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Crossover from "gas-like" to "liquid-like" molecular diffusion in a simple supercritical fluid

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 Abstract
 According to textbooks, no physical observable can be discerned allowing to distinguish a liquid from a gas beyond the critical point. Here we report

guasi-elastic neutron scattering measurements of the molecular self diffu-31 sion in supercritical fluid methane as a function of pressure along the 200 32 K isotherm (corresponding to 1.05 times the critical temperature) where 33 we observe a clear crossover in the dynamic structure factor from a gas-34 like Gaussian to a liquid-like Lorentzian signal. The crossover is progres-35 sive and takes place upon compression at about the Widom line intercept. 36 Concurrently, a sharp change in the pressure dependence of the molecu-37 lar self-diffusion coefficient takes place. At considerably higher pressures, 38 we find that the same liquid-like jump diffusion mechanism can fit the 39 experimental data on both sides of the Frenkel line, marking the change 40 from a non-rigid to a rigid fluid. The observation of a gas-like to liquid-41 like dynamical crossover in supercritical methane could have planet-wide 42 implications, and possible industrial applications in green chemistry. 43

Keywords: supercritical fluids, neutron scattering, molecular diffusion, high
 pressure

Matter can be pushed to temperatures and pressures above those of its criti-46 cal point, in a state, called supercritical fluid (SCF), where we are unable to 47 distinguish whether the system is a liquid or a gas. As a result, supercritical 48 fluids possess an intimate hybrid nature: they are said to have the capabil-49 ity to effuse "like a gas" but to dissolve materials "like a liquid". This makes 50 them used in the most disparate industrial processes, such as pharmaceutical 51 and cosmetics processing, extracting essential oils, dissolving waste material, 52 brewing or decaffeinating coffee beans without leaving toxic residues. In par-53 ticular, near the critical point, small changes in pressure or temperature result 54 in large changes in density, allowing many properties of a supercritical fluid to 55 be "fine-tuned" in such processes [1-6]. 56

Understanding the physical behaviour of supercritical fluids is not only 57 important for industrial applications but also to gain a much better knowledge 58 of what goes on deep inside giant planets like Jupiter, Saturn, Uranus or 59 Neptune. As we delve into their atmosphere, we may indeed encounter simple 60 matter in the supercritical fluid state [7, 8]. This will determine not only their 61 thermal properties, and in particular the way heat is stored and flows around 62 planets, but also the anomalous solubility of other volatiles in their atmosphere 63 [9, 10], as well as other surprising phenomena such as the separation of Uranus 64 atmosphere from its interior, recently suggested by the anomalously low heat 65 flow measurements from the Voyager spacecraft [11]. Considering the number 66 of exoplanets and super-Earths that are being discovered, many of them larger 67 and with more extreme environments than found in our own solar system, 68 the possibility for supercritical fluids to be found in planetary environments is 69 only set to increase. Furthermore, SCFs with gas-like viscosity as well as melt-70 like wetting and element-carrying capability are an ideal agent for chemical 71 transport at subduction zones and could play a role as life-sustaining solvents 72 on other worlds [12, 13]. 73

Above the critical temperature, no increase in pressure can liquefy the sys-7/ tem and when the pressure is greatly increased, a supercritical fluid of much 75 higher density, close to the one of a solid, is produced. The significant changes 76 in density observed close to the critical point are expected to correlate with 77 changes in other properties of the fluid. The question scientists have long 78 debated is: may a region of the pressure-temperature (P-T) plane and a phys-70 ical observable be discerned allowing to unambiguously distinguish between a 80 gas-like and liquid-like behaviour in the supercritical fluid? 81

Two different scenarios have been recently put forward as an answer to this 82 question. The first one indicates the Widom line, i.e. the line emanating from 83 the critical point which represents the maxima/minima in certain thermophys-8/ ical properties, as the line separating a gas-like behaviour from a liquid-like 85 behaviour in the SCF. A crossover in the anomalous dispersion (i.e. the dif-86 ference between the unrelaxed and relaxed value) of the simulated THz sound 87 velocity [14-16], the observation of a pseudo-boiling phenomenon [17] and of 88 droplet formation [18], and a change in density fluctuations correlations [19– 89 21] have been reported to occur when crossing the Widom line. The second 90 scenario rather envisages the Frenkel line, i.e. the line along which the struc-91 tural relaxation time equals the shortest period of transverse oscillations of the 92 particles (atoms or molecules) within the system [22-26], as the line separating 93 a solid-like (rigid) diffusive behaviour of the fluid from a gas-like (non-rigid) 94 one. At high pressures above the Frenkel line, with the exception that the 95 particles occasionally hop from one position to another, dense SCFs somehow 96 behave like solids. They can sustain transverse acoustic excitations and show 97 a velocity autocorrelation function which monotonically decays to zero. 98

