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Antiplane Stoneley waves propagating at the interface between two couple stress elastic materials

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Abstract We investigate antiplane Stoneley waves, localized at the discontinuity 1 surface between two half-spaces in perfect contact. Both half-spaces are elastic 2 linear isotropic and possess a microstructure that is described within the theory 3 of couple stress materials with micro-inertia. In contrast to classical elasticity, 4 where antiplane Stoneley waves are never supported and in-plane Stoneley waves 5 exist only inasmuch as the ratio of the shear velocity of the half-spaces is small 6 enough, we find that propagation is possible under broad conditions. However, 7 Stoneley waves only propagate beyond a cuton frequency, for which an explicit 8 expression is provided. For a given frequency above cuton, this expression lends 9 the admissible range of material parameters that allows propagation. In particu-10 lar, significant contrast between the adjoining materials is possible, provided that 11 Stoneley waves propagate at high-enough frequency. Therefore, micro-inertia plays 12 an important role in determining the features of propagation. Considerations con-13 cerning existence and uniqueness of antiplane Stoneley waves are given: it is found 14 that evanescent and decaying/exploding modes are also admitted. Results may be 15 especially useful when accounting for microstructure in Non-Destructive Testing 16 (NDT) and near-surface prospection. 17

Keywords Antiplane Stoneley waves · microstructure · couple-stress · existence
 and uniqueness

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20 1 Introduction

The quest for proving existence of new types of localized waves, similar in nature 21 to Rayleigh waves occurring at a free surface, begun shortly after the discovery of 22 these in 1885 [30]. In 1911, Love [16, p.165] investigated the possibility of waves 23 propagating at the free surface of a layer in perfect contact with a half-space, in an 24 attempt to explain the problematic (from the theoretical standpoint) appearance 25 of shear horizontal Rayleigh waves in seismograms [19]. Later, Stoneley investi-26 gated the existence of waves localised at the surface of discontinuity between two 27 materials [28, 29]. As he points out "Whereas, however, Prof. Love's problem is 28 concerned with a disturbance confined chiefly to the free surface, the present paper 29 deals with a wave motion that is greatest at the surface of separation of the two 30 media" [29]. Indeed, these waves go under the name of generalized Rayleigh waves 31 or, quite fittingly, Stoneley waves. Stoneley concludes that "we can definitely as-32 sert that when the wave-velocities are not too widely different for the two media, 33 a wave of the Rayleigh type can exist at the interface". This finding is somewhat 34 surprising, in that it allows localized waves to exists only at "weak" boundaries, 35 whereas the exact opposite could be expected. At the time of Stoneley, the main 36 motivation behind the investigation was to determine whether seismic energy could 37 escape at the Gutenberg-Wiechert boundary between the Earth's mantle and the 38 core. Indeed, existence conditions were supposed to correspond to Wiechert con-39 ditions, expressing equality of mass density and Lamé moduli across the surface 40 of discontinuity. Precise quantification of the range of existence of Stoneley waves 41 came much later, by Scholte [26]. Scholte conditions are very restrictive for, as 42 pointed out in [23, 11], they are satisfied merely by 31 combinations among 900 43 isotropic materials. 44

Existence and uniqueness for Stoneley waves have been investigated in the monograph [3, Chap.4], by applying the argument principle to the corresponding Rayleigh function. Extension to anisotropic materials, which admit *generalized* Stoneley waves, was given by Lin and Musgrave [15] and by Chadwick and Borejko [4] (notably, Chadwick has been Robert Stoneley's research student).

Recently, the role of material microstructure has attracted considerable atten-50 tion in connection with wave propagation and related phenomena [22, 8, 10, 27, 51 9, 20, 19]. One way of encompassing material micro-structure in the models is by 52 means of polar theories, among which couple stress (CS) theory is perhaps the 53 simplest [17, 24]. Couple stress theory builds on top of classical elasticity (CE) by 54 adding an extra kinematical field, named the micro-rotation. However, in contrast 55 to micro-polar theory, micro-rotation is taken to be entrained by the displacement 56 field [13]. As a result, a length scale is introduced in the system and the theory 57 is no longer self-similar. Consequently, some unphysical results appearing in CE 58 are repaired, such as the non-dispersive nature of bulk and Rayleigh waves and 59 the lack of support for anti-plane (or shear horizontally polarized) Rayleigh and 60 interfacial (Stoneley) waves. It is precisely the last issue that is addressed in this 61 paper. 62

In recent times, a number of contributions have appeared in the literature concerning propagation of Stoneley waves. In [14], propagation of Stoneley waves is considered within the context of the modified couple stress theory, which is a special case wherein symmetry of the couple stress tensor is enforced [33]. The speed of Stoneley waves guided by a perfect interface between two elastic half-spaces is

determined analytically in [32] for the case of equal bulk moduli. Consideration of 68 Stoneley waves propagating at a loose interface between two elastic half-spaces is 69 given in [31]. Similarly, guided propagation occurring between two half-spaces in 70 elastically constrained contact is considered in [1]. Since classical elasticity does 71 not support antiplane Stoneley waves, every listed contribution deals with waves 72 polarized in the sagittal plane, to which the term Stoneley waves is traditionally 73 attached. As a notable exception, in [6] antiplane Stoneley waves are shown to 74 occur at the interface between two half-spaces in the presence of surface elasticity. 75 As illustrated in [19], the presence of the microstructure provides new pathways 76 for energy transport, which take the form of novel wave propagation patterns being 77 supported. In this paper, we show that, in contrast to CE, anti-plane Stoneley 78 waves are supported in CS materials under very general conditions concerning 79 the elastic contrast between the media in contact. However, propagation is only 80 permitted beyond a cuton frequency that is an increasing function of this contrast. 81 Indeed, the role of rotational inertia is especially important for determining the 82 83 range of admissible parameters for propagation to occur. Consequently, despite its 84 appealing simplicity, the approximation of zero rotation inertia should be avoided. We also discuss existence and uniqueness of Stoneley waves. 85 Traditionally, Stoneley waves have been exploited in borehole seismics to deter-86

mine the shear-wave velocities at different depths. Also, thin-film applications are 87 possible, as it is demonstrated in [25]. A pioneering application to Non-Destructive 88 Testing (NDT) is experimentally investigated in [11]. The recent monograph [5] 89 collects 14 real-life case-study applications of surface and near-surface waves, rang-90 ing from geophysics to civil engineering, from geotechnics to moonquakes. Today, 91 investigation of Stoneley waves is sustained by modern promising developments in 92 the field of acoustic NDT, as very recently discussed in [12]. This paper aims to 93 add a further tool to the investigator, in the form of anti-plane interfacial waves 94 reflecting the microstructure underneath the continuous media. 95

⁹⁶ 2 Two couple stress elastic half-spaces in perfect contact

⁹⁷ We consider two half-spaces, named A and B, in perfect contact along a plane ⁹⁸ surface. We introduce a right-handed Cartesian coordinate system (O, x_1, x_2, x_3) , ⁹⁹ whose axes are directed along the relevant unit vectors (e_1, e_2, e_3) . The co-ordinate ¹⁰⁰ system is located in such a way that the plane $x_2 = 0$ corresponds to the contact ¹⁰¹ surface between A and B, see Fig.1. Both half-spaces possess a microstructure, ¹⁰² which is described within the theory of linear couple stress (CS) elasticity. Their ¹⁰³ relevant properties are henceforth denoted by the superscript $k \in \{A, B\}$.

The stress state in each half-space depends not only on the classical Cauchy force stress tensor s^k , but also on the couple stress tensor μ^k . The latter characterises the polar behaviour of the material such that, for any directed surface of unit normal n^k , it determines the internal reduced couple vector q^k , acting across that surface

$$\boldsymbol{q}^{\mathbf{k}} = (\boldsymbol{\mu}^{\mathbf{k}})^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{n}^{\mathbf{k}}, \qquad (1)$$

where the superscript T denotes the transposed tensor. s^{k} is conveniently decomposed into its symmetric and skew-symmetric part

$$\boldsymbol{s}^{\mathbf{k}} = \boldsymbol{\sigma}^{\mathbf{k}} + \boldsymbol{\tau}^{\mathbf{k}}, \quad \boldsymbol{\sigma}^{\mathbf{k}} = \operatorname{Sym} \boldsymbol{s}^{\mathbf{k}}, \quad \boldsymbol{\tau}^{\mathbf{k}} = \operatorname{Skw} \boldsymbol{s}^{\mathbf{k}},$$
(2)



Fig. 1 Schematics, mechanical and microstructural properties of the two half-spaces A and B

¹¹¹ whereas μ^{k} is decomposed in the deviatoric and spherical part

$$\boldsymbol{\mu}^{\mathrm{k}} = \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\mathrm{D}}^{\mathrm{k}} + \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\mathrm{S}}^{\mathrm{k}}.$$
 (3)

¹¹² Specifically, the latter reads

$$\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\mathrm{S}}^{\mathrm{k}} = \frac{1}{3} \left(\boldsymbol{\mu}^{\mathrm{k}} \cdot \mathbf{1} \right) \mathbf{1},\tag{4}$$

¹¹³ wherein a dot denotes the scalar product and **1** is the rank-2 identity tensor.

