

# Size effects of small-scale beams in bending addressed with a strain-difference based nonlocal elasticity theory

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## Abstract

A strain-difference based nonlocal elasticity model devised by the authors elsewhere (Polizzotto et al., Int. J. Solids Struct. 25 (2006) 308–333) is applied to small-scale homogeneous beam models in bending under static loads in the purpose to describe the inherent size effects. With this theory —belonging to the strain-integral nonlocal model family, but exempt from anomalies typical of the Eringen nonlocal theory— the relevant beam problem is reduced to a set of three mutually independent Fredholm integral equations of the second kind (each independent of the beam’s ordinary boundary conditions, only one depends on the given load), which can be routinely solved numerically. Applications to five cases of beam samples (usually addressed in the literature) are performed, the obtained results are graphically illustrated and compared with analogous results from the literature. Size effects of *stiffening* type are found for all beam samples, in agreement with the analogous results obtained with the well-known and widely accepted strain gradient elasticity model. Analogous size effects are expected to be predicted for other multi-dimensional structures, all of which seems to confirm the *smaller-is-stiffer* phenomenon.

*Keywords:* Beam theory, Nonlocal elasticity, Beam structures, Size effects

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## 1. Introduction

The behavior of beam structures at micro- and nano-scales has been widely studied within the nonlocal (stress-gradient) elasticity theory advanced by Eringen (1983, 2002). This theory is characterized by a stress-strain relation of integral type, in which the stress (conventionally called “nonlocal”) measured at a point is expressed as a weighted mean value in terms of the strain (conventionally called “local”) measured at all points within the domain occupied by the material. Additionally, the kernel function of this integral relationship (through which a length scale parameter for the underlined microstructure is carried in) is taken coincident with the Green function of a Helmholtz differential equation in the nonlocal stress, such that the solution of the integral equation may be equivalently obtained as the solution of the differential equation. Eringen (1983, 2002) provided mathematical forms of the kernel function for one-, two- and three-dimensional domains and probed them by comparisons of the dispersion curves of Rayleigh surface waves and of screw dislocations obtained by means of the proposed nonlocal theory with the analogous curves obtained by means of atomistic lattice dynamics (Wang and Hu, 2005; Zhang et al., 2006; Heireche et al., 2008; Khorshidi and Fallah, 2016; Shaat and Abdelkefi, 2017; Patra et al., 2018).

The Eringen nonlocal elasticity described above, here (as often in the literature) referred to as the nonlocal “differential”, or “stress-gradient”, model, constitutes an appealing conceptual framework for the study of the size effects exhibited by small scale structures due to the inhomogeneities and defects of the inherent microstructure. There exists a huge literature in which this theory is applied to beam and plate models simulating sensors and actuators within modern micro- and nano-technologies. Here we just mention a few representative works as (Peddieson et al., 2003; Sudak, 2003; Reddy, 2007; Gibson et al., 2007; Kumar et al., 2008; Pin Lu et al., 2007; Aydogdu, 2009; Eltaher et al., 2016; Reddy, 2010; Wang and Arash, 2014; Li et al., 2015; Xu et al., 2016; Eptaimeros et al., 2016; Rafii et al., 2016; Faroughi et al., 2017).

Two decades after its birth, the Eringen nonlocal differential elasticity theory was applied by Peddieson et al. (2003) to simple nanobeams in bending simulating sensors and actuators devices within micro- and nano-technologies for which clear predictions of size-dependent effects were expected. It was found that this theory is not able by its own nature to predict size effects in a cantilever beam subjected to point load(s), but it predicts stiffening

38 size effects for the same beam under a uniform load, whereas it in general  
39 predicts softening size effects for beams with different constraint conditions.  
40 Anomalous results were also found for a beam under free vibration (Lu et  
41 al., 2006) and buckling condition (Sudak, 2003), and for a rod in tension  
42 (Benvenuti and Simone, 2013).

43 These anomalies were subsequently addressed by many researchers, who  
44 advanced remedies to overcome them. For instance, we recall (Polizzotto,  
45 2001; Pisano and Fuschi, 2003; Benvenuti and Simone, 2013; Khodabakhshi  
46 and Reddy, 2015; Wang et al., 2016), where a two-phase local/nonlocal model  
47 is used in place of the Eringen’s fully nonlocal one; (Challamel et al., 2016),  
48 where the Eringen’s fully nonlocal model is used, but the solution is searched  
49 out of the usual displacement continuity framework; (Challamel and Wang,  
50 2008; Lim et al., 2015; Xu et al., 2017a,b), where a hybrid model is used,  
51 which is formed up by the Eringen’s nonlocal stress-gradient model cou-  
52 pled with a strain gradient one, such that the material behavior is governed  
53 by two different types of length scale parameters; (Fernández-Sáez et al.,  
54 2016; Wang et al., 2016), where the nonlocal bending moment solution is  
55 found as a solution of the Helmholtz differential equation accompanied by  
56 special boundary conditions (known from integral equation theory, see Tri-  
57 comi (1985); Polyanin and Manzhirov (2008)) which in principle guarantee  
58 the equivalence between the differential problem and the nonlocal one; (Tuna  
59 and Kirca, 2016), where mathematical procedures of integral equation theory  
60 are applied to derive “exact” solutions to the Eringen’s nonlocal beam prob-  
61 lem (indeed a problem known to admit no solution (Romano and Barretta  
62 (2016)).

63 Mention is also given of a research stream within micro/nano-technologies,  
64 in which suitable forms of the Eringen nonlocal theory are used to solve  
65 nonlinear problems. Within this framework we recall (Vila et al., 2017) in  
66 which one-dimensional solids in vibration are addressed, obtained through  
67 a continualization procedure from a discrete molecular model undergoing  
68 large displacements; (Sahmani and Aghdam, 2017a,b) where the instability  
69 of nonlocal nano-shells is addressed; (Lu et al., 2017) where a nonlocal strain  
70 gradient theory is used to study nano-beams in vibration; (Sahmani et al.,  
71 2018a,b) where functional graded nano-beams and nano-plates in bending  
72 and vibration are addressed; (Pang et al., 2018) where the vibration of visco-  
73 elastic nano-plates with surface stresses are considered; (Pinto and Mordehai,  
74 2018) where combined longitudinal and transverse vibrations of nanowires are  
75 studied; (Sahmani et al., 2018c) where the nonlocal strain gradient theory is

76 used to study the instability of functionally graded micro/nano-plates.

77 Research efforts were spent for the study of the so-called *boundary ef-*  
78 *fects*, which manifest themselves within a boundary layer of a finite domain  
79 occupied by a nonlocal material of Eringen type. As a consequence of these  
80 effects, the nonlocal stress response to a uniform strain field is not uniform,  
81 whereas instead it is expected to be uniform whenever any source of non-  
82 locality does not occur. A discussion on the above boundary effects can be  
83 found in (Romano et al., 2017b, 2018).

84 This latter shortcoming was eliminated within the framework of nonlocal  
85 damage theory, first by Pijaudier-Cabot and Bažant (1987) who adopted a  
86 suitably rescaled, but non-symmetric, kernel; then by Borino et al. (2002,  
87 2003), who proposed a differently modified symmetric kernel. Within the  
88 framework of nonlocal elasticity, Polizzotto (2002); Polizzotto et al. (2004)  
89 advanced a strain-difference based model; this happens to be equivalent to  
90 the latter referenced model, but it was independently conceived as a nonlo-  
91 cal counterpart of a strain gradient model whereby the stress response proves  
92 to be uniform as soon as the source strain field is uniform. The latter re-  
93 quirement for the stress response was subsequently incorporated into a more  
94 general *locality recovery condition* in (Polizzotto et al., 2006) (see Subsection  
95 2.2).

96 A deeper insight on the Eringen nonlocal differential theory was given  
97 by Romano et al. (2017a), who discussed the basic role there played by the  
98 mentioned special boundary conditions. Romano and Barretta (2017a,b);  
99 Romano et al. (2017b) proposed a “stress-driven” nonlocal model featured  
100 by an integral equation formally like the Eringen’s one, but with the stress  
101 and strain state variables having interchanged roles. Extensions of this the-  
102 ory to mixture models, functionally graded materials and multi-dimensional  
103 domains were reported and discussed in Romano et al. (2018); Barretta et al.  
104 (2018). Indeed, the stress-driven nonlocal theory by Romano and co-workers  
105 seems to have given a clear understanding about the limits of validity of the  
106 Eringen’s nonlocal theory.

107 It emerges from the above that the Eringen nonlocal differential theory  
108 seems to be unable by its own nature to predict size effects of structures  
109 without the mentioned drawbacks, nor to predict size effects agreeing with  
110 those (in general of stiffening type) predicted by strain gradient elasticity  
111 theory (Mindlin, 1965; Mindlin and Eshel, 1968; Gao and Park, 2007) and  
112 detected by laboratory experiments (Fleck et al., 1994; Lam et al., 2003; Sun  
113 et al., 2008; Zhao et al., 2009; Abazari et al., 2015; Li et al., 2018).

114 Therefore, it seems to be useful to investigate on the possibility to replace  
115 the Eringen's nonlocal model with another one also belonging to the strain-  
116 integral model family, but *exempt from all the previously described drawbacks*  
117 *and capable to predict stiffening size effects like the strain gradient model.*  
118 The improved constitutive models, previously mentioned as remedies to the  
119 drawbacks of the Eringen nonlocal model, comply each only in part with  
120 the above requirement; for instance, the two-phase local/nonlocal model,  
121 originally proposed by Eringen himself (Eringen, 1972, 1987), does lead to a  
122 Fredholm integral equation of the second kind, but it arrives at stresses not  
123 satisfying the locality recovery condition.

