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Oxford

CONCISE DICTIONARY OF
MATHEMATICS
WITH CHINESE TRANSLATION

牛津英汉双解
数学词典



上海外语教育出版社
SHANGHAI FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION PRESS

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Mathematics

with Chinese Translation

牛津英汉双解 数学词典

Christopher Clapham 原编

白先春 编译



上海外语教育出版社

SHANGHAI FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION PRESS

图书在版编目(CIP)数据

牛津英汉双解数学词典 / 白先春编译. — 上海:

上海外语教育出版社, 2006

(牛津英语百科分类词典英汉双解版)

ISBN 7-5446-0150-1

I. 牛… II. 白… III. 数学-双解词典-英、汉

IV. O-61

中国版本图书馆 CIP 数据核字(2006)第 068960 号

© Christopher Clapham and Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press 2006

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Oxford Concise Dictionary of Mathematics was originally published in English in 1996. This Translation is published by arrangement with Oxford University Press.

《牛津数学词典》英语原版 1996 年出版, 此英汉双解版由牛津大学出版社授权出版。

图字: 09 - 2005 - 385

出版发行: 上海外语教育出版社

(上海外国语大学内) 邮编: 200083

电 话: 021-65425300 (总机)

电子邮箱: bookinfo@sflep.com.cn

网 址: <http://www.sflep.com.cn> <http://www.sflep.com>

责任编辑: 章骏德

印 刷: 常熟高专印刷有限公司

经 销: 新华书店上海发行所

开 本: 787×960 1/32 印张12.75 字数457千字

版 次: 2006年11月第1版 2006年11月第1次印刷

印 数: 3 500 册

书 号: ISBN 7-5446-0150-1 / H · 0058

定 价: 24.00 元

本版图书如有印装质量问题, 可向本社调换。

《牛津英汉双解数学词典》

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版式设计: 章骏德

出版说明

我社自 1999 年开始陆续出版牛津百科分类词典英语版,迄今已出版近 40 种。这批百科词典深受广大专业人员、英语学习者的欢迎。同时,部分读者要求我们出版该套词典的英汉双解版,以更好地满足读者学习、翻译的需要。为此,我社经过充分调研和论证,并同牛津大学出版社协商,从该系列中挑选出 9 种,组织有关专业人员编译成英汉双解版。双解版的 9 种分别是经济学、商务、金融与银行、计算机、会计、数学、物理学、语言学以及英语语法。

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上海外语教育出版社

2006 年 9 月

Preface 序

This dictionary is intended to be a reference book that gives reliable definitions or clear and precise explanations of mathematical terms. The level is such that it will suit, among others, sixth-form pupils, college students and first-year university students who are taking mathematics as one of their courses. Such students will be able to look up any term they may meet and be led on to other entries by following up cross-references or by browsing more generally.

The concepts and terminology of all those topics that feature in pure and applied mathematics and statistics courses at this level today are covered. There are also entries on mathematicians of the past and important mathematics of more general interest. Computing is not included. The reader's attention is drawn to the appendices which give useful tables for ready reference.

Some entries give a straight definition in an opening phrase. Others give the definition in the form of a complete sentence, sometimes following an explanation of the context. In this case, the keyword appears again in bold type at the point where it is defined. Other keywords in bold type may also appear if this is the most appropriate context in which to define or explain them. *Italic* is used to indicate words with their own entry, to which cross-reference can be made if required.

This edition is more than half as large again as the first edition. A significant change has been the inclusion of entries covering applied mathematics and statistics. In these areas, I am very much indebted to the contributors, whose names are given on page v. I am most grateful to these colleagues for their specialist advice and drafting work. They are not, however, to be held responsible for the final form of the entries on their subjects. There has also been a considerable increase in the number of short biographies, so that all the major names are included. Other additional entries have greatly increased the comprehensiveness of the dictionary.

