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EMBEDDED IN AN ELASTIC MEDIUM

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## SCALE EFFECTS ON ULTRASONIC WAVE DISPERSION CHARACTERISTICS OF MONOLAYER GRAPHENE EMBEDDED IN AN ELASTIC MEDIUM

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Ultrasonic wave propagation in a graphene sheet, which is embedded in an elastic medium, is studied using nonlocal elasticity theory incorporating small-scale effects. The graphene sheet is modeled as an one-atom thick isotropic plate and the elastic medium/substrate is modeled as distributed springs. For this model, the nonlocal governing differential equations of motion are derived from the minimization of the total potential energy of the entire system. After that, an ultrasonic type of wave propagation model is also derived. The explicit expressions for the cut-off frequencies are also obtained as functions of the nonlocal scaling parameter and the  $y$ -directional wavenumber. Local elasticity shows that the wave will propagate even at higher frequencies. But nonlocal elasticity predicts that the waves can propagate only up to certain frequencies (called escape frequencies), after which the wave velocity becomes zero. The results also show that the escape frequencies are purely a function of the nonlocal scaling parameter. The effect of the elastic medium is captured in the wave dispersion analysis and this analysis is explained with respect to both local and nonlocal elasticity. The simulations show that the elastic medium affects only the flexural wave mode in the graphene sheet. The presence of the elastic matrix increases the band gap of the flexural mode. The present results can provide useful guidance for the design of next-generation nanodevices in which graphene-based composites act as a major element.

### 1. Introduction

Graphene [Geim and Novoselov 2007], the two-dimensional (2D) counterpart of three-dimensional (3D) graphite, has attracted vast interest in solid-state physics, materials science, and nanoelectronics since it was discovered in 2004 as the first free-standing 2D crystal. Graphene is considered a promising electronic material in postsilicon electronics. However, large-scale synthesis of high-quality graphene represents a bottleneck for next-generation graphene devices. Existing routes for graphene synthesis include mechanical exfoliation of highly ordered pyrolytic graphite [Novoselov et al. 2004], eliminating Si from the surface of single-crystal SiC [Ohta et al. 2006], depositing graphene at the surface of single-crystal [Oshima and Nagashima 1997] or polycrystalline metals [Obraztsov et al. 2007], and various wet-chemistry-based approaches [Gómez-Navarro et al. 2007; Li et al. 2008]. However, up to now no methods have delivered high quality graphene with the large area required for applications such as practical electronic materials. In recent years, these nanostructured materials have spurred considerable interest in the materials community because of their potential for large gains in mechanical and physical properties as compared to standard structural materials. Since controlled experiments in nanoscale are

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*Keywords:* monolayer graphene, nonlocal elasticity theory, wavenumber, spectrum, dispersion, phase velocity, escape frequency, cut-off frequency.

difficult and molecular dynamics simulations are expensive and formidable, especially for large scale systems, modified continuum models have been widely and successfully used to study the mechanical behavior of nanostructures like carbon nanotubes (CNTs), graphene sheets (GSs), nanofibers/wires, etc. [Tomanek and Enbody 2000].

A nanostructure is defined as a material system or object where at least one of the dimensions is below 100 nm. Oxide nanostructures can be classified into three categories: zero-dimensional (0D); one-dimensional (1D); and two-dimensional (2D). 0D nanostructures are materials in which all three dimensions are at the nanoscale. Good examples of these materials are buckminsterfullerenes [Kroto et al. 1985] and quantum dots [Dabbousi et al. 1997]. 1D nanostructures are materials that have two physical dimensions in the nanometer range while the third dimension can be large, such as in CNTs [Vossen and Kern 1978]. 2D nanostructures, or thin films, only have one dimension in the nanometer range and can be used readily in the processing of complimentary metal-oxide semiconductor transistors [Senturia 2001] and microelectromechanical systems [Martin 1996]. Since the focus of this work is on 2D nanostructures, the others will not be discussed from this point forward. 2D nanostructures (here graphene sheets) have stimulated a great deal of interest due to their importance in fundamental scientific research and potential technological applications in the development of GS-based nanodevices such as strain sensors, mass and pressure sensors, atomic dust detectors, enhancers of surface image resolution, etc.

In contrast to the investigations of CNTs, it is surprising to find that very few studies have been reported in the literature on the theoretical modeling of GSs, even though graphene possesses many superior properties [Luo and Chung 2000], such as good electrical and thermal conductivities parallel to the sheets and poor conductivities normal to the sheets, which makes it suitable for gasket material in high-temperature or chemical environments; good flexibility, which suggests its use as a vibration damping material; and a high strength-to-weight ratio, which makes it an ideal material for sports equipment. Recently, Behfar and Naghdabadi [2005] investigated the nanoscale vibration of a multilayered graphene sheet (MLGS) embedded in an elastic medium, in which the natural frequencies as well as the associated modes were determined using a continuum-based model. The influence of carbon-carbon and carbon-polymer van der Waals (VDW) forces are considered in their work. They further studied the bending modulus of a MLGS using a geometrically based analytical approach [Behfar et al. 2006]. The bending energy in their analysis is based on the VDW interactions of atoms belonging to two neighboring sheets. Their calculations are performed for a double-layered GS, but the derived bending modulus is generalized to a MLGS composed of many double-layered GSs along its thickness, in which the double-layered GSs are alternately the same in configuration. In addition, it should be mentioned that graphite is composed of multilayered sheets, but it was recently reported [Horiuchi et al. 2004] that single-layered sheets are detectable in carbon nanofilms. Sakhaee-Pour et al. [2008a] have studied the free vibrational behavior of single-layer graphene sheets (SLGS) while considering the effects of chirality and aspect ratio as well as boundary conditions, and have developed predictive models for computing the natural frequencies. The potential applications of SLGSs as mass sensors and atomistic dust detectors have further been investigated [Sakhaee-Pour et al. 2008b]. Also, the promising usage of SLGSs as strain sensors has been examined [Sakhaee-Pour and Ahmadian 2008].

The small scale of nanotechnology makes the applicability of classical and local continuum models, such as beam and shell models, questionable. Classical continuum models do not admit intrinsic size

dependence in the elastic solutions of inclusions and inhomogeneities. At nanometer scales, however, size effects often become prominent, the cause of which needs to be explicitly addressed due to an increasing interest in the general area of nanotechnology [Li et al. 2008]. Sun and Zhang (see [Tomanek and Enbody 2000]) indicated the importance of semicontinuum models in analyzing nanomaterials after pointing out the limitations of the applicability of classical continuum models to nanotechnology. In their semicontinuum model for nanostructured materials with plate-like geometry, the material properties were found to be completely dependent on the thickness of the plate structure, contrary to classical continuum models. The modeling of such a size-dependent phenomenon has become an interesting research subject in this field [Vossen and Kern 1978; Kroto et al. 1985; Dabbousi et al. 1997]. It is thus concluded that the applicability of classical continuum models at very small scales is questionable, since the material microstructure, such as the lattice spacing between individual atoms, becomes increasingly important at small sizes and the discrete structure of the material can no longer be homogenized into a continuum. Therefore, continuum models need to be extended to consider the scale effect in nanomaterial studies.

At nanometer scales, size effects often become prominent. Both experimental and atomistic simulation results have shown a significant size-effect in the mechanical properties when the dimensions of these structures become small. As the length scales are reduced, the influences of long-range interatomic and intermolecular cohesive forces on the static and dynamic properties tend to be significant and cannot be neglected. The classical theory of elasticity, being the long wave limit of atomic theory, excludes these effects. Thus traditional classical continuum mechanics would fail to capture small-scale effects when dealing in nanostructures. Small-size analysis using local theory over predicts the results. Thus the consideration of small effects is necessary for correct prediction of micro/nanostructures. Various size-dependent continuum theories which capture the small scale parameter such as couple-stress elasticity theory [Zhou and Li 2001], strain gradient theory [Fleck and Hutchinson 1997], and modified couple-stress theory [Yang et al. 2002] have been reported. These modified continuum theories are being used for the analysis of small-scale structures. However, the most used continuum theory for analyzing small-scale structures is Eringen's nonlocal elasticity theory [Eringen 1972; 1976; 1983; Eringen and Edelen 1972]. The essence of nonlocal elasticity theory is that the small-scale effects are captured by assuming that the stress at a point is a function of the strains at all the other points in the domain. Nonlocal theory considers long-range interatomic interaction and yields results dependent on the size of a body. It is also reported in [Chen et al. 2004] that nonlocal continuum theory-based models are physically reasonable from the atomistic viewpoint of lattice dynamics and molecular dynamics simulations. Understanding the importance of employing nonlocal elasticity theory in small-scale structures, a number of research works have conducted static, dynamic, and stability analyses of micro/nanostructures [Yakobson et al. 1997; Peddieson et al. 2003; Wang 2005; Wang and Hu 2005; Lu et al. 2006; 2007; Duan and Wang 2007; Duan et al. 2007; Ece and Aydoydu 2007; Lim and Wang 2007; Lu 2007; Reddy 2007; Wang and Liew 2007; Adali 2008; Kumar et al. 2008; Reddy and Pang 2008; Tounsi et al. 2008; Wang and Duan 2008; Yang et al. 2008; Aydogdu 2009a; 2009b; Murmu and Pradhan 2009; Narendar and Gopalakrishnan 2009a; 2009b; 2010a; 2010b; 2010c; 2010d; Narendar et al. 2010].

