

A non-classical computational method for modelling functionally graded porous planar media using micropolar theory

Abstract

The current study proposes a computational-based method to employ the non-classical micropolar continuum for modelling plates with in-plane functionally graded porosities. Initially, a homogenisation method is developed to derive the micropolar parameters of porous heterogenous plates based on strain energy equivalence in various designed deformations simulated via finite element analysis. The modelling procedure is further augmented to accommodate structures with functionally graded porosities. The established method offers an effective framework for studying the mechanical behaviour of porous plates with various porosity distributions and a wide range of aspect ratios. Results indicate that the micropolar theory-based modelling surpasses traditional Cauchy theory in accurately predicting the stiffness and displacement distribution of the FG porous structures. The novelty of this study lies in the integration of micropolar theory with the homogenisation of graded porosity patterns, offering enhanced predictions for materials with microstructural features. Additionally, a custom finite element formulation is developed in COMSOL to implement micropolar elasticity, significantly improving the computational efficiency to account for complex geometry, loading, and boundary conditions. To show the applicability of the method, the modelling is used to design a dental implant with its functional property mimicking that of the natural bone to avoid stress-shielding while ensuring proper occlusivity.

Keywords: Modelling Functionally Graded Porosity; Micropolar and Cauchy continua; Finite Element Analysis; Equivalent Porous-Cellular Materials; Homogenisation.

1 Introduction

The customisable properties [1], high specific surface area, and lightweight nature of porous materials have made them key elements in various engineering applications. In recent decades, porous materials have been widely used in many industrial sectors, including aerospace, civil engineering, and biomedical applications such as porous implants and meshes for guided bone regeneration [2], [3], [4]. Particularly, functionally graded porous structures [5], characterised by a graded distribution of porosity, can provide customised mechanical properties along spatial gradients [6], [7]. The mechanical behaviours of porous FG structures are of interest in the current literature in terms of static, vibration, and buckling problems, specifically in beams, plates, and shells [8], [9], [10], [11], [12].

The thermo-mechanical behaviour of two-directional functionally graded porous-auxetic metamaterial has been the topic of a study by Behravanrad and Jafari [10], where, through a numerical finite difference scheme, the effects of porosity and auxeticity have been investigated. Li et al. [9] studied the mechanical response of porous FG plates based on first-order shear deformation theory and isogeometric analysis. Gao et al. [13] developed a mathematical model to study wave propagation in graphene platelets-reinforced porous FG plates integrated with piezoelectric actuators and sensor layers. Akbas et al. [14] analysed the dynamic response of thick

44 FG porous sandwich beams using the 2D plane stress finite element method. Ramteke et al. [15]
45 investigated the nonlinear eigenfrequency characteristics of the doubly curved multi-directional
46 FG porous panels by using the finite element method (FEM). Wu et al. [16] analysed the free and
47 forced vibrations of porous beams using FEM. Chen et al. [17] studied the static and dynamic
48 properties of a porous beam.

49 Besides the FEM approaches, isogeometric analysis (IGA), originally established by Hughes et al.
50 [18], is also used to study FG porous structures, especially when dealing with complex geometries
51 such as “triply periodic minimal surface (TPMS)”. In IGA, the same non-uniform rational B-
52 splines (NURBS) basis functions that are used to model the exact geometry will be implemented
53 to approximate the FE solution.

54 Nguyen-Xuan et al. [19] proposed an approach based on IGA and higher-order shear deformation
55 theory (HSDT) to study the functionally graded TPMS plate. The use of higher-order shear
56 deformation theories is to capture the nonlinear distribution of shear terms through the thickness
57 of the plate and satisfy the zero-shear strains/stresses without using shear correction factors.

58 The approach is further extended to study graphene platelets-reinforced FG TPMS [20]. In another
59 recent work, Nguyen et al. [21] have integrated non-local strain gradient with IGA to enable the
60 consideration of softening and hardening and size-dependent phenomena in micro/nanostructures.

61 Another approach to increasing the accuracy of the results and the ability to capture microstructural
62 features is to use generalised continua where additional degrees of freedom are endowed to each
63 material point in addition to the standard displacement. In micropolar theory as an important
64 category of generalised continua, the rotation of the material point is introduced as the additional
65 degree of freedom, which is called microrotation to be distinguished from macro-rotation (local
66 rigid rotation). Micropolar theory, also known as Cosserat, represents a significant advancement
67 in the field of continuum mechanics, particularly in the modelling of materials that exhibit complex
68 behaviours not adequately described by classical theories. This theory was first introduced by E.
69 and F. Cosserat [22] and has since evolved by C. Eringen [23], [24], and W. Nowacki [25] to
70 address various applications in engineering and materials science. W. Nowacki and C. Eringen
71 have significantly shaped the understanding of this advanced theoretical framework. Eringen’s
72 work explored the concept of micro-polar elasticity and provided a robust mathematical
73 framework that has been widely adopted in various fields [26]. Nowacki further enriched this
74 theory by studying its implications in dynamic systems and wave propagation [27]. Elastic
75 micropolar theory has been successfully used in many applications [28], [29] to describe
76 heterogeneous materials [30], such as porous materials [31], [32], [33], [34], [35], cellular
77 materials [36], composites [37], [38], lattices [39], foams [40], [41], [42], and even nanostructures
78 [43], [44].

79 In the current literature, to study the structures with FG porosities, classical Cauchy continuum
80 and non-local higher-order theories such as strain gradient theory are implemented. In these
81 studies, the relative density is commonly taken as the dominant factor, and the relation between
82 the elastic modulus and the density originally stems from a direct FEM calculation [45] or a
83 micromechanics estimation [46], such as the modified rule of mixture [47] and Halpin Tsai [48]
84 or available experiments [49].

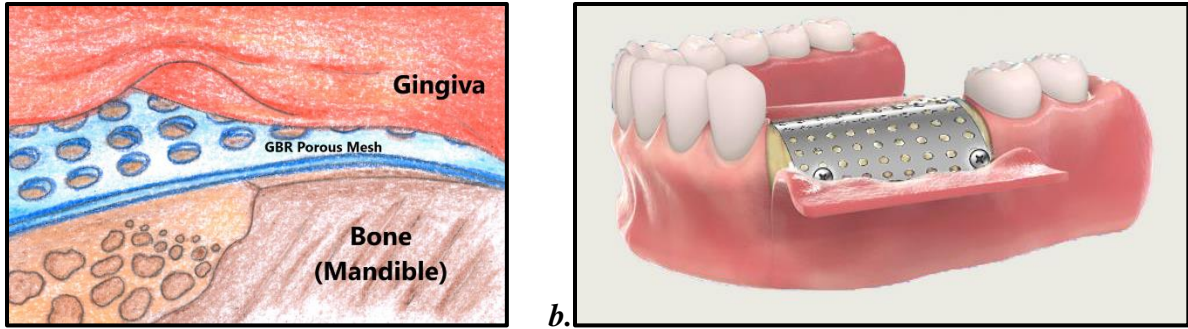
85 In the present study, we advance this field by integrating non-classical micropolar theory to model
86 porous plates that have in-plane functionally graded porosities. Compared to classical Cauchy
87 theory, micropolar theory can better contemplate the internal structure of cellular solids [50] as it

88 uses field description at the coarse level and preserves the memory of the material underlying
89 structure at the fine level through internal scale parameters [44], [51], [52]. In this study, a
90 homogenisation scheme is proposed based on the strain energy equivalence to determine the
91 material constants of the equivalent continuum where the material parameters can consider the
92 effect of both the size and shape of the pores. The collected data for various porosities determines
93 the function for each material parameter in terms of the pore dimensions. Further, using the
94 established homogenised model, the mechanical response of porous plates with various porosity
95 distributions and a broad range of aspect ratios is investigated.

96 From a computational perspective, this study contributes by implementing a custom finite element
97 method using the weak form of partial differential equations (PDE) in COMSOL Multiphysics to
98 solve the micropolar elasticity problem. This is a notable advancement, as commercial FEM
99 software typically does not support micropolar elasticity by default. Our custom formulation
100 allows for the simulation of complex boundary conditions and loading scenarios, offering more
101 precise predictions of mechanical responses. Additionally, the homogenisation scheme employed
102 reduces computational complexity, enabling the study of large-scale porous structures without the
103 burden of directly simulating their intricate microstructures. The combination of micropolar theory
104 with advanced FEM not only enhances the computational efficiency but also provides a more
105 accurate comparative analysis with classical Cauchy models, further underscoring the advantages
106 of non-classical theories for FG porous materials.

107 To show the applicability of the proposed framework, it is implemented to design a biomedical
108 prosthesis used in dentistry called guided bone regeneration (GBR) mesh. GBR meshes are used in
109 dentistry as mechanical barriers to isolate and protect the area of bone loss from the surrounding
110 tissue while allowing new bone growth (Fig. 1a). While various types of barriers have been used
111 for GBR, the design and mechanical properties of the GBR mesh can greatly influence its
112 effectiveness in promoting bone growth [53]. GBR meshes are designed to be porous to facilitate
113 the diffusion of fluids, oxygen, nutrients, and bioactive substances for cell growth, and an
114 appropriate pore size can ensure the desirable occlusivity of the GBR membrane [54], [55].

115 To implant GBR meshes, they are fixed to the underneath mandible bone using biocompatible
116 screws (Fig. 1b). Since these screws are located in critical loading areas, higher stiffness is required
117 in the corresponding locations on the GBR mesh, and therefore, smaller pore sizes are more
118 desirable. The importance of improving stiffness near fixing areas becomes more crucial when
119 using biodegradable resorbable materials made of natural or synthetic polymers [56], such as PLA
120 [57] or PLA composites [58]. The stiffness of these materials is much lower than that of metals
121 like titanium alloy (Ti6Al4V) that are widely used in dentistry [59]. However, the use of
122 bioresorbable materials is receiving great attention as it mitigates the need for a post-surgery to
123 remove the GBR mesh after the bone regeneration process [60].



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126
127 *Fig. 1a. Implementation of a porous GBR mesh b. Fixing GBR mesh to the underneath mandible bone using biocompatible screws*

128 On the other hand, bone has a heterogenous porous structure with microstructural features, for
129 which non-classical micropolar models are proven to better describe microstructure-related scale
130 effects on macroscopic effective properties [61], [62]. Lakes and co-workers [63], [64], [65], [66],
131 [67] also conducted a series of experiments and studies on bones and found that micropolar theory
132 provides better predictions of bone response than Cauchy elasticity. Such scale effects are most
133 pronounced near bone-implant interfaces and in areas of high strain gradients [68]. In the current
134 work, based on the developed framework, a design is suggested for the GBR mesh that can mimic
the natural FG structure of the bone.

135 The remainder of this paper is structured as follows: Section 2 presents the homogenisation
136 procedure implemented for extracting the equivalent material parameters for both micropolar and
137 Cauchy continua. Section 3 describes the developed mechanical models for plates with an in-plane
138 FG distribution of porosities. In Section 4, the obtained models are used to study the mechanical
139 response of FG porous plates with different distributions of porosities. The findings are compared
140 to the response of the detailed porous structure for a wide range of aspect ratios. The approach is
141 used to propose an FG design for a dental GBR mesh in Section 5. Finally, Section 6 summarises
142 the key findings and outlines future research directions in the field of porous FG structures.

143 2 Homogenisation

144 For modelling the FG porous plates with different microstructures (pore patterns), a multiscale
145 approach [5] is proposed in which an equivalent homogenised material represents the porous
146 heterogeneous structure. The equivalent model is described in the framework of both micropolar
147 and classical (Cauchy) continua.