124 In the present paper we will show that, for the analysis of (stiffening) size  
125 effects in small-scale structures, the so-called *strain-difference based nonlocal*  
126 *elasticity* model cast in the form envisioned in (Polizzotto et al., 2006) can  
127 be usefully applied in competition to the strain gradient model. As better  
128 explained subsequently, this nonlocal model is featured by properties not  
129 shared by the Eringen one, that is:

- 130 1. It obeys the locality recovery condition, which implies that the classical  
131 Hooke law is recovered in the presence of a *uniform* strain field, no  
132 matter the value of the length scale parameter.
- 133 2. It leads to a Fredholm integral equation of the second kind.

134 Additionally, like the original Eringen model (Eringen, 1972, 1987), the  
135 mentioned strain-difference based model does not require that the kernel  
136 function be the Green function of a differential equation.

137 Since the mentioned strain-difference model incorporates a linearized elas-  
138 ticity theory, only linear problems within statics and dynamics can be ad-  
139 dressed with it. Extensions to nonlinear situations are possible in principle,  
140 but not available so far. In the present paper only applications to static prob-  
141 lems are considered, indeed a framework where the strain-difference based  
142 model lends itself to a solution method that may be of interest; vibration  
143 and buckling problems will be addressed in the near future. For simplicity,  
144 axial displacements and shear deformation with warping of the cross section  
145 (Reddy, 2007, 2010; Polizzotto, 2015, 2017) are disregarded, but both of them  
146 may be straightforwardly implemented with the present model.

147 *1.1. Outline*

148 The outline of the present paper is as follows. In Section 2, the Eringen  
149 nonlocal differential method is discussed to point out, aside its basic appeal-  
150 ing conceptual framework, the accompanying drawbacks. A brief account  
151 of the remedies proposed in the literature is reported. In Section 3, the  
152 strain-difference based nonlocal elasticity model is briefly presented and its  
153 one-dimensional version for beam structures in bending is reported for later  
154 use. The general beam bending problem is discussed in Section 4, where it is  
155 found that the typical beam problem can be reverted to the solution of three  
156 mutual independent Fredholm integral equations of the second kind, each be-  
157 ing independent of the beam ordinary boundary conditions, while only one of  
158 them is affected by the load. Section 5 is devoted to the applications whereby  
159 five beam cases usually considered in the literature are addressed and the re-  
160 lated results are reported graphically together with analogous results from  
161 the literature. Conclusions are drawn in the final Section 6.

162 *1.2. Notation*

163 A standard notation is used throughout. The meaning of particular sym-  
164 bols used on occasion will be given in the text at their first appearance.

165 **2. Some remarks on the Eringen nonlocal elasticity model**

166 In this section, some useful remarks on the Eringen nonlocal elasticity  
167 model (Eringen, 1972, 1983, 1987, 2002) are reported. For this purpose,  
168 reference is made to a simple Euler–Bernoulli beam of length  $L$ , referred to  
169 orthogonal co-ordinates  $(x, y, z)$ , with  $x$  coinciding with the beam axis,  $z$   
170 along the beam height,  $y$  in the width direction. The Hooke stress reads as  
171  $\sigma = E\varepsilon$ , where  $\sigma = \sigma_{xx}$ ,  $\varepsilon = \varepsilon_{xx}$ , whereas  $E$  is the Young modulus. The  
172 plane  $(x, z)$  coincides with the bending plane, the  $z$  axis is a principal inertia  
173 axis.

174 *2.1. Equivalence to a Fredholm integral equation of first kind*

175 Written in terms of bending moment  $M$  and bending curvature  $\chi$ , the  
 176 stress-strain relation of the Eringen nonlocal model for a homogeneous beam  
 177 reads as

$$M(x) = EI \int_0^L g(x, \bar{x}) \chi(\bar{x}) d\bar{x} \quad (1)$$

178 where  $I$  is the second area moment of the cross section. For a one-dimensional  
 179 domain, the kernel function  $g(x, \bar{x})$  was suggested by Eringen (Eringen, 1983,  
 180 2002) in the form of a bi-exponential function, that is,

$$g(x, \bar{x}) = \frac{1}{2\ell} \exp\left(-\frac{r}{\ell}\right) \quad (2)$$

181 where  $r := |\bar{x} - x|$ , and  $\ell > 0$  is a length scale parameter. The kernel  $g$  proves  
 182 to be the Green function of the Helmholtz equation

$$M(x) - \ell^2 M''(x) = EI \chi(x) \quad (3)$$

183 and it moreover satisfies the normalization condition

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} g(x, \bar{x}) d\bar{x} = 1 \quad \forall x \quad (4)$$

184 The latter equality implies that, at the limit for  $\ell \rightarrow 0^+$ , the kernel  $g \rightarrow \delta_D$   
 185 (Dirac delta), hence (1) recovers its classical form,  $M = EI \chi$ , correspond-  
 186 ingly.

187 A serious drawback of (1) is that, considering  $M(x)$  as a specified field,  
 188 (1) constitutes a Fredholm integral equation of the first kind for the unknown  
 189 curvature  $\chi(x)$ , indeed, an integral equation known to may lead to not well-  
 190 posed boundary-value problems with multiple solutions, or even no solution  
 191 at all (Tricomi, 1985; Polyanin and Manzhirov, 2008). Additionally, in order  
 192 that the solution of the Helmholtz equation (3) be also a solution of the  
 193 integral equation (1), it is necessary that the given function  $M(x)$  satisfies  
 194 the special boundary conditions (Tricomi, 1985; Polyanin and Manzhirov,  
 195 2008):

$$\left. \begin{aligned} -M'(0) + \frac{1}{\ell} M(0) &= 0 \\ M'(L) + \frac{1}{\ell} M(L) &= 0 \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (5)$$

196 But, as already pointed out by Romano et al. (2017a), the boundary con-  
197 ditions (5) may likely be in so strong contrast with the ordinary (static)  
198 boundary conditions of the beam problem such as to impede a solution of  
199 the nonlocal integral problem to exist.

200 Often in the literature (see e.g. Peddieson et al. (2003); Reddy (2007);  
201 Challamel and Wang (2008); Polizzotto (2014)) the nonlocal beam problem  
202 is addressed through only the differential equation (3) combined with the  
203 equilibrium equation  $M''(x) = -p(x)$  and the ordinary boundary conditions,  
204 by which a *unique* solution can be obtained. This solution may coincide  
205 with the classical counterpart (like in the case of a cantilever beam under  
206 a point load), but in general it is *not* a solution of the Eringen nonlocal  
207 integral problem, which latter has *no solution* as long as the special boundary  
208 conditions (5) cannot be satisfied (Romano et al., 2017a).

209 As reported in the preceding section, a remedy to this drawback consists  
210 in replacing the Eringen fully nonlocal model with a two-phase local/nonlocal  
211 one with specified volume fractions, which leads to a Fredholm integral equa-  
212 tion of the second kind. However, as mentioned previously (and better ex-  
213 plained in next subsection), the latter model does not comply with the lo-  
214 cality recovery condition.

## 215 2.2. The locality recovery condition

216 The “locality recovery condition” recalled here was first advanced in  
217 (Polizzotto et al., 2006) with reference to nonlocal elastic materials, then it  
218 was extended to plasticity (Polizzotto, 2007) and generalized continua (Poliz-  
219 zotto and Pisano, 2012). To the readers’ benefit, here we briefly recall the  
220 inherent essential concepts.

221 The locality recovery condition constitutes a thermodynamic requisite of  
222 a nonsimple material which under any uniform strain mechanism behaves  
223 like a simple material, featured by a Helmholtz free energy independent of  
224 the inherent length-scale parameter. In order that the latter requisite be  
225 satisfied, it is required that the *Energy Residual* (ER) (that is, the energy  
226 density transmitted to the generic particle within the body from all other  
227 particles therein as a consequence of the non-locality effects) *has to vanish*  
228 *identically under any uniform strain field*.

229 The necessity of a locality recovery condition serves to guarantee that  
230 the constitutive model be able to capture a basic behavioral micro-scale phe-  
231 nomenon whereby *no size effects occur under uniform strain*. For a strain



232 gradient material, in which the free energy is a function of the strain and the  
 233 strain gradient(s), the locality recovery condition is automatically satisfied  
 234 due to the correspondingly vanishing of the strain gradient(s).

235 Instead, for a nonlocal strain-integral (or strain-driven) model, in which  
 236 the free energy depends on the average of the strain over the whole domain  
 237 and is thus influenced by the boundary effects, the locality recovery condition  
 238 is not automatically satisfied, hence it needs to be enforced by eliminating  
 239 the mentioned boundary effects.

240 There is not a general consensus in the literature about the necessity  
 241 of a locality recovery condition. Nonlocal models not obeying the locality  
 242 recovery condition (like e.g. the two-phase local/nonlocal models) are in  
 243 fact often used in research, but obviously one has to be aware that then  
 244 some sort of size effects remain active under any uniform strain mechanism.  
 245 Nevertheless, in the present paper the mentioned condition is considered as a  
 246 basic requisite for a nonlocal material model suitable to size effects analysis  
 247 problems.

248 In the case of a *homogeneous nonlocal elastic material* the locality re-  
 249 covery condition takes on the simpler form of *local stress recovery condition*,  
 250 that is, the nonlocal stress response is uniform whenever the imposed local  
 251 strain is uniform.

