# Rapid Calculation for Convective Heat Transfer in Laminar Boundary Layer by Gaussian Quadratures 

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#### Abstract

SUMMARY The integral of the form $\int_{0}^{\infty} \exp \left[-\operatorname{Pr} \int_{0}^{\pi} f(\zeta) d \zeta\right] d \eta$, which arises in the convective heat transfer with constant wall temperature, is integrated by using Gauss-Laguerre and Gauss-Legendre Quadrature formulae. It is shown that the Nusselt number can be expressed explicitly in terms of the Prandtl number and the method proposed in this paper is valid for wide range of Prandtl numbers. Exampies are given for the cases of flow over a semi-infinite plate and twodimensional and axisymmetrical stagnations. The results are compared with the exact solutions for Prandtl numbers ranging from 0.006 to 100 (flat plate) and 0.01 to 50 (two-dimensional and axisymmetrical stagnation flows).


## 1. Introduction

The theory of boundary layers and convective heat transfer in boundary layers has grown considerably since Prandtl introduced the concept of boundary layers in 1904. However, there was not a general method of solution for the velocity boundary-layer, and hence for the thermal boundary-layer equations, because the velocity field is a base for obtaining temperature field. There are several exact and approximate methods known in the literature [1, 2] for the calculation of both the wall friction and the heat transfer.

The exact solution method for the convective heat transfer problems is usually to find a coordinate transformation to transform momentum and energy equations to ordinary or partial differential equations and then simultaneously solve by numerical procedure. The presently existing numerical procedure is laborious and it can only be used for a given Prandtl number; it results in empirical laws which have no physical foundation. In order to avoid the lengthy exact calculations, several approximate methods have been developed. One of the best known approximate methods is that of Karman-Pohlhausen. Generally, this method is still troublesome and its accuracy is disappointing especially when applied to the heat transfer problems. Merk [3] and Meksyn [4] developed an asymptotic method which is capable of expressing the Nusselt number explicitly in terms of a negative power of Prandtl number in series form. For small value of Prandtl number ( $\operatorname{Pr)\text {,theseriesmaybecomedivergent}}$ and Euler's procedure for the evaluation of the series may be used, however, the result is not satisfactory when $\operatorname{Pr}<0.1$.

In this paper, a rapid method of calculating the convective heat transfer by means of Gaussian quadrature formulae is proposed. In what follows, we limit the consideration to the case of a steady, laminar incompressible flow with constant properties and negligible dissipation. Furthermore, the free stream and wall temperatures are assumed to be constant. Under such conditions, in many cases of convective heat transfer, the problem is reduced to the evaluation of an integral

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{0}^{\infty} \exp \left[-\operatorname{Pr} \int_{0}^{\eta} f(\zeta) d \zeta\right] d \eta \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\zeta$ is a dummy variable and $f(\eta)$ is a solution of the transformed momentum equation concerned. Let's consider a specific problem, for example, the heat transfer from a twodimensional or axisymmetrical body immersed in a laminar, incompressible stream. For these
cases we may introduce the coordinates $(x, y), x$ being the distance from the forward stagnation point measured along the circumference of the two-dimensional profile or median line of the axisymmetrical body, and $y$ being the normal distance from the wall of the body. The velocity components in $x$ - and $y$-directions are denoted by $u$ and $v$. For axisymmetrical bodies, we also introduce $r$, the distance from a surface element of the body to the axis of symmetry.

If one introduces:
the coordinate transformation:

$$
x\left\{\begin{array}{l}
x  \tag{2}\\
y
\end{array}\right\}\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\xi=\int_{0}^{x} \frac{U_{e}(x)}{U_{\infty}}\left(\frac{r}{L}\right)^{2 i} d x \\
\eta=\frac{1}{\left(2 v U_{\infty} \xi\right)^{d}} U_{e}\left(\frac{r}{L}\right)^{i} y
\end{array}\right.
$$

the stream function:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\psi=\left(2 \xi U_{\infty} v\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} f(\xi, \eta) \tag{3a}
\end{equation*}
$$

such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
u=\left(\frac{L}{r}\right)^{i} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y}, \quad v=-\left(\frac{L}{r}\right)^{i} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x}, \tag{3b}
\end{equation*}
$$

the dimensionless temperature:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\theta=\frac{T-T_{\infty}}{T_{w}-T_{\infty}} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

with $i=0,1$, respectively, for two-dimensional and axisymmetrical flows, $L$ the characteristic length, $U_{e}$ the velocity at the edge of the boundary layer, $U_{\infty}$ free stream velocity, $v$ the kinematic viscosity, $T_{\infty}$ and $T_{w}$ respectively, the free stream and wall temperatures into the momentum and energy equations and further apply the Meksyn's wedge approximation (zeroth order solution for the transformed momentum and energy equations) originally proposed by Merk [4], the local Nusselt number may be written by

