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## Tuning heat transport in graphene by tension

H. Liu<sup>1,\*</sup>, M. Lee,<sup>2</sup> M. Šiškins,<sup>1,2</sup> H. S. J. van der Zant,<sup>2</sup> P. G. Steeneken<sup>1,2</sup>, and G. J. Verbiest<sup>1,†</sup>

<sup>1</sup>*Department of Precision and Microsystems Engineering, Delft University of Technology, Mekelweg 2, 2628 CD Delft, The Netherlands*

<sup>2</sup>*Kavli Institute of Nanoscience, Delft University of Technology, Lorentzweg 1, 2628 CJ Delft, The Netherlands*



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Heat transport by acoustic phonons in two-dimensional (2D) materials is fundamentally different from that in 3D crystals because the out-of-plane phonons propagate in a unique way that strongly depends on tension and bending rigidity. Here, using optomechanical techniques, we experimentally demonstrate that the heat transport time in freestanding graphene membranes is significantly higher than the theoretical prediction, and decreases by as much as 33% due to an electrostatically induced tension of 0.07 N/m. Using phonon scattering and Debye models, we explain these observations by the tension-enhanced acoustic impedance match of flexural phonons at the boundary of the graphene membrane. Thus, we experimentally elucidate the tunability of phononic heat transport in 2D materials by tension, and open a route towards electronic devices and circuits for high-speed control of temperature at the nanoscale.

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Although in most bulk materials the propagation speed of different types of acoustic phonons is of similar magnitude, the situation is vastly different in two-dimensional (2D) materials [1–5]. In these atomically thin materials, in-plane phonons have a constant propagation speed that is determined by the atomic bond stiffnesses, whereas out-of-plane flexural phonons exhibit a frequency-dependent speed that is determined by both in-plane strain and bending rigidity [6–9], such that flexural and in-plane phonon velocities can differ by more than an order of magnitude. Initial studies suggested that flexural phonons provide the dominant pathway for heat transport and storage in 2D materials [10,11], however, it has been difficult to experimentally separate flexural and in-plane phonon contributions.

Evidence for the importance of speed differences on the phononic heat transport in 2D materials was provided by a theoretical analysis [12] and by the experimental observation of two distinct thermal time constants in graphene membranes, of which the longest,  $\tau$ , is a probe for studying heat transport by the relatively slow flexural phonons [13–17]. To understand heat propagation via these different in-plane and out-of-plane phononic channels in 2D materials, studies of the role of flexural phonons are essential. Yet, unlike the lattice thermal conductivity of 2D materials, which has been well characterized by Raman microscopy [18,19], a microscopic picture of how the rate of heat transport is related to the properties of flexural phonons remains elusive, as it requires a methodology for measuring their effect on temperature variations in suspended 2D materials with nanosecond resolution.

In this Letter, we demonstrate that heat flow in graphene can be tuned by tension using an optothermomechanical method to experimentally characterize heat transport in

graphene drum resonators with nanosecond resolution. We control the tension by an electrostatic force induced by a voltage  $V_g$  on a gate underneath the graphene drum. Using an optothermal drive, we actuate the graphene drum resonators [20]. From the mechanical resonance frequency  $\omega_0/(2\pi)$  ( $>10$  MHz) as a function of  $V_g$ , we determine the in-plane tension and effective mass of the drum, and from the mechanical response at low frequencies ( $<1$  MHz), we extract the thermal time constant  $\tau$  of the resonators that describes the time for heat propagating from the center to the boundary of the membrane. To explain the observed tension dependence of  $\tau$ , we combine the Debye model for phononic heat transport with a boundary scattering model that describes acoustic phonon reflection and transmission at the edge of the graphene drum. From this analysis it follows that heat transport mainly depends on tension due to its effect on the acoustic impedance match between the flexural phonons on the suspended and supported part of membrane.

