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序

本书是为高等院校的财务会计、审计、注册会计师等专业的学生，以及在涉外企业工作的财务经理、会计人员和会计英语爱好者编写的。作者从事会计学和财经英语教学多年，曾经在西方高校留学、从事研究工作，深知要学好专业英语不仅要掌握一定的专业词汇，将英语和会计专业知识融会贯通，而且要了解国外有关的政治、经济和法律背景，以英语的思维方式来研究专业知识。本书旨在帮助读者掌握会计学的基本原理、原则和方法的英语表达方法，以提高阅读英文会计书籍和运用英语处理会计业务的能力。此书亦可作为高等院校财会类专业学生学习英文原版会计教科书及通过考试获得国际承认的注册会计师资格的基础教材。

本书共有 40 课，全面反映了财务会计的基本内容和成本会计、管理会计、税务会计以及审计的有关内容。为了方便教学和读者自学，在每课后面附有大量的词汇注释，对一些专业性词汇和术语做了比较详细的解释，而且每课均针对课文内容准备了复习讨论题，此外，本书后面还附有参考译文。这些都有助于学习者加深对课文内容的理解和进行口头表达练习。本书是一本实用性较强的教学用书。

谷　祺

2003 年 10 月

再 版 前 言

在日新月异的信息技术的有力推动下，世界经济已经并继续向着全球化的方向发展。随着中国加入 WTO 和中国经济持续、迅猛的增长，中国在世界经济舞台上的重要性已日渐突出，不但中国已走向世界，而且世界也已走近中国，越来越多的国家和地区了解并看好中国，中国与世界经济的联系也越来越密切。中国与世界越融合，对国际化人才的需求就越强烈，而熟练地掌握英语是国际化人才的必备素质，尤其是既有专业知识又能熟练应用英语的人才，具有广阔的发展空间。本书正是本着服务于经济、服务于社会的原则，为广大的财务经理、会计人员、大专院校学生和英语爱好者提供一本会计英语教材，旨在帮助读者扩展英语知识领域，掌握和提高运用英语处理财务与会计专业问题的能力。

本书自 1996 年出版以来，受到了读者的广泛认可，曾经多次印刷。为了更好地满足读者的需要，在本次再版时，体例上保持了第一版的风格，但在内容上做了大幅度的调整。有内容上的更新，例如，在内部控制部分加入了目前国内外关于内部控制的最新论述；也有范围上的扩展，例如，增加了管理会计和审计方面的内容；同时对财务会计的内容也做了必要的扩充，例如，增加了现金流量表、有价证券投资、财务报表附注，改写了收入、费用等单元的课文。我们相信，本版在内容上更丰富，反映了当今会计专业的最新动态。

编著者

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参考译文

Unit One

Accounting Profession

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 profession 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.

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.

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 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 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 accounting careers 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 .

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 ?

Words and Expressions

1 .accounting n .**会计(核算),会计学**

2 .record v .**记载,记录,登记**

3 .classify v .**分类,归类**

4 .summarize v .**概括,总结,汇总**

5 .campaign n .**战役,活动,运动**

6 .launch v .**发动,开展**

7 .filling station n .**(美)汽车加油站**

8 .competent a .**有能力的**

9 .methodology n .**方法**

10 .fiscal a .**财政的,财务的**

11 .bookkeeping n .**簿记,簿记学**

12 .transaction a .**交易,事务,经济业务**

13 .data processing **资料加工,数据处理**

14 .enter v .**记入,过账,登记**

15 .equivalent n .**相等物,当量**

16 .abbreviate v .**缩写**

17 .jurisdiction n .**管辖权,管辖区域**

18 .chartered accountant **公证会计师,执业会计师(英国)**

19 .partner n .**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　a .**复杂的，深奥的**
23 .public utilities　n .**公共事业**
24 .charitable organization　**慈善组织**
25 .executive　a .**执行的，行政的**
26 .manufacturing concern　**制造行业，生产性企业**
27 .maintain　v .**保持**
28 .keep pace with　**跟上，适应**
29 .correspondingly　ad .**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**

Special Terms

1 .Certified Public Accountant(CPA)　**注册会计师。他们是有资格执行审计业务的专业人员，一般需满足三个方面的条件才能获得这种资格:(1)接受过专业教育，通常要有本科学历，有的国家甚至要求更高的学历;(2)具有一定期限的会计或审计工作经验;(3)通过由会计专业团体举办的统一考试。注册会计师在英国及英联邦国家称为** CA，**即** Chartered Accountant .

2 .American Institute of Certified Public Accountants　**美国注册会计师协会，简称** AICPA,**是美国全国性的民间会计专业团体，负责制定会计师执业标准和规则，进行会计方面的科学研究并出版一些会计学刊物，组织并为会员提供继续教育的机会，组织一年两度的注册会计师统一考试。在国际上有较大的影响。**

3 .controller，comptroller　**主计长，会计主任，也称** chief accountant。**通常适用于较大的公司，是由董事会任命,负责企业的会计工作的高级管理人员。其工作范围包括财务会计、成本会计、内部审计、预算编制、税务报告和财务分析等项内容。**

Unit Two

The Conventions of Contemporary Accounting (1)

Accounting conventions are concepts and rules which have been generally accepted in performing bookkeeping and accounting. It came from a careful observation of accounting practice which revealed patterns of consistent behavior.

