Crystal Structures and Properties of Nylon Polymers from Theory

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Abstract: A complete force field (MSXX) for simulation of all nylon polymers is derived from ab initio quantum calculations. Special emphasis is given to the accuracy of the hydrogen bond potential for the amide unit and the torsional potential between the peptide and alkane fragments. The MSXX force field was used to predict the structures, moduli, and detailed geometries of all nine nylons for which there are experimental crystal data plus one other. For nylon-(2n) with 2n ≤ 6, the α crystal structure (with all-trans CH2 chains nearly coplanar with the hydrogen bonding plane) is more stable, while for 2n > 6, γ (with the alkane plane twisted by 70°) is more stable. This change results from the increased importance of methylene packing interactions over H bonds for larger 2n. We find the highest Young’s modulus for nylon-7.

1. Introduction

Nylon polymers consist of polyethylene segments (CH2)n separated by peptide units (NH–CO) which are either parallel or antiparallel:

\[
\text{nylon-}_n = \left[-(\text{NH} - \text{CO}) \cdots (-\text{CH}_2)_{n-1} - \right] (1)
\]

\[
\text{nylon-}_{m,n} = \left[-(\text{NH} - \text{CO}) \cdots (\text{CH}_2)_{n-2} - (\text{CO} - \text{NH}) - (\text{CH}_2)_{m-1} - \right] (2)
\]

These peptide units provide hydrogen bonding between polymer chains (see Figure 1), giving nylon some of its unique properties. In contrast to other highly crystalline polymers like polyethylene, nylon polymers can have their degree of crystallinity controlled over a wide range. It has a unique combination of stiffness, toughness, lubricity, and resistance to abrasion, fatigue, and temperature that makes it one of the most versatile thermoplastics in use today. By changing the amide density, one can modify such properties as the melting point, modulus, low-temperature impact strength, moisture absorption, and chemical resistance to metal salts and acids. The two largest volume nylon polymers are nylon-6 and nylon-6,6 which are widely used for carpets and garments. Nylon-11 and nylon-12 are mainly used in tubing extrusion, cable jacketing, injection molding, and coating of metal objects.

Despite the industrial importance of nylon polymers, there remain considerable uncertainties about the crystal structures, moduli, and other properties of these systems. Nylon polymers tend to be partially crystalline, but reliable experimental information about the ordered regions is difficult to obtain. Generic force fields (developed without special emphasis on nylon moieties) tend to have incorrect torsional preferences for the small-molecule analogs of the nylons. Additionally, the room temperature dynamics indicates that the crystal structures are metastable and distort severely. Consequently, we have used ab initio quantum chemistry (QC) to develop the new MSXX force field (FF) suitable for all forms of nylon polymers, including crystals and amorphous and partially crystalline systems. This MSXX FF is applied here to all nine nylon polymers for which there is structural information and to one other.

Since the unique structural and thermomechanical properties of nylon polymers are dominated by the hydrogen bonds in these polyamides, we paid careful attention to the description of hydrogen bonding. QC was used to determine the hydrogen-bonding potentials, an approach that should be useful for all hydrogen-bonded systems (including peptides and DNA). The regularities of nylon polymers make them ideal for validating the hydrogen bond potential.

Section 2 derives the MSXX FF for nylon polymers. Section 3 discusses the various nylon crystals and the properties predicted with the MSXX FF.

2. MSXX Force Field

2.1. Hydrogen Bond Potential. 2.1.1. Calculational Details. All ab initio calculations were done using the Gaussian92 suite of programs1 while all molecular mechanics calculations were done with PolyGraf2 modified at Caltech. For all the MM calculations, the convergence criteria used were 0.01 kcal/mol Å for atom rms forces and 0.1 kcal/mol Å rms cell forces. For the calculation of the zero point energy of the crystal structures, we chose n equally spaced points along each reciprocal lattice vector. All phonons at all the n = 3 points were treated as Einstein oscillators for calculating the partition function. Usually, at n = 3, the zero point energies were converged.

To derive FF parameters for simulation of nylons, we studied various model systems using ab initio quantum chemistry (QC) calculations at two levels: (i) MP2/6-31G** Møller–Plesset perturbation theory for electron correlation using a valence double-ζ basis set with polarization functions on all atoms and (ii) HF/6-31G** Hartree–Fock (uncorrelated) with the same basis set. The binding energy of complexes will generally be overestimated due to basis set superposition error (BSSE).


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(2) Biograf/Polygraf from Molecular Simulations Inc., San Diego, CA.
Consequently, we correct BSSE using the counterpoise method\(^3\) which uses all basis functions for the complex in calculating the energy of the constituent molecules. Since the complex can use only the unoccupied orbitals of the partner, the counterpoise calculation overcorrects for the BSSE by about 5–10% of the total BSSE correction.\(^4\)

The new hydrogen bond potential is derived from calculations of the formamide dimer, Figure 2. Subtracting electrostatic interactions (based on fixed point charges extracted from QC on the monomers) leads to a new form of the short-range hydrogen bond potential. Since experimental data are unavailable for this dimer,\(^5\) we tested it by calculations of the water–formamide and formaldehyde–formamide complexes, where microwave gas phase structure determinations have been reported\(^6\) following \textit{ab initio} calculations.\(^7\)

2.1.2. Water–Formamide Complex. In order to determine whether the 6-31G** basis is adequate, we also considered the more complete TZ2P** basis (which contains three sets of valence s and p functions instead of two, plus two sets of polarization functions rather than one, plus a set of diffuse function).