All engineering materials possess intrinsic length scales in terms of their repetitive atomic or molecular structures. The classical theory of elasticity, which is commonly used to explain the behavior of these materials, however, does not accommodate any such scale. The absence of the length scale creates several discrepancies in the predictions of mechanical responses, for example, infinite stress fields near crack tips

or nondispersive wave behavior (constant wave speed, independent of frequency). This occurs in classical elasticity, according to which Rayleigh waves propagating on the surface of a semiinfinite isotropic elastic space are nondispersive in nature [Love 1944], whereas experiments and the atomic theory of lattices predict otherwise. These anomalies indicate the limitations of the classical theory of elasticity and stress the need for molecular dynamics (MD)-based simulations. However, modern practical problems are still intractable for MD-based analysis, even if the highest computing capabilities are at disposal. Hence, refinement of the existing continuum theory for the purpose of more realistic predictions seems to be the only viable alternative. Several attempts have been made so far in this direction, for example, the nonlocal theory of elasticity [Eringen 1972; 1976; 1983; Eringen and Edelen 1972], where the objective is always to modify the stress gradient term in the governing momentum equilibrium equations so that the long-range effects are taken into account. The nonlocal theory generates a singular perturbed partial differential equation. In this work, the nonlocal theory of Eringen is used to develop wave solutions for 2D nanostructures such as graphene. However, in this work, the main concern is the issues involved in wave propagation analysis in the domain of nonlocal elasticity.

One important outcome of the nonlocal elasticity is the realistic prediction of the dispersion curve, that is, the frequency-wavenumber/wavevector relation. As shown in [Eringen 1983], the dispersion relation

$$\frac{\omega}{C_1 k} = (1 + (e_0 a)^2 k^2)^{-1/2}, \quad (1)$$

where  $e_0 a$  is the nonlocality parameter, closely matches with the Born–Karman model dispersion

$$\frac{\omega a}{C_1} = 2 \sin\left(\frac{ka}{2}\right) \quad (2)$$

when  $e_0 = 0.39$  is considered. However, among the two natural conditions at the midpoint and end of the first Brillouin zone:

$$\left. \frac{d\omega}{dk} \right|_{k=0} = C_1, \quad \left. \frac{d\omega}{dk} \right|_{k=\frac{\pi}{a}} = 0, \quad (3)$$

these relations satisfy only the first one. It has been suggested that two-parameter approximation of the kernel function will give better results. This is reiterated in [Lazar et al. 2006], that a one-parameter (only  $e_0 a$ ) nonlocal kernel will never be able to model the lattice dynamics relation and it is necessary to use the bi-Helmholtz type equation with two different coefficients of nonlocality to satisfy all the boundary conditions.

The simple forms of the group and phase velocities that exist for isotropic materials allow us to tune the nonlocality parameters so that the lattice dispersion relation is matched. Further, by virtue of the Helmholtz decomposition, only the 1D Brillouin zone needs to be handled. Although the general form of the boundary conditions, that is, group speed is equal to phase speed (at  $k = 0$ ) or zero (at  $k = \pi/a$ ), is still applicable, the expressions are difficult to handle. This is because the Brillouin zone is really a 2D region where four boundary conditions are involved.

Wave propagation in GSs has been a topic of great interest in the nanomechanics of GSs, where the equivalent continuum models are widely used. In this manuscript, we examine this issue by incorporating the nonlocal theory into the classical beam model. The influence of the nonlocal effects has been investigated in detail. The results are qualitatively different from those obtained based on the local beam

theory and thus are important for the development of GS-based nanodevices. The present work is an extension of [Sakhaee-Pour and Ahmadian 2008], in which we studied ultrasonic wave propagation in GS using nonlocal elasticity theory incorporating small-scale effects. The graphene was considered as free standing. In the present work, the unstable graphene is made stable by resting it on substrate. The substrate is assumed and modeled as an elastic medium. The present modeling and results can provide useful guidance for the design of next-generation nanodevices where graphene-based composites act as major elements. For a given nanostructure, the nonlocal small scale coefficient can be obtained by matching the results from MD simulations and the nonlocal elasticity calculations. At that value of the nonlocal scale coefficient, the waves will propagate in the nanostructure at that cut-off frequency. In the present paper, different values of  $e_0a$  are used. One can get the exact  $e_0a$  for a given GS by matching the MD simulation results of graphene with the results presented in this paper.

In the literature, there is no work on ultrasonic wave propagation in GSs with or without the effects of an elastic matrix. In the present paper, a nonlocal elasticity theory is used for analyzing ultrasonic wave propagation in GSs embedded in an elastic matrix. The present paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, Eringen's nonlocal elasticity theory is explained. In Section 3, the nonlocal governing partial differential equations are given for the graphene-elastic matrix system. Then ultrasonic wave propagation in graphene is carried out. Explicit expressions for the wavenumbers and group/phase speeds for the first three modes (in-plane-longitudinal, lateral, and flexural) of the wave are derived. The wave dispersion results are shown with and without elastic matrix effects. We also show that the flexural wave in graphene is highly affected by the presence of the elastic matrix. In Section 4, some important results are discussed in the context of the effects of nonlocality and the substrate. Finally, the paper ends with some important observations and conclusions.

## 2. Mathematical formulation

**2.1. A review of the theory of nonlocal elasticity.** The theory of nonlocal elasticity [Eringen 1972; 1976; 1983; Eringen and Edelen 1972] accommodates an equivalent effect due to nearest neighbor interaction and beyond the single lattice in the sense of lattice average stress and strain. This model considers that the stress state at a reference point  $\mathbf{x}$  in the body is regarded to be dependent not only on the strain state at  $\mathbf{x}$  but also on the strain states at all other points  $\mathbf{x}'$  of the body. This is in accordance with the atomic theory of lattice dynamics and experimental observations on phonon dispersion. The most general form of the constitutive relation in the nonlocal elasticity-type representation involves an integral over the entire region of interest. The integral contains a nonlocal kernel function, which describes the relative influences of the strains at various locations on the stress at a given location. For nonlocal linear elastic solids, the equations of motion have the form

$$t_{ij,j} + f_i = \rho \ddot{u}_i, \quad (4)$$

where  $\rho$  and  $f_i$  are, respectively, the mass density and the body (and/or applied) forces;  $u_i$  is the displacement vector; and  $t_{ij}$  is the stress tensor of the nonlocal elasticity defined by

$$t_{ij}(\mathbf{X}) = \int_V \alpha(|\mathbf{X}' - \mathbf{X}|) \sigma_{ij}(\mathbf{X}') dv(\mathbf{X}'), \quad (5)$$

in which  $\mathbf{X}$  is a reference point in the body;  $\alpha(|\mathbf{X}' - \mathbf{X}|)$  is the nonlocal kernel function; and  $\sigma_{ij}$  is the local stress tensor of classical elasticity theory at any point  $\mathbf{X}'$  in the body and satisfies the constitutive relations

$$\sigma_{ij} = c_{ijkl}\varepsilon_{kl}, \quad \varepsilon_{kl} = 0.5(u_{k,l} + u_{l,k}), \quad (6)$$

for a general elastic material, in which  $c_{ijkl}$  are the elastic modulus components with the symmetry properties  $c_{ijkl} = c_{jikl} = c_{ijlk} = c_{klij}$ , and  $\varepsilon_{kl}$  is the strain tensor. We stress that the boundary conditions involving tractions are based on the nonlocal stress tensor  $t_{ij}$  and not on the local stress tensor  $\sigma_{ij}$ .

