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Effects of Water on the Stochastic Motions of Propane Confined in MCM-41-S Pores

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Effect of Water on the Stochastic Motion of Propane Confined in MCM-41-S Pores

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Abstract

Hydrocarbons confined in porous media find applications in a wide variety of industries and 36 therefore their diffusive behavior is widely studied. Most of the porous media found in natural 37 environments is laden with water, which might affect the confined hydrocarbons. To quantify the 38 39 effect of hydration, we report here a combined quasielastic neutron scattering (QENS) and molecular dynamics (MD) simulation study on the dynamics of propane confined in the 1.5 nm-40 wide micropores of MCM-41-S in presence of water at 230 and 250 K. To eliminate strong 41 incoherent signal from water and emphasize propane signal we have used heavy water (D₂O). 42 QENS data show two dynamically different populations of propane in MCM-41-S and suggest 43 that the presence of water hinders the diffusion of propane. Weak elastic contributions to the QENS 44 spectra suggest that only long-range translational motion of propane molecules contributes to the 45 quasielastic broadening. MD simulations carried out using a model cylindrical silica pore of 1.6 46 nm diameter filled with water and propane agree with the experimental finding of water hindering 47 48 the diffusion of propane. Further, the simulation results suggest that the slowing down of propane motions is a function of water content within the pore and is stronger at higher water contents. At 49 high water content, the structure as well as the dynamics, both translational and rotational, of 50 propane are severely impacted. Simulation data suggest that the rotational motion of propane 51 52 molecule occurs at time scales much faster than those accessible with the QENS instrument used, and thus explains the weak elastic contribution to the QENS spectra measured in the experiments. 53 54 This study shows the effects of hydration on the structure and dynamics of volatiles in porous media which are of interest for fundamental understanding and applied studies of confined fluids. 55

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61 **1. Introduction**

Several industrial sectors, including catalysis and subsurface gas recovery, rely on the diffusive 62 behavior of gases confined in nanoporous materials¹⁻³. Of particular interest are hydrocarbons, 63 which show very peculiar behaviors in confinement⁴⁻⁶. A significant amount of research effort has 64 been devoted to the study of diffusive behavior of hydrocarbons under confinement in porous 65 materials^{7,8}. Both saturated⁹⁻¹⁴ and unsaturated¹⁵⁻¹⁹ hydrocarbons with different carbon contents 66 and confined in various media have been studied. Among alkanes, propane offers a unique case. 67 Because of the roughly pentagonal shape of propane molecule, this fluid exhibits the lowest 68 melting point among alkanes²⁰. Effects of confinement on several properties of propane have been 69 studied by confining it in porous media differing in both pore shape as well as size^{12,13,21-25}. While 70 all these studies have in general found a suppression in the mobility of propane upon confinement, 71 anomalies have been observed in the loading dependence of this suppression¹³. The effect of 72 confinement on the vibrational properties of propane has also been recently documented²⁶. 73

Previous work on the effects of confinement on the dynamics of propane focused on idealized 74 systems of single-specie confinement. In natural environments, however, pores are seldom 75 occupied by a single species. While some studies have reported the effects of presence or absence 76 of a second species on the dynamics of one guest^{10, 13, 27-30}, the most ubiquitous species that can be 77 found in the natural pore environments – water, has largely been ignored. Although the dynamics 78 of confined water has been studied extensively^{31,32}, the effect of water on the dynamics of another 79 confined species remains largely unexplored. Exceptions include Phan et al.³³ and Bui et al.³⁴ who 80 studied the effect of water on the transport of confined methane. Recently, Le et al. reported MD 81 simulation studies on the effect of water on the diffusion of propane in amorphous silica cylindrical 82 pores of diameter 1.6 nm at 300 K³⁵. This pore environment resembles the 1.5 nm wide pores in 83 molecular sieve MCM-41-S. 84

To fill the gaps in our understanding of the behavior of coexisting water and a volatile, we report here a quasielastic neutron scattering (QENS) study on the effect of D₂O on the dynamics of propane confined in MCM-41-S at low temperatures (230 and 250 K). The results of these experiments are complemented by MD simulations which build our previously reported simulation studies³⁵. Both experiment and simulations suggest that water hinders the diffusion of propane in MCM-41-S pores. Further, the simulation data show that this hindering effect gets stronger with the water content within the pore. At the highest water content, both the structure and dynamics ofthe confined propane are severely restricted compared to bulk water.

In the remainder of the manuscript, we begin with detailing the experimental and simulation 93 procedures implemented in Section 2. This is followed by defining some important quantities 94 95 obtained from QENS experiments and MD simulations, and by detailing the connection between experiments and simulations in Section 3. Results from the QENS experiment are described in 96 97 Section 4.1 while the structural and dynamical properties of the confined propane obtained from MD are reported in Section 4.2. In Section 5, the results from the experiments and the simulations 98 are compared and discussed in connection with relevant literature studies. Finally, we present 99 conclusions in Section 6. Our focus is on the properties of confined propane, while water will be 100 treated as a medium whose principle function is to compete with propane. 101

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2. Experimental and Simulation Details