In each half-space, occupying the volume \mathcal{B}^k , the internal virtual work may be expressed as follows (see, e.g., [13, 22]):

$$\int_{\mathcal{B}^{k}} \left(\boldsymbol{\sigma}^{k} \cdot \operatorname{grad} \boldsymbol{u}^{k} + \boldsymbol{\mu}^{k} \cdot \operatorname{grad}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\varphi}^{k} \right) \mathrm{d}V,$$
 (5)

where grad denotes the gradient operator. Here, \boldsymbol{u}^{k} and $\boldsymbol{\varphi}^{k}$ are the displacement and the micro-rotation vector fields. Within the theory of CS materials (see, for instance, [13]), the displacement field \boldsymbol{u}^{k} and the micro-rotation field $\boldsymbol{\varphi}^{k}$ are related by

$$\boldsymbol{\varphi}^{\mathbf{k}} = \frac{1}{2}\operatorname{curl}\boldsymbol{u}^{\mathbf{k}}, \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \varphi_{i}^{\mathbf{k}} = \frac{1}{2}\mathbb{E}_{ijs}^{\mathbf{k}}\boldsymbol{u}_{s,j}^{\mathbf{k}}, \tag{6}$$

where it is understood that a subscript comma denotes partial differentiation, i.e. $u_{i,j} = (\operatorname{grad} \boldsymbol{u})_{ij} = \partial u_i / \partial x_j$, and \mathbb{E} is the rank-3 Levi-Civita (permutation) tensor. By standard arguments of linear elasticity, the displacement field is related to the linear strain tensor $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^k$ through

$$\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^{\mathbf{k}} = \operatorname{Sym} \operatorname{grad} \boldsymbol{u}^{\mathbf{k}},\tag{7}$$

and this is work-conjugated to σ (see (5)). In similar manner, we introduce the torsion-flexure (or wryness) tensor

$$\boldsymbol{\chi}^{\mathbf{k}} = \operatorname{grad} \boldsymbol{\varphi}^{\mathbf{k}},\tag{8}$$

which is work-conjugated to μ^{k} .

 $_{127}$ By combining Eqs.(5,6) and (8), we infer

$$\boldsymbol{\chi}^{k} = \boldsymbol{\chi}_{D}^{k} \quad \xrightarrow{\text{Eq.}(5)} \quad \boldsymbol{\mu}^{k} = \boldsymbol{\mu}_{D}^{k}, \tag{9}$$

that is, the torsion-flexure tensor is purely deviatoric and the couple stress tensor, to all intents and purposes, may be replaced by the sole deviatoric part $\mu_{\rm D}$. To

¹³⁰ light notation, hereinafter we write μ^{k} with the understanding that μ^{k}_{D} is meant.

¹³¹ 2.1 Constitutive prescriptions

We assume hyperelastic isotropic material behaviour for both the half-spaces A and 132 B. Accordingly, four material parameters are introduced for each space, namely 133 the classical Lamé moduli, $\Lambda^k > 0$ and $G^k > 0$, alongside $\ell^k > 0$ and $-1 < \eta^k < 1$, 134 characterising the microstructure. More specifically, η^{k} plays a role similar to that 135 of the Poisson's ratio, whereas ℓ^{k} is defined as the characteristic length of the 136 microstructure. Both parameters may be related to the characteristic length in 137 bending and in torsion, ℓ_b^k and ℓ_t^k , respectively, through the following expressions 138 [24, 20]139

$$\ell_b^{\mathbf{k}} = \ell^{\mathbf{k}} / \sqrt{2},\tag{10a}$$

140

$$\ell_t^{\mathsf{k}} = \ell^{\mathsf{k}} \sqrt{1 + \eta^{\mathsf{k}}}.\tag{10b}$$

In polycrystalline metals, $\eta = -1$ and the length in torsion ℓ_t vanishes, while the case

$$\eta = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \ell_t = \ell = \sqrt{2}\ell_t$$

relates to the so-called strain gradient effect, taken into account in [34].

Following [13], in each half-space we define a free-energy density $U^{k}(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^{k}, \boldsymbol{\chi}^{k})$, such that the following constitutive relations hold:

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma}^{k} = \frac{\partial U^{k}}{\partial \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^{k}} \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad \boldsymbol{\sigma}^{k} = 2G^{k}\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^{k} + \Lambda^{k}(\operatorname{tr}\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^{k})\mathbf{1}, \qquad (11a)$$

$$\boldsymbol{\mu}^{k} = \frac{\partial U^{k}}{\partial \boldsymbol{\chi}^{k}} \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad \boldsymbol{\mu}^{k} = 2G^{k} (\ell^{k})^{2} \left[(\boldsymbol{\chi}^{k})^{T} + \eta^{k} \boldsymbol{\chi}^{k} \right].$$
(11b)

¹⁴² We observe that, in the special case $\eta = 1$, the CS theory at hand specializes to

the modified CS theory of elasticity introduced in [33], in which $\ell_b = \ell_t/2 = \ell/\sqrt{2}$ and the CS tensor is symmetric, owing to a postulated balance law concerning equilibrium of the torque of torques.

146 2.2 Equations of motion

In each half-space, the equations of motion, in the absence of body forces, read

$$\operatorname{div} \boldsymbol{s}^{\mathsf{k}} = \rho^{\mathsf{k}} \boldsymbol{\ddot{u}}^{\mathsf{k}}, \tag{12a}$$

$$2\operatorname{axial} \boldsymbol{\tau}^{\mathsf{k}} + \operatorname{div} \boldsymbol{\mu}^{\mathsf{k}} = J^{\mathsf{k}} \boldsymbol{\ddot{\varphi}}^{\mathsf{k}}, \tag{12b}$$

having indicated time differentiation with a superposed dot. Here, ρ^{k} and $J^{k} \geq 0$ are the mass density and the rotational inertia per unit volume, respectively. Besides, $(axial \tau)_{i}^{k} = \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{ijk}^{k} \tau_{kj}^{k}$ denotes the axial vector attached to the skew-symmetric tensor τ . Naturally, Eqs.(12) reduce to the equations of classical elasticity (CE), upon setting

$$\ell = 0$$
 and $J = 0 \Rightarrow \mu = \tau = 0$

¹⁴⁷ 2.3 Antiplane shear deformations

¹⁴⁸ We assume antiplane shear deformations, such that, in each half-space, the dis-¹⁴⁹ placement field u^{k} reduces to the out-of-plane component only

 $u_3^{\mathsf{k}}(x_1, x_2, t),$

and there is no dependence on the x_3 co-ordinate. Within this framework, according to Eqs.(6,7,8), the only non-vanishing components of the strain and of the torsion-flexure tensors are

$$\varepsilon_{13}^{\mathbf{k}} = \frac{1}{2}u_{3,1}^{\mathbf{k}}, \qquad \qquad \varepsilon_{23}^{\mathbf{k}} = \frac{1}{2}u_{3,2}^{\mathbf{k}}, \qquad (13a)$$

$$\varphi_1^{\mathbf{k}} = \frac{1}{2} u_{3,2}^{\mathbf{k}}, \qquad \qquad \varphi_2^{\mathbf{k}} = -\frac{1}{2} u_{3,1}^{\mathbf{k}}, \qquad (13b)$$

$$\chi_{11}^{k} = -\chi_{22}^{k} = \frac{1}{2}u_{3,12}^{k}, \qquad \chi_{21}^{k} = -\frac{1}{2}u_{3,11}^{k}, \qquad \chi_{12}^{k} = \frac{1}{2}u_{3,22}^{k}.$$
(13c)