The properties of the nonlocal kernel  $\alpha(|\mathbf{X}' - \mathbf{X}|)$  have been discussed in detail in [Eringen 1983]. When  $\alpha(|\mathbf{X}|)$  takes on a Green's function of a linear differential operator  $\mathcal{L}$ , that is,

$$\mathcal{L}\alpha(|\mathbf{X}' - \mathbf{X}|) = \delta(|\mathbf{X}' - \mathbf{X}|), \quad (7)$$

the nonlocal constitutive relation (5) is reduced to the differential equation

$$\mathcal{L}t_{ij} = \sigma_{ij} \quad (8)$$

and the integro-partial differential equation (4) is correspondingly reduced to the partial differential equation

$$\sigma_{ij} + \mathcal{L}(f_i - \rho\ddot{u}_i) = 0. \quad (9)$$

By matching the dispersion curves with lattice models, Eringen [1972; 1983; Eringen and Edelen 1972] proposed a nonlocal model with the linear differential operator  $\mathcal{L}$  defined by

$$\mathcal{L} = 1 - (e_0a)^2\nabla^2, \quad (10)$$

where  $a$  is an internal characteristic length (lattice parameter, granular size, or molecular diameter) and  $e_0$  is a constant appropriate to each material for adjusting the model to match some reliable results by experiments or other theories. Therefore, according to (6), (8), and (10), the constitutive relations may be simplified to

$$(1 - (e_0a)^2\nabla^2)t_{ij} = \sigma_{ij} = c_{ijkl}\varepsilon_{kl}. \quad (11)$$

For simplicity and to avoid solving integro-partial differential equations, the nonlocal elasticity model, defined by the relations (8)–(11), has been widely adopted for tackling various problems of linear elasticity and micro/nanostructural mechanics.

Generally used 3D and 2D nonlocal kernel functions are given the following equations, respectively,

$$\alpha(|\mathbf{X}|) = \frac{1}{4\pi\ell^2\tau^2|\mathbf{X}|}e^{-|\mathbf{X}|/\ell\tau}, \quad \alpha(|\mathbf{X}|) = \frac{1}{2\pi\ell^2\tau^2}K_0\left(\frac{|\mathbf{X}|}{\ell\tau}\right), \quad (12)$$

where  $\tau = g/\ell$ ,  $K_0$  is the modified Bessel function, and  $\ell$  is a characteristic length of the considered structure.

Eringen [1983] proposed  $e_0 = 0.39$  by the matching of the dispersion curves via nonlocal theory for plane waves and the Born-Karman model of lattice dynamics applied at the Brillouin zone boundary ( $k = \pi/a$ ), where  $a$  is the distance between atoms and  $k$  is the wavenumber in the phonon analysis. On the other hand, Eringen and Edelen [1972] proposed  $e_0 = 0.31$  for Rayleigh surface waves via nonlocal continuum mechanics and lattice dynamics. In the present paper, we assume that  $e_0 = 0.39$  for analyzing ultrasonic wave propagation in an embedded monolayer graphene.

### 3. Ultrasonic wave characteristics of graphene embedded in an elastic matrix

**3.1. Derivation of nonlocal governing partial differential equations of motion.** In this section, we will derive the nonlocal governing differential equations of motion of the graphene-elastic substrate system.

For the present analysis we consider a single graphene layer resting on an elastic substrate (see Figure 1). This system is modeled as an one-atom thick nanoplate on distributed elastic springs. The displacement field is assumed as

$$\begin{aligned} u(x, y, z, t) &= u^o(x, y, t) - z \frac{\partial w}{\partial x}, \\ v(x, y, z, t) &= v^o(x, y, t) - z \frac{\partial w}{\partial y}, \\ w(x, y, z, t) &= w(x, y, t), \end{aligned} \quad (13)$$

where  $u^o(x, y, t)$ ,  $v^o(x, y, t)$ , and  $w(x, y, t)$  are the axial (in-plane-longitudinal and lateral) and transverse displacements, respectively, along the midplane as shown in Figure 1. The midplane of the plate is at  $z = 0$ . The associated nonzero strains are obtained as

$$\begin{Bmatrix} \varepsilon_{xx} \\ \varepsilon_{yy} \\ \varepsilon_{xy} \end{Bmatrix} = \begin{Bmatrix} \frac{\partial u^o}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial v^o}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial u^o}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial v^o}{\partial x} \end{Bmatrix} + \begin{Bmatrix} -\frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial x^2} \\ -\frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial y^2} \\ -2\frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial x \partial y} \end{Bmatrix}, \quad (14)$$

where  $\varepsilon_{xx}$  and  $\varepsilon_{yy}$  are the normal strains in the  $x$  and  $y$  directions, respectively, while,  $\varepsilon_{xy}$  is the in-plane shear strain.

The nonlocal constitutive relation for isotropic materials is given as

$$\begin{Bmatrix} \sigma_{xx} \\ \sigma_{yy} \\ \sigma_{xy} \end{Bmatrix} - (e_0 a)^2 \left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} \right) \begin{Bmatrix} \sigma_{xx} \\ \sigma_{yy} \\ \sigma_{xy} \end{Bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} C_{11} & \nu C_{11} & 0 \\ \nu C_{22} & C_{22} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & C_{66} \end{bmatrix} \begin{Bmatrix} \varepsilon_{xx} \\ \varepsilon_{yy} \\ \varepsilon_{xy} \end{Bmatrix}, \quad (15)$$

where  $\sigma_{xx}$  and  $\sigma_{yy}$  are the normal stresses in the  $x$  and  $y$  directions, respectively, and  $\sigma_{xy}$  is the in-plane shear stress. For the case of an isotropic plate, the expressions for  $C_{ij}$  in terms of the Young's modulus  $E$  and Poisson's ratio  $\nu$  are given as  $C_{11} = C_{22} = E/(1 - \nu^2)$  and  $C_{66} = E/(2(1 + \nu))$ .

The total strain energy ( $\Pi$ ) and kinetic energy ( $\Gamma$ ) are calculated as

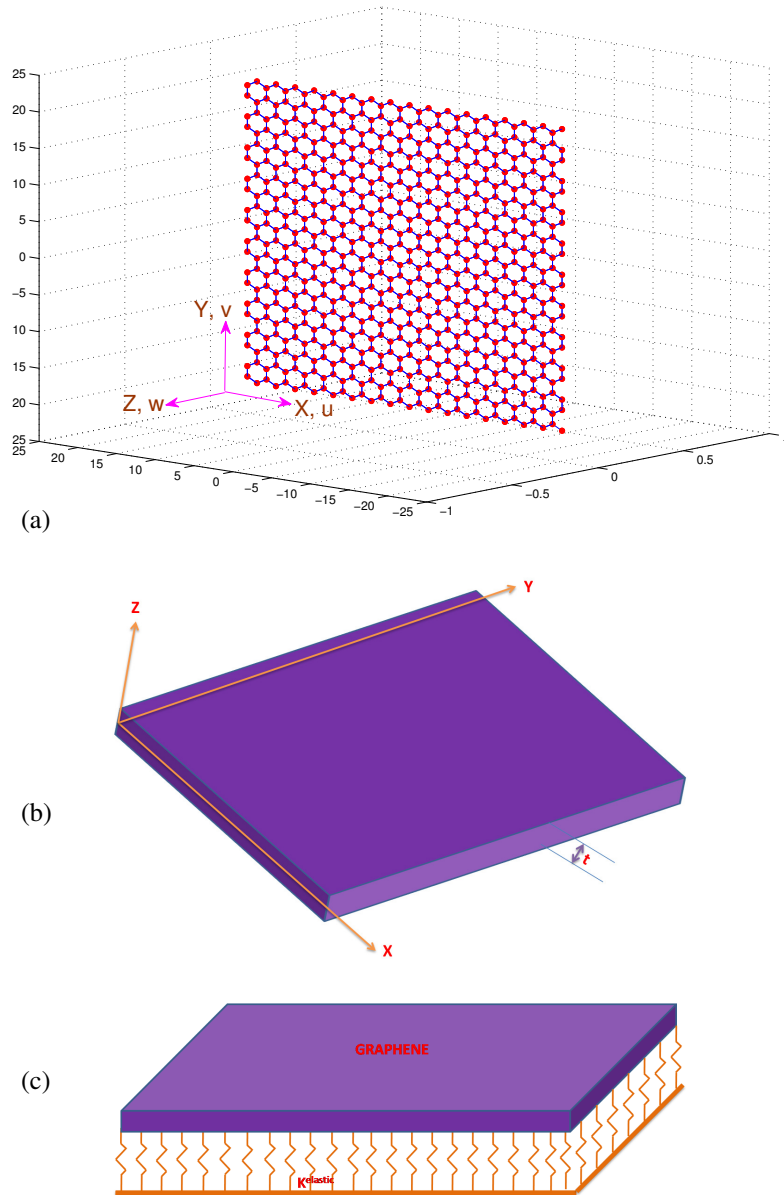
$$\Pi = \frac{1}{2} \int_{-h/2}^{+h/2} \int_A (\sigma_{xx} \varepsilon_{xx} + \sigma_{yy} \varepsilon_{yy} + \sigma_{xy} \varepsilon_{xy} + 2K^{\text{elastic}} w^2) dz dA, \quad (16)$$

$$\Gamma = \frac{1}{2} \int_{-h/2}^{+h/2} \int_A \rho (\dot{u}^2 + \dot{v}^2 + \dot{w}^2) dz dA. \quad (17)$$