For the water–formamide complex, we calculated the structure and the binding energies using MP2 with both basis

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\(^{(5)}\) It would probably exhibit a cyclic structure with two hydrogen bonds like the formamide–water and formamide–methanol complexes. For the nylons of interest to this study, the orientation of the two formamide dimers, Figure 2, is different than would be present in the cyclic dimer.


sets. The energies, geometries, and rotational constants are compared with the experiment\(^6\) in Table 1. The 6-31G\(^*\) basis leads to a bond energy just 0.17 kcal/mol too high (2%) and slight changes in the geometry (0.02–0.07 Å in bond distances, up to 3° in angles). Compared to experiment, we see differences of about 0.1 Å (5%) in the bond distances, 5–8° in the bond angles, and a significant discrepancy in the tilt of the water plane with respect to the formamide plane: calculated, 65.3° (MP2/6-31G\(^*\))/7.9° (TZ2P); experimental, 65.9° (Reference 7). Such discrepancies are expected because experiment measures the vibrationally averaged structure over the double-minimum potential which has an interconversion barrier of only 0.11 kcal/mol (35 cm\(^{-1}\)).

The internal geometry was optimized at each level of calculation for all monomers. In many previous dimer calculations, the geometries of the constituent molecules were frozen and only the intermolecular parameters allowed to optimize. This constraint is not too restrictive for the final geometries and energies of hydrogen-bonded complexes, as borne out by our calculations for the formamide–water duplex. Here we also allowed the internal geometries to optimize (at the MP2/6-31G\(^*\) level). The data, Table 1, show that the binding energy changes by 0.61 kcal/mol or 7.3% while the change in the intermolecular geometry is 0.03–0.04 Å (1.5–2%).

Table 2 shows that the monomer geometries are described quite accurately at the MP2 level with both basis sets (bonds within 0.018 and 0.002 Å and angles within 1.8° and 1.1° for 6-31G\(^*\) and TZ2P, respectively). The calculated dipole moments for the monomers agree well with the experimental values. Since hydrogen bonding is dominated by the electrostatic interactions, it is important to ensure that the long-range electrostatics is accurately described. This is evidenced by the accuracy in the calculated dipole moment (within 0.26 D for 6-31G\(^*\) and 0.14 D for TZ2P).

Calculations of the formamide–water complex have often assumed \(^7\) a planar (\(C_s\) symmetry) structure; however, our calculations (\textit{vide supra}) and experiment\(^8\) both lead to a \(C_1\) structure with the water plane tilted from the plane of the formamide molecule.

The geometrical parameters for the optimized complex agree well with experimental values. The calculated intermolecular parameters at the minimum in the potential energy surface are reported in Table 1 for both (i) the case with the monomer geometries frozen and (ii) the case where they are allowed to relax. While the calculated rotational constants are in very good agreement with the experimental results, there are a couple of significant differences. The water H to carbonyl O distance \(r_1\) is smaller than the water O to amide H distance \(r_2\) in all calculations \((r_1/r_2 = 0.913\) (Reference 49) and is reversed from the experimental ratio \((r_1/r_2 = 1.029)\). Optimizing the geometry of the monomers at the MP2/6-31G\(^*\) level in the complex reduces \(r_2\) so that \(r_1/r_2 = 0.960\). More significantly, the tilt of the water H–O–H plane is calculated to be much larger than deduced from the microwave spectrum. The geometry optimizations were started from the experimental structure (a tilt of 15.3°), but we find that this tilt increases to 65.3° for the fully optimized structure, 65.9° for the frozen monomer complex at the MP2/6-31G\(^*\) level, and 42.4° with the larger basis set. This tilt orients the oxygen lone pair orbital of water to point toward the amide N–H bond, which should optimize the H bonding. Using the frozen monomer geometries, the calculated barrier to planarity for this complex is 0.109 kcal/mol.

\begin{table}[h!]
\centering
\caption{Monomer Geometries\(^a\)}
\begin{tabular}{lcccccc}
\hline
source & exptl & MP2/TZ2P\(^++\) & MP2/6-31G\(^*\) &
\hline
H\(_2\)O & & & & & & \\
HO & 0.957 & 0.960 & 0.961 & & & \\
dipole & 1.85 & 1.92 & 2.11 & & & \\
formamide & & & & & & \\
C–N & 1.342 & 1.358 & 1.360 & & & \\
C=O & 1.219 & 1.218 & 1.223 & & & \\
NH & 1.002 & 1.004 & 1.005 & & & \\
NH\(_2\) & 1.002 & 1.002 & 1.002 & & & \\
CH\(_3\) & 1.098 & 1.100 & 1.100 & & & \\
CN\(_1\) & 118.5 & 119.2 & 118.8 & & & \\
CN\(_2\) & 119.9 & 121.0 & 121.7 & & & \\
OCH & 122.6 & 122.6 & 123.1 & & & \\
OCN & 124.7 & 124.8 & 124.8 & & & \\
dipole & 3.73 & 3.87 & 3.78 & & & \\
formaldehyde & & & & & & \\
C=O & 1.203 & 1.219 & & & & \\
C–H & 1.099 & 1.099 & & & & \\
HCH & 116.5 & 115.5 & & & & \\
OCH & 121.7 & 122.2 & & & & \\
dipole & 2.33 & 2.23 & & & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\footnotesize{\textit{a} Units: distances, Å; angles, deg; dipole, D. \textit{b} Reference 49.}
\end{table}
At the MP2/6-31G** level, this monomer was optimized and kept rigid, forming the dimer, unless comparison. At each level of calculation the geometry of each isolated Gaussian 92). 1 [Hartree the potential for in-plane sliding (the peptide bonds coplanar (the xy plane), we see in Figure 4a that the potential for in-plane sliding (the y direction) is quite soft (this motion moves the proton past one of the sp2 lone pairs of the carbonyl). Such parallel CO and HN bonds are relevant to nyons.