2.1 Samples: The MCM-41-S sample used in the experiment was synthesized at Oak Ridge 104 National Laboratory²⁶. For this, Tetraethyl orthosilicate (TEOS) was added to a vigorously stirred 105 solution of amine in ethanol and deionized water, yielding a reaction mixture of the following 106 molar composition: 1.0 TEOS:0.27 C₈H₁₇NH₂:9.09 EtOH:29.6 H₂O. The reaction mixture was 107 aged at ambient temperature for 18 h to obtain the hexagonal mesoporous silica. All ambient 108 temperature syntheses were conducted by exposing the reaction mixture to the open atmosphere. 109 Small amounts of deionized water were added during the aging process to compensate for the 110 evaporation. The obtained crystalline products were recovered by filtration, washed with deionized 111 112 water, and air-dried. Template removal was achieved either by calcination in air at 630 °C for 4 h (heating rate 2 °C/min) or by solvent extraction. The MCM-41-S sample thus synthesized had a 113 bimodal pore distribution with pores of diameter 1.5 nm along with some pores of diameter 2.2 114 nm. The sample surface area, determined with N₂ adsorption at 77 K (BET), was 832 m²/g and its 115 pore volume 1.2 cm³/g. More details about sample characterization have been reported in an earlier 116 publication²⁶. 117

2.2 Experiment: The Quasielastic Neutron Scattering (QENS) experiment was carried out using
the backscattering instrument BASIS at the Spallation Neutron Source (SNS), Oak Ridge National

Laboratory (ORNL), Tennessee³⁶. This instrument provides an elastic line resolution of 3.5 µeV 120 at full width at half-maximum and an energy transfer window of +/- 120 µeV. 1 gm of MCM-41-121 122 S sample (1.5 nm pores) was loaded into a cylindrical aluminum cell 6 mm in diameter and evacuated using a vacuum pump to remove any residual proton species. Propane gas was pumped 123 into the sample using a high-pressure syringe pump at a pressure of 1 bar, measured at 300 K. The 124 pressure in the sample cell was monitored using a pressure gauge on the capillary supplying the 125 gas to it. After loading propane, the sample cell was isolated and cooled to lower temperatures. 126 Note that cooling the sample cell resulted in a lowering of the sample cell pressure. As propane 127 pressure corresponded to vapor densities at all times, the sample thickness was of optimal 128 dimension to avoid multiple scattering. To study the effect of water on the dynamics of confined 129 propane, another MCM-41-S sample, hydrated with D₂O (10% by weight of D₂O in MCM-41-S) 130 was used in separate QENS measurements. We note that this water loading does not quantify the 131 amount of water that penetrated the pores. The difference between the two samples used in the 132 QENS experiments is thus mainly in terms of presence or absence of water in the pores. 133 Measurements were taken at the temperatures 250 K, 230 K and 10 K. The lowest temperature 134 135 measurement was used to define the instrumental resolution. Spectra of hydrated as well as dehydrated MCM-41-S were subtracted from the respective propane loaded spectra to account for 136 silica and water background. This subtraction also removes any contribution to the QENS spectra 137 from the silanol groups on the pore surface. The subtracted spectra thus represent signals from 138 propane alone. QENS data were reduced and analyzed using the software package DAVE³⁷. 139

2.3 Simulations: The preparation of the simulation cell used in this work has been described 140 elsewhere³⁵. It consisted of two stages – preparing a cylindrical pore of amorphous silica, and then 141 loading water and propane molecules in this pore. For the first stage, a β -cristobalite supercell was 142 melted at 7000 K, equilibrated in the liquid state and then quenched by cooling it at a rate of 4 143 K/ps to 300 K. A cylindrical pore of diameter 16 Å was then carved out from the simulation cell 144 by removing all atoms that lay within 8 Å from the X-axis. The resulting pore was oriented along 145 X-axis. Removing atoms in this manner resulted in dangling Si and O atoms. These were saturated 146 with hydroxyl groups and hydrogen atoms, respectively. In the second stage, a desired number of 147 water and propane molecules were placed at each side of the cylindrical pore, along the X direction. 148 As simulations proceeded, water and propane spontaneously filled the pore and distributed across 149 both pore and bulk volumes. Once equilibrium is reached, the propane density in the bulk was 150

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calculated from density profiles along the X-direction. The reservoir was removed after fluid molecules corresponding to the appropriate densities were adsorbed in the pore. More details on the two stages of sample preparation can be found elsewhere³⁵.

To prepare the model MCM-41-S using the melting of a β -cristobalite crystal as outlined above, 154 we used the Morse-type potential developed by Demirlap et. al.³⁸ to model the interaction between 155 Si and O atoms. Once the MCM-41-S model pore was prepared, the substrate was modeled using 156 the CLAYFF³⁹ force field in all subsequent simulations. Water molecules were modeled with 157 TIP4P/Ice⁴⁰ force field while TraPPE-UA⁴¹ force field was used to model propane molecules. 158 Following the TraPPE-UA convention, all interactions were cut-off at 14 Å. Long range 159 electrostatic interactions were treated with the particle mesh Ewald (PME)⁴² method and Lorentz-160 Berthelot mixing rules were used to estimate the parameters for cross-terms⁴³. Periodic boundary 161 conditions were applied in all directions. This resulted in an infinitely long cylindrical pore along 162 the Cartesian X direction. 163

Several different fluid compositions were simulated to systematically study the effect of water on 164 the dynamics of confined propane. The initial number of propane molecules adsorbed in the pore 165 was determined by GCMC simulations at 1 bar and 300 K to match the experimental conditions at 166 the time of gas loading in the experiments. However, the amount of propane (5 molecules) was 167 too small for extracting quantities with good statistics, therefore a slightly higher propane loading 168 of 22 molecules was used in the simulation cell. Several water loadings were used, as summarized 169 170 in Table 1. Each of the samples listed in Table 1 were simulated at 230 and 250 K. As noted earlier, the focus of this paper is on the dynamics of propane. Quantities used for comparison between the 171 experiments and simulations (i. e., intermediate scattering functions) were calculated for the 172 systems Dry and Hydrated 1 (D and H1 in Table 1) at 230 K. All simulated systems were 173 equilibrated for 80-100 ns before a production run of 2 ns. The production run was limited to 2 ns 174 as our intention was to mainly compare the simulations with QENS experiments which probe time 175 scales below 1 ns. The production run was repeated up to 3 times, and no significant deviation was 176 observed in the results obtained. 177

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Table 1. System composition (number of propane and water molecules) for our MD simulations
 in model MCM-41-S pore.