Substituting (14) and (15) in (16) and (17) and using Hamilton's principle,

$$\int_{t_1}^{t_2} (\delta \Pi - \delta \Gamma) dt = 0, \quad (18)$$





**Figure 1.** Single-layered GS: (a) discrete model (a monolayer graphene of  $40 \text{ \AA} \times 40 \text{ \AA}$ , consisting of 680 carbon atoms arranged in hexagonal array), (b) equivalent continuum model, and (c) continuum equivalent model of monolayer graphene embedded in an elastic medium, where  $K^{\text{elastic}}$  denotes the modulus parameter of the surrounding medium.

the minimization of the strain and kinetic energies with respect to the three degrees of freedom ( $u^o, v^o, w$ ) will give three governing partial differential equations for the assumed system (graphene embedded in

matrix) as

$$\begin{aligned} \delta u^o : & -J_0 \frac{\partial^2 u^o}{\partial t^2} + J_0 (e_0 a)^2 \left( \frac{\partial^4 u^o}{\partial x^2 \partial t^2} + \frac{\partial^4 u^o}{\partial y^2 \partial t^2} \right) - I_0 \left( C_{11} \frac{\partial^2 u^o}{\partial x^2} + C_{66} \frac{\partial^2 u^o}{\partial y^2} \right) + I_0 (C_{12} + C_{66}) \frac{\partial^2 v^o}{\partial x \partial y} \\ & + J_1 \frac{\partial^3 w}{\partial x \partial t^2} - J_1 (e_0 a)^2 \left( \frac{\partial^5 w}{\partial x^3 \partial t^2} + \frac{\partial^5 w}{\partial x \partial y^2 \partial t^2} \right) - C_{11} I_1 \frac{\partial^3 w}{\partial x^3} - I_1 (C_{12} + 2C_{66}) \frac{\partial^3 w}{\partial x \partial y^2} = 0, \quad (19) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \delta v^o : & -J_0 \frac{\partial^2 v^o}{\partial t^2} + J_0 (e_0 a)^2 \left( \frac{\partial^4 v^o}{\partial x^2 \partial t^2} + \frac{\partial^4 v^o}{\partial y^2 \partial t^2} \right) - I_0 \left( C_{22} \frac{\partial^2 v^o}{\partial y^2} + C_{66} \frac{\partial^2 v^o}{\partial x^2} \right) + I_0 (C_{12} + C_{66}) \frac{\partial^2 u^o}{\partial x \partial y} \\ & + J_1 \frac{\partial^3 w}{\partial y \partial t^2} - J_1 (e_0 a)^2 \left( \frac{\partial^5 w}{\partial x^2 \partial y \partial t^2} + \frac{\partial^5 w}{\partial y^3 \partial t^2} \right) - C_{22} I_1 \frac{\partial^3 w}{\partial y^3} - I_1 (C_{12} + 2C_{66}) \frac{\partial^3 w}{\partial x^2 \partial y} = 0, \quad (20) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \delta w : & -J_0 \frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial t^2} + J_2 \left( \frac{\partial^4 w}{\partial x^2 \partial t^2} + \frac{\partial^4 w}{\partial y^2 \partial t^2} \right) + J_0 (e_0 a)^2 \left( \frac{\partial^4 w}{\partial x^2 \partial t^2} + \frac{\partial^4 w}{\partial y^2 \partial t^2} \right) \\ & - J_2 (e_0 a)^2 \left( \frac{\partial^6 w}{\partial x^4 \partial t^2} + 2 \frac{\partial^6 w}{\partial x^2 \partial y^2 \partial t^2} + \frac{\partial^6 w}{\partial y^4 \partial t^2} \right) + 2K^{\text{elastic}} (e_0 a)^2 \left( \frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial y^2} \right) \\ & - 2K^{\text{elastic}} w - I_2 \left( C_{11} \frac{\partial^4 w}{\partial x^4} + C_{22} \frac{\partial^4 w}{\partial y^4} \right) - 2I_2 (C_{11} + 2C_{66}) \frac{\partial^4 w}{\partial x^2 \partial y^2} - J_1 \frac{\partial^3 u^o}{\partial x \partial t^2} \\ & + J_1 (e_0 a)^2 \left( \frac{\partial^5 u^o}{\partial x^3 \partial t^2} + \frac{\partial^5 u^o}{\partial x \partial y^2 \partial t^2} \right) + C_{11} I_1 \frac{\partial^3 u^o}{\partial x^3} + I_1 (C_{12} + 2C_{66}) \frac{\partial^3 u^o}{\partial x \partial y^2} \\ & - J_1 \frac{\partial^3 v^o}{\partial y \partial t^2} + J_1 (e_0 a)^2 \left( \frac{\partial^5 v^o}{\partial x^2 \partial y \partial t^2} + \frac{\partial^5 v^o}{\partial y^3 \partial t^2} \right) + I_1 (C_{12} + 2C_{66}) \frac{\partial^3 v^o}{\partial x^2 \partial y} + C_{22} I_1 \frac{\partial^3 v^o}{\partial y^3} = 0, \quad (21) \end{aligned}$$

where  $K^{\text{elastic}}$  is the force constant of the bond between the GS and the elastic matrix and

$$I_p = \int_{-h/2}^{h/2} z^p dz, \quad J_p = \int_{-h/2}^{h/2} \rho z^p dz, \quad p = 0, 1, 2. \quad (22)$$

If the nonlocal scaling parameter  $e_0 a$  is zero, then the above three governing differential equations of motion become classical governing equations.

**3.2. Ultrasonic wave dispersion and band gap analysis.** For harmonic wave propagation in a GS, the displacement field can be written in complex form as [Zhou and Li 2001]

$$\begin{aligned} u^o(x, y, t) &= \hat{u} e^{-jk_x x} e^{-jk_y y} e^{j\omega t}, \\ v^o(x, y, t) &= \hat{v} e^{-jk_x x} e^{-jk_y y} e^{j\omega t}, \\ w^o(x, y, t) &= \hat{w} e^{-jk_x x} e^{-jk_y y} e^{j\omega t}, \end{aligned} \quad (23)$$

where  $\hat{u}$ ,  $\hat{v}$ , and  $\hat{w}$  are the frequency amplitudes,  $k_x$  and  $k_y$  are the wavenumbers in the  $x$  and  $y$ -directions, respectively,  $\omega$  is the frequency of the wave motion, and  $j = \sqrt{-1}$ .

The nonlocal governing partial differential equations of the graphene embedded in an elastic matrix model are given in (19)–(21). The next step is to analyze the ultrasonic type of wave propagation in these GSs. For this, substitute the displacement assumed as a harmonic type given in (23) in the governing

partial differential equations of the graphene and write the resultant equations in matrix form as (for nontrivial solutions of  $\hat{u}$ ,  $\hat{v}$ , and  $\hat{w}$ )

$$\mathbf{S}_4 k_x^4 + \mathbf{S}_3 k_x^3 + \mathbf{S}_2 k_x^2 + \mathbf{S}_1 k_x + \mathbf{S}_0 = 0, \quad (24)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{S}_4 &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & J_2(e_0a)^2\omega^2 - C_{11}I_2 \end{bmatrix}, \\ \mathbf{S}_3 &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & jJ_1\omega^2(e_0a)^2 - jC_{11}I_1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -jJ_1\omega^2(e_0a)^2 + jC_{11}I_1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \\ \mathbf{S}_2 &= \begin{bmatrix} J_0\omega^2(e_0a)^2 - C_{11}I_0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & J_0\omega^2(e_0a)^2 - C_{66}I_0 & S_2^{(23)} \\ 0 & S_2^{(32)} & S_2^{(33)} \end{bmatrix}, \\ \mathbf{S}_1 &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -(C_{11} + C_{66})I_0k_y & S_1^{(13)} \\ -(C_{11} + C_{66})I_0k_y & 0 & 0 \\ S_1^{(31)} & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \\ \mathbf{S}_0 &= \begin{bmatrix} S_0^{(11)} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & S_0^{(22)} & S_0^{(23)} \\ 0 & S_0^{(32)} & S_0^{(33)} \end{bmatrix}, \end{aligned} \quad (25)$$

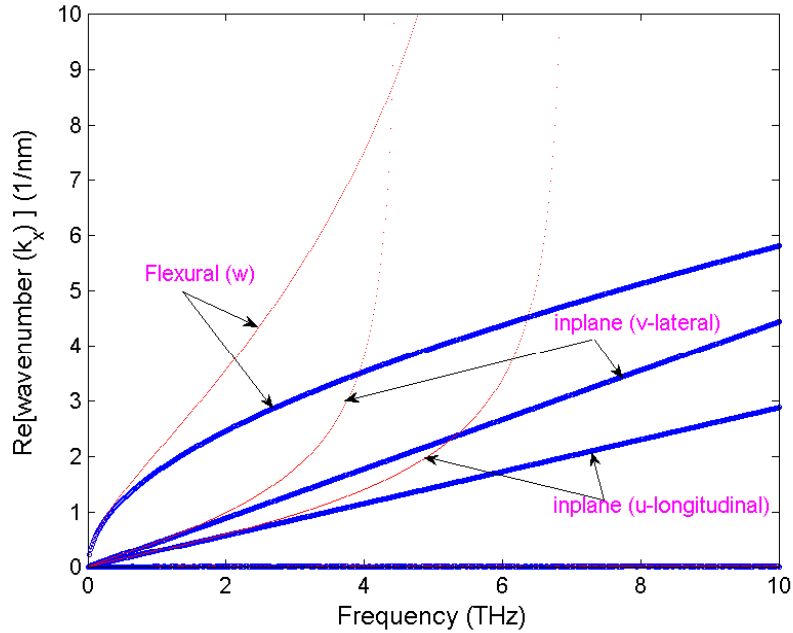
where the elements  $S_r^{(pq)}$  ( $p, q = 1, 2, 3$  and  $r = 0, 1, 2$ ) are given in the Appendix.