Four graphene drum resonators, devices D1–D4, are measured to study the effect of tension on heat transport, as shown in Figs. 1(a) and 1(b). The surface profile measured by atomic force microscopy indicates an initial downward deflection of the membrane, resulting from sidewall adhesion at the edge of the membrane [21] [see Fig. 1(c)]. We measure the motion of the resonators using the interferometer depicted in Fig. 1(d). By exciting the membrane with a modulated blue laser, while interferometrically detecting its motion, the frequency response of the devices is determined and used to characterize both the mechanical and thermal parameters of the devices. Figure 1(e) shows the measured motion amplitude  $z_\omega$  of device D1 at  $V_g = 0$  V over the frequency range from 0.1 to 100 MHz. We extract  $\omega_0/(2\pi)$  and quality factor  $Q$  of the device by fitting the measured data to a harmonic oscillator model [Fig. 1(f)]. For device D1 this results in  $\omega_0/(2\pi) = 25.49$  MHz and  $Q = 43.25$ . The average quality factor of the four devices at room temperature is  $Q = 36.5 \pm 8.4$ , which

\*H.Liu-7@tudelft.nl

†G.J.Verbiest@tudelft.nl

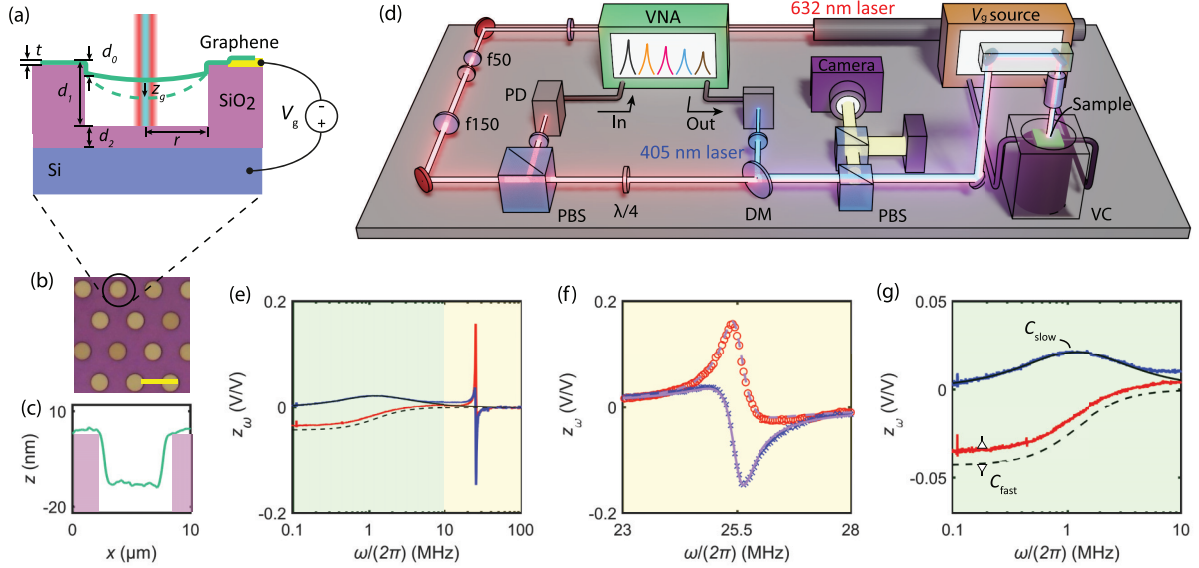


FIG. 1. Graphene membrane characterization. (a) Schematic of a graphene drum of radius  $r$  over a cavity of depth  $d_1$  in a  $\text{SiO}_2/\text{Si}$  substrate irradiated by lasers. The graphene has a sidewall of length  $d_0$  into the cavity. The voltage  $V_g$  pulls the drum down by  $z_g$ , increasing its tension. (b) Optical image of the drums with a scale bar of  $10\ \mu\text{m}$ . (c) Atomic force microscope line trace over device D4 indicates a downward deformation of drum, originating a kink at the boundary. Note the different units for  $x$  and  $z$  on the axis. (d) Interferometric setup. The sample is placed inside a vacuum chamber (VC). The blue (405 nm) laser is intensity modulated by a vector network analyzer (VNA) to actuate the resonator. Intensity variations of the reflected red (633 nm) laser caused by resonator motion, are measured by a photodiode (PD) and recorded with the VNA. PBS: polarized beam splitter; DM: dichroic mirror. (e) Frequency response of device D1, including real (red) and imaginary (blue) parts of the motion  $z_\omega$ . (f) Fits of  $z_\omega/(2\pi)$  (lines) to Eq. (1) to obtain  $\omega_0$ . (g) Fits of Eq. (1) to  $z_\omega$  near the thermal peak (black solid and dashed lines) provide  $\tau$ ,  $C_{\text{fast}}$ , and  $C_{\text{slow}}$  of the resonator.