The text has benefited from the comments of colleagues who have read different parts of it. Even though the names of all of them will not be given, I should like to acknowledge here their help and express my thanks.

Christopher Clapham

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A

Abel, Niels Henrik (1802 – 1829) 阿贝尔, 尼尔斯·亨里克 Norwegian mathematician who, at the age of 19, proved that the general equation of degree greater than 4 cannot be solved algebraically. In other words, there can be no formula for the roots of such an equation similar to the familiar formula for a quadratic equation. He was also responsible for fundamental developments in the theory of algebraic functions. He died in some poverty at the age of 26, just a few days before he would have received a letter announcing his appointment to a professorship in Berlin.

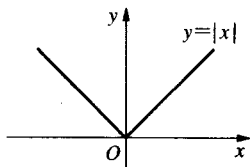
abelian group 交换群, 阿贝尔群 Suppose that G is a group with the operation \circ . Then G is **abelian** (可交换的) if the operation \circ is commutative; that is, if, for all elements a and b in G , $a \circ b = b \circ a$.

abscissa 横坐标 The x -coordinate in a Cartesian coordinate system in the plane.

absolute error 绝对误差 See *error*.

absolute value 绝对值 For any real number a , the **absolute value** (also called the *modulus*) of a , denoted by $|a|$, is a itself if $a \geq 0$, and $-a$ if $a < 0$. Thus $|a|$ is positive except when $a = 0$. The following properties hold:

- (i) $|ab| = |a| |b|$.
- (ii) $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$.
- (iii) $|a - b| \geq ||a| - |b||$.
- (iv) For $a > 0$, $|x| \leq a$ if and only if $-a \leq x < a$.



absorbing state 吸收态 See *random walk*.

absorption laws 吸收律 For all sets A and B (subsets of some *universal set*), $A \cap (A \cup B) = A$ and $A \cup (A \cap B) = A$. These are the **absorption laws**.

abstract algebra 抽象代数 The area of mathematics concerned with algebraic structures, such as *groups*, *rings* and *fields*, involving sets of elements with particular operations satisfying certain axioms. The purpose is to derive, from the set of axioms, general results that are then applicable to any particular example of the algebraic structure in question. The theory of certain algebraic structures is highly developed; in particular, the theory of vector spaces is so extensive that its study, known as *linear algebra*, would probably no longer be classified as abstract algebra.

acceleration 加速度 Suppose that a particle is moving in a straight line, with a point O on the line taken as origin and one direction taken as positive. Let x be the *displacement* of the particle at time t . The **acceleration** of the particle is equal to \ddot{x} or d^2x/dt^2 , the *rate of change* of the *velocity* with respect to t . If the velocity is positive (that is, if the particle is moving in the positive direction), the acceleration is positive when the particle is speeding up and negative when it is slowing down. However, if the velocity is negative, a positive acceleration means that the particle is slowing down and a negative acceleration means that it is speeding up.

In the preceding paragraph, a common convention has been followed, in which the unit vector \mathbf{i} in the positive direction along the line has been suppressed. Acceleration is in fact a vector quantity, and in the one-dimensional case above it is equal to $\ddot{x}\mathbf{i}$.

When the motion is in two or three dimensions, vectors are used explicitly. The acceleration \mathbf{a} of a particle is a vector equal to the rate of change of the velocity \mathbf{v} with respect to t . Thus $\mathbf{a} = d\mathbf{v}/dt$. If the particle has *position vector* \mathbf{r} , then $\mathbf{a} = d^2\mathbf{r}/dt^2 = \ddot{\mathbf{r}}$. When Cartesian coordinates are used, $\mathbf{r} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$, and then $\ddot{\mathbf{r}} = \ddot{x}\mathbf{i} + \ddot{y}\mathbf{j} + \ddot{z}\mathbf{k}$.

Acceleration has the dimensions LT^{-2} , and the SI unit of measurement is the metre per second per second, abbreviated to ' $m\ s^{-2}$ '.

