# Buckling and free vibration analyses of nanobeams with surface effects via various higher-order shear deformation theories

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**Abstract.** The theories having been developed thus far account for higher-order variation of transverse shear strain through the depth of the beam and satisfy the stress-free boundary conditions on the top and bottom surfaces of the beam. A shear correction factor, therefore, is not required. In this paper, the effect of surface on the axial buckling and free vibration of nanobeams is studied using various refined higher-order shear deformation beam theories. Furthermore, these theories have strong similarities with Euler–Bernoulli beam theory in aspects such as equations of motion, boundary conditions, and expressions of the resultant stress. The equations of motion and boundary conditions were derived from Hamilton's principle. The resultant system of ordinary differential equations was solved analytically. The effects of the nanobeam length-to-thickness ratio, thickness, and modes on the buckling and free vibration behavior of a nanobeam is size-dependent and that surface effects and surface energy produce significant effects by increasing the ratio of surface area to bulk at nano-scale. The results indicated that surface effects influence the buckling and free vibration performance of nanobeams and that increasing the length-to-thickness increases the buckling and free vibration in various higher-order shear deformation beam theories. This study can assist in measuring the mechanical properties of nanobeams accurately and designing nanobeam-based devices and systems.

Keywords: higher-order shear; surface effect; elastic medium; axial bulking; analytical modeling

#### 1. Introduction

It is well known that the elementary theory of bending the beam based on Euler-Bernoulli hypothesis disregards the effects of shear deformation and stress concentration. This theory is suitable for slender beams rather than thick or deep beams since it is based on the assumption that the sections normal to neutral axis before bending remain so during bending and after bending, implying that the transverse shear strain is zero. Since this theory neglects the transverse shear deformation, it underestimates deflections in the case of thick beams where the effects of shear deformation are significant. The discrepancies in the elementary theory of beam bending and first-order shear deformation theory require the improvement of higher-order or equivalent refined shear deformation theories. Euler-Bernoulli elementary theory of bending (ETB) of beam (2011) disregards the effect of shear deformation. The firstorder shear deformation theory (FSDT) of Timoshenko (1921) includes refined effects such as the rotatory inertia and shear deformation in the beam theory. Cowper (1966) gave a refined expression for the shear correction factor for different cross-sections of the beam. Levinson (1981), Bickford (1982), Rehfield and Murthy (1982), Krishna Murty (1984), Baluch et al. (1984), and Bhimaraddi and Chandrashekhara (1993) presented parabolic shear deformation theories, assuming a higher variation of axial displacement in terms of thickness coordinate. Kant and Gupta (1988) and Heyliger and Reddy (1988) presented higher-order shear deformation theories for the static and free vibration analyses of shear-deformable uniform rectangular beams. There is an alternative class of refined theories, which consists of trigonometric functions to characterize the shear deformation effects through the thickness of the beam. Vlasov and Leont'ev (1966) and Stein (1989) developed refined shear deformation theories for thick beams, including sinusoidal function in terms of thickness coordinate in the displacement field. However, by applying these theories, shear stress-free boundary conditions are not satisfied on the top and bottom surfaces of the beam. Abdelaziz et al. (2017) developed a hyperbolic shear deformation theory and applied for the bending, vibration and buckling of PGM sandwich plate with various boundary conditions. Meziane et al. (2014) presented a shear deformation theory for the vibration and buckling of exponentially graded material sandwich plate resting on elastic foundations under various boundary conditions. The displacement field of the present theory was chosen based on nonlinear variations in the in-plane displacements through the thickness of the plate. Ghugal and Sharma (2009) developed the variationally consistent, hyperbolic shear deformation theory for flexural analysis of thick beams and obtained the displacements, stresses, and fundamental frequencies of flexural mode and thickness shear modes from free vibration of simply supported beams.