Besides, accounting for the constitutive relations (11) and in light of (13), we get

$$\sigma_{13}^{k} = G^{k} u_{3,1}^{k}, \qquad \qquad \sigma_{23}^{k} = G^{k} u_{3,2}^{k}, \qquad (14a)$$

$$\mu_{11}^{k} = -\mu_{22}^{k} = G^{k} (\ell^{k})^{2} (1+\eta^{k}) u_{3,12}^{k}, \qquad \mu_{21}^{k} = G^{k} (\ell^{k})^{2} (u_{3,22}^{k} - \eta u_{3,11}^{k}), \qquad (14b)$$

$$\mu_{12}^{k} = -G^{k} (\ell^{k})^{2} (u_{3,11}^{k} - \eta^{k} u_{3,22}^{k}), \qquad (14c)$$

in which the Lamé constant $\Lambda^{\rm k}$ does not play any role. The balance equations (12) reduce to

$$\sigma_{13,1}^{\mathbf{k}} + \sigma_{23,2}^{\mathbf{k}} + \tau_{13,1}^{\mathbf{k}} + \tau_{23,2}^{\mathbf{k}} = \rho^{\mathbf{k}} \ddot{u}_{3}^{\mathbf{k}}, \tag{15a}$$

$$\mu_{11,1}^{k} + \mu_{21,2}^{k} + 2\tau_{23}^{k} = J^{k}\ddot{\varphi}_{1}^{k}, \qquad (15b)$$

$$\mu_{12,1}^{k} + \mu_{22,2}^{k} - 2\tau_{13}^{k} = J^{k} \ddot{\varphi}_{2}^{k}.$$
(15c)

Now, we solve Eq.(12b) for $\boldsymbol{\tau}^{k}$

$$\boldsymbol{\tau}^{\mathbf{k}} = \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}^{\mathbf{k}} \left(\operatorname{div} \boldsymbol{\mu}^{\mathbf{k}} - J^{\mathbf{k}} \ddot{\boldsymbol{\varphi}}^{\mathbf{k}} \right), \tag{16}$$

and substitute Eqs. (13b) and (14) into (16), to obtain (see [18])

$$\tau_{13}^{k} = -\frac{1}{2}G^{k}(\ell^{k})^{2}\hat{\bigtriangleup}u_{3,1}^{k} + \frac{J^{k}}{4}\ddot{u}_{3,1}^{k}, \qquad (17a)$$

$$\tau_{23}^{k} = -\frac{1}{2} G^{k} (\ell^{k})^{2} \hat{\bigtriangleup} u_{3,2}^{k} + \frac{J^{k}}{4} \ddot{u}_{3,2}^{k}, \qquad (17b)$$

¹⁵¹ in which the symbol $\hat{\triangle}$ indicates the two-dimensional Laplace operator in x_1 and ¹⁵² x_2 . Finally, considering homogeneous media, Eqs.(14a,15a) and (17) lead to the

153 governing equation in terms of displacement

$$G^{k}\left(\frac{1}{2}(\ell^{k})^{2}\hat{\bigtriangleup}\hat{\bigtriangleup}u_{3}^{k}-\hat{\bigtriangleup}u_{3}^{k}\right)-\frac{J^{k}}{4}\hat{\bigtriangleup}\ddot{u}_{3}^{k}+\rho^{k}\ddot{u}_{3}^{k}=0.$$
(18)

Eq.(18) correctly reduces to the corresponding expressions developed in [7, 34, 35] in the context of statics and in the absence of rotational inertia.

¹⁵⁶ 2.3.1 Reduced force traction vector and tangential part of couple stress traction

¹⁵⁷ We introduce the *reduced force traction* vector p^k acting across a surface with unit ¹⁵⁸ normal n [13]

$$\boldsymbol{p}^{k} = (\boldsymbol{s}^{k})^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{n}^{k} + \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{grad} \mu_{nn}^{k} \times \boldsymbol{n}^{k}, \qquad (19)$$

where $\mu_{nn}^{k} = \mathbf{n}^{k} \cdot \boldsymbol{\mu}^{k} \mathbf{n}^{k} = \mathbf{q}^{k} \cdot \mathbf{n}^{k}$ and \times denotes the cross product between vectors. Similarly, for the *couple stress traction* vector $\bar{\mathbf{q}}^{k}$, only the tangential part can be really imposed on a boundary

$$\bar{\boldsymbol{q}}^{k} = (\boldsymbol{\mu}^{k})^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{n}^{k} - \mu_{nn}^{k} \boldsymbol{n}^{k}.$$
(20)

Considering now the boundary surface $x_2 = 0$ separating the two half-spaces, we have

$$\boldsymbol{n}^{\scriptscriptstyle\mathrm{A}}=\boldsymbol{e_2}=-\boldsymbol{n}^{\scriptscriptstyle\mathrm{B}},$$

so that the out-of-plane component of the reduced force traction and the in-plane
 components of the couple stress traction read, respectively,

$$p_3^{A} = s_{23}^{A} + \frac{1}{2}\mu_{22,1}^{A}, \quad \bar{q}_1^{A} = \mu_{21}^{A}, \quad \text{with} \quad \bar{q}_2^{A} = 0,$$
 (21a)

¹⁶⁶ for media A, and

$$p_3^{\rm B} = -\left(s_{23}^{\rm B} + \frac{1}{2}\mu_{22,1}^{\rm B}\right), \quad \bar{q}_1^{\rm B} = -\mu_{21}^{\rm B}, \quad \text{with} \quad \bar{q}_2^{\rm B} = 0,$$
 (21b)

167 for media B.

¹⁶⁸ 3 Nondimensional equations and time-harmonic solution

¹⁶⁹ 3.1 Nondimensional form of governing equations

We are now in a position to bring in nondimensional form the governing equations of Sec.2, introducing suitable normalizing quantities. Although the problem is symmetric under $A \leftrightarrow B$ inversion, we prefer, for the sake of simplicity, to normalize against either half-space, say A. Thus,

$$oldsymbol{\xi} = rac{oldsymbol{x}}{ \Theta \ell^{\scriptscriptstyle \mathrm{A}}}$$

¹⁷⁰ is the new dimensionless set of coordinates. The quantity $\Theta \ell^{A}$ is a reference length ¹⁷¹ that is proportional, through the yet-unspecified factor Θ , to the microstructure ¹⁷² characteristic length for the half-space A. Similarly, we introduce the reference ¹⁷³ time $T^{A} = \ell^{A}/c_{s}^{A}$ and let the dimensionless time

$$\tau = \frac{t}{T^{\mathrm{A}}}.$$

Here,
$$c_{\rm s}^{\rm A} = \sqrt{G^{\rm A}/\rho^{\rm A}}$$
 is the shear wave speed of CE for material A. In a similar
fashion, $T^{\rm B} = \ell^{\rm B}/c_{\rm s}^{\rm B}$ is the reference time and $c_{s}^{\rm B} = \sqrt{G^{\rm B}/\rho^{\rm B}}$ the shear wave speed
of CE for material B. It proves convenient to introduce the ratios

$$\beta = \frac{\ell}{\ell^{A}},\tag{22a}$$

$$v = \frac{T^{\mathrm{A}}}{T^{\mathrm{B}}},\tag{22b}$$

whereupon $v\beta = c_s^{B}/c_s^{A}$. We observe that the limiting case in which the halfr9 space B is constituted by classical elastic isotropic material, i.e. in the absence of

¹⁸⁰ microstructure for B, can still be retrieved by taking

$$v \to +\infty, \ \beta \to 0, \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \beta v < \infty.$$
 (23)

The corresponding classical limit for material A cannot be accessed directly on
 account of the performed nondimensionalization, although this is no limitation for
 A and B are interchangeable

Substituting the thus introduced nondimensional variables in Eq.(18) lends the nondimensional governing equations

$$\triangle \triangle u_3^{\mathrm{A}} - 2\Theta^2 \triangle u_3^{\mathrm{A}} - 2\Theta^4 \left[\frac{\left(\ell_0^{\mathrm{A}}\right)^2}{\Theta^2} \triangle u_{3,\tau\tau}^{\mathrm{A}} - u_{3,\tau\tau}^{\mathrm{A}} \right] = 0, \qquad (24a)$$

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$$\triangle \triangle u_3^{\mathrm{B}} - 2\frac{\Theta^2}{\beta^2} \triangle u_3^{\mathrm{B}} - 2\Theta^4 \left[\frac{(\ell_0^{\mathrm{B}})^2}{\Theta^2 v^2 \beta^2} \triangle u_{3,\tau\tau}^{\mathrm{B}} - \frac{1}{v^2 \beta^4} u_{3,\tau\tau}^{\mathrm{B}} \right] = 0, \qquad (24b)$$

 $_{187}$ $\,$ holding in A and B, respectively. Here, the symbol \bigtriangleup indicates the two-dimensional

Laplace operator with respect to ξ_1 and ξ_2 , whereas the dimensionless parameters ℓ_0^k are defined as (see also [18, 20]):

$$\ell_0^{\mathbf{k}} = \frac{\ell_d^{\mathbf{k}}}{\ell^{\mathbf{k}}} \quad \text{with} \quad \ell_d^{\mathbf{k}} = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{\frac{J^{\mathbf{k}}}{\rho^{\mathbf{k}}}}$$

¹⁹⁰ We note that ℓ_d^k is proportional to the dynamic characteristic length introduced ¹⁹¹ in [27].