Displacement in the out-of-plane direction z results in a much stiffer potential (see Figure 4b), due to rapid loss of overlap with the lone pairs. Indeed, one could argue that charges should be centered on these lone pairs in order to properly describe the angular dependence of electrostatics. In the particular case of the carbonyl lone pairs, one would also have to model the anisotropy of the angular dependence in-plane vs out-of-plane, which requires a four-body term rather than the current simple two-body terms we use. Since we use only atom-centered charges for convenience in molecular dynamics, there is nothing additional to fit here and these comparisons serve as an overall test of the assumption that all potentials can be centered on the atoms and that the van der Waals (vdW) interactions can be described as sums of two-body terms.

2.1.4. H⋯O van der Waals Potential. At intermediate distances the strongly attractive behavior of hydrogen bonds is primarily due to electrostatic interactions, while at short distances, there are other effects including Pauli orthogonality, polarization, and London dispersion. We group these other effects together in a single vdw potential. We use the charge distribution of the isolated molecule to determine the long-range electrostatic interactions. From Figure 3 we see that this electrostatic potential nearly coincides with the total potential for $R > 2.5 \AA$, but at shorter distances the electrostatic curve is too attractive. To determine the H⋯O vdw potential we start with the total QC potential, subtract the electrostatic potential, and subtract all vdw interactions except the H⋯O interaction. The resulting H⋯O vdw potential is strongly repulsive for short distances (due to orthogonalization of the orbitals arising from the Pauli principle) and slightly attractive at larger distances (the London dispersion forces resulting from instantaneous correlation of dipole fluctuations on the separate molecules).

The MP2 level of electron correlation describes the simultaneous fluctuations in the charges of molecules responsible for the London attraction; however, the 6-31G** basis set is not sufficient for an accurate description of these long-range attractive forces at larger distances. However, such larger basis sets have little effect on the bond energies and geometries near the equilibrium region. Consequently, we have adopted MP2/6-31G** as a practical level of calculation for systematic application to a wide variety of systems.

Given the numerical potential in Figure 3 from the ab initio calculations, it is useful to have an analytic form of the vdw energy for use in molecular dynamics studies. We find that an adequate description is given by the pure exponential form

\[
E(R) = E_0 - 
\]
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\[ E_{\text{vdW}}^{\text{exp}} = A \exp \left( \frac{-(R - R_0)}{C} \right) \]  

(3a)

with \( A = 0.028 \) kcal/mol, \( C = 0.251 \) Å, and \( R_0 = 3.017 \) Å. To describe the long-range attraction in the vDW potential, one can replace (3a) with the Morse function

\[ E_{\text{Morse}} = A \left\{ \exp \left[ -\frac{(R - R_0)}{C} \right] - 2 \exp \left[ -\frac{(R - R_0)}{2C} \right] \right\} \]  

(3b)

However, for the cases considered here, (3b) leads to essentially the same results as (3a).

To test transferability of the new potential, we carried out similar MP2 calculations on the formamide-formaldehyde complex, leading to \( R_{0,\text{NH}} = 2.10 \) Å and \( D = 3.72 \) kcal/mol. Using the electrostatic potential for formamide and formaldehyde, we find values of \( A = 0.029 \) kcal/mol, \( C = 0.251 \) Å, and \( R_0 = 3.013 \) Å, confirming the transferability of (3a).

2.1.5. Comparison to Other H Bond Potentials. A variety of H bond potentials have been used for molecular dynamics simulations. The AMBER FF\(^{10}\) describes hydrogen bonds as a combination of electrostatic forces plus a 10–12 Lennard-Jones potential, \( E_{\text{vdW}}^{\text{AMBER}} = AR^{10} - BR^{12} \). The new version, AMBER2,\(^{11}\) uses a combination of electrostatics and the normal 6–12 Lennard-Jones potential to describe H bonds. This uses charges based on the restrained electrostatic potential (RESP) scheme to fit the quantum mechanical wave functions.\(^{12}\)

Exponential (3a) and Morse-like (3b) potentials have been proposed earlier (see ref 11 for compilation of various forms of H bond potentials in the literature). Damewood et al.\(^{13}\) argue that one should retain the same form of the nonbonded potential for all atoms as this does not require decisions as to which atoms are special H-bonded atoms. They provided a method for using experimental (and/or ab initio) data to parametrize the H bond potentials using the standard vDW potentials for the other atoms. However, all these methods focus on the binding energy and equilibrium bond length of the H bond and not on the full potential energy curve.

Our method is distinct from all of these others since we calculate the full PES curve (in the directions that are especially important) and base our modeling potential on fitting the entire ab initio data.

2.2. Valence FF. For nylon the key FF parameters involve the peptide unit, and hence we used N-methylacetamide as the model for determining the valence FF.

Previous MP2/6-31G* calculations\(^{14}\) on conformers I, III, and IV, Figure 2, indicated that conformer III is the lowest in energy, but that the other conformers have comparable energies (within 0.093 kcal/mol) with quite small barriers for interconversion (≤0.1 kcal/mol). Conformer IV was found to be the lowest\(^{15}\) at the HF/6-31G* level. Structural and energy parameters are reported in Table 1S (Supporting Information).

At the MP2/6-31G** level, we find the same four low-lying conformers, all within 0.13 kcal/mol (Figure 2). However, we find that I has the lowest energy. At room temperature all


\(^{12}\) Bayly, C. I.; Cieplak, P.; Cornwell, W. D.; Kollman, P. A. J. Phys. Chem. 1993, 97, 10269. It is difficult to compare results on the quality of the fits to the H bond potentials since the data presented are only at the minimum in the potential and not over the full range of H-bonding interactions. Note that there is an inaccuracy in the citation (h) of the molecular mechanics data in Table 16 of ref 10. The correct reference for this is ref 48 in this paper and ref 32 in their paper.


conformers are expected to be significantly populated. Indeed, Mirkin and Krimm (MK)\(^{15}\) used scaled frequencies from HF/4-31G* to show that all conformers are present in Ar and N\(_2\) matrices [they were able to assign all the observed fundamental frequencies in the spectrum to proper normal modes].