Simulation Sample	Number of Propane molecules	Number of water molecules
Dry (D)	22	0
Hydrated 1 (H1)	22	221
Hydrated 2 (H2)	22	271
Hydrated 3 (H3)	22	321
Hydrated 4 (H4)	22	362

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184 3. Important quantities and connection between QENS and MD 185 simulations

QENS and MD simulations are often used in combination to study the stochastic motion of molecules⁷. This is because both techniques access similar length and time scales⁷, although advances in computations have made the range of length and time scales accessible to MD simulations relatively larger and longer respectively. The self-diffusion coefficient (*D*) is obtained from QENS experiments by analyzing the broadening of an elastic line due to the stochastic motions constituting self-diffusion⁴⁴. From MD simulations, *D* can be obtained from the long-time slope of mean squared displacement (MSD) vs time plots⁴³:

193
$$D = \lim_{t \to \infty} \frac{\langle |r_i(t+t_0) - r_i(t_0)|^2 \rangle}{2n_d t}$$
 (1)

In Eq. (1), the quantity in the numerator is the MSD, with $r_i(t + t_0)$ and $r_i(t_0)$ being the positions of the *i*th entity (atoms or molecules) at times $t + t_0$ and t_0 , respectively; the angular brackets denote ensemble average. The quantity n_d in the denominator stands for the number of degrees of freedom. Typically, center of mass positions of the molecules are used for r_i .

In our previous study²³, we showed that a more direct comparison can be made between the QENS experiments and MD simulations by calculating quantities that are directly related to the observed signal in the QENS experiments from the simulated trajectories. In a QENS experiment on a sample with hydrogen atoms, the observed signal is proportional to the incoherent scattering law

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Sinc(Q, ω), a quantity that encodes information on the structure and dynamics in the sample by virtue of its dependence on Q and ω , respectively^{*}. The incoherent scattering law is a Fourier transform of the self-intermediate scattering function (ISF), I(Q,t). ISF can be directly calculated from the simulated molecular trajectories using the expression

206
$$I(Q,t) = \langle \exp\left(i\boldsymbol{Q} \cdot [\boldsymbol{r}_i(t+t_0) - \boldsymbol{r}_i(t_0)]\right) \rangle$$
(2)

In Eq. (2), $i=\sqrt{-1}$ and averages are carried out over all atoms/molecules and time origins t_0 and different Q with the same magnitude. The last averaging is the powder averaging necessary for comparisons to experiments using powder samples with no preferred orientation. Further, this function can be calculated for contributions from translational and rotational motions by separating the co-ordinates of an interaction site (for example CH₃) (r) into co-ordinates of the center of mass (COM) of the molecules (r_{COM}) and co-ordinates of that site in the center of mass frame (d). Thus,

$$213 \quad \boldsymbol{r} = \boldsymbol{r}_{COM} + \boldsymbol{d} \tag{3}$$

Purely translational motion of the molecules can be studied by following the evolution of r_{COM} in time, whereas rotational motion can be studied by following the evolution of a unit vector (*e*) along *d* in time. Self-intermediate scattering functions for the two motions can be calculated by replacing *r* in Eq. 2 by r_{COM} to obtain the translational intermediate scattering function (TISF) and by *e* to obtain rotational intermediate scattering function (RISF).

The scattering law obtained from QENS experiments on a diffusive system is often modeled with a Lorentzian function to represent the quasielastic broadening⁴⁴. The corresponding model in the inverse Fourier space for the ISF is therefore an exponential decay function, as a Lorentzian and exponential decay function form a Fourier transform pair. Thus,

223
$$S_{inc}(Q,\omega) \sim L(\Gamma(Q),\omega) \sim \frac{\Gamma(Q)}{(\Gamma^2(Q)+\omega^2)} \iff I(Q,t) \sim e^{-t/\tau(Q)}$$
 (4)

^{*} $Q=k_i-k_f$ is the wave-vector transfer in the event of scattering of the neutron by a sample under study, k_i and k_f being the wave-vector of the neutron before and after the scattering and $\hbar\omega$ is the energy transfer that occurs between the neutron and the sample on a scattering event. \hbar is the reduced Planck constant.

In Eq. (4), $L(\Gamma(Q), \omega)$ is a Lorentzian function of ω , centered at $\omega=0$ and its half-width at halfmaximum (HWHM) is $\Gamma(Q)$. The exponential decay function $e^{-t/\tau(Q)}$ is characterized by the decay time constant $\tau(Q)$ which is related to the HWHM of the corresponding Lorentzian function as

227
$$\Gamma(Q) = \frac{\hbar}{\tau(Q)}$$
(5)

Thus, for a diffusive system, the decay constant obtained from modeling the simulated ISF with an exponential decay can be converted to a corresponding energy using Eq. (5), which is directly comparable with the HWHM of the Lorentzian used to model the experimentally measured scattering law.