8

¹⁹² 3.2 Time-harmonic solution

¹⁹³ We consider time-harmonic and straight-crested antiplane waves moving in the ¹⁹⁴ sagittal plane (ξ_1, ξ_2) ,

$$\mu_{3}^{k}(\xi_{1},\xi_{2},\tau) = W^{k}(\xi_{1},\xi_{2})\exp(-i\Omega\tau), \qquad (25)$$

where i is the imaginary unit and $\Omega = \omega T^{A} > 0$ indicates the nondimensional time frequency. Substituting the solution form (25) into Eqs.(24), we obtain the pair of meta-biharmonic partial differential equations (PDEs)

$$\left[\triangle \triangle - 2\left(1 - \left(\ell_0^{\mathrm{A}}\right)^2 \Omega^2\right)\Theta^2 \triangle - 2\Omega^2 \Theta^4\right]W^{\mathrm{A}} = 0, \qquad (26a)$$

$$\left[\triangle \triangle - 2\left(1 - \frac{(\ell_0^{\rm B})^2}{v^2}\Omega^2\right)\frac{\Theta^2}{\beta^2}\triangle - 2\Omega^2\frac{\Theta^4}{v^2\beta^4}\right]W^{\rm B} = 0.$$
 (26b)

Eq.(26a) may be factored out as [20]

$$\left(\triangle + \delta^2\right)\left(\triangle - 1\right)W^{\mathsf{A}} = 0, \tag{27}$$

provided that we make the proper choice for Θ . Indeed, applying Vieta's theorem to Eqs.(26a,27), we get

$$\delta^2 = 2\Omega^2 \Theta^4$$
, and $1 - \delta^2 = 2\Theta^2 \left(1 - (\ell_0^{\text{A}})^2 \Omega^2 \right)$,

whence we need to let the dimensionless factor Θ as the positive root of the bi-quadratic equation

$$2\Omega^2 \Theta^4 + 2 \left[1 - (\ell_0^{A})^2 \Omega^2 \right] \Theta^2 - 1 = 0,$$

196 that is

$$\Theta^{2} = \frac{\sqrt{\left(1 - \left(\ell_{0}^{A}\right)^{2} \Omega^{2}\right)^{2} + 2\Omega^{2}} - 1 + \left(\ell_{0}^{A}\right)^{2} \Omega^{2}}{2\Omega^{2}}.$$
(28)

If is easily seen that Θ is a bounded function of Ω , while δ is the wavenumber of shear horizontal (SH) travelling bulk waves. The latter may be rewritten as

$$\delta = 2\delta_{\rm cr}\Theta^2,\tag{29}$$

199 having let

$$\ell_{0\,\mathrm{cr}}^{\mathrm{A}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \quad \mathrm{and} \quad \delta_{\mathrm{cr}} = \ell_{0\,\mathrm{cr}}^{\mathrm{A}} \Omega = \frac{\Omega}{\sqrt{2}}.$$

 $_{200}$ Combining Eqs.(28) and (29), we obtain the connection

$$\delta(\Omega, \ell_0^{\rm A}) = \frac{1}{2\delta_{\rm cr}} \left[\sqrt{\left(1 - (\ell_0^{\rm A})^2 \Omega^2\right)^2 + 2\Omega^2} - 1 + (\ell_0^{\rm A})^2 \Omega^2 \right].$$
(30)

²⁰¹ This connection becomes simply $\ell_0^A = \ell_{0\,cr}^A$ in the special case $\delta = \delta_{cr}$. In general,

Eq.(30) may be inverted to yield Ω as a function of δ , and, in the special case $\ell_0^A = \ell_0^{A}_{cr}$, this relationship is linear. However, when rotational inertia is zero, that is for $\ell_0^A = 0$, a positive frequency Ω exists only within the interval $\delta \in (-1, 1)$. With such definitions, Eq.(26b) may be factored as

$$\left(\Delta + \delta_1^2\right) \left(\Delta - \delta_2^2\right) W^{\scriptscriptstyle B} = 0, \qquad (31)$$

where we have let the dimensionless wavenumbers for bulk travelling and bulk evanescent waves in medium B

$$\delta_1^2 = \frac{\delta \psi}{\beta^2 \upsilon^2}, \quad \delta_2^2 = \frac{\delta}{\beta^2 \psi}.$$

In particular, ψ may be interpreted as a generalization to material B of the parameter δ

$$\psi = \upsilon \,\delta\left(\frac{\Omega}{\upsilon}, \ell_0^{\rm B}\right) = \frac{\upsilon^2}{2\delta_{\rm cr}} \left[\sqrt{\left(1 - (\ell_0^{\rm B})^2 \frac{\Omega^2}{\upsilon^2}\right)^2 + 2\frac{\Omega^2}{\upsilon^2}} - 1 + (\ell_0^{\rm B})^2 \frac{\Omega^2}{\upsilon^2} \right]. \quad (32)$$

Indeed, in the special case of a single homogeneous full-space, that is for $\beta = v = 1$, we have $\psi = \delta$. The following asymptotics hold

$$\begin{split} \psi &\to \sqrt{2} \Omega(\ell_0^{\text{B}})^2 + O(v^2), \qquad \text{as} \qquad v \to 0 \\ \psi &\to \delta_{\text{cr}} + O(v^{-2}), \qquad \text{as} \qquad v \to +\infty \end{split}$$

We introduce the shorthands

$$(\kappa_1, \kappa_2) = \beta \upsilon(\delta_1, \delta_2),$$

whereby we obtain the bulk travelling and bulk evanescent (dimensional) wavespeeds for material B

$$c_{\rm SH}^{\rm B} = \frac{\Omega\Theta}{\kappa_1} c_{\rm s}^{\rm B}, \qquad c_{\rm iSH}^{\rm B} = \frac{\Omega\Theta}{\kappa_2} c_{\rm s}^{\rm B}.$$
 (33)

The corresponding wavenumbers $\delta_{1,2}$ may be used in (33) instead of $\kappa_{1,2}$ when expressing the corresponding bulk wavespeeds in terms of $c_{\rm s}^{\rm A}$.

In the absence of microstructure for B, that is in the limit (23), we have $\kappa_1 \rightarrow \sqrt{\delta \delta_{\rm cr}}$, $\kappa_2/\upsilon \rightarrow \sqrt{\delta/\delta_{\rm cr}}$ and we retrieve the classical bulk SH wavespeed

$$c_{\rm SH}^{\rm B} o \frac{\Omega\Theta}{\sqrt{\delta\delta_{\rm cr}}} c_{\rm s}^{\rm B} = c_{\rm s}^{\rm B}.$$

²¹⁴ Conversely, evanescent bulk waves become stationary,

$$c_{\rm iSH}^{\rm B} = \frac{\varOmega \Theta}{\upsilon \sqrt{\delta/\delta_{\rm cr}}} c_{\rm s}^{\rm B} \to 0,$$

and (31) factors out in the product of the Laplacian with the Helmholtz operator

$$\Delta \left(\Delta + \delta \delta_{\rm cr} \frac{c_{\rm s}^{\rm A\,2}}{c_{\rm s}^{\rm B\,2}} \right) W^{\rm B} = 0$$

216 Consequently, the solution is given by two terms, the first providing the time-

²¹⁷ harmonic solution of CE and the second being an harmonic function [20].

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For the boundary conditions, Eqs.(21a) take on the form

$$p_3^{\rm A} = -\frac{G^{\rm A}}{2\Theta^3} \left[\left(\delta^2 - 1 \right) W_{,2}^{\rm A} + (\eta^{\rm A} + 2) W_{,112}^{\rm A} + W_{,222}^{\rm A} \right], \tag{34a}$$

$$\bar{q}_{1}^{A} = \frac{G^{A}l^{A}}{\Theta^{2}} \left(W_{,22}^{A} - \eta W_{,11}^{A} \right),$$
(34b)

while Eqs.(21b) become

$$p_{3}^{\mathrm{B}} = -\frac{G^{\mathrm{B}}}{2\Theta^{3}} \left\{ \beta^{2} \left[\left(\eta^{\mathrm{B}} + 2 \right) W_{,112}^{\mathrm{B}} + W_{,222}^{\mathrm{B}} \right] + \frac{\kappa_{2}^{2}}{v^{2}} \left(\frac{\psi^{2}}{v^{2}} - 1 \right) W_{,2}^{\mathrm{B}} \right\},$$
(35a)

$$\bar{q}_{1}^{\rm B} = \frac{G^{\rm B}\ell^{\rm B}}{\Theta^{2}}\beta^{2} \left(W_{,22}^{\rm B} - \eta^{\rm B}W_{,11}^{\rm B}\right).$$
(35b)

²¹⁸ In the absence of microstructure for B, Eqs.(35) reproduce the classical result

$$p_3^{\rm B} = \frac{G^{\rm B}}{\Theta} W^{\rm B}_{,2}, \quad \text{and} \quad \bar{q}_1^{\rm B} = 0, \tag{36}$$

expressing the absence of the reduced couple-stress vector and the force traction vector being simply the product of the shear modulus with the shear deformation.

