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Spatially complex localization after one-twist-per-wave equilibria in twisted circular rods with initial curvature

By A. R. Champneys¹, G. H. M. van der Heijden² and J. M. T. Thompson²

¹Department of Engineering Mathematics, University of Bristol, University Walk, Bristol BS8 1TR, UK ²Centre for Nonlinear Dynamics, University College London, Gower Street, London WC1E 6BT, UK

In experiments on long rubber rods subject to end tension and moment, a one-twistper-wave deformation is often observed on the fundamental path prior to the onset of localized buckling. An analysis is undertaken here to account for this observed behaviour. First we derive general equilibrium equations using the Cosserat theory, incorporating the effects of non-symmetric cross-section, shear deformation, gravity and a uniform initial curvature of the unstressed rod. Each of these effects in turn can be expressed as a perturbation of the classical completely integrable Kirchhoff–Love differential equations which are equivalent to those describing a spinning symmetric top. Non-symmetric cross-section was dealt with in earlier papers. Here, after demonstrating that shear deformation alone makes little qualitative difference, the case of initial curvature is examined in some detail.

It is shown that the straight configuration of the rod is replaced by a one-twist-perwave equilibrium whose amplitude varies with pre-buckling load. Superimposed on this equilibrium is a localized buckling mode, which can be described as a homoclinic orbit to the new fundamental path. The dependence is measured of the pre-buckled state and critical buckling load on the amount of initial curvature. Numerical techniques are used to explore the multiplicity of localized buckling modes, given that non-zero initial curvature breaks the complete integrability of the differential equations, and also one of a pair of reversibilities.

Finally, the physical implications of the results are assessed and are shown to match qualitatively what is observed in an experiment.

1. Introduction

The torsional buckling of long rods subject to end moment and tension is a fundamental problem, with applications to DNA supercoiling and pipeline, cable and optical fibre kinking (see Thompson & Champneys 1996 and references therein). The mathematical modelling of such phenomena has a long history, going at least as far back as Kirchhoff (1859). See Antmann (1995, ch. VIII) and references therein for a modern account. In earlier work (Thompson & Champneys 1996; Champneys &

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Thompson 1996; van der Heijden *et al.* 1997; van der Heijden & Thompson 1997) we considered the nature of buckling of a long initially straight rod with uniform crosssection subject to end moment M and tension T. Experiments and energy analysis suggested that a localized form of deformation was the preferred mode of buckling at the critical buckling load. This buckling load, for a perfect inextensible rod with symmetric cross-section, is given by the simple dimensionless condition

$$m = m_{\rm c} = 2$$
, where $m := M/\sqrt{BT}$, (1.1)

and B is the bending stiffness (Timoshenko & Gere 1961, equation 2–74).

For moderately large deflection (so that the buckled rod does not have a non-trivial contact with itself) the spatial equilibrium of a rod is described (with one caveat, see below) by the Kirchhoff-Love, or more generally the Cosserat, theory of rods (see $\S2$ below for the details). Here the rod is described by arclength along its centre line and three directors which are aligned along the rod's principal axes of inertia. This leads to a system of ordinary differential equations for the contact forces and moments in the arclength-dependent coordinate basis described by the directors. It was Kirchhoff (1859) who noticed that the equilibrium equations for infinitely long symmetric rods have identical form to the classical completely integrable system describing the dynamics of a symmetric spinning top. At the buckling load, the differential equations undergo a Hamiltonian–Hopf bifurcation (van der Meer 1985; Iooss & Pérouème 1993), included in the normal form of which is a homoclinic solution. This solution represents a localized helical deformation that tends asymptotically to the flat unbuckled equilibrium state of the rod. That the two end states must be physically aligned was not made clear in our previous work, but is a subtle property of the structure of the underlying equations (see Kehrbaum & Maddocks, this volume).

The situation is more complex, however, for rods without circular cross-section more precisely for rods whose principal bending stiffness about two orthogonal planes are not equal—because the complete integrability of the differential equations is broken. For mildly anisotropic rods, this leads to spatial chaos in the differential equations and, more importantly to the problem of interest here, to an infinite multiplicity of multi-modal localized buckling paths (Mielke & Holmes 1988; Champneys & Thompson 1996; van der Heijden *et al.* 1997) existing right up to the buckling state. For strongly anisotropic rods with certain physical properties (sufficiently low Poisson's ratio, for example), a transition occurs to different buckling behaviour, with localized buckling being 'locked-on to tape-like behaviour' (van der Heijden & Thompson 1997), and multi-modal solutions only existing in a region of parameter space bounded away from the buckling state.

Qualitative experiments on circular and square cross-section rubber rods reported in Champneys & Thompson (1996) agree well with the theory, but with one caveat (see Thompson & Champneys (1996), figures 4 and 6 and also figures 12 and 13 in § 5 below). Prior to buckling a marked spatially periodic helical deformation is observed, on top of which at the critical load the localized buckling mode is superimposed. The characteristics of the observed pre-buckled and post-buckled helical deformations are quite distinct. The pre-buckled state has one twist per wave whereas the buckling mode has approximately three twists per wave.

The aim of this paper is to analyse an effect that is responsible for such a prebuckled one-twist-per-wave deformation. Effects missing from our earlier analysis were: the effect of gravity (most experiments were carried out with the specimen

held horizontally, often seen to hang in a shallow catenary); shear deformation (the rod was assumed to be inextensible and transversely unshearable in the analysis inextensibility is clearly violated for the observations made under rigid loading); and initial curvature of the rod in its unstressed state (a permanent deformation caused by the fact that most specimens are stored in loosely wound coils). It is interesting to note the observation mentioned briefly in Thompson & Champneys (1996, § 6) that the one-twist-per-wave mode was not observed in neutral-buoyancy under-water tests on rubber rods that had been cast in a rectangular trough and hence had no initial curvature.

The rest of the paper is outlined as follows. In §2, we review the Cosserat theory of rods applied to the current problem and use it to derive non-dimensional equilibrium equations for infinite rods subject to shear deformation and gravity, and having initial curvature and not necessarily symmetric cross-section. Each of these four effects can be treated as perturbations of the underlying 'perfect' problem. Our programme of work is to treat each perturbation separately. Non-symmetric cross-section was treated in earlier work and gravity will be left for future work. The main thrust of the present work will be to treat initial curvature.

In §3 we review the unperturbed problem and use it to explain the numerical methods which will be used in the following. Also in §3, the introduction of shear deformation alone is shown to make little difference to what is observed.

Section 4 contains the analysis of the effects of initial curvature. First, it is shown that the fundamental flat state is replaced by a new spatially homogeneous state in the arclength-dependent coordinates. It is then shown explicitly that this state has one twist per wave when interpreted physically and the amplitude and end-shortening associated with it are computed as a function of the strength of initial curvature κ_0 . Next, a linearization about this state reveals the new critical buckling load, replacing (1.1) as a function, $m(\kappa_0)$, of the initial curvature. Finally, numerical methods are used to compute localized buckling modes superimposed on the one-twist-per-wave equilibria. Initial curvature, like non-symmetric cross-section, is again demonstrated to imply an infinity of post-buckling modes.

Section 5 draws conclusions and considers some physical implications of the results. We also present some experimental results. These confirm the finding of this paper, that a circular rod with initial curvature, when twisted, does indeed form one-twist-per-wave pre-buckling equilibria in which bending is in the direction of the unstressed curvature.

2. Equilibrium equations

(a) The Cosserat theory

Consider the formulation of equilibrium equations for a rod that can undergo flexure, tension, extension and shear as elucidated in Antman (1995, ch. VIII). We are interested in the case of an infinite rod, so we begin by choosing an origin for an arclength coordinate s and define $\mathbf{r}(s)$ to be the position vector of the centre line of the rod with respect to a fixed Cartesian coordinate system with basis vectors $\{i, j, k\}$. The configuration of the rod in a deformed state is then defined by $\mathbf{r}(s)$, and two orthonormal vectors $\mathbf{d}_1(s)$ and $\mathbf{d}_2(s)$ which define the position of two orthogonal lines in the cross-section of the rod at s. In the case where the rod is straight and prismatic when unstrained, with its centre line aligned along the z-axis, we may regard $\mathbf{d}_{1,2}(s)$ as defining the deformed position of the material originally aligned

along the x- and y-axes, respectively. Upon setting

$$\boldsymbol{d}_3 := \boldsymbol{d}_1 \times \boldsymbol{d}_2,$$

the triple $\{d_1(s), d_2(s), d_3(s)\}$ defines a moving rod-centred coordinate system, called the *directors* of the rod. Note that in the presence of shear, in general $d_3(s) \neq r'(s)$, where the prime denotes differentiation with respect to arclength. Henceforth all vectors are expressed with respect to the moving basis $\{d_1, d_2, d_3\}$, unless otherwise stated.