Another important quantity that can be calculated from the simulated trajectories is the rotational correlation function (RCF). RCF can be used to assess the rotational motion of molecules and obtain the relevant time scales. RCF can be calculated using the following expression

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$$RCF = \langle \boldsymbol{e}_i(t+t_0) \cdot \boldsymbol{e}_i(t_0) \rangle \tag{6}$$

In Eq. (6), angular brackets denote ensemble averages, and e_i is a unit vector rotating with molecule *i*. In the present case we use a unit vector along the CH₃-CH₂ vector of a propane molecule.

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239 **4. Results**

240 4.1 QENS experiments

Figure 1 shows a comparison of the spectra obtained from propane in (a) dry and (b) hydrated 241 (with D₂O) MCM-41-S sample at 230 and 250 K. Also shown are the spectra of a Vanadium can 242 measured at 300 K, which serves as a measure of the instrumental resolution, and evacuated MCM-243 41-S, also measured at 300 K. The spectrum of evacuated MCM-41-S is almost congruent with 244 that of Vanadium, suggesting an absence of a mobile hydrogen bearing species in MCM-41-S. 245 When D_2O is added to this evacuated sample and the sample cell is cooled to 10 K, the resulting 246 spectrum (shown in (b)) is congruent with the Vanadium spectrum too, and hence can be used to 247 account for the instrument resolution. A comparison of the spectra of propane in dry and moist 248 samples demonstrates that addition of D₂O decreases the quasielastic broadening in the signal 249

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produced by the stochastic motion of propane molecules. Hence, our experiments confirm that addition of D_2O suppresses the motion of propane in MCM-41-S.



Figure 1. Peak normalised spectra obtained from the QENS experiments on propane in (a) dry, and (b) hydrated (with D₂O) MCM-41-S at Q=0.3 Å⁻¹ at two temperatures 230 and 250 K. Also included in the plot are the spectra collected for a Vanadium and bare MCM-41-S measured at 300 K (shown in panel (a)) and empty hydrated MCM-41-S measured at 10 K (panel (b)). The effect of D₂O on the mobility of propane in MCM-41-S can be seen as a suppression of quasielastic broadening (data shown with '+' symbols) in the panel (b) as compared to panel (a).

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QENS data analysis was performed to quantify the suppression of propane motion in MCM-41-S 260 upon addition of D₂O. As mentioned earlier, to obtain QENS data that represented only propane, 261 the spectra for dry MCM-41-S were subtracted from the spectra for propane in MCM-41-S and 262 the spectra for D₂O-loaded MCM-41-S were subtracted from the spectra for propane in D₂O-263 loaded MCM-41-S. It is common practice to describe the $S_{inc}(Q,\omega)$ as composed of an elastic and 264 a quasielastic component along with a background. This $S_{inc}(O,\omega)$ is convoluted with the 265 266 instrumental resolution. In case of diffusive motion, the quasielastic part has a Lorentzian profile. 267 The model $S_{inc}(Q,\omega)$ can thus be written as:

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$$S_{inc}(Q,\omega) = \left\{ A(Q)\delta(\omega) + \left(1 - A(Q)\right)L(\Gamma(Q),\omega) + B(Q,\omega) \right\} \otimes R(Q,\omega)$$
(7)

In Eq. (7), the first term on the right side is the elastic contribution, which is approximated by a 269 delta function located at zero energy transfer; A(O) is the fraction of scattering that is elastic, which 270 271 is called elastic incoherent structure factor (EISF). The second term on the right side is the quasielastic component, represented by a Lorentzian function centred at zero energy transfer with 272 a half-width at half-maximum (*HWHM*) of $\Gamma(Q)$. The third term is the background, while $R(Q,\omega)$ 273 is the instrument resolution. Fitting the experimental spectra with Eq. (7) did not result in good 274 quality of fits for any propane spectra. Therefore, a combination of two Lorentzians was used to 275 describe the quasi-elastic component for propane. The resulting fitting equation was 276

277
$$S_{inc}(Q,\omega) = \left\{ A(Q)\delta(\omega) + \left(1 - A(Q)\right) [L_1(\Gamma_1(Q),\omega) + L_2(\Gamma_2(Q),\omega)] + B(Q,\omega) \right\} \otimes R(Q,\omega)$$
278 (8)

Good quality fits were obtained using Eq. (8), shown in Figure 2. The need for two Lorentzians to describe the quasielastic part of the spectra of both dry and hydrated samples indicates the presence of two populations of propane molecules, which move at different time scales. The faster one of these populations is represented by the Lorentzian with a broader profile (large $\Gamma(Q)$ values), while the slower population is described by the Lorentzian with narrower profile (smaller $\Gamma(Q)$ values). The fitting parameters A(Q), $\Gamma_1(Q)$ and $\Gamma_2(Q)$ were analysed further, as discussed below.