Here we report a quasi-elastic neutron scattering (QENS) study of super-99 critical methane as a function of pressure at a constant temperature of 200 100 K (just above the critical temperature of 190.55 K), providing a direct mea-101 surement of the molecular diffusion in the system. We find that the measured 102 self-dynamic structure factor, i.e. the space and time Fourier transform of 103 the self pair correlation function [27], shows a clear change from a Gaussian 104 lineshape, describing the molecular diffusion in a gas, to a Lorentzian line-105 shape, describing the molecular diffusion in a liquid. The change is completed 106 when pressure crosses the Widom line along the 200 K isotherm and no fur-107 ther changes are observed at higher pressures, for example when crossing the 108 Frenkel line. The molecular diffusion coefficient has been determined over a 109 range of densities covering almost three orders of magnitude and compared to 110 both (non-ideal) gas and dense-fluid theoretical descriptions. Its variation as a 111 function of pressure shows a clearcut slowing down when crossing the Widom 112 line, reminiscent of the change in the fluid compressibility. The observation 113 of this crossover in supercritical methane could have planet-wide implica-114 tions, in particular due to the ubiquitous presence of methane in our solar 115 system. The existence of a non-homogeneous supercritical state in gas, like 116 methane, constituting gas-giants, will indeed determine if a boundary between 117 the planet's interior and its atmosphere can be defined. This would impact 118

planetary properties such as the thermal conductivity and other heat-related
physical phenomena like storm activity, as well as mass diffusion related properties like the ionic conductivities and consequent generation of anomalous
magnetic fields [28–30].

123 Experiments

Figure 1 reports the temperature-pressure phase diagram of methane. The 124 critical point is at $T_C = 190.55$ K and $P_C = 46$ bar. Data at seventeen pressures 125 between 8.5 and 2450 bar were acquired for this study along the 200 K isotherm 126 $(1.05 T_C)$, six below and eleven above P_C . The used high-pressure setup is 127 described in the Methods section. The pressure range corresponds to a huge 128 density variation, from 0.00868 g cm⁻³ at 8.5 bar to 0.47101 g cm⁻³ at 2450 bar 129 (5000% of the initial value). The first value is only an order of magnitude higher 130 than the density of gas methane at ambient pressure $(0.00097 \text{ g cm}^{-3} \text{ at } 200 \text{ K})$. 131 The second value is comparable to the density of liquid methane (for example, 132 0.4389 g cm^{-3} at ambient pressure and 100 K). Density values used throughout 133 this paper are taken from the equation of state of the online National Institute 134 of Standards and Technology (NIST) Reference Fluid Thermodynamic and 135 Transport Properties Database, which uses ref. [31]. 136

The pressure dependence of the density along the 200 K isotherm is also 137 reported in Fig. 1 (upper panel). The intercepts of the Widom line and of the 138 Frenkel line with the 200 K isotherm are at 59 and 670 bar, respectively [24, 31]. 139 The criterion chosen to locate the Frenkel line in ref. [24] is the disappear-140 ance of the first minimum of the calculated velocity autocorrelation function. 141 Figure 1 anticipates the main result of this study: We observe a crossover in 142 the lineshape of the experimental spectra (proportional to the self-dynamic 143 structure factor of the system) from Gaussian to Lorentzian upon pressure 144 increase, which is completed above the Widom line intercept. 145

Figure 2 depicts examples of QENS spectra of the sample, plotted as a 146 function of the energy transfer E, for a few selected P and Q values, Q being 147 the modulus of the wavevector transfer. It is well-known that because of the 148 very large incoherent neutron scattering cross section of ¹H, the QENS signal 149 from CH_4 is dominated by the *self* (single-particle) dynamics of the molecules. 150 In particular, the *translational* self-dynamic structure factor was measured in 151 the present study. The (quasi-elastic) signal monotonically gets broader either 152 with decreasing pressure at constant Q (see Supplementary Fig. 1) or with 153 increasing Q at constant P (see below), as expected in case of translational 154 motion. As can be seen in Fig. 2, spectra are best fitted by a Gaussian function 155 at low pressures and by a Lorentzian function at high pressures. The Gaussian-156 to-Lorentzian transition is progressive. Gaussian fits were preferred for the 157 data at pressures up to 51.5 bar and Lorentzian fits were preferred at and 158 above 67.5 bar. More details about the extraction of spectra from the raw data 159 and about the fitting of the spectra are given in the Methods section. 160