221 4 Antiplane Stoneley waves

For guided waves propagating along the interface $\xi_2 = 0$, we take

$$W^{\mathbf{k}}(\xi_1,\xi_2) = \ell^{\mathbf{A}} w^{\mathbf{k}}(\xi_2) \exp\left(\imath \kappa \xi_1\right),$$

wherein we have introduced the shorthand $\kappa = \Theta K$, with $K = k\ell^{A}$ denoting the

dimensionless (spatial) wavenumber in the propagation direction ξ_1 . Moreover, we

²²⁴ define the dimensional phase speed in the propagation direction

$$c = \frac{\omega}{k} = \frac{\Omega}{\kappa} \Theta c_{\rm s}^{\rm A}.$$
 (37)

The general decaying solution of Eq.(27) is

$$w^{A}(\xi_{2}) = a_{1} \exp\left(A_{1}\xi_{2}\right) + a_{2} \exp\left(A_{2}\xi_{2}\right)$$
(38)

²²⁶ and for Eq.(31)

$$w^{\rm B}(\xi_2) = b_1 \exp\left(-B_1 \xi_2\right) + b_2 \exp\left(-B_2 \xi_2\right),\tag{39}$$

where the coefficients $a_{1,2}$ and $b_{1,2}$ are four amplitudes to be determined. Here, we have let the decay indices

$$A_1 = \sqrt{\kappa^2 - \delta^2}, \quad A_2 = \sqrt{\kappa^2 + 1}, \tag{40}$$

²²⁹ for material A, and, similarly,

$$B_1 = \sqrt{\kappa^2 - \delta_1^2}, \quad B_2 = \sqrt{\kappa^2 + \delta_2^2},$$
 (41)

for material B. Here, the square root is made definite by taking the branch that corresponds to the positive square root of any positive real argument (equivalently, we may demand that $A_{1,2}$ and $B_{1,2} \to \sqrt{p}$, as $\kappa = p \to +\infty$ real and positive). Branch cuts for the square root are taken parallel to the imaginary axis in antisymmetric fashion, see the discussion in [21, §1.1]. By this choice, the square roots A_2 and B_2 are positive real along the whole real axis, while A_1 (and B_1) is positive real outside the interval $|\kappa| < \delta$ (respectively $|\kappa| < \delta_1$) and purely imaginary inside (see [20]). Also, A_1 and B_1 are purely imaginary on the imaginary axis, while A_2 (and B_2) is positive real inside $|\kappa| < 1$ (respectively $|\kappa| < \delta_2$) and purely imaginary outside, with opposite sign on either side of the cuts. Consequently, continuation by Schwarz's reflection principle $f(s^*) = f^*(s)$ is warranted outside the interval $|\kappa| < \delta$ (respectively $|\kappa| < \delta_1$) and by its opposite, $f(s^*) = -f^*(s)$, inside. Here, a superscript asterisk denotes complex conjugation, i.e. given $s = \Re(s) + i\Im(s)$, we have $s^* = \Re(s) - i\Im(s)$. It is emphasized that this is not the choice for the cuts taken in [3], where a finite cut is considered instead. However, according to this choice, we get an odd real-valued function along the real axis, and this jeopardizes decay. At any rate, Rayleigh and Stoneley waves need to be slower than the slowest bulk mode. Besides, it is easily proved that

$$A_1 < A_2, \quad B_1 < B_2, \quad \text{for } \kappa \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Clearly, $iA_{1,2}$ and $iB_{1,2}$ are the (dimensionless) wavenumbers in the thickness direction ξ_2 , in the relevant material. Consideration of the dimensional wavenumbers squared

$$\begin{split} &-\frac{A_1^2}{(\ell^{\scriptscriptstyle A})^2\Theta^2} = -k^2 + \frac{\delta^2}{(\ell^{\scriptscriptstyle A})^2\Theta^2} = -k^2 + \frac{1}{(\ell^{\scriptscriptstyle A})^2} \left(\sqrt{1+2(\ell^{\scriptscriptstyle A})^2\omega^2(c_{\rm s}^{\scriptscriptstyle A})^{-2}} - 1\right),\\ &-\frac{A_2^2}{(\ell^{\scriptscriptstyle A})^2\Theta^2} = -k^2 - \frac{1}{(\ell^{\scriptscriptstyle A})^2\Theta^2} = -k^2 - \frac{1}{(\ell^{\scriptscriptstyle A})^2} \left(\sqrt{1+2(\ell^{\scriptscriptstyle A})^2\omega^2(c_{\rm s}^{\scriptscriptstyle A})^{-2}} + 1\right), \end{split}$$

matches favourably with the corresponding results given in [7]. As discussed in [19], for $\kappa > \delta$, the solution (38) corresponds to a localized travelling wave moving slower than the corresponding bulk wave in material A. Similarly, for $\kappa > \delta_1$, the solution (39) corresponds to a localized travelling wave moving slower than the corresponding bulk wave in material B.

²³⁵ 4.1 Rayleigh function: existence of the Rayleigh zeros

²³⁶ We define the general form of the Rayleigh function

$$R_0(\kappa,\lambda_1,\lambda_2,\eta) = (\eta\kappa^2 - \lambda_1\lambda_2)^2 - \lambda_1\lambda_2(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)^2, \qquad (42)$$

that is valid for either half-space, provided that we substitute $\lambda_{1,2}$ with the relevant decay index along ξ_2 . Indeed, for the half-space A, we have $\lambda_{1,2} = A_{1,2}$, $\eta = \eta^A$, and we get $R_0^A(\kappa) = R_0(\kappa, A_1, A_2, \eta^A)$. Multiplication by $(A_1 - A_2)$ lends the Rayleigh

 $_{240}$ function in the form already exposed in [19, 20]

$$R^{A}(\kappa) = (A_{1} - A_{2}) R_{0}^{A}(\kappa) = \left[(1 + \eta^{A}) \kappa^{2} + 1 \right]^{2} A_{1} - \left[(1 + \eta^{A}) \kappa^{2} - \delta^{2} \right]^{2} A_{2}.$$
 (43)

In similar fashion, for the half-space B, we have $R_0^{\rm B}(\kappa) = R_0(\kappa, B_1, B_2, \eta^{\rm B})$ and multiplication by $(B_1 - B_2)$ gives

$$R^{\rm B}(\kappa) = \left[(\eta^{\rm B} + 1)\kappa^2 + \delta_2^2 \right]^2 B_1 - \left[(\eta^{\rm B} + 1)\kappa^2 - \delta_1^2 \right]^2 B_2, \tag{44}$$



Fig. 2 Simple curve γ (green, solid) whose mapping through the Rayleigh function $R^{A}(\gamma)$ is used to determine the number of Rayleigh roots. Branch cuts (red, dashed) and branch points are chosen to warrant depthwise decay of the solution (38)

 $_{243}$ that is a generalization of Eq.(43) wherein the role of the material parameters is

²⁴⁴ not concealed behind the scaling.