We used the biased Hessian (BH) method\(^{16}\) to optimize the valence FF parameters for N-methylacetamide on the basis of the normal mode description from HF/6-31G** and the vibrational frequencies from experiment. BH uses singular value decomposition (SVD)\(^{17}\) to optimize the parameters in the FF with the constraints of fitting: (i) the given geometry (by obtaining zero forces), (ii) the normal mode eigenfunctions, and (iii) the experimental vibrational frequencies.

The FF is taken to have the form

\[ E = E_{\text{bond}} + E_{\text{ang}} + E_{\text{torsion}} + E_{\text{inv}} + E_r + E_{\text{ex}} + E_{\text{vdW}} + E_Q \]

(4)

\( E_{\text{bond}} \) used Morse (5a) or Harmonic (5b) bond potentials

\[ E_{\text{bond}} = D_b \left[ e^{-\alpha_b(r - R_0)} - 1 \right]^2 \]  

(5a)

\[ E_{\text{bond}} = (1/2)K_b(r - R_0)^2 \]  

(5b)

where \( r \) is the length of the bond, \( R_0 \) and \( D_b \) are the position and depth of the well, and \( K_b = 2D_b\alpha_b^2 \) is the force constant. \( E_{\text{ang}} \) uses

\[ E_{\text{ang}} = (1/2)\alpha_{\theta}(\cos \theta - \cos \theta_0)^2 \]  

(6)

where \( \theta \) is the angle, \( \theta_0 \) is the equilibrium angle, and \( K_\theta = C_\theta \) is the diagonal force constant. \( E_{\text{torsion}} \) is

\[ E_{\text{torsion}} = (1/2) \sum_{n=0}^{6} V_n \cos n\tau \]  

(7)

where \( \tau \) is the torsional angle (\( \tau = 0 \) for cis), and \( V_n \) is the barrier (energy of cis over trans). For \( sp^3 \)–\( sp^3 \) single bonds, there are nine possible dihedral combinations. These nine terms are scaled by 1/9 so that the net barrier for rotation remains \( V_n \). \( E_{\text{inv}} \) is

\[ E_{\text{inv}} = (1/2)C_i(\cos \psi - \cos \psi_0)^2 \]  

(8)

Given an atom I bonded to exactly three other atoms, J, K, and L, \( \psi \) is the angle between the IL bond and the IJK plane and \( \psi_0 \) is the equilibrium value (\( \psi_0 = 0 \) corresponds to the planar configuration). Here the force constant is \( K_\psi = C_\psi \) and the barrier to planarization is

\[ V_{\text{bar}} = (1/2)C_i(1 - \cos \psi_0)^2 \]  

There are three possible choices for \( L \). To remove any biases, we sum over all three and multiple by 1/3.

For each angle term we use the bond–angle and bond–bond cross terms:

\[ E_x = K_{\theta e}(r - R_0)(\cos \theta - \cos \theta_0) + K_{\theta e}(r - R_0)(\cos \theta - \cos \theta_0) + K_{\theta e}(r - R_0)(\cos \theta - \cos \theta_0) + K_{\theta e}(r - R_0)(\cos \theta - \cos \theta_0) \]  

(9a)

We also include two-center angle–angle terms described by


where the coupling around central bond JK involves \( K_{ja} \) between angles IJK and JKL and \( K_{jb} \) between bonds IJ and KL. In order to provide a smooth dependence on the dihedral angle, we use the cos \( \phi \) factor [1 for \( \phi = 0 \) (cis), -1 for \( \phi = 180 \) (trans), and 0 for \( \phi = 90 \)]. The vDW term uses

\[
E_{vdw} = D \left[ \left( \frac{6}{\xi - 6} \right)^{1/6} \right]^{(1-\rho)} - \left( \frac{6}{\xi - 6} \right)^{6} \]

where \( \rho = R_0/R \). Here \( D \) is the well depth, \( R \) is the distance at the minimum, and \( \xi \) is a dimensionless constant related to the stiffness of the inner wall.

\[
E_Q = C_Q(e_1 e_2 J r)
\]

where \( C_Q = 332.0637 \) converts units to give \( E_Q \) in kilocalories per mole when the charges are in electron units and distance is in angstroms.

The BH method systematically varies the FF parameters to obtain the closest fit to the \( ab \) initio normal modes, the experimental geometry, and the experimental frequencies. Since vibrational frequencies are a sensitive test of the accuracy of a FF, this ensures a vibrationally accurate FF. This method has been successfully used for many systems and typically leads to a FF with vibrational frequencies accurate to about 10 cm\(^{-1}\).

The most recent experimental studies (denoted SHT) examined the 19 in-plane \( A' \) modes for 9 isotopic species. In addition to the extensive analysis by MK of all four conformers for this molecule, an earlier \( ab \) initio calculation also assigned normal modes. While there are some subtle differences in normal mode compositions between these two calculations and also with the experimentally refined FF of SHT, our HF/6-31G** normal modes agree quite well with the previous assignments. In the congested CH stretching region around 2800–3000 cm\(^{-1}\), the order of modes differs for each calculation, but the differences are not significant. The only real disagreement is for the two lowest \( A' \) frequencies. Like Balazs, we find that the 1\( A' \) mode involves torsion about the C–N bond with some amount of NH out-of-plane (oop) bending while the 2\( A' \) modes is dominated by NH oop bending with a smaller torsion component. The calculations of MK have this reversed. We believe that this is probably a typographical error since their reported force constant for the C–N torsion is smaller than that for the NH oop bending.