$$
\begin{equation*}
N u_{\xi}=\frac{q_{w} \xi}{k\left(T_{w}-T_{\infty}\right)}=\frac{U_{e}}{U_{\infty}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left[-\theta_{0}^{\prime}(o)\right] \cdot \operatorname{Re} e_{\xi}^{\frac{1}{\xi}}\left(\frac{r}{L}\right)^{i} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

where Reynolds number $R e_{\xi}=U_{\infty} \xi / v$.
The quantity, $-\theta^{\prime}(o)$, is the negative dimensionless temperature gradient at the wall and is defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
-\theta^{\prime}(o)=\left[\int_{0}^{\infty} \exp \left(-\operatorname{Pr} \int_{0}^{\eta} f(\zeta) d \zeta\right) d \eta\right]^{-1} \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

in which $f$ satisfies

$$
\begin{equation*}
f^{\prime \prime \prime}+f f^{\prime \prime}+\beta\left(1-f^{\prime 2}\right)=0 \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

with boundary conditions

$$
\begin{equation*}
f=f^{\prime}=0 \quad \eta=0 \text { and } f^{\prime}=1 \quad \eta \rightarrow \infty . \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

In the above, the primes designate derivatives with respect to $\eta$ while $f$ is a function of $\eta$ only and $\beta$ is the "wedge variable" defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\beta=\frac{2 \xi}{U_{e}} \frac{d U_{e}}{d \xi} \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

The derivation of (5), (6) and (7) may be found in refs. [1,3,4] and will not be repeated here. For a flow past a wedge, the velocity at the edge of the boundary layer is given by $U_{e}(x)=C x^{m}$,
where $C$ and $m$ are constants. Under this condition, $\beta$ becomes a constant and (6) and (7) yield exact results. Equation (7) has been solved by Howarth [5] for $\beta=0$, Hiemenz [6] for $\beta=1$, Frössling [7] for $\beta=\frac{1}{2}$ and by Hartree [8] for $\beta$ ranging from -0.198 to 2.4. Their resuits are summarized in refs. $[1,2]$. The value of $f(\eta)$ together with $f^{\prime}$ and $f^{\prime \prime} \star$ is given by a table of numerical values which $f, f^{\prime}$ and $f^{\prime \prime}$ assume for a discrete set of their arguments. Equation (6) has been calculated numerically by Eckert [9], Pohlhausen [10] for some specified value of $\beta$ and Pr. Asymptotic expansion of (6) was derived by Merk [3] using the method of steepest descent. In this paper, an entirely new approximate solution method is developed for the numerical integration of (6) by means of Gaussian quadrature formulae. The method is simple and the numerical calculation is rapid and yet the method will provide the highest accuracy possible.

## 2. Analysis

## Gaussian Quadrature

In the convective heat transfer with constant wall temperature, we are primarily interested in evaluating the surface heat flux. Thus, the quantities desired are of equation (6) and the question as to the best quadrature formula for the numerical evaluation of the integral of the form $\int_{0}^{\infty} \Phi(\eta) d \eta$ is therefore of considerable practical interest. In this section, we like to discuss how we can develop the quadrature for such a purpose.

Let's consider quite generally the integral

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{a}^{b} W(\eta) \Phi(\eta) d \eta \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

between two assigned limits $a$ and $b$ of a continuous function $\Phi(\eta)$ weighted by some known function $W(\eta)$. Suppose that $\Phi(\eta)$ stands for a more general type of a function whose primitive function may not be easily ascertained by the method of formal analysis and under such circumstances analytical integration of (10) proves of little hope; moreover, in the convective heat transfer, $\Phi(\eta)$ is not known in its analytical form but merely specified by a table of numerical values at a discrete set of its arguments of $\eta$ 's, and the indefinite integral methods become altogether inapplicable. However, the integration of (10) may be approximately achieved by numerical quadrature formulae.

According to the Weierstrass' theorem on polynomial approximation, any arbitrary continuous function defined in a finite interval $a \leqq n \leqq b$ can be approximated over the whole interval ( $a, b$ ) to any accuracy by a polynomial of sufficiently high degree [11]. Let's now interpolate the function $\Phi(\eta)$ which appears in the integral (10) by a polynomial of $(2 n-1)$ degree and the remainder term, if $\Phi(\eta)$ is of a degree higher than $(2 n-1)$. Using Hermite's interpolation formula for polynomial, we write

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Phi(\eta)=\sum_{j=1}^{n} h_{j}(\eta) \Phi\left(\eta_{j}\right)+\sum_{j=1}^{n} g_{j}(\eta) \Phi^{(1)}\left(\eta_{j}\right)+\frac{\Phi^{(2 n)}(\lambda)}{(2 n)!}\left[P_{n}(\eta)\right]^{2} \tag{11a}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{align*}
& h_{j}(\eta)=\left[1-\left(\eta-\eta_{j}\right) \frac{P_{n}^{(2)}\left(\eta_{j}\right)}{P_{n}^{(1)}\left(\eta_{j}\right)}\right]\left[l_{j}(\eta)\right]^{2}  \tag{11b}\\
& g_{j}(\eta)=\left(\eta-\eta_{j}\right)\left[l_{j}(\eta)\right]^{2}  \tag{11c}\\
& l_{j}(\eta)=\frac{P_{n}(\eta)}{\left(\eta-\eta_{j}\right) P_{n}^{(1)}\left(\eta_{j}\right)} \tag{11d}
\end{align*}
$$