is comparable to literature values [22,23]. Around 1 MHz, we observe an additional broad signal in the imaginary part of the frequency response [Fig. 1(g)]. This signal is associated [20] with the frequency-dependent optothermal force  $F_{\text{th},\omega}$  on the resonator, because it is only present when driving the membrane optothermally. Following literature [13], far below mechanical resonance, the displacement  $z_\omega = F_{\text{th},\omega}/k$  is proportional to the effective thermal expansion force  $F_{\text{th},\omega}$  that is delayed with respect to the laser power  $P(t) = P_{\text{ac}}e^{i\omega t}$  as a consequence of the time  $\tau$  it takes to increase the membrane temperature by laser heating. As shown by the fits in Fig. 1(g), the low-frequency  $z_\omega$  is given by

$$z_\omega = \frac{C_{\text{slow}}}{1 + i\omega\tau} + C_{\text{fast}}, \quad (1)$$

where  $C_{\text{slow}}$  and  $C_{\text{fast}}$  are the normalized thermal expansion amplitudes contributed from out-of-plane and in-plane phonons, respectively [13]. We extract these parameters by fitting Eq. (1) to the real and imaginary parts of the measured  $z_\omega$ , as depicted in Fig. 1(g). Here, the peak in the imaginary part of  $z_\omega$  is located at 1.23 MHz, corresponding to  $\tau = (2\pi \times 1.23\ \text{MHz})^{-1} = 129\ \text{ns}$ . We checked the laser power dependence and verified that it has no significant effect on the measured value of  $\tau$  (see Figs. S1(a) and S1(b) in [24]).

By applying  $V_g$  on graphene drum resonators, we observe a clear change in both the measured  $\omega_0/(2\pi)$  and  $\tau$  (see Fig. 2).  $V_g$  generates an electrostatic force, pulling the drum down and thereby increasing tension. Figure 2(a) shows plots of  $\omega_0/(2\pi)$  against  $V_g$  for all devices from  $-4$  to  $4\ \text{V}$ . The typical W-shaped curves show both electrostatic softening

and tension hardening, as often observed in electrostatic gate tuning of graphene membranes [22]. The observed values of  $\tau$ , of all above 75 ns, are significantly higher than the value of  $\tau \approx 2\ \text{ns}$  obtained from the theoretical expression  $\tau = r^2 \rho_g c_p / (2k)$ , that follows from solving the heat equation for a perfect circular graphene membrane [37] for typical values of specific heat  $c_p$  and thermal conductivity  $k$ . Interestingly, it

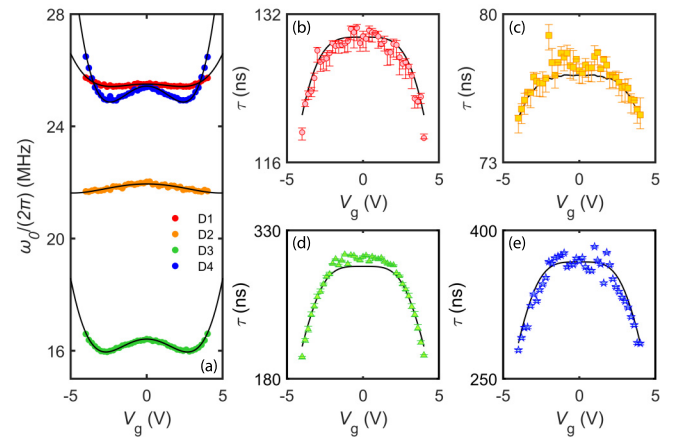


FIG. 2. Tuning thermodynamic properties of graphene drum devices with gate voltage. (a) Solid dots:  $\omega_0$  vs  $V_g$  measured in devices D1–D4; drawn lines: fits based on Eq. (2). (b)–(e) Points:  $\tau$  vs  $V_g$  measured in devices D1–D4, respectively; solid lines: fits to data using the Debye and scattering models; error bars are from the fits to the measured thermal signals as plotted in Fig. 1(g).

is also shown here that  $\tau$  reduces by as much as 33% when the tension in the membrane is increased by  $V_g$  [Figs. 2(b)–2(d)]. This  $n$ -dependent decrease in  $\tau$  is unexpected from the heat equation, because recent studies show that  $c_p$  increases [38] while  $k$  decreases [39,40] as the tension in graphene increases, from which one would expect  $\tau$  to increase at higher  $n$ , precisely opposite to our experimental observations.