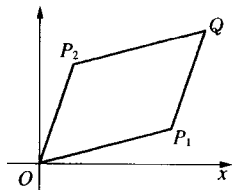
acceleration-time graph 加速-时间图 A graph that shows acceleration plotted against time for a particle moving in a straight line. Let $v(t)$ and $a(t)$ be the velocity and acceleration, respectively, of the particle at time t . The acceleration-time

graph is the graph $y = a(t)$, where the t -axis is horizontal and the y -axis is vertical with the positive direction upwards. With the convention that any area below the horizontal axis is negative, the area under the graph between $t = t_1$ and $t = t_2$ is equal to $v(t_2) - v(t_1)$. (Here a common convention has been followed, in which the unit vector \mathbf{i} in the positive direction along the line has been suppressed. The velocity and acceleration of the particle are in fact vector quantities equal to $v(t)\mathbf{i}$ and $a(t)\mathbf{i}$, respectively.)

acceptance region 接受域 See *hypothesis testing*.

acute angle 锐角 An angle that is less than a *right angle*. An **acute-angled** triangle is one all of whose angles are acute.

addition (of complex numbers) 加法 (复数的) Let the complex numbers z_1 and z_2 , where $z_1 = a + bi$ and $z_2 = c + di$, be represented by the points P_1 and P_2 in the *complex plane*. Then $z_1 + z_2 = (a + c) + (b + d)i$, and $z_1 + z_2$ is represented in the complex plane by the point Q such that $\overrightarrow{OP_1} + \overrightarrow{OP_2}$ is a parallelogram; that is, such that $\overrightarrow{OQ} = \overrightarrow{OP_1} + \overrightarrow{OP_2}$. Thus, if the complex number z is associated with the directed line-segment \overrightarrow{OP} , where P represents z , then the addition of complex numbers corresponds exactly to the addition of the directed line-segments.



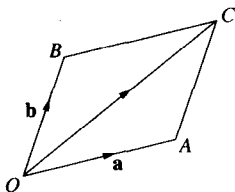
addition (of directed line-segments) 加法 (有向线段的) See *addition* (of vectors).

addition (of matrices) 加法 (矩阵的) Let \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} be $m \times n$ matrices, with $\mathbf{A} = [a_{ij}]$ and $\mathbf{B} = [b_{ij}]$. The operation of **addition** is defined by taking the **sum** (和) $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}$ to be the $m \times n$ matrix \mathbf{C} , where $\mathbf{C} = [c_{ij}]$ and $c_{ij} = a_{ij} + b_{ij}$. The sum $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}$ is not defined if \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} are not of the same order. This operation $+$ of addition on the set of all $m \times n$ matrices is *associative* and *commutative*.

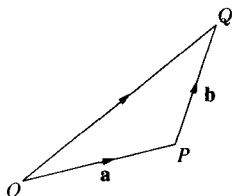
addition (of vectors) 加法 (向量的) Given vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} ,

let \overrightarrow{OA} and \overrightarrow{OB} be directed line-segments that represent \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} , with the same initial point O . The sum of \overrightarrow{OA} and \overrightarrow{OB} is the directed line-segment \overrightarrow{OC} , where $OACB$ is a parallelogram, and the sum $\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}$ is defined to be the vector \mathbf{c} represented by \overrightarrow{OC} . This is called the **parallelogram law** (平行四边形法则). Alternatively, the sum of vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} can be defined by representing \mathbf{a} by a directed line-segment \overrightarrow{OP} and \mathbf{b} by \overrightarrow{PQ} , where the final point of the first directed line-segment is the initial point of the second. Then $\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}$ is the vector represented by \overrightarrow{OQ} . This is called the **triangle law** (三角形法则). Addition of vectors has the following properties, which hold for all \mathbf{a} , \mathbf{b} and \mathbf{c} :

- (i) $\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{b} + \mathbf{a}$, the commutative law.
- (ii) $\mathbf{a} + (\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{c}) = (\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}) + \mathbf{c}$, the associative law.
- (iii) $\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0} + \mathbf{a} = \mathbf{a}$, where $\mathbf{0}$ is the zero vector.
- (iv) $\mathbf{a} + (-\mathbf{a}) = (-\mathbf{a}) + \mathbf{a} = \mathbf{0}$, where $-\mathbf{a}$ is the negative of \mathbf{a} .