Since all four conformers are so closely spaced in energy and the barriers to methyl rotations are negligibly small, all conformers are expected to coexist in the gas phase. Even in the hydrogen-bonded liquid phase, it is likely that all of the conformers coexist. Aside from MK, other calculations and experimental papers have not taken this into account. We chose to base our FF on fitting conformer IV using the scaled frequencies from MK (with the exceptions noted above). The results, Table 3, indicate that the match between the experimental and calculated frequencies is very good. The FF from fitting the vibrational frequencies leads to a barrier of 14.99 kcal/mol for the C–N partial double bond torsion, which compares favorably with the estimated barrier of 15 kcal/mol.

### 2.3. Torsional Potentials

The single bond torsional potentials, \( C(amide) = C \) and \( N(amide) = C \), are particularly important for nylon, and hence we calculated the full torsional potential by optimizing the geometry (using HF/6-31G**) at each point on the torsional curve. [Rigid rotation without geometry optimization leads to very bad contacts for particular values of the dihedrals, resulting in a poor description of the torsional potential.]

The barrier for rotation about the N(amide)–C bond, calculated for \( N \)-ethylyacetamide, is shown in Figure 5b. The minimum is near 90° with a small trans barrier (0.54 kcal/mol). The cis barrier of 5.55 kcal/mol results from steric interactions. Between 90° and 180°, the potential is quite flat. The minimum in the N(amide)–C torsional potential near 90° apparently arises because the nitrogen \( \pi \) lone pair prefers to overlap the C–C bond (a weak anomic effect). This leads to smaller repulsions arising from orthogonalization due to the Pauli principle than having it overlap the CH bonds.

In contrast, the C(amide)–C potential, calculated for \( N \)-methylpropionamide (Figure 5a) has its minimum near 163°, with a trans barrier of only 0.04 kcal/mol. The cis conformation is 1.60 kcal/mol above the trans conformation [there is a maximum (1.63 kcal/mol) near 30°].

### Table 3. Normal Modes of N-Methylacetamide

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>Amide</th>
<th>Symmetry</th>
<th>Experimental</th>
<th>FF</th>
<th>HP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CH–C</td>
<td>A&quot;&quot;</td>
<td>52°</td>
<td>106°</td>
<td>-44°</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C=CH–C</td>
<td>A'</td>
<td>139°</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>13</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C=CH–C</td>
<td>A&quot;</td>
<td>178°</td>
<td>177</td>
<td>171</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C=CH–C</td>
<td>A&quot;</td>
<td>280°</td>
<td>278</td>
<td>284</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NH–C</td>
<td>A&quot;&quot;</td>
<td>544°</td>
<td>453</td>
<td>368</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CH–C + CO ip + (C)CH3 ro</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>450</td>
<td>451</td>
<td>457</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CH–C + CO ip</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>649</td>
<td>647</td>
<td>673</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CO ip + (C)CH3 ro</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>639</td>
<td>654</td>
<td>684</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CN ro + (N)CH3 ro + CNC δ</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>861</td>
<td>861</td>
<td>948</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(C)CH3 ro + CO op δ</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>984</td>
<td>980</td>
<td>1084</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(N)CH3 ro + CN ro</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>1197</td>
<td>1184</td>
<td>1305</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NH ip δ + CO ip δ + CN ro</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>1266</td>
<td>1262</td>
<td>1399</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(C)CH3 ro + (C)CH3 a δ</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>1423</td>
<td>1425</td>
<td>1595</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(C)CH3 ro + (N)CH3 a δ</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>1429</td>
<td>1447</td>
<td>1600</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(C)CH3 ro + (C)CH3 a δ</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>1441</td>
<td>1464</td>
<td>1611</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(C)CH3 ro + (N)CH3 a δ</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>1441</td>
<td>1482</td>
<td>1615</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NH ip δ + CN ro</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>1469</td>
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<td>V</td>
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<td>3510</td>
<td>3929</td>
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**Abbreviations:** \( r \) for torsion, \( δ \) for bending, ip for in-plane, op for out-of-plane, ro for rocking, \( ν \) for stretching, a for antisymmetric, and s for symmetric.

These are experimental values (except as noted) from ref 15 which were assigned by comparison to scaled \( ab \) initio values for conformer IV. These two frequencies are the theoretical values calculated by Balazs. These are not used for parameter optimization as the methyls are essentially free rotors. These two \( A' \) modes have different assignments in Balazs and Mirkin and Krimm. Our HF/6-31G** normal modes agree with the former, and consequently we used the scaled experimental frequencies from the former. These two values are negative since this conformer is not the lowest energy rotamer for this methyl rotor in the HF and FF calculations.

deviations for various groups in similar positions in the different molecules, whereas the Mulliken populations show little variance. Indeed for crowded molecules PDQ charges sometimes lead to misleading results. Consequently we have averaged the PDQ charges from a series of molecules in such a way as to be consistent with the changes in Mulliken populations.

The final recommended charges are shown for the generic nylon backbone in Figure 6. We find a net charge of +0.2 on the methylene (or methyl) unit adjacent to the amide nitrogen, presumably because of the extra polarization due to the lone pair on the (electronegative) nitrogen. However, the methylene (or methyl) unit adjacent to the carbonyl C is neutral. On the basis of the averages of the amide charges for the series, we assign charges of −0.62 to O, 0.74 to C, −0.68 to N, and 0.32 to the amide H. From the hydrocarbon calculations, we assign 0.14 to all methylene (or methyl) H atoms, with the exception of the methylene adjacent to the N. From charge neutrality, all methylene C atoms are assigned equal and opposite charges (−0.28 or −0.42). For the methylene adjacent to the amide N the C has a charge of −0.06 and the H has a charge of 0.13, leading to a net transfer of 0.2 electron unit to the amide group. The full FFs for the nylon simulations are reported in Table 4.