$P_{n}(\eta)$ is a polynomial of degree $n$ abbreviated by

[^0]\[

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{n}(\eta)=\prod_{j=1}^{n}\left(\eta-\eta_{j}\right) \tag{11e}
\end{equation*}
$$

\]

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{n}^{(1)}\left(\eta_{j}\right)=\left(\frac{d P_{n}}{d \eta}\right)_{\eta=\eta_{J}}=\prod_{i \neq j}\left(\eta_{j}-\eta_{i}\right) . \tag{11f}
\end{equation*}
$$

In the above, the $\eta_{j}$ 's denote $n$ discrete abscissae at which the polynomial will take the same value of $\Phi(\eta)$ and $\Phi^{(1)}(\eta)$ as $\Phi$ does.

When $\Phi(\eta)$ is a polynomial of degree $(2 n-1)$ or less, $\Phi^{(2 n)}(\eta)=0$ and the remainder term on the right-hand side of equation (11a) vanishes. The value $\lambda$ appearing in the remainder term denotes some value of the variable within the interval $a<\lambda<b$ and will, however, vary with $\eta$. Actually, $\lambda$ is merely defined in such a way that to every value of an interpolated $\eta$, there corresponds at least one value of $\lambda$ such that $a<\eta<b$, which renders equation (11a) exact. It should be kept in mind that we are, of course, unable to determine the actual values of $\Phi^{(2 n)}(\lambda)$ since the function $\Phi(\eta)$ is unknown.

To evaluate the numerical integral of (10), we substitute (11) into (10) and obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{a}^{b} W(\eta) \Phi(\eta) d \eta=\sum_{j=1}^{n} H_{j} \Phi\left(\eta_{j}\right)+\sum_{j=1}^{n} G_{j} \Phi^{(1)}\left(\eta_{j}\right)+\int_{a}^{b} W \frac{\Phi^{(2 n)}(\lambda)}{(2 n)!}\left[P_{n}(\eta)\right]^{2} d \eta \tag{12a}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{align*}
H_{j} & =\int_{a}^{b} W h_{j}(\eta) d \eta=\int_{a}^{b} W l_{j}^{2}(\eta) d \eta-\frac{P_{n}^{(2)}\left(\eta_{j}\right)}{P_{n}^{(1)}\left(\eta_{j}\right)} \int_{a}^{b} W l_{j}^{2}(\eta)\left(\eta-\eta_{j}\right) d \eta  \tag{12b}\\
G_{j} & =\int_{a}^{b} W g_{j}(\eta) d \eta=\int_{a}^{b} W l_{j}^{2}(\eta)\left(\eta-\eta_{j}\right) d \eta \tag{12c}
\end{align*}
$$

Thus, (10) may be approximately integrated by neglecting the last term (error term) in (12a). If $\Phi(\eta)$ is of degree not in excess of $(2 n-1)$, (12a) is exact without the error term. There are $n$ abscissae, namely $\eta_{j}(j=1,2, \ldots, n)$, remaining to be determined. In the method of NewtonCotes, all the abscissae $\eta_{j}$ are equally spaced within the interval of integration, but Gauss showed that it would be advantageous to choose $\eta_{j}$ differently. He has shown that if $\eta_{j}$ 's are chosen as roots of such an orthogonal polynomial $P_{n}(\eta)$ satisfying the following orthogonality conditions [11],

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{a}^{b} P_{n}(\eta) W(\eta) \eta^{l} d \eta=0 \quad(l=0,1, \ldots, n-1) \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

then $G_{j}=0$ and $H_{j}$ reduces to

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{j}=\int_{a}^{b} W l_{j}^{2}(\eta) d \eta=\int_{a}^{b} W l_{j}(\eta) d \eta \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

Another advantage of determining $P_{n}(\eta)$ by the orthogonality condition (13) and defining $\eta_{j}^{\prime} \mathrm{s}$ as the zeros of $P_{n}(\eta)$ is minimization of error term of the corresponding quadrature formula. It is thus clear that Gaussian determination of $P_{n}(\eta)$ and $\eta_{j}$ 's indeed plays a double roll, namely, it eliminates one half of the $2 n$ terms of the right-hand side of (12a), thus enabling us to express the integral of a polynomial $\Phi(\eta)$ of degree $(2 n-1)$ exactly as a weighted mean of its $n$ particular values $\Phi\left(\eta_{j}\right)$, and at the same time assures us that error committed by neglecting the error term will be a minimum. By neglecting the error term, an approximate evaluation of the integral is then obtained by the formula

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{a}^{b} W(\eta) \Phi(\eta)=\sum_{j=1}^{n} H_{j} \Phi\left(\eta_{j}\right) . \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

In the previous analysis, so far we have assumed both limits of integration $(a, b)$ to be finite numbers, however, by appropriate selection of the weighted function $W(\eta)$, the theory and equation will continue to apply for infinite limits.