252 For a nonlocal beam model under a uniform curvature, say  $\chi = \chi_0 =$   
 253 constant, (1) gives a bending moment as

$$M(x) = \gamma(x)EI\chi_0 \quad (6)$$

254 where  $\gamma(x)$  is a weight function defined as

$$\gamma(x) := \int_0^L g(x, \bar{x}) d\bar{x} \quad (7)$$

255 Indeed, Eq. (1) gives a bending moment response to a given uniform  
 256 imposed curvature, which is *non-uniform and affected by size effects* through  
 257 the  $\ell$  parameter (carried in by the kernel function incorporated into the  
 258 function  $\gamma$ ); in other words, (1) does not obey the locality recovery condition.

259 A remedy to this drawback is obtained by rewriting (1) in the form

$$M(x) = EI\chi(x) + \int_0^L g(x, \bar{x})EI[\chi(\bar{x}) - \chi(x)] d\bar{x} \quad (8)$$

260 or equivalently

$$M(x) = [1 - \gamma(x)]EI\chi(x) + \int_0^L g(x, \bar{x})EI\chi(\bar{x}) d\bar{x} \quad (9)$$

261 The latter equations describe a mixed local/nonlocal model which obvi-  
 262 ously satisfies the locality recovery condition and concomitantly makes the  
 263 boundary effects be entirely compensated. Both Eqs. (8) and (9) were pro-  
 264 posed in (Polizzotto, 2002; Polizzotto et al., 2004). As previously recalled in  
 265 the Introduction, an equation substantially equivalent to (9) was independ-  
 266 ently contributed by (Borino et al., 2002, 2003).

### 267 2.3. Incomplete redistribution of the source local bending moment

268 The Eringen nonlocal model (1) can be interpreted as an analytical tool  
 269 by which the source local bending moment  $M^{\text{lc}}(x) := EI\chi(x)$  at  $x$  is re-  
 270 distributed within the beam length, giving rise to a smooth long distance  
 271 specific bending moment  $\mu(\bar{x}, x) := g(\bar{x}, x)M^{\text{lc}}(x)$  at the generic point  $\bar{x}$   
 272 within  $(0, L)$ ; (the dimension of  $\mu$  is a force).

273 A good physically consistent property of the nonlocal beam may be that  
 274 the totality of long distance bending moments  $\mu(\bar{x}, x)$  within  $(0, L)$  be equal  
 275 to  $M^{\text{lc}}(x)$  at every  $x$  in  $(0, L)$ . Indeed, for a beam enjoying this property  
 276 (here qualified as *stress saving beam*), the inherent non-locality consists in a  
 277 complete redistribution of the source local bending moment  $M^{\text{lc}}(x)$  at every  
 278 point of the beam, without losses, nor additions.

279 This desirable property is naturally satisfied in the case of unbounded  
 280 domain, but it is not in the opposite case, since in fact the related resultant  
 281 long distance specific bending moment proves to be

$$\int_0^L \mu(\bar{x}, x) d\bar{x} = \gamma(x)M^{\text{lc}}(x) \quad (10)$$

282 Since  $0 < \gamma(x) \leq 1 \forall x \in (0, L)$ , it results that, at every point  $x$  where  
 283  $\gamma(x) < 1$ , *only the fraction  $\gamma(x)M^{\text{lc}}(x)$  of the source local bending moment is*  
 284 *redistributed while the remaining part, amounting to  $[1 - \gamma(x)]M^{\text{lc}}(x)$ , is just*  
 285 *thrown away, with consequent loss in stiffness.* This behavior of the Eringen  
 286 nonlocal model is likely the very reason why this model predicts softening  
 287 size effects in the majority of cases; it constitutes a drawback that manifests  
 288 itself through the previously mentioned boundary effects.

289 A remedy to this drawback is to express the bending moment  $M(x)$  as  
 290 the sum of the non-redistributed part of the local bending moment  $M^{\text{lc}}(x)$ ,  
 291 along with the total long distance bending moment arriving at  $x$  from all  
 292 other points of the beam, that is,

$$M(x) = \underbrace{[1 - \gamma(x)]EI\chi(x)}_{\text{non-redistributed local bending moment}} + \underbrace{\int_0^L g(x, \bar{x})EI\chi(\bar{x}) d\bar{x}}_{\text{total long distance bending moment}} \quad (11)$$

293 which happens to coincide with (9).

294 Eq. (11) was the source of inspiration for the strain-difference nonlocal  
 295 model advanced in (Polizzotto et al., 2004) and then of the improved one in  
 296 (Polizzotto et al., 2006).

297 In closing this section, we state that the strain-difference based nonlocal  
 298 model proposed by Polizzotto et al. (2006) is capable to overcome all the  
 299 above drawbacks. Indeed, this model is stress-saving (i.e. the stress redistri-  
 300 bution process is complete everywhere within any body of finite extension).  
 301 Furthermore, it leads to a Fredholm integral equation of the second kind,  
 302 complies with the locality recovery condition and generally predicts stiffen-  
 303 ing size effects.

### 304 3. The strain-difference based nonlocal elasticity model

305 In this section, the strain-difference based nonlocal elasticity model in the  
 306 form advanced in (Polizzotto et al., 2006) is briefly described for later use.

#### 307 3.1. General

308 The strain-difference based nonlocal model is a phenomenological model  
 309 capable to cope with inhomogeneities of both the moduli and the inter-  
 310 nal length scale. It is thermodynamically consistent, as it is centered on  
 311 a Helmholtz free energy, say  $\psi$ , which for a three-dimensional body is cast  
 312 in a compact form as <sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>In the case of homogeneous materials, an alternative form of  $\psi$  of (12) may be  $\psi = 0.5 \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} : \mathbf{C} : \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} + 0.5 \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} : \boldsymbol{\alpha} \mathbf{C} : \mathcal{R}(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon})$ , which would lead to the simpler stress-strain equation

$$\psi = \frac{1}{2} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} : \mathbf{C} : \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} + \frac{1}{2} \mathcal{R}(\mathcal{D}\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}) : (\alpha\mathbf{C}) : \mathcal{R}(\mathcal{D}\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}) \quad (12)$$

313 where  $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{C}(\mathbf{x})$  is the standard elastic moduli tensor of anisotropic elasticity,  
 314  $\alpha$  is a non-negative material constant. The symbol  $\mathcal{D}\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$  denotes the strain  
 315 difference at points  $\mathbf{x}, \bar{\mathbf{x}}$ , that is,

$$\mathcal{D}\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}(\mathbf{x}, \bar{\mathbf{x}}) := \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}(\bar{\mathbf{x}}) - \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}(\mathbf{x}) \quad \forall (\mathbf{x}, \bar{\mathbf{x}}) \in V \quad (13)$$

316 whereas the symbol  $\mathcal{R}(\mathcal{D}\boldsymbol{\varepsilon})$  is defined as

$$\mathcal{R}(\mathcal{D}\boldsymbol{\varepsilon})(\mathbf{x}) := \int_V g(\mathbf{x}, \bar{\mathbf{x}}) \underbrace{[\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}(\bar{\mathbf{x}}) - \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}(\mathbf{x})]}_{\mathcal{D}\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}(\mathbf{x}, \bar{\mathbf{x}})} dV(\bar{\mathbf{x}}) \quad (14)$$

317 Here, the (symmetric) kernel  $g(\mathbf{x}, \bar{\mathbf{x}})$  is a two-point attenuation function  
 318 similar to the analogous kernel presented in Section 2; it satisfies the normal-  
 319 ization condition (4), but is not necessarily the Green function of a differential  
 320 equation.

321 As reported in (Polizzotto et al., 2006), the attenuation function  $g(x, \bar{x})$   
 322 is taken in the form

$$g(x, \bar{x}) = \bar{g}\left(-\frac{r_{\text{eq}}}{\ell_0}\right) \quad (15)$$

323 where  $\ell_0$  is the reference length scale parameter taken equal to the largest  
 324 value of the space-variable length scale parameter  $\ell(\mathbf{x})$ , whereas  $r_{\text{eq}}$  denotes  
 325 the *equivalent distance* defined as

$$r_{\text{eq}} := r + r^* \quad (16)$$

326 Here,  $r$  is the so-called *geodetical distance*, meant as the length of the  
 327 shortest path between any two points of a domain without intersecting its  
 328 boundary. For a non-convex domain (due e.g. to holes or cracks) it is  $r \geq$   
 329  $|\bar{\mathbf{x}} - \mathbf{x}|$ , but  $r = |\bar{\mathbf{x}} - \mathbf{x}|$  for a convex one. The quantity  $r^*$  constitutes a  
 330 fictitious (non-negative) distance which accounts the additional attenuation  
 331 effects due to the material inhomogeneities through the stiffness tensor  $\mathbf{C}(\mathbf{x})$   
 332 and the length scale parameter  $\ell(\mathbf{x})$ . Motivations to consider additional

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$\boldsymbol{\sigma} = \mathbf{C} : [\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} + \alpha\mathcal{R}(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon})]$  often used in the literature, but it does not satisfy the locality recovery condition since, for  $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = \bar{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} = \text{const.}$ , it is  $\boldsymbol{\sigma} = \mathbf{C} : \bar{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}[1 + \alpha\gamma(\mathbf{x})]$ .

333 attenuation effects in the presence of inhomogeneities are given in (Polizzotto  
 334 et al., 2006). In the present work, however, we consider convex domains and  
 335 homogeneous materials, hence  $r = |\bar{\mathbf{x}} - \mathbf{x}|$ ,  $\ell = \text{constant}$  throughout.