²⁴⁵ On the real axis,

$$R_0(\delta, \lambda_1, \lambda_2, \eta) = \eta^2 \delta^4 \ge 0, \tag{45}$$

for the travelling bulk wavenumber $\kappa = \delta$ (or $\kappa = \delta_1$), while we have the asymptotics totics

$$R_0(\kappa, \lambda_1, \lambda_2, \eta) = -(3 + 2\eta - \eta^2)\kappa^4 + O(\kappa^2), \quad \text{for} \quad \kappa \to +\infty, \tag{46}$$

whereupon the Rayleigh function eventually becomes real negative. We conclude, 248 by continuity, that at least a real root is admitted. In fact, we can prove, by the ar-249 gument principle, that three pairs of central-symmetric roots are present: one real 250 pair corresponding to Rayleigh waves, one purely imaginary pair, corresponding 251 to Rayleigh-like waves, and a third pair of complex conjugated roots, as discussed 252 in [19]. It is observed that in [19] a different choice is made for the cuts, according 253 to which the complex-conjugated pair of zeros may fall outside the Riemann sheet. 254 In fact, with our choice for the cuts, existence of all roots is always warranted. 255

We determine the number of zeros of (42) in the cut complex plane through the 256 argument principle [2]. To fix ideas, we give the proof for $R^{\Lambda}(\kappa)$, but the argument 257 easily extends to $R^{\rm B}(\kappa)$. We construct the mapping of the simple curve γ through 258 the Rayleigh function, $R^{A}(\gamma)$, and count its index (or winding number). Looking at 259 Fig.2, we see that γ consists of the circle γ_R of arbitrarily large radius R, together 260 with the loops $\gamma_{\pm\delta}$ around the centrally symmetric pair of cuts $[\pm\delta,\pm\delta\mp\imath\infty)$ and 261 the loops $\gamma_{\pm i}$ around $[\pm i, \pm i\infty)$. By the asymptotics (46), we infer that, when 262 moving along γ_R , the image point makes four complete turns around the origin. 263 We now turn to the loops around the cuts and, in light of the central-symmetry 264 property, only loops sitting in either half-plane are considered and the resulting 265 winding number is then doubled. On the loop γ_{-i} , we have A_1 and A_2 purely 266 imaginary, whence Eq.(42) remains in the same form but now in terms of real 267 numbers. In the limit as this loop shrinks down to the cut, γ_{-i} is mapped onto 268 a open curve approaching the real line from above, i.e. from positive imaginary 269

²⁷⁰ numbers. Conversely, the loop γ_{δ} is mapped onto an S-shaped open curve as in ²⁷¹ Fig.4, which intersects the real axis three times, named $d_1 < d_2 < d_3$. In particular, ²⁷² $d_1 < 0$ is located to the left of the origin, while $d_2 = R^A(\delta) = \delta^4 \eta^2 \ge 0$ is always ²⁷³ to the right. Together, $D(\gamma_{-i}) \cup D(\gamma_{-i}\delta)$ form a non-simple curve winding once ²⁷⁴ around the origin, that is closed when including the points at infinity. We conclude ²⁷⁵ that six order 1 roots are expected.

Roots should be sought among the zeros of the bi-quartic polynomial

$$\eta^{4}\kappa^{8} + 2(1+\eta)\kappa^{6} + \left(\delta_{2}^{2} - \delta_{1}^{2}\right)(2\eta+1)\kappa^{4} - \left(2\eta\delta_{2}^{2}\delta_{1}^{2} + \delta_{1}^{4} + \delta_{2}^{4}\right)\kappa^{2} + \delta_{1}^{2}\delta_{2}^{2}\left(\delta_{2}^{2} - \delta_{1}^{2}\right) = 0.$$

²⁷⁶ Basically, this is a singularly perturbed polynomial equation inasmuch as η is ²⁷⁷ assumed to be small. In this context, we observe that for the case $\eta = 0$, corre-²⁷⁸ sponding to the strain-gradient theory, Rayleigh waves collapse into bulk waves as ²⁷⁹ Eq.(42) reduces to

$$\lambda_1\lambda_2\left(\lambda_2^2-\lambda_1^2
ight),$$

whose real roots corresponds to bulk waves $\lambda_{1,2} = 0$. In fact, Rayleigh roots are generally perturbations around either bulk wave speed, see [19].

282 5 Frequency equation

For perfect adhesion between the half-spaces at the joining surface $\xi_2 = 0$, we enforce the boundary conditions

$$w^{\rm A}(0) = w^{\rm B}(0),$$
 (47a)

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}w^{\mathrm{A}}}{\mathrm{d}\xi_{2}}(0) = \frac{\mathrm{d}w^{\mathrm{B}}}{\mathrm{d}\xi_{2}}(0), \tag{47b}$$

$$\bar{q}_1^{\rm A}(0) = \bar{q}_1^{\rm B}(0),$$
 (47c)

$$p_3^{\rm A}(0) = p_3^{\rm B}(0).$$
 (47d)

Plugging the solutions (38,39) into the boundary conditions (47) lends a homoge-

neous system of linear algebraic equations in the unknown amplitudes $a_{1,2}, b_{1,2}$. This system admits non-trivial solutions inasmuch as the following *secular (or frequency) equation* is satisfied:

$$\Delta(\kappa) = 0, \tag{48}$$

²⁸⁷ in which Δ is the determinant of the linear system. Introducing the ratio $\Gamma = G^{\text{B}}/G^{\text{A}}$, the determinant in equation (48) may be written as

$$\Delta(\kappa) = \Gamma \beta^2 \left(A_1 - A_2 \right) \left(B_1 - B_2 \right) D_0(\kappa), \tag{49}$$

289 with

$$D_0(\kappa) = \frac{1}{\Gamma\beta^2} R_0^{\mathrm{A}}(\kappa) - 2D_1(\kappa) + \Gamma\beta^2 R_0^{\mathrm{B}}(\kappa), \qquad (50)$$



Fig. 3 Simple curve γ (green, solid) whose mapping through the Stoneley frequency equation $D_0(\gamma)$ is used to determine existence and uniqueness of antiplane Stoneley roots. Here, to fix ideas, we have assumed $\delta_1 < \delta$ and $\delta_2 < 1$

where $R_0^{\text{A}}(\kappa)$ and $R_0^{\text{B}}(\kappa)$ are the Rayleigh functions for the relevant half-space and $D_1(\kappa)$ is the coupling term. For the latter, we have

$$D_{1}(\kappa) = \left(\eta^{A}\kappa^{2} - A_{1}A_{2}\right)\left(\eta^{B}\kappa^{2} - B_{1}B_{2}\right) + \frac{1}{2}\left(A_{1}A_{2} + B_{1}B_{2}\right)\left(A_{1} + A_{2}\right)\left(B_{1} + B_{2}\right).$$
 (51)

Here, dependence on Ω though δ , δ_1 and δ_2 is implicitly assumed. Eq.(50) is the CS counterpart of the Rayleigh function [3, Eq.(4-26)], valid for isotropic CE media.

The Rayleigh function (50) exhibits symmetry with respect to $A \leftrightarrow B$ inversion, recalling that we also have $\Gamma \leftrightarrow \Gamma^{-1}$ and $\beta \leftrightarrow \beta^{-1}$. Moreover, when A = B, that is

$$\Gamma, \beta, \upsilon, \psi, \eta^{\mathsf{k}}) = (1, 1, 1, \delta, \eta^{\mathsf{A}} = \eta^{\mathsf{B}}),$$

²⁹² we obtain

$$D_{0,A=B}(\kappa) = -4A_1A_2(A_1 + A_2)^2,$$

whence propagation is possible only for $A_{1,2} = 0$, that amounts to finding bulk waves. Similarly, in the absence of either half-space, that is for $\Gamma = 0$ or $\Gamma \to \infty$, we find the Rayleigh function of the remaining half-space, that is $R_0^{\text{A}}(\kappa)$ or $R_0^{\text{B}}(\kappa)$, respectively.

²⁹⁷ 6 Existence and uniqueness of antiplane Stoneley waves

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We have the asymptotics

$$D_{0}(\kappa) = -\left(3 - \eta^{\mathrm{B}} + \frac{\eta^{\mathrm{A}} + 1}{\beta^{2}\Gamma}\right) \left[3 - \eta^{\mathrm{A}} + \beta^{2}\Gamma\left(\eta^{\mathrm{B}} + 1\right)\right]\kappa^{4} + O(\kappa^{2}),$$

as $\kappa \to \infty$, (52)



Fig. 4 Image through $D_0(s)$ of the loop γ_{δ} for $\Omega < \Omega_{cuton}$ (left, index $-\frac{1}{2}$) and $\Omega > \Omega_{cuton}$ (right, index $\frac{1}{2}$). The dashed line is the common asymptote for the curve at infinity.

whence, on the real axis, the frequency equation eventually becomes negative. For a given triple δ , δ_1 and δ_2 , $D_0(\kappa)$ is monotonic decreasing and the possibility of a real root for the frequency equation hinges on the fact that

$$D_0(\delta_M) \ge 0, \quad \delta_M = \max(\delta, \delta_1).$$
 (53)

This simple analysis may be put into the wider perspective of determining existence 301 and uniqueness of antiplane Stoneley waves. To this aim, we enlarge our viewpoint 302 and think of D_0 as a function of the complex variable s. Then, $D_0(s)$ appears 303 centrally symmetric, i.e. $D_0(s) = D_0(-s)$. We determine the number of zeros of 304 $D_0(s)$ in the cut complex plane through the argument principle. Accordingly, we 305 determine the index (winding number) of the curve $D_0(\gamma)$, where $\gamma = \gamma_R \cup \gamma_{\pm \delta} \cup$ 306 $\gamma_{\pm\delta_1} \cup \gamma_{\pm i}$ is the simple curve shown in Fig.3. Here, to fix ideas, we assume $\delta_1 < \delta$ 307 and $\delta_2 < 1$. 308

³⁰⁹ When Γ is small enough, the following analysis resembles that given for the ³¹⁰ Rayleigh function. By the asymptotics (52), as the point κ moves on the curve γ_R , ³¹¹ its mapping $D_0(\kappa)$ makes four complete turns about the origin, whence the index ³¹² is 4.