## Solution for a Flat Plate

This is a particular case of problems with $\beta=0$ in (7). It can, however, be treated simpler as a separate problem; and in view of its importance, it will be considered in detail. In this case, we have $i=0, U_{e}=U_{\infty}, \xi=x$. We further modify the coordinate $\eta$ and stream function $\psi$ by a factor of $2^{\frac{1}{2}}$ so that the numerical table prepared by Howarth $[2,5]$ is at our disposal for heat transfer calculation.

We let

$$
\begin{equation*}
\eta=y \sqrt{\frac{U_{\infty}}{\nu x}} \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\psi=\left(U_{\infty} x y\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} f(x, \eta) . \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

Hence, (6) becomes

$$
\begin{equation*}
-\theta^{\prime}(o)=\left[\int_{0}^{\infty} \exp \left(-\frac{P r}{2} \int_{0}^{\eta} f d \zeta\right) d \eta\right]^{-1} \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

in which $f$ satisfies

$$
\begin{equation*}
f^{\prime \prime \prime}+\frac{1}{2} f f^{\prime \prime}=0 \tag{19}
\end{equation*}
$$

with boundary conditions

$$
f=f^{\prime}=0 \text { at } \eta=0, \quad f^{\prime}=1 \text { as } \eta \rightarrow \infty .
$$

If one denotes the Reynolds number $R e_{x}$ by $U_{\infty} x / v$ and Nusselt number $N u$ by $q_{w} x /\left\{k\left(T_{w}-T_{\infty}\right)\right\}$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
N u R e_{x}^{-\frac{1}{2}}=-\theta^{\prime}(o) \tag{20}
\end{equation*}
$$

Averaging the Nusselt number over the length $L$ of the plate, we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
\overline{N u} R e_{L}^{-\frac{1}{2}}=-2 \theta^{\prime}(o) \tag{21}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $R e_{L}=U_{\infty} L / v$. Equation (18) was originally integrated numerically by Pohlhausen [10]. In this section, we like to demonstrate how well and easily the application of (15) to evaluate (18) can be practically done. For that purpose, we write

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{0}^{\infty} \exp \left(-\frac{\operatorname{Pr}}{2} \int_{0}^{\eta} f d \zeta\right) d \eta=\int_{0}^{\infty} \exp (-\eta) \exp \left[\eta+\operatorname{Pr} \ln \frac{f^{\prime \prime}(\eta)}{f^{\prime \prime}(o)}\right] d \eta \tag{22}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since

$$
\int_{0}^{\eta} f d \zeta=-2 \ln \frac{f^{\prime \prime}(\eta)}{f^{\prime \prime}(o)}
$$

To evaluate (22) by using (15), we let

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{0}^{\infty} \mathrm{e}^{-\eta} \Phi(\eta) d \eta=\sum_{j=1}^{n} H_{j} \Phi\left(\eta_{j}\right) \tag{23}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{equation*}
W(\eta)=\mathrm{e}^{-\eta} \tag{24}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Phi\left(\eta_{j}\right)=\exp \left[\eta_{j}+\operatorname{Pr} \ln \frac{f^{\prime \prime}\left(\eta_{j}\right)}{f^{\prime \prime}(o)}\right] \tag{25}
\end{equation*}
$$

The orthogonal polynomial satisfying (13) with $a=0, b=\infty$ and $W(\eta)=\mathrm{e}^{-\eta}$ is a Laguerre
polynomial defined in ref. [11] and can be written as:

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{n}(\eta)=\frac{\mathrm{e}^{\eta}}{n!} \frac{d^{n}}{d \eta^{n}}\left(\mathrm{e}^{-\eta} \eta^{n}\right) \tag{26}
\end{equation*}
$$

and hence, $H_{j}$ becomes

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{j}=\frac{1}{\eta_{j}}\left[P_{n}^{(1)}\left(\eta_{j}\right)\right]^{-2} . \tag{27}
\end{equation*}
$$