148 For the determination of the constitutive parameters of the equivalent models, the primary
149 hypothesis is that the strain energy stored in the heterogeneous porous structure (micro-level)
150 under prescribed boundary conditions is equal to that of the homogenous equivalent continuum
151 description (macro-level). In the current work, at the micro-level, the classical Cauchy continuum
152 is used, while at the macro-level, two different continua (micropolar continuum and Cauchy
153 continuum) are implemented, and the results are compared in describing FG porous structure (Fig.
154 2).

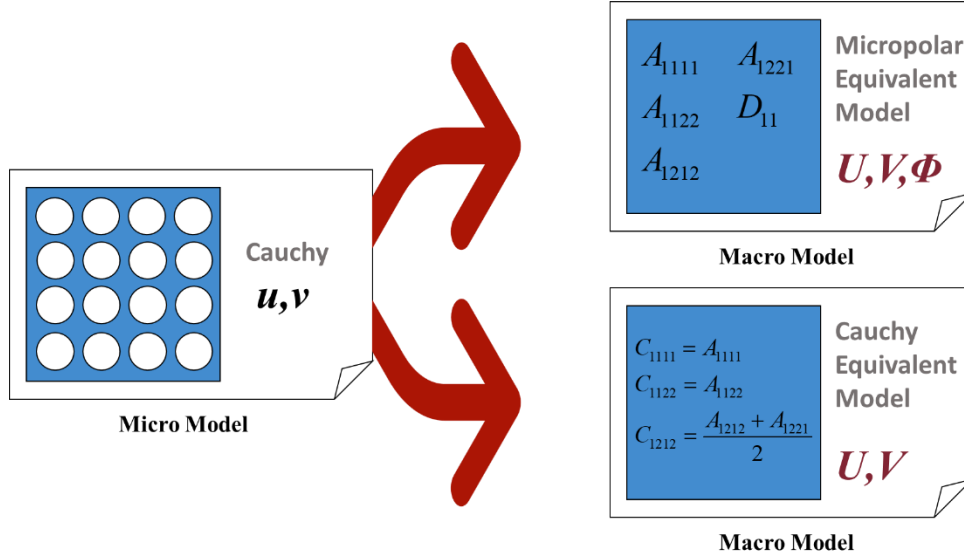


Fig. 2 The homogenisation procedure from classical Cauchy continuum at the micro-level to micropolar continuum and Cauchy continuum at the macro-level

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157

158 The homogenisation procedure has been applied and thoroughly described before in [2]. For the
159 sake of completeness, only the major equations are reported below. The homogenised constitutive
160 parameters are further used in Section 3.2 to model functionally graded porous structures.

161 2.1 Homogenised Micropolar and Cauchy models

162 2.1.1 Micropolar Theory

163 The micropolar theory is governed by the following linearised kinematic equations:

$$\begin{aligned} \varepsilon_{ij} &= u_{i,j} + e_{ijk} \phi_k \\ \mu_{kj} &= \phi_{k,j} \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

164 where u_i and ϕ_k stand for the components of displacement and micro-rotation vectors, ε_{ij} and μ_{kj}
165 denote the components of strain and curvature tensors with e_{ijk} being the usual third-order
166 permutation symbol.

167 If body forces (p_i) and body couples (q_k) are also considered, the equilibrium equations take the
168 following form:

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_{ij,j} + p_i &= 0 \\ \mu_{kj,j} - e_{ijk} \sigma_{ij} + q_k &= 0 \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

169 Where σ_{ij} and μ_{kj} are the components of the non-symmetric stress and couple-stress tensors,
170 respectively.

171 In the linearised 2D framework, there are two displacements and one rotational component that
172 can be collected in the two following vectors:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{u}^T &= [u \quad v] \\ \boldsymbol{\phi} &= [\phi] \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

173 and the strain and curvature vectors will be:

$$\begin{aligned}\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^T &= [\varepsilon_{11} \quad \varepsilon_{22} \quad \varepsilon_{12} \quad \varepsilon_{21}] \\ \boldsymbol{\kappa}^T &= [\kappa_1 \quad \kappa_2]\end{aligned}\quad (4)$$

174 Where $\varepsilon_{11}, \varepsilon_{22}, \varepsilon_{12}, \varepsilon_{21}$ are the in-plane normal and shear strains, and κ_1, κ_2 are the micropolar
175 curvatures.

176 The stress and couple stress vectors are also represented as:

$$\begin{aligned}\boldsymbol{\sigma}^T &= [\sigma_{11} \quad \sigma_{22} \quad \sigma_{12} \quad \sigma_{21}] \\ \boldsymbol{\mu}^T &= [\mu_1 \quad \mu_2]\end{aligned}\quad (5)$$

177 where σ_{ij} ($i, j = 1, 2$) represents the normal ($i = j$) and shear stress ($i \neq j$) components, and μ_1, μ_2
178 are the couple stresses or micro-couples.

179 The micropolar anisotropic constitutive equations can be represented as:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \\ \boldsymbol{\mu} \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{C} \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \\ \boldsymbol{\kappa} \end{bmatrix}\quad (6)$$

180 where \mathbf{C} is the constitutive stiffness matrix, which due to hyperelasticity is symmetrical [69].

181 The geometries considered here for the 2D periodic porous model (such as the one shown in Fig.
182 2) are symmetric with respect to a 90° rotation. These symmetries in the 2D model imply a special
183 kind of orthotropic structure named ‘‘ortho-tetragonal’’ [37]. For the equivalent homogenised
184 ortho-tetragonal material, the constitutive equations can be presented in Voigt’s notation as:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{11} \\ \sigma_{22} \\ \sigma_{12} \\ \sigma_{21} \\ \mu_1 \\ \mu_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A_{1111} & A_{1122} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ A_{1122} & A_{1111} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & A_{1212} & A_{1221} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & A_{1221} & A_{1212} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & D_{11} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & D_{11} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_{11} \\ \varepsilon_{22} \\ \varepsilon_{12} \\ \varepsilon_{21} \\ \kappa_1 \\ \kappa_2 \end{bmatrix}\quad (7)$$

185 2.1.2 Identification of Equivalent Micropolar Material Parameters

186 Since micropolar and Cauchy continua use different degrees of freedom, a kinematic map is
187 required to link the two levels of description. Here, we followed the mapping proposed by Forest
188 and Sab [30] for a square representative volume element (RVE).

$$\begin{aligned}u^* &= \varepsilon_{11}x + \varepsilon_{12}^{SYM}y - \frac{\kappa_2}{2}y^2 - \kappa_1xy - \frac{10}{L^2}\theta(y^3 - 3yx^2) \\ v^* &= \varepsilon_{12}^{SYM}x + \varepsilon_{22}y + \frac{\kappa_1}{2}x^2 - \kappa_2xy + \frac{10}{L^2}\theta(x^3 - 3xy^2)\end{aligned}\quad (8)$$

189 Eq. (8) expresses the approximate microscopic displacement field within the RVE (u^*, v^*) as a
190 function of the macroscopic strain measures ($\varepsilon_{11}, \varepsilon_{22}, \varepsilon_{12}^{SYM}, \theta, \kappa_1, \kappa_2$) at the material point on the
191 macro-level.

192 After determination of the kinematic map, to find the micropolar material parameters in Eq. (7),
193 first we calculate the response of the porous plate subjected to various loadings using FEM. In
194 each case, the corresponding micropolar material parameters are found so that the equivalent
195 material stores the same strain energy density when subjected to the identical loading, i.e.,

$$U_{FEM} = U_{Micropolar} \quad (9)$$

196 Where $U_{Micropolar}$ is the strain energy density of the equivalent micropolar continuum calculated
 197 using the following relation:

$$\begin{aligned} U_{Micropolar} &= \frac{1}{2} \left[\varepsilon_{11} \sigma_{11} + \varepsilon_{22} \sigma_{22} + \varepsilon_{12}^{SYM} \sigma_{12}^{SYM} + \theta \sigma_{12}^{ASM} + \kappa_1 \mu_1 + \kappa_2 \mu_2 \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left[\varepsilon_{11} (A_{1111} \varepsilon_{11} + A_{1122} \varepsilon_{22}) + \varepsilon_{22} (A_{1122} \varepsilon_{11} + A_{1111} \varepsilon_{22}) + \right. \\ &\quad \left. \varepsilon_{12}^{SYM} \left(\frac{A_{1212} + A_{1221}}{2} \varepsilon_{12}^{SYM} \right) + \theta \left(\frac{A_{1212} - A_{1221}}{2} \theta \right) + \right. \\ &\quad \left. \kappa_1 (D_{11} \kappa_1) + \kappa_2 (D_{11} \kappa_2) \right] \end{aligned} \quad (10)$$

198 And U_{FEM} is the strain energy density of the porous plate calculated using the finite element
 199 method:

$$U_{FEM} = \frac{1}{2} \int_{RVE} \sigma_{ij}^p \varepsilon_{ij}^p dV \quad (11)$$

200 Where σ_{ij}^p and ε_{ij}^p are stress and strain in the porous structure.

201 To evaluate the components of the micropolar stiffness tensor ($A_{1111}, A_{1122}, A_{1212}, A_{1221}, D_{11}$),
 202 different boundary conditions are designed to represent uniaxial, biaxial, symmetric shear,
 203 bending, and rotational deformations. The applied tests, the corresponding material parameters
 204 obtained from each test, and the applied boundary conditions are described in Fig. 3. The boundary
 205 conditions to create each test are obtained using the micro-field descriptions u^*, v^* in terms of
 206 macro-field strain measures presented in the kinematic map, i.e., Eq. (8).
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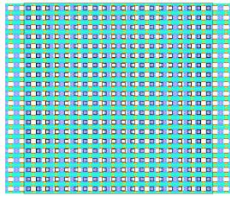
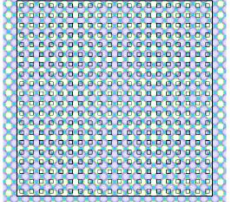
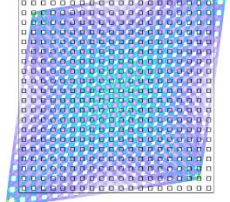
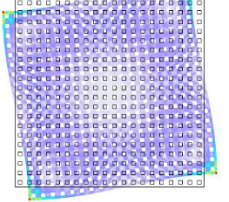
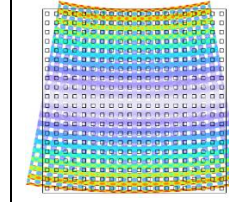
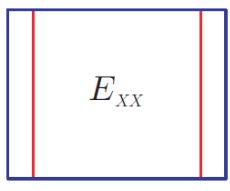
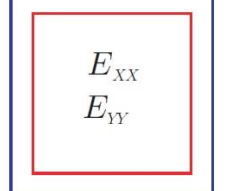
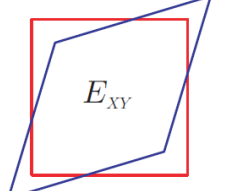
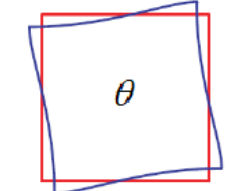
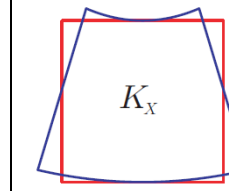
Test 1 Uniaxial	Test 2 Biaxial	Test 3 Symmetric Shear	Test 4 Rotation	Test 5 Curvature
				
				
A_{1111}	A_{1122}	A_{1212}, A_{1221}		D_{11}
$u^* = x$ $v^* = 0$	$u^* = x$ $v^* = y$	$u^* = y$ $v^* = x$	$u^* = \frac{10}{L^2}(y^3 - 3yx^2)$ $v^* = \frac{10}{L^2}(3xy^2 - x^3)$	$u^* = -xy$ $v^* = \frac{x^2}{2}$

Fig. 3 Designed FEM tests for finding micropolar material parameters.