¹⁶¹ Data analysis

In dilute fluids, the frequency of the collisions between particles is low and the particles experience a ballistic motion between two collisions. As a consequence, a velocity and a trajectory can be defined and the mean square displacement (MSD) of the particle displays a t^2 time dependence. This behaviour translates, when switching to the experimental domain (Q, ω) , into the free-particles (ideal gas) expression for the self-dynamic structure factor $S_{self}(Q, \omega)$ given by [27]:

$$S_{\rm self}(Q,\omega) = \left(\frac{m}{2\pi k_B T Q^2}\right)^{1/2} \exp\left(-\frac{m\omega^2}{2k_B T Q^2}\right),\tag{1}$$

which is a Gaussian function of the frequency ω ($\omega = E/\hbar$) centered at $\omega = 0$, whose width increases linearly with Q. Here, m is the mass of the particle and $k_{\rm B}$ the Boltzmann constant. $2k_{\rm B}T/m$ gives the mean square velocity of the diffusing particles. The self-diffusion coefficient D is given by the kinetic Chapman-Enskog theory for a dilute fluid composed of hard spheres and can be approximated for the non-dilute hard-sphere fluid by [32–34]:

$$D = \frac{1.01896}{g(\sigma)} \frac{3}{8n\sigma^2} \left(\frac{k_{\rm B}T}{\pi m}\right)^{1/2},\tag{2}$$

with the numerical factor 1.01896 being a result of using the ninth Enskog 175 approximation, q(r) being the radial distribution function, σ the spheres diam-176 eter, and n the number density. Eq. 2 is almost exact in the low-density limit 177 while its applicability at higher densities has been thoroughly tested in molec-178 ular dynamics calculations [33]. For the range over which Gaussian fits were 179 employed in the present study, i.e. for a packing fraction $\zeta = \pi n \sigma^3/6$ up to 180 about 0.1, Eq. 2 is accurate within 10% compared to recent computational val-181 ues for hard spheres [35, 36]. On the other hand, there is extensive literature 182 [37, 38] showing that the hard-sphere model correctly reproduces the exper-183 imental diffusion coefficient of methane at such modest pressures, provided 184 that the equivalent hard-sphere diameter is a free fitting parameter. It follows 185 that the free-particles expression of Eq. 1 can be extended at higher densities 186 using Eq. 2 and the Gaussian $S_{\text{self}}(Q, \omega)$ writes now as: 187

$$S_{\text{self}}(Q,\omega) = \left(\frac{\ln(2)}{\pi\Gamma_G^2(Q)}\right)^{1/2} \exp\left(-\frac{\ln(2)\omega^2}{\Gamma_G^2(Q)}\right),\tag{3}$$

where
$$\Gamma_G(Q) = KQ.$$
 (4)

The values of the half width at half maximum $\Gamma_G(Q)$ obtained from the Gaussian fits of our spectra display a clear linear trend with Q, as shown in Fig. 3a, where the data are reported together with their linear fit. From the values of the fitted slope K, reported in Extended Data Figure 1 at each investigated pressure, we obtained D in the gas-like regime using $K = \frac{8}{3} \frac{(2\pi \ln(2))^{1/2}}{1.01896} n\sigma^2 g(\sigma) D$ as obtained by comparing Eqs. 1 to 4, $g(\sigma) = \frac{1-\frac{\zeta}{2}}{(1-\zeta)^3}$ as given by the widely ¹⁹⁴ employed Carnahan–Starling equation of state [39], and σ =3.61 Å as given ¹⁹⁵ for methane at 200 K by NMR measurements of D [38]. The self-diffusion ¹⁹⁶ coefficient is plotted in Fig. 4 as a function of pressure.

¹⁹⁷ When the density further increases and becomes comparable to the one of ¹⁹⁸ a liquid, the collision frequency also strongly increases and the particles expe-¹⁹⁹ rience several multiple uncorrelated collisions during the typical experimental ²⁰⁰ timescales, giving rise to a random Brownian motion characterized by a linear, ²⁰¹ and not anymore quadratic, time dependence for the MSD [40, 41]. As a con-²⁰² sequence the self-dynamic structure factor has a Lorentzian shape centered at ²⁰³ $\omega=0$, i.e.:

$$S_{\text{self}}(Q,\omega) = \frac{1}{\pi} \frac{\Gamma_L(Q)}{\omega^2 + \Gamma_L^2(Q)},\tag{5}$$

which is the model customarily used to analyze QENS data on bulk liquid samples. Typically, the half width at half maximum $\Gamma_L(Q)$ is observed to be proportional to Q^2 at small Q (as expected for Fickian diffusion) and to lie below that expectation at high Q, i.e., when one is probing shorter distances and the microscopic details of the motion become relevant. It is often correctly described by the formula:

$$\Gamma_L(Q) = \frac{DQ^2}{1 + \tau DQ^2}.$$
(6)