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Challamel and Wang (2011) studied the lateral-torsional buckling problem of Eringen's study based on the static and dynamic deformation of thick, functionally graded, elastic plates by using higher-order shear and normal deformable plate theories and meshless local Petrov-Galerkin method. Rao and Ganesan (1995) investigated the harmonic response of tapered composite beams by employing finite element model based on a higher-order shear deformation theory. Khdeir and Reddy (1997) presented an exact solution to the governing equations for bending the laminated beams. They employed the classical, the firstorder, the second-order, and the third-order beam theories in their analysis. They studied the effect of shear deformation, the number of layers, and the orthotropic ratio on the static response of composite beams. They found big differences between the deflections predicted by the classical beam theory and those predicted by the higher-order beam theories, especially when the ratio of beam length to its height was low due to the shear deformation effects. Eisenberger (2003) proposed exact stiffness coefficients, including the cubic variations of the axial displacements over the cross-section of the beam, for isotropic beam by employing a simple higher-order theory. Subramanian (2006) proposed the free vibration analysis of composite beams using finite elements based on two higher-order shear deformation theories. Wang et al. (2010) studied these small-scale structures and presented some scale effects that can be captured using nonlocal mechanics. Bouafia et al. (2017) investigated size dependent bending and free flexural vibration behaviors of FG nanobeams using a nonlocal quasi-3D theory in which both shear deformation and thickness stretching effects were introduced. Zemri et al. (2015) presented a nonlocal shear deformation beam theory for bending, buckling, and vibration of FG nanobeams using the nonlocal differential constitutive relations of Eringen. Bounouara et al. (2016) presented a zeroth-order shear deformation theory for free vibration analysis of FG nanoscale plates resting on elastic foundation. Ahouel et al. (2016) developed a nonlocal trigonometric shear deformation beam theory based on neutral surface position for bending, buckling, and vibration of FG nanobeams using the nonlocal differential constitutive relations of Eringen. Chaht et al. (2015) studied the bending and buckling behaviors of size- dependent nanobeams made of FGMs including the thickness stretching effect. Al-Basyouni et al. (2015) proposed an unified beam formulation and a modified couple stress theory that considered a variable length scale parameter in conjunction with the neutral axis concept to study bending and dynamic behaviors of FG micro beam. Matsunaga (1996-1999) analyzed the natural frequencies and buckling of deep isotropic beams subjected to axial stress by using the approximate one-dimensional higher-order theories. Nguyen et al. (2014) present an analytical solution for the size-dependent static analysis of the functionally graded (FG) nanobeams with various boundary conditions based on the nonlocal continuum model. Thai et al. (2017) presented a numerical model for the bending, buckling and free vibration analyses of FG microplates. The size-dependent effect was captured by using the modified strain gradient elasticity theory with three length scale parameters, whilst the shear deformation effect was accounted by using the third-order shear deformation theory. Thai et al. (2017) used the isogeometric analysis to investigate the postbuckling behavior of FG microplates subjected to mechanical and thermal loads. The modified a strain gradient theory with three length scale parameters was used to capture the size effect. Nguyen et al. (2015) proposed an efficient computational approach based on refined plate theory including the thickness stretching effect in conjunction with isogeometric formulation for the sizedependent bending, free vibration and buckling analysis of FG nanoplate structures. Trinh (2016) investigated the mechanical behaviours of FG microbeams based on the modified couple stress theory. The material properties of these beams were varied through beam's depth and calculated by using classical rule of mixture and Mori-Tanaka scheme. Trinh (2017) presented the static bending, free vibration and buckling behaviours of FG sandwich microplates under mechanical and thermal loads. Governing equations of both higher-order shear deformation and quasi-3D theories were derived based on the variational principle and modified couple stress theory. Trinh (2018) studied the free vibration behaviour of bi-dimensional FG microbeams under arbitrary boundary conditions. Based on the frame work of the modified couple stress theory and Hamilton's principle, governing equations of motion were developed for the bi-dimensional FG microbeams using a quasi-3D theory. A new nonlocal hyperbolic refined plate model for free vibration properties of functionally graded (FG) plates was presented by (Belkorissat et al. 2015a, b). This nonlocal nano-plate model incorporates the length scale parameter, which can capture the small-scale effect. (Tebboune et al. 2015a, b) presented a trigonometric shear deformation theory for thermal buckling analysis of functionally graded plates. The theory accounts for sinusoidal distribution of transverse shear stress, and satisfies the free transverse shear stress conditions on the top and bottom surfaces of the plate without using shear correction factor. Bourada et al. (2015) developed a refined trigonometric higher-order beam theory for bending and vibration of functionally graded beams. In this theory, in addition to modeling the displacement field, the thickness stretching effect is also included. Hebali et al. (2014) developed a quasi-three-dimensional (3D) hyperbolic shear deformation theory for the bending and free vibration analysis of functionally graded plates. Unlike any other theory, the number of unknown functions involved in displacement field is only five, as against six or more in the case of other shear and normal deformation theories. Bennoun et al. (2016) developed a new five-variable refined plate theory for the free vibration analysis of functionally graded sandwich plates. Bousahla et al. (2016) presented a four-variable refined plate theory for buckling analysis of functionally graded plates subjected to uniform, linear and non-linear temperature rises across the thickness direction. Belabed et al. (2014) presented an efficient and simple higher order shear and normal deformation theory for functionally graded material (FGM) plates. By dividing the transverse displacement into bending, shear and

thickness stretching parts, the number of unknowns and governing equations for the present theory is reduced. Surface stress and surface elasticity have been accepted as important factors that may clarify the experimentally measured size dependent elastic modulus of nanobeams. Some analytical methods have been suggested to integrate these surface effects into the Euler-Bernoulli law for elementary beam theory to examine the elastic behavior of nanobeams. According to the performed researches and corresponding results, a gap exists in open literature that is, study the surface effect via high order theory. This paper aims to fill the gap. In the present paper the buckling and transverse vibration of nanobeams under uniaxial load were studied based on various refined higher-order shear deformation beam theories. The aim is to investigate accurately the effect of geometrical properties such as thickness and length-to-thickness ratio of the nanobeams when compared to the solutions published in the literature.

#### 2. Governing equations

Consider a beam with length L and rectangular crosssection  $b \times h$ , where b is the width and h is the height, as Fig. 1 shows. In this figure, (x, y, z) coordinates represent the length, width, and height of the beam. The formulation is limited to linear elastic material behavior. The displacement fields of various shear deformation beam theories are selected based on the following assumptions: (1) the axial and transverse displacements are partitioned into bending and shear components, respectively; (2) the bending component of the axial displacement is similar to that given by the classical beam theory (CBT); and (3) the shear component of the axial displacement gives rise to the higher-order variation of shear strain and, hence, to shear stress through the depth of the beam in such a way that shear stress vanishes on the top and bottom surfaces. Based on these assumptions, the displacement fields of various higher-order shear deformation beam theories are given in a general form as follows:

$$u_{x}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = u(\mathbf{x}) - z \frac{\partial w_{b}}{\partial x} - f(z) \frac{\partial w_{s}}{\partial x}$$
$$u_{y}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = 0$$
(1)

$$u_z(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = w_b(\mathbf{x}) + w_s(\mathbf{x})$$

where  $(u_x, u_z)$  are the axial displacement and the transverse displacement of points of the beam,  $w_b$  and  $w_s$  are the bending and shear components of transverse displacement of a point on the mid-plane of the beam, respectively, and f(z) is a shape function determining the distribution of the transverse shear strain and shear stress through the depth of the beam. The shape function f(z) is selected to satisfy the stress-free boundary conditions on the top and bottom surfaces of the beam; thus a shear correction factor is not required. Boukhari *et al.* (2016) developed a shear deformation theory for wave propagation analysis of an infinite FG plate in the presence of thermal environments.