208

209 More details on how to apply the boundary conditions and calculate each parameter can be found
210 in [2].

211 To find the homogenised Cauchy model, an analogous approach is followed in the framework of
212 Cauchy theory, which requires the definition of only three constitutive components. In this case,
213 the homogenisation is straightforward because there is no need to define a kinematic map.
214 Alternatively, such properties can be deduced from the micropolar one [70].

215 2.2 Finite Element Model

216 The finite element implementation at both macro (micropolar) and microlevels (Cauchy) is
217 described in this section. Since commercial FE codes do not yet support the micropolar continuum,
218 we implement the weak form of partial differential equations (PDE) numerically in COMSOL
219 Multiphysics. By using PDE modelling in COMSOL instead of traditional FE modelling, no user
220 subroutines are required and various complex geometries, boundary conditions, and loadings can
221 be applied in a user-friendly graphical interface.

222 Regarding meshing and discretisation, the porous structure was discretised using first-order
223 (linear) triangular elements. The thickness of the plate was assumed to be $W/100$, and therefore a
224 2D plane stress formulation for linear elastic media was adopted. The mesh of homogenous
225 equivalent models is made of structured quadrilateral first-order (linear) elements. Note that the
226 same approximation order for both displacements and micro-rotation were used.

227 The weak form is formulated based on the virtual work principle for a micropolar continuum with
228 \mathbf{u} and ϕ as a set of kinematically admissible displacement and rotation fields, such that:

$$\int_{\Omega} \delta \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^T \boldsymbol{\sigma} d\Omega + \int_{\Omega} \delta \boldsymbol{\kappa}^T \boldsymbol{\mu} d\Omega = \int_{\Omega} \delta \mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{p} d\Omega + \int_B \delta \mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{t} dB + \int_{\Omega} \delta \boldsymbol{\phi}^T \mathbf{q} d\Omega + \int_B \delta \boldsymbol{\phi}^T \mathbf{m} dB, \quad \forall \delta \mathbf{u}, \delta \boldsymbol{\phi} \quad (12)$$

229 Where Ω is the entire computational domain, δ denotes the variational operator with \mathbf{t} and \mathbf{m}
 230 the traction and couple-traction vectors applied on the boundary B .

231 Displacement and microrotations are approximated by interpolating the nodal values $\tilde{\mathbf{u}}$ and $\tilde{\boldsymbol{\phi}}$,
 232 considered primal unknowns, using the shape functions as follows:

$$\mathbf{u} = N_u \tilde{\mathbf{u}}, \quad \boldsymbol{\phi} = N_{\phi} \tilde{\boldsymbol{\phi}} \quad (13)$$

233 For quadrilateral elements, with first-order (linear) discretisation for both displacements and
 234 micro-rotation, the shape function matrices will be:

$$N_u = \begin{bmatrix} N_1 & 0 & N_2 & 0 & N_3 & 0 & N_4 & 0 \\ 0 & N_1 & 0 & N_2 & 0 & N_3 & 0 & N_4 \end{bmatrix} \quad (14)$$

$$N_{\phi} = [N_1 \quad N_2 \quad N_3 \quad N_4]$$

235 Also, the micropolar strains and curvatures given in Eq. (1) can be written as:

$$\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = \mathbf{L} \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{M} \boldsymbol{\phi} \quad (15)$$

$$\boldsymbol{\kappa} = \nabla \boldsymbol{\phi}$$

236 Where ∇ is the gradient operator in the 2D framework, and \mathbf{L} and \mathbf{M} are:

$$\mathbf{L} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & 0 & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & 0 & \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \end{bmatrix}^T, \quad \mathbf{M} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ +1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (16)$$

237 By substituting Eq. (13) in Eq. (15), we have:

$$\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = \mathbf{L} N_u \tilde{\mathbf{u}} + \mathbf{M} N_{\phi} \tilde{\boldsymbol{\phi}} = [\mathbf{L} N_u \quad \mathbf{M} N_{\phi}] \begin{Bmatrix} \tilde{\mathbf{u}} \\ \tilde{\boldsymbol{\phi}} \end{Bmatrix} = \mathbf{B}_{\varepsilon} \mathbf{d} \quad (17)$$

$$\boldsymbol{\kappa} = \nabla N_{\phi} \tilde{\boldsymbol{\phi}} = [0 \quad \nabla N_{\phi}] \begin{Bmatrix} \tilde{\mathbf{u}} \\ \tilde{\boldsymbol{\phi}} \end{Bmatrix} = \mathbf{B}_{\kappa} \mathbf{d}$$

238 Where \mathbf{d} is the unknown vector of nodal displacements and the matrices \mathbf{B}_{ε} and \mathbf{B}_{κ} contains the
 239 derivatives of shape functions.

240 The constitutive matrix for 2D ortho-tetragonal micropolar material in Eq. (7) will then become:

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma} = \mathbf{D}_{\varepsilon} \mathbf{B}_{\varepsilon} \mathbf{d} \quad \boldsymbol{\mu} = \mathbf{D}_{\kappa} \mathbf{B}_{\kappa} \mathbf{d} \quad (18)$$

241 Where:

$$\mathbf{D}_\varepsilon = \begin{bmatrix} A_{1111} & A_{1122} & 0 & 0 \\ A_{1122} & A_{1111} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & A_{1212} & A_{1221} \\ 0 & 0 & A_{1221} & A_{1212} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{D}_\kappa = \begin{bmatrix} D_{11} & 0 \\ 0 & D_{11} \end{bmatrix} \quad (19)$$

242 In the absence of body forces and couples, the algebraic finite element problem reads:

$$\underbrace{\delta \mathbf{d}^T \int_{\Omega} (\mathbf{B}_\varepsilon^T \mathbf{D}_\varepsilon \mathbf{B}_\varepsilon + \mathbf{B}_\kappa^T \mathbf{D}_\kappa \mathbf{B}_\kappa) d\Omega}_{\mathbf{K}} = \delta \mathbf{d}^T \underbrace{\int_B \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{N}_u^T \mathbf{t} \\ \mathbf{N}_\phi^T \mathbf{m} \end{bmatrix} dB}_{\mathbf{F}}, \quad \forall \delta \mathbf{d} \quad (20)$$

243 Where \mathbf{K} and \mathbf{F} indicate the elemental stiffness matrix and the nodal force vector.

244 The elemental stiffness matrix \mathbf{K} is then assembled into the global stiffness matrix, \mathbf{K}_{Global} , by
245 summing contributions from all elements and aligning the global degree of freedoms:

$$\mathbf{K}_{Global} \begin{Bmatrix} \mathbf{U} \\ \mathbf{\Phi} \end{Bmatrix} = \begin{Bmatrix} \mathbf{T} \\ \mathbf{M} \end{Bmatrix} \quad (21)$$

246 Where \mathbf{U} and $\mathbf{\Phi}$ are the global displacement and microrotation vectors, and \mathbf{T} and \mathbf{M} are the
247 global force and moment vectors.

248 For the benefit of readers, we also present how to practically implement the weak form of the
249 equations in the COMSOL PDE framework.

250 We start from the balance equations and multiply each of them by its corresponding test functions,
251 denoted here as u_i^{test} and ϕ_k^{test} , and integrate over the entire computational domain D .

$$\int_{\Omega} (\sigma_{ij,j} u_i^{test} + p_i u_i^{test}) d\Omega + \int_{\Omega} (\mu_{kj,j} - e_{ijk} \sigma_{ij} + q_k) \phi_k^{test} d\Omega = 0 \quad (22)$$

252 It should be noted that the test functions are inherently the virtual displacement introduced
253 previously in Eq. (12).

254 By applying the divergence theorem and considering B as the surface boundary, the weak form
255 equations can be defined:

$$\begin{aligned} & \left(- \int_{\Omega} \sigma_{ij} u_{i,j}^{test} d\Omega + \int_B \sigma_{ij} u_i^{test} n_j dB + \int_{\Omega} p_i u_i^{test} d\Omega \right) + \\ & \left(- \int_{\Omega} \mu_{kj} \phi_{k,j}^{test} d\Omega + \int_B \mu_{kj} \phi_k^{test} n_j dB - \int_{\Omega} e_{ijk} \sigma_{ij} \phi_k^{test} d\Omega + \int_{\Omega} q_k \phi_k^{test} d\Omega \right) = 0 \end{aligned} \quad (23)$$

256 Where the domain and surface contributions can be rearranged as:

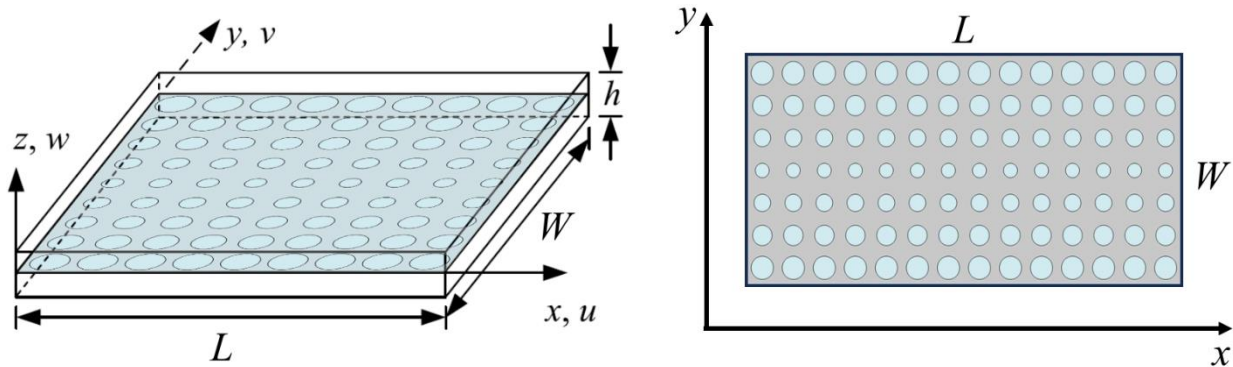
$$\int_{\Omega} (-\sigma_{ij} u_{i,j}^{test} + p_i u_i^{test} - \mu_{kj} \phi_{k,j}^{test} - e_{ijk} \sigma_{ij} \phi_k^{test} + q_k \phi_k^{test}) d\Omega + \int_B (\sigma_{ij} u_i^{test} n_j + \mu_{kj} \phi_k^{test} n_j) dB = 0 \quad (24)$$

257 In PDE COMSOL, the domain contribution specifies the governing equations, while the surface
 258 contribution should be defined in weak form as the boundary conditions. This is the main leverage
 259 of implementing micropolar theory through the PDE framework developed in the current work:
 260 By properly defining the weak form of governing equations and boundary conditions, constitutive
 261 equations, and kinematic relations, one can benefit from the developed capacity of COMSOL for
 262 discretisation, definition of shape functions, as well as derivation and assemblage of stiffness
 263 matrix.