The parallelogram law



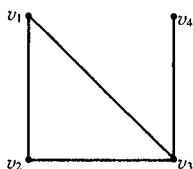
The triangle law

addition modulo n 模 n 下加法 See *modulo n , addition and multiplication*.

additive group 加法群 A group with the operation $+$, called addition, may be called an **additive group**. The operation in a group is normally denoted by addition only if it is *commutative*, so an additive group is usually *abelian*.

additive inverse 加性逆元素 See *inverse element*.

adjacency matrix 邻接矩阵 For a simple graph G , with n vertices v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n , the **adjacency matrix** \mathbf{A} is the $n \times n$ matrix $[a_{ij}]$ with $a_{ij} = 1$, if v_i is joined to v_j , and $a_{ij} = 0$, otherwise. The matrix \mathbf{A} is *symmetric* and the diagonal entries are zero. The number of ones in any row (or column) is equal to the *degree* of the corresponding vertex. An example of a graph and its adjacency matrix \mathbf{A} is shown below.



$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

adjoint 伴随的 The **adjoint** of a square matrix \mathbf{A} , denoted by $\text{adj } \mathbf{A}$, is the transpose of the matrix of cofactors of \mathbf{A} . For $\mathbf{A} = [a_{ij}]$, let A_{ij} denote the *cofactor* of the entry a_{ij} . Then the matrix of cofactors is the matrix $[A_{ij}]$ and $\text{adj } \mathbf{A} = [A_{ij}]^T$. For example, a 3×3 matrix \mathbf{A} and its adjoint can be written

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \text{adj } \mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{21} & A_{31} \\ A_{12} & A_{22} & A_{32} \\ A_{13} & A_{23} & A_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

In the 2×2 case, a matrix \mathbf{A} and its adjoint have the form

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}, \quad \text{adj } \mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix}.$$

The adjoint is important because it can be used to find the *inverse* of a matrix. From the properties of cofactors, it can be shown that $\mathbf{A} \text{adj } \mathbf{A} = (\det \mathbf{A}) \mathbf{I}$. It follows that, when $\det \mathbf{A} \neq 0$, the inverse of \mathbf{A} is $(1/\det \mathbf{A}) \text{adj } \mathbf{A}$.

adjugate 转置伴随的 = *adjoint*.

aerodynamic drag 气动阻力 A body moving through the air, such as an aeroplane flying in the Earth's atmosphere, experiences a force due to the flow of air over the surface of the body. The force is the sum of the **aerodynamic drag**, which is tangential to the flight path, and the **lift** (提升力), which is normal to the flight path.

air resistance 空气阻力 The resistance to motion experienced by an object moving through the air caused by the flow of air over the surface of the object. It is a force that affects, for example, the speed of a drop of rain or of a parachutist falling towards the Earth's surface. As well as depending on the nature of the object, air resistance depends on the speed of the object. Possible *mathematical models* are to assume that the magnitude of the air resistance is proportional to the speed or to the square of the speed.

