Abstract

The conformation of a general puckered ring is defined by a linear combination of normal atomic displacements, according to the irreducible representations of the $D_{\text{nh}}$ symmetry group. Each two-dimensional representation contributes two uniquely defined primitive modes, superimposed on a one-dimensional crown form that only exists for $N$ even, adding up to $N-3$ primitive forms, for any $N$. The normalized linear coefficients are independent of the amplitude of pucker and of the ring numbering scheme. The formalism applies to any ring type and a quantitative characterization of conformations, intermediate between the conventional classical forms, is possible. It provides the basis for mapping conformations as a function of puckering parameters and a simple algorithm for the identification of the classical forms. The procedure relates general ring conformations to a few simple shapes, familiar to chemists, without losing the advantage of quantitative puckering analysis.

Introduction

Group-theoretical analysis of the normal modes of displacement on $N$-membered polygons provides the basis of a quantitative formulation of ring pucker (Boeyens & Evans, 1989). These symmetry-adapted displacement coordinates are equivalent to the general puckering coordinates of Cremer & Pople (1975) which accurately describe the nature and extent of ring pucker. The description is quantitative and unique, but the interpretation of numerical values in terms of conformational nomenclature, familiar to chemists (boat, chair etc.) is not obvious. The relationship between puckering parameters and conformational type has been established for five- (Altona & Sundaralingam, 1972), six- (Boeyens, 1978), seven- (Boessenkool & Boeyens, 1980) and eight- (Evans & Boeyens, 1988) membered rings, by mapping the symmetrical (classical) forms in the field of puckering parameters. The classical forms, previously identified by energy calculations (Hendrickson, 1961, 1964, 1967), map out as pseudo-
rotational cycles on \((N-3)\)-dimensional surfaces. These surfaces have been represented by a circle for five-, a sphere for six-, a torus for seven- and a family of tori on a unit sphere for eight-membered rings. The transformation from crystallographic atomic coordinates to conformational type is achieved by mapping the derived parameters of the general ring onto the appropriate surface as a function of puckering parameters. The conformational type is then assigned on account of the proximity to a symmetrical form, previously located in the surface. This method is adequate for the special case where the ring corresponds to a symmetrical form. More often, however, the general ring does not map exactly onto a symmetrical form.

The conformation of a heterocyclic ring with various substituents need also not adopt a conformation energetically favourable for unsubstituted cycloalkanes, especially not in the crystal where packing forces may be significant. It is here that the assignment of conformational type becomes largely descriptive. A ring conformation could be described as intermediate between at least two classical forms, with the share of contributing forms estimated by their distance on the surface from the calculated surface site of the cyclic fragment. A quantitative measure of this distance on the surface should generate the coefficients in a linear combination of symmetrical forms. A quantitative expression for the deviation of an actual conformation from symmetrical types in the neighbourhood has been proposed before as the Euclidean distance between the points in \((N-3)\)-dimensional space (Evans & Boeyens, 1988). Although this is a useful guide, it is sensitive to the degree of pucker, and has no theoretical basis.

A better description of the intermediate forms has now been established, based on the group-theoretic model of Pickett & Strauss (1971) and the puckering equations of Cremer & Pople (1975). It is suggested that the normal modes of displacement, at different values of phase angle, and not the recognized symmetrical forms be used as a basis for representing any conformation as a linear combination of these basic forms. The coefficients are independent of the atomic numbering scheme and the amplitude of pucker. The ring conformation is readily visualized as a combination of the puckered shapes of the basis forms in the correct relative proportions.

**Description of ring pucker**

The conformations of a general \(N\)-membered ring may be generated by the out-of-plane displacements of the flat polygon. According to this model, the out-of-plane displacements of a general ring may be generated as a linear combination of the normal mode displacements (Boeyens & Evans, 1989; Pickett & Strauss, 1971), represented by

\[
\Gamma = B_{2(u,g)} + \sum_{m} E_{m(g,u)}.
\]

The \(B_{2(u,g)}\) representation only occurs for \(N\) even, with basis

\[
z_j = Q(-1)^{j-1}.
\]

Each mode of this representation is a multiple of the form

\[
z_j = (-1)^{j-1}.
\]

\(E_{m(g,u)}\), or \(E''_{m}\) for odd \(N\), represents displacements

\[
z_j = \rho_m \cos[\varphi_m + (2\pi m/N)(j-1)].
\]

Each mode of this representation is a linear combination of two mutually orthogonal forms

\[
z_j = \cos[(2\pi m/N)(j-1)]
\]

\[
z_j = \sin[(2\pi m/N)(j-1)].
\]

Every conformation is a linear combination of these normal modes and hence a linear combination of the sets of displacements (1)–(3) (\(N\) even) or (2)–(3) (\(N\) odd), for each \(m\). The same result is obtained from the Cremer & Pople (1975) analysis (Boeyens & Evans, 1989).