336  $\mathcal{R}(\mathcal{D}\boldsymbol{\varepsilon})$  is the weighted mean value of the strain difference  $\mathcal{D}\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$  around  
 337 the field point  $\mathbf{x} \in V$ ; it is a measure of the nonlocal part of the strain at  
 338  $\bar{\mathbf{x}}$ . Obviously, was  $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$  uniform within  $V$ , it would be  $\mathcal{R}(\mathcal{D}\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}) \equiv \mathbf{0}$ , that is,  
 339 the locality recovery condition is automatically satisfied, like with a strain  
 340 gradient model.

341 The energy  $\psi$ , a quadratic form of the strain  $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$  and the nonlocal strain  
 342 difference  $\mathcal{R}(\mathcal{D}\boldsymbol{\varepsilon})$ , is the sum of two contributions, one from a local constitu-  
 343 tive behavior of unit density, the other from a nonlocal constitutive behavior  
 344 whose density depends on the  $\alpha$  coefficient. On increasing  $\alpha$  the relative  
 345 importance of the local phase with respect to the nonlocal one will decrease;  
 346 for  $\alpha \rightarrow \infty$  the model tends to lose the accompanying local phase. Therefore,  
 347  $\alpha$  also plays the role of phase parameter.

348 The stress-strain relation is obtained from (12) by writing (Polizzotto et  
 349 al., 2006):

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbf{t} &= \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} = \mathbf{C} : \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \\
 \boldsymbol{\tau} &= \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \mathcal{R}(\mathcal{D}\boldsymbol{\varepsilon})} = \alpha \mathbf{C} : \mathcal{R}(\mathcal{D}\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}) \\
 \boldsymbol{\sigma} &= \mathbf{t} + \mathcal{R}(\mathcal{D}\boldsymbol{\tau})
 \end{aligned}
 \quad \left. \vphantom{\begin{aligned} \mathbf{t} \\ \boldsymbol{\tau} \\ \boldsymbol{\sigma} \end{aligned}} \right\} \quad (17)$$

350 After some mathematics not reported here for brevity sake (for which we  
 351 refer to (Polizzotto et al., 2006)), Eq. (17)<sub>3</sub> reads either as

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{C}(\mathbf{x}) : \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}(\mathbf{x}) - \alpha \int_V \mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x}, \bar{\mathbf{x}}) : [\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}(\bar{\mathbf{x}}) - \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}(\mathbf{x})] dV(\bar{\mathbf{x}}) \quad (18)$$

352 or equivalently as

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{C}(\mathbf{x}) : \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}(\mathbf{x}) + \alpha \int_V \mathbf{S}(\mathbf{x}, \bar{\mathbf{x}}) : \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}(\bar{\mathbf{x}}) dV(\bar{\mathbf{x}}) \quad (19)$$

353 The *nonlocal stiffness tensors*  $\mathbf{J}$  and  $\mathbf{S}$  are expressed as

$$\left. \begin{aligned}
\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x}, \bar{\mathbf{x}}) &:= [\gamma(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{C}(\mathbf{x}) + \gamma(\bar{\mathbf{x}})\mathbf{C}(\bar{\mathbf{x}})]g(\mathbf{x}, \bar{\mathbf{x}}) \\
&\quad - \int_V g(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\xi})g(\bar{\mathbf{x}}, \boldsymbol{\xi})\mathbf{C}(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \, dV(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \\
\mathbf{S}(\mathbf{x}, \bar{\mathbf{x}}) &:= \frac{1}{2}[\gamma^2(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{C}(\mathbf{x}) + \gamma^2(\bar{\mathbf{x}})\mathbf{C}(\bar{\mathbf{x}})]\delta_D(\mathbf{x}, \bar{\mathbf{x}}) - \mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x}, \bar{\mathbf{x}})
\end{aligned} \right\} \quad (20)$$

354 and satisfy the equalities

$$\left. \begin{aligned}
\int_V \mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x}, \bar{\mathbf{x}}) \, dV(\bar{\mathbf{x}}) &= \gamma^2(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{C}(\mathbf{x}) \\
\int_V \mathbf{S}(\mathbf{x}, \bar{\mathbf{x}}) \, dV(\bar{\mathbf{x}}) &= \mathbf{0}
\end{aligned} \right\} \quad \forall \mathbf{x} \in V \quad (21)$$

### 355 3.2. The strain-difference beam model in bending

356 In the case of homogeneous Euler–Bernoulli beam in bending like the  
357 one introduced in Section 2, in which  $\varepsilon = \varepsilon_{xx}$  is the only meaningful strain  
358 component, the transverse attenuation effects are assumed to be of so modest  
359 amplitude such that the kernel  $g$  can be considered to be a function of the  $x$   
360 co-ordinate only, that is,  $g = g(x, \bar{x})$ . Then, the stress-strain equation (18)  
361 simplifies as follows:

$$\sigma(x, z) = E\varepsilon(x, z) - \alpha E \int_0^L \kappa(x, \bar{x})[\varepsilon(\bar{x}, z) - \varepsilon(x, z)] \, d\bar{x} \quad (22)$$

362 or, equivalently,

$$\sigma(x, z) = E [1 + \alpha\gamma^2(x)]\varepsilon(x, z) - \alpha E \int_0^L \kappa(x, \bar{x})\varepsilon(\bar{x}, z) \, d\bar{x} \quad (23)$$

363 Here,  $\kappa(x, \bar{x})$  (dimensionally an inverse length) is given by

$$\kappa(x, \bar{x}) = [\gamma(x) + \gamma(\bar{x})]g(x, \bar{x}) - \int_0^L g(x, \xi)g(\bar{x}, \xi) \, d\xi \quad (24)$$

364 Analogously, the stress-strain relation (19) simplifies as

$$\sigma(x, z) = E\varepsilon(x, z) + \alpha E \int_0^L H(x, \bar{x})\varepsilon(\bar{x}, z) \, d\bar{x} \quad (25)$$

365 where

$$H(x, \bar{x}) := \frac{1}{2}[\gamma^2(x) + \gamma^2(\bar{x})]\delta_D(\bar{x} - x) - \kappa(x, \bar{x}) \quad (26)$$

366 The following conditions hold true:

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \int_0^L \kappa(x, \bar{x}) \, d\bar{x} &= \gamma^2(x) \\ \int_0^L H(x, \bar{x}) \, d\bar{x} &= 0 \end{aligned} \right\} \forall x \in (0, L) \quad (27)$$

367 Next, using (22), denoting by  $\chi(x)$  the beam curvature at  $x$  and recalling  
 368 that  $\varepsilon(x, z) = z\chi(x)$ , the bending moment  $M(x) = \int_A z\sigma \, dA$  takes on the  
 369 expression

$$M(x) = EI \left\{ [1 + \alpha\gamma^2(x)]\chi(x) - \alpha \int_0^L \kappa(x, \bar{x})\chi(\bar{x}) \, d\bar{x} \right\} \quad (28)$$

370 Eq. (28) is the fundamental bending moment/curvature relation featuring  
 371 the strain-difference based nonlocal model under discussion.

### 372 3.3. The weight function $\gamma(x)$

373 For applications to micro- and nano-beams, it may be useful to construct  
 374 the weight function  $\gamma(x)$  of (7) for the bi-exponential kernel (2). This function  
 375 is a (non-dimensional) function that varies continuously within  $(0, L)$  and is  
 376 symmetric with respect to middle point  $x = L/2$ ; it provides the *nonlocal*  
 377 *strain associated to a (uniform) unit local strain field within the body*. For  
 378 the bi-exponential kernel function (2), by a simple integration we can obtain  
 379 the function  $\gamma(x)$  as follows:

$$\gamma(\xi, \lambda) = 1 - \frac{1}{2} \left[ \exp\left(-\frac{\xi}{\lambda}\right) + \exp\left(-\frac{1-\xi}{\lambda}\right) \right] \quad (29)$$

380 The dependence of  $\gamma$  on the length scale parameter  $\ell$  is explicitly accounted  
 381 by considering the ratio  $\lambda := \ell/L$  as an argument of  $\gamma$ . The symbol  $\xi := x/L$   
 382 is the non-dimensional abscissa ( $0 \leq \xi \leq 1$ ).

383 Eringen (1983) suggested to set  $\ell = e_0 a$ , where  $a$  denotes a characteris-  
 384 tic length of the microstructure (particle spacing, grain size, and the like),  
 385 whereas  $e_0$  is a (non-dimensional) material constant identified as  $e_0 \approx 0.39$ .

386 The function  $\gamma(\xi, \lambda)$  is plotted in Figure 1 for different values of  $\lambda =$   
 387 0.01; 0.05; 0.1; 0.2.

388 Since  $\gamma(\xi, \lambda)$  is non-decreasing for  $\xi$  increasing within the interval  $(0, 0.5)$   
 389 while  $\lambda$  is taken fixed, we can write:

$$\min_{\xi \in (0,1)} \gamma(\xi, \lambda) = \gamma(0, \lambda) = c_1(\lambda) := \frac{1}{2} \left[ 1 - \exp\left(-\frac{1}{\lambda}\right) \right] \quad (30)$$

$$\max_{\xi \in (0,1)} \gamma(\xi, \lambda) = \gamma(0.5, \lambda) = c_2(\lambda) := 1 - \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\lambda}\right)$$

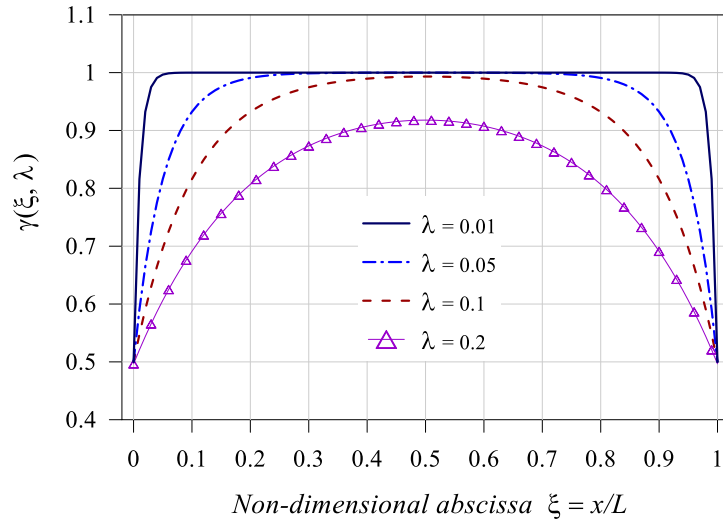


Figure 1: Weight function  $\gamma(\xi, \lambda)$  plotted as a function of the non-dimensional abscissa  $\xi = x/L$  for  $\lambda = 0.01$  (solid line), 0.05 (dash dot line), 0.1 (dashed line) and 0.2 (solid line with triangles).