The *stress* in the rod is defined by

$$n(s) = n_1 d_1 + n_2 d_2 + n_3 d_3$$
 and $m(s) = m_1 d_1 + m_2 d_2 + m_3 d_3$,

which are, respectively, the contact force and couple exerted by the material parametrized by $\tilde{s} < s$ on that parametrized by $\tilde{s} > s$. Here $n_{1,2}$ are shear forces, n_3 is tension, $m_{1,2}$ are bending moments about the axes $d_{1,2}$ and m_3 is the twisting moment about d_3 .

The strain of the rod is defined by two vectors

$$u(s) = u_1 d_1 + u_2 d_2 + u_3 d_3$$
 and $v(s) = v_1 d_1 + v_2 d_2 + v_3 d_3$,

defined by

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$$d'_i = \boldsymbol{u} \times \boldsymbol{d}_i, \quad i = 1, 2, 3, \quad \text{and} \quad \boldsymbol{r}' = \boldsymbol{v}.$$
 (2.1)

Here, u_1 and u_2 measure the flexure, u_3 measures torsion, v_1 and v_2 measure transverse shear and v_3 measures dilation or axial extension. Note that if the rod were unshearable and inextensible, then $v = d_3$. It is thus reasonable to redefine the shear vector as

 $v = d_3 + y$

(cf. Antman 1995, equation VIII.15.13), where \boldsymbol{y} is small in a sense to be made precise in the non-dimensionalization to follow.

Balancing forces and moments leads to the following equilibrium equations

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{n}}{\mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{s}} + \boldsymbol{f} = 0, \qquad (2.2)$$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{m}}{\mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{s}} + \boldsymbol{r}' \times \boldsymbol{n} + \boldsymbol{l} = 0, \qquad (2.3)$$

where f and l are distributed external forces and couples acting on the rod along its length. The only body force or couple we shall be interested in is gravity. Therefore, we take in (2.2) and (2.3)

$$\boldsymbol{l} = \boldsymbol{0} \quad \text{and} \quad \boldsymbol{f} = -Dg\boldsymbol{k}, \tag{2.4}$$

where D is the density (per unit original arclength) of the cross-section and g is the acceleration due to gravity. Note that (2.4) assumes that the k axis points vertically upwards.

The differentials on the left-hand side of (2.2) and (2.3) represent the total derivative with respect to arclength which is related to the derivative with respect to sin the moving coordinate frame (which is denoted by a prime) with the addition of terms which describe the derivative of the coordinate frame with respect to s. For

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example,

$$\frac{d\mathbf{n}}{ds} = \frac{d}{ds}(n_1d_1 + n_2d_2 + n_3d_3)
= (n'_1d_1 + n'_2d_2 + n'_3d_3) + (n_1d'_1 + n_2d'_2 + n_3d'_3)
= \mathbf{n}' + (n_1\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{d}_1 + n_2\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{d}_2 + n_3\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{d}_3), \quad (by (2.1))
= \mathbf{n}' + \mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{n}.$$

Hence, using (2.1) and (2.4), (2.2) and (2.3) become

$$\boldsymbol{n}' = \boldsymbol{n} \times \boldsymbol{u} + Dg\boldsymbol{k},\tag{2.5}$$

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$$\boldsymbol{m}' = \boldsymbol{m} \times \boldsymbol{u} + \boldsymbol{n} \times \boldsymbol{v}. \tag{2.6}$$

(b) Constitutive relations and boundary conditions

It remains to specify the curvatures u and shears v in terms of the contact forces nand couples m. These constitutive relations may take a quite general form (Antman 1995, equation (2.2)), but here we shall take the simplest linear constitutive relations allowing for the effects of initial curvature. There is evidence to suggest (Antman & Jordan 1974; Champneys & Thompson 1996) that physically realistic nonlinear constitutive laws make little qualitative difference to localized buckling. Specifically, we assume relations of the form

$$u_1(s) = u_0 + m_1(s)/A, \quad u_2(s) = m_2(s)/B, \quad u_3(s) = m_3(s)/C, \\ y_1(s) = n_1(s)/H, \quad y_2(s) = n_2(s)/J, \quad y_3(s) = n_3(s)/K.$$

$$(2.7)$$

Here, A and B are the principal bending stiffnesses about d_1 and d_2 , C is the torsional stiffness of the rod and u_0 is an assumed initial curvature of the rod, which without loss of generality we assume to occur about the d_1 axis. H and J are the transverse shear stiffnesses, and K is the axial stiffness.

Using (2.7) it is now possible to express (2.5) and (2.6) as a six-dimensional system of ordinary differential equations for m(s) and n(s). In order to solve this system, we must discuss its boundary conditions. In this work it is assumed that the rod is held with boundary conditions at infinity which supply a constant twisting moment M and tension T. For the time being, we consider these loads as fixed (either prefixed or control) parameters. In interpretation of solutions, however, one should allow for the possibility of rigid loading in which either or both of M or T are regarded as free parameters under controlled end rotation or end shortening. The boundary conditions for n and m must then satisfy

 $\sqrt{\boldsymbol{n}\cdots\boldsymbol{n}} \to T$, as $s \to \pm \infty$, $\sqrt{\boldsymbol{m}\cdots\boldsymbol{m}} \to M$, as $s \to \pm \infty$. (2.8)

Note that we do not put any constraint on the directions in which n and m are pointing. These will follow from the analysis.

(c) Non-dimensionalization and dynamical system formulation Equations (2.5) and (2.6) can be made dimensionless by setting

$$x_1 = n_1/T, \quad x_2 = n_2/T, \quad x_3 = n_3/T, \\ x_4 = m_1/M, \quad x_5 = m_2/M, \quad x_6 = m_3/M,$$

$$(2.9)$$

rescaling the axial length

$$t = (M/B)s, \tag{2.10}$$

and introducing the dimensionless parameters

$$m = M/\sqrt{BT}, \quad \rho = (B/A) - 1, \quad \nu = (B/C) - 1, \quad \kappa_0 = Au_0/M, \\ \sigma = (J/H) - 1, \quad \gamma = (J/K) - 1, \quad \epsilon = T/J, \quad \delta = DgB/(MT).$$

$$(2.11)$$

The parameter m is a single dimensionless load parameter, showing the equivalence (under dead loading) of increasing moment and reducing tension. ρ may be regarded as measuring the non-circularity of the cross-section of the rod. More precisely, $\rho = 0$ corresponds to the bending stiffnesses about the two principal axes being equal, which could also represent a square cross-section, for example. The parameter $\nu + 1$ measures the ratio of torsional stiffness to the greater principal bending stiffness (here we assume $B \ge A$ and hence $\rho \ge 0$). For solid rods with circular cross-section ν is equal to Poisson's ratio, with a typical physical value being $\nu = \frac{1}{3}$. For rods with anisotropic cross-section, however, it should be pointed out that ν no longer equals Poisson's ratio which is given by a certain combination of ν and ρ , depending on the geometry (van der Heijden & Thompson 1997). κ_0 is the dimensionless initial curvature, and σ and γ are the analogues of ρ and ν for the shear and extension coefficients. ϵ measures the relative importance of shear compared with bending and δ measures the relative strength of gravity compared with the applied loads.

Typically we think of ϵ , δ and κ_0 as small whereas $\rho + 1$, $\nu + 1$, $\sigma + 1$ and $\gamma + 1$ are all $\mathcal{O}(1)$. It is also reasonable to set $\rho = \sigma$, with both parameters measuring the degree of non-circularity of the cross-section.

Under the non-dimensionalization (2.9), (2.10) and (2.11), the equilibrium equations (2.5) and (2.6) become

$$\dot{x}_{1} = (1+\nu)x_{2}x_{6} - x_{3}x_{5} + \delta k_{1}(t),
\dot{x}_{2} = (1+\rho)x_{3}(x_{4}+\kappa_{0}) - (1+\nu)x_{1}x_{6} + \delta k_{2}(t),
\dot{x}_{3} = x_{1}x_{5} - (1+\rho)x_{2}(x_{4}+\kappa_{0}) + \delta k_{3}(t),
\dot{x}_{4} = \nu x_{5}x_{6} + (1/m^{2})[x_{2} + \epsilon \gamma x_{2}x_{3}],
\dot{x}_{5} = (1+\rho)(x_{4}+\kappa_{0})x_{6} - (1+\nu)x_{4}x_{6} + (1/m^{2})[\epsilon(\sigma-\gamma)x_{1}x_{3}-x_{1}],
\dot{x}_{6} = x_{4}x_{5} - (1+\rho)(x_{4}+\kappa_{0})x_{5} - (\epsilon/m^{2})\sigma x_{1}x_{2},$$

$$(2.12)$$

where (k_1, k_2, k_3) are the components of k with respect to $\{d_1, d_2, d_3\}$, and a dot denotes differentiation with respect to the scaled arclength t.