Equation (24) is in the form of polynomial eigenvalue problem in wavenumber  $k_x$  and is solved for the wavenumbers. This method is very generalized and efficient. The resulting wavenumbers are functions of wave frequency and are shown in Figures 2 and 3, obtained from both local and nonlocal elasticities, with and without the effect of the elastic matrix, respectively. The figures also show the effect of the substrate on the ultrasonic wave characteristics of graphene at  $k_y = 0, 2, \text{ and } 5 \text{ nm}^{-1}$ . In the wavenumber dispersion curves, the frequency at which the imaginary part of the wavenumber becomes real is called the frequency band gap region ( $0$  to  $\omega_c$ ). The expressions for the frequency band gap are obtained by setting  $k_x = 0$  in dispersion relation, (24). For the present case of a polynomial eigenvalue problem (PEP) one can solve  $\text{Det}(\mathbf{S}_0) = 0$  as

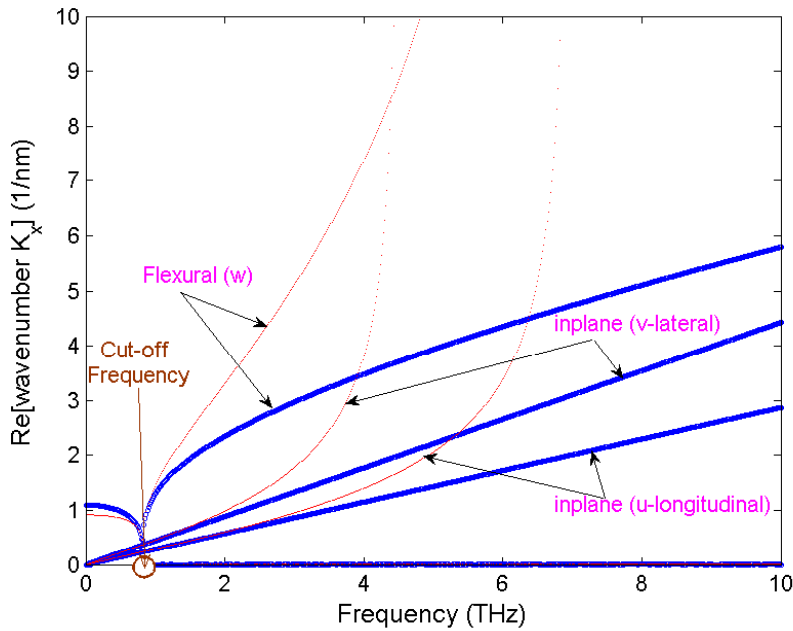
$$\omega_c^{\text{in-plane}} = k_y \sqrt{\frac{I_0 C_{66}}{J_0(1 + (e_0a)^2 k_y^2)}}, \quad \omega_c^{\text{flexural}} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2H_0} \sqrt{H_1 + H_2}}, \quad (26)$$

where  $H_0$ ,  $H_1$ , and  $H_2$  are given in the Appendix.

The frequency band gap ( $0 - \omega_c$ , cut-off frequency) for all the fundamental modes (longitudinal, lateral, and flexural) for  $k_y \neq 0$  in graphene with and without substrate effect. These cut-off frequencies are functions of the material properties of graphene, the  $y$ -direction wavenumber  $k_y$ , and the nonlocal scaling parameter  $e_0a$ .



**Figure 2.** Wavenumber dispersion with wave frequency in the GS without considering the elastic matrix obtained from the local and nonlocal elasticity; here the  $y$ -directional wavenumber  $k_y = 0$  and the nonlocal scaling parameter is  $e_0a = 0.5 \text{ nm}$ .



**Figure 3.** Wavenumber dispersion with wave frequency in the GS with considering the elastic matrix obtained from the local and nonlocal elasticity; here the  $y$ -directional wavenumber  $k_y = 0$  and the nonlocal scaling parameter is  $e_0a = 0.5 \text{ nm}$ .

In the present work, it has been observed that the nonlocal scale parameter introduces a certain band gap region in the in-plane and flexural wave modes where no wave propagation occurs. This is manifest in the wavenumber plots as the region where the wavenumber tends to infinity or the wave speed tends to zero. The frequency at which this phenomenon occurs is called the *escape frequency*. The escape frequencies are obtained by solving  $\text{Det}(\mathbf{S}_4) = 0$ . It can be noticed that  $\mathbf{S}_4$  is singular, thus the lambda matrix  $\Phi(k_x) = \mathbf{S}_4 k_x^4 + \mathbf{S}_3 k_x^3 + \mathbf{S}_2 k_x^2 + \mathbf{S}_1 k_x + \mathbf{S}_0$  is not regular [Fleck and Hutchinson 1997] and admits infinite eigenvalues [Yang et al. 2002]. So, the escape frequencies of these fundamental wavemodes can also be obtained by substituting  $k_x \rightarrow \infty$  in the expanded dispersion relation, (24), that is, a polynomial in  $k_x$ , and solving for the frequencies. The obtained escape frequencies of these three fundamental wave modes are

$$\omega_e^{\text{longitudinal}} = \frac{1}{e_0 a} \sqrt{\frac{C_{11} I_2}{J_2}}, \quad \omega_e^{\text{lateral}} = \frac{1}{e_0 a} \sqrt{\frac{C_{66} I_0}{J_0}}, \quad \omega_e^{\text{flexural}} = \frac{1}{e_0 a} \sqrt{\frac{C_{11} I_0}{J_0}}. \quad (27)$$

Here the suffix  $e$  represents the escape frequency. It can be seen that the escape frequencies are purely functions of the nonlocal scaling parameter and are not affected by the dimensions of the GS. Also, the escape frequencies are independent of the effect of the elastic matrix.

The wave speeds (phase speed  $C_p = \omega/k_x$  and group speed  $C_g = \partial\omega/\partial k_x$ ) can be computed from (24).

We differentiate the PEP with respect to wave frequency, to get a PEP in terms of group speed as

$$\mathbf{G}_1 C_g + \mathbf{G}_0 = 0, \quad (28)$$

where

$$\mathbf{G}_1 = \left[ k_x^4 \frac{\partial \mathbf{S}_4}{\partial \omega} + k_x^3 \frac{\partial \mathbf{S}_3}{\partial \omega} + k_x^2 \frac{\partial \mathbf{S}_2}{\partial \omega} + k_x \frac{\partial \mathbf{S}_1}{\partial \omega} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{S}_0}{\partial \omega} \right], \quad (29)$$

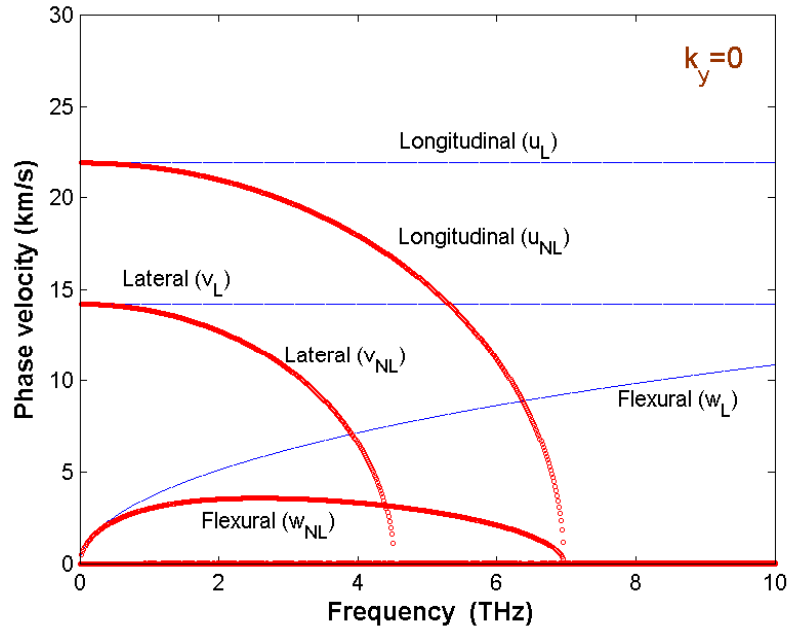
$$\mathbf{G}_0 = 4\mathbf{S}_4 k_x^3 + 3\mathbf{S}_3 k_x^2 + 2\mathbf{S}_2 k_x + \mathbf{S}_1,$$

where  $C_g = (\partial\omega/\partial k_x)$  is the group speed of waves in the graphene and the matrices  $\mathbf{S}_4$ ,  $\mathbf{S}_3$ ,  $\mathbf{S}_2$ ,  $\mathbf{S}_1$ , and  $\mathbf{S}_0$  are given in (25). This is also a PEP, and one can solve it for the group speeds (as a function of wave frequency, wavenumbers, and nonlocal scaling parameter) of respective modes (that is, for in-plane- $u$ ,  $v$ , and flexural- $w$ ) of the graphene.