For an arbitrary conformation, the out-of-plane displacements are therefore given by the Cremer & Pople (1975) equations

\[
z_j = (1/N)^{1/2}(-1)^{j-1}q + (2/N)^{1/2}\sum \rho_m \cos[\varphi_m + (2\pi m/N)(j-1)]
\]

where \(q\) and \(\rho_m\) are the normalized puckering parameters or symmetry-adapted coordinates.

These expressions may be written in a number of equivalent ways, one of which gives

\[
z_j = (2/N)^{1/2}\sum \rho_m \cos \varphi_m \cos[(2\pi m/N)(j-1)]
\]

\[
- (2/N)^{1/2}\sum \rho_m \sin \varphi_m \sin[(2\pi m/N)(j-1)]
\]

\[+ (1/N)^{1/2}(-1)^{j-1}q\] for \(N\) odd.

It has already been recognized for six- and seven-membered rings that the coefficients \(\rho_m \cos \varphi_m\) and \(\rho_m \sin \varphi_m\) and \(q\) carry the planar ring into the normal modes where

\[
z_j = \cos[(2\pi m/N)(j-1)]\text{ and } (-1)^{1/2}/\cos[(2\pi m/N)(j-1)]\text{ respectively (Bocian, Pickett, Rounds & Strauss, 1975; Pickett & Strauss, 1970; Strauss, 1971). The Cremer & Pople (1975) equations are an explicit statement of this fact. All ring conformations can be reduced to linear combinations of the normal modes of the \(E_m\) representations (and the \(B_{2u}\) representation for \(N\) even) (Boeyens & Evans, 1989).}
The fundamental primitive forms and their relative out-of-plane atomic displacements for five- to eight-membered rings are described in Fig. 1 and Table 1.

A number of forms equivalent to these normal modes exist, differing only in the value of the phase angle. For each \( m \), any linear combination of forms with

\[
z_j = \cos\left(\frac{2\pi m}{N}(j - 1)\right)
\]

is also a normal mode of \( E_m \). The equivalent forms at phase angles \( \varphi_m \) have

\[
z_j = \cos\varphi_m \cos\left(\frac{2\pi m}{N}(j - 1)\right) - \sin\varphi_m \sin\left(\frac{2\pi m}{N}(j - 1)\right).
\]

Consider the forms \( 1^4B \), \( 6T_2 \) and \( B_{2,5} \) in the nomenclature of Boeyens (1978) for \( N = 6 \), with \( z_j \) of \( 1^4B \): \( \cos[4\pi/6(j - 1)] \)

\( 6T_2 \): \( \sin[4\pi/6(j - 1)] \)

\( B_{2,5} \): \( \cos 60^\circ \times 1^4B - \sin 60^\circ \times 6T_2 \).

\( 1^4B \) is equivalent to \( B_{2,5} \), although they differ in phase angle by 60\(^\circ\). The equivalent forms are themselves normal modes of \( E_m \) and should be part of the extended basis set. Each conformation will still be expressed as a linear combination of \( N - 3 \) normal modes, two from each \( E_m \) representation, but now chosen to have phase angles closest to that of the ring of interest.

Mathematical formulation

The set of normal modes, whose \( z_j \) are given by \((-1)^{j-1/2} \cos[2\pi m/N](j - 1)] \), \( \sin[2\pi m/N](j - 1) \) are linearly independent (see Appendix). These modes can therefore form a suitable basis for conformational type.

Group-theoretical analysis shows that the set of forms equivalent to the cos form and sin form of each \( m \) are separated by a constant amount. Given any arbitrary ring, its \( \varphi_m \) value will lie between those of a 'cos-type' form and a 'sin-type' form.

Fig. 1. Relative out-of-plane displacements for five- to eight-membered rings.
The forms equivalent to the cos form and the sin form can be expressed as linear combinations of these forms using the Cremer-Pople equations. Any arbitrary ring can also be expressed as a linear combination using this equation.