It follows that (18) becomes

$$
\begin{equation*}
-\theta^{\prime}(o)=\frac{\left[f^{\prime \prime}(o)\right]^{P r}}{\sum_{j=1}^{n} H_{j} \mathrm{e}^{\eta_{j}}\left[f^{\prime \prime}\left(\eta_{j}\right)\right]^{P r}} \tag{28}
\end{equation*}
$$

in which the $\eta_{j} ’ s(j=1,2, \ldots, n)$ are the roots of Laguerre polynomials. The values of $\eta_{j}$ together with the corresponding $H_{j}$ are calculated by Salzer and Zucker [12]^. The results of $f^{\prime \prime}(\eta)$ calculated by Howarth are tabulated for $\eta=0(0.2) 8.8$ in ref. [2] and $f^{\prime \prime}\left(\eta_{j}\right)$ may not be known to us directly from the table. However, its value may be obtained by means of Taylor's extrapolation formula

$$
\begin{equation*}
f^{\prime \prime}\left(\eta_{j}\right)=\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}\left(\eta_{0}\right)}{(n-2)!}\left(\eta_{j}-\eta_{0}\right)^{n-2} \tag{29}
\end{equation*}
$$

with

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f^{(3)}=-\frac{1}{2} f f^{(2)}, \quad f^{(4)}=-\frac{1}{2}\left[f f^{(3)}+f^{(1)} f^{(2)}\right] \\
& f^{(5)}=-\frac{1}{2}\left[f f^{(4)}+2 f^{(1)} f^{(3)}+\left(f^{\left.(2)^{2}\right)}\right)\right] \\
& f^{(6)}=-\frac{1}{2}\left[f f^{(5)}+3 f^{(1)} f^{(4)}+4 f^{(2)} f^{(3)}\right] \quad \text { etc. }
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\eta_{0}$ is the closest possible abscissa to $\eta_{j}$ given in the table $\left(\eta_{0}<\eta_{j}\right)$. For large value of $\eta_{j}$ (say $\eta_{j}>7$ ), the asymptotic equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
f^{\prime \prime}\left(\eta_{j}\right)=\gamma \exp \left[-\frac{1}{4}\left(\eta_{j}-\beta\right)^{2}\right] \tag{30}
\end{equation*}
$$

with $\gamma=0.231$ and $\beta=1.73$ may be used for advantage to evaluate $f^{\prime \prime}\left(\eta_{j}\right)$. Values of $H_{j}$ and $f^{\prime \prime}\left(\eta_{j}\right)$ for the corresponding $\eta_{j}$ are listed in Table 1 for the six values of $n$ shown.
$-\theta^{\prime}(o)$ calculated by means of (28) using $n=1,2,3,4,5$ and 15 are listed in Table 2 for Prandtl numbers ranging from 0.006 to 100 . The results may be compared with the exact values available in the literature.

It can be seen how well the lower orders of approximation represent the exact solution. For $0.1 \leqq \operatorname{Pr} \leqq 10$, four terms ( $n=4$ ) in (28) are sufficient if the desired accuracy does not exceed $2 \%$. Using 5 terms, the error is less than $0.7 \%$ for $0.1 \leqq \operatorname{Pr} \leqq 1.1$. Equation (28) with 15 terms leads to surprisingly good results even to the fourth decimal place for $0.6 \leqq \operatorname{Pr} \leqq 1.1$, and for $0.006 \leqq$ $\operatorname{Pr} \leqq 0.5$ the error is less than $0.3 \%$ while for $1.1<\operatorname{Pr} \leqq 15$ the error is about $0.4 \%$. The deviation becomes slightly large as $\operatorname{Pr}$ increases. The reason for this is that when $\operatorname{Pr}$ becomes large, thickness of the thermal boundary layer is thin and is only a small fraction of the momentum boundary layer thickness. Thus, the main contribution to the integral of (22) comes from the line integral along the real axis $\eta$ at the vicinity of the wall $(\eta=0)$. This phenomenon may also be clearly seen from (28). Although we have employed 15 terms in the calculation, only the first few terms containing small $\eta_{j}$ contribute to the summation when Prandtl number becomes large. Thus, for large Prandtl numbers, a higher order approximation is required if a more accurate result is desired.

[^1]TABLE 1
Value of $\eta_{j}, H_{j}$ and $f^{\prime \prime}\left(\eta_{j}\right)$ in the equation (28) and $F\left(\eta_{j}\right)$ in the equation (31) for the calculation of Nusselt number*