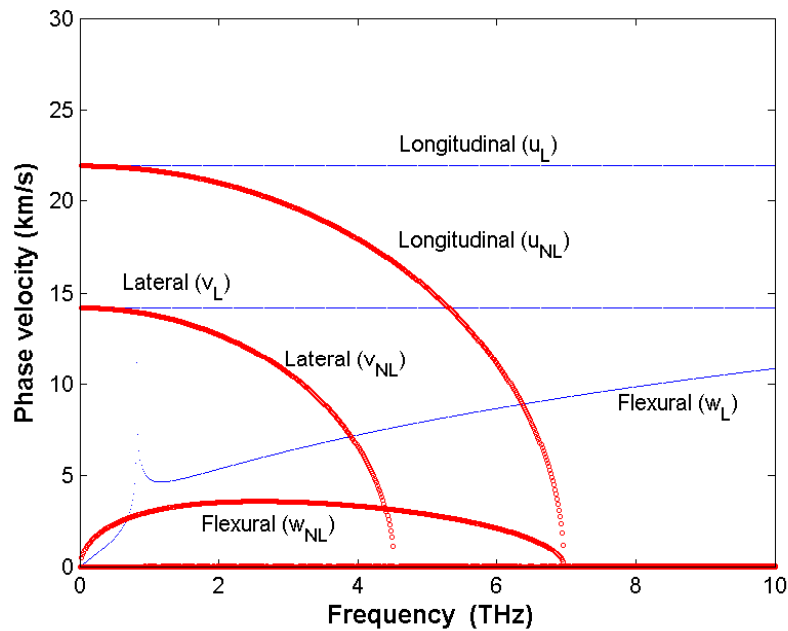
We will discuss the phase speed dispersion with wave frequency, as shown in Figures 4–7, obtained from both local and nonlocal elasticity and taken with and without the effect of the elastic matrix. The phase speed dispersion shown is for both with and without the elastic matrix effects at  $k_y = 0$  and  $2 \text{ nm}^{-1}$ .

**3.3. Numerical experiments, results and discussion.** For the present analysis, the Young's modulus of the graphene is taken as 1.06 TPa, the density is  $2300 \text{ kg/m}^3$ , and the size  $40 \times 40 \text{ \AA}$ . The stiffness of the bond between the graphene and the matrix is  $0.2694 \text{ N/m}$  and this has to be divided by the number of atoms per unit area of the graphene ( $38 \times 10^{18}$ ).

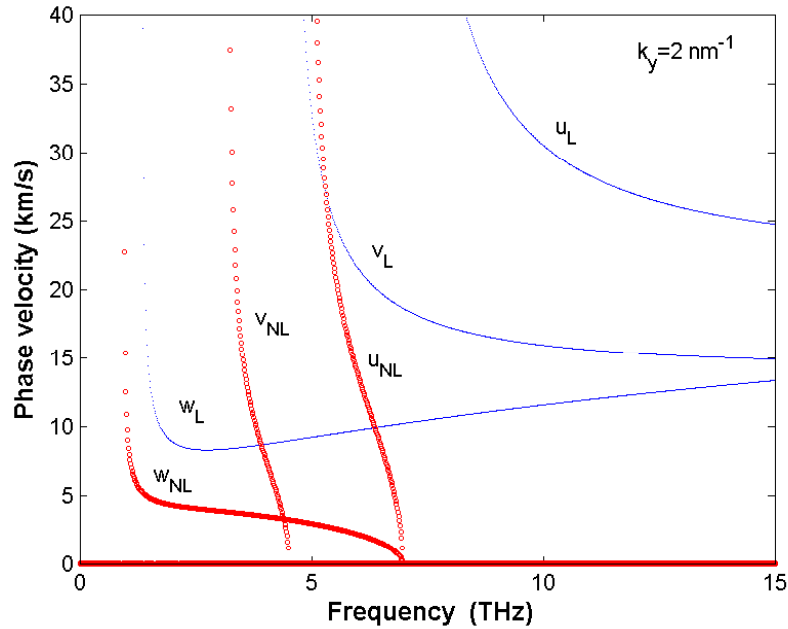
The wavenumber dispersion with wave frequency in the graphene without and with the elastic matrix, respectively, are shown in Figures 2 and 3, obtained from both the local and nonlocal elasticity. Figure 2 shows the wavenumber dispersion obtained from the local and nonlocal elasticity theory (where  $e_0 a = 0$  and  $e_0 a = 0.5 \text{ nm}$ ). Figures 2 and 3 are shown for  $k_y = 0$  (which represents 1D wave propagation). In Figures 8 and 9 we have  $k_y = 2 \text{ nm}^{-1}$ . The frequency band gap of the flexural waves is small



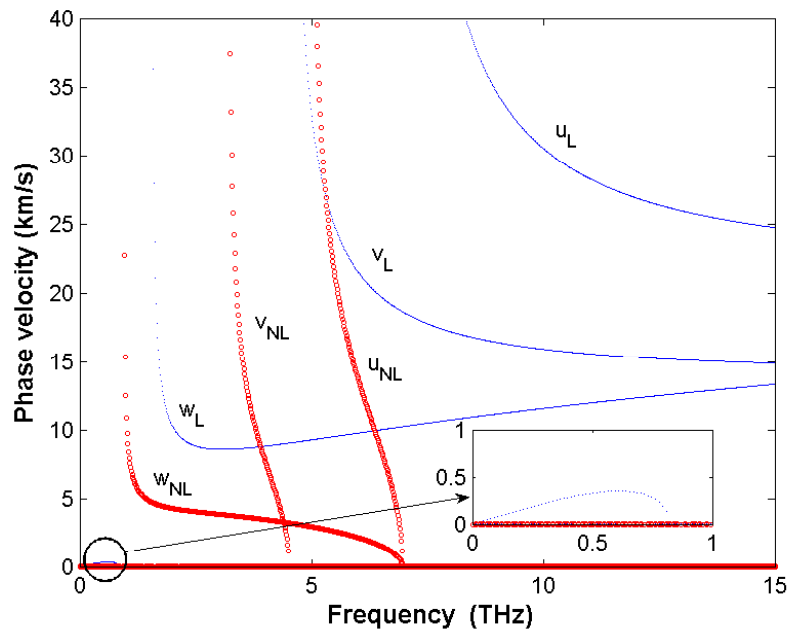
**Figure 4.** Phase velocity dispersion with wave frequency in the GS without considering the elastic matrix obtained from the local and nonlocal elasticity; here the  $y$ -directional wavenumber  $k_y = 0$  and the nonlocal scaling parameter is  $e_0a = 0.5$  nm.



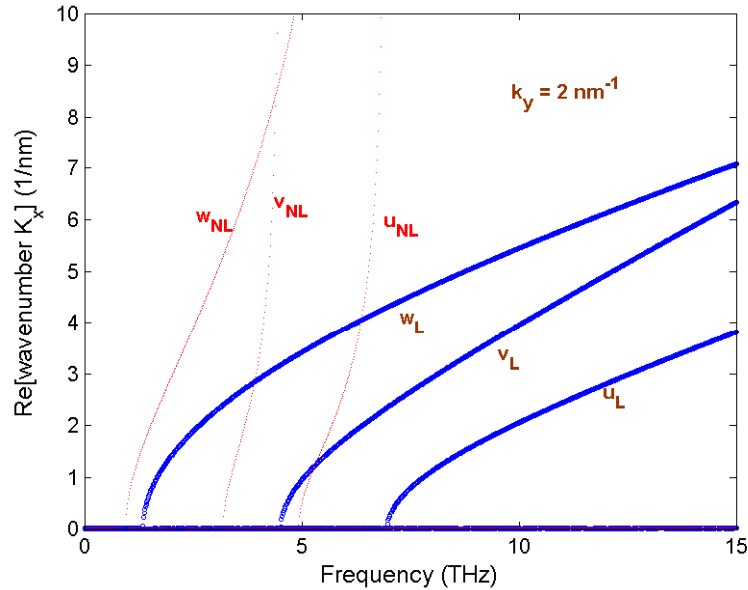
**Figure 5.** Phase velocity dispersion with wave frequency in the GS with considering the elastic matrix obtained from the local and nonlocal elasticity; here the  $y$ -directional wavenumber  $k_y = 0$  and the nonlocal scaling parameter is  $e_0a = 0.5$  nm.



