less obvious example is thermal radiation from the human body.

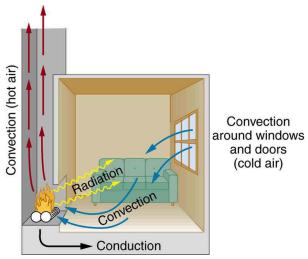


FIGURE 14.12 In a fireplace, heat transfer occurs by all three methods: conduction, convection, and radiation. Radiation is responsible for most of the heat transferred into the room. Heat transfer also occurs through conduction into the room, but at a much slower rate. Heat transfer by convection also occurs through cold air entering the room around windows and hot air leaving the room by rising up the chimney.

We examine these methods in some detail in the three following modules. Each method has unique and interesting characteristics, but all three do have one thing in common: they transfer heat solely because of a temperature difference Figure 14.12.

# **ORDINAL PROPERTY OF THE CONTRACT OF THE CONTR**

Name an example from daily life (different from the text) for each mechanism of heat transfer.

### **Solution**

Conduction: Heat transfers into your hands as you hold a hot cup of coffee.

Convection: Heat transfers as the barista "steams" cold milk to make hot cocoa.

Radiation: Reheating a cold cup of coffee in a microwave oven.

# 14.5 Conduction

## **LEARNING OBJECTIVES**

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Calculate thermal conductivity.
- · Observe conduction of heat in collisions.
- · Study thermal conductivities of common substances.



FIGURE 14.13 Insulation is used to limit the conduction of heat from the inside to the outside (in winters) and from the outside to the inside (in summers). (credit: Giles Douglas)

Your feet feel cold as you walk barefoot across the living room carpet in your cold house and then step onto the kitchen tile floor. This result is intriguing, since the carpet and tile floor are both at the same temperature. The different sensation you feel is explained by the different rates of heat transfer: the heat loss during the same time interval is greater for skin in contact with the tiles than with the carpet, so the temperature drop is greater on the tiles.

Some materials conduct thermal energy faster than others. In general, good conductors of electricity (metals like copper, aluminum, gold, and silver) are also good heat conductors, whereas insulators of electricity (wood, plastic, and rubber) are poor heat conductors. Figure 14.14 shows molecules in two bodies at different temperatures. The (average) kinetic energy of a molecule in the hot body is higher than in the colder body. If two molecules collide, an energy transfer from the molecule with greater kinetic energy to the molecule with less kinetic energy occurs. The cumulative effect from all collisions results in a net flux of heat from the hot body to the colder body. The heat flux thus depends on the temperature difference  $\Delta T = T_{\rm hot} - T_{\rm cold}$ . Therefore, you will get a more severe burn from boiling water than from hot tap water. Conversely, if the temperatures are the same, the net heat transfer rate falls to zero, and equilibrium is achieved. Owing to the fact that the number of collisions increases with increasing area, heat conduction depends on the cross-sectional area. If you touch a cold wall with your palm, your hand cools faster than if you just touch it with your fingertip.

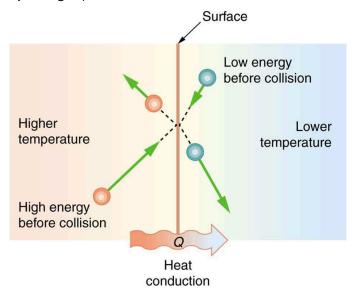


FIGURE 14.14 The molecules in two bodies at different temperatures have different average kinetic energies. Collisions occurring at the contact surface tend to transfer energy from high-temperature regions to low-temperature regions. In this illustration, a molecule in the lower temperature region (right side) has low energy before collision, but its energy increases after colliding with the contact surface. In contrast, a molecule in the higher temperature region (left side) has high energy before collision, but its energy decreases after colliding

with the contact surface.

A third factor in the mechanism of conduction is the thickness of the material through which heat transfers. The figure below shows a slab of material with different temperatures on either side. Suppose that  $T_2$  is greater than  $T_1$ , so that heat is transferred from left to right. Heat transfer from the left side to the right side is accomplished by a series of molecular collisions. The thicker the material, the more time it takes to transfer the same amount of heat. This model explains why thick clothing is warmer than thin clothing in winters, and why Arctic mammals protect themselves with thick blubber.