264 3 Functionally graded porous plates

265 3.1 Geometrical Modelling

266 Consider a porous rectangular plate with length L , width W , and height (thickness) h , as presented
 267 in Fig. 4.



268
 269 *Fig. 4 The coordinates and geometry of the porous rectangle plate and the 2D model*

270 The Cartesian coordinates (x, y, z) , located in the mid-plane, are used to define the displacements
 271 u, v , and w in the length, width, and thickness directions. The porosity distributions can occur in
 272 the in-plane directions, such as x -direction and y -direction, as well as the thickness [71]. Four
 273 different kinds of porosity distributions in the y -direction (Types ‘V’, ‘A’, ‘X’, and ‘O’, see Fig.
 274 5), which are standard in the literature [48], are used here to study the mechanical behaviour of the
 275 FG porous plate.

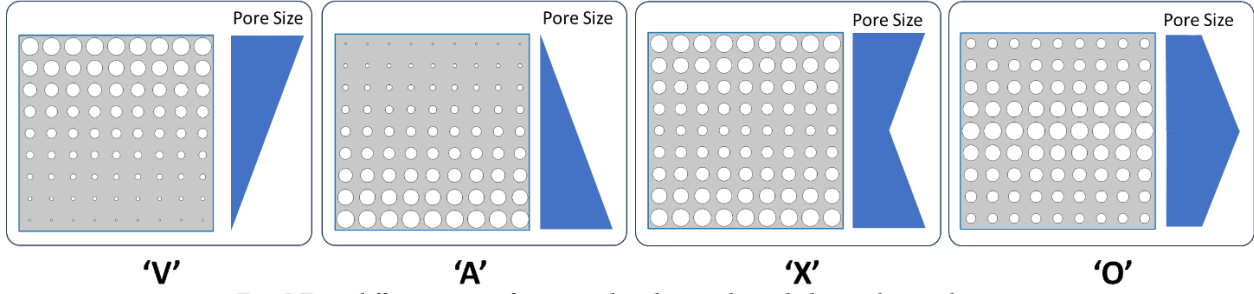


Fig. 5 Four different types of porosity distribution through the in-plane y -direction

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277

278 For type 'V', the porosity distribution is linearly varied in the y -direction from a small pore size
 279 of $0.01 W$ at $y = 0$ to the pore size of $0.09 W$ at $y = W$. Therefore, the maximum and minimum
 280 values of effective stiffness parameters correspond to the bottom and the top surfaces, respectively.
 281 For type 'A', the porosity distribution linearly varies in the y -direction from a pore size of $0.09 W$
 282 at $y = 0$ to the pore size of $0.01 W$ at $y = W$. Therefore, contrary to the type 'V', the minimum and
 283 maximum values of effective stiffness parameters correspond to the bottom and the top surfaces,
 284 respectively. Type 'X' consists of two piecewise linear parts where the smallest pore size is located
 285 on the midline and the largest size on the top and bottom parts. Reversely to type X, for type 'O',
 286 the largest pore size is located on the midline and the smallest size on the top and bottom parts.
 287 Various porosity distributions can be considered as a function of vertical location (y). The variation
 288 of the pore size through the FG structure for the four porosity distributions in the current work is
 289 represented in Fig. 6.

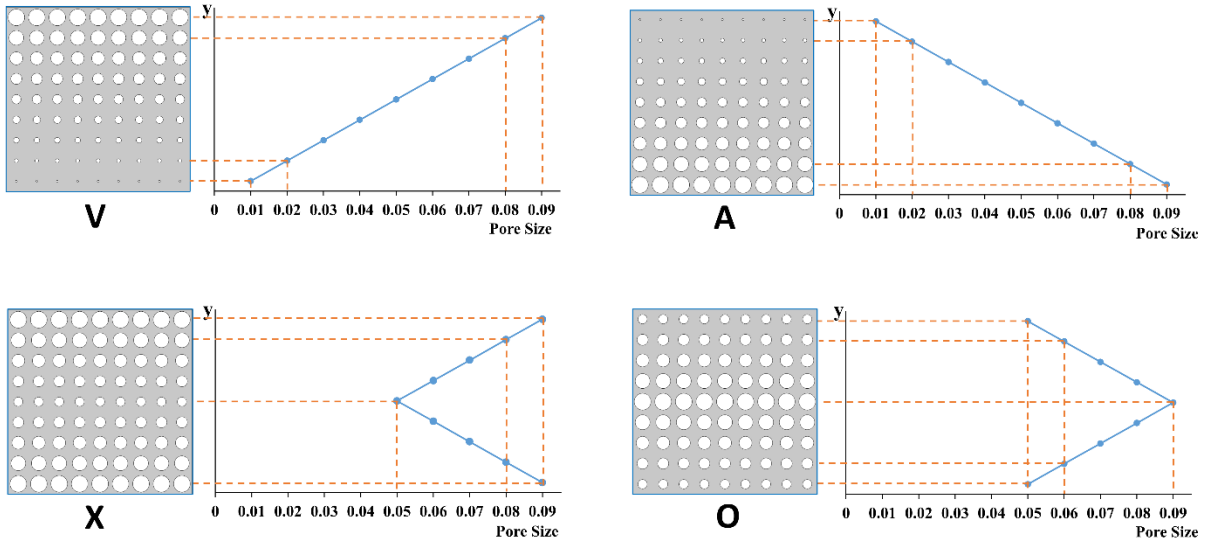


Fig. 6 The variation of pore sizes through height for each porosity distribution

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291

292 Based on the distribution of porosity, the variation of the pore size (l_p) along the y direction can
 293 be described as $l_p = g_*(y)$ where the subscript $*$ refers to the type of porosity distribution.
 294 Considering the minimum pore size as $0.01 W$ and the maximum as $0.09 W$, the functions for each
 295 type of porosity distribution are as follows:

$$l_p = g_v(y) = \frac{0.09}{W} y + 0.05 \quad (V)$$

$$l_p = g_A(y) = -\frac{0.09}{W} y + 0.05 \quad (A)$$

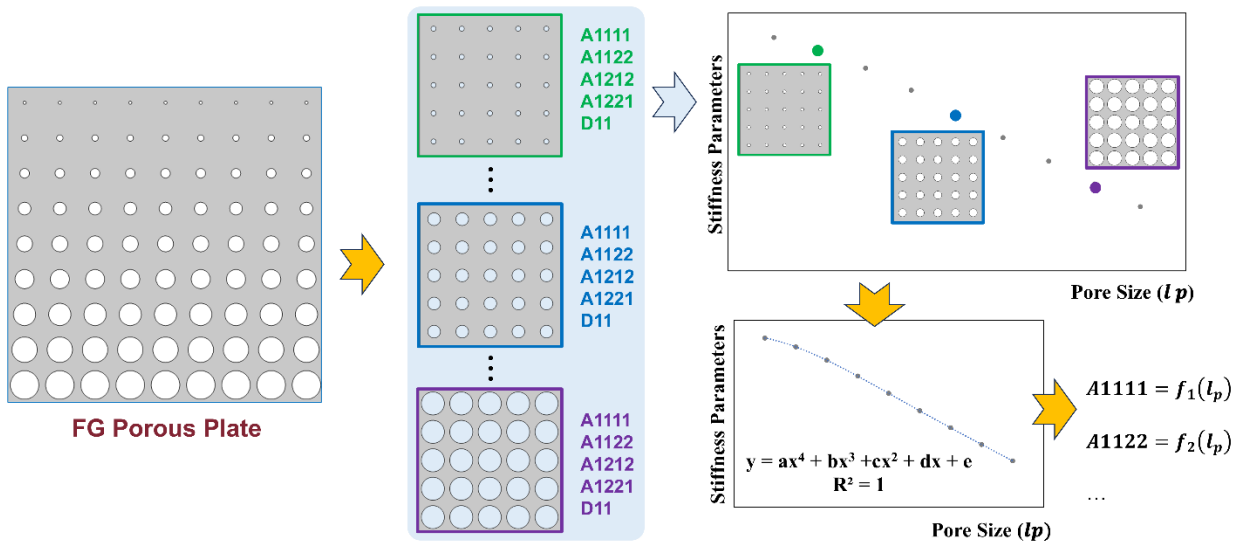
$$l_p = g_x(y) = \frac{0.09}{W} |y| + 0.09 \quad (X)$$

$$l_p = g_o(y) = -\frac{0.09}{W} |y| + 0.09 \quad (O)$$

296 In which $|y|$ is the absolute (positive) value of the vertical position (y), and y origin is located at
 297 $W / 2$.

298 3.2 Equivalent homogenised models for FG porous plates

299 Fig. 7 shows how the equivalent homogenised FG porous structure is derived by considering the
 300 homogenisation procedure developed for unit cells with uniform porosity [2]. First, a parametric
 301 study is conducted to find the equivalent mechanical parameters (Cauchy and micropolar) of
 302 uniform porous plates with various pore sizes. In the parametric study, the pore density (i.e., the
 303 number of pores per unit length) is kept constant and the pore sizes are changed from $0.01 W$ to
 304 $0.09 W$ to find the required equivalent parameters for each section of FG porous structure.



305
 306 *Fig. 7 A graphical abstract of the methodology for developing equivalent homogenised models of FG porous plates*

307 The flowchart in Fig. 8 shows the overall algorithm and workflow of the present work.

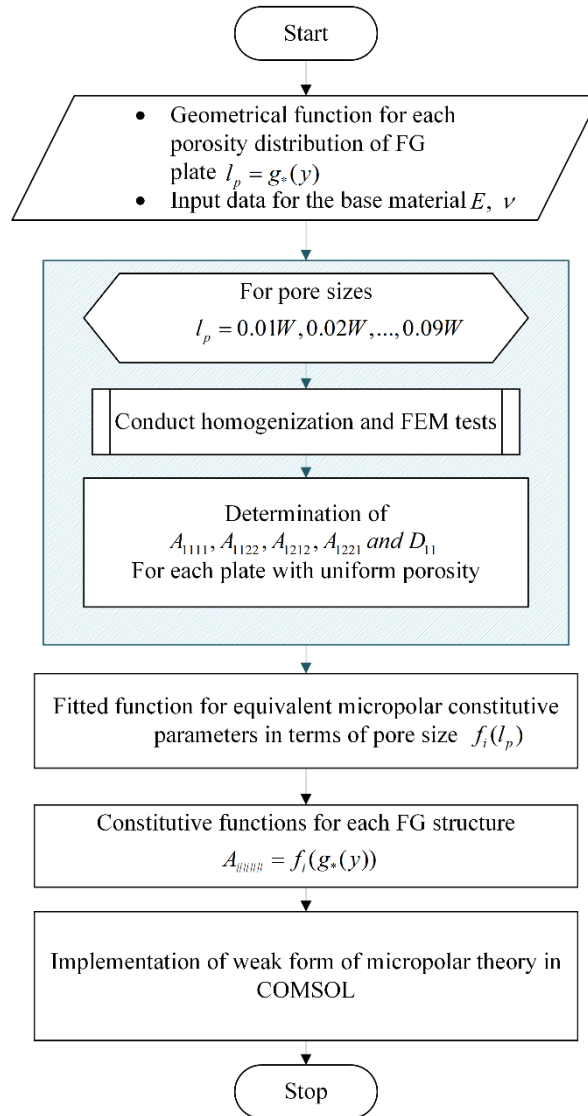


Fig. 8 The flowchart for the implementation algorithm of the present work

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310

311 For studying the FG patterns, we choose the pore size to vary in the range of 0.01L to 0.09L. When
 312 the pore size exceeds 0.09L, the reduction of material thickness between the pores can lead to local
 313 buckling or instability under loading, which may not be fully captured by the homogenised model.
 314 Also, very small pore sizes less than 0.01L can pose challenges related to meshing and
 315 discretisation, particularly near the discontinuities, which may reduce the numerical accuracy.