To shed light on the obtained large magnitude of  $\tau$  and its negative dependence on  $V_g$ -induced tension in Figs. 2(b)–2(e), we first quantify  $n$  in the drum. Following literature [22], we model  $\omega_0/(2\pi)$  tuning of the drum resonator by continuum mechanics,

$$\omega_0(V_g) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{m_{\text{eff}}} \left[ \frac{2\pi E t s_0}{1 - \nu^2} + \frac{8\pi E t}{(1 - \nu^2)r^2} z_g^2 - \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 C_g}{\partial z_g^2} V_g^2 \right]}, \quad (2)$$

in which  $s_0$  is the built-in strain,  $m_{\text{eff}}$  is the modal mass of the fundamental mode of the circular membrane resonator with a theoretical value  $m_{\text{eff,th}} = 0.271\pi r^2 \rho_g$  where  $\rho_g$  is the mass density of double-layer graphene,  $C_g$  is the capacitance between membrane and bottom gate, and the second derivative  $\frac{\partial^2 C_g}{\partial z_g^2}$  quantifies the electrostatic softening. The 2D Young's modulus  $Et \approx 175.39$  N/m on average and the Poisson ratio  $\nu = 0.16$  were determined via atomic force microscopy (AFM) indentation [41] [see Supplemental Material (SM) Sec. 1 [24]]. The center deflection  $z_g$  can be expressed [42] as  $\varepsilon_0 r^2 V_g^2 / (8g_0^2 n_0)$ , where  $n_0 = Et s_0 / (1 - \nu)$  is the pretension,  $\varepsilon_0$  is the permittivity of vacuum, and  $g_0 = d_1 + d_2 / \varepsilon_{\text{SiO}_2} - d_0$  is the effective gap between the drum and the electrostatic gate. We fit the measured  $V_g$  dependence of  $\omega_0$  by Eq. (2) [black lines in Fig. 2(a)] to extract the fit parameters  $n_0$ ,  $m_{\text{eff}}$ , and  $\frac{\partial^2 C_g}{\partial z_g^2}$  for each device (listed in Table S1 [24]). The extracted initial tension  $n_0$  for all devices ranges from 0.18 to 0.34 N/m, which corresponds to typical literature values reported for graphene membranes [22,42–44]. We attribute the variation in shapes of  $\omega_0/(2\pi)$  vs  $V_g$  among devices D1–D4 to the different  $n_0$  and  $m_{\text{eff}}$  of the membranes [22]. The good quality of the fits with Eq. (2) in Fig. 2(a) (drawn lines) allows us to use the obtained fit parameters to extract the membrane deflection  $z_g$  at all  $V_g$ . By using the equation [22]  $n = n_0(1 + 4z_g^2/r^2)$ , we obtain the corresponding membrane tension  $n(V_g)$ .

Since the classical heat equation clearly does not suffice to account for the observed  $\tau$  and its tension dependence, we now will use a phonon scattering model to assess the transient thermal conduction in the membrane [12]. This model assumes that the in-plane and out-of-plane phonon baths are decoupled from each other except from the scattering at the boundary. Moreover, we neglect any heat transport through polymer residues left over after fabrication as its thermal conductivity (0.2 W/mK) is much lower than that of graphene (>1000 W/mK) [18,45]. The kink at the membrane edge [Fig. 1(c)] is the main source of  $n$ -dependent phonon scattering [46] (see Fig. S2 [24]) and results in the following expression for  $\tau$ ,

$$\tau = \frac{r}{2c_z \sum_j \bar{w}_{1z \rightarrow 2j}}, \quad j = l, t, z, \quad (3)$$

in which the transmission rate  $\bar{w}_{1z \rightarrow 2j}$  is the probability that a flexural phonon on the suspended part of the graphene (subscript 1) is transmitted across the membrane edge and becomes a phonon of type  $j$  on the supported part of the graphene (subscript 2), where  $j$  can either be a flexural phonon ( $j = z$ ), or a longitudinal or transverse in-plane phonon ( $j = l, t$ ).  $\bar{w}_{1z \rightarrow 2j}$  depends both on  $n$  and on the speed of sound  $c_z$  of flexural phonons (see SM Sec. 2 [24]). Due to the scattering at the edge of the membrane, the calculated magnitude of  $\bar{w}_{1z \rightarrow 2j}$  is much lower than 1, which results in a value of  $\tau$  that is much larger than the value  $\tau = r^2 \rho_g c_p / (2k)$  in the absence of scattering. This scattering is a kind of Kapitza thermal boundary resistance [47] and thus potentially accounts for the large value of  $\tau$  observed in our fabricated graphene resonators [Figs. 2(b)–2(e)]. We also calculated the contribution of in-plane phonons to  $\tau$  using the scattering model and found that it is much smaller than the contribution of flexural phonons (see SM Sec. 2 [24]). Therefore, we only consider the incidence of flexural phonons in Eq. (3).