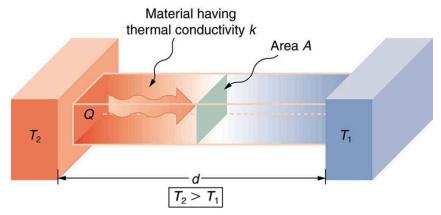


FIGURE 14.15 Heat conduction occurs through any material, represented here by a rectangular bar, whether window glass or walrus blubber. The temperature of the material is  $T_2$  on the left and  $T_1$  on the right, where  $T_2$  is greater than  $T_1$ . The rate of heat transfer by conduction is directly proportional to the surface area A, the temperature difference  $T_2 - T_1$ , and the substance's conductivity k. The rate of heat transfer is inversely proportional to the thickness d.

Lastly, the heat transfer rate depends on the material properties described by the coefficient of thermal conductivity. All four factors are included in a simple equation that was deduced from and is confirmed by experiments. The **rate of conductive heat transfer** through a slab of material, such as the one in <u>Figure 14.15</u>, is given by

$$\frac{Q}{t} = \frac{kA(T_2 - T_1)}{d},$$
 14.26

where Q/t is the rate of heat transfer in watts or kilocalories per second, k is the **thermal conductivity** of the material, A and d are its surface area and thickness, as shown in <u>Figure 14.15</u>, and  $(T_2 - T_1)$  is the temperature difference across the slab. <u>Table 14.3</u> gives representative values of thermal conductivity.



# Calculating Heat Transfer Through Conduction: Conduction Rate Through an Ice Box

A Styrofoam ice box has a total area of  $0.950~\mathrm{m}^2$  and walls with an average thickness of 2.50 cm. The box contains ice, water, and canned beverages at  $0^{\circ}$ C. The inside of the box is kept cold by melting ice. How much ice melts in one day if the ice box is kept in the trunk of a car at  $35.0^{\circ}$ C?

#### **Strategy**

This question involves both heat for a phase change (melting of ice) and the transfer of heat by conduction. To find the amount of ice melted, we must find the net heat transferred. This value can be obtained by calculating the rate of heat transfer by conduction and multiplying by time.

#### **Solution**

1. Identify the knowns.

$$A = 0.950 \text{ m}^2;$$
  
 $d = 2.50 \text{ cm} = 0.0250 \text{ m};$   
 $T_1 = 0^{\circ}\text{C};$   
 $T_2 = 35.0^{\circ}\text{C}, t = 1 \text{ day} = 24 \text{ hours} = 86,400 \text{ s}.$ 

- 2. Identify the unknowns. We need to solve for the mass of the ice, m. We will also need to solve for the net heat transferred to melt the ice, Q.
- 3. Determine which equations to use. The rate of heat transfer by conduction is given by

$$\frac{Q}{t} = \frac{kA(T_2 - T_1)}{d}.$$

- 4. The heat is used to melt the ice:  $Q = mL_f$ .
- 5. Insert the known values:

$$\frac{Q}{t} = \frac{(0.010 \text{ J/s} \cdot \text{m} \cdot ^{\circ} \text{C})(0.950 \text{ m}^2)(35.0 ^{\circ} \text{C} - 0 ^{\circ} \text{C})}{0.0250 \text{ m}} = 13.3 \text{ J/s}.$$

6. Multiply the rate of heat transfer by the time (1 day = 86,400 s):

$$Q = (Q/t)t = (13.3 \text{ J/s})(86,400 \text{ s}) = 1.15 \times 10^6 \text{ J}.$$
 14.30

7. Set this equal to the heat transferred to melt the ice:  $Q = mL_{\rm f}$ . Solve for the mass m:

$$m = \frac{Q}{L_{\rm f}} = \frac{1.15 \times 10^6 \,\text{J}}{334 \times 10^3 \,\text{J/kg}} = 3.44 \text{kg}.$$
 14.31

#### **Discussion**

The result of 3.44 kg, or about 7.6 lbs, seems about right, based on experience. You might expect to use about a 4 kg (7–10 lb) bag of ice per day. A little extra ice is required if you add any warm food or beverages.