316 In the applications, we consider polylactic acid (PLA) as base material of the porous plate. PLA is
 317 a biodegradable and non-toxic material that is approved by the FDA for bioresorbable medical
 318 implants and therefore is widely used in the biomedical sector [58], [72]. The material properties
 319 considered for PLA are listed in Table 1.

320

Table 1 Material properties of the base material (PLA) [57], [73]

Properties	Value	Unit
------------	-------	------

Young's Modulus	3.775	GPa
Poisson Ratio	0.3	-
Density	1120	kg/m ³

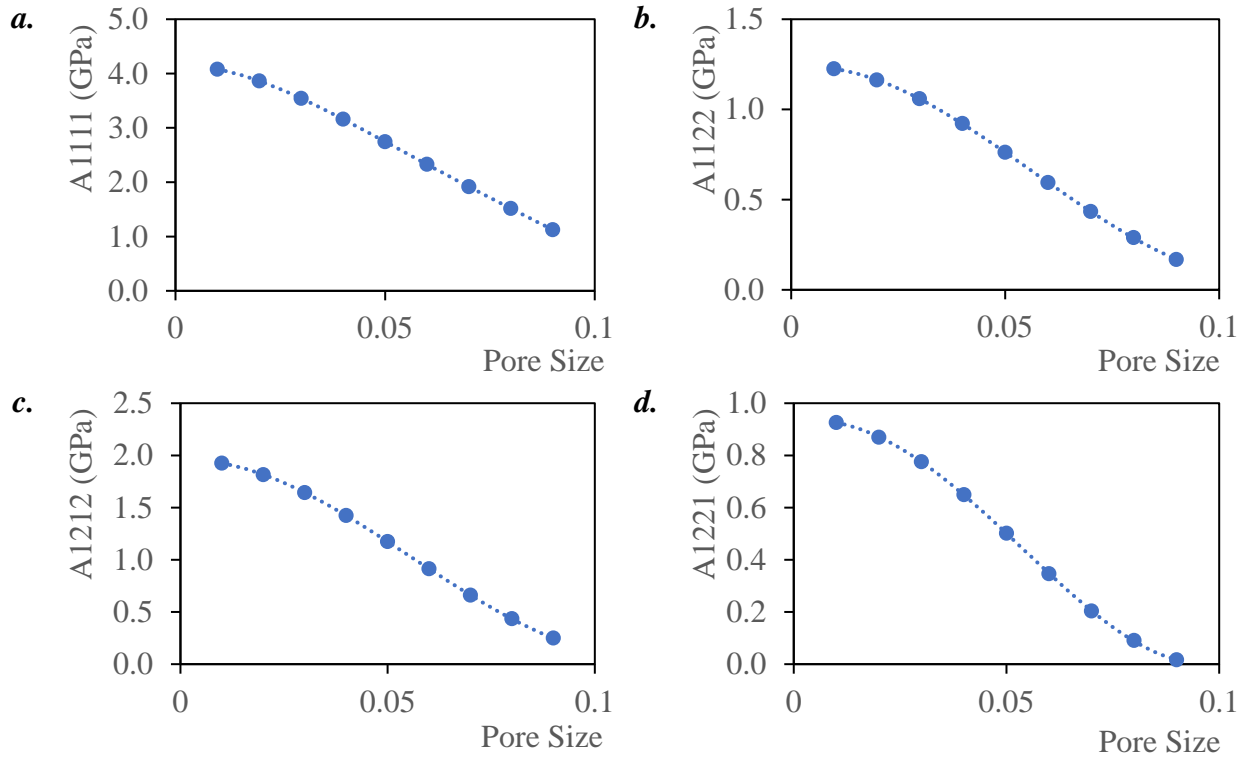
321 In Fig. 9, the equivalent micropolar and Cauchy parameters for the pore sizes ranging from 0.01W
322 to 0.09W are presented.

323 These data are then utilised to find curve-fitted functions, $f_i(l_p)$, for each material parameter with
324 respect to the pore size, l_p .

325 The obtained functions for equivalent constitutive parameters (in Pa) are as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
A_{1111} &= f_1(l_p) = -41264l_p^4 + 11339l_p^3 - 1107.1l_p^2 + 4.4412l_p + 4.1318 \\
A_{1122} &= f_2(l_p) = -1152l_p^4 + 2240.8l_p^3 - 357.8l_p^2 + 3.1343l_p + 1.2268 \\
A_{1212} &= f_3(l_p) = -21.30l_p^4 + 3013.50l_p^3 - 506.03l_p^2 + 2.26l_p + 1.94 \\
A_{1221} &= f_4(l_p) = 7501.8l_p^4 + 926.53l_p^3 - 281.96l_p^2 + 2.2673l_p + 0.9298 \\
D_{11} &= f_5(l_p) = -3355.3l_p^4 + 879.59l_p^3 - 83.344l_p^2 + 0.2526l_p + 0.3249
\end{aligned} \tag{26}$$

326 And the functions for equivalent constitutive parameters for Cauchy theory are those described in
327 Eq. (13) for $C_{1111} = A_{1111}$, $C_{1122} = A_{1122}$ and $C_{1212} = (A_{1212} + A_{1221})/2$.



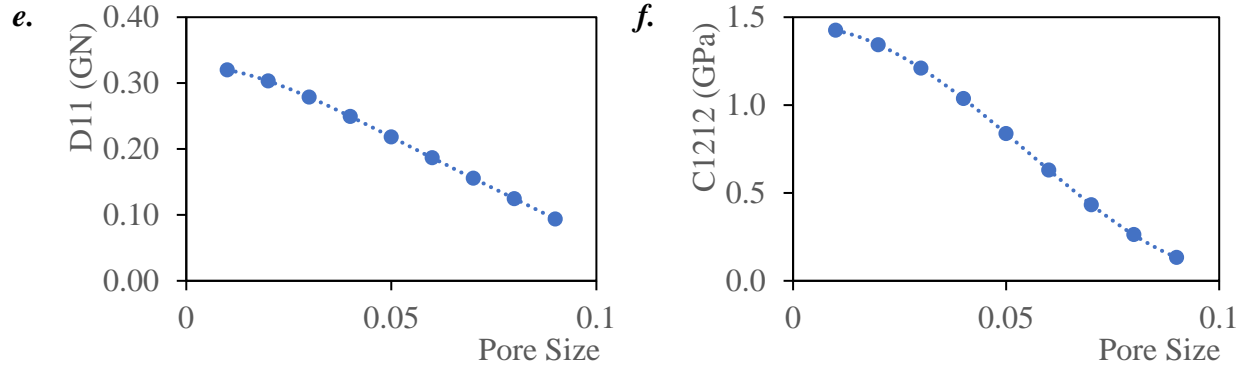


Fig. 9 The equivalent micropolar (a.-e.) and Cauchy (a., b., and f.) material parameters for pore sizes ranging from $0.01W$ to $0.09W$.

328
329

330 Now, by considering the relationship between homogenised material parameters and pore sizes
 331 ($f_i(l_p)$) as well as the functionality of pore sizes versus locations ($l_p = g_*(y)$) in each FG porous
 332 pattern, it is possible to determine the constitutive functions for each FG structure by employing
 333 the composition operator:

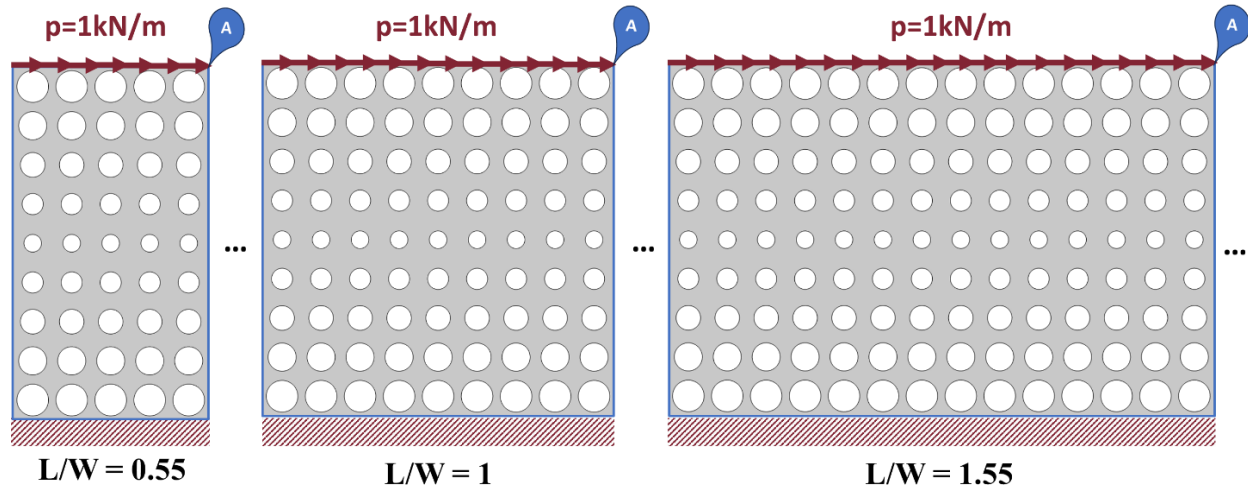
$$A_{\#\#\#\#} = f_i(g_*(y)) \quad (27)$$

334 Where $A_{\#\#\#\#}$ represents the constitutive parameters of the homogenised micropolar/Cauchy model
 335 (see Eq. (26)).

336 4 Numerical Results and Discussion

337 4.1 Geometry, loading, and boundary conditions

338 The usefulness of micropolar model is more evident when concentrated forces are applied and/or
 339 geometric discontinuities are present [38]. Also, micropolar theory is more effective compared to
 340 the Cauchy theory when structures are intended to withstand shear loads as normal stiffness
 341 properties are the same between micropolar and Cauchy theories $C_{1111} = A_{1111}$ and $C_{1122} = A_{1122}$.
 342 Therefore, to evaluate the effectiveness of micropolar theory and its proficiency to Cauchy theory
 343 in describing the mechanical performance of FG porous structures, two loading scenarios are
 344 considered: a distributed shear load and a vertical indentation load. The distributed shear load is
 345 applied on the top surface of the porous plate/beam ($p = 1000$ N/m), while the bottom surface of
 346 the structure is fixed. Various length scales (L/W) were investigated for four types of porosity
 347 distributions by comparing the results for $L/W < 1$, $L/W = 1$, and $L/W > 1$ (Fig. 10). In all the
 348 structures, L is fixed as 1.