Algebra, Fundamental Theorem of 代数学基本定理

See *Fundamental Theorem of Algebra*.

algebra of sets 集代数 The set of all subsets of a *universal set* E is closed under the binary operations \cup (*union*) and \cap (*intersection*) and the unary operation $'$ (*complementation*). The following are some of the properties, or laws, that hold for subsets A , B and C of E :

- (i) $A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$ and $A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$, the distributive properties.
- (ii) $A \cup B = B \cup A$ and $A \cap B = B \cap A$, the commutative properties.
- (iii) $A \cup \emptyset = A$ and $A \cap \emptyset = \emptyset$, where \emptyset is the *empty set*.
- (iv) $A \cup E = E$ and $A \cap E = A$.
- (v) $A \cup A = A$ and $A \cap A = A$.
- (vi) $A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$ and $A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$, the distributive properties.
- (vii) $A \cup A' = E$ and $A \cap A' = \emptyset$.
- (viii) $E' = \emptyset$ and $\emptyset' = E$.
- (ix) $(A')' = A$.
- (x) $(A \cup B)' = A' \cap B'$ and $(A \cap B)' = A' \cup B'$, De Morgan's laws.

The application of these laws to subsets of E is known as the **algebra of sets**. Despite some similarities with the algebra of numbers, there are important and striking differences.

algebraic number 代数数 A real number that is the root of a *polynomial equation* with integer coefficients. All *rational numbers* are algebraic, since a/b is the root of the equation $bx - a = 0$. Some *irrational numbers* are algebraic; for example, $\sqrt{2}$ is the root of the equation $x^2 - 2 = 0$. An irrational number that is not algebraic (such as π) is called a *transcendental number*.

algebraic structure 代数结构 The term used to describe an abstract concept defined as consisting of certain elements with operations satisfying given axioms. Thus, a *group* or a *ring* or a *field* is an algebraic structure. The purpose of the definition is to recognize similarities that appear in different contexts within mathematics and to encapsulate these by means of a set of axioms.

algorithm 算法, 规则系统 A precisely described routine procedure that can be applied and systematically followed through to a conclusion.

al-Khwārizmī 花拉子密 See under K.

alternate angles 交错角 See *transversal*.

alternative hypothesis 择一假设 See *hypothesis testing*.

altitude 高线, 顶垂线 A line through one vertex of a triangle and perpendicular to the opposite side. The three altitudes of a triangle are concurrent at the *orthocentre*.

amicable numbers 亲和数 A pair of numbers with the property that each is equal to the sum of the positive divisors of the other. (For the purposes of this definition, a number is not included as one of its own divisors.) For example, 220 and 284 are amicable numbers because the positive divisors of 220 are 1, 2, 4, 5, 10, 11, 20, 22, 44, 55 and 110, whose sum is 284, and the positive divisors of 284 are 1, 2, 4, 71 and 142, whose sum is 220.

These numbers, known to the Pythagoreans, were used as symbols of friendship. The amicable numbers 17 296 and 18 416 were found by Fermat, and a list of 64 pairs was produced by Euler. In 1867, a sixteen-year-old Italian boy found the second smallest pair, 1184 and 1210, overlooked by Euler. More than 600 pairs are now known. It has not been shown whether or not there are infinitely many pairs of amicable numbers.

amplitude 振幅 Suppose that $x = A \sin(\omega t + \alpha)$, where A (>0), ω and α are constants. This may, for example, give the displacement x of a particle, moving in a straight line, at time t . The particle is thus oscillating about the origin O . The constant A is the **amplitude**, and gives the maximum distance in each direction from O that the particle attains.

The term may also be used in the case of *damped oscillations* to mean the corresponding coefficient, even though it is not constant. For example, if $x = 5e^{-2t} \sin 3t$, the oscillations are said to have amplitude $5e^{-2t}$, which tends to zero as t tends to infinity.

analysis 分析, 分析学 The area of mathematics generally taken to include those topics that involve the use of limiting processes. Thus *differential calculus* and *integral calculus* certainly come under this heading. Besides these, there are other topics, such as the summation of infinite series, which involve 'infinite' processes of this sort. The *Binomial Theorem*, a theorem of algebra, leads on into analysis when the index is no longer a positive integer, and the study of sine and cosine,

which begins as trigonometry, becomes analysis when the power series for the functions are derived. The term 'analysis' has also come to be used to indicate a rather more rigorous approach to the topics of calculus, and to the foundations of the real number system.