The arbitrary ring lying at \( A, q_m, \varphi_m \) is given by

\[
z_j = (2/N)^{1/2}A(-1)^{-1/2} + \sum_m q_m \cos \varphi_m \cos[(2\pi m/N)(j - 1)] - \sum_m q_m \sin \varphi_m \sin[(2\pi m/N)(j - 1)].
\]

For each mode, \( E_m \), there is a cos form and a sin form lying closest to the ring at \( a_m \) and \( b_m \) phase angles.

These are also linear combinations of the Cremer & Pople normal modes.

'cos type'

\[
z_j = \sum_m c_m \cos[(2\pi m/N)(j - 1)] - \sum_m d_m \sin[(2\pi m/N)(j - 1)].
\]

' sin type'

\[
z_j = \sum_m c_m \sin[(2\pi m/N)(j - 1)] + \sum_m d_m \cos[(2\pi m/N)(j - 1)].
\]

Because the set of Cremer & Pople normal modes are linearly independent, the arbitrary conformation may be expressed as a linear combination of the forms at \( a_m \) and \( b_m \).

Suppose the coefficients of the 'cos-type' and 'sin-type' forms are \( c_m \) and \( d_m \) for each \( m \). Then, denoting the Cremer-Pople normal modes as \( X_m, Y_m \) for each \( m \), we have

\[
\sum_m q_m \cos \varphi_m X_m - q_m \sin \varphi_m Y_m = \sum_m c_m (\cos a_m X_m - \sin a_m Y_m) + \sum_m d_m (\cos b_m X_m - \sin b_m Y_m).
\]

Since \( X_m, Y_m \) are linearly independent, we can solve for \( c_m \) and \( d_m \) as follows:

\[
c_m = \frac{q_m (\cos \varphi_m \sin b_m + \sin \varphi_m \cos b_m)}{\sin a_m \cos b_m - \cos a_m \sin b_m},
\]

\[
d_m = \frac{q_m (\cos \varphi_m \sin a_m - \sin \varphi_m \cos a_m)}{\cos a_m \cos b_m - \sin a_m \sin b_m}.
\]

When \( N \) is even, there is a coefficient for the normal mode of the \( B_{2u} \) representation. This coefficient is \( q \). Where \( q < 0 \), the normal mode used in the linear combination is the mirror image of the form \( z_j = (-1)^{-1/2} \), i.e. \( z_j = (-1)^{1/2} \). This ensures that the coefficient is equal in magnitude to \( q \) but greater than zero.

In fact, choosing the phase angles of the cos form and sin form, so that the phase angle of the general ring lies between them, ensures that the coefficients in the linear expansion are always positive.

It is shown in the Appendix that these cos-type and sin-type forms are always linearly independent for each \( m \). They are not orthogonal. The set of all possible ring conformations can be generated by a finite-dimensional basis. In all cases, \( (N - 3) \) normal modes can be used as generating conformations. These groups of \( (N - 3) \) normal modes are always linearly independent. The set of all equivalent cos forms and sin forms therefore form an extended basis, which consists of a number of overlapping subsets, or sub-bases, each with \( N - 3 \) linearly independent forms. Which subset is used as a basis depends on the phase angles of the ring under investigation.

The elements of this extended basis generate a reference set of ring conformations, called the primitive forms.

The coefficients in the linear expansion are independent of phase. The linear coefficients are always the same, irrespective of the ring numbering used. This is illustrated in the Appendix.

A description of ring conformation is really a description of molecular shape. It should therefore be independent of the extent of puckering. The overall molecular shape can be generated by adding together the primitive forms in the correct proportions. The same molecular shape is obtained provided the coefficients are in the same ratio. The linear coefficients are therefore normalized to unity. The method can now be applied to any ring type, irrespective of the puckering amplitude. For example, these are both

**Table 1. Classical nomenclature of the primitive forms**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( N )</th>
<th>Primitive form</th>
<th>Classical nomenclature</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>( E_2^{+} ) (cos form)</td>
<td>Envelope</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>( E_2^{-} ) (sin form)</td>
<td>Twist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>( B_m ) (cos form)</td>
<td>Chair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>( E_m ) (sin form)</td>
<td>Boat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>( E_3^{+} ) (cos form)</td>
<td>Boat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>( E_3^{-} ) (sin form)</td>
<td>Twist-boat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>( E_1^{+} ) (cos form)</td>
<td>Chair*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>( E_1^{-} ) (sin form)</td>
<td>Twist-chair*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>( B_m ) (cos form)</td>
<td>Crown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>( E_m ) (sin form)</td>
<td>Boat-boat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>( E_x ) (cos form)</td>
<td>Twist chair</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*See text.*
boat conformations, but differ in puckering amplitude.