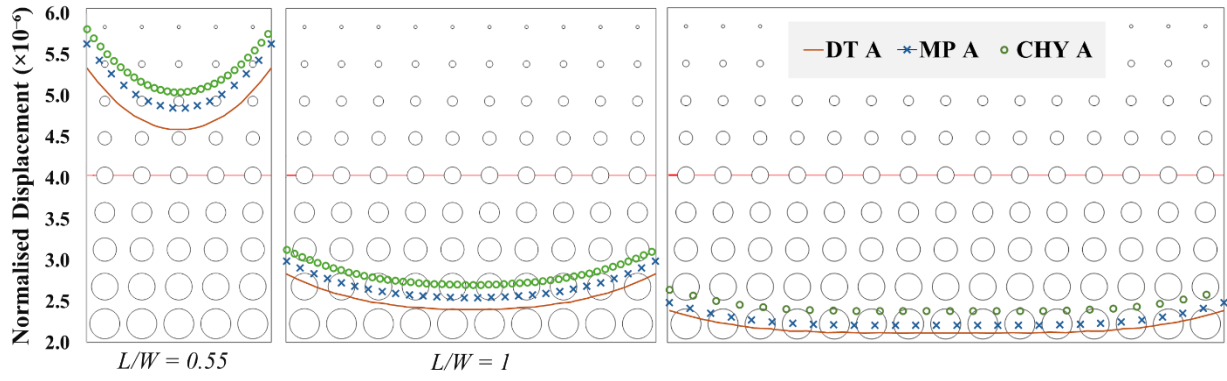
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Fig. 10 The geometry and loading considered for evaluation of the mechanical response of porous plates. L is the length (horizontal length) and W is the width (vertical length).

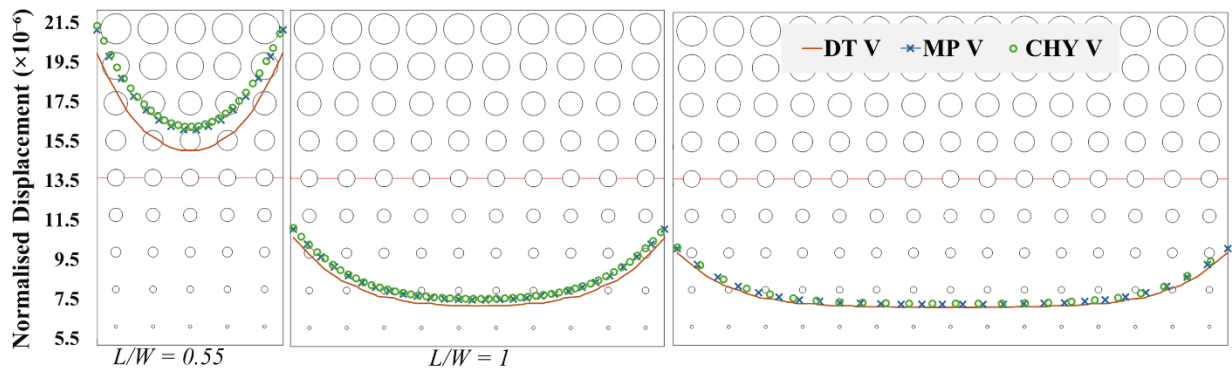
352 4.2 Comparison of displacement distribution for porous and homogenised models

353 To get insight into the mechanical response within the plate, the normalised displacement on the
 354 midline ($y = W/2$) is compared for the porous model versus homogenised models while considering
 355 various porosity distributions. The effect of the three aspect ratios $L/W = 0.55$, $L/W = 1$, and L/W
 356 $= 1.55$ is also studied. All the displacements are normalised by L . The results are summarised in
 357 Fig. 11 for four types of porosity distributions: Types A, V, X, and O, respectively. Here, "DT",
 358 "MP" and "CHY" denote detailed porous models, micropolar homogenised models, and Cauchy
 359 homogenised models, respectively.

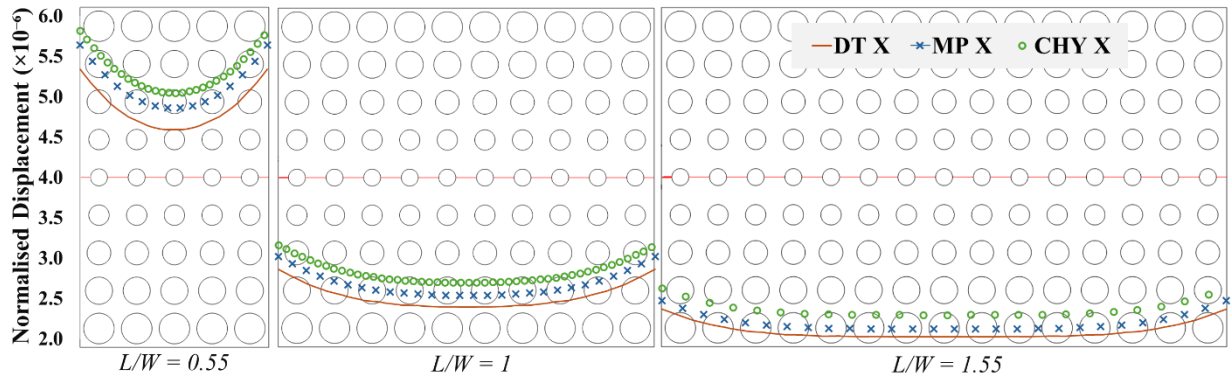
a.



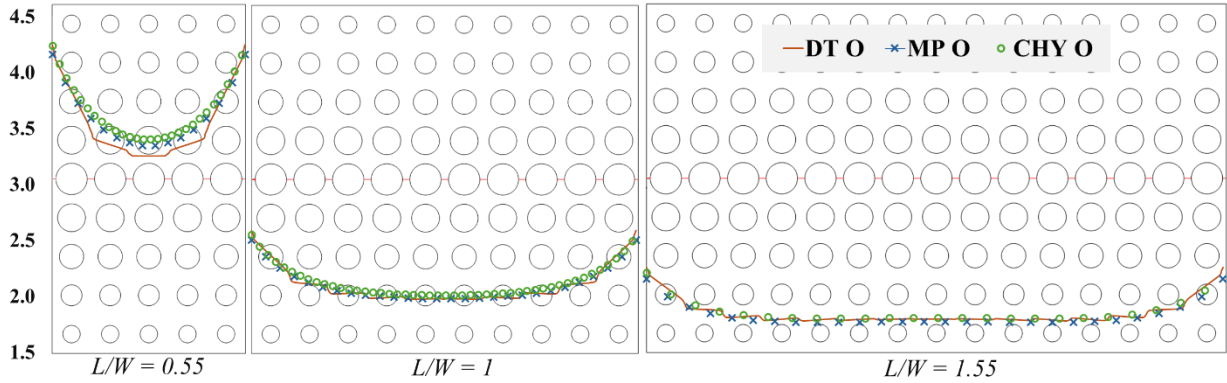
b.



c.



d.

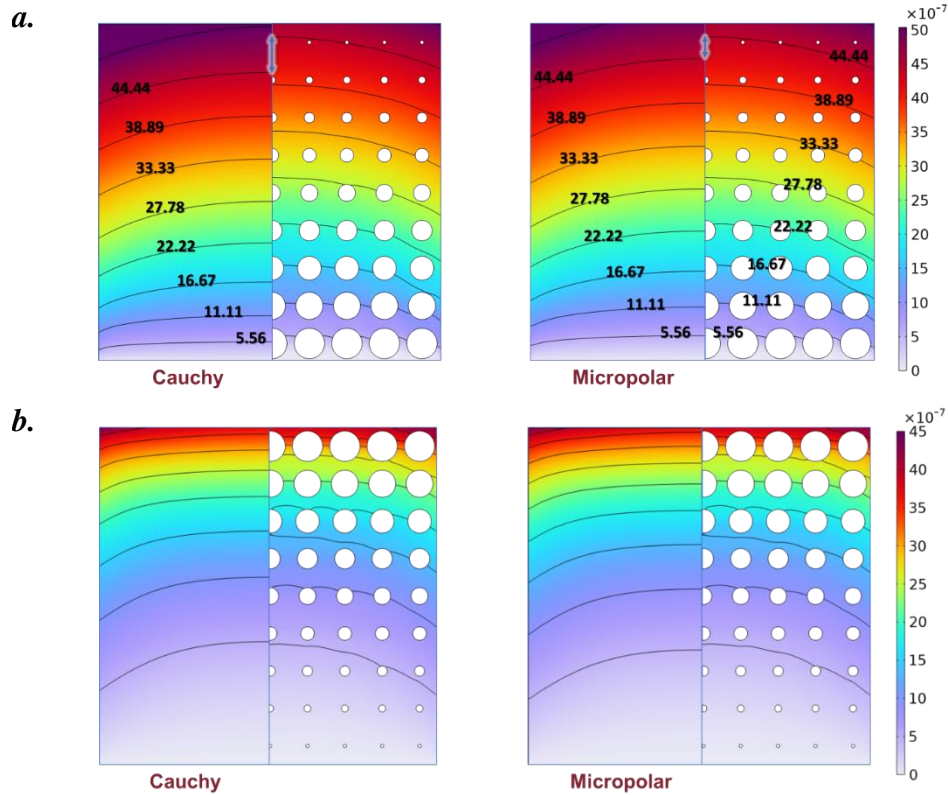


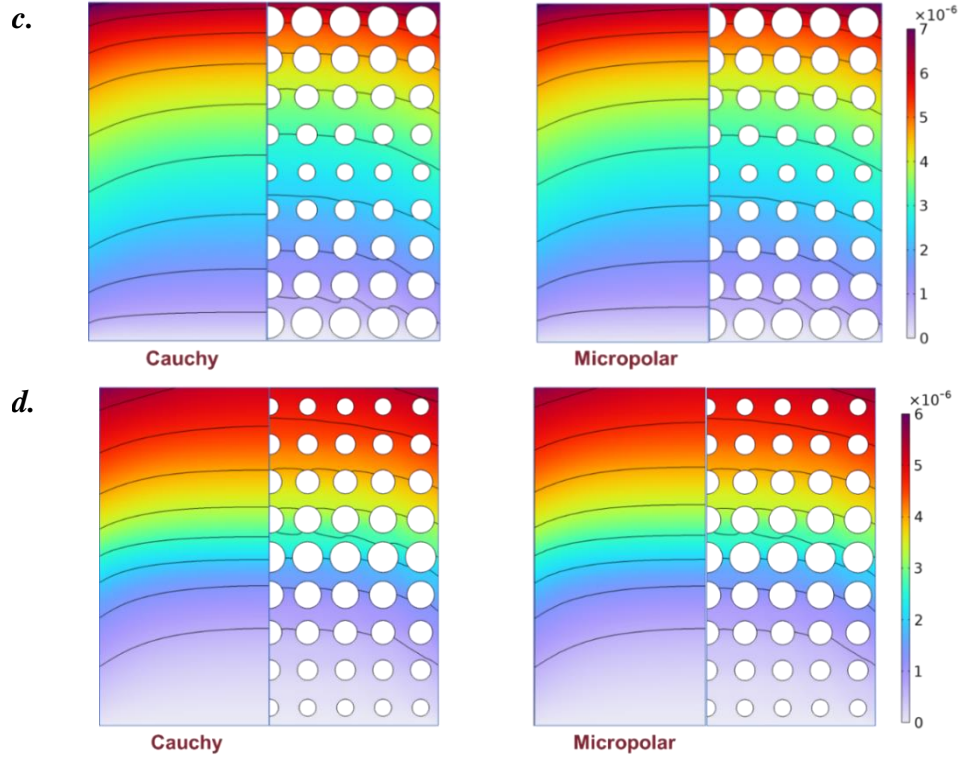
360 *Fig. 11 The comparison of the normalised displacement magnitude on the midline for the porous model versus homogenised*
 361 *micropolar and Cauchy models for FG porous structure with porosity distribution of a. Type A, b. Type V, c. Type X, d. Type O*
 362 *with aspect ratios of $L/W = 0.55$, $L/W = 1$, and $L/W = 1.55$.*

363 The results for the studied cases show that micropolar homogenised models can better predict the
 364 displacement distribution of the FG porous structure compared to the Cauchy homogenised model
 365 for all porosity patterns. The advantage of micropolar to Cauchy theory is more prominent in the
 366 case of A and X patterns.