analysis of variance 方差分析 A general procedure for partitioning the overall variability in a set of data into components due to specified causes and random variation. It involves calculating such quantities as the 'between-groups sum of squares' and the 'residual sum of squares', and dividing by the *degrees of freedom* to give so-called 'mean squares'. The results are usually presented in an **ANOVA** (方差分析) table, the name being derived from the opening letters of the words 'analysis of variance'. Such a table provides a concise summary from which the influence of the *explanatory variables* can be estimated and hypotheses can be tested, usually by means of *F-tests*.

anchor ring 锚环, 圆环 = *torus*.

and 合取 See *conjunction*.

angle (between lines in space) 夹角(空间中两线的) Given two lines in space, let \mathbf{u}_1 and \mathbf{u}_2 be vectors with directions along the lines. Then the **angle** between the lines, even if they do not meet, is equal to the angle between the vectors \mathbf{u}_1 and \mathbf{u}_2 (see *angle* (between vectors)), with the directions of \mathbf{u}_1 and \mathbf{u}_2 chosen so that the angle θ satisfies $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi/2$ (θ in radians), or $0 \leq \theta \leq 90$ (θ in degrees). If l_1, m_1, n_1 and l_2, m_2, n_2 are direction ratios for directions along the lines, the angle θ between the lines is given by

$$\cos \theta = \frac{|l_1 l_2 + m_1 m_2 + n_1 n_2|}{\sqrt{l_1^2 + m_1^2 + n_1^2} \sqrt{l_2^2 + m_2^2 + n_2^2}}.$$

angle (between lines in the plane) 夹角(平面上两线的) In coordinate geometry of the plane, the angle α between two lines with gradients m_1 and m_2 is given by

$$\tan \alpha = \frac{m_1 - m_2}{1 + m_1 m_2}.$$

This is obtained from the formula for $\tan(A - B)$. In the special cases when $m_1 m_2 = -1$ or when m_1 or m_2 is infinite, it has to be interpreted appropriately.

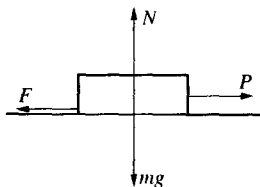
angle (between planes) 夹角(两平面的) Given two planes,

let \mathbf{n}_1 and \mathbf{n}_2 be vectors *normal* to the two planes. Then a method of obtaining the **angle** between the planes is to take the angle between \mathbf{n}_1 and \mathbf{n}_2 (see *angle (between vectors)*), with the directions of \mathbf{n}_1 and \mathbf{n}_2 chosen so that the angle θ satisfies $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi/2$ (θ in radians), or $0 \leq \theta \leq 90$ (θ in degrees).

angle (between vectors) 夹角(两向量间的) Given vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} , let \overrightarrow{OA} and \overrightarrow{OB} be *directed line-segments* representing \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} . Then the **angle** θ between the vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} is the angle $\angle AOB$, where θ is taken to satisfy $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$ (θ in radians), or $0 \leq \theta \leq 180$ (θ in degrees). It is given by

$$\cos \theta = \frac{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}}{|\mathbf{a}| |\mathbf{b}|}.$$

angle of friction 摩擦角 The angle λ such that $\tan \lambda = \mu_s$, where μ_s is the *coefficient of static friction*. Consider a block resting on a horizontal plane, as shown in the figure. In the limiting case when the block is about to move to the right on account of an applied force of magnitude P , $N = mg$, $P = F$ and $F = \mu_s N$. Then the *contact force*, whose components are N and F , makes an angle λ with the vertical.



angle of inclination 倾斜角 See *inclined plane*.

angle of projection 投射角, 发射角 The angle that the direction in which a particle is projected makes with the horizontal. Thus it is the angle that the initial velocity makes with the horizontal.

angular acceleration 角加速度 Suppose that the particle P is moving in the plane, in a circle with centre at the origin O and radius r_0 . Let (r_0, θ) be the polar coordinates of P . At an elementary level, the **angular acceleration** may be defined to be $\ddot{\theta}$.