**Application of the method**

Every conformation can be expressed as a linear combination of primitive forms. The linear coefficients are independent of atomic numbering and extent of pucker. The primitive forms are relatively simple conformations of either $C_s$ or $C_2$ symmetry, and are easily interpreted as boat-like, chair-like and their twisted counterparts for smaller rings. The symmetrical forms, or classical conformations in conventional use, take on certain characteristic values of the linear coefficients.

It is important to realize that information on the phase angle is lost in the coefficients. The linear coefficients are not unique. A description of the ring in terms of linear coefficients is only unique if the phases of the cos and sin forms are reported. This is only true when there is more than one $m$ value with $\rho_m \neq 0$.

The primitive forms are often the traditional classical forms, e.g. for six-membered rings, the cos form is a boat and the sin form a twist conformation. For five- and six-membered rings a conformation may therefore be reported as the linear combination of two or three classical forms respectively. The cos form of a seven-membered ring where $m = 3$ takes the form of a chair. This is not the chair form of Hendrickson (1967). It is suggested that this chair (a combination of a primitive boat and a primitive chair) be denoted by the symbol H (half-chair) and its pseudorotation partner as T (twist-half-chair). For rings larger than six-membered, the linear coefficients are not unique. Different forms may assume the same coefficients. Since the phase angles of the primitive forms differ, a unique description requires three terms, like

$$\chi = a(1) + \sum b_m(\varphi_m) + c_m(\varphi_m),$$

where the $b_m$ and $c_m$ are coefficients in the linear sum; $\varphi_m$ are the phase angles of the primitive forms, characterized by the integer $k$ of $k\pi/2N$. $a(1)$ only occurs for $N$ even: (1) denotes the usual $B_{2u}$ mode and $(-1)$ its mirror image.

This nomenclature is unique if reported in order of increasing $m$. The linear coefficients give an indication of the relative contributions of each primitive form, and will be the same irrespective of atomic numbering, although the phase angles will differ.

A computer program, CONFOR, has been written in Fortran to generate the phase angles of the primitive forms. It calculates the phases of the primitive forms to be used in the linear combination. The linear coefficients are solved and normalized. The linear coefficients of all the accepted classical forms (of five-, six-, seven- and eight-membered rings) have been determined. As noted these linear coefficients need not be unique. Results show that a set of similar coefficients but different phase angles is not likely for the classical forms. The only such cases are the forms of the $S/TS$ and $H/T$ pseudorotational cycles for seven-membered rings. The program calculates the sum of the modulus of the difference in linear coefficients of any ring and a symmetrical form. Below a certain threshold, the ring is taken as one of these classical forms, except in the case where there is more than one $m$ for which $\rho_m \neq 0$. The phase angles are then checked against those of the classical forms $[B_S, H, TS, T(7-M); Boessenkool & Boeyens (1980); BC, TBC (8-M); Evans & Boeyens (1988)]$. The program completes the description of the conformation of intermediate forms and identifies a ring if it is a classical form.

The general structure of the program is given in Fig. 2 and Table 2. Details will be published elsewhere, but interested readers are welcome to approach the authors for advance copies.
CONFORMATIONAL ANALYSIS OF RING PUCKER

Table 2. The program CONFOR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subroutine</th>
<th>Function</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LARGE, ODD, EVEN</td>
<td>Generates the primitive forms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MINI</td>
<td>Finds the primitive forms closest in phase angle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOLVES</td>
<td>Solves for the coefficients in the linear expansion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WRITES</td>
<td>Normalizes the coefficients to unity and writes these and the phase information to file</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Examples

Five-membered rings

The basis is two-dimensional, consisting of the equivalent forms

\[
\begin{align*}
&1 & 0 & 0.809 & -0.809 & 0.59 & -0.59 \\
&0 & 0 & 0.309 & 0.309 & 0.95 & -0.95 \\
&cos form & sin form &
\end{align*}
\]

These are equivalent to the envelope and twist forms (Altona & Sundaralingam, 1972). A number of rings reported in the literature have been analysed and the results are given in Table 3.