Eqs. 5 and 6 were previously employed in many QENS studies, including 210 studies of liquid methane [42], supercritical methane at liquid densities [43], 211 and high-pressure interfacial methane [44], as well as studies of other dense 212 fluids such as for example liquid water over wide ranges of temperature and 213 pressure [45, 46]. Eq. 6 is known to be associated to the jump-like nature of 214 the translational motion in dense systems, typically because of the presence of 215 a cage effect, and τ represents the time spent by the diffusing particle at quasi-216 equilibrium sites between rapid jumps [47]. Figure 3b reports the half width 217 of the Lorentzian fits of our spectra as a function of Q at each investigated 218 pressure as well as its best fits using Eq. 6, from which we extracted values of 219 τ and D in the liquid-like regime, reported in Fig. 4. 220

221 Results

As can be seen in Fig. 4, τ shows a 20% decrease with increasing pressure 222 attaining a minimum at around the Frenkel line intercept (670 bar) followed 223 by a small 10% increase above that pressure. However, the estimation of the 224 residence time τ is dominated by the high-Q values of $\Gamma_L(Q)$; its uncertainty 225 can be significant for different reasons, such as a high background. Figure 4 226 also plots the obtained self-diffusion coefficient D as a function of pressure and 227 values range from $1481.1 \times 10^{-9} \text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$ at 8.5 bar to $6.8 \times 10^{-9} \text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$ at 2450 bar. 228 At our highest pressure, the value of D is close to the typical values of liquid 229 methane (for example, $3.6 \times 10^{-9} \text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$ at 1.5 bar and 102 K [42]). In Fig. 4, 230 the diffusion coefficient is compared with NMR data of methane at the same 231

temperature of 200 K [48] and with a literature computational (molecular dynamics) prediction for hard spheres [36]. The hard-sphere prediction [36] reproduces the trend of the measured diffusion coefficient fairly well over the entire pressure range, and this for a *P*-independent value of the sphere diameter σ of 3.61 Å. This is at variance with our earlier QENS work on methane [43], where we reached the (much higher) freezing pressure of 1.4 GPa at 300 K and observed failure of the hard-sphere model.

The largest relative deviations between our data and the hard-sphere pre-239 diction are for the intermediate pressure range (40-80 bar), and this is likely 240 to be associated to the existence of a pressure regime where both the Gaus-241 sian and Lorentzian modelling of the dynamic structure factor are not fully 242 justified yet representing the only models, though approximate, presently avail-243 able to describe the diffusive dynamics. Consistently, this is also the pressure 244 range where the fits of the wavevector transfer dependence of the Gaussian 245 and Lorentzian half widths are less satisfactory. It can be also noticed that the 246 Gaussian and Lorentzian fits to our spectra are of comparable quality at about 247 40-50 bar and none of them perfectly reproduces the lineshape of the experi-248 mental spectra (see Fig. 2). However, while the Gaussian fits provide reasonable 249 values for D, the Lorentzian fits provide unreasonably small values compared to 250 the literature experimental values [48] and to the hard-sphere predictions [36]251 at all pressures below 67.5 bar. For example, at 51.5 bar, Lorentzian fits provide 252 $D=50.7\times10^{-9} \mathrm{m}^2 \mathrm{s}^{-1}$, to be compared with $89.4\times10^{-9} \mathrm{m}^2 \mathrm{s}^{-1}$ for the Gaussian 253 fits. This clearly indicates that the Gaussian description is more appropri-254 ate than the Lorentzian one up to 51.5 bar. Above 51.5 bar, the situation is 255 reversed, with i) the Gaussian fits providing unreasonably small diffusion coef-256 ficient values (for example at 67.5 bar, $36.0 \times 10^{-9} \text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$ for the Lorentzian 257 and $23.5 \times 10^{-9} \text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$ for the Gaussian fits) and ii) the Lorentzian fits clearly 258 describing the measured spectra much better (see Fig. 2). To further support 259 our choice of employing Gaussian fits up to 51.5 bar and Lorentzian fits at 260 and above 67.5 bar, the likeliness of the obtained diffusion coefficient is bet-261 ter quantified in the Supplementary Information (Supplementary Note 1 and 262 Figs. 2.3), where we also report the results of a Bayesian analysis [49] of the 263 experimental spectra (Supplementary Note 2 and Figs. 4–9). 264