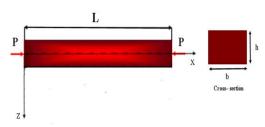


Fig. 1 Geometry and coordinate of a nanobeam with rectangular cross-section under axial load

By dividing the transverse displacement into bending and shear parts, the number of unknowns and governing equations of the present theory was reduced. Ait Yahia et al. (2015) developed various higher-order shear deformation plate theories for wave propagation in FG plates having porosities. Bouderba et al. (2016) developed a first-order shear deformation theory to analysis the thermal buckling response of FG sandwich plates. Bousahla et al. (2016) presented a four-variable refined plate theory for buckling analysis of FG plates subjected to uniform, linear and non-linear temperature rises across the thickness direction. Beldjelili et al. (2016) discussed the hygrothermo-mechanical bending behavior of sigmoid FG plate resting on variable two-parameter elastic foundations using a four-variable refined plate theory. Tounsi et al. (2013) presented a refined trigonometric shear deformation theory taking into account transverse shear deformation effects for the thermoelastic bending analysis of FG sandwich plates. Saidi (2016) proposed an hyperbolic shear deformation theory for vibration analysis of thick FG rectangular plates resting on elastic foundations. The displacement fields of the third-order beam theory (TBT) based on Reddy (1984), sinusoidal beam theory (SBT) based on Touratier (1991), hyperbolic beam theory (HBT) based on Soldatos (1992), and exponential beam theory (EBT) based on Karama et al. (2003) can be obtained from Eq. (1) by using different shape functions f(z) given in Table 1. It is noted that the displacement fields of the proposed theories are different from those of the existing higher-order theories such as TBT (1984), SBT (1991), HBT (1992), and EBT (2003). In the proposed theories, the transverse displacement  $u_{z}$  is partitioned into the bending and shear parts components (see Eq. (1)), whereas the transverse displacement of the above-mentioned theories is not partitioned into the bending and shear parts. The partition of the transverse displacement into the bending and shear parts helps identify the contributions of shear parts and bending to the total transverse displacement. The non-zero strains read:

$$\mathcal{E}_{xx} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} - z \frac{\partial^2 w_b}{\partial x^2} - f \frac{\partial^2 w_s}{\partial x^2}$$
(2)

$$\gamma_{xz} = \left(1 - \frac{\partial f}{\partial z}\right) \frac{\partial w_s}{\partial x} \equiv g \frac{\partial w_s}{\partial x}$$
(3)

where  $g(z)=(1-\partial f / \partial z)$  are the shape functions of the transverse shear strains given in Table 1, for various beam models. These shape functions represent the distribution of the transverse shear strains and, hence, the transverse shear stresses through the depth of the beam.

Table 1 Shape functions

Model	f(z)	g(z)=1-df/dz
TBT based on Reddy	$\frac{4z^3}{3h^2}$	$1 - \frac{4z^2}{h^2}$
SBT Touratier	$z - \frac{h}{\pi} \sin(\frac{\pi z}{h})$	$\cos(\frac{\pi z}{h})$
HBT based on Soldates	$z - h \sinh(\frac{z}{h}) + z \cosh(\frac{1}{2})$	$\cosh(\frac{z}{h}) - \cosh(\frac{1}{2})$
EBT based on Karama <i>et al</i>	$z - z e^{-2(z/h)^2}$	$\left(1-\frac{4z^2}{h^2}\right)e^{-2(z/h)^2}$
Classic Beam Theory (CBT)	z	0

## 3. Surface elasticity and its influence on beam deformation

The increasing contribution of surface properties is believed to be the main reason for the effect of size on materials. In fact, the effect of size on the mechanical properties of materials is analyzed primarily within the framework of surface effects. The surface atoms have a lower co-ordination number compared to the bulk atoms, i.e. they have fewer neighbors (Sun et al. 2002a, b). As a result, the charge density in the vicinity of the surface is redistributed. Correspondingly, the nature of the chemical bond and the equilibrium interatomic distances on the surface are different from those inside the bulk (Haiss 2001). Researchers have studied the effects of surface on nanoscale materials such as nanoplates, nanowires, and nanorods (Miller and Shenoy 2000, Dingreville and Cherkaoui 2005, He et al. 2004, Shenoy 2002, Shenoy 2005, Sharma et al. 2003). The effects of surface on the mechanical behavior of nanomaterials can be examined by considering surface energy and/or surface stresses. According to Gibbs (1906) and Cammarata (1994), the surface stress tensor  $\sigma_{\alpha\beta}^s$  is related to the surface energy density  $\gamma$  through the surface strain tensor  $\varepsilon_{\alpha\beta}^{s}$  by:

$$\sigma_{\alpha\beta}^{s} = \gamma \delta_{\alpha\beta} + \frac{\partial \gamma}{\partial \varepsilon_{\alpha\beta}^{s}}$$
(4)

The one-dimensional and linear relationships of the stress-strain of equation (4) are used as follows:

$$\sigma^s = \tau^0 + E^s \varepsilon \tag{5}$$

where  $\tau^0$  is the residual surface tension under unstrained condition, and  $E^s$  is the surface elastic modulus, which can be determined by atomistic simulations or experiments (Jing *et al.* 2006a, b, Miller and Shenoy 2000).

#### 4. Equations of motion

The governing equations and the boundary conditions will be obtained by using the principle of the minimum total potential energy. The first variation of the strain energy is indicated as follows:

$$\delta U = \int_{0}^{L} \int_{A} \left( \sigma_{x} \delta \varepsilon_{x} + \sigma_{xz} \delta \gamma_{xz} \right) \, dA dx$$
  
= 
$$\int_{0}^{l} \left( N \frac{d \delta u}{dx} - M_{b} \frac{d^{2} \delta w_{b}}{dx^{2}} - M_{s} \frac{d^{2} \delta w_{s}}{dx^{2}} + Q \frac{d \delta w_{s}}{dx} \right) dx \tag{6}$$

where  $\delta U$  is the virtual variation of the strain energy, and *N*, *M*, and Q are the stress resultants that are defined for use in the next sections as:

$$N = \int_{A} \sigma_{xx} dA, \quad M_{s} = \int_{A} f \sigma_{xx} dA,$$
  
$$M_{b} = \int_{A} z \sigma_{xx} dA, \quad Q = \int_{A} g \sigma_{xz} dA$$
(7)

The variation of the potential energy by the transverse load q applied and the axial compressive load p can be written as:

$$\delta V = -\int_{0}^{L} q \,\delta\left(w_{b} + w_{s}\right) dx - \int_{0}^{L} p \frac{d\left(w_{b} + w_{s}\right)}{dx} \frac{d\delta\left(w_{b} + w_{s}\right)}{dx} dx$$
(8)