**Figure 6.** Phase velocity dispersion with wave frequency in the GS without considering the elastic matrix obtained from the local and nonlocal elasticity; here the  $y$ -directional wavenumber  $k_y = 2 \text{ nm}^{-1}$  and the nonlocal scaling parameter is  $e_{0a} = 0.5 \text{ nm}$ .



**Figure 7.** Phase velocity dispersion with wave frequency in the GS with considering the elastic matrix obtained from the local and nonlocal elasticity; here the  $y$ -directional wavenumber  $k_y = 2 \text{ nm}^{-1}$  and the nonlocal scaling parameter is  $e_{0a} = 0.5 \text{ nm}$ .



**Figure 8.** Wavenumber dispersion with wave frequency in the GS without considering the elastic matrix obtained from the local and nonlocal elasticity; here the  $y$ -directional wavenumber  $k_y = 2 \text{ nm}^{-1}$  and the nonlocal scaling parameter is  $e_0a = 0.5 \text{ nm}$ .

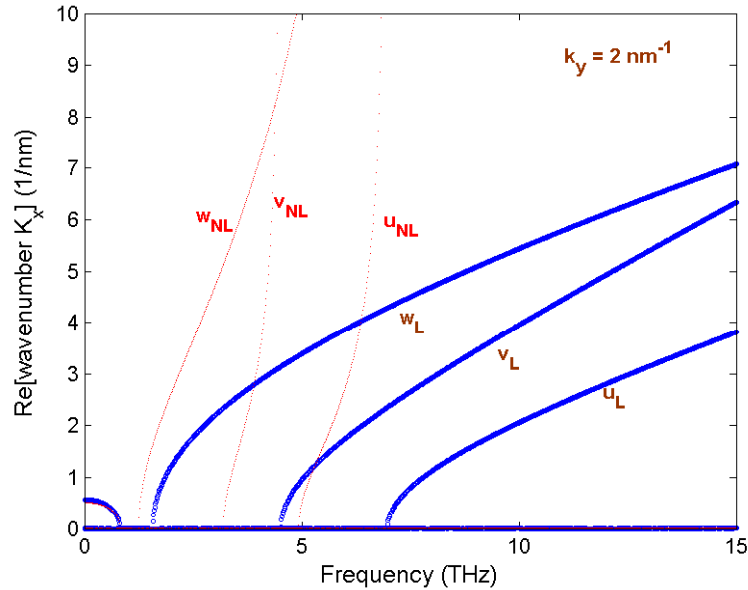
as compared to that of the longitudinal and lateral (in-plane) waves for the case without the elastic matrix effect. As the  $y$ -directional wavenumber  $k_y$  increases the frequency band gap of all the three fundamental modes increases. If we consider the elastic matrix effect, then the flexural wave starts propagating after a high-frequency band gap as compared to that of no matrix effect. The local elasticity shows a linear variation of the axial wavenumbers with frequency for  $k_y = 0$ , that is, the longitudinal and lateral wavenumbers are nondispersive in nature. For  $k_y = 0$  the flexural wavenumber shows a nonlinear variation at low values of wave frequency; at higher values of wave frequency it varies linearly as shown in Figure 2. As  $k_y$  increases all the wavenumbers are dispersive in nature. In Figures 3 and 9 one can observe the matrix effect on flexural waves.

Wavenumber dispersion with frequency for nonlocal elasticity ( $e_0a = 0.5 \text{ nm}$ ) is shown in Figures 2–9. The observations made for local elasticity are still valid for nonlocal elasticity. The only difference is that because of nonlocal elasticity the wavenumbers (for both in-plane and flexural) become highly nonlinear at higher wave frequencies. The frequency band gap variation is the same as we move from local to nonlocal elasticity with and without the elastic matrix effects.

Local elasticity shows that the wave will propagate even at higher frequencies. But nonlocal elasticity predicts that the waves can only propagate up to certain frequencies (called escape frequencies), after which it will stand, that is, there will be no propagation. The wavenumber dispersion curves obtained for nonlocal elasticity are shown up to the nonlocal limit only. The phenomena discussed at the beginning of this paragraph occurs above the nonlocal limit.

Phase speed dispersion with the wave frequency is shown in Figures 4–7 for local and nonlocal elasticity, for  $y$ -directional wavenumbers of  $k_y = 0$  and  $k_y = 2 \text{ nm}^{-1}$ . Figure 4 shows that (for  $k_y = 0$ ) the





**Figure 9.** Wavenumber dispersion with wave frequency in the GS with considering the elastic matrix obtained from the local and nonlocal elasticity; here the  $y$ -directional wavenumber  $k_y = 2 \text{ nm}^{-1}$  and the nonlocal scaling parameter is  $e_0a = 0.5 \text{ nm}$ .

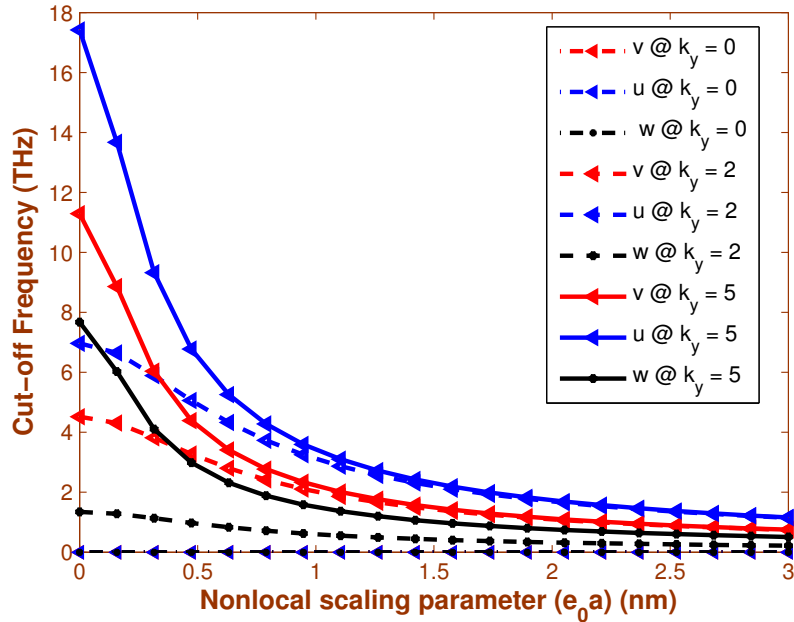
in-plane ( $u$ ,  $v$ ) wave speeds are constant with wave frequency, while flexural wave speeds increase from low frequency, after which they are constant for higher values of wave frequency. The magnitudes of the flexural phase speeds are higher compared to the axial wave group speeds. As  $k_y$  increases from 0 to  $2 \text{ nm}^{-1}$  the axial/in-plane wave speeds also show a dispersive nature. We can also observe the effect of the elastic matrix on the flexural wave phase speeds.

As we move to nonlocality, the phase speeds of the in-plane and flexural waves stop propagating at certain frequencies as shown in Figures 4–7. The phase speeds of the in-plane waves are the same for with or without the elastic matrix effect. The effect is only on the flexural wave speeds. There are two cut-off frequencies for the flexural waves with substrate effects from nonlocal elasticity. As  $k_y$  increases the flexural wave speeds retain the shape shown for local elasticity and the extra frequency band gap also vanishes.

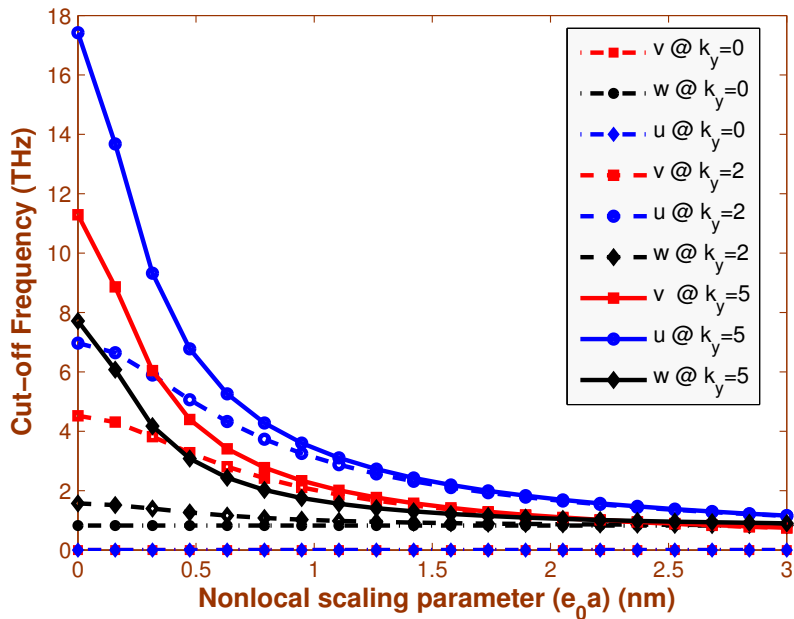
From these results we can observe that only flexural waves are affected by the elastic matrix whether under local or nonlocal elasticity.