Finally, we calculated the product of the self-diffusion coefficient D with the 265 shear viscosity η (see Extended Data Figure 2), using the literature estimation 266 of η given by the NIST Reference Fluid Thermodynamic and Transport Prop-267 erties Database, which uses ref. [50]. The Stokes-Einstein-Sutherland (SES) 268 relation, which is commonly used in the literature of atomic and molecular liq-269 uids, predicts a constant product $D\eta$ along isotherms. In our case, the product 270 clearly shows two regimes along the 200 K isotherm: while below the pressure 271 of intercept with the Widom line, $D\eta$ decreases with increasing pressure and 272 the SES relation is violated, above that pressure, $D\eta$ is constant with pressure 273 and the SES relation holds. Experimental literature data showed that $D\eta$ is 274 constant within the experimental uncertainties in compressed liquid methane 275 along the low-temperature isotherms 110, 140 and 160 K [38], as reported for 276

example in our previous work [43] (Supplementary Figure 5), but significantly increases with pressure in very dense supercritical methane along the roomtemperature isotherm [43]. On the other hand, the SES relation is typically not expected to hold at low pressures below twice the critical density. It is a well-known result of isomorph theory [51], experiments of various simple fluids, and simulations of hard spheres and of the Lennard-Jones system [35, 36] that the product $D\eta$ cannot be constant over isotherms in the gas phase.

284 Final comments

The fundamental problem of distinguishing between a gas-like and a liquid-like 285 region in the phase diagram of simple supercritical fluids has fed a high-pitched 286 debate in the literature [14-26]. In the present measurements, we establish the 287 existence of a crossover in the self-dynamic structure factor of SCF methane 288 measured by QENS along the 200 K isotherm. The change from a Gaussian to 289 a Lorentzian lineshape indicates the crossover from a gas-like to a liquid-like 290 diffusive dynamics of the molecules and occurs roughly at the pressure at which 291 the Widom line intercepts the 200 K isotherm, indicating that the Widom 292 line separates gas-like and liquid-like behaviours as concerns the self diffusion 293 of CH_4 in the vicinity of the critical temperature. This result is exclusively 294 based upon the experimental determination of a basic transport property as a 295 function of the pressure and use the only available diffusive models available 296 in literature, without resorting to any other external input or calculations. 297

To our knowledge, the present work represents the first to employ the QENS 298 technique to investigate a SCF sample in the vicinity of its critical point. The 200 advantage of using neutrons to investigate the diffusion in a SCF resides in 300 the fact that neutron scattering is a weak process and the sample response 301 is linear. It follows that the measured dynamic structure factor is determined 302 by the spectrum of the spontaneous correlations between molecules, and thus 303 gives a fundamental information on the molecular interaction [52]. Along the 304 thermodynamic path we followed, we could cross both the Widom and the 305 Frenkel line. The picture that emerges is that at pressures below the Widom 306 line, the molecular diffusion is basically governed by the harsh repulsive forces 307 between molecules while the weaker, longer-ranged attractive forces have little 308 influence on the dynamics. The system can be described as a dense (non-ideal) 309 gas. Conversely, above the Widom line, the sharp increase in density makes the 310 free path of the molecules to strongly decrease and the diffusion mechanism 311 becomes sensitive to the longer-ranged molecular interaction and depends on 312 the average molecular distances. The molecular diffusion can be thus described 313 as that of a liquid and the Stokes–Einstein–Sutherland relation holds. This 314 happens starting from much lower densities (by approximately a factor of 2) 315 than those typical for liquid methane. 316

The presence of a Frenkel line does not seem to affect in a radical way the pressure dependence of the diffusion coefficient nor the diffusion mechanism probed in the present measurements, with the exception of a shallow minimum

in the trend of the in-cage molecular residence time τ as a function of pres-320 sure. On the "non-rigid fluid" side of the Frenkel line, a competition between 321 the repulsive potential and attractive Van der Waals forces between adjacent 322 molecules undergoing diffusion is in place. Attractive Van der Waals forces 323 dominate in the fluid at the lowest densities and lead the in-cage residence 324 time of the molecules to decrease upon pressure increase [53]. Conversely, when 325 crossing the Frenkel line, τ increases with pressure because of the major role of 326 the repulsive potential and the consequent stabilisation of the neighbour's cage. 327 As a consequence, the variation of the residence time as a function of pressure 328 in an isothermal experiment can display a minimum as one proceeds from the 329 non-rigid to the rigid fluid. Future studies will be able to verify whether this 330 intriguing observation is reproduced and matches the Frenkel line intercepts 331 also along other isotherms. At pressures above the Frenkel line, the (relatively) 332 close packed arrangement of the molecules determines a much stronger inter-333 action between close neighbour molecules and the onset of long-living density 334 fluctuation modes as well as of shear modes. The diffusion mechanism pro-335 gressively becomes more similar to the hopping observed in solids through 336 vacancies and the system can be described as a "rigid" liquid on the short 337 timescales here explored. 338