390 The bound functions  $c_1(\lambda)$  and  $c_2(\lambda)$  are plotted in Figure 2, which shows  
 391 that  $c_1(0) = 0.5$ ,  $c_2(0) = 1$  and that both tend to zero for  $\lambda \rightarrow \infty$ ; also, they  
 392 satisfy the inequalities

$$0 < c_1(\lambda) \leq \frac{1}{2}, \quad 0 < c_2(\lambda) \leq 1, \quad \forall \lambda \geq 0 \quad (31)$$

393 Since the kernel  $g$  is approximately zero at any distance larger than the  
 394 influence distance,  $R = m\ell$ , (with  $m \approx 6$ ), then the plots of the functions



395  $c_1(\lambda)$  and  $c_2(\lambda)$  exhibit each an initial constant piece, namely  $c_2(\lambda) = 1$   
 396 for  $0 \leq \lambda \leq \lambda^*$  where  $\lambda^* := 1/(2m) \approx 0.0833$ , whereas  $c_1(\lambda) = 0.5$  for  
 397  $0 \leq \lambda \leq 2\lambda^*$ . Therefore, the bound relation for  $\gamma(x, \lambda)$ , that is,

$$c_1(\lambda) \leq \gamma(x, \lambda) \leq c_2(\lambda) \quad \forall \lambda \quad (32)$$

398 for  $\lambda$  values smaller than  $\lambda^*$  can be approximated as

$$0.5 \leq \gamma(x, \lambda) \leq 1 \quad \forall \lambda \leq \lambda^* \quad (33)$$

399 The latter bound relation holds for  $L \geq 2R$ , that is whenever there exists a  
 400 core domain of length  $L_c := L - 2R = \ell(\frac{1}{\lambda} - \frac{1}{\lambda^*}) > 0$ . No core domain can  
 401 exist whenever  $\lambda > \lambda^*$ , whereas for  $\lambda = \lambda^*$  the core domain exists collapsed  
 402 at the isolated middle point  $x = L/2$ .

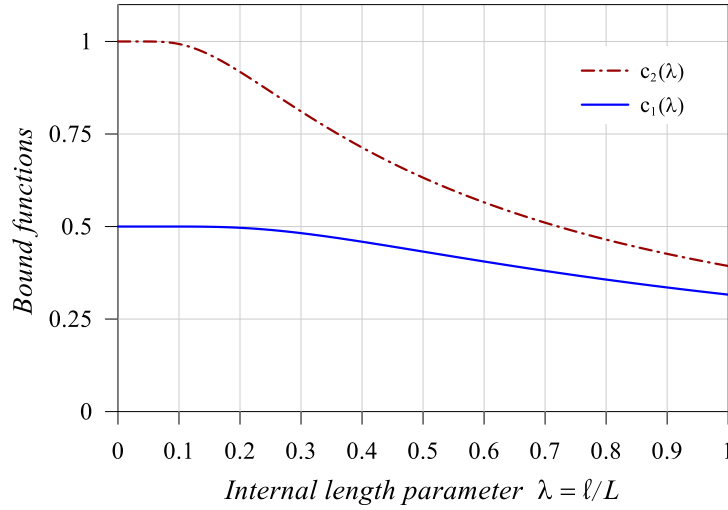


Figure 2: Minimum ( $c_1$ ) and maximum ( $c_2$ ) values of the weight function  $\gamma(\xi, \lambda)$  plotted as functions of  $\lambda = \ell/L$ .

403

#### 404 4. The bending beam problem under static loads

405 Assuming that the beam deforms only in bending without extension, the  
 406 beam equilibrium equation reads as

$$M''(x) + p(x) = 0 \quad \forall x \in (0, L) \quad (34)$$

407 where  $p(x)$  is the assigned transverse distributed load. By integration of Eq.  
408 (34) we can write for convenience:

$$\boxed{M(x) = -f(x) - \frac{EI}{L^2}(C_1x + C_2L)} \quad (35)$$

409 Here,  $f(x)$  is a particular function that satisfies the equation

$$f''(x) = p(x) \quad \forall x \in (0, L) \quad (36)$$

410 whereas  $C_1, C_2$  are arbitrary (non-dimensional) constants. Therefore, recalling  
411 that  $\chi(x) = -w''(x)$ , Eq. (28) can be rewritten as

$$\begin{aligned} [1 + \alpha\gamma^2(x)] w''(x) - \alpha \int_0^L \kappa(x, \bar{x}) w''(\bar{x}) d\bar{x} = \\ = \frac{1}{EI} f(x) + \frac{1}{L^2} (C_1x + C_2L) \end{aligned} \quad (37)$$

412 Since  $1 + \alpha\gamma^2(x) > 0 \quad \forall x \in (0, L)$ , following (Tricomi, 1985), let us posit

$$s(x) := \sqrt{1 + \alpha\gamma^2(x)} \quad (38)$$

413 and

$$\phi(x) := Ls(x)w''(x) \quad (39)$$

414 Next, solving (39) for  $w''(x)$  we can write

$$w''(x) = \frac{1}{L} \frac{\phi(x)}{s(x)} \quad (40)$$

415 Hence, substituting (40) into (37) leads to the desired Fredholm integral  
416 equation of the second kind for the unknown (non-dimensional) function  
417  $\phi(x)$ , namely,

$$\phi(x) = \alpha \int_0^L K(x, \bar{x}) \phi(\bar{x}) d\bar{x} + \frac{L}{EIs(x)} f(x) + C_1 \frac{x}{L} + C_2 \quad (41)$$

418 where the (symmetric) kernel  $K(x, \bar{x})$  is defined as

$$K(x, \bar{x}) := \frac{\kappa(x, \bar{x})}{s(x)s(\bar{x})} \quad (42)$$

419 The deflection  $w(x)$  can be determined by (40) which by integration gives

$$w(x) = L\Psi(x) + C_3x + C_4L \quad (43)$$

420 where  $C_3$  and  $C_4$  are (non-dimensional) arbitrary constants, whereas  $\Psi(x)$  is  
421 a particular non-dimensional function satisfying the condition

$$L\Psi''(x) = \frac{\phi(x)}{s(x)} \quad \forall x \in (0, L) \quad (44)$$

422 This  $\Psi(x)$  is here chosen in the form

$$\Psi(x) := \frac{1}{L^2} \int_0^x (x - \bar{x}) \frac{\phi(\bar{x})}{s(\bar{x})} d\bar{x} \quad (45)$$

423 The constants  $C_1, C_2, C_3, C_4$  must be determined by the *ordinary* bound-  
424 ary conditions of every specific beam problem, that is, the standard (static  
425 and/or kinematic) boundary conditions known from classical beam theories.

#### 426 4.1. Solution scheme

427 The integral equation (41), on which the beam problem is centered, can  
428 be usefully transformed by splitting the unknown function  $\phi(x)$  as

$$\phi(x) = \phi_0(x) + C_1\phi_1(x) + C_2\phi_2(x) \quad (46)$$

429 Substituting (46) into (41) gives the equality

$$\begin{aligned} & \left\{ \phi_0(x) - \alpha \int_0^L K(x, \bar{x}) \phi_0(\bar{x}) d\bar{x} - \frac{Lf(x)}{EIs(x)} \right\} \\ & + C_1 \left\{ \phi_1(x) - \alpha \int_0^L K(x, \bar{x}) \phi_1(\bar{x}) d\bar{x} - \frac{x}{Ls(x)} \right\} \\ & + C_2 \left\{ \phi_2(x) - \alpha \int_0^L K(x, \bar{x}) \phi_2(\bar{x}) d\bar{x} - \frac{1}{s(x)} \right\} = 0 \end{aligned} \quad (47)$$

430 Since the latter equality has to hold for arbitrary values of  $C_1$  and  $C_2$ , the  
431 following three integral equations must be satisfied, that is,

$$\boxed{\phi_n(x) = \alpha \int_0^L K(x, \bar{x}) \phi_n(\bar{x}) d\bar{x} + F_n(x), \quad (n = 0, 1, 2)} \quad (48)$$

432 where it is

$$\left. \begin{aligned} F_0(x) &:= \frac{Lf(x)}{EIs(x)} \\ F_1(x) &:= \frac{x}{Ls(x)} \\ F_2(x) &:= \frac{1}{s(x)} \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (49)$$

433 Eq. (48) provides a set of three mutually independent Fredholm integral  
 434 equations of the second kind, all of which hold no matter how the beam  
 435 ordinary constraints may be; additionally, only the first equation ( $n = 0$ )  
 436 depends on the loading conditions.