Very low values of A(Q) were obtained from the fits of all the experimental spectra. This indicated 285 286 an absence of localised motion, or a population of immobile propane molecules in both dry and hydrated MCM-41-S. Fitting of Eq. (8) revealed $\Gamma_1(Q) < \Gamma_2(Q)$, where the former represents slow 287 motion while the latter represents fast motion. The variation of $\Gamma_1(Q)$ and $\Gamma_2(Q)$ obtained from the 288 fits of different propane spectra with Q^2 are shown in Figure 3. These variations are characteristic 289 of a jump diffusion mechanism. In particular, the Singwi-Sjölander model of jump diffusion 290 provides an adequate description of this behavior. In this model, motion occurs via jumps: wherein 291 a molecule sits at a particular site for a time equal to the residence time, τ , before jumping to 292 another site, almost instantaneously. In this model, the $\Gamma(Q)$ varies according to the following 293 relation⁴⁵: 294

295
$$\Gamma(Q) = \frac{DQ^2}{1 + DQ^2 \tau}$$
(9)

The variations of $\Gamma_1(Q)$ and $\Gamma_2(Q)$ were fitted with Eq. (9) and the obtained parameters – selfdiffusion coefficients (*D*) and residence times (τ) are shown in Fig. 4. Effects of water on the 298 dynamics of confined propane are reduction of the diffusion coefficients (top panels) and corresponding lengthening of residence times (bottom panels) of both components in hydrated 299 300 samples. The enhancement of motions at higher temperature is seen in all cases except for the slow component of the hydrated sample (indicating a counter-intuitive suppression of mobility at higher 301 temperature). However, we note that the error bars on both the diffusion coefficient and residence 302 time values are rather large making the interpretation of temperature effects on the experimental 303 304 data less certain. However, the variations of quantities with hydration is larger than the error bars and suggest a clear suppression of propane mobility due to presence of water. 305



Figure 2. QENS spectra fitted with Eq. (8) for propane in dry (top) and hydrated (bottom) MCM-41-S at 250 K. The left panels show the spectra at $Q = 0.3 \text{ Å}^{-1}$, while the right panels show those at $Q = 0.9 \text{ Å}^{-1}$. The experimental data are shown in symbols, the overall fits in red lines. Different components of the fits are shown in lines with different colors, as shown.



Figure 3. Variation of (a) $\Gamma_1(Q)$ and (b) $\Gamma_2(Q)$ obtained from fitting the QENS spectra of 313 propane in dry and hydrated MCM-41-S at 230 and 250 K, to Eq. (9). The solid lines show the 314 315 fits of the $\Gamma(Q)$ variation to the jump diffusion model.



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- Figure 4. Values of D (top) and τ (bottom) obtained from fitting of the variation of $\Gamma_l(Q)$ and $\Gamma_2(Q)$ with Eq. (9) for propane in dry and hydrated MCM-41-S at 230 and 250 K. The values in the right panel are obtained from the fast component of motion, while those in the left panel are from the slow component.
- 322

323 4.2 MD Simulations

Figure 5 shows the distribution of molecular propane density in the model MCM-41-S pore in the 324 radial and axial directions at 230 K. The corresponding atomic density distributions for oxygen 325 atoms of water are shown in Figure S1 in the Supplementary Information. To calculate these 326 density profiles, center of mass positions of all propane molecules are recorded at all times and 327 averaged over 4-7 independent simulations. In the case of dry pore, propane molecules arrange 328 themselves in a layer close to the pore surface, peaking at around 4.8 Å from the pore axis. As a 329 330 low amount of water is introduced in the pore (H1), the peak in propane density is shifted towards the pore axis, as water molecules preferentially adsorb at the pore surface because of their polar 331 nature. Even though the position of the molecular layer of propane is shifted by water, no other 332 pronounced density peak can be seen. As more water is added to the pore (H2), a new second 333 propane layer begins to form close to the pore axis, at the expense of the layer closer to the pore 334 surface. At higher water loadings (H3 and H4), the layers close to the pore axis get denser, because 335 water pushes away propane from the pore surface. Further, at high water contents the propane 336 density profiles are characterised by sharper peaks. In the axial direction, shown in panel (b), the 337 propane molecules are distributed evenly throughout the length of the dry pore as evidenced by an 338 almost featureless flat distribution shown by the red curve. As water is added, a more uneven 339 distribution can be observed (green curve, H1) with more peaks in the central region. As more 340 water is present, the distribution exhibits sharper and more numerous peaks. At highest water 341 content (H4), the large amount of water forces propane molecules to cluster together, yielding 342 layers along the axial direction. A tendency of 'ordering' in the orientational distribution of 343 propane molecules is also observed at high water content (see Supplementary Information, Figure 344 S2). This can be due to the propane molecules being trapped by water molecules, suggesting that 345 346 ordering is promoted in this system by low mobility of propane molecules. A similar tendency of nanopore ordering due to low mobility has also been observed for acetone, acetaldehyde and acetonitrile in ZSM- 5^{25} .



Figure 5. Density distribution of propane molecules in a model MCM-41-S pore along the (a)
 radial and (b) axial directions. The pore is centered at r=0 Å while in the axial direction the
 simulation cell boundaries are located at x=0 and 56.9 Å.

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Figure 6 (a) shows the mean squared displacement (MSD) of the center of mass of propane 354 molecules in the model MCM-41-S pore at 230 K. The results are shown as a function of water 355 content. Similar results obtained at 250 K for propane can be found in the Supplementary 356 Information (Figure S3). The MSD of propane at long times gets suppressed with water content in 357 the pore, indicating suppression of mobility. At the highest water content (H4), the MSD plateaus 358 quickly to a constant value, and does not show any appreciable increase after about 0.5 ps. The 359 overall MSD at 230 K in the case of dry sample has also been resolved in three Cartesian directions. 360 As the pore is oriented along the Cartesian X-direction, the overall MSD is almost completely 361 described by the MSD along X-direction (see Supplementary Information, Figure S4). At very 362 short times, the values of MSD along all directions are similar. This is the ballistic regime, where 363 the molecules move freely before colliding against other molecules. At intermediate times, because 364 365 of layered structure of the fluids, a typical molecule is more likely to collide with another molecule along the radial direction in the pore (Cartesian Y or Z) and so the value of MSD along these 366 directions is suppressed because of more frequent collisions. At longer times, the finite size of the 367 pore along the radial direction puts an absolute limit on the mobility of molecules in this direction, 368

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and the molecules are unable to move a squared distance of more than $\sim 20 \text{ Å}^2$. This limit is reached at $\sim 50 \text{ ps}$. After this time, motion along the pore axis is solely responsible for the increase of MSD with time and the corresponding motion is represented by 1-D diffusion. The MSD along the pore axis for all systems at 230 K is shown in Figure 6 (b).