Concerning the Widom line, it is worth recalling that there is a group 339 of lines emanating from the critical point which are associated with maxi-340 ma/minima in different thermophysical properties such as the speed of sound, 341 isothermal compressibility, isochoric and isobaric heat capacities, which have 342 all been named "Widom lines" [54]. Close to the critical point, as in the present 343 experiment, the choice of the specific thermophysical property is relatively 344 unimportant as all of the maxima/minima closely coincide, but far away from 345 the critical point, the maxima in the response functions begin to deviate signif-346 icantly from each other. However, it is now generally agreed that the Widom 347 line can be identified to a maximum in the correlation length characterizing the 348 range of the molecular interactions which is here directly probed through the 349 dynamic structure factor. In this extent, the dynamic structure factor turns 350 out to be a pertinent physical observable allowing us to distinguish between 351 a gas-like and a liquid-like behaviour within the supercritical fluid. Its change 352 in lineshape when crossing the Widom line reflects a substantial change in the 353 molecular interaction length scale with clear consequences in the transport 354 properties of the system. This observation could have major consequences on 355 the geodynamics of gas giant planets in our Solar System and beyond, and 356 could be exploited to tailor the efficiency of supercritical fluids in industrial 357 applications. It remains to be established how a planet-scale crossover through 358 the Widom line would affect heat flow, like it is observed for Uranus. 359



Fig. 1: Phase diagram of methane. Temperature-pressure phase diagram of methane including the Widom line (locus of the isobaric heat capacity maxima [31]) and the predicted Frenkel line from ref. [24]. The critical point is at 190.55 K and 46 bar. Symbols depict the pressure points measured (along the 200 K isotherm) in the present experiment. The density profile at 200 K from ref. [31] is reported on top of the phase diagram. Examples of QENS experimental spectra in logarithmic scale (empty circles) at two selected pressures on each side of the Widom line are also reported with their best Gaussian/Lorentzian fits (solid lines) to highlight the Gaussian-to-Lorentzian crossover upon compression. To improve statistics, these two spectra were obtained by summing up measurements in the 0.55-0.85 Å⁻¹ exchanged wavevector range.



Fig. 2: Examples of QENS spectra. QENS spectra of the sample at 200 K at the indicated pressure and wavevector transfer values, collected using an incoming neutron wavelength of 5.12 Å and an instrumental resolution of full width at half maximum equal to 0.077 meV. Experimental data (empty circles) are compared to the best Gaussian and Lorentzian fits (solid lines).



Fig. 3: Wavevector transfer dependence of Γ_G and Γ_L . Fitted Gaussian (panel **a**) or Lorentzian (panel **b**) half widths at half maximum (symbols) as a function of Q, at all investigated pressures. The best fits to the data at each pressure are shown as solid lines. For the Gaussian half widths, the fits are lines passing through zero whose slopes allowed us to extract D (see Eq. 4 and following discussion). The Lorentzian half widths were modelled using Eq. 6 with τ and D as free parameters.



Fig. 4: Pressure dependence of the mean residence time and of the diffusion coefficient at 200 K. Top panel: Parameter τ of the jump diffusion model as obtained from the fits shown in Fig. 3b. Bottom panel: Self-diffusion coefficient D (full circles) as obtained from the fits shown in Fig. 3. A gas-like (resp. liquid-like) regime is defined as being the regime where D was obtained using Gaussian (resp. Lorentzian) fits and the two regimes are indicated with different colors, with the blur in between indicating that the Gaussian-to-Lorentzian transition is progressive. The arrows indicate the intercepts of the Widom and Frenkel lines with the 200 K isotherm. We also report i) experimental NMR values for methane at 200 K (full diamonds) measured in ref. [48] or obtained in ref. [48] from interpolation of data measured at other temperatures and ii) simulated values for the hard sphere fluid from ref. [36] (full line), plotted here using T=200 K, $\sigma=3.61$ Å, and the mass of the methane molecule.

