{Assets} = \text{Liabilities} + \text{Owner's Equity}$$

Accounting equation is the basis for double entry rule. The set of accounting items and the establishment of accounts, the record of business, the preparation of report and the calculation of all economic index are all based on accounting equation.

1.4 Accounting Assumption

Accounting assumption is the basic foundation upon which our generally accepted accounting rests. Five basic assumptions significantly affect the recording, measuring, and reporting of accounting information. They include separate entity, going concern, accounting-period, monetary unit, and the accrual basis of accounting.

1.4.1 Separate Entity Assumption

Separate entity assumption means that the enterprise can be accounted for and reported independent of its owners and other stakeholders. Under the separate entity assumption, all accounting records and reports are developed from the viewpoint of a single entity, whether it is a proprietorship, a partnership, or a corporation. The assumption is that an individual transactions are distinguishable from those of the business he or she might own. For example, the personal residence of a business owner is not considered an asset of the business even

though the residence and the business are owned by the same person. Under the assumption, accounting deals with specific, identifiable business entities, each considered and accounting unit separate and apart from its owners and from other entities. For each accounting entity a self-contained, double-entry accounting system is employed. Transactions between accounting entities are recorded in the accounts of both entities. For example, the same transaction may be recorded as a sale by one accounting entity and as a purchase by another. Similarly, one accounting entity may record a transaction as an investment, whilst the other accounting entity may record it as a capital contribution.

In any particular case the identification of the accounting entity may be difficult. Consider, for example, the case of a large chain of retail stores. Is the accounting entity the whole business, a regional operation, a single store or a single department in that store? The answer can be found only by looking at the organization of the business. If a department has its own accounting system and records transactions with other departments, then it is an entity for accounting purposes. If it has no such records, then it is not an accounting entity. The accounting entity is, therefore, identified as the smallest unit of activity with a self-contained accounting system.

1.4.2 Going Concern Assumption

The going concern assumption is also known as the continuity assumption. Under the going concern assumption, the business entity is expected not to liquidate but to continue operations for the foreseeable future. That is, it will stay in business for a period of time sufficient to carry out contemplated operations, contracts, and commitments. Note that this is not an assumption of perpetual life, but rather that the business will continue in operation long enough to recover or use up its assets and repay its outstanding liabilities. The assumption does not refer simply to its continued existence, it also assumes that it will continue in the same lines of business as those in which it is currently involved.

The assumption of continuity is made in the absence of evidence to the contrary. In other words, when it is clear that an assumption of continued existence would result in misleading financial reports, then the assumption is not made. A major problem facing the accounting profession is identifying the circumstances under which the continuity assumption should be abandoned. Sometimes company failures occur with the accounting reports continuing to be based upon the going concern assumption. These accounting reports are subsequently criticized as misleading. And premature abandonment of the continuity assumption by accountants may cause liquidation if it results in demands by creditors for repayment of amounts outstanding. Authoritative guidelines are needed in this area if continuity is to remain a basic assumption of contemporary accounting.

1.4.3 Accounting-Period Assumption

This assumption is also known as the time-period assumption. It is contemporary accounting practice to measure the result of an entity's operation over a relatively short period and to present a balance sheet at frequent interval.

The economic activity of a business is continuous. All transactions are recorded in the accounts and change the picture of the firm, as revealed in financial statements. The firm changes continuously as it carries out its operations. Changes cease only when the firm ceases operations. The operating results of any business enterprise cannot be known with certainty until the company has completed its life span and ceased doing business. In the meantime, external decision-makers require timely accounting information to satisfy their analytical records. To meet their needs, the accounting-period assumption requires that changes in a business's financial position be reported over a series of shorter time periods. Although the reporting period varies, one year is the standard. Some companies use a calendar year, and others use a fiscal year-end that coincides with the low point in business activity over a 12-month period. In addition, companies also report financial information on an interim basis, usually quarterly for public reporting or monthly for internal purposes.

The accounting-period assumption does, however, lead to difficulties. First, it should be realized that the shorter the reporting period, the greater the need for estimates and judgment. Over a short period, fewer transactions will be completed and there will be more accruals and deferrals than for longer period. Incorporating accruals and deferrals into the accounts increases the subjectivity of the financial statements. In addition, financial reports for short periods may provide misleading impressions of the long-run prospects for the firm. A balance sheet represents a "snap-shot" of the entity's financial position at an instant of time. Immediately before and after the date of the balance sheet, the financial position is different. By the time the balance sheet is published the financial position of the firm may have changed dramatically. As a result, the balance sheet is out of date the day after the end of the accounting period, and by the time it is published, it is of historical interest only.

1.4.4 Monetary Unit Assumption

In financial accounting, an entity's transactions are recorded in the accounts in monetary unit of the country in which it is operating. However, in general, financial statements are presented in the currency of the country where the reports are published.

The use of money as the unit of account is accepted today without question, but this has not always been the case. For example, such commodities as cattle, salt, shells and tobacco are said to be employed as the unit of account.

The use of money as a unit of account does create some difficulties. In the first place, transactions must be expressed in money terms before they can be recorded in the accounts.