In the gravity-free case, $\delta = 0$ and (2.12), when regarded as an initial-value problem, represents an autonomous six-dimensional dynamical system

$$\dot{oldsymbol{x}}=oldsymbol{f}(oldsymbol{x},\lambda),\quadoldsymbol{x}\in\mathbb{R}^{6},\quad\lambda\in\mathbb{R}^{p},$$

with p the number of parameters considered to be controlled. It can be shown to be Hamiltonian with two independent integrals of the motion (Mielke & Holmes 1988). We are interested in solutions which are localized to some portion of the axial length. Hence we apply the homoclinic boundary conditions

$$\boldsymbol{x}(t) \to \boldsymbol{x}^*, \quad \text{as } t \to \pm \infty,$$
 (2.13)

where \boldsymbol{x}^* is a spatially homogeneous equilibrium position of the rod, that is $\boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x}^*, \lambda) = 0$, which is subject to the constraint imposed by the dimensionless version of (2.8),

$$\sqrt{x_1^{*2} + x_2^{*2} + x_3^{*2}} = 1, \quad \sqrt{x_4^{*2} + x_5^{*2} + x_6^{*2}} = 1.$$
(2.14)

In order to interpret solutions to (2.12), (2.13) as configurations of the rod in physical *Phil. Trans. R. Soc. Lond.* A (1997)

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coordinates, the twelve-dimensional system (2.1) must be solved for the i, j and k components of each d_i and r. The first nine of these equations are the Frenet–Serret equations of differential geometry. The dimensionless versions of (2.1) are

$$\boldsymbol{d}_{i} = \tilde{\boldsymbol{u}} \times \boldsymbol{d}_{i}, \quad i = 1, 2, 3, \text{ and } \tilde{\boldsymbol{r}} = \tilde{\boldsymbol{v}},$$

$$(2.15)$$

in which

$$\tilde{\boldsymbol{u}} = (1+\rho)(x_4+\kappa_0)\boldsymbol{d}_1 + x_5\boldsymbol{d}_2 + (1+\nu)x_6\boldsymbol{d}_3, \\ \tilde{\boldsymbol{v}} = \epsilon(1+\sigma)x_1\boldsymbol{d}_1 + \epsilon x_2\boldsymbol{d}_2 + (1+\epsilon(1+\gamma)x_3)\boldsymbol{d}_3, \quad \tilde{\boldsymbol{r}} = (M/B)\boldsymbol{r}.$$

These equations can be solved after a solution to (2.12) has been found. r and d_i are typically subject to initial conditions specifying the position and orientation of the rod at its left-hand endpoint, $t = -\infty$.

If gravity effects are included, then $\delta \neq 0$ and (2.12) can no longer be regarded in isolation, but must be solved in tandem with the equations for d_i in (2.15) in order to calculate k(t). Notice that k is obtained from the solution of (2.15) by forming the matrix

$$B = (\boldsymbol{d}_1 | \boldsymbol{d}_2 | \boldsymbol{d}_3)$$

and taking

$$\mathbf{k} = B^{-1}(0, 0, 1)^T.$$

We may consider each of the parameters $\rho (= \sigma)$, ϵ , κ_0 , δ as measuring the strength of perturbations to the 'perfect' symmetric unshearable initially straight rod in the absence of gravity. The case of non-symmetric rods, with $\epsilon = \delta = \kappa_0 = 0$, $\rho \neq 0$, was analysed in depth in Champneys & Thompson (1996), van der Heijden *et al.* (1997) and van der Heijden & Thompson (1997) to which we refer the reader for the details. For the rest of this paper we shall consider only rods with symmetric cross-section, $\rho = \sigma = 0$. Also, we shall not, here, analyse the effects of gravity, that is we set $\delta = 0$. The following section reviews the unperturbed case and then considers the effect of axial extensibility and transverse shear ($\epsilon \neq 0$). The bulk of our analysis, in §4, will be for a rod with curvature when unstrained ($\kappa_0 \neq 0$) with the other perturbations fixed at zero.

3. The unperturbed case

Consider (2.12) for $\rho = \epsilon = \kappa_0 = \delta = 0$. First, observe that the unperturbed system (and, indeed, the wider class of systems with $\rho \neq 0$) is invariant under the following two involutions:

$$R_1: \quad (x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5, x_6) \to (-x_1, x_2, x_3, -x_4, x_5, x_6), \quad t \to -t, \qquad (3.1)$$

$$R_2: \quad (x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5, x_6) \to (x_1, -x_2, x_3, x_4, -x_5, x_6), \quad t \to -t.$$
(3.2)

This will have implications for the multiplicity of homoclinic solutions. Next, the unperturbed system (2.12) is completely integrable with the following three independent 'constants of the motion':

$$I_1 := x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2 = \text{const.}, \tag{3.3}$$

$$I_2 := x_1 x_4 + x_2 x_5 + x_3 x_6 = \text{const.}, \tag{3.4}$$

$$I_3 := x_6 = \text{const.} \tag{3.5}$$

The integrals (3.3) and (3.4) correspond to the conservation along the axial length of the rod of the magnitude of force and the component of torque about the loading axis,

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respectively. (3.5) describes conservation of torque about the body (i.e. symmetry) axis of the rod. (Actually, the twisted rod equations are completely integrable for a much wider class of constitutive relations (see Antman 1995).)

Note that for given m, the only spatially homogeneous equilibrium solutions of (2.12) that satisfy the constraint (2.14) are $\boldsymbol{x} = (0, 0, \pm 1, 0, 0, \pm 1)$. We can ignore the solutions with minus signs because we are considering tension rather than compression and by convention of the direction in which we apply end moment. Therefore, we set

$$\boldsymbol{x}^* = (0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 1). \tag{3.6}$$

Linearizing about this equilibrium one finds that there are two zero eigenvalues corresponding to translations in the directions of m and n. Imposing (2.14), in effect, fixes this translation and, through (3.6), the values of the integrals (3.3), (3.4), (3.5) for the spatially homogeneous solution and its localized deformations. Examining the other four eigenvalues, the trivial equilibrium loses physical stability (four complex eigenvalues coalesce on the imaginary axis) as m is increased through the critical value m = 2. Here a Hamiltonian–Hopf bifurcation occurs (van der Meer 1985; Iooss & Pérouème 1993).

As a result of complete integrability, at the Hamiltonian–Hopf point we have the subcritical bifurcation of a manifold of localized buckling modes. Each solution in the manifold consists of a rigid rotation of a primary localized helix, that is a homoclinic solution of (2.12). The physical stability of these localized buckling modes under rigid loading was investigated in Thompson & Champneys (1996).

(a) Measuring twist

Before proceeding, let us first demonstrate how the Frenet–Serret and centre line differential equations (2.15) may be used to give the degree of twist about the central axis for a particular physical configuration. Specifically we demonstrate that when interpreted in dimensional coordinates, the trivial equilibrium (3.6) corresponds to a straight rod with the tension T and moment M being carried along the centre line of the rod. Taking $\boldsymbol{x} = \boldsymbol{x}^*$ given by (3.6), we find that (2.15) gives

$$\dot{d}_3 = 0, \quad \ddot{d}_1 = -(1+\nu)^2 d_1, \quad \dot{\tilde{r}} = \text{const.}$$
 (3.7)

Choosing initial conditions so that $d_3 = i$ is horizontal, and hence

$$\tilde{\boldsymbol{r}} = t\boldsymbol{i},\tag{3.8}$$

the second equation of (3.7) gives a rotation of the material of the rod about the horizontal with angular frequency (fundamental twist) $\tau = 1 + \nu$.

In contrast, the wavelength of the helical deformation at the critical buckling load can be obtained by linearizing about the the trivial solution at m = 2 (van der Heijden & Thompson 1997). This analysis uses a description of the rod in terms of Euler angles $\theta(s)$, $\psi(s)$ and $\phi(s)$ (see Love (1927), art. 253, for the definition of the angles defined using this notation). Along the trivial solution we have $\dot{\phi} = \frac{1}{2} + \nu$ while at buckling (i.e. $\theta = 0$), $\dot{\phi} + \dot{\psi} = \tau = 1 + \nu$. Hence, $\dot{\psi} = \frac{1}{2}$. Now, ψ is the azimuthal angle determining the wavelength of the helix. The number of twists per wave (tpw) can therefore be obtained as

$$tpw = \frac{\tau}{\dot{\psi}} = 2(1+\nu).$$
(3.9)

For rubber rods ($\nu \approx 0.5$) this gives the three twists per wave observed in experiments mentioned in §1 (see also §5 below).

(b) Numerical methods

Let us briefly outline how the numerical methods used in Champneys & Thompson (1996) and van der Heijden *et al.* (1997) can be adapted for the present setting. For homoclinic orbits to a fixed point we use the shooting method developed in Champneys & Spence (1993). Load–deflection-type bifurcation diagrams are subsequently obtained by continuation of these orbits as parameters are varied using the code AUTO (Doedel *et al.* 1991) for continuation of solutions to boundary-value problems.