3. Nylon Polymers

3.1. Types of Nylon. The naming scheme for unsubstituted nylon is as follows. If polymerized from the monoacid [NH₂–(CH₂)ₙ₋₁–C(O)(OH)] to form (1), it is designated as nylon-n. If made from the condensation of the diamine [H₂N–(CH₂)ₙ₋₁–NH₂] and the diacid [C(O)(OH)–(CH₂)₂–γ–C(O)(OH)] to form (2), it is denoted as nylon-m.n. Commercially, the most important nylons are nylon-6,6 and nylon-6, which are used in carpet fibers and textiles.

3.2. Crystal Structures. The crystal structures observed for nylons fall into two categories (24) (1) α and β phases (this includes the even nylons-4 and -6, even–even nylons-6,6 and -6,10, and odd nylons-7 and -11), (2) γ phase (this includes the even nylons from -8 up and the even–odd, odd–even, and odd–odd nylons). The stable α phase (category 1) consists of planar sheets of hydrogen-bonded chains with sheets stacked upon one another and displaced along the chain direction by a fixed amount, Figure 1a. The β phase is not distinct, probably involving a small modification of the α phase. There is no definitive crystal structure, and this form is not of practical interest. The γ phase (category 2) has pleated sheets of the methylene units with hydrogen bonding between sheets rather than within sheets (25). Figure 1b.

The principal structural difference between α and γ forms is that the amide-to-methylene dihedrals are near trans (164–168°) in α and nearly perpendicular to the peptide plane (∼126°) in γ. With axial tension the γ form can usually be converted to the α form. (26–28)

Nylon-4 and -6 are unusual because they are observed to crystallize in both the α and γ phases. For nylon-6 the γ phase is less stable and can be transformed to the α phase by various treatments, including pressure.

Figure 5. Torsional potentials: (a, top) the N(amide)–C(amide)–C–C dihedral in N-methylpropionamide, (b, middle) the C(amide)–N(amide)–C–C dihedral in N-ethylacetamide, (c, bottom) combination of both dihedrals. In each case the structure of the molecule was completely optimized for each value of the dihedral. Shown are the calculated values from HF/6-31G** (□) and from the FF (× inside □). A smooth line is drawn through the FF points to guide the eye.

The primary difference between the α and the γ forms of the even nylons is in these two dihedrals. Both dihedrals have the same value in order that the alkyl chains be all-trans. The α form has ϕ ≈ 164 to 168° while the γ form has ϕ ≈ 126°. This is expected from the theory. Figure 5c shows the two torsional curves added. Here we see a minimum at 160°, but the potential is quite flat all the way to 120°. Thus, distorting these two dihedrals from ∼160° in the α form to 126° in the γ form costs only 0.22 kcal/mol of energy.

In parametrizing the torsional potential about these two bonds, we use only the single heavy atom torsional barrier (C–N–C–C in N-ethylacetamide and N–C–C–C in N-methylpropionamide) while keeping the other barriers (like H–N–C–C, C–N–C–H, etc.) fixed at 0.0.

2.4. Charges. To derive the charges for the nylon simulations, we calculated potential derived charges (PDQs) for a series of small model amide molecules using the CHelpG scheme (22) in the Gaussian92 program, Figure 6. The PDQs show large

Fredericks et al. reported that the crystal structure of the α phase of nylon-4 is strongly dependent on the β and γ phases, and the results were distinct from the γ phase. The β phase is converted to the α phase by heat treatment, which requires the γ phase. The δ phase is formed by heating nylon-4, which is more stable and has the smallest volume per molecule. The crystal structure of the α phase of nylon-4 is well known, and it is used as a reference for other nylon polymers.

3.3. Nylon-6 α. There is substantial confusion regarding the structure of nylon-6 α. The earliest crystal structure reported had some incorrect atomic coordinates, which were subsequently rectified. A later study found slightly different dimensions, particularly along the chain axis, but the most recent studies find dimensions similar to those of the earlier work. The fiber diffraction pattern does not yield enough data to uniquely determine the structure, and the actual coordinates were deduced from model building. Thus, the setting angle of the crystal structure cannot be determined with certainty.

We calculated the crystal packing energies of the P21 and P21/c space groups and found that the P21 packing is energetically better by about 0.61 kcal/mol per amide. The valence interactions slightly favor P21/c (by 0.01 kcal/mol per amide) but nonbonded terms (including the hydrogen bond energy) favor P21 by 0.69 kcal/mol per amide.

The minimized P21 structure shows a significant structural feature not expected from previous analyses of the crystal structure. The plane of the methylene units is tilted 17° from the plane of the amides. This is expected from the N−C−C−C and C−N−C−C dihedral potentials, Figure 5. Simultaneous twisting of both bonds leads to a minimum at 160° with an energy 0.18 kcal/mol below planar. Indeed twisting the methylene chain by 50° from the plane increases the energy by only 0.2 kcal/mol. Such twisting leads to a slight contraction of the chain repeat distance by 0.067 Å.

Table 5 shows the optimum cell dimension along the chain axis to be 17.602 Å (0 K), significantly larger than the experimental values of 17.24−17.4 Å reported for T = 423−133 K. The observed negative expansivity and larger value at 0 K is expected from chain flexing.

Two models have been proposed for the chain contraction: (i) Natta and Corradini suggested that the chains twist at the amide groups while (ii) Ito proposed that the twisting is at the methylene groups. The X-ray data did not allow definite conclusions as to which model is correct in the 123 range. Our calculations clearly indicate that the primary twisting occurs at the amide groups and is present for all α phase nylons. Sakurada and Kaji speculate that nylon-6,10 assumes a strictly planar structure; however, we find that nylon-6,10 twists to 168° just as the others, Table 5.