This assumption means that many important aspects of a modern business's operations cannot be embodied in the financial statements. In some cases transactions or events may not have an obvious money amount. Transactions and events of this type are either ignored or assigned a subjective or arbitrary money amount. Under this assumption, if the transaction or event cannot be measured, it cannot be reported. By extension, if it cannot be reported, it cannot be used for decision-making by external users. Secondly, the value of money is not constant over time. Its purchasing power changes as a result of either inflation or deflation. Accountants conventionally choose to ignore the changes in the purchasing power of money in the accounts. And this will cause some deficiencies in accounting reports.

1.4.5 Accrual Basis of Accounting

In order to provide the best matching of expenses with revenues and the most useful income figure, the accrual basis of accounting has been developed and become one of the generally accepted accounting conventions. Using the accrual basis of accounting means that revenues, expenses and other changes in assets, liabilities, and owners' equity are accounted for in the period in which the economic events takes place, not necessarily when the cash inflows and outflows take place. This means that the financial effects of transactions and economic events are recognized by the enterprise when they occur, rather than when the actual cash is received or paid by the enterprise. For example, sales are recognized as revenues when they are made, regardless of when the cash is actually collected. That is, a sale on account is recognized in the same manner as a cash sale. The only difference is that Accounts Receivable rather than Cash is increased at the time of sale. Expenses are recognized in a similar manner. That is, expenses are considered to be incurred when the goods or services are consumed by the enterprise, not necessarily when the cash outflows take place. For example, salaries earned by employees in May is recorded as salaries expense of May, even though those salaries may not be paid until June.

A key to the proper application of accrual basis of accounting is to ensure that all revenue and expense transactions that occurred during the period are recognized and recorded regardless of when the associated cash flows take place. Adjusting entries are a tool that accountants often use to ensure that a firm's financial statements reflect all relevant economic events and transactions and that a proper matching of revenues and expenses has occurred.

1.5 Professional Ethics in Accounting

The goal of accounting is to provide useful information for decisions. For information to be useful, it must be trusted. This demands professional ethics in accounting. Ethics are beliefs that distinguish right from wrong. They are accepted standards of good and bad behaviors.

Identifying the ethical path is sometimes difficult. The preferred path is a course of action

that avoids casting doubt on one's decisions. For example, accounting users are less likely to trust an auditor's report if the auditor's pay depends on the success of the client being audited. To avoid such concerns, ethics rules are often set. For example, auditors are banned from direct investment in their client and cannot accept pay that depends on figures in the client's report.

Providers of accounting information often face ethical choices as they prepare financial reports. These choices can affect the price a buyer pays and the wages paid to workers. They can even affect the success of products and services. Misleading information can lead to a wrongful closing of a division that harms workers, customers, and suppliers.

A full explanation of ethical standards in accounting is beyond the scope of this introductory course. However, it is not too early to introduce some basic ethical standards that are expected of professional accountants. Four key standards are below:

Integrity. Accountants have a responsibility to report favourable as well as unfavourable information and to refrain from taking actions which undermine an organization's legitimate and ethical objectives. Integrity implies that accountants should not take unfair advantage of information and should act in the interests not only of their clients but of other indirect users. Accountants should also disassociate themselves from any attempts to disclose misleading information.

Confidentiality. Accountants have a duty to refrain from disclosing confidential information unless legally obligated to do so. The work of the accountant regularly involves dealing with confidential files about the personal and business affairs of their clients. Decisions made on information provided by accountants can materially affect the lives of clients and others, often referred to as third parties, which include employees, creditors, investors, suppliers, customers, governments, and the general public.

Competence. Accountants have a duty to perform their professional duties according to high standards and to ensure that they stay current with changes in the profession. Users of accounting information may not have accounting expertise. Thus, members of the accounting profession enjoy a position of power. To be worthy of user confidence, accountants must not abuse this power and must act according to a high ethical standard. Accountants have an ethical obligation to maintain both technical competence and moral competence.

Objectivity. Accountants must fully disclose all relevant information that assists users to understand financial reports. Business, governments, and the public at large depend on the accounting profession to provide fair financial reporting and business advisory services. Accountants, therefore, are obligated to provide information that is objective so that users can rely on its accuracy when making investment and credit decisions.

Vocabulary

accounting	会计, 会计学
accountant	会计师, 会计从业人员
bookkeeping	簿记
enterprise	企业
business	商业, 企业
decision making	制定决策
transaction	交易, 经济业务
investor	投资者
creditor	债权人
asset	资产
liability	负债
owner's equity	所有者权益
revenue	收入
expense	费用
income	收益
double-entry system	复式记账
American Institute of Certified Public Accountants (AICPA)	美国注册会计师协会
Chinese Institute of Certified Public Accountants (CICPA)	中国注册会计师协会
financial accounting	财务会计
managerial accounting	管理会计
tax accounting	税务会计
accounting equation	会计等式
business transaction	经济业务
ethics of accounting	会计职业道德

Notes

- 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.
按照一定的方法将相似商业交易的影响进行分类, 并将其加总或部分加总, 以便提供给管理层并用于编制会计报告。
- The development of corporation also created a new social need—the need for an independent audit to provide some assurance that management's financial representations were reliable.
同时, 公司的发展产生了一项新的社会需求, 即需要独立审计针对企业管理部门所呈