This combined use of shooting and continuation is robust and was described in detail in earlier papers (see, for example, van der Heijden *et al.* 1997) to which the reader is referred for the details. We remark, however, that these methods typically truncate the problem to an approximation of half the rod ($t \in [0, \mathcal{T}]$, \mathcal{T} large), and only find solutions which are invariant under the reversibilities R_1 or R_2 . Non-symmetric homoclinic orbits may also be found with more effort, by shooting over an approximation to the full length of the rod ($t \in [-\mathcal{T}, \mathcal{T}]$).

In order to compute load-deflection diagrams for localized buckling modes it is necessary to also measure the end displacement D and end rotation R from the spatially homogeneous reference position. Once a well-posed solution to (2.12) has been found, we solve (2.15) subject to the initial conditions

 $\tilde{\boldsymbol{r}}(0) = (0,0,0), \quad \boldsymbol{d}_1(0) = (1,0,0), \quad \boldsymbol{d}_2(0) = (0,1,0), \quad \boldsymbol{d}_3(0) = (0,0,1).$ (3.10) The end displacement and end rotation can then be obtained as

 $D = \mathcal{T} - \tilde{r}_3(\mathcal{T}), \quad \cos R = \langle d_1(\mathcal{T}), (1, 0, 0) \rangle, \quad \sin R = \langle d_1(\mathcal{T}), (0, 1, 0) \rangle, \quad (3.11)$

provided $d_3(\mathcal{T})$ is sufficiently aligned with the initial direction $d_3(0) = (0, 0, 1)$. Although this alignment is not assured at the symmetric section, it is, for localized solutions, at the end points of the rod. Therefore, in applying (3.11) \mathcal{T} is taken to be the full length of the rod. (The case that end vectors do not line up because the fundamental configuration of the rod is not a straight one, as happens when the rod has initial curvature, can be easily accommodated; see §4*c*.) In (3.10) and (3.11) vectors are expressed with respect to the fixed frame $\{i, j, k\}$. Note that the angle *R* is only defined modulo 2π in (3.11). Continuity with respect to the arclength parameter *t*, however, will allow us to keep track of the number of full turns made by the end point.

(c) The effect of shear and extension

In this section we demonstrate that including the effect of shear alone makes little qualitative difference. To that end we take $\epsilon > 0$ in (2.12) while keeping $\rho = \sigma = \delta = \kappa_0 = 0$. First note that, as for the unperturbed equation, the only spatially homogeneous equilibrium that satisfies the constraint (2.14) is the trivial solution (3.6). Setting $\boldsymbol{x} = \boldsymbol{x}^* + \boldsymbol{z}$, one obtains

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{z}_1 &= (1+\nu)z_2(1+z_6) - (1+z_3)z_5, \\ \dot{z}_2 &= (1+z_3)z_4 - (1+\nu)z_1(1+z_6), \\ \dot{z}_3 &= z_1z_5 - z_2z_4, \\ \dot{z}_4 &= \nu z_5(1+z_6) + (1/m^2)[z_2 + \epsilon \gamma z_2(1+z_3)], \\ \dot{z}_5 &= -\nu z_4(1+z_6) + (1/m^2)[-\epsilon \gamma z_1(1+z_3) - z_1], \\ \dot{z}_6 &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

$$(3.12)$$

Here we note that the linear terms of (3.12) are identical to those when $\epsilon = 0$ provided $1/m^2$ is replaced by $(1 + \epsilon \gamma)/m^2$. Hence we conclude that the local bifurcation

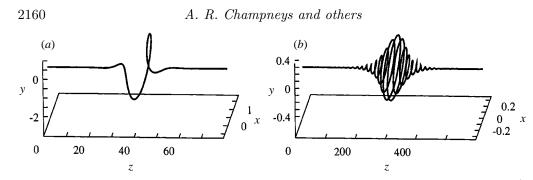


Figure 1. The primary buckling mode at two different loads: (a) m = 1.7; (b) m = 2.09 ($\nu = \frac{1}{3}$, $\epsilon = 0.1$, $\gamma = 1$, implying $m_c = 2.097618$).

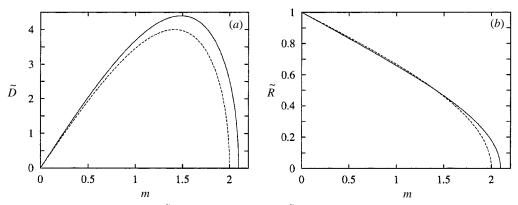


Figure 2. (a) End shortening \tilde{D} and (b) end rotation \tilde{R} versus load m for the primary homoclinic orbit ($\nu = \frac{1}{3}$, $\epsilon = 0.1$, $\gamma = 1$, implying $m_c = 2.097618$). Data for the unperturbed case have been included in dashed lines for comparison.

behaviour is qualitatively identical to that in the shear-free case, with the critical buckling condition now given by

$$m_{\rm c} = 2\sqrt{1+\gamma\epsilon}.\tag{3.13}$$

Using (2.11) to write this in terms of the original parameters we get

1

$$\frac{M}{\sqrt{BT}} = 2\sqrt{1 + T(K^{-1} - H^{-1})},\tag{3.14}$$

where H^{-1} (= J^{-1}) and K^{-1} are the shear and axial flexibility, respectively. We conclude that compared with the unperturbed case ($H^{-1} = 0, K^{-1} = 0$), shear flexibility tends to lower the critical buckling load m_c , while axial flexibility tends to raise m_c .

Figure 1 shows examples of three-dimensional rod shapes for two different values of the load m. The solutions were computed on a truncated interval using the shooting method explained in §4, followed by an integration of the centre line equations in (2.15).

Load-deflection characteristics of the localized buckling mode are given in figure 2. The diagrams were computed by monitoring end displacement, D, and end rotation, R, while numerically continuing the homoclinic orbit for varying m. Actually plotted are the corrected quantities \tilde{D} and \tilde{R} obtained from D and R by subtracting the trivial contributions, proportional to the length of the rod, which the straight

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unbuckled rod would have, and dividing the angle by 2π :

$$\tilde{D} = (1 + \epsilon(1 + \gamma))\mathcal{T} - \tilde{r}_3(\mathcal{T}), \quad \tilde{R} = \frac{R - (1 + \nu)\mathcal{T}}{2\pi}, \quad (3.15)$$

where \mathcal{T} denotes the full length of the rod. Thus, \tilde{D} and \tilde{R} represent the true buckling contributions to end displacement and end rotation.

For comparison we have also included in figure 2 the deflections in the unperturbed case which can be computed exactly:

$$\tilde{D} = 2m\sqrt{4 - m^2}, \quad \tilde{R} = 4\arccos\frac{1}{2}m \tag{3.16}$$

(see Thompson & Champneys 1996, equations (5.3) and (5.4)). We observe that shear causes an increase in the maximum end-shortening.

4. Initial curvature

Consider now a rod that is naturally curved, $\kappa_0 \neq 0$, while ignoring the effects of shear, gravity and non-symmetric cross-section, $\rho = \sigma = \epsilon = \delta = 0$.

(a) One-twist-per-wave equilibria

Spatially homogeneous equilibria of (2.12), $\boldsymbol{x}(t) \equiv \boldsymbol{x}^*$, are determined by setting the right-hand sides of (2.12) to zero:

$$0 = (1+\nu)x_2^*x_6^* - x_3^*x_5^*, \tag{4.1}$$

$$0 = x_3^*(x_4^* + \kappa_0) - (1 + \nu)x_1^*x_6^*, \tag{4.2}$$

$$0 = x_1^* x_{\varepsilon}^* - x_2^* (x_4^* + \kappa_0). \tag{4.3}$$

$$0 = \nu x_5^* x_6^* + x_2^* / m^2, \tag{4.4}$$

$$0 = (x_4^* + \kappa_0)x_6^* - (1+\nu)x_4^*x_6^* - x_1^*/m^2, \qquad (4.5)$$

$$0 = -\kappa_0 x_5^*. (4.6)$$

In addition, an equilibrium must satisfy the boundary constraints (2.14). From (4.6) we obtain $x_5^* = 0$ and hence from (4.4) that $x_2^* = 0$. Solving (4.2) and (4.5) for x_1^* and x_4^* in terms of x_3^* and x_6^* yields

$$x_1^* = \frac{\kappa_0 m^2 (1+\nu) x_3^* x_6^*}{x_3^* + x_6^* \nu (1+\nu) m^2} \quad \text{and} \quad x_4^* = \frac{\kappa_0 [m^2 (1+\nu) x_6^{*2} - x_3^*]}{x_3^* + m^2 \nu (1+\nu) x_6^{*2}}.$$
 (4.7)