Heat is transported by phonons of many different frequencies, while  $\bar{w}_{1z \rightarrow 2j}$  depends on the speed of these phonons. Therefore, to analyze the effect of tension on heat transport, the dispersion relation for flexural phonons is needed, which is given [48] by  $\omega_q = \sqrt{(\kappa q^4 + nq^2)/(\eta \rho_g)}$ , where  $q$  is the wave number,  $\kappa$  is the bending rigidity of the membrane, and  $\eta = m_{\text{eff}} / (0.271\pi r^2 \rho_g)$  is the normalized areal density of the membrane (listed in Table S1 for all devices [24]). This dispersion relation is in line with the results of studies from first principles (from the  $\Gamma$  to  $K$  point) [49], from which the speed of sound for flexural phonons is found using  $c_z = \frac{\partial \omega_q}{\partial q}$ .

We now theoretically estimate the thermal time constant of graphene drum resonators. In practice, flexural phonons over a large frequency span, ranging up to the Debye frequency  $\omega_{qd}$ , will contribute to  $\tau$ . Note that the frequency of flexural phonons is much larger than that of  $1/\tau$ , since  $\tau$  describes the timescale of thermal expansion of the entire membrane. To account for this [see the flow chart in Fig. S6(a) [24]], we analyze the heat transport contribution for every  $q$  using the tension-dependent phonon speed  $c_z(\omega_q, n)$  and determine the thermal time constant for phonons of that wave number  $\tau(\omega_q, n)$  using Eq. (3). Then, we use the Bose-Einstein distribution to determine the expected phonon energy density via the specific heat spectral density  $C_{v,\omega}^z(\omega_q, n)$  of flexural phonons of a certain  $q$  (Debye model). The detailed expression of  $C_{v,\omega}^z(\omega_q, n)$  can be found in Eq. (S2) [24]. Finally, we take a weighted integral over the contributions of all flexural phonons to determine  $\tau(n)$  using  $1/\tau(n) = \int_0^{\omega_{qd}} C_{v,\omega}^z(\omega_q, n) / [C_v^z(n) \tau(\omega_q, n)] d\omega_q$ , where the total specific heat due to flexural phonons is determined using  $C_v^z(n) = \int_0^{\omega_{qd}} C_{v,\omega}^z(\omega_q, n) d\omega_q$  [48,50]. More details about the phononic scattering and Debye models can be found in SM Secs. 3 and 4 [24].

The obtained function  $\tau(n)$  is fit to the experimental data in Figs. 2(b)–2(e), obtaining good agreement between fit and experiments for all four devices, using  $\kappa$  as the only fit parameter. All other model parameters are determined independently from measurements. The fitted values of  $\kappa$  vary over a range from 0.6 to 9.4 eV, which is similar to values reported in the literature [51,52]. Although the exact