Ring 1 is best described as a twist form according to the program CONFOR. These results demonstrate the ease of interpretation of this method. Ring 2 is a twist conformation showing distortion to an envelope form. The method gives an exact value for the degree of this distortion. A description like this is more familiar to chemists than the puckering parameters or a linear combination of "E" and "T", viz

\[
\text{ring 2} = 0.47\text{"E"} - 0.09\text{"T"}.
\]

Six-membered rings

The basis is three-dimensional, consisting of equivalent forms:

\[
\begin{align*}
&0.707 & 0.707 & 0.707 & 0.707 & 0.707 & 0.707 \\
&0.707 & 0.707 & 0.707 & 0.707 & 0.707 & 0.707 \\
&\text{crown} & \text{boat} & \text{twist} &
\end{align*}
\]

A number of rings reported in the literature have been analysed and the results are given in Table 4.

Table 3. Analysis of five-membered rings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ring</th>
<th>Ref.</th>
<th>( Q_2 )</th>
<th>( \varphi_2 )</th>
<th>( a_{(E) + b_{(T)}} )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>(a)</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>342-90</td>
<td>7 (20) + 95 (19)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>(a)</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>348-7</td>
<td>37 (20) + 63 (19)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>(b)</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>356-30</td>
<td>79 (20) + 21 (19)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>(c)</td>
<td>0.422</td>
<td>211-70</td>
<td>95 (12) + 5 (13)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>(d)</td>
<td>0.353</td>
<td>265-10</td>
<td>27 (14) + 73 (15)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

References: (a) Boeyens, Bull, Tuinman & Van Rooyen (1979); (b) Ceccarelli, Ruble & Jeffrey (1980); (c) Gal, Feher, Tihanyi, Horvath, Jerkovich, Argay & Kálmán (1980); (d) Cremer & Pople (1975).

Table 4. Analysis of six-membered rings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ring</th>
<th>Ref.</th>
<th>( Q_2 )</th>
<th>( Q_3 )</th>
<th>( \varphi_2 )</th>
<th>( a(\text{E}) )</th>
<th>( b(\text{B}) )</th>
<th>( c(\text{T}) )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>(a)</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.554</td>
<td>183-7</td>
<td>72 (1) + 18 (13)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>(b)</td>
<td>0.286</td>
<td>0.244</td>
<td>47-0</td>
<td>45 (1) + 20 (2)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>(c)</td>
<td>0.406</td>
<td>-0.216</td>
<td>196-0</td>
<td>34 (1) - 11 (12)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

References: (a) Cremer & Pople (1975); (b) Gal, Feher, Tihanyi, Horvath, Jerkovich, Argay & Kálmán (1980); (c) Boeyens (1978).

The pyranoid ring (1) is shown by program CONFOR to be much like a crown form. The distortion towards the form

![Crown form](image)

is estimated as a 10% contribution from the primitive boat at \( \varphi_2 = \pi \), a conclusion easily reached from an examination of the linear coefficients. Ring 2 is a cyclohexene. Although the extent of pucker is much less, the linear coefficients give a readily interpretable description of ring conformation. Ring 3 has been described as midway between \( H \), \( E \) and \( S \). The conformation found here is intermediate between a boat, twist and a chair form. These two assignments are not contradictory. The \( E \), \( H \) and \( S \) forms are themselves mixtures of the chair, boat and twist forms. The ring conformation could be expressed as a linear combination of the \( E \), \( H \) and \( S \) forms since \( E \), \( H \) and \( S \) forms can be expressed as a linear combination of the independent forms. In other words, any conformation can be expressed as a linear combination of these mixed forms, but such a scheme would be complicated. Not much additional information is gained in using these classical forms. These are also not linearly independent.

Discussion

The normal displacement modes of a planar \( N \)-membered regular polygon serve as a basis for the conformation of a puckered \( N \)-membered ring. Two linearly independent modes, equivalent to the mutu-
ally orthogonal cosine and sine forms of each $E_m$ representation and one of the two possible equivalent modes of $B_{2u}$ can be combined to match the puckering parameters of any conformation. Any analysis incorporates an appropriate subset of $N-3$ linearly independent, though not necessarily orthogonal, elements, chosen from an extended basis set, to define the closest primitive forms in the vicinity of the unknown conformation. The conformation is reduced to a linear combination of these primitive forms, resulting in a unique quantitative symbolic description, in terms of simple familiar shapes. This approach is superior to the graphical procedures in common use since the quantitative nature of numerical puckering analysis is preserved.