437 Next, let (46) be substituted into (45) to obtain

$$\Psi(x) = \Psi_0(x) + C_1\Psi_1(x) + C_2\Psi_2(x) \quad (50)$$

438 where we have set

$$\boxed{\Psi_n(x) := \frac{1}{L^2} \int_0^x (x - \bar{x}) \frac{\phi_n(\bar{x})}{s(\bar{x})} d\bar{x}, \quad (n = 0, 1, 2)} \quad (51)$$

439 Then, substituting (50) into (43) gives the deflection  $w(x)$  cast in the  
 440 form

$$\boxed{\frac{w(x)}{L} = \Psi_0(x) + C_1\Psi_1(x) + C_2\Psi_2(x) + C_3\frac{x}{L} + C_4} \quad (52)$$

441 This equation together with (35) constitute a closed-form representation of  
 442 the solution of the generic beam problem.

443 The solution for every specific beam problem must be determined tak-  
 444 ing in account the inherent loading and boundary conditions. This task is  
 445 achieved in the following section devoted to applications.

446 **5. Applications**

447 Equations (35) and (52) have been applied to a few simple beam cases,  
448 that is:

- 449 a) Clamped-free beam under a point load  $P$  at the free end;
- 450 b) Clamped-free beam under uniform distributed load  $p_0$ ;
- 451 c) Pinned-pinned beam under uniform distributed load  $p_0$ ;
- 452 d) Clamped-pinned beam under uniform distributed load  $p_0$ ;
- 453 e) Clamped-clamped beam under uniform distributed load  $p_0$ .

454 For this purpose, the integral equations (48) have been addressed by a  
455 routine computational algorithm known from the literature (Press et al.,  
456 1997). The resulting deflection curve  $w(x)$  and bending moment function  
457  $M(x)$  have been computed by (52) and (35) for every case taking  $\alpha = 50$ , each  
458 computation being repeated for  $\lambda$  varying within the interval ( $0 \leq \lambda \leq 0.2$ ).

459 The following *ordinary boundary conditions* were adopted in the above  
460 computations:

- 461 a) Clamped-free beam under end point load:

462  $w(0) = w'(0) = M(L) = 0, M'(L) = P;$

- 463 b) Clamped-free beam under uniform load:

464  $w(0) = w'(0) = M(L) = M'(L) = 0;$

- 465 c) Pinned-pinned beam under uniform load:

466  $w(0) = w(L) = M(0) = M(L) = 0;$

- 467 d) Clamped-pinned beam under uniform load:

468  $w(0) = w'(0) = w(L) = M(L) = 0;$

- 469 e) Clamped-clamped beam under uniform load:

470  $w(0) = w'(0) = w(L) = w'(L) = 0.$

471 5.1. Numerical algorithm to solve the integral equations

472 Let the typical integral equation (49) be here reported again in the form

$$\phi(x) = \alpha \int_0^L K(x, y)\phi(y) dy + \psi(x) \quad (53)$$

473 where  $\psi(x)$  identifies itself with  $F_n(x)$ , ( $n = 0, 1, 2$ ).

474 The numerical algorithm used to solve the integral equation (53) is the  
 475 *Nystrom method* reported in the quoted book (Press et al., 1997), pp. 782–  
 476 785, by which the desired solution is obtained as the solution of an algebraic  
 477 linear equation system. The main point consists in choosing a set of quadra-  
 478 ture points  $x_i$ , ( $i = 1, 2, \dots, N$ ), and a set of weights  $W_i$  (Gauss–Legendre  
 479 quadrature rule). Then, Eq. (53) can be written at every  $x_i$  in a discrete  
 480 form as

$$\phi(x_i) = \alpha \sum_{j=1}^N W_j K(x_i, y_j)\phi(y_j) + \psi(x_i) \quad (54)$$

481 Next, writing  $\phi_i$  for  $\phi(x_i)$ ,  $\tilde{K}_{ij}$  for  $W_j K(x_i, y_j)$ ,  $\psi_i$  for  $\psi(x_i)$ , and collecting  
 482 all of them in vector and matrix forms, we get

$$(\mathbf{I} - \alpha \tilde{\mathbf{K}}) \cdot \boldsymbol{\phi} = \boldsymbol{\psi} \quad (55)$$

483 This is a set of  $N$  linear equations which generally provides sufficiently  
 484 accurate values of the unknowns in  $\boldsymbol{\phi}$  in terms of the data in  $\boldsymbol{\psi}$ .

485 Once the vector  $\boldsymbol{\phi}$  is known, the function  $\phi(x)$  at the generic point  $x$   
 486 within  $(0, L)$  can be obtained by writing the relation

$$\phi(x) = \alpha \sum_{j=1}^N W_j K(x, y_j)\phi_j + \psi(x) \quad (56)$$

487 Whenever it may be required, the eigenvalues of the matrix  $\tilde{\mathbf{K}}$  can be  
 488 obtained, with the aid of a straightforward symmetrization technique, by  
 489 addressing the eigenvalue problem

$$\tilde{\mathbf{K}} \cdot \boldsymbol{\phi} = \beta \boldsymbol{\phi}, \quad (\beta = 1/\alpha) \quad (57)$$

490 According to (Press et al., 1997), the solution of the integral equation with  
 491 the Nystrom method described above is usually well-conditioned, unless  $\alpha$  is  
 492 very close to an eigenvalue.

493 *5.2. Numerical procedures for the other considered models*

494 For comparison, the analogous plots for other three methods of the lit-  
 495 erature were also accomplished, of which one is based on the first strain  
 496 gradient model (Mindlin and Eshel, 1968; Papargyri-Beskou et al., 2003a,b;  
 497 Polizzotto, 2014) and constitutes the main reference for the present work;  
 498 another is based on the stress-driven nonlocal model with a bi-exponential  
 499 kernel (Romano and Barretta, 2017a,b), which is chosen for its similarities  
 500 with the strain gradient model.<sup>2</sup> The third method is the Eringen nonlocal  
 501 differential method (Eringen, 1983; Peddieson et al., 2003). The following  
 502 procedures were adopted to address these comparison models.

503 (1) *Strain gradient model*

504 The strain gradient beams were addressed by solving the differential  
 505 equation (Papargyri-Beskou et al., 2003a,b; Polizzotto, 2014)

$$\left(w(x) - \ell^2 w''(x)\right)'''' = \frac{p(x)}{EI} \quad (58)$$

506 This equation is associated with the ordinary boundary conditions  
 507 listed above,<sup>3</sup> along with the *higher order* boundary conditions whereby  
 508 *either the bending curvature*  $\chi = -w''$ , *or the higher order bending mo-*  
 509 *ment*  $M^{(1)} = \ell^2 EI \chi' = -\ell^2 EI w'''$ , *is specified at the beam ends* (Poliz-  
 510 zotto, 2014). This implies that, at each beam end, the rotation and the  
 511 curvature are allowed to be both fixed, or both free, or even one fixed  
 512 and the other free, according to the actual constraint conditions.

513 Among several possible choices for the higher order boundary condi-  
 514 tions, we *assumed that the curvature is fixed or free according to whether*

---

<sup>2</sup>The strain gradient model and the nonlocal stress-driven one are founded on different theoretical bases, but in the case under consideration they are strictly related to a same Helmholtz differential equation, i.e.  $M = EI(\chi - \ell\chi'')$ . This implies that they share a same governing differential equation, i.e.  $(w(x) - \ell^2 w''(x))'''' = p/EI$ , and are different from each other only for the respective nonstandard boundary conditions. For this reason the stress-driven nonlocal model has been considered suitable for comparisons with the strain gradient model.

<sup>3</sup>Though in the case of multi-dimensional domain the traction (natural) boundary conditions are different for simple and strain gradient materials, they instead are coincident with each other for one-dimensional domains as in the case under discussion (Polizzotto, 2014).

515 *the rotation is fixed or free, respectively.* More precisely, the higher or-  
 516 der boundary conditions used to address the beam cases listed above  
 517 are as follows:

$$\left. \begin{aligned} w''(0) = w'''(L) = 0 & \text{ for cases a), b), d)} \\ w'''(0) = w'''(L) = 0 & \text{ for case c)} \\ w''(0) = w''(L) = 0 & \text{ for case e)} \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (59)$$

518 (2) *Stress-driven nonlocal model*

519 The solutions for the stress-driven nonlocal beams were taken from  
 520 (Barretta et al., 2018), where functionally graded materials are ad-  
 521 dressed. A comparison of the results of the latter paper with those of  
 522 the present homogeneous beam model is possible since in (Barretta et  
 523 al., 2018) the effective Young modulus  $I_E$  is constant along the beam  
 524 axis and its specific influence disappears from the dimensionless quan-  
 525 tities therein adopted in equation (91). The solution equations (33),  
 526 (55), (66), (80) and the numerical data of the tables reported in (Bar-  
 527 retta et al., 2018) (with  $I_E = EI$ ) were directly exploited to derive  
 528 the inherent representative curves. Suitable checks were executed to  
 529 verify that we were able to exactly reproduce the numerical data col-  
 530 lected in the tables reported in (Barretta et al., 2018) by the use of the  
 531 accompanying closed-form solutions.