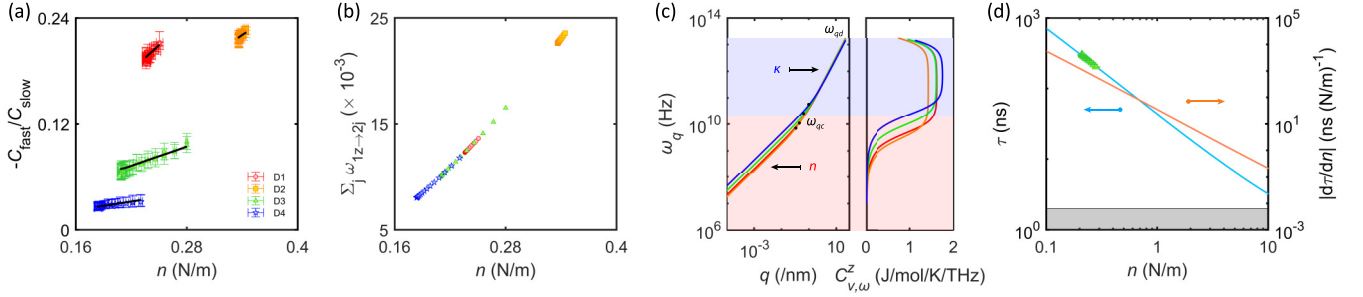


FIG. 3. Analysis and experimental demonstration on tunable heat transport in graphene drum resonators. (a) Ratio of normalized thermal expansion amplitudes  $|C_{\text{fast}}/C_{\text{slow}}|$  vs tension  $n$ . Points: the measurements; solid lines: the modeled estimates. (b)  $\sum_j \bar{w}_{1z \rightarrow 2j}$  ( $j = l, t, z$ ) of flexural phonons for devices D1–D4 as  $c_z = 575$  m/s, indicating the tension-enlarged impedance matching of acoustic phonons at the boundary of membrane. This tunability is the same for all-frequency phonons with different  $c_z$ . (c) Left panel: calculated  $\omega_q(q)$  for devices D1–D4.  $\omega_q(q)$  is dominated by  $n$  in the  $\sim$ MHz regime (red shadow) and dominated by  $\kappa$  in the  $\sim$ THz regime (blue shadow), respectively, while the crossover frequency  $\omega_{qc}$  is located at the  $\sim$ GHz regime. Right panel:  $C_{v,\omega}^z$  for all devices. (d) Tunable  $\tau$  with  $n$  varying from 0.1 to 10 N/m, using device D3 as an example. Green points: the measured  $\tau$  vs  $n$  for device D3; blue line: estimated  $\tau$  by the scattering model; red line: tension tunability  $|d\tau/dn|$ ; gray region: the estimation of  $\tau$  using  $r^2 \rho_g c_p / (2k)$ .

mechanism behind these bending rigidity variations remains unclear, we observe in Fig. S6(b) that  $\kappa$  increases with  $\eta$  of the membranes [24], potentially indicating that polymer residues do not only affect the mass of the membrane, but also play an important role in the heat transport by increasing the membrane's bending rigidity.

To analyze the main mechanism by which  $n$  can reduce  $\tau$  in graphene resonator, we investigate three different ways: via  $c_z(n, \omega_q)$ , via  $C_{v,\omega}^z(n, \omega_q)$ , and via  $\bar{w}_{1z \rightarrow 2j}$ . Since  $n$  mainly affects the dispersion relation of low-frequency (MHz) phonons, the direct impact of  $n$  on  $\tau$  via the first two paths is relatively small [see Figs. S7(f) and S7(i) in SM [24]]. Therefore, the observed decrease of  $\tau$  in Figs. 2(b)–2(e) is mainly attributed to the  $n$ -induced increase in  $\sum_j \bar{w}_{1z \rightarrow 2j}$ , as plotted in Fig. 3(b). Specifically, we see the wave amplitudes  $|u_{2j}|$  of all three transmitted modes increase with  $n$  [Fig. S2(b)], indicating an enhanced impedance matching of acoustic phonons between the suspended and supported part of the membrane.

Besides  $\tau$ , the normalized thermal expansion amplitudes  $C_{\text{fast}}$  and  $C_{\text{slow}}$  in Eq. (1) can provide us with more information on the heat flow. We attribute the opposite signs of  $C_{\text{fast}}$  and  $C_{\text{slow}}$  in the measurements to the opposite signs of the Grüneisen parameters for the in-plane and out-of-plane phonon modes. Here, we will use them to analyze the relative contributions of the in-plane and flexural phonons to the thermal expansion force [13], and also show that the tension dependence of these amplitudes  $C_{\text{fast}}$  and  $C_{\text{slow}}$  agrees well to the presented model. From the low-frequency fits of  $z_\omega$  [see Fig. 1(g)], we determine the tension dependence of  $C_{\text{fast}}$  and  $C_{\text{slow}}$  in Eq. (1). Because the thermal expansion amplitude is proportional to the temperature increase, the measured ratio  $|C_{\text{fast}}/C_{\text{slow}}|$  is approximately proportional to the relative temperature increase of both phonon baths [13]. Qualitatively, the  $n$ -enhanced  $c_z$  will reduce the edge scattering rate according to Eq. (3), and therefore increases the cooling rate of the flexural phonon bath. As a consequence, the temperature increase of that phonon bath and  $C_{\text{slow}}$  decrease [7], which leads to an increase of the ratio  $|C_{\text{fast}}/C_{\text{slow}}|$  with  $n$  as observed in Fig. 3(a). Also shown in Fig. 3(a) (lines), our model also accurately

captures the relation between  $n$  and  $|C_{\text{fast}}/C_{\text{slow}}|$  for all devices (see more details in SM Sec. 5 [24]).