El-Haina *et al.* (2017) presented an analytical approach to investigate the thermal buckling behavior of thick FG sandwich by employing both the sinusoidal shear deformation theory and stress function. Menasria *et al.* (2017) suggested an higher shear deformation theory to analyze the thermal buckling response of FG sandwich plates. Abualnour *et al.* (2018) presented a shear deformation theory including the stretching effect for free vibration of the simply supported FG plates. Houari *et al.* (2016) developed a higher-order shear deformation theory for bending and free vibration analysis of functionally graded (FG) plates. The variation of the kinetic energy can be expressed as:

$$\delta K = -\int_{0}^{L} \int_{A} \rho(z) \left( \dot{u}_{1} \delta \dot{u}_{1} + \dot{u}_{3} \delta \dot{u}_{3} \right) dA dx$$

$$= -\int_{0}^{L} \left\{ I_{0} \left[ \dot{u} \delta \dot{u} + \left( \dot{w}_{b} + \dot{w}_{s} \right) \delta \left( \dot{w}_{b} + \dot{w}_{s} \right) \right]$$

$$+ I_{1} \frac{d \dot{w}_{b}}{dx} \frac{d \delta \dot{w}_{b}}{dx} + K_{1} \frac{d \dot{w}_{s}}{dx} \frac{d \delta \dot{w}_{s}}{dx} \right\} dx$$
(9)

where dot-superscript convent illustrates the differentiation with regard to the time variable t,  $\rho(z)$  is the mass density, and (I<sub>0</sub>, I<sub>1</sub>, K<sub>1</sub>) are the mass inertias determined as

$$I_{0} = \int_{A} \rho(z) dA,$$

$$I_{1} = \int_{A} z^{2} \rho(z) dA,$$

$$K_{1} = \int_{A} f^{2} \rho(z) dA$$
(10)

Hamilton's principle is used herein to derive the equations of motion. The principle can be stated in an analytical form as (Reddy 2002):

$$\int_{0}^{T} \left( \delta U + \delta V - \delta K \right) dt = 0 \tag{11}$$

where substituting the expressions for  $\delta U$ ,  $\delta V$  and  $\delta K$  from Eqs. (6)-(8) and Eq. (9) into Eq. (11) leads to:

$$\int_{0}^{T} \left\{ \int_{0}^{l} \left( N \frac{d\delta u}{dx} - M_{b} \frac{d^{2} \delta w_{b}}{dx^{2}} - M_{s} \frac{d^{2} \delta w_{s}}{dx^{2}} + Q \frac{d\delta w_{s}}{dx} \right) dx$$

$$-\int_{0}^{L} q \delta \left( w_{b} + w_{s} \right) dx$$

$$-\int_{0}^{L} p \frac{d \left( w_{b} + w_{s} \right)}{dx} \frac{d\delta \left( w_{b} + w_{s} \right)}{dx} dx$$

$$+\int_{0}^{L} \left\{ I_{0} \left[ \dot{u} \delta \dot{u} + \left( \dot{w_{b}} + \dot{w_{s}} \right) \delta \left( \dot{w_{b}} + \dot{w_{s}} \right) \right] \right\}$$

$$+I_{1} \frac{d \dot{w_{b}}}{dx} \frac{d\delta \dot{w_{b}}}{dx} + K_{1} \frac{d \dot{w_{s}}}{dx} \frac{d\delta \dot{w_{s}}}{dx} dx dt = 0$$

$$(12)$$

After integrating by parts versus both space and time variables and collecting the coefficients of  $\delta u$ ,  $\delta w_b$ , and  $\delta w_s$ , the following equations of motion of the beam are achieved:

$$\delta u: \frac{\partial N}{\partial x} = I_0 \ddot{u} \tag{13}$$

$$\delta w_{b} : \frac{\partial^{2} M_{b}}{\partial x^{2}} + q - p \frac{d^{2} (w_{b} + w_{s})}{dx^{2}}$$

$$= I_{0} \left( \ddot{w_{b}} + \ddot{w_{s}} \right) - I_{1} \frac{\partial^{2} \ddot{w_{b}}}{\partial x^{2}}$$
(14)

$$\delta w_{s}: \frac{\partial^{2} M_{s}}{\partial x^{2}} + \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} + q - p \frac{d^{2} (w_{b} + w_{s})}{dx^{2}}$$

$$= I_{0} \left( \ddot{w_{b}} + \ddot{w_{s}} \right) - K_{1} \frac{\partial^{2} \ddot{w_{s}}}{\partial x^{2}}$$
(15)

The boundary conditions are of the form:

$$N = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad u = 0 \tag{16a}$$

$$Q_b \equiv \frac{dM_b}{dx} - p \frac{d(w_b + w_s)}{dx} + I_1 \frac{dw_b}{dx} \quad \text{or} \quad w_b = 0$$
 (16b)

$$Q_{s} \equiv \frac{dM_{s}}{dx} + Q - p \frac{d(w_{b} + w_{s})}{dx} + K_{1} \frac{dw_{s}}{dx} \quad \text{or} \quad w_{s} = 0 \quad (16c)$$

,

$$M_b = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{dW_b}{dx} = 0 \tag{16d}$$

$$M_s = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{dw_s}{dx} = 0 \tag{16e}$$

The equations of motion and boundary conditions of the CBT can be achieved from Eqs. (14)-(15) by setting the shear component of transverse displacement  $w_s$  equal to zero. The linear constitutive relations of a beam are given as (Thai and Vo 2012):

$$\sigma_{xz} = Q_{55}\gamma_{xz}, \quad Q_{55} = \frac{E}{2(1+\nu)}$$

$$\sigma_x = Q_{11}\varepsilon_x, \quad Q_{11} = E$$
(17)