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Figure 6 (a) Mean squared displacements of the center of mass of propane molecules in model
 MCM-41-S pore with different moisture contents at 230 K. (b) MSD along the axial direction
 (Cartesian direction X) at 230 K.

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1-dimensional diffusion coefficients have been obtained from the long-time slope of the MSD 379 along X-direction vs time plots using Eq. 1 and are listed in Table 2. The diffusive nature of motion 380 at long times was ascertained by examining the slope of $\ln(MSD)$ vs $\ln(t)$ plot. The slopes of these 381 plots for all the systems, except H4, were found to be close to 1 at long enough times, indicating 382 diffusive motion. As the motion of propane molecules in the simulation H4 is severely constrained 383 and not diffusive, no reliable diffusion coefficient is obtained from this simulation. Dynamics of 384 water at the temperatures reported here was severely constrained. However, water molecules in all 385 the systems except H4 exhibited mobility. Water mobilities were reduced by a factor of ~ 10 386 compared to those at 300 K reported earlier³⁵ (see Supplementary Information, Table S1). 387

Table 2. 1-dimensional diffusion coefficients of propane in the systems listed in Table 1. For the
 system H4 it was not possible to extract reliable values for the propane self-diffusion coefficient
 because in this system the motion is sub-diffusive even at long times.

Sample	D (×10 ⁻¹⁰ m ² /s)	
	230 K	250 K
Dry	99.5±3.1	122.1±3.4
H1	14.8±0.6	20.4±0.7
H2	6.1±0.3	7.6±0.3
H3	0.5±0.1	0.7±0.2
H4	-	-

392

As discussed above, to properly connect with the QENS experiments, it is desirable to extract the 393 TISF from the simulated trajectories. Figure 7 shows the TISF at Q = 0.99 Å⁻¹ calculated from 394 different simulations at 230 K. Higher water loading results in a slower TISF decay, i.e., slower 395 motions of propane. The time range accessible with the BASIS instrument used in the QENS 396 experiment is highlighted in color in Figure 7. Within this time range, the TISF for most 397 compositions appears to exhibit at least two behaviors. These two behaviors can best be interpreted 398 by consideration of the existence of two dynamical populations of propane molecules, which is 399 consistent with the experimental data. Expanding on this comparison further, the TISF calculated 400 from simulations for dry and H1 compositions can be fitted with exponential decay functions in 401 the time range from 3 to 200 ps, accessible to instrument, in order to estimate the time scales 402 involved in the motion represented by these functions. As noted earlier (Section 3), these time 403 scales can be converted to corresponding $\Gamma_i(Q)$ (i=1, 2; superscript 's' is used to indicate quantities 404 obtained from the simulation data) using Eq. (5) and can be compared with $\Gamma_1(Q)$ and $\Gamma_2(Q)$ 405 obtained from the QENS experiments. As the quasielastic spectra were fitted with two Lorentzians, 406 the TISF were fitted with two exponential decay functions as well. This translates to fitting 407 ln(TISF) vs. time plot with a combination of two linear functions[†]. The slope of these two lines 408 yields the time scales (τ) . 409

⁺ TISF~ $e^{(-t/\tau)}$ is equivalent to ln[TISF]~(-t/ τ) and hence ln[TISF] vs time is a straight line with slope =(-1/ τ)

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410

Figure 7. TISF as a function of time calculated from the trajectories of center of mass of propane
 molecules using Eq. (2) from simulations conducted at 230 K. All TISFs shown are calculated at
 Q=0.99 Å⁻¹. The time range accessible to the instrument used in the experiment is highlighted in
 colour.

415

416 Representative ln(TISF) vs. time curves for Dry and H1 systems at 230K are shown in Figure 8. The initial, very fast, decay that lasts for ~ 1 ps represents very fast motion and is out of the time 417 range of the instrument. Beyond that, the ln(TISF) can be divided into two regions with varying 418 slopes. To maintain consistency, all ln(TISF) vs. time plots were fitted within the two ranges of 3-419 60 ps and 100-200 ps with linear functions. The $\Gamma_i(Q)$ (i=1, 2) obtained from the fits for the two 420 compositions are shown in Figure 9 as functions of Q^2 . As in the experiments, the variation of 421 $\Gamma^{s}_{i}(Q)$ with Q^{2} is further fitted with a jump diffusion model (Eq. (9)) to obtain diffusion coefficients 422 and residence times. The values of these parameters obtained from the fits are listed in Table 3. 423 The magnitude of the parameters is consistent with those obtained from the experiments. The small 424 quantitative differences result from the difference in compositions used in the experiment and the 425 simulations, along with other typical computational limitations, including the implementation of a 426 generic force field which has not been optimised to reproduce the experiments reported here. 427



Figure 8. Fits of the simulation derived ln(TISF) vs. t curves in two different time ranges (3-60 ps and 100-200 ps) with linear functions. The slope of the fitted linear functions are proportional to $\Gamma^{s}{}_{i}(Q)$ (*i*=1, 2), which can be directly compared with the HWHM of the Lorentzians representing the quasielastic width ($\Gamma_{l}(Q)$ and $\Gamma_{2}(Q)$ shown in Figure 3) as obtained from the QENS experiment.