At a more advanced level, the **angular acceleration** α of the particle P is the vector defined by $\alpha = \dot{\omega}$, where ω is the *angular velocity* (角速度). Let \mathbf{i} and \mathbf{j} be unit vectors in the

directions of the positive x - and y -axes and let $\mathbf{k} = \mathbf{i} \times \mathbf{j}$. Then, in the case above of a particle moving along a circular path, $\boldsymbol{\omega} = \dot{\theta} \mathbf{k}$ and $\boldsymbol{\alpha} = \ddot{\theta} \mathbf{k}$. If \mathbf{r} , \mathbf{v} and \mathbf{a} are the position vector, velocity and acceleration of P , then

$$\mathbf{r} = r_0 \mathbf{e}_r, \quad \mathbf{v} = \dot{\mathbf{r}} = r_0 \dot{\theta} \mathbf{e}_\theta, \quad \mathbf{a} = \ddot{\mathbf{r}} = -r_0 \dot{\theta}^2 \mathbf{e}_r + r_0 \ddot{\theta} \mathbf{e}_\theta,$$

where $\mathbf{e}_r = \mathbf{i} \cos \theta + \mathbf{j} \sin \theta$ and $\mathbf{e}_\theta = -\mathbf{i} \sin \theta + \mathbf{j} \cos \theta$ (see *circular motion*). Using the fact that $\mathbf{v} = \boldsymbol{\omega} \times \mathbf{r}$, it follows that the acceleration \mathbf{a} is given by $\mathbf{a} = \boldsymbol{\alpha} \times \mathbf{r} + \boldsymbol{\omega} \times (\boldsymbol{\omega} \times \mathbf{r})$.

angular frequency 角频率 The constant ω in the equation $\ddot{x} = -\omega^2 x$ for *simple harmonic motion*. In certain respects ωt , where t is the time, acts like an angle. The angular frequency ω is usually measured in radians per second. The *frequency* of the oscillations is equal to $\omega/2\pi$.

angular measure 角测度 There are two principal ways of measuring angles: by using *degrees*, in more elementary work, and by using *radians*, essential in more advanced work.

angular momentum 角动量 Suppose that the particle P of mass m has position vector \mathbf{r} and is moving with velocity \mathbf{v} . Then the **angular momentum** \mathbf{L} of P about the point A with position vector \mathbf{r}_A is the vector defined by $\mathbf{L} = (\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}_A) \times m\mathbf{v}$. It is the *moment* of the *linear momentum* about the point A . See also *conservation of angular momentum*.

Consider a rigid body rotating with angular velocity $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ about a fixed axis, and let \mathbf{L} be the angular momentum of the rigid body about a point on the fixed axis. Then $\mathbf{L} = I\boldsymbol{\omega}$, where I is the *moment of inertia* of the rigid body about the fixed axis.

To consider the general case, let $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ and \mathbf{L} now be column vectors representing the angular velocity of a rigid body and the angular momentum of the rigid body about a fixed point (or the centre of mass). Then $\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{I}\boldsymbol{\omega}$, where \mathbf{I} is a 3×3 matrix, called the **inertia matrix** (惯性阵), whose elements involve the *moments of inertia* and the *products of inertia* of the rigid body relative to axes through the fixed point (or centre of mass).

The rotational motion of a rigid body depends on the angular momentum of the rigid body. In particular, the rate of change of the angular momentum about a fixed point (or centre of mass) equals the sum of the moments of the forces acting on the rigid body about the fixed point (or centre of mass).

angular speed 角速率 The magnitude of the *angular velocity*.