The variation of the cut-off frequencies of in-plane and flexural waves is shown in Figures 10 and 11, without and with the elastic matrix effect, respectively, and with  $y$ -directional wavenumbers of  $k_y = 0, 2$  and  $5 \text{ nm}^{-1}$ . The figures show that as we increase the nonlocal scaling parameter the cut-off frequencies of all the fundamental wave modes will decrease. For a given  $e_0a$ , as we increase the  $y$ -directional wavenumber, the cut-off frequencies will increase. Because of the matrix, only the flexural wave mode cut-off frequencies are affected, as can be clearly seen from Figures 10 and 11.

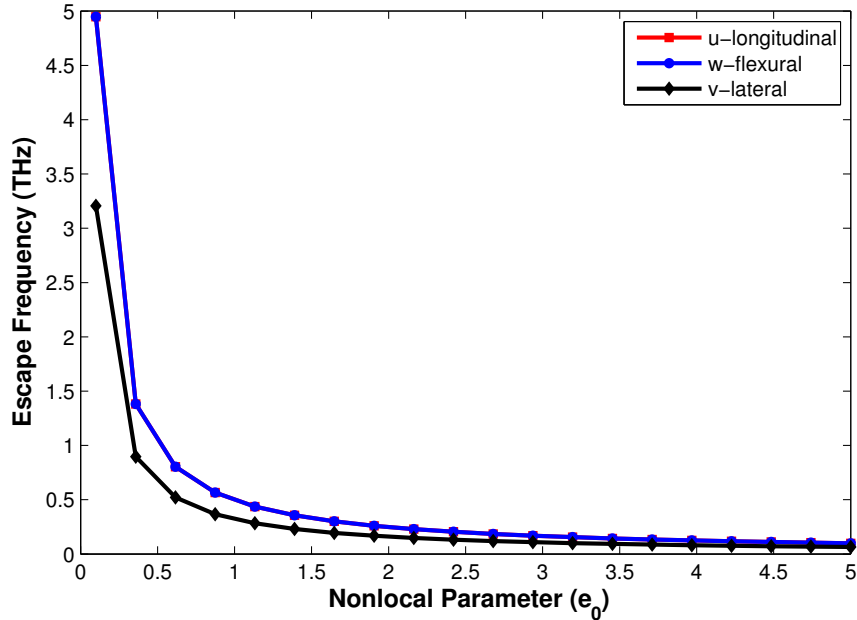
The variation of the escape frequency with the nonlocal scaling parameter is shown in Figure 12. It can be seen that the escape frequencies of the longitudinal and flexural wave modes have equal values, and the latter wave has lower escape frequencies compared to that of longitudinal/flexural waves.



**Figure 10.** Cut-off frequency variation of longitudinal, lateral, and flexural waves obtained from the local and nonlocal elasticity without considering the effect of the matrix;  $k_y$  are in 1/nm.



**Figure 11.** Cut-off frequency variation of longitudinal, lateral, and flexural waves obtained from the local and nonlocal elasticity with considering the effect of the matrix;  $k_y$  are in 1/nm.



**Figure 12.** Cut-off frequency variation of longitudinal, lateral, and flexural waves obtained from the local and nonlocal elasticity with considering the effect of the matrix.

#### 4. Conclusion

Ultrasonic wave propagation in a graphene sheet (GS), which is embedded in an elastic medium, was studied using a nonlocal elasticity theory incorporating small-scale effects. The GS was modeled as an one-atom thick isotropic plate and the elastic medium/substrate was modeled as distributed springs. For this model, the nonlocal governing differential equations of motion were derived from the minimization of the total potential energy of the entire system. After that, an ultrasonic type of wave propagation model was also derived. The explicit expressions for the cut-off and escape frequencies were also obtained as functions of the nonlocal scaling parameter and the  $y$ -directional wavenumber ( $k_y$ ). The results of the wave dispersion analysis were shown for both local and nonlocal elasticity. From this analysis we showed that the elastic medium affected only the flexural wave mode in the GS. The present results can provide useful guidance for the design of next-generation nanodevices in which graphene-based composites act as major elements.

#### Appendix

Some of the elements of the matrices  $[S_2]$ ,  $[S_1]$ , and  $[S_0]$  are given in the following:

$$S_2^{(23)} = j J_1 k_y (e_0 a)^2 \omega^2 - j (C_{11} + 2C_{66}) I_1 k_y,$$

$$S_2^{(32)} = -j J_1 k_y (e_0 a)^2 \omega^2 + j (C_{11} + 2C_{66}) I_1 k_y,$$

$$S_2^{(33)} = J_2 \omega^2 (1 + (e_0 a)^2 k_y^2) - J_0 \omega^2 (e_0 a)^2 - (C_{11} + 2C_{66}) I_2 k_y^2 - K^{\text{elastic}} (e_0 a)^2;$$

$$S_1^{(13)} = j J_1 \omega^2 (1 + (e_0 a)^2 k_y^2) - j (C_{11} + 2C_{66}) I_1 k_y^2,$$

$$S_1^{(31)} = -j J_1 \omega^2 (1 + (e_0 a)^2 k_y^2) + j (C_{11} + 2C_{66}) I_1 k_y^2;$$

$$S_0^{(11)} = J_0 \omega^2 (1 + (e_0 a)^2 k_y^2) - C_{66} I_0 k_y^2,$$

$$S_0^{(22)} = J_0 \omega^2 (1 + (e_0 a)^2 k_y^2) - C_{22} I_0 k_y^2,$$

$$S_0^{(23)} = j J_1 k_y \omega^2 (1 + (e_0 a)^2 k_y^2) - j C_{22} I_1 k_y^3,$$

$$S_0^{(32)} = -j J_1 k_y \omega^2 (1 + (e_0 a)^2 k_y^2) + j C_{22} I_1 k_y^3,$$

$$S_0^{(33)} = J_2 \omega^2 k_y^2 (1 + (e_0 a)^2 k_y^2) + J_0 \omega^2 (1 + (e_0 a)^2 k_y^2) - C_{22} I_2 k_y^4 - K^{sub} (1 + (e_0 a)^2 k_y^2);$$

$$H_0 = (J_0 J_2 - J_1^2) k_y^4 (e_0 a)^2 + J_0^2 (1 + (e_0 a)^2 k_y^2) + (J_0 J_2 - J_1^2) k_y^2,$$

$$H_1 = J_0 K^{elastic} (1 + (e_0 a)^2 k_y^2) + (J_0 + J_2) C_{22} I_2 k_y^4 + (I_0 J_0 - 2 I_1 J_2) C_{22} k_y^4,$$

$$\begin{aligned} H_2 = & [J_0^2 (e_0 a)^4 k_y^4 + 2 J_0^2 (e_0 a)^2 k_y^2 + J_0^2] K^{elastic} [(2 J_0^2 I_2 - 2 J_0 I_0 J_2 - 4 J_0 J_1 I_1 + 4 J_1^2 I_0) C_{22} (e_0 a)^2 k_y^6 \\ & - (2 J_0^2 (e_0 a)^2 I_0 + 2 J_0^2 I_2 - 2 J_0 I_0 J_2 - 4 J_0 J_1 I_1 + 4 J_1^2 I_0) C_{22} k_y^4 - 2 C_{22} I_0 J_0^2 k_y^2] K^{elastic} \\ & + [J_0^2 I_2^2 + I_0^2 J_2^2 - 4 J_0 I_2 J_1 I_1 - 2 J_0 I_2 I_0 J_2 - 4 J_1 I_1 I_0 J_2 + 4 J_0 J_2 I_1^2 + 4 J_1^2 I_0 I_2] C_{22}^2 k_y^8 \\ & + [4 J_0^2 I_1^2 - 2 J_0^2 I_2 I_0 - 4 I_0 J_0 J_1 I_1 + 2 I_0^2 J_0 J_2] C_{22}^2 k_y^6 + I_0^2 J_0^2 C_{22}^2 k_y^4. \end{aligned}$$

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