Substitution into (4.7) of x_3^* and x_6^* from (2.14) (assuming them to be positive), leads to two coupled equations for x_1^* and x_4^* . A straightforward application of the Implicit Function Theorem shows that there is a unique solution for small κ_0 tending to $x_1^* = x_4^* = 0$ as $\kappa_0 \to 0$. This solution can be expressed as a series expansion for small κ_0 :

$$\begin{split} x_1^* &= \frac{m^2(1+\nu)}{\nu m^2(1+\nu)+1} \kappa_0 \\ &\quad -\frac{m^2(1+\nu)[m^2(1+\nu)(m^2(2\nu^2+3\nu+1)-(\nu+2))+1]}{2(\nu m^2(1+\nu)+1)^4} \kappa_0^3 + \mathcal{O}(\kappa_0^5), \\ x_2^* &= 0, \\ x_3^* &= 1 - \frac{m^4(1+\nu)^2}{2(\nu m^2(1+\nu)+1)^2} \kappa_0^2 + \mathcal{O}(\kappa_0^4), \end{split}$$

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$$x_{4}^{*} = \frac{m^{2}(1+\nu)-1}{\nu m^{2}(1+\nu)+1}\kappa_{0} -\frac{m^{2}(1+\nu)^{2}[m^{4}(1+\nu)^{2}+4m^{2}(1-\nu)+2]}{2(\nu m^{2}(1+\nu)+1)^{4}}\kappa_{0}^{3} + \mathcal{O}(\kappa_{0}^{5}),$$

$$x_{5}^{*} = 0,$$

$$x_{6}^{*} = 1 - \frac{(m^{2}(1+\nu)-1)^{2}}{2(\nu m^{2}(1+\nu)+1)^{2}}\kappa_{0}^{2} + \mathcal{O}(\kappa_{0}^{4}).$$
(4.8)

Without using this expansion we shall now explicitly demonstrate that this equilibrium, when substituted into the Frenet–Serret and centre line differential equations (2.15), results in a one-twist-per-wave solution. Now,

$$\tilde{\boldsymbol{u}} = (x_4^* + \kappa_0)\boldsymbol{d}_1 + (1+\nu)x_6^*\boldsymbol{d}_3 =: J(\kappa_0, \nu, m)\boldsymbol{d}_1 + H(\kappa_0, \nu, m)\boldsymbol{d}_3,$$
(4.9)

where J and H are constants determined from the right-hand sides of (4.8). Hence equations (2.15) become

$$\dot{\boldsymbol{d}}_{i} = J(\boldsymbol{d}_{1} \times \boldsymbol{d}_{i}) + H(\boldsymbol{d}_{3} \times \boldsymbol{d}_{i}), \quad i = 1, 2, 3 \text{ and } \dot{\tilde{\boldsymbol{r}}} = \boldsymbol{d}_{3},$$
 (4.10)

with the last equation arising because $\tilde{v} = d_3$ in the absence of shear. Note that for κ_0 small

$$J = \mathcal{O}(\kappa_0)$$
 and $H = \mathcal{O}(1)$, as $\kappa_0 \to 0$. (4.11)

The first three equations in (4.10) are

$$\dot{\boldsymbol{d}}_1 = H\boldsymbol{d}_2, \quad \dot{\boldsymbol{d}}_2 = J\boldsymbol{d}_3 - H\boldsymbol{d}_1, \quad \dot{\boldsymbol{d}}_3 = -J\boldsymbol{d}_2,$$

from which we can eliminate d_2 to give

$$\begin{pmatrix} \ddot{d}_1 \\ \ddot{d}_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -H^2 & HJ \\ HJ & -J^2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} d_1 \\ d_3 \end{pmatrix}.$$
(4.12)

Upon defining new orthonormal coordinate axes

$$e_{1} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{H^{2} + J^{2}}} (Hd_{1} - Jd_{3}), \quad e_{3} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{H^{2} + J^{2}}} (Jd_{1} + Hd_{3}), \quad e_{2} = e_{3} \times e_{1} = d_{2},$$
(4.13)

one finds from (4.12) that

$$\ddot{\boldsymbol{e}}_1 = -\Omega^2 \boldsymbol{e}_1 \quad \text{and} \quad \ddot{\boldsymbol{e}}_3 = 0,$$
(4.14)

where $\Omega = \sqrt{H^2 + J^2}$. The solution to these equations is

$$\boldsymbol{e}_1(t) = \boldsymbol{A}\cos\Omega t + \boldsymbol{B}\sin\Omega t, \quad \boldsymbol{e}_3(t) = \boldsymbol{C}, \tag{4.15}$$

where A, B and C are three constant orthonormal vectors determined by the initial conditions. Since there is no gravity, we are free to choose an origin for arclength and an orientation such that

$$A = i$$
, $B = j$, $C = k$.

Note that the coefficient of t in the solution for e_3 from (4.14) is chosen to be zero in order to avoid terms which grow as $t \to \pm \infty$. Inverting the transformation (4.13), we obtain an expression for the centre line of the rod via

$$\tilde{\boldsymbol{r}} = \boldsymbol{d}_3 = (1/\Omega)(H\boldsymbol{e}_3 - J\boldsymbol{e}_1),$$

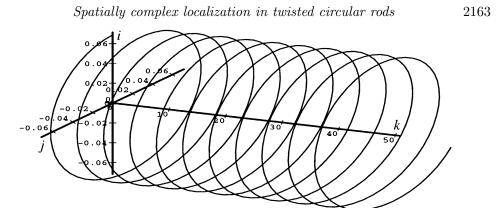


Figure 3. The dimensionless spatial configuration of the equilibrium solution (4.16) for $\nu = \frac{1}{3}$, $\kappa_0 = 0.1$ and m = 1.

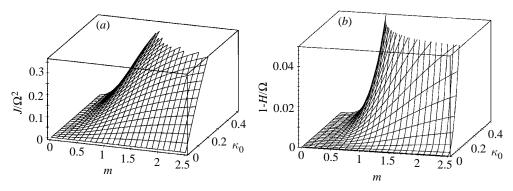


Figure 4. Three-dimensional plots of the amplitude (a) and end-shortening (b) of the helix (4.16) for $\nu = \frac{1}{3}$, $0 \le \kappa_0 \le 0.5$ and $0 < m \le 2.5$.

to give

$$\tilde{\boldsymbol{r}}(t) = (H/\Omega)t\boldsymbol{k} + (J/\Omega^2)(\cos\Omega t\boldsymbol{j} - \sin\Omega t\boldsymbol{i}).$$
(4.16)

Equation (4.16) describes a helix with amplitude J/Ω^2 and pitch angle $\frac{1}{2}\pi - \theta$, where $\theta = \arctan(J/H)$, the angle of rotation in the transformation (4.13). The central axis is directed along \mathbf{k} and the angular frequency Ω of the helix about its central axis is identical to that of the director \mathbf{d}_1 , say, about that axis. Hence (4.16) is a one-twist-per-wave spatially homogeneous equilibrium configuration of the rod.

Figure 3 shows a solution (4.16) for some typical values of κ_0 , m and ν , where H and J were determined by numerically solving the equations (4.7) and (2.14). Comparison with (3.8) gives that the dimensionless end-shortening per unit length is

$$E = 1 - (H/\Omega).$$

Recall the relative sizes (4.11) of H and J for small κ_0 . Hence note that $\tilde{E} \to 0$ as $\kappa_0 \to 0$, as does the amplitude of the helix J/Ω^2 . Figure 4 shows how the amplitude and end-shortening vary with m and κ_0 .

(b) Linearization

Linearization around the equilibrium x^* shows that (2.12) always has two zero eigenvalues, as in the unperturbed case, which correspond to the rotational symmetry

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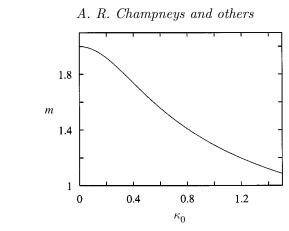


Figure 5. Locus in the (m, κ_0) -plane of Hamiltonian–Hopf bifurcation points.

in the problem. The other four eigenvalues satisfy the characteristic equation

$$\lambda^{4} + (-2x_{3}^{*}m^{2} + \frac{5}{3}m^{4}\kappa_{0}x_{4}^{*} + \frac{17}{9}m^{4}x_{6}^{*2} + 2m^{4}\kappa_{0}^{2} + m^{4}x_{4}^{*2})\lambda^{2}m^{-4} + (-m^{2}x_{3}^{*}x_{4}^{*2} - \frac{10}{27}m^{4}x_{6}^{*2}\kappa_{0}x_{4}^{*} + \frac{16}{81}m^{4}x_{6}^{*4} + \frac{8}{9}x_{6}^{*2}m^{2}x_{3}^{*} + x_{3}^{*2} + \frac{5}{3}x_{6}^{*}m^{2}x_{4}x_{1}^{*} + \frac{35}{9}x_{6}^{*}m^{2}\kappa_{0}x_{1}^{*} - 2m^{2}x_{3}^{*}\kappa_{0}^{2} - \frac{1}{3}m^{4}x_{4}^{*3}\kappa_{0} + \frac{1}{3}m^{4}x_{4}^{*2}\kappa_{0}^{2}\frac{17}{9}m^{4}x_{6}^{*2}\kappa_{0}^{2} + + m^{4}\kappa_{0}^{4} + \frac{5}{3}m^{4}x_{4}^{*}\kappa_{0}^{3} + \frac{1}{9}m^{4}x_{6}^{*2}x_{4}^{*2} - \frac{5}{3}m^{2}x_{3}^{*}\kappa_{0}x_{4}^{*})m^{-4} = 0, \qquad (4.17)$$

where, for simplicity, it is assumed that Poisson's ratio takes the numerical value $\nu = \frac{1}{3}$. This value will be taken in all numerical simulations which follow.