After substituting Eqs. (4)-(5) into Eq. (17) and the subsequent results into Eq. (7), the constitutive equations for the stress resultants are obtained as follows:

$$N = EA \frac{du}{dx}, \ \mathcal{M}_{b} = -ED \frac{d^{2}w_{b}}{dx^{2}}$$
(18)  
$$M_{s} = -EH_{s} \frac{d^{2}w_{s}}{dx^{2}}, \ Q = A_{s} \frac{dw_{s}}{dx}$$
(18)  
$$A = \int_{A} dA, \ B = \int_{A} zdA, \ B_{s} = \int_{A} fdA, \ D = \int_{A} z^{2}dA,$$
(19)  
$$D_{s} = \int_{A} zfdA, \ H_{s} = \int_{A} f^{2}dA, \ A_{s} = \int_{A} g^{2}Q_{55}dA$$

#### 5. Equations of motion in terms of displacement

The governing equations of motion in terms of displacements u,  $w_b$  and  $w_s$  can be obtained by substituting the stress resultants in Eq. (18) into Eqs. (13) to (15), leading to:

$$EA\frac{d^2u}{dx^2} = I_0 \overset{..}{u} \tag{20}$$

The residual surface tension will create a distributed loading q(x) along the transverse direction as follows:

$$q(x) = H \frac{d^2(w_b + w_s)}{dx^2}$$
(23)

where the parameter H is a constant determined by the remaining surface tension and the shape of cross-section. For rectangular cross-section, H is given, separately, by:

$$H = 2b\tau_0 \tag{24}$$

where  $\tau_0$  is the residual surface tension (Wang and Feng 2009). Therefore, substituting Eq. (23) in Eq. (21) into (22) leads to the following equilibrium equation

$$-ED\frac{d^4w_b}{dx^4} - ED_s\frac{d^4w_s}{dx^4} + H\frac{d^2(w_b + w_s)}{dx^2}$$

$$-p\frac{d^2(w_b + w_s)}{dx^2} = I_0\left(\ddot{w_b} + \ddot{w_s}\right) - I_1\frac{\partial^2\ddot{w_b}}{\partial x^2}$$
(25)

$$-ED_{s}\frac{d^{4}w_{b}}{dx^{4}} - EH_{s}\frac{d^{4}w_{s}}{dx^{4}} + A_{s}\frac{d^{2}w_{s}}{dx^{2}}$$
$$+H\frac{d(w_{b}+w_{s})}{dx^{2}} - p\frac{d^{2}(w_{b}+w_{s})}{dx^{2}}$$
$$=I_{0}\left(\overset{\cdots}{w_{b}}+\overset{\cdots}{w_{s}}\right) - K_{1}\frac{\partial^{2}\overset{\cdots}{w_{s}}}{\partial x^{2}}$$
(26)

In conclusion, the critical buckling load and free vibration of nanobeam for various higher-order shear deformation beam theories are obtained by the following equation:

$$D_{_{11}} \frac{d^4 w_b}{dx^4} + D_{_{12}} \frac{d^4 w_s}{dx^4} - H \frac{d^2 (w_b + w_s)}{dx^2} + p \frac{d^2 (w_b + w_s)}{dx^2} = -I_0 \left( \ddot{w}_b + \ddot{w}_s \right) + I_1 \frac{\partial^2 \ddot{w}_b}{\partial x^2}$$
(27)

$$D_{12} \frac{d^4 w_b}{dx^4} + D_{22} \frac{d^4 w_s}{dx^4} - A_s \frac{d^2 w_s}{dx^2} - H \frac{d^2 (w_b + w_s)}{dx^2} + p \frac{d^2 (w_b + w_s)}{dx^2} = -I_0 \left( \ddot{w_b} + \ddot{w_s} \right) + K_1 \frac{\partial^2 w_s}{\partial x^2}$$
(28)

A nanobeam with rectangular cross-section D is obtained as follows:

$$D_{_{11}} = \left(D\frac{12EI}{h^3}\right) \tag{29}$$

$$D_{12} = \left(D_s \frac{12EI}{h^3}\right) \tag{30}$$

$$D_{22} = \left(H_s \frac{12EI}{h^3}\right) \tag{31}$$

In the case of a rectangular cross-section nanobeam, *EI* is presented as (Wang and Feng 2009):

$$EI = E \frac{wh^3}{12} \tag{32}$$

where *E* is the Young's modulus. Moreover, *w* and *h* are the width and height of a rectangle cross-section of a nanobeam, respectively. The influence of surface elasticity can be exerted on the buckling and free vibration of a nanobeam by changing the traditional flexural rigidity *EI* for the bulk material by  $EI^*$  where is the effective flexural rigidity, which consists of the surface bending elasticity on the nanobeam with rectangular cross-section, which is given by (Wang and Feng 2009):

$$EI^* = EI + (\frac{1}{2} E^s b h^2) + (\frac{1}{6} E^s h^3)$$
(33)

where

$$D_{11}^{*} = \left(D\frac{12EI^{*}}{h^{3}}\right)$$
(34)

$$D_{12}^{*} = \left(D_{s} \frac{12EI^{*}}{h^{3}}\right)$$
(35)

$$D_{22}^* = \left(H_s \frac{12EI^*}{h^3}\right) \tag{36}$$

Consequently, substituting Eqs. (34) to (36) into Eqs. (27) to (28) leads to the following equilibrium equations for a nanobeam with surface effect

$$D_{11}^{*} \frac{d^{4} w_{b}}{dx^{4}} + D_{12}^{*} \frac{d^{4} w_{s}}{dx^{4}} - H \frac{d^{2} (w_{b} + w_{s})}{dx^{2}}$$

$$+ p \frac{d^{2} (w_{b} + w_{s})}{dx^{2}} = -I_{0} (\overset{\sim}{w_{b}} + \overset{\sim}{w_{s}}) + I_{1} \frac{\partial^{2} \overset{\sim}{w_{b}}}{\partial x^{2}}$$

$$D_{12}^{*} \frac{d^{4} w_{b}}{dx^{4}} + D_{22}^{*} \frac{d^{4} w_{s}}{dx^{4}} - A_{s} \frac{d^{2} w_{s}}{dx^{2}}$$

$$-H \frac{d^{2} (w_{b} + w_{s})}{dx^{2}} + p \frac{d^{2} (w_{b} + w_{s})}{dx^{2}}$$
(38)
$$= -I_{0} (\overset{\sim}{w_{b}} + \overset{\sim}{w_{s}}) + K_{1} \frac{\partial^{2} \overset{\sim}{w_{s}}}{\partial x^{2}}$$