As in Fig.4, γ_{δ} is mapped into a open loop having three intersections with 313 the real axis, $d_1 < 0$, d_2 and $d_3 > 0$, with $d_2 = D_0(\delta)$. The explicit expression 314 for d_2 is given in the Appendix. In contrast, d_1 and d_3 may be found numerically 315 imposing the condition $\Im[D_0(\delta \mp \varepsilon - iy)] = 0$, respectively, with $\varepsilon \to 0^+$ and 316 y > 0. When Γ is small enough, this loop looks just like the S-shaped curved 317 encountered in the Rayleigh case, but, unlike there, its intersection d_2 with the 318 real axis is not necessarily positive. Indeed, this loop has index $-\frac{1}{2}$ inasmuch as 319 $d_2 < 0$, that occurs for small values of Ω . In this situation, $D_0(s)$ possesses two pairs 320 of roots: a complex-conjugated pair and a purely imaginary pair. Upon increasing 321 Ω , the cuton frequency Ω_{cuton} is reached such that $d_2 = 0$ and the real root κ_S 322 is located precisely at the bulk wavenumber δ . In consideration of the fact that δ 323 is a monotonic increasing function of Ω and so is $D_0(\Omega)$, for $\Omega > \Omega_{cuton}$ we have 324 that $D_0(\gamma_{\delta})$ winds around the origin as in Fig.4(b). Thus, we find three pairs of 325 roots: a complex-conjugated pair, a purely imaginary pair and a real pair. 326

Similarly, γ_{δ_1} is mapped into a loop closed at infinity which never encircles the origin and contribute nothing to the index. Finally, the loop γ_{-i} is mapped into the real axis from above (i.e. from the side of positive imaginary part) moving



Fig. 5 Image through $D_0(s)$ of the loop γ_{-i} (index $\frac{1}{2}$)



Fig. 6 Cuton frequency as a function of the ratio Γ between the shear moduli of media A and B (solid, black) and vertical asymptote (dashed, red)

from left to right, see Fig.5. This curve brings an index $\frac{1}{2}$ regardless of Ω . We conclude that we have the following scenarios:

 $\begin{array}{rcl} & - & \text{for } \Omega < \Omega_{cuton}, \text{ the number of roots is 4, two complex-conjugated, located in the second/fourth quadrant, and two opposite purely imaginary. As discussed in [19], complex roots represent waves decaying/exploding in every direction and have little significance in unbounded media. Conversely, purely imaginary roots represent Stoneley-like waves travelling in the interior of the medium and decaying/exploding along the interface. Such roots are important in semi-infinite situations. \\ \end{array}$

³³⁹ - For $\Omega > \Omega_{cuton}$, the number of roots is 6 and, alongside the previous four ³⁴⁰ zeros, a pair of real opposite roots, corresponding to travelling Stoneley waves, ³⁴¹ appears.

Fig.6 shows that the cuton frequency is a monotonic increasing function of Γ exhibiting a vertical asymptote. Consequently, a critical value Γ_c exists for the ratio Γ , beyond which propagation is blocked. Indeed, for large values of Γ , the root landscape, as it appears from the argument principle, becomes more involved and, for instance, real (and purely imaginary) roots are eventually lost. A full analysis of all possible scenarios rests outside the scope of this paper. We merely observe that, for a given Ω , the condition (53) demands positivity of a quadratic function of Γ ,



Fig. 7 The root Γ_{Ω} defines the admissible range $\Gamma < \Gamma_{\Omega}$ for propagation of antiplane Stoneley waves to occur at a given frequency: $\Omega = 1$ (solid, black) and $\Omega = 100$ (dashed, red). We have taken the parameter set: $\ell_0^{\rm B} = 0.5$, $\beta = v = 1.1$, $\eta^{\rm A} = 0.8$, $\eta^{\rm B} = 0.5$ and $\ell_0^{\rm A} = 0.5$



Fig. 8 Cuton frequency as a function of the shear modulus ratio Γ for small values of rotational inertia ($\ell_0^A = 0.3$). We see that cuton, as a function of Γ , possesses a horizontal asymptote and a second branch appears (red, dashed) which is obtained considering $\kappa = \delta_1 > \delta$ in condition (53)

generally concave upwards, which intersects the Γ -axis to the right of the origin, in light of (45), at $\Gamma_{\Omega} < \Gamma_c$, see Fig.7. As a consequence, a real interval of admissible shear modulus ratios is highlighted, $0 < \Gamma < \Gamma_{\Omega}$, which accommodates propagation at and beyond the specified frequency Ω . Fig.7 supports the observation that this admissible interval increases with Ω up to the asymptotic value Γ_c . In fact, for large Ω , the quadratic positive real root stabilizes very close to Γ_c .

A different situation develops when rotational inertia in medium A is smaller 355 than medium B, for example, in our parameter set, we consider $\ell_0^A = 0.3$. Then, 356 δ_1 grows with Ω faster than δ and eventually overtakes it. This behaviour reflects 357 itself in that the cuton function exhibits a horizontal asymptote at $\Omega_{cuton,asym} \approx$ 358 3.20663, corresponding to this overtaking, see Fig.8. Upon reaching $\Omega_{cuton,asym}$ 359 from below, the quadratic function of Γ eventually reverse convexity and moves 360 above the Γ -axis: thus, propagation is admitted for any Γ , as in Fig.9a). Beyond 361 $\Omega_{cuton,asym}$, the assumption $\delta > \delta_1$ is violated: a new admissibility interval may 362 be determined considering the roots $\Gamma_{1\Omega}$ and $\Gamma_{2\Omega}$ of $D_0(\delta_1)$. However, given that 363 convexity has reversed, propagation now occurs *outside* the interval $[\Gamma_{1\Omega}, \Gamma_{2\Omega}]$. We 364 thus see, in contrast to CE, that propagation of antiplane Stoneley waves is largely 365 possible, even when material properties are significantly different. 366



Fig. 9 When rotational inertia of medium A, $\ell_0^A = 0.3$, is less than rotational inertia of medium B, $\ell_0^B = 0.5$, we find that Stoneley waves propagate (a) within the finite admissible range $(0, \Gamma_\Omega]$ for Γ at $\Omega = 1$ (solid, black); this interval grows and eventually becomes unbounded upon reaching the asymptotic frequency $\Omega = 3.21$ (dashed, red). Beyond this frequency (b), we have $\delta_1 > \delta$ and admissibility demands $D_0(\delta_1) \ge 0$, which sets the unbounded admissibility interval $(0, \Gamma_{1\Omega}] \cup [\Gamma_{2\Omega}, \infty)$

Finally, we observe that the case $\eta^{A} = 0$ is special, for then intersection with the ordinate axis occurs at the origin, that is a double root for Γ , i.e. $\Gamma_{\Omega} = 0$. However, we have already proved that, in this situation, Stoneley waves collapse into bulk waves.

371 7 Dispersion curves

Travelling wave solutions are possible inasmuch as a set of real solution pairs 372 (κ_S, Ω_S) may be found for the frequency equation (49). This is possible in the open 373 interval $\kappa > \delta_M$, whence we retrieved the well-known fact, already pointed out in 374 [3], that Stoneley waves are slower than the slowest bulk wave. In our example, 375 $\delta > \delta_1$, whence, in light of (33), δ_1 is the wavenumber of the fastest bulk wave while, 376 in its neighbourhood, sits the fastest Rayleigh wave κ_{1R} . Also, we can show that 377 Stoneley waves are faster than the the slowest Rayleigh wave, whose wavenumber 378 is $\kappa_R \gtrsim \delta$. Indeed, looking at (50), we see that, for $\kappa = \kappa_R$, the first term drops 379 out (by definition of κ_R) and only negative terms remain, in light of the Rayleigh 380 function $R^{\rm B}(\kappa)$ being monotonic decreasing (and zero at $\kappa_{1R} \gtrsim \delta_1$). A solution κ_S 381 for (50), thought of as a function of Γ , is possible only inasmuch as $R^{\rm A}(\kappa_S) > 0$, 382 and this occurs only for $\kappa_S < \kappa_R$. We thus prove the result already observed in 383 [11] and in [15]. Indeed, following the latter, "for all geometries examined in the 384 context of anisotropic CE], the interface wave velocity is found to lie between the 385 higher free surface (generalized Rayleigh) wave velocity and the slowest bulk wave 386 velocity". 387

In the following, for the sake of definiteness, when plotting dispersion curves we assume the parameters $\Gamma = 0.1$, $\upsilon = \beta = 1.1$, $\ell_0^{\rm A} \leq \ell_0^{\rm B} = 0.5$ and $\eta^{\rm B} = 0.5$, whereby bulk (and Rayleigh) waves are faster in B, i.e. $\delta_1 < \delta$. Fig.10 presents dispersion curves for Stoneley waves expressing the wavespeed c_S as a multiple of the shear bulk wave speed of CE, $c_{\rm s}^{\rm A}$, as in Eq.(37).