The existence of conventions was not generally recognized by accountants until the 20th century. They were developed to aid accountants in exercising judgment and estimation in order to limit likely differences in recording similar events by different accountants. The principal conventions of contemporary accounting will be discussed.

THE ENTITY CONVENTION. Contemporary accounting divides the community into separate units called "accounting 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. Each accounting entity interprets transactions from its own viewpoint. For example, the same transaction may be recorded as a sale by one accounting entity and as 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.

THE "GOING CONCERN" CONVENTION. Contemporary accounting assumes that the entity will remain in operation for the foreseeable future. This assumption is known as the "going concern" or the "continuity" convention. 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 in 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 convention. 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.

THE MONETARY CONVENTION. In contemporary accounting, an entity's transactions are recorded in the accounts in the 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 a 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 . 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 .

The second difficulty associated with the monetary convention is that 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 .

THE CONSISTENCY CONVENTION . Contemporary accounting assumes that accountants consistently apply accounting procedures from one period to the next . As a corollary, if accounting procedures are changed, the fact of the change and its effect on reported results are supposed to be disclosed in the financial statements . The purpose of this convention is to allow meaningful inter-period comparisons of results of an entity . Without consistency in accounting procedures, management could manipulate a firm's reported results merely by changes in accounting procedures . Under these circumstances inter-period comparisons would have to be treated with skepticism .

This convention differs from the others in an important respect . The others describe conventional practices actually used by accountants . The consistency convention, however, involves prescription . This convention is one that accountants ought to follow rather than that is necessarily followed .

The consistency convention does not mean that accounting methods cannot be changed . A change should be made if a new procedure would result in financial statements with improved ' truth and fairness ' . If a justifiable change is made, the fact and the effect of the change should be disclosed . The convention only requires that capricious changes in procedure which can not be justified by reference to a ' true and fair ' view should not be made .

The convention does not require a inter-firm consistency in accounting procedures . Two similar firms in the same industry may record a similar transaction in different ways and still comply with the consistency convention . The convention applies only to the accounting practices of a particular entity from period to period .The lack of inter-firm consistency means that an analyst needs to exercise a great deal of care in making inter-firm comparisons .

Even more, the convention does not mean that there must be a internal consistency in the use of accounting procedures . For example, the convention does not imply that a business depreciates all its assets on the same basis or that all discounts allowed are treated as expenses . Consistency would allow, for example, that plant and equipment be depreciated on a straight time basis and that motor vehicles be depreciated on an accelerated basis . All that consistency implies that the accounting procedures for a particular type of transactions are the same from one period to the next .

Review and Discussion Questions

1 .How have the accounting conventions come into existence ?

2 .How to identify an accounting entity ?

3 .What does the“ going concern ”convention imply ?

“ Premature abandonment of the continuity assumption may cause liquidation ”, Why ?

4 .Briefly outline the monetary convention . Discuss why“ the use of money as the unit of account creates some difficulties ”.

5 .Explain“ the consistency convention involves prescription ”.

Words and Expressions

1 .convention n .惯例, 常规

2 .community n .社区, 团体, 共同的责任

3 .purchase v .n 购买(行为), 进货

4 .capital contribution 缴入资本

5 .going concern 连续经营的企业

6 .lines of business 行业

7 .misleading financial reports 具有误导性的财务报告

8 .abandon v 放弃
9 .company failure 公司倒闭，企业破产
10 .premature a 未成熟的，匆促
11 .liquidation n .(破产)清算，清理
12 .creditor n 债主，债权人
13 .outstanding a .未清偿的(账款)，未兑现的(支票)，流通在外的(股票)
14 .financial statement 财务报表
15 .commodity n 货物，商品，物品
16 .arbitrary a .武断的
17 .purchasing power 购买力
18 .inflation n 通货膨胀(物价高涨)
19 .deflation n 通货紧缩(物价低廉)
20 .deficiency n .不完全，不足，缺陷
21 .consistency n .一致性
22 .corollary n 推论，自然的结果
23 .inter-period comparison 不同期间的比较
24 .manipulate v .操纵，假造，篡改
25 .skepticism n .怀疑主义，怀疑态度
26 .prescription n 规定，命令
27 .truth and fairness 真实性和公正(允)性
28 .depreciate v .折旧
29 .capricious a 多变，反复无常的
30 .comply with 符合，与……一致
31 .straight-line method 直线折旧法
32 .accelerated method 加速折旧法

Special Terms

1 .double-entry accounting system 复式记账会计制度。即从两个方面反映一项经济业务，在借贷两方记录相等的金额。在公元 1300 年，意大利北部城市首先使用复式记账方法，1494 年 L .Pacioli 所著的《算