### 5. Analytical solutions of buckling and free vibration of nanobeams

In this part, the governing equations are analytically solved for the buckling and free vibration of a nanobeam. The Navier solution method is employed to obtain the analytical solutions for the simply supported boundary conditions. In the future, the researchers can also extend this model for nanobeams with other boundary conditions. Furthermore, the following natural boundary conditions at x = 0, L are achieved:

$$w_b = w_s = M_b = M_s = 0$$
 at  $x = 0, L$  (39)

The following expansions of the displacements w(x) yield the boundary conditions in Eq. (39) for the free vibration:

$$w_b(x,t) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} W_{bn} \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right) \mathcal{E}^{iw_n t}$$
(40)

$$w_{s}(x,t) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} W_{sn} \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right) \mathcal{E}^{iw_{n}t}$$
(41)

When t = 0, the solution is assumed for any n for the buckling:

$$w(x,0) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} W_n \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{l}\right)$$
(42)

Consequently, the explicit buckling load and free vibration of the nanobeams can be easily obtained by

$$\left( D_{_{11}}^{*} \alpha^{4} + H \alpha^{2} \right) W_{b} \sin \alpha + \left( D_{_{12}}^{*} \alpha^{4} + H \alpha^{2} \right) W \sin \alpha_{s}$$
  
-  $p \alpha^{2} W_{b} \sin \alpha - p \alpha^{2} W_{s} \sin \alpha$  (43)  
=  $I_{0} \left( \omega_{n}^{2} W_{b} \sin \alpha + \omega_{n}^{2} W_{s} \sin \alpha \right) + I_{1} \alpha^{2} \omega_{n}^{2} W_{b} \sin \alpha$ 

$$\begin{pmatrix} D_{12}^* \alpha^4 + H \alpha^2 \end{pmatrix} W_b \sin \alpha + \begin{pmatrix} D_{22}^* \alpha^4 + A_s \alpha^2 + H \alpha^2 \end{pmatrix} W_s \sin \alpha - p \alpha^2 W_b \sin \alpha - p \alpha^2 W_s \sin \alpha = I_0 \left( \omega_n^2 W_b \sin \alpha + \omega_n^2 W_s \sin \alpha \right) + K_1 \alpha^2 \omega_n^2 W_b \sin \alpha$$
(44)

This leads to:

$$\left( D_{_{11}}^* \alpha^4 + H \alpha^2 \right) W_b + \left( D_{_{12}}^* \alpha^4 + H \alpha^2 \right) W_s - p \alpha^2 W_b - p \alpha^2 W_s - \left( I_0 + I_1 \alpha^2 \right) \omega_n^2 W_b$$

$$- I_0 \omega_n^2 W_s = 0$$
(45)

$$(D_{12}^{*}\alpha^{4} + H\alpha^{2})W_{b} + (D_{22}^{*}\alpha^{4} + A_{s}\alpha^{2} + H\alpha^{2})W_{s} - p\alpha^{2}W_{b} - p\alpha^{2}W_{s} - (I_{0} + K_{1}\alpha^{2})\omega_{n}^{2}W_{b} - I_{0}\omega_{n}^{2}W_{s} = 0$$

$$(46)$$

If

$$S_{11} = \left( D_{11}^{*} \alpha^{4} + H \alpha^{2} \right),$$
  

$$S_{12} = \left( D_{12}^{*} \alpha^{4} + H \alpha^{2} \right),$$
  

$$S_{22} = \left( D_{22}^{*} \alpha^{4} + A_{s} \alpha^{2} + H \alpha^{2} \right)$$
(47)

$$m_{11} = (I_0 + I_1 \alpha^2), \quad m_{12} = I_0, \quad m_{22} = (I_0 + K_1 \alpha^2)$$

we have

$$\begin{cases}
\begin{bmatrix}
S_{11} & S_{12} \\
S_{12} & S_{22}
\end{bmatrix} - p \alpha^{2} \begin{bmatrix}
1 & 1 \\
1 & 1
\end{bmatrix} - \omega_{n}^{2} \begin{bmatrix}
m_{11} & m_{12} \\
m_{12} & m_{22}
\end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{cases}
W_{bn} \\
W_{sn}
\end{cases} = \begin{cases}
0 \\
0
\end{cases}$$
(48)

To conclude, the critical buckling load is obtained from Eq. (48) by following the same procedure as solution of Eq. (48) as:

$$\omega_n = 0, \quad p_{cr} = \frac{1}{\alpha^2} \left( \frac{S_{12}^2 - S_{11} S_{22}}{2 S_{12} - S_{11} - S_{22}} \right)$$
(49)

To conclude, in what follows, the free vibration is obtained from Eq. (48) by following the same procedure as the solution of Eq. (48): p=0,

$$\omega_{cr} = \sqrt{\frac{\left(-S_{11} m_{22} - S_{22} m_{11} + (2S_{12} m_{12})\right) + \left(-S_{11} m_{22} - S_{22} m_{11} + (2S_{12} m_{12})\right)^2}{\sqrt{-4\left((m_{12})^2 - m_{11} m_{22}\right)\left(S_{11} S_{22} - (S_{12})^2\right)}} 2\left((m_{12})^2 - m_{11} m_{22}\right)}$$
(50)

The buckling of nanobeams by Euler beam theory with surface effects is derived as (Wang and Feng 2009):

$$p_{cr0} = \frac{\left(\mathrm{EI}^* \left(\frac{n\pi}{l}\right)^2 + H\right)}{\left(\frac{n\pi}{l}\right)^2 \mathrm{EI}}$$
(51)

Additionally, the vibration of nanobeams by Euler beam theory with surface effects is derived as (Wang and Feng 2009):

$$\omega_{cr0} = \sqrt{\left(1 + \frac{H}{\left(\frac{n\pi}{l}\right)^2 \text{EI}^*}\right) \left(1 + \frac{\text{EI}^* - \text{EI}}{\text{EI}}\right)} \quad (52)$$

#### 7. Numerical results and discussion

In this section, several numerical examples are presented and discussed to validate the accuracy of the present nanobeam models in predicting the nanobeam stability. As an example, in what follows, we consider a nanobeam with rectangular cross-section:

The material constants are considered to be E=76 GPa,  $\tau^0=0.89$  N/m, and  $E^s=1.22$  GPa on the surface of a nanobeam made of silver.