Similarly to what occurs for Rayleigh waves [20, 19], Stoneley waves are initially dispersive, yet they soon develop a horizontal asymptote that is located above (below) the shear wave speed of CE, according to $\ell_0^A \ge \ell_{0 \text{ cr}}^A$. Therefore, the dispersive nature of the wave is restricted to small wavenumbers. However,



Fig. 10 Dispersion curves for Stoneley waves where the phase speed $c_{\rm S}$ is expressed as a multiple of $c_{\rm s}^{\rm A}$, that is the SH bulk wave speed of classical elasticity for medium A ($\Gamma = 0.1$, $\upsilon = \beta = 1.1$, $\ell_{\rm B}^{\rm B} = 0.5$, and $\eta^{\rm B} = 0.5$)

³⁹⁷ in the absence of rotational inertia in the half-space A (recall Γ is small), that ³⁹⁸ is for $\ell_0^A = 0$ (see Fig.10a)), the curve is monotonic increasing and dispersion is ³⁹⁹ always warranted. As already discussed, bulk nondispersive waves, moving with ⁴⁰⁰ the constant speed c_s^A , are found for either $\eta^A = 0$ or $\ell_0^A = \ell_{0 \text{ cr}}^A$.

So far, the behaviour of Stoneley waves is very similar to that of Rayleigh 401 waves, see [20, §5], of which they are perturbations through Γ . However, in con-402 trast to Rayleigh waves, a cuton frequency is met below which propagation is 403 prevented. Therefore, Stoneley waves present a zero-frequency block-band and 404 their propagation follows an optical branch. Fig.11, illustrates the role of Γ and η^{A} 405 in determining the cuton frequency. Also, propagation is possible below a critical 406 value Γ_{Ω} (case $\delta > \delta_1$) and outside the finite interval $\Gamma_{1\Omega} < \Gamma < \Gamma_{2\Omega}$ (case $\delta_1 > \delta$), 407 as discussed in §6. Especially, in stark contrast to CE, Stoneley wave propagation 408 occurs in CS elasticity under pretty general conditions, well beyond Wiechert's 409 conditions, and they appear to be the rule rather than the exception. 410

Still, similarly to Rayleigh waves, Stoneley waves are perturbations of the travelling bulk modes. Indeed, following [19], a convenient approach to the determination of Stoneley wavenumbers is obtained expanding Eq.(48) around δ (or δ_1 , depending which is the largest) through setting

$$\kappa_s = \delta(1 + \epsilon_S^2), \quad \epsilon_S \ll 1.$$



Fig. 11 Dispersion curves for antiplane Stoneley waves at $\Gamma = 0.1$ (solid), $\Gamma = 0.01$ (dots), and $\Gamma = 0.001$ (dashed)



Fig. 12 Linear approximation (54) (dashed, red) superposed onto the numerically evaluated frequency spectrum (solid, black) for $\ell_0^A = 0.3$ and $\ell_0^A = 0.5$. Curves perfectly overlap in the considered domain.

415 Solutions of the resulting linear equation in ϵ_S

$$d_2 + a_1 \epsilon_S = 0, \tag{54}$$

⁴¹⁶ are plotted in Fig.12 against the numerically evaluated frequency spectra. It is ⁴¹⁷ seen that approximated and "exact" spectra perfectly overlap in the whole range ⁴¹⁸ considered. The coefficients d_2 and a_1 are given in the Appendix.

419 8 Conclusions

Propagation of antiplane Stoneley waves is investigated within the context of couple stress theory, in an attempt to discuss the role of material microstructure in developing new pathways for energy transport. Remarkably, it is found that antiplane Stoneley waves are supported under rather general conditions, and this outcome stands in marked contrast with the findings of classical elasticity, wherein antiplane Stoneley waves are not supported altogether and in-plane Stoneley waves $_{426}$ are possible only for a very restricted range for the ratio between the material con-

stants of the media in contact. In fact, according to Wiechert's conditions, material
 pairs supporting in-plane Stoneley waves within classical elasticity ought to be very

429 similar.

The question of existence and uniqueness of such waves is also addressed by 430 the argument principle. It is found that, besides travelling waves, evanescent and 431 decaying/exploding modes are also admitted, in a complex wave pattern. Interest-432 433 ingly, propagation is possible only beyond a cuton frequency, for which an explicit expression is given. Indeed, it appears that lack of propagation, typical of clas-434 435 sical elasticity, is relaxed to high-frequency propagation by the presence of the microstructure. As a result, rotational inertia plays an important role as it affects 436 the admissibility range for propagation. 437

438 Stoneley waves, just like Rayleigh waves, are perturbations of the relevant bulk 439 modes. As a result, an approximated linear (in the wavenumber) expression for 440 locating Stoneley roots is given that proves extremely accurate when compared 441 to plain numerics in a wide frequency range. The possibility of Stoneley wave 442 propagation under general conditions has great importance in seismology and it 443 is a valuable asset in non-destructive testing of materials.

444 9 Declarations

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- 448 9.2 Conflicts of interest/Competing interests
- ⁴⁴⁹ Authors declare no competing interests.
- 450 9.3 Availability of data and material
- ⁴⁵¹ This paper contains no data.
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- 453 Not applicable.
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456 A Linear approximation to cuton

In this short Appendix we gather the analytic expressions of the coefficients in the linear approximation (54). They are

$$\begin{split} d_{2} &= \beta^{2} \varGamma \left[\left(\sqrt{\left(\delta^{2} - \delta_{1}^{2}\right)\left(\delta^{2} + \delta_{2}^{2}\right)} - \delta^{2} \eta^{\mathrm{B}} \right)^{2} \\ &- \sqrt{\left(\delta^{2} - \delta_{1}^{2}\right)\left(\delta^{2} + \delta_{2}^{2}\right)} \left(\sqrt{\delta^{2} - \delta_{1}^{2}} + \sqrt{\delta^{2} + \delta_{2}^{2}} \right)^{2} \right] \\ &+ \frac{\delta^{4} (\eta^{\mathrm{A}})^{2}}{\beta^{2} \varGamma} - 2\delta^{4} \eta^{\mathrm{A}} \eta^{\mathrm{B}} + 2\sqrt{\left(\delta^{2} - \delta_{1}^{2}\right)\left(\delta^{2} + \delta_{2}^{2}\right)} \delta^{2} \eta^{\mathrm{A}} \\ &- \sqrt{\left(\delta^{2} + 1\right)\left(\delta^{2} - \delta_{1}^{2}\right)\left(\delta^{2} + \delta_{2}^{2}\right)} \left(\sqrt{\delta^{2} - \delta_{1}^{2}} + \sqrt{\delta^{2} + \delta_{2}^{2}} \right), \end{split}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} a_{1} &= \frac{\sqrt{2}\delta}{\beta^{2}\Gamma} \Biggl\{ \delta^{2} \left[-2\beta^{2}\Gamma \left(\sqrt{\delta^{2} - \delta_{1}^{2}} + \sqrt{\delta^{2} + \delta_{2}^{2}} - \eta^{B}\sqrt{\delta^{2} + 1} \right) - \sqrt{\delta^{2} + 1}(2\eta^{A} + 1) \right] \\ &- \beta^{2}\Gamma \Big[\sqrt{\delta^{2} - \delta_{1}^{2}}\delta_{2}^{2} + \sqrt{\delta^{2} - \delta_{1}^{2}} - \delta_{1}^{2}\sqrt{\delta^{2} + \delta_{2}^{2}} \\ &+ \sqrt{\delta^{2} + \delta_{2}^{2}} + 2\sqrt{(\delta^{2} + 1)\left(\delta^{2} - \delta_{1}^{2}\right)\left(\delta^{2} + \delta_{2}^{2}\right)} \Big] - \sqrt{\delta^{2} + 1} \Biggr\}. \end{aligned}$$

⁴⁵⁷ Naturally, in the special case $\Gamma \rightarrow 0$, we retrieve the result already obtained for Rayleigh waves ⁴⁵⁸ in [19].

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