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$_{506}$ Methods

Experimental setup. The measurements have been carried out at the 507 Institut Laue-Langevin large-scale facility in Grenoble, France, on the time-508 of-flight neutron spectrometer IN6-SHARP. We set the wavelength of the 509 incoming neutron beam to 5.12 Å. Neutron scattering spectra of methane at 510 200 ± 1 K were recorded at pressures between 8.5 and 2450 bar with a typical 511 acquisition time of 3-4 hours per pressure point. The sample was contained 512 in a cylindrical pressure cell of aluminium alloy whose height was about 50 513 mm and whose internal diameter was 6 mm, and was compressed using a gas 514 compressor working with methane. In this setup, the sample volume does not 515 change upon pressure increase/decrease and the number of methane molecules 516 in the neutron beam increases with increasing pressure. To reduce the multi-517 ple scattering contributions, we inserted a cylindrical aluminium spacer of 5 518 mm in diameter for the measurements at the following eight pressures: 46, 97, 519 197, 349, 400, 650, 1275, and 2450 bar. The nine pressure points measured 520 without aluminium spacer were: 8.5, 19, 25, 30, 40, 41.5, 51.5, 67.5, and 75.5 521 bar. The CH_4 (purity>99.95%) bottle was purchased from AirLiquide, Saint 522 Priest, France. Pressure was directly measured by a manometer attached to 523 the capillary connecting the gas compressor with the high-pressure cell. The 524 uncertainty on the pressure measurement was 1 bar. The sample temperature 525 was controlled using a standard "orange" cryostat. Empty-cell spectra were 526 measured with and without aluminium spacer. 527

528

Data extraction and fitting. For each pressure point, constant-Q spectra from 0.4 to 1.5 Å⁻¹ with 0.1 Å⁻¹ steps were extracted (except in Fig. 1 where a larger integration range of 0.3 Å⁻¹ was used). Their intensity was normalized using the measurement of a vanadium standard and the empty-cell signal was subtracted using P- and Q-dependent transmission values (the spectra reported in Figs. 1 and 2 are empty cell-subtracted).

The different possible motions of methane (vibrations, rotations and trans-535 lations) lie on different time scales. The contribution of the vibrational motion 536 is very fast and can be approximated with a Debye–Waller factor. Rotations 537 are too fast to be properly resolved on IN6-SHARP and probably only con-538 tribute as a very broad quasi-elastic signal appearing as a flat background in 539 our spectra. Therefore, only the vibrational and translational motions were 540 included in the fitting model, similarly to our previous QENS study of dense 541 supercritical methane at 300 K [43]. The accessible energy range is inherently 542 limited in time-of-flight neutron spectrometers and is rather narrow at small 543 Q. For example, it goes from -2.2 to 1.8 meV at 0.5 Å⁻¹, as can be seen in Fig. 544 2. To limit the effect that the rotational contribution might have on our results. 545 fits of the spectra at high Q were restricted over a reduced energy range. 546

Spectra are given in arbitrary units and were accordingly fitted using a Gaussian or Lorentzian function multiplied by a scaling factor in arbitrary units. A flat positive background B and a zero shift (small difference between the values of the true and nominal zeros of the energy transfer axis) were included. Moreover, in the fitting of the spectra, convolution of $S_{\text{self}}(Q, \omega)$ with the instrumental resolution function was taken into account. The resolution function of the spectrometer R(E) was obtained by fitting the measurement of the vanadium standard to a pseudo-Voigt distribution. Its full width at half maximum was about 0.077 meV. Therefore, each constant-Q spectrum was fitted using either of the two formulas:

$$I^{\text{Gauss}}(E) = I_0^{\text{Gauss}} \exp\left(-\frac{\ln(2)(E-E_0)^2}{\hbar^2 \Gamma_G^2}\right) \otimes R(E) + B_0,$$
(7)

$$I^{\rm Lor}(E) = \frac{I_0^{\rm Lor}}{\pi} \frac{\hbar \Gamma_L}{(E - E_0)^2 + \hbar^2 \Gamma_L^2} \otimes R(E) + B_0.$$
(8)

Both Gaussian and Lorentzian fits have four parameters: I_0^{Gauss} or I_0^{Lor} , Γ_G 557 or Γ_L , E_0 , and B_0 . The zero shift of the energy-transfer axis E_0 was generally 558 left free to vary. However, it was systematically imposed at high Q in the 559 Gaussian fits to an extrapolation of the small Q values (it would otherwise 560 converge to relatively large values up to 0.2-0.3 meV). Similarly, to ensure a 561 smooth Q dependence, the flat background B_0 was imposed to an extrapolation 562 of the higher Q values at small Q values in the Gaussian fits and at the smallest 563 Q only in the Lorentzian fits (it would otherwise converge to larger values). 564 Supplementary Figs. 10 and 11 report all B_0 values. We checked that both 565 of these choices (for zero shift and flat background) have only minor effects 566 on the determination of the diffusion coefficient. Intensities and widths were 567 always left as free parameters in the fitting. Supplementary Fig. 12 reports the 568 fitted Lorentzian half widths at pressures where Gaussian fits were preferred 569 and the fitted Gaussian half widths at pressures where Lorentzian fits were 570 preferred (therefore complementing Fig. 3 of the main text). 571