Tables 2 to 4 show the change in the critical buckling load ( $P_{cr}$  /  $P_{cr0}$ ). Tables 5 to 7 show the change in the normalized critical frequency ( $\omega_{cr} / \omega_{cr0}$ ) for different lengthto-thickness ratios and mode numbers (n = 1, 2, 3). For higher-order theory of the third degree, the sinusoidal and exponential higher-order theories with a simply supported nanobeam are calculated to ensure the accuracy of the calculations by comparing the results with those in Ref. (Wang and Feng 2009). The results are in a good agreement with those in the reference resources. It is also necessary to mention that many of these analyses are taken into account based on the theory of beams without surface effects. The tables show that the critical buckling load and the normalized critical frequency for very small length-tothickness ratio here (l < 5h) are less than high length-tothickness ratio. This also accounts for the fact that size has an important effect on the critical buckling load and the normalized critical frequency when the beam is very small and is at the nanometer scale. As observed here, in these theories, the critical buckling load and the normalized critical frequency decrease by increasing the thickness. Additionally, it can be concluded that the critical buckling load and the normalized critical frequency for higher-order theory of the third degree are greater than those in sinusoidal and exponential higher-order theories.

Fig. 2 shows the critical buckling under axial compressive load by considering surface effect on the length-to-thickness ratio for different theories. The results presented in this figure reveal that the critical buckling load for higher-order theory of the third degree is greater than that of the sinusoidal and exponential higher-order theories. In addition, as the thickness increases, the critical buckling load for higher-order theory is reduced. In lower thickness, the critical buckling load for exponential higher-order theory has the highest decrease.

n	Method	$L_h = 5$	$L_{h} = 10$	L/h = 20	$L_h = 100$
	Wang et al (2009)	1.08082	1.29440	2.14869	29.4862
	TBT	1.08481	1.30126	2.15592	29.4935
1	SBT	1.08442	1.30122	2.15590	29.4935
	EBT	1.08400	1.30115	2.15587	29.4935
2	Wang et al (2009)	1.02743	1.08082	1.29440	8.12878
	TBT	1.00537	1.08481	1.30126	8.13607
	SBT	1.00156	1.08442	1.30122	8.13606
	EBT	0.99768	1.08400	1.30115	8.13603
3	Wang et al (2009)	1.01754	1.04127	1.13619	4.17370
	TBT	0.93316	1.03656	1.14212	4.18098
	SBT	0.92224	1.03502	1.14198	4.18096
	EBT	0.91149	1.03342	1.14181	4.18093

Table 2 Critical compressive load of a nanobeam as a function of (L/h) for various modes (h=10nm, E=76 Gpa)

Table 3 Critical compressive load of a nanobeam as a function of (L/h) for various modes (h=20nm, E=76 Gpa)

n	Method	L/h = 5	$\frac{L}{h} = 10$	L/h = 20	$L_h = 100$
	Wang et al (2009)	1.04041	1.14720	1.57435	15.2431
1	TBT	1.04130	1.15056	1.57795	15.2468
1	SBT	1.04093	1.15052	1.57795	15.2468
	EBT	1.04054	1.15048	1.57793	15.2467
	Wang et al (2009)	1.013710	1.04041	1.14720	4.56439
2	TBT	0.989830	1.04130	1.15056	4.56804
2	SBT	0.986089	1.04093	1.15052	4.56803
	EBT	0.982288	1.04054	1.15048	4.56801
	Wang et al (2009)	1.008770	1.20640	1.06810	2.58685
3	TBT	0.923927	1.01342	1.07069	2.59049
	SBT	0.913125	1.01191	1.07056	2.59048
	EBT	0.902492	1.01036	1.07042	2.59046

Table 4 Critical compressive load of a nanobeam as a function of (L/h) for various modes (h=10nm, E=76 Gpa)

n	Method	$\frac{L}{h} = 5$	$L_{h} = 10$	L/h = 20	$L_h = 100$
	Wang et al (2009)	1.01616	1.05888	1.22974	6.69724
1	TBT	1.01519	1.06013	1.23118	6.69870
1	SBT	1.01484	1.06010	1.23117	6.69870
	EBT	1.01447	1.06007	1.23116	6.69870
	Wang et al (2009)	1.00549	1.01616	1.05888	2.42576
2	TBT	0.98050	1.01519	1.06013	2.42721
2	SBT	0.97680	1.01484	1.06010	2.42721
	EBT	0.97304	1.01447	1.06007	2.42721
	Wang et al (2009	1.00351	1.00825	1.02724	1.63474
3	TBT	0.91838	0.99953	1.02783	1.63619
	SBT	0.90764	0.99805	1.02771	1.63619
	EBT	0.89708	0.99653	1.02758	1.63618

Buckling and free vibration analyses of nanobeams with surface effects...

n	Method	L/h = 5	$L_{h} = 10$	L/h = 20	$L_h = 100$
	Wang et al (2009)	1.03963	1.13772	1.46584	5.43012
1	TBT	1.04164	1.14073	1.46830	5.43079
1	SBT	1.04147	1.14071	1.43830	5.43079
	EBT	1.04128	1.14069	1.46829	5.43079
	Wang et al (2009)	1.03963	1.13772	1.46584	5.43012
2	TBT	1.04164	1.14073	1.46830	5.43079
2	SBT	1.04147	1.14071	1.43830	5.43079
	EBT	1.04128	1.14069	1.46829	5.43079
	Wang et al (2009)	1.03963	1.13772	1.46584	5.43012
3	TBT	1.04164	1.14073	1.46830	5.43079
	SBT	1.04147	1.14071	1.43830	5.43079
	EBT	1.04128	1.14069	1.46829	5.43079