Analysis of (4.17) using Maple (solving for x_1 , x_3 , x_4 and x_6 using (4.7) and (2.14)) reveals that the situation is qualitatively the same as the unperturbed case with $\rho = 0$, $\kappa_0 = 0$. Namely that for $m < m_c(\kappa_0)$ there are four complex eigenvalues $\pm \lambda \pm i\omega$, implying physical stability of the spatially homogeneous equilibrium, and that at $m = m_c$ there is a Hamiltonian–Hopf bifurcation, with physical instability (four imaginary eigenvalues) occurring for $m > m_c$. A plot of $m_c(\kappa_0)$ is given in figure 5, which was determined numerically by solving for double roots of (4.17). Note that the value of m required for the buckling bifurcation to occur is initially flat and then decreases with increasing initial curvature κ_0 .

(c) Localized buckling solutions

First note that adding initial curvature destroys part of the symmetry of the unperturbed system. Specifically, of the two symmetries R_1 and R_2 only R_2 remains $(R_1 \text{ would have remained had we taken initial curvature about <math>d_2$ instead of d_1). Consequently, we should expect the existence of two rather than four reversible primary buckling modes. Our shooting method indeed gives us the two homoclinic orbits shown in figure 6. These solutions were computed for $\nu = \frac{1}{3}$, $\kappa_0 = 0.02$ and m = 1.7, while in the shooting method we used $\epsilon = 10^{-5}$ and

See van der Heijden (1997) for the meaning of ϵ , δ and v_i .

Three dimensional rad shapes obtained by solving the control line

Three-dimensional rod shapes, obtained by solving the centre line equation in

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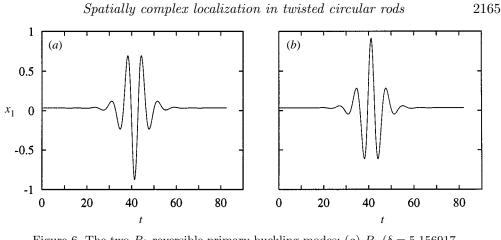


Figure 6. The two R_2 -reversible primary buckling modes: (a) P_1 ($\delta = 5.156917$, $\mathcal{T} = 41.299427$); (b) P_2 ($\delta = 1.807504$, $\mathcal{T} = 41.097204$). ($\nu = \frac{1}{3}$, $\kappa_0 = 0.02$, m = 1.7.)

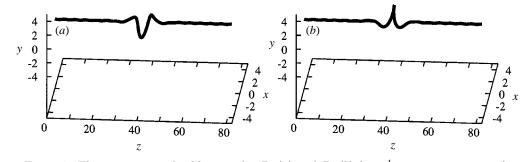


Figure 7. The two primary buckling modes P_1 (a) and P_2 (b) ($\nu = \frac{1}{3}, \kappa_0 = 0.02, m = 1.7$).

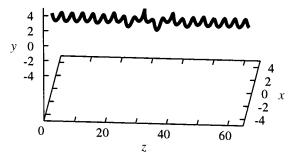


Figure 8. The primary buckling mode P_1 for large initial curvature ($\nu = \frac{1}{3}, \kappa_0 = 0.4, m = 1.7$).

(2.15), are depicted in figure 7. The figure nicely shows the small-amplitude helical solution of the rod away from the large deformation. Figure 8 shows one primary mode for large initial curvature $\kappa_0 = 0.4$. Here the distinction between the pre-buckled one-twist-per-wave equilibrium and the large deformation is somewhat blurred.

Because asymptotically towards infinity the spatially homogeneous solution is a helical rather than a straight rod, the d_3 director of the local coordinate frames at the beginning and end point do not line up. We can not, therefore, use (3.11) directly to obtain the end deflections. End shortening and end rotation are now naturally computed with respect to the central axis $e_3 = k$ of the helix. Thus, to get the

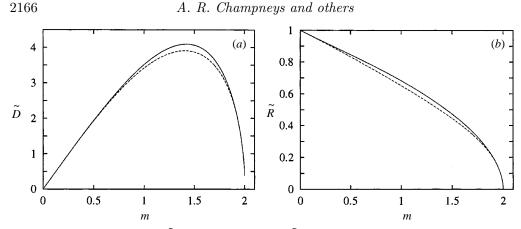


Figure 9. (a) End shortening \tilde{D} and (b) end rotation \tilde{R} versus load m for the primary homoclinic orbits P_1 (solid curves) and P_2 (dashed curves) ($\nu = \frac{1}{3}$, $\kappa_0 = 0.02$, implying $m_c = 1.999116$).

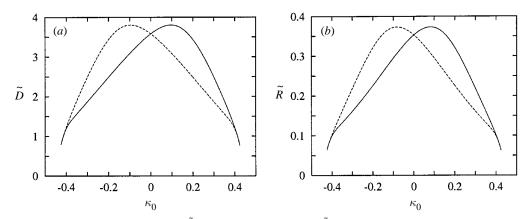


Figure 10. (a) End shortening \tilde{D} and (b) end rotation \tilde{R} versus initial curvature κ_0 for the primary homoclinic orbits P_1 (solid curves) and P_2 (dashed curves) ($\nu = \frac{1}{3}$, m = 1.7, implying the critical buckling value $\kappa_0 = 0.439763$).

end rotation we determine the projections \hat{d}_1 , \hat{d}_2 of the vectors d_1 , d_2 of the local coordinate frames at both ends of the rod onto the plane (e_1, e_2) orthogonal to the axis k. D and R are then computed from

$$D = \mathcal{T} - \boldsymbol{e}_3(\mathcal{T}), \quad \cos R = \langle \hat{\boldsymbol{d}}_1(\mathcal{T}), \hat{\boldsymbol{d}}_1(0) \rangle, \quad \sin R = \langle \hat{\boldsymbol{d}}_1(\mathcal{T}), \hat{\boldsymbol{d}}_2(0) \rangle, \quad (4.18)$$

where \mathcal{T} represents the full length of the rod. Note that, in view of (4.13), $\hat{d}_2 = d_2$, and hence $\hat{d}_2(0) = (0, 1, 0)$. The clean buckling contributions to the end deflections are again obtained from D and R by subtracting the contributions from the trivial solution, this time a helix:

$$\tilde{D} = (1 - \tilde{E})\mathcal{T} - \boldsymbol{e}_3(\mathcal{T}), \quad \tilde{R} = \frac{R - \Omega \mathcal{T}}{2\pi}.$$
(4.19)

Load-deflection diagrams are given in figure 9. Figure 10 shows how end shortening and end rotation change as the initial curvature κ_0 is varied. Note that the diagrams of figure 10 are symmetric about $\kappa_0 = 0$ (with a change of role of P_1 and P_2), as expected. At $\kappa_0 = 0$ the symmetric modes P_1 and P_2 are part of a full circle of primary homoclinic orbits, all with the same load-deflection characteristics. Indeed,

n	δ_n	\mathcal{T}_n	$\mathcal{T}_n - \mathcal{T}_{n-1}$	n	δ_n	\mathcal{T}_n	$\mathcal{T}_n - \mathcal{T}_{n-1}$
1	5.527777	52.129804		1	2.520175	50.544884	
2	5.008232	53.422228	1.292424	2			
3	5.199237	55.519861	2.097633	3	1.913620	53.569436	
4	5.143442	57.342668	1.822808	4	1.769202	55.268184	1.698748
5	5.161089	59.246022	1.903353	5	1.818802	57.217025	1.948841
6	5.155616	61.124430	1.878408	6	1.803924	59.081629	1.864604
7	5.157323	63.010459	1.886029	7	1.808612	60.972140	1.890511
8	5.156791	64.894152	1.883693	8	1.807158	62.854410	1.882270
9	5.156957	66.778561	1.884408	9	1.807611	64.739273	1.884863
10	5.156905	68.662750	1.884189	10	1.807470	66.623317	1.884044
11	5.156921	70.547006	1.884256	11	1.807514	68.507620	1.884303
12	5.156916	72.431244	1.884237	12	1.807500	70.391841	1.884221
13	5.156918	74.315485	1.884241	13	1.807505	72.276088	1.884247
14	5.156917	76.199725	1.884240	14	1.807503	74.160327	1.884239
15	5.156917	78.083965	1.884240	15	1.807504	76.044568	1.884241
P_1	5.156917	41.299427	$(\pi/2\omega)$	P_2	1.807504	41.097204	$(\pi/2\omega)$
			= 1.884241				= 1.884241

Table 1. Sequence of R_2 -reversible bi-modal homoclinic orbits with labels (P_1, n, P_1) (left) and (P_2, n, P_2) (right) for rods with initial curvature ($\nu = \frac{1}{3}$, m = 1.7, $\kappa_0 = 0.02$)

the corresponding \tilde{D} and \tilde{R} values are those of the unperturbed case included in dashed lines in figure 2.