The obtained intensities I_0^{Gauss} and I_0^{Lor} are plotted as a function of Q in Supplementary Fig. 13. They were fitted using:

$$I_0^{\text{Gauss}} \propto \frac{1}{Q} \exp(-Q^2 \langle u^2 \rangle / 3),$$
 (9)

$$I_0^{\text{Lor}} \propto \exp(-Q^2 \langle u^2 \rangle/3). \tag{10}$$

 I_0^{Gauss} corresponds to the height of the Gaussian function before convolu-574 tion with the instrumental resolution and is proportional to the factor 1/Q575 (see Eq. 3) multiplied by the Debye-Waller factor $\exp(-Q^2 \langle u^2 \rangle/3)$. I_0^{Lor} cor-576 responds to the area of the Lorentzian function before convolution with the 577 instrumental resolution and is simply proportional to the Debye-Waller factor. 578 The resulting values of $\langle u^2 \rangle^{1/2}$ are reported as a function of pressure in Sup-579 plementary Fig. 14. They amount to roughly 1 Å, which is a reasonable value 580 and within the range of values reported in the literature for example of liquid 581 water at ambient conditions, for which many QENS studies exist. We observe 582 an increasing trend for $\langle u^2 \rangle^{1/2}$ with increasing pressure (see Supplementary 583 Fig. 14) in both estimations (from the Gaussian and Lorentzian intensities) 584

with a discontinuity between the Gaussian and Lorentzian estimations whoseorigin is presently unclear.

The Gaussian half widths were fitted over the Q range from 0.4 to 1.5 Å⁻¹, as 587 shown in Fig. 3a. In the linear fits, the data points were not weighted according 588 to the estimated error in $\Gamma_G(Q)$. This choice moderates the weight of the low-589 Q points (having the smaller error), corresponding to the regime where the 590 theoretical ground for the Gaussian modelling is weaker. The Lorentzian half 591 widths were fitted over a slightly narrower Q range from 0.4 to 1.3 Å⁻¹ (Fig. 592 3b), similarly to our previous work [43], in order to limit the potential effect 593 of the rotational contribution. This is because the rotational contribution i) 594 becomes slower with increasing pressure and might potentially approach the 595 timescale window accessible by the present experiment at our highest pressures 596 and ii) is known from analytical modelling to have increasing intensity with 597 increasing Q. The data points were weighted according to the estimated error 598 in $\Gamma_L(Q)$. 599

Finally, multiple scattering contributions to the spectra were ignored. 600 The multiple scattering was calculated following the established procedure 601 described in ref. [55] for a few selected pressure points and its subtraction was 602 observed to have negligible effect on the fits and on the determination of the 603 diffusion coefficient. This test was performed at three pressures: 67.5 bar (mea-604 sured without the aluminium spacer in the high-pressure cell containing the 605 sample), and 97 and 1275 bar (both measured with the spacer). The calculated 606 multiple scattering is much weaker and broader than the single scattering and 607 included in the flat background over the considered energy range. This is con-608 firmed by the observation that there is no inconsistency between the results for 609 the data measured with and without the aluminium spacer. In particular, the 610 results for the point at 46 bar, which was measured with the spacer, perfectly 611 interpolate in between the results for 41.5 and 51.5 bar, which were measured 612 without the spacer. 613

614 Data availability

⁶¹⁵ Data were generated at the Institut Laue-Langevin large-scale facility and are ⁶¹⁶ stored on the ILL data portal under doi 10.5291/ILL-DATA.6-01-332.

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623 Author contributions

The project was conceived by F.F, F.A.G, M.S. and L.E.B.. The experiments were performed by F.F., F.A.G., M.S., M.M.K., and L.E.B.. New analytic tools have been provided by F.F. and L.E.B. The data were analysed and the figures
produced by U.R., with contributions from F.F. and L.E.B., F. F performed
the Bayesian analysis using the code written by A.D.F.. The manuscript was
written by U.R. and L.E.B.. All authors discussed the results and commented
on the manuscript.

631 Competing interests

632 The authors declare no competing interests.



Extended Data Fig. 1 | Slope parameter K appearing in Eq. 4. Pressure dependence of the slope of the linear fits of the Gaussian half widths shown in Fig. 3a. 67.5 bar is also included. The arrow indicates the value calculated from the theoretical expression for ballistic diffusion (Eq. 1): $K=(2\ln(2)k_{\rm B}T/m)^{1/2}$.



Extended Data Fig. 2 | Test of the Stokes–Einstein–Sutherland relation. Pressure dependence of the product between the self-diffusion coefficient D at 200 K (from this work and from ref. [48]) and the viscosity η at the same temperature from the equation of state-like viscosity model of ref. [50]. The error bars were obtained by propagating the errors in D only. The Stokes–Einstein–Sutherland relation predicts a constant product $D\eta$ along isotherms.