Perpendicular to the chain axis, the hydrogen-bonded direction is longer (A = 9.58 Å) than the vdW direction perpendicular to the sheets (C = 7.76 Å). This is because the packing of the methylene units on adjacent sheets is staggered, whereas they are more eclipsed between the H-bonded chains in the same sheet (because of the hydrogen-bonding forces).

The hydrogen-bonding distance of N::O is 2.96−2.99 Å (Table 6) in good agreement with the 2.98 Å reported by Malta et al., but longer than the 2.81 Å reported by Holmes et al. The H::O distance of 2.00 Å compares to the value of 1.8 Å in ice.

The shortest nonbonded distances between alkyl H atoms on different chains is 2.14 Å which is considerably shorter than the 2.45 Å in polyethylene. This contrast with the γ structure where the shortest distances are 2.47 Å. This shows that in the α form hydrogen bonding squeezes the chains together to cause bad CH₂···CH₂ interactions.

---

(a) Formamide

(b) N-methyl acetamide

(c) N-ethyl acetamide

(d) N-methyl propionamide

(e) N-propyl propionamide

(f) Nylon Polymers

Figure 6. Charges for various amide models and nylon polymers.
Table 4. Force field Parameters for Nylons

<table>
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<tr>
<td>(C_1-H)</td>
<td>726.71</td>
<td>1.076</td>
<td>95.1</td>
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angles (eqs 6 and 9a)

\[
\begin{align*}
\theta & \quad K_\theta & \quad K_{\theta,0} & \quad K_{\theta,0} & \quad K_{\theta,2} \\
\gamma & \quad K_\gamma & \quad K_{\gamma,0} & \quad K_{\gamma,0} & \quad K_{\gamma,2} \\
\chi & \quad K_\chi & \quad K_{\chi,0} & \quad K_{\chi,0} & \quad K_{\chi,2} \\
\end{align*}
\]

inversions (eq 8)

\[
\begin{align*}
C\_1-X-X-X & \quad 73.95 & \quad 0.00 \\
N\_2-C\_1-X-X & \quad 20.68 & \quad 0.00 \\
\end{align*}
\]

torsions (eq 7)

\[
\begin{align*}
V_0 & \quad V_1 & \quad V_2 & \quad V_3 & \quad V_4 & \quad V_5 & \quad V_6 \\
\end{align*}
\]

torsion cross terms (eq 9b)

\[
\begin{align*}
K_{\alpha} & \quad K_{\beta} \\
\end{align*}
\]

van der Waals (eq 10)

\[
\begin{align*}
H & \quad 3.1665 & \quad 0.0200 & \quad 12.0000 \\
C_3 & \quad 3.8410 & \quad 0.0792 & \quad 13.0000 \\
C_2 & \quad 3.8410 & \quad 0.0792 & \quad 13.0000 \\
N_2 & \quad 3.6621 & \quad 0.0774 & \quad 13.8430 \\
O_2 & \quad 3.4046 & \quad 0.0957 & \quad 13.4820 \\
O::H & \quad 3.0170 & \quad 0.0280 & \quad 12.0000 \\
\end{align*}
\]

\[*\] The charges are given in Figure 6. Units: kcal/mol for energy, Å for distances, deg for structure angles, rad for force constant angles.

While nylon-6 is most stable in the \(\alpha\) form, a \(\gamma\) form has also been observed. We calculated the minimized crystal structure and energetics of the \(\gamma\) form, Tables 5–7. After correcting for ZPE, the \(\alpha\) form is more stable than the \(\gamma\) form by 0.304 kcal/mol per amide unit. However, since the volume per chain is smaller for the \(\gamma\) form, the cohesive energy density is slightly larger than that of the \(\alpha\) form. The chain axis for \(\gamma\) is 0.33 Å shorter than for \(\alpha\) since two dihedrals (126.5° and 126.6°) are significantly smaller than the 165° for \(\alpha\). While the N:::O = 2.98 Å distance of \(\gamma\) is similar to the value for the \(\alpha\) form, the H:::O distance is 0.025 Å longer. This trend is present in all even-\(\alpha\) \(\gamma\) and \(\gamma\) forms that we have calculated, Table 5.

Similar trends are observed in other nylons. One must be cautious with most crystallographic determinations since single-crystal data are rare and the fiber diffraction patterns indicate the presence of amorphous material. For all nylons the calculated chain axis dimension at 0 K is 0.3–0.4 Å larger than the room temperature crystallographic value. This is explained in terms of increased torsional motions about the chain axis with increasing temperature, which should decrease the average chain axis dimensions.

In contrast, the axes perpendicular to the chains are dominated by vdW packing between adjacent sheets in the \(\alpha\) form and between adjacent chains in the \(\gamma\) form. Here the calculated structures at 0 K are smaller than the room temperature measurements. The increase in these dimensions with increasing temperature is expected because of the asymmetry in vdW interactions.

The lattice parameter in the hydrogen-bonding direction exhibits a curious behavior. For all \(\gamma\) phases and for the \(\alpha\) form of nylon-4 and -6, the calculated values at 0 K are larger than the measured values at room temperature, while the trend reverses for the \(\alpha\) nylon-\(n\) with \(n \geq 7\). Thus, increasing temperature leads to better hydrogen bonds in the \(\gamma\) forms and in the \(\alpha\) forms for nylon-4 and -6. This trend coincides with the stability of the \(\alpha\) form versus the \(\gamma\) form in the nylons.