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Figure 9. Energies ($\Gamma^{s}_{i}(Q)$ (*i*=1, 2)) involved in the motion represented by the simulation-derived TISF in the time range 3-60 ps (left) and 100-200 ps (right). The solid lines are fits to the data obtained using the jump diffusion model. The fast component of the motion is represented by $\Gamma^{s}_{l}(Q)$ in the left panel, while the slow component is represented by $\Gamma^{s}_{2}(Q)$ in the right panel. In the right panel, the error bars are smaller than the symbols used to show the data.

441

System-Component	D (×10 ⁻¹⁰ m ² /s)	τ (ps)
Dry-Fast	77.0±30.4	25.0±1.7
Dry-Slow	26.5±24.5	127.8±17.3
H1-Fast	30.5±11.4	36.3±2.8
H1-Narrow	12.4±5.2	181±12.6

Table 3. Parameters of jump diffusion obtained from the fitting shown in Figure 9.

443

Figure 10 shows a comparison of the RCF calculated from simulations of different composition. 444 The time range accessible to BASIS is highlighted in color. The effect of water content on the 445 rotational motion of propane is qualitatively the same as that on the translational motion, i.e., water 446 447 suppresses rotational motion. Further, the RCF for all compositions, except the two highest water contents, decay completely before the lower limit of the time scales accessible with the instrument. 448 This shows that if a QENS experiment were carried out on these compositions using BASIS, the 449 rotational motion of propane will not contribute to the quasielastic spectra in all, but the two 450 highest water content compositions. 451

452



Figure 10. Rotational correlation function (RCF) of propane in different simulations. The time
 range accessible to the instrument BASIS is highlighted in colour.

456 **5. Discussion**

We report diffusion coefficients of propane confined in dry and hydrated pores of MCM-41-S 457 using experimental and computational approaches. Although quantitative differences exist 458 between the results from the two techniques, the order of magnitudes and trends in the self-459 diffusion coefficient observed are very similar. For bulk propane at saturation vapor pressure, 460 Schmid et al.⁴⁶ reported self-diffusion coefficients of 54.4×10^{-10} and 73.9×10^{-10} m²/s at 228 K and 461 249 K, respectively. The values obtained here for propane confined in a dry MCM-41-S pore are 462 comparable to these values. We note that in our experiments, confined propane remains in the 463 vapor phase even at the lower temperatures probed. The effect of confinement due to the MCM-464 41-S pores seems to correspond to an increase in pressure, which would imply an increase in 465 density for the confined fluid, consistent with many simulation results⁴⁷. 466

467 The values of residence times obtained experimentally and from the simulation derived-TISF (Figure 4 and Table 3) are rather high, especially for the slower component of motion and in the 468 presence of water. For example, compared to ethane in CPG¹⁰ and propane in silica aerogel¹³, the 469 residence times obtained for propane in MCM-41-S are a factor of 3-4 higher for the fast 470 471 component and, in some cases, even 2 orders of magnitude higher for the slow component. We note that the diffusive properties of propane in silica aerogel¹³ were measured using the same 472 473 instrument used here, implementing the same settings of elastic resolution and energy window. The slow component measured in the present study thus exhibits remarkably high residence times, 474 implying very strong intermolecular interactions, especially when water is present. The slow 475 component might represent a motion where a propane molecule shuttles within a small region for 476 a long time (i.e., the residence time), and then occasionally overcomes a high potential barrier to 477 jump to a distant site. The shuttling motion in between jumps is too fast to be captured by the 478 BASIS instrument. It is this fast shuttling motion that is represented by the very short time fast 479 decay of the TISF smaller than \sim 3 ps shown in Figure 8. 480

Although the residence times of the two populations of propane molecules are very different from each other, the differences in the corresponding diffusion coefficients are relatively small. However, the existence of two different motions is indicated by an analysis of the scattering law or the intermediate scattering functions, while the simulated mean square displacement profiles yield only an averaged result. Because the *Q* variations of the energies involved in propane motions

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 $(\Gamma_i(Q))$ from the experiments and $\Gamma_i(Q)$ from the simulations) indicate diffusion occurring via 486 jumps, the results were fitted with the Singwi-Sjölander jump diffusion model. In this model, the 487 variation of $\Gamma(Q)$ with Q^2 exhibits an initial fast growth close to a straight line, followed by a 488 plateau. The slope of the initial growth period determines the diffusion coefficient, while the value 489 490 at the plateau determines the residence times. As the number of data points in the D-determining low Q region is small in both simulations and experiments, the estimated D is more prone to errors 491 492 than τ . This problem is further aggravated in the slow component, as the $\Gamma(Q)$ values obtained representative of this component are themselves prone to larger errors. This is because of the 493 difficulty involved in measuring a smaller quantity, especially in the presence of a larger quantity. 494 This experimental uncertainty might explain the counter-intuitive enhancement of motion at 230 495 K compared to 250 K for the slow component of the hydrated sample, while the temperature 496 variation by the MSD-derived D follows expectations. 497