It is noted from Fig. 1 that the cos-type and sin-type forms for $m = 2, 3$ in eight-membered rings are equivalent. The sin form is like a primitive phase for the cos form. In a case like this the linear expansion is not unique for all phases. The coefficients of the cos form and the sin form are interchangeable (see Appendix). If two rings are therefore compared to see whether they are of the same conformational type it is advisable to ensure, in the first instance, by relative rotation if necessary, that the phases of lowest index ($m = 2$) have matching values. The identity of the rings can then be considered established only if the calculated phases correspond for all $m$.

The definition of conformation in terms of perpendicular displacements only contracts the model from $3N$ Cartesian coordinates to $N-3$ parameters. This projection from $3N-6$ conformational space to an $N-3$ subspace has been interpreted (Petit, Dillen & Geise, 1983) to imply that conformational analysis requires a prior definition of standard conformations in addition to the puckering parameters. This seems to invalidate the procedure of mapping conformations to normalized surfaces without taking the amplitude of pucker into account. However, as noted by Cremer (1984), perpendicular displacements relate to one-dimensional shape functions, by definition independent of the amplitude of pucker. It is this shape, rather than the extent of distortion from planarity, that should be equated with the notion of conformation.

The method is independent of absolute molecular geometry or chemical identity. The conformation only depends on the relative contributions from the group-theoretic modes of displacement. Any puckered six-membered ring with 100% contribution from the $B_{2u}$ mode has a chair conformation. Any six-membered boat has the shape arising from the cos mode of $E_{2u}$ atomic displacements only. The envelope form is a 59:41 combination of an $E_{2u}$ and the $B_{2u}$ representations. The amount of pucker cannot affect this ratio. Even heterocyclic rings with irregular molecular geometry can assume a chair shape, at $\varphi = \theta = 0$. The fact that the ring does not display $D_{3d}$ symmetry in three dimensions is irrelevant, since the shape factor of interest is strictly one-dimensional.

**APPENDIX**

**Characteristics of the linear coefficients**

1. **Linear independence of the Cremer-Pople normal modes**

   Owing to the nature of the primitive forms for each $m$, $\cos(2\pi m(j-1)/N)$, $\sin(2\pi m(j-1)/N)$, they are mutually orthogonal. That is,

   $$\sum \alpha_j \cos \beta_j = 0.$$

   In order for the set of these forms over all $m$ to be a suitable basis, they should be linearly independent. By the fact that these forms are normal modes of different symmetry types, they are linearly independent.

   **Proof:** To prove linear independence, we first show that the normal modes are orthogonal. That is, $\alpha, \beta$ normal modes.

   For $N$ even, consider

   $$\sum_{j=1}^{N} \cos(\pi(j-1))\cos(2\pi m(j-1)/N).$$

   With the identities

   $$\cos(A + B) = \cos A \cos B - \sin A \sin B$$

   $$\cos(A - B) = \cos A \cos B + \sin A \sin B,$$

   this is equivalent to

   $$\frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{N} \cos((\pi + 2\pi m/N)(j-1)) + \sum_{j=1}^{N} \cos((\pi - 2\pi m/N)(j-1)).$$

   Using the lemma given in a previous paper (Boeyens & Evans, 1989), this reduces to zero, since $\sin(N\pi/2 + m\pi) = 0$ if $N$ is even.

   Similarly,

   $$\sum_{j=1}^{N} \cos(\pi(j-1))\sin(2\pi m(j-1)/N) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{N} \sin((\pi + 2\pi m/N)(j-1)) - \sum_{j=1}^{N} \sin((\pi - 2\pi m/N)(j-1)) = 0.$$
Therefore, \( \cos[\pi(j-1)] \) or \((-1)^{j-1}\) is orthogonal to any linear combination of \( a_1 \cos[2\pi m/N(j-1)] \) + \( b_1 \sin[2\pi m/N(j-1)] \), as required.

For \( N \) even or odd, we need

\[
\cos(2\pi/N)(j-1)(M_1), \sin(2\pi/N)(j-1)(M_1),
\cos(2\pi/N)(j-1)(M_2), \sin(2\pi/N)(j-1)(M_2),
\]

are orthogonal.