3.4. Stability of \(\alpha\) Form vs \(\gamma\) Form. One puzzle about nylon is the change in relative stabilities of the \(\alpha\) form versus the \(\gamma\) form, which for the even nylons reverses above nylon-6. In the \(\alpha\) form the shortest H:::H nonbonded distances are 2.293 Å in 4 \(\alpha\), 2.140 Å in 6 \(\alpha\), 2.231 Å in 8 \(\alpha\), 2.247 Å in 7 \(\alpha\), 2.318 Å in 6,6 \(\alpha\), and 2.302 Å in 6,10 \(\alpha\). These are significantly shorter than those in the \(\gamma\) form: 2.464 Å in 4 \(\gamma\), 2.466 Å in 6 \(\gamma\), 2.469 Å in 8 \(\gamma\), and 2.468 Å in 10 \(\gamma\). The optimum packing of the methylene units occurs in polyethylene, 23 where the minimum distance is 2.447 Å. Thus, the packing of the methylene units is optimum in the \(\gamma\) form and too short in the \(\alpha\) form. These short distances in \(\alpha\) are caused by the short H:::H distances required for the best hydrogen bonds. These competing effects determine the thermal stabilities of the two forms. As the number of methylene units increases, the more efficient packaging of the CH2 groups compensates for the slightly poorer hydrogen bonds in the \(\gamma\) form, making this the more stable form.

3.5. Elastic Constants. Young’s Modulus. If \(\sigma_i\) and \(e_j\) are the stress and strain in the \(I\) and \(J\) directions (\(I, J = 1, 2, ...\), and \(xy \) denotes \(xx\), \(yy\), \(zz\), \(yz\), \(zx\) and \(xy\)), then they are related to each other by Hooke’s law for small deformations:

\[\sigma_i = C_{ij}e_j\]  
\[e_j = S_{ij}\sigma_j\]

where \(C_{ij}\) are the elastic stiffness constants and \(S_{ij}\) are the compliance constants. The bulk modulus \(\beta\) is defined by

\[\beta^{-1} = \sum_{I=1}^{3} S_{II}\]

and Young’s modulus in the chain direction is defined by
The Young’s modulus can be calculated by using the analytic first derivatives of the energy with respect to cell parameters. The calculated Young’s moduli are reported in Table 7. This is expected from the more extended structure of the α form. With increasing methylene units the modulus decreases monotonically for the γ form, while the α form is systematically higher than the γ form of even nylons and decreases monotonically for the α form. The odd and the even—
nylons display much higher moduli, with nylon-7 being even higher. In contrast the MSXX FF leads to moduli within 5% of the direct experiment.\(^\text{23}\) The X-ray determined experimental value of 168 GPa\(^\text{38}\) for nylon-6 is 29% lower than the calculated value of 235.3 GPa.

An indication of the error in using the X-ray technique is the dependence upon which the diffraction line is used. Sakurada and Kaji report\(^\text{33}\) moduli of 25, 55, and 168 GPa using the [0,2,0], [0,4,0], and [0,14,0] reflections for nylon-6, and they report 61 and 176 GPa using the [0,1,5] and [1,3,14] reflections for nylon-66. Further confusing the interpretation of such studies, the fiber identity periods for nylons calculated from the various meridional reflections disagree with each other.\(^\text{41}\) In light of recent redetermination\(^\text{42}\) of longitudinal crystal moduli using spectroscopic methods, we believe that our calculated results are significantly more reliable than those determined from X-ray experiments.

Young’s moduli of the α form is systematically higher than for γ. This is expected from the more extended structure of the α form. With increasing methylene units the modulus increases monotonically for the γ form of even nylons and decreases monotonically for the α form. The odd and the even—
nylons display much higher moduli, with nylon-7 being the highest calculated.

### 4. Summary

We used \textit{ab initio} wave functions to calculate the MSXX FF for nylons. With this new FF for nylons, we calculated the crystal structures of a series of nylon polymers. We find that the even nylons-4 and -6 exist in the α form, while the γ form is thermodynamically more stable for even nylons-8 and above.


\(^{33}\) Rabolt, J. F.; Fanconi, B. Polymer 1977, 18, 1258.

\(^{34}\) Wallner, L. G. Monatsh. Chem. 1948, 79, 86.


\(^{36}\) Cojazzi, G.; Ficher, A.; Malta, V.; Zanetti, R. Makromol. Chem. 1978, 179, 509.


This results from the interplay of better H bonds in α at the expense of poorer methylene packing. Thus, γ is favored for larger n.

The cell dimensions calculated at 0 K are compatible with those measured at room temperature as deduced from expansivity measurements. In nylon-6, we find that the P2_1 packing is better than the P2_1/c packing (resolving an experimental uncertainty).

The calculated Young’s moduli provide the first reliable trends in these values and are expected to be more accurate than the values measured experimentally using the X-ray technique. Other elastic constants are also reported.

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Supporting Information Available: Tables giving the geometries and energies of N-methylacetamide conformers and elastic stiffness constants of crystalline nylon polymers (2 pages). See any current masthead page for ordering and Internet access instructions.

JA944125D

Table 7. Energy Properties of Nylon Polymers

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<td>Young’s modulusc</td>
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a For the isolated chain, the cell dimensions perpendicular to the chain axis were increased to 50 Å and the structure was reminimized. b The zero point energy (ZPE) is calculated using 3^3 = 27 points in the Brillouin zone. c The lattice energy is after correction for ZPE. It is calculated by first taking the difference between the total energy per amide of the packed nylon crystal and the single chain (50 Å cell size for the nonchain directions) and then adding the difference of the zero point energies of the two. For example, for nylon-4 α, the difference of the energy is −3.095 − (−19.432) = 16.337 kcal/mol. The difference in ZPEs for the two is 67.269 − 68.261 = −0.992 kcal/mol. Adding these two differences gives the lattice energy as 16.337 − 0.992 = 15.345 kcal/mol. d The cohesive energy density (CED) is the lattice energy divided by the volume per amide unit [units of (kcal/mol)/Å^3]. e GPa. f The energies (kcal/mol) are calculated from the total energy of the optimized crystal. All energies are normalized per amide.