|  | $\eta_{i}$ | $H_{j}$ | $f^{\prime \prime}\left(\eta_{j}\right)$ | $F\left(\eta_{j}\right)$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & \beta=1 \\ & \text { (2 Dim. } \\ & \text { stagnation) } \end{aligned}$ | $\beta=\frac{1}{2}$ <br> (Axisymmetrical) |
| $n=1$ | 1 | 1 | 0.32301 |  |  |
| $n=2$ | 0.58579 | 0.85355 | 0.33022 |  |  |
|  | 3.41421. | 0.14645 | 0.11642 |  |  |
| $n=3$ | 0.41577 | 0.71109 | 0.33140 |  |  |
|  | 2.29428 | 0.27852 | 0.23900 |  |  |
|  | 6.28995 | 0.(1)10389 | 0.(2)12765 |  |  |
| $n=4$ | 0.32255 | 0.60315 | 0.33176 |  |  |
|  | 1.74576 | 0.35742 | 0.28691 |  |  |
|  | 4.53662 | 0.(1)38888 | 0.(1)32276 |  |  |
|  | 9.39507 | $0 .(3) 53929$ | Eq. (30) |  |  |
| $n=5$ | 0.26356 | 0.52176 | 0.33190 |  |  |
|  | 1.41340 | 0.39867 | 0.30719 |  |  |
|  | 3.59643 | $0 .(1) 75942$ | 0.(1)98427 |  |  |
|  | 7.08581 | $0 .(2) 36118$ |  |  |  |
|  | 12.64080 | 0.(4)23370 |  |  |  |
| $n=15$ | 0.(1)93308 | 0.21823 | 0.33205 | 0.(3)16372 | 0.(3)12404 |
|  | 0.49269 | 0.34221 | 0.33096 | 0.(1)22141 | 0.(1)17273 |
|  | 1.21560 | 0.26303 | 0.31600 | 0.28311 | 0.23259 |
|  | 2.26995 | 0.12643 | 0.24145 | 1.46368 | 1.27702 |
|  | 3.66762 | 0.(1)40207 | 0.(1)91798 | 4.70899 | 4.30642 |
|  | 5.42534 | 0.(2)85637 | 0.(2) 75676 | 11.56649 | 10.88359 |
|  | 7.56592 | 0.(2) 12124 |  | 24.09730 | 23.06575 |
|  | 10.12023 | 0.(3)11167 |  | 45.04032 | 43.59847 |
|  | 13.13029 | 0.(5)64599 |  | 78.08613 | 76.16927 |
|  | 16.65441 | 0.(6)22263 |  | 128.28209 | 125.81624 |
|  | 20.77648 | 0.(8)42274 | Eq. (30) | 202.75360 | 199.64589 |
|  | 25.62389 | 0.(10) 39219 |  | 312.09061 | 308.20675 |
|  | 31.40752 | $0 .(12) 14565$ |  | 473.26244 | 468.47721 |
|  | 38.53068 | $0 .(15) 14830$ |  | 717.74434 | 711.83672 |
|  | 48.02609 | $0 .(19) 16006$ | $\downarrow$ | 1122.53610 | 1115.14200 |

* (a) $\eta_{j}$ and $H_{j}$ were originally calculated to twelve significant decimal figures. We have truncated them to five.
(b) The number in the parentheses stands for the number of zeros between the decimal point and the first significant figure.
(c) The following asymptotic equations for $f(\zeta)$ were used in the calculation of $F\left(\eta_{j}\right)$ in (37) for large $\zeta$ :
$\beta=\frac{1}{2} f(\zeta)=\zeta+0.393 \exp \left(-\frac{1}{2} \zeta^{2}\right)\left(\zeta^{-3}-6 \zeta^{-5}+45 \zeta^{-7}+\ldots\right) \quad \zeta>4.4$
$\beta=1 f(\zeta)=\zeta+0.645 \exp \left(-\frac{1}{2} \zeta^{2}\right)\left(\frac{1}{2} \zeta^{-2}-6 \zeta^{-6}+\ldots\right) \quad \zeta>4.4$


## Solution for Arbitrary Values of $\beta$

In this section, we shall demonstrate that by the proposed method, one can also calculate the Nusselt number for $\beta \neq 0$, i.e. for boundary layers with longitudinal pressure gradient. To this end, applying Gauss-Laguerre quadrature, we write (6) as

$$
\begin{equation*}
-\theta^{\prime}(o)=\left\{\sum_{j=1}^{n} H_{j} \exp \left[\eta_{j}-\operatorname{Pr} F\left(\eta_{j}\right)\right]\right\}^{-1} \tag{31}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

TABLE 2
Comparison of results for $-\theta^{\prime}(o)$ for flat plate

| $\operatorname{Pr}$ | $n=1$ | $n=2$ | $n=3$ | $n=4$ | $n=5$ | $n=15$ | Exact* |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0.006 | 0.3679 | 0.1679 | 0.1081 | 0.08068 | 0.06971 | 0.04084 | 0.04073 |
| 0.01 | 0.3680 | 0.1684 | 0.1095 | 0.08325 | 0.07341 | 0.05161 | 0.05159 |
| 0.1 | 0.3689 | 0.1805 | 0.1437 | 0.1395 | 0.1410 | 0.1393 | 0.1381 |
| 0.5 | 0.3730 | 0.2401 | 0.2656 | 0.2583 | 0.2589 | 0.2593 | 0.2591 |
| 0.6 | 0.3740 | 0.2563 | 0.2824 | 0.2773 | 0.2759 | 0.2769 | 0.2769 |
| 0.7 | 0.3751 | 0.2729 | 0.2955 | 0.2948 | 0.2911 | 0.2927 | 0.2927 |
| 0.8 | 0.3761 | 0.2898 | 0.3064 | 0.3109 | 0.3053 | 0.3069 | 0.3069 |
| 0.9 | 0.3771 | 0.3069 | 0.3157 | 0.3254 | 0.3186 | 0.3200 | 0.3200 |
| 1.0 | 0.3782 | 0.3241 | 0.3242 | 0.3385 | 0.3314 | 0.3320 | 0.3320 |
| 1.1 | 0.3792 | 0.3414 | 0.3321 | 0.3502 | 0.3435 | 0.3434 | 0.3434 |
| 7.0 | 0.4464 | 0.6768 | 0.7467 | 0.6395 | 0.6144 | 0.6471 | 0.6459 |
| 10 | 0.4850 | 0.6895 | 0.8624 | 0.7691 | 0.7001 | 0.7289 | 0.7282 |
| 15 | 0.5568 | 0.7091 | 0.9382 | 0.9522 | 0.8445 | 0.8305 | 0.8341 |
| 50 | 1.4646 | 0.8623 | 1.0250 | 1.2542 | 1.4359 | 1.2691 | 1.2472 |
| 100 | 5.8312 | 1.1401 | 1.1322 | 1.3144 | 1.5436 | 1.5456 | 1.5718 |