Inspecting the conductivities in <u>Table 14.3</u> shows that Styrofoam is a very poor conductor and thus a good insulator. Other good insulators include fiberglass, wool, and goose-down feathers. Like Styrofoam, these all incorporate many small pockets of air, taking advantage of air's poor thermal conductivity.

Substance	Thermal conductivity k (J/s · m · °C)
Silver	420
Copper	390
Gold	318
Aluminum	220
Steel iron	80
Steel (stainless)	14
Ice	2.2
Glass (average)	0.84
Concrete brick	0.84

TABLE 14.3 Thermal Conductivities of Common Substances<sup>7</sup>

<sup>7</sup> At temperatures near 0°C.

Substance	Thermal conductivity k (J/s • m • °C)
Water	0.6
Fatty tissue (without blood)	0.2
Asbestos	0.16
Plasterboard	0.16
Wood	0.08-0.16
Snow (dry)	0.10
Cork	0.042
Glass wool	0.042
Wool	0.04
Down feathers	0.025
Air	0.023
Styrofoam	0.010

**TABLE 14.3** Thermal Conductivities of Common Substances<sup>7</sup>

A combination of material and thickness is often manipulated to develop good insulators—the smaller the conductivity k and the larger the thickness d, the better. The ratio of d/k will thus be large for a good insulator. The ratio d/k is called the R factor. The rate of conductive heat transfer is inversely proportional to R. The larger the value of R, the better the insulation. R factors are most commonly quoted for household insulation, refrigerators, and the like—unfortunately, it is still in non-metric units of  $t^2 \cdot r \cdot h/Btu$ , although the unit usually goes unstated (1 British thermal unit [Btu] is the amount of energy needed to change the temperature of 1.0 lb of water by 1.0 °F). A couple of representative values are an R factor of 11 for 3.5-in-thick fiberglass batts (pieces) of insulation and an R factor of 19 for 6.5-in-thick fiberglass batts. Walls are usually insulated with 3.5-in batts, while ceilings are usually insulated with 6.5-in batts. In cold climates, thicker batts may be used in ceilings and walls.



FIGURE 14.16 The fiberglass batt is used for insulation of walls and ceilings to prevent heat transfer between the inside of the building and the outside environment.

Note that in <u>Table 14.3</u>, the best thermal conductors—silver, copper, gold, and aluminum—are also the best electrical conductors, again related to the density of free electrons in them. Cooking utensils are typically made from good conductors.



# Calculating the Temperature Difference Maintained by a Heat Transfer: Conduction Through an Aluminum Pan

Water is boiling in an aluminum pan placed on an electrical element on a stovetop. The sauce pan has a bottom that is 0.800 cm thick and 14.0 cm in diameter. The boiling water is evaporating at the rate of 1.00 g/s. What is the temperature difference across (through) the bottom of the pan?

### **Strategy**

Conduction through the aluminum is the primary method of heat transfer here, and so we use the equation for the rate of heat transfer and solve for the temperature difference

$$T_2 - T_1 = \frac{Q}{t} \left( \frac{d}{kA} \right). \tag{14.32}$$

#### Solution

- 1. Identify the knowns and convert them to the SI units. The thickness of the pan,  $d = 0.800 \text{ cm} = 8.0 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}$ , the area of the pan,  $A = \pi (0.14/2)^2$  m<sup>2</sup> = 1.54 × 10<sup>-2</sup> m<sup>2</sup>, and the thermal conductivity, k = 220 J/s · m·°C.
- 2. Calculate the necessary heat of vaporization of 1 g of water:

$$Q = mL_{\rm v} = (1.00 \times 10^{-3} \text{ kg})(2256 \times 10^3 \text{ J/kg}) = 2256 \text{ J}.$$
 14.33

3. Calculate the rate of heat transfer given that 1 g of water melts in one second:

$$Q/t = 2256 \text{ J/s or } 2.26 \text{ kW}.$$
 14.34

4. Insert the knowns into the equation and solve for the temperature difference:

$$T_2 - T_1 = \frac{Q}{t} \left( \frac{d}{kA} \right) = (2256 \text{ J/s}) \frac{8.00 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}}{(220 \text{ J/s} \cdot \text{m} \cdot ^{\circ}\text{C})(1.54 \times 10^{-2} \text{ m}^2)} = 5.33 ^{\circ}\text{C}.$$
 14.35

## **Discussion**

The value for the heat transfer Q/t = 2.26 kW or 2256 J/s is typical for an electric stove. This value gives a remarkably small temperature difference between the stove and the pan. Consider that the stove burner is red hot while the inside of the pan is nearly 100°C because of its contact with boiling water. This contact effectively cools the bottom of the pan in spite of its proximity to the very hot stove burner. Aluminum is such a good conductor that it only takes this small temperature difference to produce a heat transfer of 2.26 kW into the pan.

