The purpose of a model is to give us an approximate mental or visual picture-something to hold onto-when we cannot see or understand what actually is happening. Models often give us a deeper understanding: the analogy to a known system (for instance, water waves in the above example) can suggest new experiments to perform and can provide ideas about what other related phenomena might occur.

You may wonder what the difference is between a theory and a model. Usually, a model is relatively simple and provides a structural similarity to the phenomena being studied. A theory is broader, more detailed, and can give quantitatively testable predictions, often with great precision. It is important, however, not to confuse a model or a theory with the real system or the phenomena themselves.

Scientists give the title law to certain concise but general statements about how nature behaves (that energy is conserved, for example). Sometimes the statement takes the form of a relationship or equation between quantities (such as Newton's second law, F = ma).

To be called a law, a statement must be found experimentally valid over a wide range of observed phenomena. For less general statements, the term principle is often used (such as Archimedes' principle).

Scientific laws are different from political laws in that the latter are prescriptive: they tell us how we ought to behave. Scientific laws are descriptive: they do not say how nature should behave, but rather are meant to describe how nature does behave. As with theories, laws cannot be tested in the infinite variety of cases possible. So we cannot be sure that any law is absolutely true. We use the term "law" when its validity has been tested over a wide range of cases, and when any limitations and the range of validity are clearly understood.

Scientists normally do their work as if the accepted laws and theories were true. But they are obliged to keep an open mind in case new information should alter the validity of any given law or theory.

1–4 Measurement and Uncertainty; Significant Figures

In the quest to understand the world around us, scientists try to work out relationships among physical quantities that can be measured.

Uncertainty

Accurate, precise measurements are an important part of physics. But no measurement is absolutely precise. There is an uncertainty associated with every measurement. Among the most important sources of uncertainty, other than blunders, are the limited accuracy of every measuring instrument and the inability to read an instrument beyond some fraction of the smallest division shown. For example, if you were to use a centimeter ruler to measure the width of a board (Fig. 1-5), the result could be claimed to be precise to about 0.1 cm (1 mm), the smallest division on the ruler, although half of this value might be a valid claim as well. The reason for this is that it is difficult for the observer to estimate between the smallest divisions. Furthermore, the ruler itself may not have been manufactured to an accuracy any better than this.9

[†]There is a technical difference between "precision" and "accuracy." Precision in a strict sense refers to the repeatability of the measurement using a given instrument. For example, if you measure the width of a board many times, getting results like 8.81 cm, 8.85 cm, 8.78 cm, 8.82 cm (estimating between the 0.1-cm marks as best as possible each time), you could say the measurements give a precision a bit better than 0.1 cm. Accuracy refers to how close a measurement is to the true value. For example, if the ruler shown in Fig. 1-5 was manufactured with a 2% error, the accuracy of its measurement of the board's width (about 8.8 cm) would be about 2% of 8.8 cm, or about ± 0.2 cm. Estimated uncertainty is meant to take both accuracy and precision into account.

Theories (vs. models)

and

principles

Every measurement has an uncertainty

FIGURE 1-5 Measuring the width of a board with a centimeter ruler. Accuracy is about ± 1 mm.