* The exact numerical results are obtained from the following references for the Prandtl numbers indicated.
$\operatorname{Pr}$ from 0.6 to 15, Originally calculated by E. Pohlhausen [10] to three figures and recalculated by Merk [3] to four figures.
$P r=0.1$ and 0.5, from ref. [3].
$\operatorname{Pr}=0.006$ and 0.01 , from ref. [13].
$\operatorname{Pr}=50$ and 100, Calculated by us using the asymptotic solution given in ref. [3].

$$
\begin{equation*}
F\left(\eta_{j}\right)=\int_{0}^{\eta_{j}} f(\zeta) d \zeta \tag{32}
\end{equation*}
$$

Equation (32) can not be integrated in its analytical form when $\beta \neq 0$. Here, we propose to evaluate (32) by using Gauss-Legendre quadrature. Let's introduce a transformation:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\chi=\frac{2 \zeta-\eta_{j}}{\eta_{j}} \tag{33}
\end{equation*}
$$

Therefore,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{0}^{\eta_{j}} f(\zeta) d \zeta=\frac{\eta_{j}}{2} \int_{-1}^{1} \bar{f}(\chi) d \chi \tag{34}
\end{equation*}
$$

Comparing the integral

$$
\int_{-1}^{1} \bar{f}(\chi) d \chi
$$

with (10), one finds $a=-1, b=1$ and $W(\chi)=1$ and the orthogonal polynomial satisfying (13) under these conditions is the Legendre polynomial of degree $m$, (to avoid the confusion in the following analysis, we replace $n$ in (13) by $m$ ) defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{m}(\chi)=\frac{1}{2^{m} m!} \frac{d^{m}}{d \chi^{m}}\left(\chi^{2}-1\right)^{m} \tag{35}
\end{equation*}
$$

and the corresponding weight coefficient $H_{\mathrm{i}}$ reduces to the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{i}=\frac{2}{\left(1-\chi_{i}^{2}\right)\left[P_{m}^{(1)}\left(\chi_{i}\right)\right]^{2}} \tag{36}
\end{equation*}
$$

in which $\chi_{i}$ are roots of the Legendre polynomials $P_{m}(\chi)$. The $\chi_{i}$ and the corresponding values of $H_{i}$ were calculated by Lowan, Davids and Levenson [14] for $m=2(1) 16$ to fifteen decimal places. (Their results will also be found in ref. [11]). For convenience, we reproduce their value

TABLE 3
Roots and weight coefficients of the Gaussian-Legendre quadrature formula to be used in (37)
$m=16$

| $\pm \chi_{i}$ | $H_{i}$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| 0.98940 | 0.027152 |
| 0.94458 | 0.062254 |
| 0.86563 | 0.095159 |
| 0.75540 | 0.12463 |
| 0.61788 | 0.14960 |
| 0.45802 | 0.16916 |
| 0.28160 | 0.18260 |
| 0.095013 | 0.18945 |

for $m=16$ in Table 3 to five significant decimal figures, since these data will be used in our numerical calculation later. Equation (32) can be re-written as

$$
\begin{equation*}
F\left(\eta_{j}\right)=\frac{\eta_{j}}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{m} H_{i} \bar{f}\left(\chi_{i}\right)=\frac{\eta_{j}}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{m} H_{i} f\left(\zeta_{i}\right) \tag{37}
\end{equation*}
$$

with

$$
\zeta_{i}=\frac{\eta_{j}\left(\chi_{i}+1\right)}{2} .
$$

The value of $f\left(\zeta_{i}\right)$ may not be known to us directly from the table since $f$ is usually tabulated for a discrete set of its abscissa. However, $f\left(\zeta_{i}\right)$ may be calculated by means of Taylor's extrapolation formula

$$
\begin{equation*}
f\left(\zeta_{i}\right)=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}\left(\zeta_{0}\right)}{n!}\left(\zeta_{i}-\zeta_{0}\right)^{n} \tag{38}
\end{equation*}
$$