- The effect of water on the dynamics of confined propane is similar to that reported at 300 K in an 498 earlier publication³⁵. However, the effect reported here is very different to that reported for CO₂ 499 on the dynamics of confined ethane¹⁰, propane¹³, butane³⁰ and octane²⁹. CO₂ was found to enhance 500 the mobility of the confined hydrocarbons in all these studies. This enhancement ('molecular 501 lubrication') was explained by preferential adsorption of CO₂ to the pore walls, which results in 502 the CO₂ molecules pushing the hydrocarbon molecules away from the pore surface, and thereby 503 reducing their energy barrier for diffusion³⁰. Also, in the present study water was found to displace 504 propane molecules away from the pore wall. However unlike in the case of CO₂ the displacement 505 of propane from the pore surface by water resulted in a lowering of the propane diffusion 506 507 coefficient, possibly because of the formation of barriers to propane diffusion due to the formation of hydrogen-bonded networks of water molecules that span the entire pore width, as discussed 508 below. 509
- The size and geometry of the pores seem to be important factors, as well as the strong water-water preferential interactions (i.e., hydrogen bonds) ⁴⁸. The pore size of MCM-41-S sample used here is smaller than the pores used in the experimental studies reported in refs. 10 and 13 by factors of ~ 5 and 12, respectively. Although the pore size used in refs. 29 and 30 of ~ 2 nm was comparable to the present case (~ 1.5 nm), the pore geometry was significantly different. In the MCM-41-S pore, the sorbents are constrained to move within a cylinder of diameter 1.5 nm, resulting in a free

motion only along one dimension. In refs. 29 and 30, a slit pore was used, hence the fluid motion was constrained in one direction and free within a 2-dimensional plane. This means that both the cylindrical pore geometry as well as its smaller diameter result in a more crowded environment for the adsorbate. These geometrical effects favour the formation of water bridges within the narrow pores, especially at high water loadings. Thus, although water displaces propane from the pore surface, the overall effect of increasing water content is to increase crowding and strongly suppressing the mobility of confined propane.

Our results show that the rotational motion of confined propane molecules also exhibits 523 suppression by hydration, which is possibly due to the restricted pore volume available to propane 524 once water enters the MCM-41-S pores. The simulation data show that the rotational motions of 525 propane in all but the two highest water contents are too fast to contribute to the experimental 526 quasielastic spectra. This is consistent with the experiments, where the small values of EISF 527 obtained from fitting the QENS spectra of all samples indicate absence of any localized motion, 528 529 including the rotational motion. Further, in the two highest water content simulations, the RCF of propane do not decay to zero even after 1 ns. This residual correlation in the orientation of the 530 propane molecules at times separated by long intervals indicates that propane molecules are unable 531 to trace the entire orientational space available to them. This is due to water molecules, which 532 533 block the rotation of propane at high water contents. MD study of this system at higher temperature showed that water blocks propane mobility by forming molecular bridges³⁵. This reduced mobility 534 in translational motion gives rise to inhomogeneities in the density distribution of propane along 535 both axial as well as radial directions at high water contents (Figure 5). A similar reduction in 536 537 orientational motion gives rise to orientational ordering of propane molecules at high water contents (see Fig. S2 in the Supplementary Information). It is likely that the elongated geometry 538 of one propane molecule enhances the reduction of its rotational dynamics when water content 539 540 increases.

QENS experiments have been conducted at conditions such that the confined propane always remains in the vapour state. Although the experimental temperature is lower than what is expected in the subsurface, the thermodynamic state of propane is similar (i.e., propane remains in the vapor phase). Therefore, the results presented are of relevance to practical situations encountered in the

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545 subsurface, where hydrocarbons can be found in water-bearing-porous networks composed of 546 silica-rich substrates.

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548

549 **6.** Conclusions

We have used a combination of quasielastic neutron scattering (QENS) experiments and molecular 550 dynamics (MD) simulations to study the effect of water on the dynamics of propane confined in 551 MCM-41-S cylindrical pores of diameter 1.5 nm. Both experiments and simulations show that 552 presence of water suppresses the mobility of propane. MD simulations show that this effect is 553 dependent on the amount of water in the pore. At the highest water content, both structure and 554 dynamics, translational as well as rotational, of confined propane are severely constrained. Water 555 is found to displace propane molecules from the pore surface. A similar mechanism involving CO₂ 556 has been found to enhance the diffusivity of several hydrocarbons, including propane. In the 557 present case though, the effects of displacement of propane from the pore surfaces are countered 558 by an increased molecular crowding, which is due to a combination of small pore diameter, 559 cylindrical pore geometry, and strong water-water hydrogen bonds. The resultant effect is an 560 overall suppression of propane mobility. The mechanism of propane diffusion does not however 561 seem to be affected by the presence of water, at least at moderate water loadings. Our simulations 562 suggest that above a water-loading threshold propane becomes trapped within the hydrated pores, 563 at least for the time scales accessible to our MD simulations. Although the measurements reported 564 here were made at low temperatures of 230 and 250 K, propane was at low pressure and in the 565 566 vapor phase. Thus, the present study could have implications for the subsurface environment where hydrocarbons in vapor phase are found trapped in water saturated porous networks even at 567 geologic temperatures. 568

569

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586 **8. Conflict of Interest**

587 The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

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589 **9. References**

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Quasi-elastic neutron scattering (QENS) and molecular dynamics simulations (MDS) reveal the effects of water on the structure and dynamics of propane confined in 1.5 nm wide cylindrical pores of MCM-41-S