The continuation code with fixed $\mathcal{T} = 82.5$ (full-length rod) has problems in the steep regions close to buckling, which is why the load-deflection curves do not reach right down to the κ_0 -axis. A numerical check with larger values of the truncation interval \mathcal{T} shows that the curves can be followed further down as \mathcal{T} is increased. Hence, we conclude that we are dealing with an effect due to finite \mathcal{T} and that P_1 and P_2 really bifurcate from the trivial solution at $\kappa_0 = 0.439763$.

Apart from breaking the symmetry of the unperturbed system, initial curvature also breaks complete integrability. Specifically, we no longer have conservation of torque about the body axis of the rod, i.e. $I_3 \neq \text{const.}$ As a result, we have a situation analogous to the case of an anisotropic rod studied extensively in van der Heijden *et al.* (1997), with a countable infinity of multi-modal homoclinic orbits amidst spatial chaos. These multi-modal solutions are located in the transverse intersection of the invariant manifolds of the fixed point and roughly consist of multiple copies of primary solutions separated by finite numbers of small-amplitude oscillations.

Table 1 gives data for the first 15 members of two families of R_2 -reversible bimodals. The homoclinic orbits of one family are built up of two P_1 -type humps and are accordingly labelled (P_1, n, P_1) , where n is a measure of the number of small oscillations between the two large deformations (the choice of origin for n is somewhat arbitrary). Similarly, the orbits of the other family look like two copies of P_2 and are labelled (P_2, n, P_2) . Data for $(P_2, 2, P_2)$ are missing because this orbit could not be found. It is not clear whether this solution somehow does not exist for the parameters

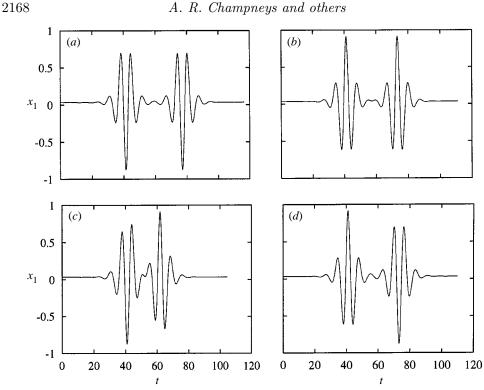


Figure 11. Two examples of R_2 -reversible bi-modal homoclinic orbits: (a) orbit $(P_1, 5, P_1)$; (b) orbit $(P_2, 5, P_2)$. Two examples of non-reversible bi-modal homoclinic orbits: (c) $\delta = 4.768824$, length = 104.618967; (d) $\delta = 1.795082$, length = 109.838808 ($\nu = \frac{1}{3}$, $\kappa_0 = 0.02$, m = 1.7).

used, or that our shooting method just failed to locate it. As to the former possibility, coalescence rules for multi-modal orbits as derived (for the non-symmetric case) in van der Heijden *et al.* (1997) might give some clarification.

Note that for both families the δ -values converge to that of the corresponding primary orbit, while the difference between successive \mathcal{T} -values tends to $(\pi/2\omega)$, where ω is the (positive) imaginary part of the complex quadruple of eigenvalues at the fixed point x^* . This limiting behaviour can be understood by imagining, in phase space, each successive homoclinic orbit in the sequence making an extra quarter turn around the fixed point immediately prior to hitting the symmetric section. Figures 11*a*, *b* show x_1 -*t* plots for one member of each of the above two families of bi-modals.

The two infinite families (P_1, n, P_1) and (P_2, n, P_2) define all bi-modals which are themselves reversible. Non-reversible bi-modals with labels (P_1, n, P_2) and (P_2, n, P_1) do exist but are not captured by our shooting method in the present form. Two examples of non-reversible bi-modals, obtained by shooting over the full length of the rod, are given in figures 11c, d. As in the case of an anisotropic rod, reversible tri-modals, four-modals and higher-order multi-modals occur in similar families parametrized by multiple integers.

We should stress that our boundary conditions ensure that all the homoclinic orbits are computed for the same values of the two integrals of motion I_1 and I_2 , namely those of the one-twist-per-wave equilibrium to which the localized solutions asymptote as $t \to \pm \infty$.

5. Physical interpretation

Let us finally make some physical interpretations of the results obtained. The main achievement of this paper is to demonstrate that a uniform initial curvature in the stress-free state does indeed give rise to one-twist-per-wave equilibria upon which localized buckling is superimposed at the critical load. Note from figure 5 that the critical buckling condition is not changed much by the introduction of small initial curvature. Neither is the post-buckling path of the primary buckling mode (compare figures 9 and 2).

We have also shown that (at least for the initially straight rod) allowing for shear/axial deformations makes little qualitative difference. However, when interpreting experiments under rigid loading it is important to note that 'shear' deformations, specifically axial extension, must occur if the rod is seen to buckle into a non-straight configuration. We must also take care not to make glib statements on experiments based on the so-far *dimensionless* analysis.

Note from the non-dimensionalization (2.11) that both \tilde{r} and t scale with M/B. Recalling that we are assuming a symmetric cross-section (i.e. A = B), the equilibrium solution (4.16) can then be written in dimensional coordinates as

$$\boldsymbol{r}(s) = \frac{H}{\Omega} s \boldsymbol{k} + \frac{AJ}{M\Omega^2} (\cos \omega s \boldsymbol{j} - \sin \omega s \boldsymbol{i}), \quad \text{where } \omega = \frac{M\Omega}{A}.$$
(5.1)

From (2.11), (4.8) and (4.9) it follows that for small initial curvature u_0 the dimensional helical characteristics are given by

$$\operatorname{radius} = \frac{AJ}{M\Omega^2} = \frac{AC^2}{M^2(A-C) + TC^2} u_0 + \mathcal{O}(u_0^3),$$

frequency = $\omega = \frac{M}{A}\Omega = \frac{M}{A}(1+\nu) + \mathcal{O}(u_0^2) = \frac{M}{C} + \mathcal{O}(u_0^2),$ (5.2)
 $\pi - \operatorname{pitch} \operatorname{angle} = \theta = \arctan\left(\frac{J}{H}\right) = \frac{ACM}{M^2(A-C) + TC^2} u_0 + \mathcal{O}(u_0^3).$

We have explicitly computed the one-twist-per-wave helical equilibrium for the case where initial curvature is the only perturbation allowed in figure 13. It is easy to see, however, that the whole analysis goes through when anisotropy (ρ) and shear/extension (ϵ) are also taken into account. The crucial observation is that in the more general case we still have

$$x_2^* = x_5^* = 0. (5.3)$$

Hence, although Ω will vary with ρ and ϵ we will still have a one-twist-per-wave solution. Note that (5.3) means that along the rod there is no force or moment in the direction d_2 ; the helical rod is bent in the direction d_1 of initial curvature, and forces and moments are in the tangent plane to the imaginary cylinder on which the helix winds. Indeed, it can be verified that the force, \boldsymbol{n} , is directed along the axis of the helix. The moment, \boldsymbol{m} , however, is not. In experiments one is likely to control the axial moment, $M_{\text{ax}} := \boldsymbol{m} \cdot \boldsymbol{e}_3$, rather than the total moment M. In the Appendix, therefore, an analysis is given in terms of the axial moment. To first order in κ_0 (or u_0) taking M_{ax} or M does not make any difference: (5.2) is also valid with M replaced by M_{ax} .

If, in addition to initial curvature u_0 , we also take M to be small, but such that $\kappa_0 = A u_0 / M$ remains small (for instance by taking $u_0 = \mathcal{O}(\epsilon)$, $M = \mathcal{O}(\sqrt{\epsilon})$, in

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terms of an arbitrary small parameter ϵ), then to a good approximation (5.2) can be written as

radius
$$= \frac{Au_0}{T}$$
, frequency $= \frac{M}{C}$, $\frac{1}{2}\pi$ - pitch angle $= \frac{AMu_0}{TC}$, (5.4)

which is in agreement with the approximations (A 5) given in the Appendix.