367 In Fig. 12, the normalised displacement contour lines are compared for the case of $L/W = 1$ for all
 368 the four porosity patterns of types A, V, X, and O, respectively.

369





370 *Fig. 12 Comparison of normalised displacement contours of the porous model versus homogenised micropolar and Cauchy*
 371 *models for FG porous structure with porosity distribution a. Type A, b. Type V, c. Type X, d. Type O, and $L/W = 1$. The values of*
 372 *contour lines are reported in a. for better presentation of the differences.*

373 As shown in Fig. 12, both homogenised models can follow the displacement contours of the
 374 detailed porous model. In Fig. 12a, the arrows show the distance between the displacement iso-
 375 lines in the porous model and the corresponding predicted iso-line by each homogenised model.
 376 As it can be seen, the performance of the homogenised micropolar model is better as the
 377 displacement iso-lines are closer to the porous FG structures for the micropolar homogenised
 378 models compared to Cauchy ones.

379 4.3 Aspect ratio effect

380 To evaluate the aspect ratio effect on the stiffness of the porous structures and the capability of the
 381 homogenised models in predicting stiffness, the maximum deflection (normalised displacement at
 382 point A in Fig. 10) is compared for porous and equivalent micropolar and Cauchy models for 10
 383 aspect ratios and the four FG patterns.

384 The results are presented in Table 2 and Fig. 13. Overall, the obtained results for homogenised
 385 micropolar and Cauchy models are consistent with the porous model. However, according to Table
 386 2, compared to Cauchy theory, the micropolar model better predicts the mechanical behaviour of
 387 porous structures, especially for very small aspect ratios such as $AR = 0.55$. As aspect ratio
 388 increases, the difference between the porous response and micropolar prediction decreases.

389

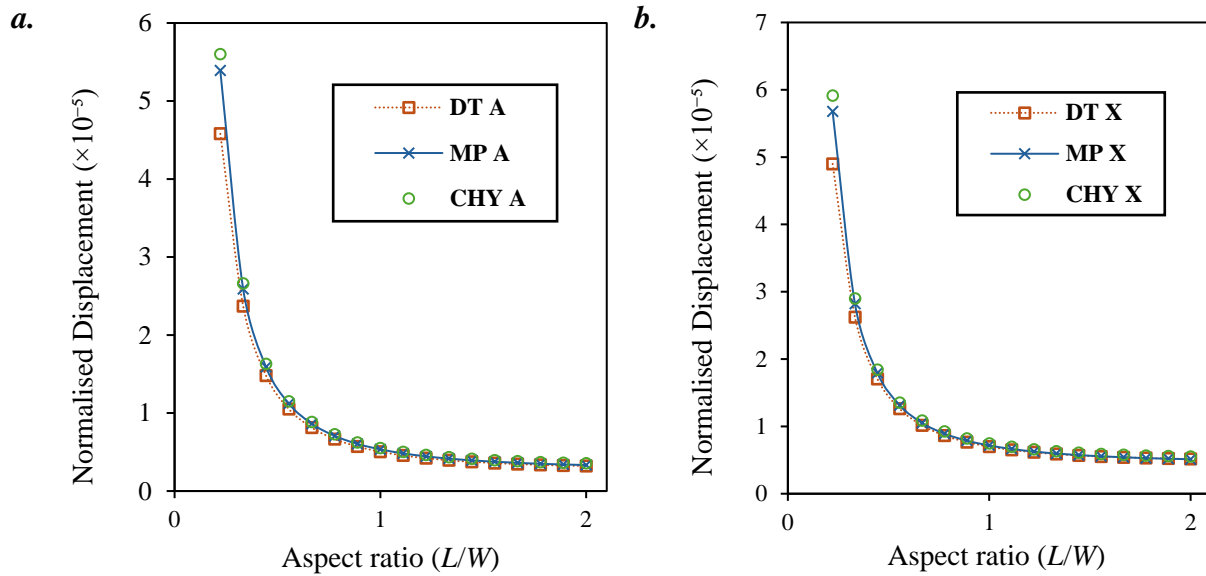
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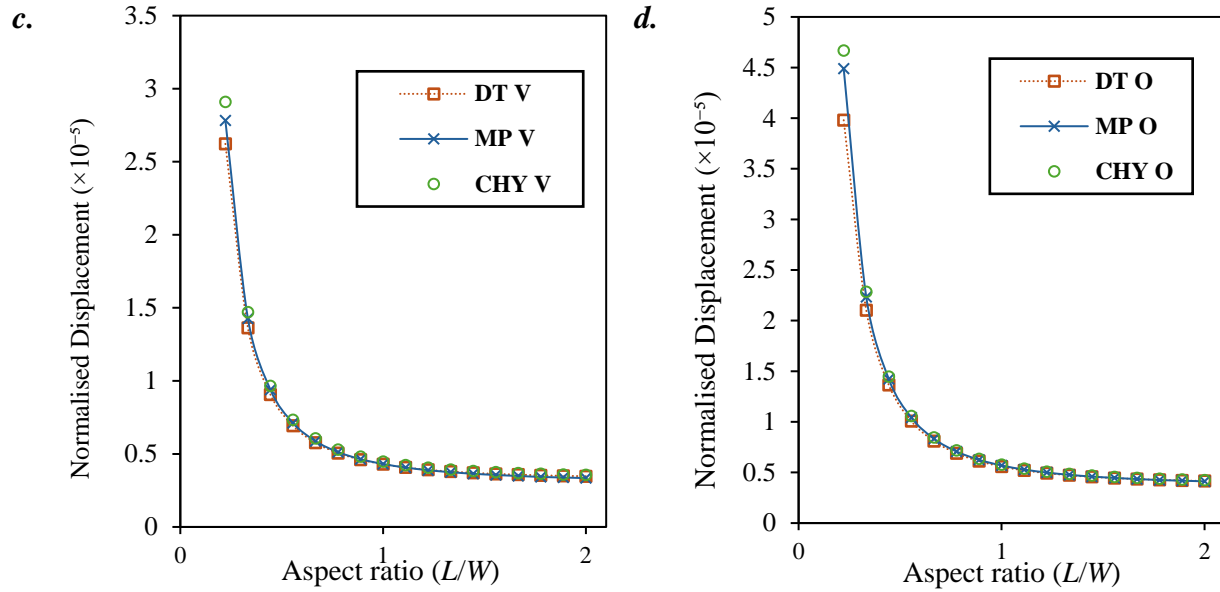
391
392
393

Table 2 Comparison of the normalised displacement magnitude (in μ) obtained from the porous model and predicted by homogenised micropolar and Cauchy models for the loading and geometry demonstrated in Fig. 10. (% error) shows the difference between values resulted from the homogenised model and the detailed porous model.

Distribution	L/W	Porous	Micropolar	(% error)	Cauchy	(% error)
A	0.55	10.50	11.20	(6.67)	11.50	(9.52)
	1.00	5.04	5.34	(5.95)	5.51	(9.33)
	1.55	3.58	3.76	(5.03)	3.95	(10.34)
	2.00	3.20	3.33	(4.06)	3.55	(10.94)
X	0.55	12.61	13.14	(4.18)	13.53	(7.27)
	1.00	6.98	7.17	(2.65)	7.47	(7.00)
	1.55	5.53	5.56	(0.67)	5.91	(6.88)
	2.00	5.16	5.11	(-0.85)	5.51	(6.80)
V	0.55	6.93	7.12	(2.70)	7.33	(5.77)
	1.00	4.29	4.31	(0.36)	4.47	(4.09)
	1.55	3.63	3.56	(-2.10)	3.75	(3.18)
	2.00	3.47	3.34	(-3.74)	3.56	(2.53)
O	0.55	10.07	10.42	(3.44)	10.58	(5.02)
	1.00	5.58	5.69	(1.94)	5.78	(3.46)
	1.55	4.45	4.46	(0.35)	4.56	(2.51)
	2.00	4.16	4.13	(-0.74)	4.25	(2.16)

394
395

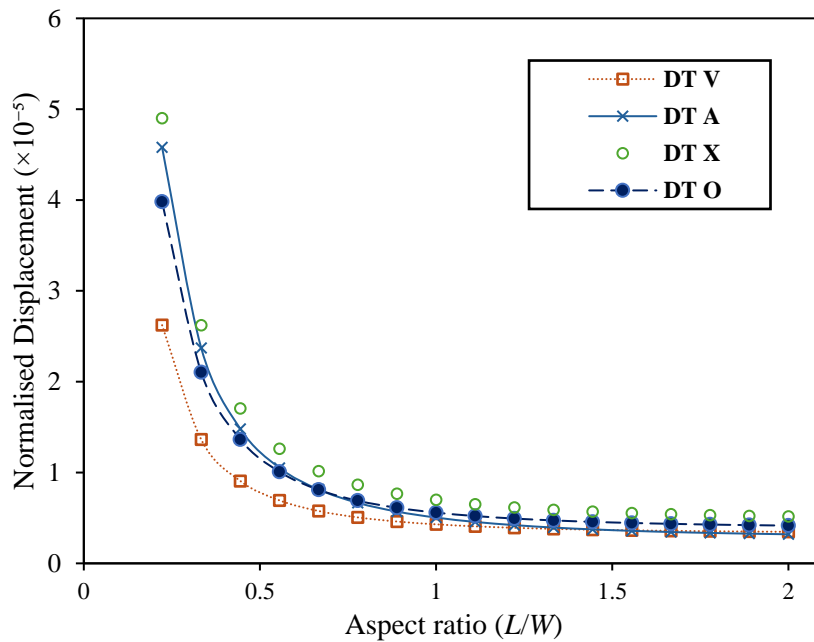




396 Fig. 13 Comparison of maximum normalised displacement (normalised displacement at Point A in Fig. 10) in the porous and
 397 homogenised models for different aspect ratios and porosity distribution of a. Type A, b. Type X, c. Type V, d. Type O

398 4.4 The effect of different porosity distributions

399 To study the effect of different porosity distributions, the maximum deformations of the
 400 homogenised models for four types of porous FG structures are compared.



401 Fig. 14 Comparison of the maximum normalised displacement (normalised displacement at Point A in Fig. 10) of the FG porous
 402 plate for porosity distribution Type 'A', Type 'V', Type 'X', and Type 'O' for various aspect ratios.
 403

404 As can be inferred from Fig. 14 for aspect ratios less than approximately 1.5, it is important to take
 405 functional porosity into account when predicting the plate's mechanical response; however, in
 406 higher aspect ratios, the overall porosity plays a more important role. This becomes clearer by
 407 comparing the maximum displacement for two distribution types A and V reported in Table 3,

408 with the overall same porosity. As shown in the table, the difference between maximum
 409 displacement is high for $L/W=0.5$ and decreases for $L/W=1.5$ and 2.