532 A main difficulty for the planned comparison arises from the  $\alpha$  coeffi-  
 533 cient appearing in both models with the role of phase parameter, but  
 534 with different meanings (in (Barretta et al., 2018):  $\alpha = 0 \rightarrow$  fully non-  
 535 local;  $\alpha = 1 \rightarrow$  fully local; in the present work:  $\alpha = 0 \rightarrow$  fully local;  
 536  $\alpha \rightarrow \infty, \rightarrow$  fully nonlocal). Additionally, whereas in (Barretta et al.,  
 537 2018) the kernel just identifies itself with the bi-exponential function,  
 538 instead in the present work the kernel incorporates squared forms of the  
 539 latter function, which implies that, at parity of local source strain, the  
 540 attenuation effects are in some way more pronounced with respect to  
 541 the former model. Within the planned comparison, this phenomenon  
 542 may be heuristically accounted by considering as a realistic phase pa-  
 543 rameter of the present model the quantity  $\sqrt{\alpha}$ .

544 Therefore, looking at equation (31) of (Barretta et al., 2018) and Eq.  
 545 (25) of the present work, a relation between the respective phase pa-  
 546 rameters may be attempted by writing the equation



$$\sqrt{\alpha_F} : 1 = (1 - \alpha_B) : \alpha_B \quad (60)$$

547 Here, the subscripts appended to  $\alpha$  serve to distinguish the  $\alpha$  coefficient  
 548 of (Barretta et al., 2018) ( $\alpha_B$ ) from the present one ( $\alpha_F$ ). From (55)  
 549 we get

$$\alpha_B = \frac{1}{1 + \sqrt{\alpha_F}} \quad (61)$$

550 For  $\alpha_F = 50$ , the latter relation gives  $\alpha_B \approx 0.124$ . The value  $\alpha_B = 0.1$   
 551 was used for the computation of the solutions given by (Barretta et al.,  
 552 2018), which amounts to considering a mixture model with a density  
 553 of 90 % of the nonlocal phase. <sup>4</sup>

### 554 (3) *Eringen's nonlocal model*

555 The solutions pertaining to the Eringen nonlocal model were taken  
 556 from (Peddieson et al., 2003), except for the doubly clamped beam  
 557 not reported in the latter quoted paper, but addressed in (Barretta  
 558 and Marotti de Sciarra, 2015) and worked out by the authors with the  
 559 Eringen's method.

560 It may be useful to note that the doubly clamped Eringen nonlocal  
 561 beam mentioned above does not exhibit size effects on the deformation,  
 562 but it does on the bending moment  $M(x)$ . This is shown in Figure  
 563 3, where the  $M(x)$  diagram shifts upward on increasing  $\lambda$  (in such a  
 564 way that the maximum bending moment  $M(L/2)$  goes from  $p_0 L^2/48$   
 565 (classical value) for  $\lambda = 0$  to 0 for  $\lambda \approx 0.2$ , while the deflection  $w(x)$   
 566 remains fixed in its classical form. It may also be useful to explain the  
 567 reason of such particular behavior.

568 It is worthy of mention that the characters of the solution of the doubly  
 569 clamped beam e) are shared by any other Eringen's beam under uniform  
 570 load  $p_0$ , but constrained in such way that *the bending moment is not*  
 571 *involved within the boundary conditions (i.e. the rotation is assigned at*

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<sup>4</sup>In (Barretta et al., 2018) the numerical/graphical solutions for  $\alpha_B = 0.1$  are not reported, but we have been able to obtain these solutions using the closed-form solutions offered by the mentioned authors, except in the case of the clamped-pinned beam d) for which the closed-form solution is not reported.

572 *both beam ends.* The latter particular set of beams includes, beside the  
 573 beam of case e) (for which  $w(0) = w(L) = w'(0) = w'(L) = 0$ ), at least  
 574 another analogous beam with the boundary conditions  $w(0) = w'(0) =$   
 575  $w'(L) = 0, M'(L)$  specified.

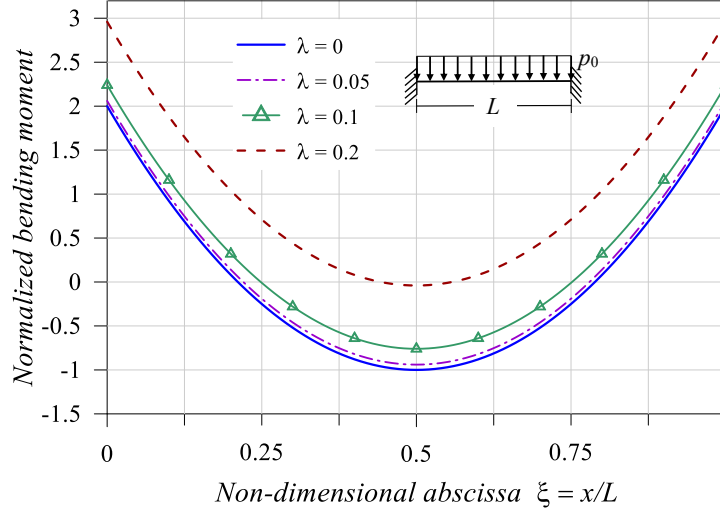


Figure 3: Clamped-clamped Eringen's nonlocal beam under uniform distributed load  $p_0$ . Bending moment diagrams  $M(x), 0 \leq x \leq L$ , reported for different values of  $\lambda = 0, 0.5, 0.1, 0.2$ .

576 Then, considering a beam belonging to this particular set, the general  
 577 governing differential equation, that is,

$$w''''(x) = \frac{1}{EI} [p(x) - \ell^2 p''(x)] \quad (62)$$

578 since  $p = p_0$ , simplifies by losing its dependence on  $\ell$ , namely

$$w''''(x) = \frac{1}{EI} p_0 \quad (63)$$

579 whereas the bending moment is given by

$$M(x) = -EI w''(x) - \ell^2 p_0 \quad (64)$$

580 Since the bending moment  $M(x)$  does not intervene into the (ordinary)  
 581 boundary conditions (but its derivative  $M'(x)$  possibly does), then the

582 deflection  $w(x)$  obtained by integration of (63) does not contain  $\ell$ , hence  
 583 it coincides with the classical deflection; moreover, the bending moment  
 584  $M^c(x) := -EIw''(x)$  is the classical bending moment. Therefore the  
 585 actual bending moment  $M(x)$  is expressed as

$$M(x) = M^c(x) - \ell^2 p_0 \quad (65)$$

586 That is,  $M(x)$  is coincident with  $M^c(x)$ , but shifted by  $\ell^2 p_0$  upward,  
 587 the more, the larger is  $\ell$ , as shown in Figure 3.

588 An equivalent explanation based on the analogy proposed by (Barretta  
 589 and Marotti de Sciarra, 2015) may also be given, but we have preferred  
 590 the use of direct arguments.

### 591 5.3. Description and discussion of the obtained results

592 The obtained results are illustrated in Figures 4–8, where the maximum  
 593 beam deflection (here called “normalized deflection”, denoted with the sym-  
 594 bol  $\hat{w}$ ) is plotted as a function of  $\lambda := \ell/L$  varying within the (meaningful)  
 595 interval ( $0 \leq \lambda \leq 0.2$ ).

596 Figures 4–8 show that —except the Eringen’s nonlocal method— the  
 597 other three methods (hereafter collectively referred as the “comparison meth-  
 598 ods”) predict stiffening size effects for all the considered beam cases. The  
 599 curves  $\hat{w}(\lambda)$  obtained with these comparison methods for every beam case are  
 600 generally sufficiently close to one another, which means that the size effects  
 601 predictions by the considered methods are in substantial agreement with one  
 602 another.

603 The normalized deflection curves,  $\hat{w}(\lambda)$ , are all characterized by a *negative*  
 604 *slope*, namely  $\frac{d\hat{w}}{d\lambda} < 0$ . This indicates that there is a *reduction of the nor-*  
 605 *malized deflection with increasing  $\lambda$* , or equivalently that there is an *increase*  
 606 *of the stiffening effects with decreasing the specimen size*. This result is a  
 607 natural consequence of the physical circumstance whereby the microstruc-  
 608 ture with its stiffening effects becomes dominant the more, the smaller is the  
 609 specimen size.

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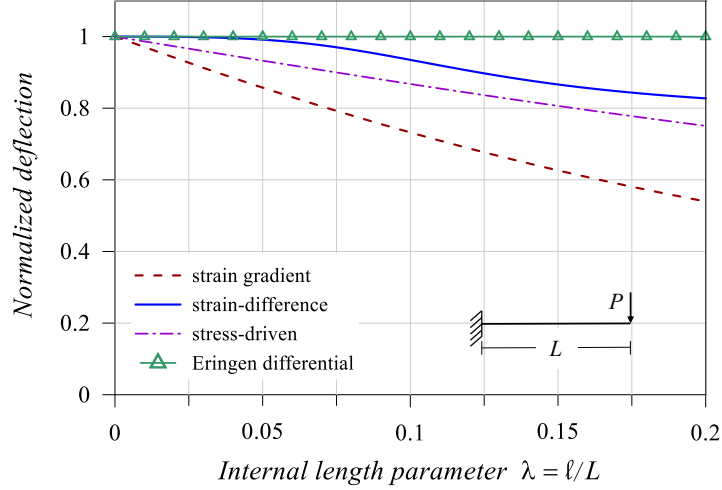


Figure 4: Cantilever beam subjected to a point load at the free end. Normalized deflection at the free end cross section *versus* internal length parameter  $\lambda$  for strain gradient (Polizzotto 2014, dashed line), strain-difference integral (present model, solid line), stress-driven (Barretta et al. 2018, dash dot line) and Eringen differential (Peddieson et al. 2003, solid line with triangles) constitutive behavior.