Conduction is caused by the random motion of atoms and molecules. As such, it is an ineffective mechanism for heat transport over macroscopic distances and short time distances. Take, for example, the temperature on the Earth, which would be unbearably cold during the night and extremely hot during the day if heat transport in the atmosphere was to be only through conduction. In another example, car engines would overheat unless there was a more efficient way to remove excess heat from the pistons.

# **O CHECK YOUR UNDERSTANDING**

How does the rate of heat transfer by conduction change when all spatial dimensions are doubled?

#### Solution

Because area is the product of two spatial dimensions, it increases by a factor of four when each dimension is doubled  $(A_{\text{final}} = (2d)^2 = 4d^2 = 4A_{\text{initial}})$ . The distance, however, simply doubles. Because the temperature difference and the coefficient of thermal conductivity are independent of the spatial dimensions, the rate of heat transfer by conduction increases by a factor of four divided by two, or two:

$$\left(\frac{Q}{t}\right)_{\text{final}} = \frac{kA_{\text{final}}(T_2 - T_1)}{d_{\text{final}}} = \frac{k(4A_{\text{initial}})(T_2 - T_1)}{2d_{\text{initial}}} = 2\frac{kA_{\text{initial}}(T_2 - T_1)}{d_{\text{initial}}} = 2\left(\frac{Q}{t}\right)_{\text{initial}}.$$
 14.36

## 14.6 Convection

## **LEARNING OBJECTIVES**

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

• Discuss the method of heat transfer by convection.

Convection is driven by large-scale flow of matter. In the case of Earth, the atmospheric circulation is caused by the flow of hot air from the tropics to the poles, and the flow of cold air from the poles toward the tropics. (Note that Earth's rotation causes the observed easterly flow of air in the northern hemisphere). Car engines are kept cool by the flow of water in the cooling system, with the water pump maintaining a flow of cool water to the pistons. The circulatory system is used the body: when the body overheats, the blood vessels in the skin expand (dilate), which increases the blood flow to the skin where it can be cooled by sweating. These vessels become smaller when it is cold outside and larger when it is hot (so more fluid flows, and more energy is transferred).

The body also loses a significant fraction of its heat through the breathing process.

While convection is usually more complicated than conduction, we can describe convection and do some straightforward, realistic calculations of its effects. Natural convection is driven by buoyant forces: hot air rises because density decreases as temperature increases. The house in Figure 14.17 is kept warm in this manner, as is the pot of water on the stove in Figure 14.18. Ocean currents and large-scale atmospheric circulation transfer energy from one part of the globe to another. Both are examples of natural convection.

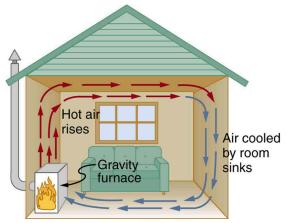


FIGURE 14.17 Air heated by the so-called gravity furnace expands and rises, forming a convective loop that transfers energy to other parts of the room. As the air is cooled at the ceiling and outside walls, it contracts, eventually becoming denser than room air and sinking to the floor. A properly designed heating system using natural convection, like this one, can be quite efficient in uniformly heating a home.

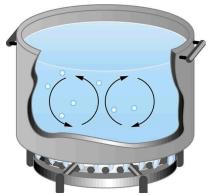


FIGURE 14.18 Convection plays an important role in heat transfer inside this pot of water. Once conducted to the inside, heat transfer to other parts of the pot is mostly by convection. The hotter water expands, decreases in density, and rises to transfer heat to other regions of the water, while colder water sinks to the bottom. This process keeps repeating.