(a) \[
\sum_j \cos[(2\pi/N)(j-1)M_1]\cos[(2\pi/N)(j-1)M_2] = 0.
\]

(b) \[
\sum_j \sin[(2\pi/N)(j-1)M_1]\sin[(2\pi/N)(j-1)M_2] = 0.
\]

(c) \[
\sum_j \sin[(2\pi/N)(j-1)M_1]\cos[(2\pi/N)(j-1)M_2] = 0.
\]

(d) \[
\sum_j \sin[(2\pi/N)(j-1)M_2]\cos[(2\pi/N)(j-1)M_1] = 0.
\]

Now \( \alpha \) and \( \beta \) are orthogonal

\[
\sum_i z_i^{(\alpha)}z_i^{(\beta)} = \sum_i z_i^{(\beta)}(\gamma z_i^{(\beta)} + \sum_\delta \pi_{\delta i}^{(\beta)})
= \gamma \sum_i z_i^{(\beta)}z_i^{(\beta)} + \sum_i \left( \sum_\delta \pi^{(\beta)}_{\delta i} z_i^{(\alpha)} \right)
= \gamma \sum_i z_i^{(\beta)}z_i^{(\beta)}.
\]

But

\[\gamma \sum_i z_i^{(\beta)}z_i^{(\beta)} \neq 0 \quad (\text{since } \sum_i z_i^{(\beta)} = 0 \Rightarrow z_i = 0 \ \forall i).\]

But \( \alpha, \beta \) are orthogonal and hence \( \sum_i z_i^{(\alpha)}z_i^{(\beta)} = 0 \). This is a contradiction. The modes are therefore linearly independent.

Hence, for \( N \) even

\[
A(-1)^j + \sum_m a_m[\cos[2\pi m(j-1)/N]]
+ b_m[\sin[2\pi m(j-1)/N]] = 0, \ \forall j
\]

\[\Rightarrow A, a_m, b_m = 0, \ \forall m;\]

and for \( N \) odd

\[
\sum_m a_m[\cos[2\pi m(j-1)/N]]
+ b_m[\sin[2\pi m(j-1)/N]] = 0, \ \forall j
\]

\[\Rightarrow a_m, b_m = 0, \ \forall m.\]

This is used in solving the equations for a linear combination of primitive forms.

2. The primitive forms are linearly independent

Each primitive form is a linear combination of the normal modes (which are linearly independent).

Consider a cos and sin form at \( \varphi_m \) and \( \varphi_m + \kappa \), respectively. The coefficients of a form at \( \varphi_m \) in the linear expansion in terms of \( \cos[2\pi m/N(j-1)] \) and \( \sin[2\pi m/N(j-1)] \) are \( \cos \varphi_m \) and \( -\sin \varphi_m \), respectively.

Let

\[
\sum_m c_m[\cos \varphi_m \cos[2\pi m/N(j-1)]
- \sin \varphi_m \sin[2\pi m/N(j-1)]
+ d_m[\cos(\varphi_m + \kappa)\cos[2\pi m/N(j-1)]
- \sin(\varphi_m + \kappa)\sin[2\pi m/N(j-1)]]
= 0.
\]

Since \( \cos[2\pi m/N(j-1)] \) and \( \sin[2\pi m/N(j-1)] \) are linearly independent and the pairs in \( m \) are linearly independent, we have

\[c_m \cos \varphi_m + d_m \cos \varphi_m \cos \kappa - d_m \sin \varphi_m \sin \kappa = 0\]
and
\[ c_m \sin \varphi_m + d_m \sin \varphi_m \cos \kappa + d_m \cos \varphi_m \sin \kappa = 0 \]
for all \( m \). Hence,
\[ \sin \varphi_m (c_m \cos \varphi_m + d_m \cos \varphi_m \cos \kappa - d_m \sin \varphi_m \sin \kappa) = 0 \]
\[ \cos \varphi_m (c_m \sin \varphi_m + d_m \sin \varphi_m \cos \kappa + d_m \cos \varphi_m \sin \kappa) = 0 \]
for all \( m \). This gives:
\[ d_m \sin \kappa = 0 \]
or \( d_m = 0 \) unless \( \kappa = 0 \) or \( \pi \), which it does not, and \( c_m \cos \varphi_m = 0 \).
\[ c_m \sin \varphi_m = 0 \Rightarrow c_m = 0. \]
Therefore the primitive forms are linearly independent.