410 *Table 3 Comparison of the maximum normalised displacement (normalised displacement at Point A in Fig. 10) for porosity*
 411 *distributions Type 'A' and Type 'V'. The values in the parentheses show the difference between the A and V distributions for each*
 412 *AR.*

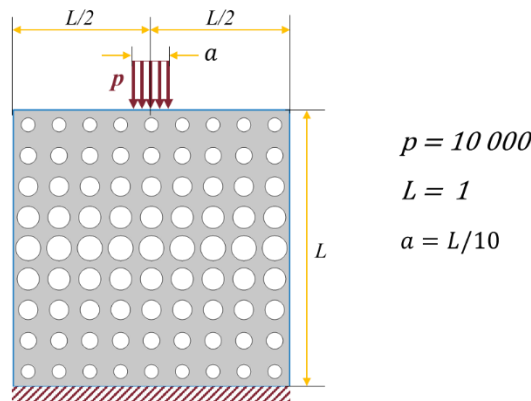
Distribution	Porosity	Volume Fraction	Max Normalised Displacement		
			$L/W=0.5$	$L/W=1.5$	$L/W=2.0$
Type A	20.14 %	0.79858	10.50	3.58	3.20
Type V	20.14 %	0.79858	6.93	3.63	3.47

413

414

415 4.5 Indentation of a Vertical Load

416 To provide further evaluation of the proposed model, another loading scenario is studied in this
 417 section for all the FG patterns. Fig. 15 shows the loading and boundary condition on an FG plate
 418 with the O pattern as an example.

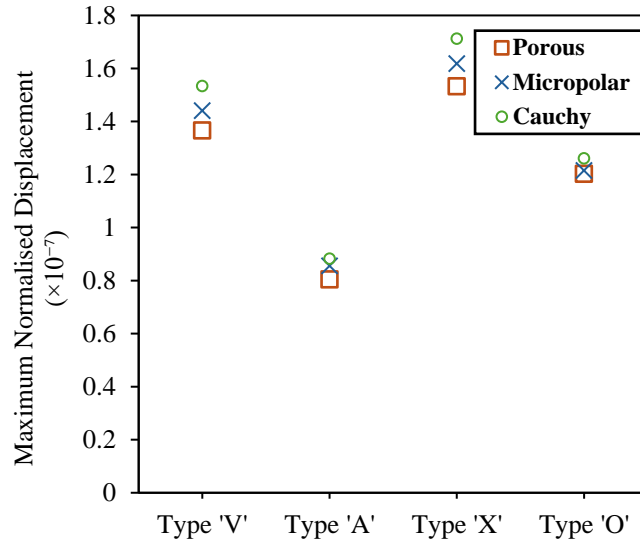


419

420 *Fig. 15 The geometry, loading, and boundary conditions for the vertical indentation on an FG porous structure with porosity*
 421 *distribution Type O*

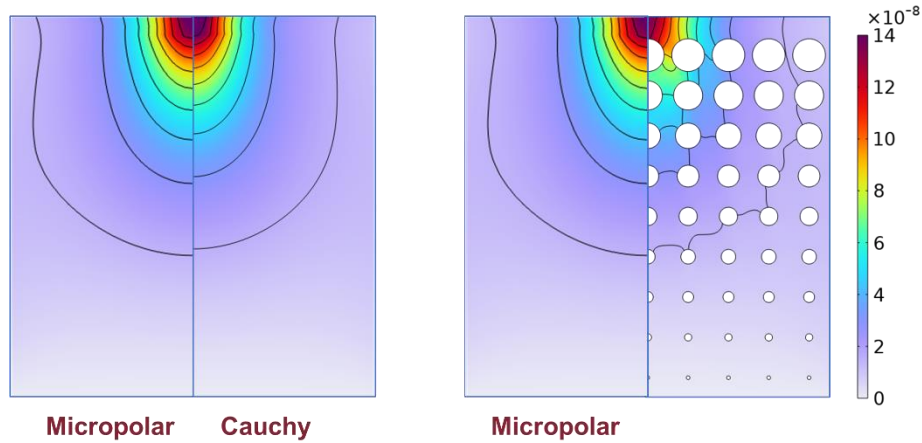
422 The maximum normalised displacement observed in the FG porous structures with different
 423 patterns and the predicted values by the micropolar and Cauchy continua are compared in Fig. 16.
 424 This figure shows that in all the patterns, the prediction of the micropolar theory is closer to the
 425 real porous structure compared to the Cauchy predictions.

426



427
428 *Fig. 16 Comparison of maximum normalised displacement resulted from the vertical indentation in the porous and homogenised*
429 *models for different porosity distributions of Type A, Type X, Type V, and Type O.*

430 Besides in Fig. 17, the contour of the normalised displacements for the FG porous structure with
431 V pattern and the homogenised micropolar and Cauchy models are compared. As can be seen, the
432 load penetration reflected in the displacement contours is better captured by the micropolar model
433 compared to the Cauchy one.

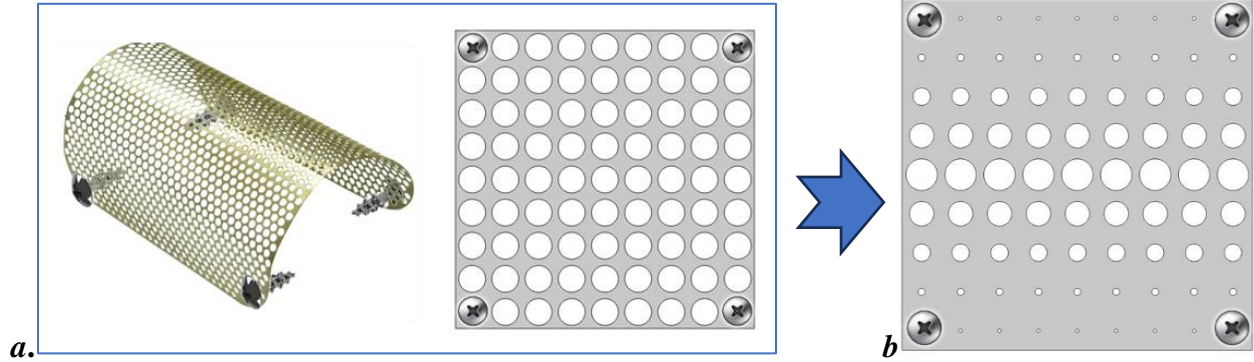


434
435 *Fig. 17 Comparison of normalised displacement contours of the porous model versus homogenised micropolar and Cauchy*
436 *models for FG porous structure with porosity distribution Type V*

437 **5 Case Study: FG porous design in GBR dentistry meshes**

438 From a mechanical and physiological perspective, it is important that bone scaffolds mimic the
439 mechanical characteristics of the host bone to prevent a phenomenon known as stress shielding.
440 Stress-shielding happens when an over-rigid implant reduces the stress in its adjacent bone. Since
441 loading is necessary to promote bone remodelling, this could prevent bone regeneration and result
442 in bone resorption. Conversely, an extremely flexible implant may cause undue stress on the bone,
443 impairing the consolidation of the bone-implant interphase and ultimately resulting in the death of
444 bone cells [74]. Therefore, based on the developed framework in the current work, the following
445 design is suggested for the GBR mesh made from bioresorbable PLA.

446 By mimicking the FG natural structure of the bone, an FG structure of type O is suggested, as
 447 shown in Fig. 18, so that the central part of the GBR mesh possesses mechanical properties close
 448 to cancellous (trabecular) bone while providing a proper occlusivity and the part near fixing areas
 449 (the screw's location) as near as possible to cortical (compact) bone to provide required load-
 450 bearing capacities.



451 **a.**
 452 *Fig. 18 a. The usual porous GBR meshes implemented with uniform porosity b. FG porous structure (Type O) design*

453 However, the experimental micropolar parameters for mandible cancellous bone are not available
 454 in the literature. Also, it should be noted that these parameters can vary depending on different
 455 factors such as the patient's age, gender, and health status [75].

456 An estimate of the mechanical parameters of mandible cancellous bone is reported in Table 2
 457 retrieved from [75], [76], and considering $A_{1111} = \frac{E(1-\nu)}{(1+\nu)(1-2\nu)}$ and $A_{1122} = \frac{E\nu}{(1+\nu)(1-2\nu)}$ from
 458 linear elasticity for isotropic materials [77].

459 *Table 4 Mechanical parameter data available for mandible cancellous bone adapted from [75], [76]*

Parameter		Value	Unit
Young's Modulus	E	0.907	GPa
Poisson Ratio	ν	0.3	-
A_{1111}		1.84	GPa
A_{1122}		0.79	GPa

460 According to the studied configurations in the current work, pore sizes of $0.075W$ can provide
 461 mechanical parameters near those of the cancellous bone in Table 4. This is suggested as the pore
 462 size in the middle of the GBR mesh.

463 For the GBR parts around the fixing area, a minimum pore size of $0.01W$ is suggested to allow for
 464 enough permeability for the nutrients. Considering that W is around one centimetre for dental GBR
 465 meshes, the pore size of $0.01W$ is in favour with the experimental observation of Gutta et al. [55],
 466 where they reported that macro-pores of more than 1 mm promote better bone regeneration [60].

467 However, it should be noted that the micropolar parameters corresponding to the pore size of $0.01L$
 468 in a PLA porous plate are lower than that of the cortical bone. The micropolar parameters of the
 469 compact bone retrieved from an experimental report [78], [79], are presented in Table 5. However,
 470 this can be remedied by locally reinforcing the base material in these areas; a suggestion is to use
 471 nano-reinforcements such as silver nanoparticles. Introducing a nano-reinforcement like silver

nanoparticles into PLA [80] will enhance its mechanical properties [81] and endow antimicrobial features to the material, which is of great interest in GBR meshes [82]. For instance, as reported in [81], adding 21.8% weight fraction of silver nanoparticles to PLA will improve the Young's modulus by 2.75 times, and this will roughly increase all the parameters with the same order, thus making the parameters of the porous structure with $0.01L$ close to the ones reported in Table 5. The full investigation of the effect of nano-reinforcement and the design of functionally graded materials (FGM) in conjugation with functionally graded porosities can be the topic of future investigations.

Table 5 Micropolar stiffness matrix components for bone extracted from experimental data [2]

Parameter	Unit	Value
A_{1111}	GPa	12.00 ~ 43.43
A_{1122}	GPa	4.00
A_{1212}	GPa	21.10 ~ 36.77
A_{1221}	GPa	-13.05 ~ 2.67
D_{11}	kN	3.24

6 Conclusions

In the current work, non-classical micropolar and Cauchy continua are proposed to model porous plates with functionally graded distribution of porosities within the plane. A multiscale approach is developed based on the equivalence of strain energy to find the material properties of homogenous continua equivalent to heterogenous FG porous structures. To evaluate the effectiveness of the method, the mechanical response of FG porous plates with diverse porosity distributions, 'V', 'A', 'X', and 'O', and a broad range of aspect ratios is compared to the prediction of the equivalent models. To show the applicability of the developed framework, it is used to design a biomedical prosthesis used in dentistry called guided bone regeneration (GBR) mesh.

The main findings are summarised as follows:

- The micropolar theory-based modelling can better predict the displacement distribution of the FG porous structure for all porosity patterns compared to the Cauchy-based modelling. The competence of micropolar to Cauchy theory is more prominent in case of A and X patterns. In all cases, the prediction of micropolar theory becomes closer to the porous structure as the aspect ratio increases.
- For aspect ratios less than approximately 1.5, it is important to take functional porosity into account when predicting the FG plate's mechanical response; however, in higher aspect ratios, the overall porosity plays a more important role.
- As a biomedical application of the proposed modelling, it is used to suggest a GBR mesh that tries to mimic the FG natural structure of the bone. The FG porous configuration is suggested so as the central part possesses mechanical properties close to mandible cancellous (trabecular) bone to provide the proper occlusivity and the part near fixing areas provides higher stiffness.

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