Table 5 The normalized critical frequency of a nanobeam as a function of (L/h) for various modes (*h*= 20nm, *E*=76 Gpa)

Table 6 The normalized critical frequency of a nanobeam as a function of (L/h) for various modes (h=20nm, E=76 Gpa)

n	Method	L/h = 5	$\frac{L}{h} = 10$	L/h = 20	L/h = 100
	Wang et al (2009)	1.02001	1.07107	1.25473	3.90424
1	TBT	1.02052	1.07264	1.25617	3.90471
1	SBT	1.02036	1.07263	1.25616	3.90471
	EBT	1.02018	1.07261	1.25616	3.90471
	Wang et al (2009)	1.02001	1.07107	1.25473	3.90424
2	TBT	1.02052	1.07264	1.25617	3.90471
2	SBT	1.02036	1.07263	1.25616	3.90471
	EBT	1.02018	1.07261	1.25616	3.90471
	Wang et al (2009)	1.02001	1.07107	1.25473	3.90424
3	TBT	1.02052	1.07264	1.25617	3.90471
	SBT	1.02036	1.07263	1.25616	3.90471
	EBT	1.02018	1.07261	1.25616	3.90471

Table 7 The normalized critical frequency of a nanobeam as a function of (L/h) for various modes (*h*= 50nm, *E*=76 Gpa)

n	Method	$\frac{L}{h} = 5$	$L_h = 10$	L/h = 20	$L_h = 100$
	Wang et al (2009)	1.00805	1.02902	1.10894	2.58790
1	TBT	1.00764	1.02963	1.10958	2.58819
1	SBT	1.00748	1.02962	1.10958	2.58819
	EBT	1.00731	1.02960	1.10958	2.58818
	Wang et al (2009)	1.00805	1.02902	1.10894	2.58790
2	TBT	1.00764	1.02963	1.10958	2.58819
2	SBT	1.00748	1.02962	1.10958	2.58819
	EBT	1.00731	1.07260	1.10958	2.58818
3	Wang et al. (2009)	1.00805	1.02902	1.10894	2.58790
	TBT	1.00764	1.02963	1.10958	2.58819
	SBT	1.00748	1.02962	1.10958	2.58819
	EBT	1.00731	1.07260	1.10958	2.58818

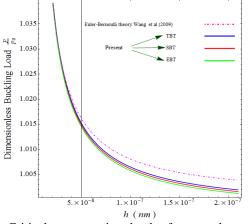


Fig. 2 Critical compressive load of a nanobeam as a function of the thickness (n=1)

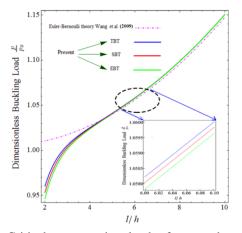


Fig. 3 Critical compressive load of a nanobeam as a function of length-to-thickness ratio (h=20 nm, n=1)

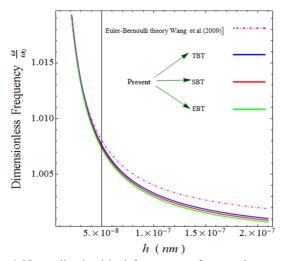


Fig. 4 Normalized critical frequency of a nanobeam as a function of the thickness (n=1)

Fig. 3 shows the critical buckling under axial compressive load by considering the surface effect on the length-to-thickness ratio for different theories. The results presented in this figure indicate that by increasing the length-to-thickness ratio, the critical buckling load increases. The increase in the very small ratio (L/h) is

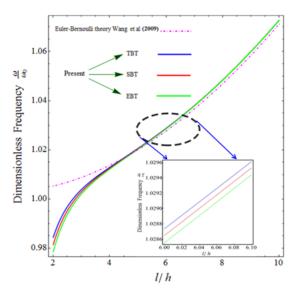


Fig. 5 Normalized critical frequency of a nanobeam as a function of length-to-thickness ratio (h=20 nm, n=1)

insignificant. Furthermore, as the ratio (L/h) increases, surface effect becomes more significant; for example, for the ratio (L/h=10), the critical buckling load is approximately 1.2 times greater. Moreover, it can be observed that the influence of the surface effect is more considerable as the length decreases in the range of nanometers.

Fig. 4 depicts the normalized critical frequency by considering surface effect on the length-to-thickness ratio for different theories. As this figure shows, the critical buckling load for higher-order theory of the third degree is greater than that of the sinusoidal and exponential higherorder theories. Additionally, by increasing the thickness, the normalized critical frequency for higher-order theory is reduced. In other words, in lower thickness, the normalized critical frequency for exponential higher-order theory has the highest decrease.

Fig. 5 shows the normalized critical frequency by considering surface effect on the length-to-thickness ratio

for different theories. The results presented in this figure demonstrate that by increasing the length-to-thickness ratio, the normalized critical frequency increases. The increase in the very small ratio (L/h) is insignificant. As the ratio (L/h) increases, surface effect becomes more considerable; for example, for the ratio (L/h=10), the normalized critical frequency is approximately 1.09 times greater. Furthermore, it can be observed that surface has more substantial effects as the length decreases in the range of nanometers.

#### 5. Conclusions

In this paper, the effect of surface on the buckling and transverse vibration of nanobeams under uniaxial load was studied based on various refined higher-order shear deformation beam theories. The equations of motion were derived using Hamilton's principle, and the buckling and the transverse vibration were obtained by an exact method. The numerical results showed that surface effect leads to increasing the length-to-thickness ratio, thus increasing the critical buckling load and the normalized critical frequency. Therefore, surface effects play an important role in the buckling and normalized critical frequency responses of the nanobeams. In addition, the results revealed that by increasing the nanobeam thickness, surface exerts greater effects on the critical buckling load and the normalized critical frequency increase for higher-order theory of the third degree compared to the sinusoidal and exponential higher-order theories. The validity of the results obtained was investigated in Tables 1 to 6. According to the increasing ratio of surface area to bulk at nano-scale, surface energy is significantly influential in stubby nanobeams and should be taken into consideration. Accordingly, surface effects should be considered carefully the analysis of the mechanical behavior of in nanostructures.

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