We now turn to Fig. 3(c) to get more insight in the tension tuning mechanism of  $\tau$ . For high-frequency ( $\sim$ THz) flexural phonons [blue shadow, Fig. 3(c)],  $\kappa$  dominates  $\omega_q(q)$  for all devices D1–D4 [Fig. 3(c), left panel], and thus  $C_{v,\omega}^z(\omega_q)$  also shows significant device-to-device variations [Fig. 3(c), right panel] which is responsible for the measured variations in  $\tau$ . More details about how  $\kappa$  and  $\eta$  affect  $\omega_q(q)$  and  $C_{v,\omega}^z(\omega_q)$  can be found in SM Sec. 4 [24]. On the other hand, for low-frequency ( $\sim$ MHz) flexural phonons [red shadow, Fig. 3(c)], the situation is completely different. The resonance frequency of the graphene membranes can be understood as a standing wave of flexural acoustic phonons and is thus proportional to the ratio  $c_z \propto \sqrt{n/\eta}$  and the membrane radius, such that  $\kappa$  does not play an important role.  $c_z$  is thus fully determined by  $n$  and  $\eta$ , in line with experimental graphene resonators reported in the literature [22]. We estimate the crossover frequency  $\omega_{qc}$  where the phonon dispersion  $\omega_q(q)$  makes the transition from the tension  $n$ -dominated to  $\kappa$ -dominated regime, at around 13.5, 8.4, 27.7, and 67.3 GHz for devices D1–D4, respectively [see Fig. 3(c)].

The measured parameters (listed in Table S1 [24]) allow us to model the phonon dispersion and specific heat spectral density in Fig. 3(c) over the wide frequency range from the MHz to the THz regime. Let us discuss how this results in the tunability of the heat transport using Fig. 3(d). As  $n$  increases from 0.1 to 10 N/m,  $\tau$  decreases from  $\sim 1$   $\mu$ s to less than 4 ns (blue line), while the tunability  $|d\tau/dn|$  also decreases significantly (orange line). In such a wide tuning of  $n$ , the tunability of heat transport is attributed not only to the increase of the transmission rate  $\bar{w}_{1z \rightarrow 2j}$  of flexural phonons, but also to the increased speed of sound [ $c_z \approx \sqrt{n/(\eta \rho_g)}$  for  $n \gg \kappa q^2$ ] and the change of  $C_{v,\omega}^z(n, \omega_q)$ . The low  $\tau$  ( $\sim 2$  ns at  $n = 10$  N/m) under high tension is comparable to its value obtained from the heat equation  $r^2 \rho_g c_p / (2k)$ , demonstrating that at high tension, the heat flow rate from the center to the boundary of the membrane [20,23] [gray region, Fig. 3(d)] sets a lower limit on the acoustic phonon transport rate, whereas at low

tension the boundary scattering determines the upper limit. Understanding these limits on the tension tunability of heat transport is important for proposed applications in the field of 2D phononics, such as switchable thermal transistors, ultrasensitive thermal logic gates, and reconfigurable phononic memories [53,54].

To conclude, we measured the thermal time constant that governs nanosecond-scale heat transport in suspended graphene drums and presented experimental evidence for its tunability via gate-controlled in-plane tension. Using a Debye model that captures the scattering of acoustic phonons at the membrane edge, we present a microscopic picture of heat transport in suspended graphene membranes, where bending rigidity and tension dominate the flexural dispersion relation for THz and MHz frequency phonons, respectively. Tension is responsible for tuning the transmission rate of

flexural phonons from the suspended to the supported part of the graphene. The gained insight not only advances our fundamental understanding of acoustic phonons in 2D materials, but also enables pathways for controlled and optimized thermal management in 2D-based phononic, thermoelectric, electronic, and quantum devices, as well as in 2D sensing applications such as a nanoelectromechanical system (NEMS).

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