3. The coefficients in the linear expansion are independent of phase angle

Since the normal modes of \( E_m \) are linearly independent, the equations for the linear coefficients may be solved in groups of \( m \). The expressions for a ring at \( \varphi_m = R \), with primitive forms at phase angles \( A \) and \( B \), are
\[ XA(M) = \frac{-Q \cos R \sin B + Q \sin R \cos B}{\sin A \cos B - \cos A \sin B} \]
(coefficient of cos form)
\[ XB(M) = \frac{Q \cos R \sin A - Q \sin R \cos A}{\sin A \cos B - \cos A \sin B} \]
(coefficient of sin form).

Any equivalent primitive forms are generated by \( C_n \) or \( S_n \) operations: \( \phi \rightarrow \phi + (2m \pi / N) \). Any ring will thus have equivalent forms (a different ring numbering) at \( \varphi_m + (2m \pi / N) \) (Pickett & Strauss, 1971).

\[ P' \] is generated from \( P \) by rotation of \( 2\kappa \), since the spacings of the primitive forms are \( 2\kappa \). We now show \( P' \) and \( X \) have the same linear coefficients. Since \( P' \) and \( P \) are related by a \( C_n \) operation these have the same coefficients.

The form \( X \)
\[ XA = \frac{-\cos(A + \alpha) \sin(A + \kappa) + \sin(A + \alpha) \cos(A + \kappa)}{\sin(A \cos \alpha \cos \kappa - \sin \alpha \sin \kappa) - \cos(A \sin \alpha \cos \kappa + \sin \alpha \cos \kappa)} \]
\[ = \frac{\sin \alpha \cos \kappa - \sin \alpha \sin \kappa}{-\sin \kappa} \]
The form \( P' \)
\[ XA = \frac{-\cos(A + 2\kappa - \alpha) \sin(A + \kappa) + \sin(A + 2\kappa - \alpha) \cos(A + \kappa)}{\sin(A + 2\kappa) \cos(A + \kappa) - \cos(A + 2\kappa) \sin(A + \kappa)} \]
This denominator becomes \( \sin \kappa \). The numerator reduces to
\[ -\cos \kappa \cos 2\kappa \sin \alpha + \cos \kappa \sin 2\kappa \cos \alpha - \sin \kappa \cos 2\kappa \cos \alpha \]
\[ - \sin \kappa \sin 2\kappa \sin \alpha = -\sin \alpha \cos \kappa + \cos \alpha \sin \kappa. \]
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The numerator of the forms:

\[ P': \quad XB = \cos(A + 2\kappa - \alpha)\sin(A + 2\kappa) \]
\[ - \sin(A + 2\kappa - \alpha)\cos(A + 2\kappa) \]

\[ X: \quad XB = \cos(A + \alpha)\sin(A + 2\kappa) \]
\[ - \sin(A + \alpha)\cos(A + 2\kappa) \]
\[ = - \sin\alpha \]

The expression for \( P' \) becomes \( \sin\alpha \).

The coefficients of enantiomers are therefore the same.

4. Two primitive forms (cos form and sin form) differ in phase only

For example, primitive forms of eight-membered rings.

Consider the case where an equivalent form of the primitive cos form is the primitive sin form. An equivalent form of \( X \) will therefore lie at \( P2 \). The coefficients of \( P2 \) and \( X \) will not be the same, but the coefficients of each cos and sin form will be reversed. The forms \( X \) and \( P2 \) are equivalent simply because the cos form and sin form are different phases of the same form.

To show that the coefficients are inverted, consider the forms (1) and (2)

\[ \cos(\varphi) \]
\[ \sin(\varphi) \]

with the \( \varphi \) of the cos and sin forms as \( A \) and \( B \), respectively.

\[ XA(1) = \frac{-\cos(A + \alpha)\sin B + \sin(A + \alpha)\cos B}{\sin A \cos B - \cos A \sin B} \]

The numerator is given by

\[ - \cos A \cos\alpha \sin B + \sin A \sin\alpha \sin B + \sin A \cos\alpha \cos B \]
\[ + \cos A \cos B \sin\alpha. \]

\[ XB(2) = \frac{\cos(B - \alpha)\sin A - \sin(B - \alpha)\cos A}{\sin A \cos B - \cos A \sin B} \]

The numerator is given by

\[ \cos B \cos\alpha \sin A + \sin B \sin\alpha \sin A - \sin B \cos\alpha \cos A \]
\[ + \cos B \sin\alpha \cos A. \]

\( XA(2) \) is similarly equal to \( XB(1) \).

References