with

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f^{(3)}\left(\zeta_{0}\right)=-f^{(0)} f^{(2)}-\beta\left[1-\left(f^{(1)}\right)^{2}\right] \\
& f^{(4)}\left(\zeta_{0}\right)=-f^{(0)} f^{(3)}-f^{(1)} f^{(2)}+2 \beta f^{(1)} f^{(2)} \\
& f^{(5)}\left(\zeta_{0}\right)=-f^{(0)} f^{(4)}+2(\beta-1) f^{(1)} f^{(3)}+(2 \beta-1)\left(f^{(2)}\right)^{2} \\
& f^{(6)}\left(\zeta_{0}\right)=-f^{(0)} f^{(5)}+(2 \beta-3) f^{(1)} f^{(4)}+2(3 \beta-2) f^{(2)} f^{(3)}, \text { etc. }
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\zeta_{0}$ is the closest possible abscissa to be given in the table $\left(\zeta_{0}<\zeta_{i}\right)$. After substituting the known values of $f\left(\zeta_{0}\right), f^{(1)}\left(\zeta_{0}\right)$ and $f^{(2)}\left(\zeta_{0}\right)$ into (38), the values of $f^{(n)}\left(\zeta_{0}\right)$ and $f\left(\zeta_{i}\right)$ may readily be obtained. When any $\zeta_{i}$ becomes large, the asymptotic equation for $f(\zeta)$ may be used. If $\eta_{j}$ is small, the following alternative formula may also be used for evaluating $F\left(\eta_{j}\right)$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
F\left(\eta_{j}\right)=\eta_{j}^{3} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n+2)}(o)}{(n+3)!} \eta_{j}^{n} \tag{39}
\end{equation*}
$$

with

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f^{(2)}(o)=c \quad f^{(3)}(o)=-\beta, \quad f^{(4)}(o)=0 \\
& f^{(5)}(o)=c^{2}(2 \beta-1), \quad f^{(6)}(o)=2 c \beta(2-3 \beta), \text { etc. }
\end{aligned}
$$

Numerical values of $F\left(\eta_{j}\right)$ using (37) with $m=16$ were calculated by us and listed in Table 1 for $\beta=1$ (two-dimensional front stagnation point) and $\beta=\frac{1}{2}$ (axisymmetrical front stagnation point) along with the corresponding $\eta_{j}$ for $n=15$. With $F\left(\eta_{j}\right)$ known, $-\theta^{\prime}(o)$ can be determined from (31) for any desired value of Prandtl number. The results are shown in Table 4. For the

TABLE 4
Comparison of results for $-\theta^{\prime}(o)$ for $\beta=\frac{1}{2}$ and 1

| Pr |
| :--- |
| $\beta=1\left\{\begin{array}{lllllll}\text { Exact } & 0.01 & 0.1 & 0.7 & 1 & 10 & 50 \\ \text { from (31) } \\ \text { with } n=15\end{array}\right.$ |
| $\beta=\frac{0}{2}\left\{\begin{array}{llllll}\text { Exact } & 0.07598 & 0.2195 & 0.4959 & 0.5704 & 1.3389 \\ \text { from (31) } & 0.2195 & 0.4959 & 0.5704 & 1.3507 & 2.3533 \\ \text { with } n=15 & 0.07512 & 0.2132 & 0.4705 & 0.5389 & 1.2389 \\ (+.6 \%)\end{array}\right.$ |

purpose of comparison, included are the exact numerical solutions computed by us using electronic computer. It appears that our equation (31) with $n=15$ leads to satisfactory agreement with the exact value even to the fourth decimal place for Prandtl numbers ranging from 0.01 to 1 . The accuracy seems decreasing as $P r$ increases. The reáson for this phenomena is explained in the previous section, and if a more accurate result is desired, the higher order terms in (31) are required.

## Concluding Remarks

As has been demonstrated in the text, by applying the Gaussian quadratures, Nusselt number may be expressed explicitly in terms of the Prandtl number. A great advantage of the present approximation method is that no physical hypothesis is needed; the simplifications introduced are of mathematical nature. The calculations may be refined in a straightforward way by considering more terms in the quadrature formula to any desired degree of accuracy. It may be expected that successive refinements converge towards the exact solution. However, for large Prandtl number (say $P r>10$ ), its convergence is rather slow. The lower order approximation ( $n=4$ or 5 ) will provide a rapid method of obtaining the approximate solution for engineering heat transfer problems.

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[^0]:    * Only for $\beta=0, \beta=\frac{1}{2}$ and $\beta=1$. For other values of $\beta$, Hartree gave only the value $f^{\prime}(\eta)$ and $f^{\prime \prime}(0)$. However, $f(\eta)$ and $f^{\prime \prime}(\eta)$ may be calculated by Taylor's serics.
    ** The superscript in the parenthesis denotes order of the derivative.

[^1]:    * Their data are also reproduced in ref. [11].