We end by discussing some experiments serving to confirm the central result of this paper. The one-twist-per-wave pre-buckling deformations observed experimentally by Thompson & Champneys (1996) are shown in figure 12 for a circular rubber rod. Moving down through the sequence of pictures, as the loading is increased, we see a large-amplitude localized buckling mode with about three twists per wave superimposed on top of this pre-buckling response. The significance of the three is that it is approximately $2(1 + \nu)$, as ν , Poisson's ratio of rubber, is approximately 0.5. This rod certainly had an initial curvature in its unstressed state, and the work of the present paper suggests very strongly indeed that this curvature was the cause of the one-twist-per-wave behaviour.

This conclusion is reinforced by the more recent experiments illustrated in figure 13 for a rod of square cross-section. This highly perfect rod, with no measurable initial curvature, was cast in silicone rubber. It was kindly supplied by C. R. Calladine of the Cambridge Engineering Laboratory. It was tested under water, under conditions of approximately neutral buoyancy. No pre-buckling deformation is observed, and the localized buckling mode, with about three twists per wave, arises directly from the trivial highly twisted straight configuration. Under the rigid loading of the test, a dynamic jump at constant end-shortening and constant end-rotation carries the rod from a buckled configuration (like that shown in the third picture) to self-contact in the writhing configuration of the fourth picture. The bottom picture shows the freely floating straight rod after the test. The high quality silicone rubber shows no sign of having suffered any permanent deformation during the test.

Appendix A. Physical analysis of one-twist-per-wave equilibria

It is instructive to make a direct physical study of the possible one-twist-perwave equilibrium solutions of twisted rods. Consider a rod with principal bending stiffnesses A and B, which may or may not be equal, and torsional stiffness C. Let the rod have an initial curvature κ_0 , which may or may not be zero, in the principal direction associated with A. We use as a measure of this curvature the applied bending moment that would just straighten the rod, namely $N = A\kappa_0$.

Inducing only (additional) bending in the A direction, consider a helical deformation in which the rod is wrapped with one twist per helical wave around an imaginary cylinder of radius r. Since there is no bending in the B direction, it follows that Bwill not appear in our analysis: it may or may not be equal to A. The assumed helical form is illustrated in figure 14 for a rod with a square cross-section. Here it should be supposed that in its unloaded state the initial curvature was such that the rod lay in a circle with the outer edge black.

Cutting the homogeneous helix at any point, the resultant moment vector, M, is the resultant of the bending moment $A(\kappa - \kappa_0)$ and the twisting moment $C\tau$, as illustrated. The bending moment is at right angles to the rod, the twisting moment is along the rod, and all three vectors lie in the tangent plane of the cylinder. Here, κ is the curvature of the helical space curve, given by the standard formula $\kappa = \sin^2 \theta/r$,

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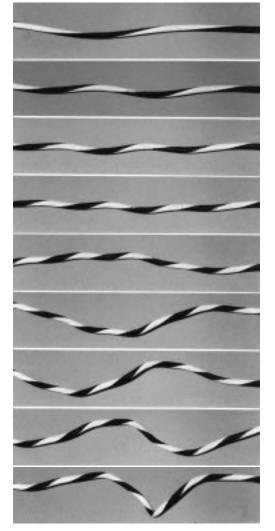


Figure 12. A photographic sequence during the test of an initially curved rod of circular cross-section. A one-twist-per-wave helical deformation is observed before the localized buckling.

where $\frac{1}{2}\pi - \theta$ is the pitch angle of the helix. With one twist per wave there is no internal twist ($\tau_i = 0$), so the twist, τ , is equal to the torsion of the helical space curve, $\tau = \tau_s = \sin \theta \cos \theta / r$.

For a homogeneous solution, the resultant force at the cut must be parallel to the axis, and we denote its magnitude by T. For the purpose of overall statics, we can transfer the line of action of T to the central axis of the cylinder with the introduction of the transfer moment of magnitude Tr lying in the tangent plane. Now the constant support reactions supplied at the remote left-hand end of the helix must be in balance with the above forces and moments at whatever phase, within a wave, the helix is cut. This is only possible if the vector sum of M and the transfer moment is parallel to the axis of the cylinder; notice that the vector of magnitude Tr drawn in the figure is the reversed transfer moment.

Under these conditions the helix is held in equilibrium by a wrench (compare Love



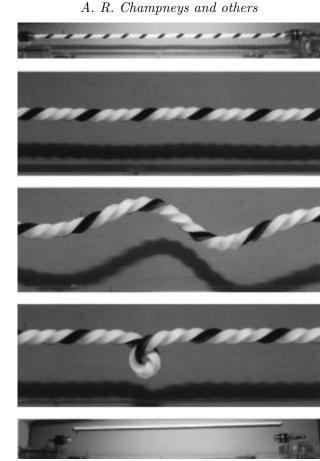


Figure 13. A photographic sequence during the under-water test of a silicone rubber rod of square cross-section. The rod had no initial curvature, and only a straight trivial state is observed before the localized buckling.

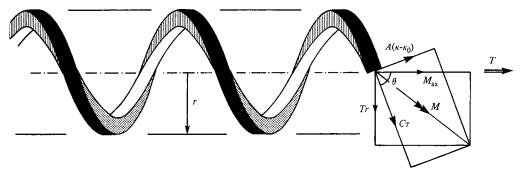


Figure 14. A helical equilibrium state with one twist per wave, showing the resultant forces and moments at a cross-section of the rod. These are statically equivalent to a wrench $(M_{\rm ax}, T)$ acting along the central chain-dotted axis.

1927, art. 270) comprising the axial tension, T, and the axial moment, $M_{\rm ax}$. Notice that $M_{\rm ax}$ is the axial component of the resultant moment M considered in the main body of this paper.

Setting the axial and circumferential components of M equal to $M_{\rm ax}$ and Tr,

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respectively, we have

$$M_{\rm ax} = C\tau\cos\theta + (A/r)\sin^3\theta - N\sin\theta,$$

$$Tr = C\tau\sin\theta - (A/r)\sin^2\theta\cos\theta + N\cos\theta.$$
(A1)

Applying the one-twist-per-wave requirement, $\tau = \tau_{\rm s} = \sin\theta\cos\theta/r$, gives

$$M_{\rm ax} = (C/r)\sin\theta\cos^2\theta + (A/r)\sin^3\theta - N\sin\theta,$$

$$Tr = (C/r)\sin^2\theta\cos\theta - (A/r)\sin^2\theta\cos\theta + N\cos\theta.$$
(A2)

Prescribing N, $M_{\rm ax}$ and T, these are two equations for the two helical variables θ and r. A first-order solution valid for small θ is given by

$$M_{\rm ax}/\theta = C/r - N,\tag{A3}$$

$$Tr = (C - A)\theta^2 / r + N. \tag{A4}$$

(a) Bending solution for the initially curved rod $(N \neq 0)$

Let us suppose that under a fixed T we gradually increase $M_{\rm ax}$ from zero. With $M_{\rm ax} = 0$ we have the trivial physical solution with $\theta = 0, Tr = N$. This satisfies (A 4), and leaves (A 3) indeterminate. A first-order solution close to this trivial state, valid for small N, is given by

$$\theta = \frac{M_{\rm ax}N}{CT}, \quad r = \frac{N}{T}.$$
 (A5)

So to first order, for fixed T and N, the radius r is a constant, while the angle θ increases linearly with $M_{\rm ax}$.

(b) Buckling solution for a perfect (N = 0) anisotropic rod

We next focus on the perfect (N = 0) rod with unequal principal bending stiffnesses. For such an anisotropic rod we would expect the one-twist-per-wave tape-like behaviour to involve bending about the weak axis. So we are led to assume B > A. For a perfect rod, with N = 0, equation (A 3) gives

$$\frac{\theta}{r} = \frac{M_{\rm ax}}{C},\tag{A6}$$

and substituting into (A 4) gives

$$\frac{M_{\rm ax}^2}{T} = \frac{C^2}{C - A}.\tag{A7}$$

Now the perfect rod (with fixed T, say) has the trivial solution $\theta = r = 0$, valid for all $M_{\rm ax}(=M)$. We can therefore identify (A 6), (A 7) (valid as $\theta \to 0$) as an eigenvalue problem with a non-trivial solution determined by the critical value of $M_{\rm ax}$. Thus, (A7) gives the critical buckling condition.

We see that for a real buckling solution we need C greater than the relevant bending stiffness (here, A). For a solid section, C is usually of the order of the lesser bending stiffness. So this analysis shows that there will usually be no possible equilibrium state for a tape-like rod standing, rather than lying, on the imaginary cylinder, a result also reached in van der Heijden & Thompson (1997).

The dimensionless version of (A7), using (2.11), reads

$$m^{2} = \frac{1+\rho}{(1+\nu)(\rho-\nu)}.$$
 (A8)

This is the equation for the curve m_{c_3} in the ρ -m parameter planes in Champneys & Thompson (1996) and van der Heijden *et al.* (1997). It is shown in van der Heijden & Thompson (1997) that under some conditions this curve is part of the buckling line, describing (lying) tape-like buckling.

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