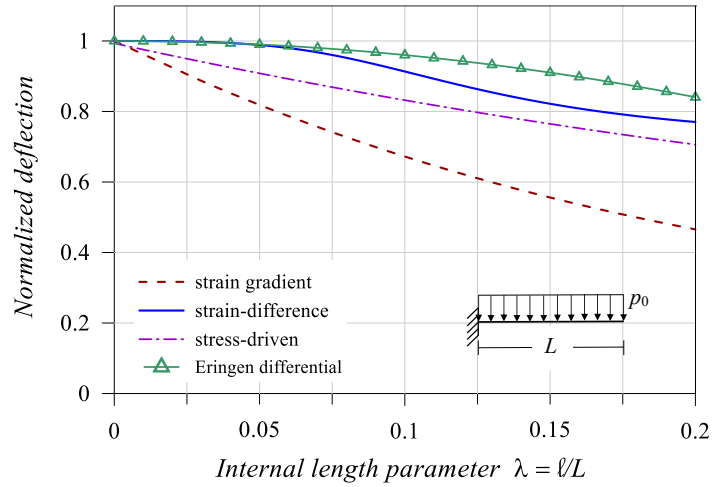


Figure 5: Cantilever beam subjected to uniform distributed load. Normalized deflection at the free end cross section *versus* internal length parameter  $\lambda$  for strain gradient (Polizzotto 2014, dashed line), strain-difference integral (present model, solid line), stress-driven (Barretta et al. 2018, dash dot line) and Eringen differential (Peddieson et al. 2003, solid line with triangles) constitutive behavior.

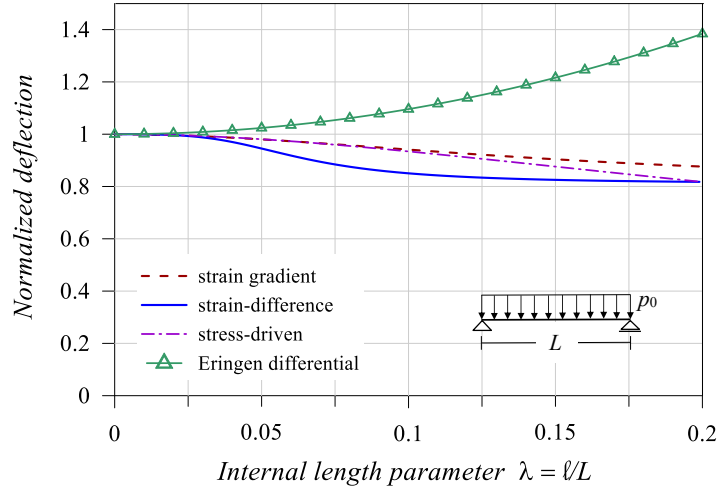


Figure 6: Simply supported beam subjected to uniform distributed load. Normalized deflection at mid cross section *versus* internal length parameter for strain gradient (Polizzotto 2014, dashed line), strain-difference integral (present model, solid line), stress-driven (Barretta et al. 2018, dash dot line) and Eringen differential (Peddieson et al. 2003, solid line with triangles) constitutive behavior.

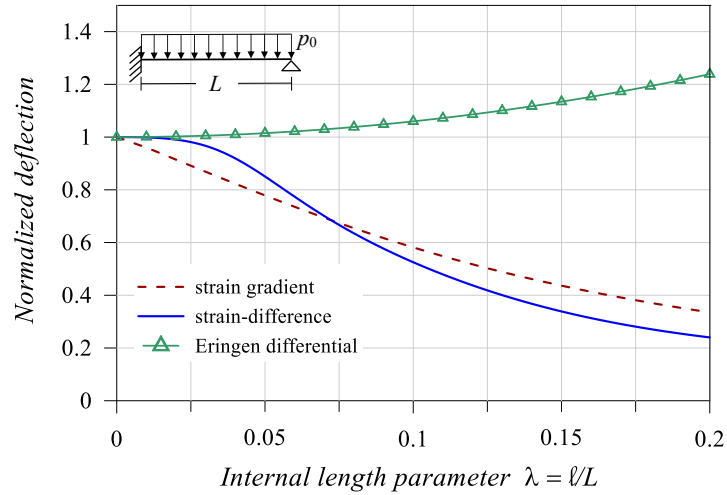


Figure 7: Clamped-pinned beam subjected to uniform distributed load. Normalized deflection at mid cross section *versus* internal length parameter  $\lambda$  for strain gradient (Polizzotto 2014, dashed line), strain-difference integral (present model, solid line) and Eringen differential (Peddieson et al. 2003, solid line with triangles) constitutive behavior. (The curve relative to the stress-driven model is not reported because the related closed-form solution is not reported in (Barretta et al., 2018).)

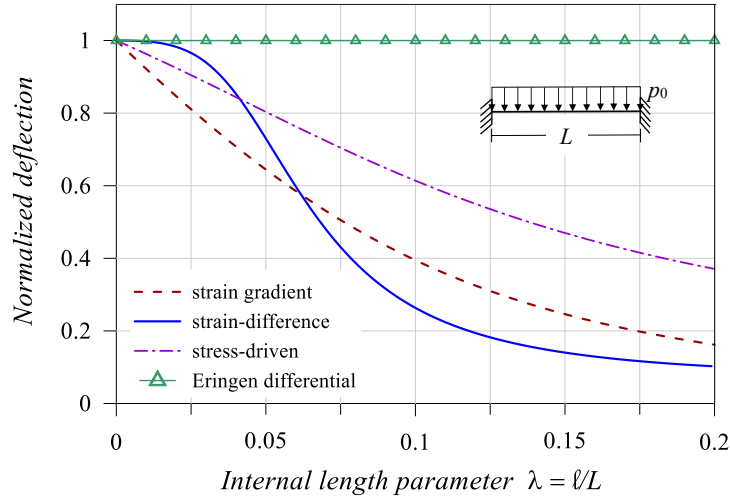


Figure 8: Clamped-clamped beam subjected to uniform distributed load. Normalized deflection at mid cross section *versus* internal length parameter  $\lambda$  for strain gradient (Polizzotto 2014, dashed line), strain-difference integral (present model, solid line), stress-driven (Barretta et al. 2018, dash dot line) and Eringen differential (Peddieson et al. 2003, solid line with triangles) constitutive behavior.

613

614 Figures 4–8 show that the normalized deflection curves relative to the  
 615 strain-difference based model exhibit a waved pattern. This means that, after  
 616 the latter model, the rate at which the stiffening effects increase is increasing  
 617 with  $\lambda$  increasing from zero to some inflection point, say  $\lambda^i$ , but is decreasing  
 618 with  $\lambda$  increasing beyond  $\lambda^i$ . This prediction of the strain-difference based  
 619 model seems to be in contrast with the strain gradient model and the stress-  
 620 driven one, which in fact lead to normalized deflection curves that apparently  
 621 do not exhibit a waved pattern.

622 However, a deeper insight on Figures 4–8 shows that both the strain  
 623 gradient model and the stress-driven one may also lead to waved curves  
 624  $\hat{w}(\lambda)$ , though with less pronounced wave amplitudes, for certain beam cases.  
 625 This has been ascertained by computing the slope  $d\hat{w}/d\lambda$  as a function of  $\lambda$ .  
 626 We found a waved normalized deflection curve for the doubly pinned beam  
 627 case addressed with either the strain-gradient and the stress-driven models,  
 628 as well as for the clamped-pinned and doubly clamped beam cases addressed  
 629 with the stress-driven model.

630 For a full validation of the above waved pattern of the normalized de-

631 deflection suitable experimental data would be required, but —to the au-  
632 thors’ knowledge— such data are not available. In the wait of the necessary  
633 (likely difficult) laboratory experiments, the existence of normalized deflec-  
634 tion curves with a waved pattern remain as just a prediction of the existing  
635 constitutive models.

## 636 6. Conclusion

637 We have applied the so-called strain-difference based nonlocal elasticity  
638 model previously devised elsewhere (Polizzotto et al., 2004, 2006) to simple  
639 Euler-Bernoulli beam structures subjected to static loads. Stiffening size ef-  
640 fects have been found for the five beam cases herein considered, while the  
641 proposed method is expected to lead to the same kind of size effects for other  
642 types multi-dimensional structures. For comparison, the beam responses  
643 based on other constitutive models have been also reported, namely, the  
644 strain gradient model (Mindlin and Eshel, 1968; Papargyri-Beskou et al.,  
645 2003a,a; Polizzotto, 2014), along with the stress-driven nonlocal model (Ro-  
646 mano and Barretta, 2017a,b; Romano et al., 2017b). Stiffening size effects  
647 were also found with these latter models. The comparison was enriched by  
648 reporting the analogous plots obtained with the Eringen nonlocal differential  
649 model, known to lead to inconsistent solutions (paradoxes).

650 The major notable result obtained with the present work is that stiffen-  
651 ing size effects on the deformation for the five considered beam cases (and  
652 likely for other multi-dimensional structures) are predicted with the pro-  
653 posed strain-difference based nonlocal model, which belongs to the family of  
654 strain-integral nonlocal models.

655 The obtained results prove to be in sufficient agreement with those ob-  
656 tained with the widely accepted strain-gradient constitutive model, as well  
657 as with the stress-driven model by Romano and Barretta (2017a,b), which  
658 seems to corroborate the well-known *smaller-is-stiffer* phenomenon. For a  
659 full validation of these results, arguments based on adequate laboratory ex-  
660 periments would be required. Due to the difficulty to find out adequate  
661 experimental data, here a theoretical study has been performed.

662 In the authors’ opinion, the obtained results deserve to be further pursued,  
663 first in order to find improved models to adhere more accurately to the actual  
664 (experimentally validated) specimen behavior, second in order to extend the  
665 application framework. This is the subject of an ongoing research.

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