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Sn-based alloys synthesized in room temperature ionic liquid: Cu₆Sn₅ as a case study

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Abstract: Sn-based alloys are increasingly investigated owing to electronic/structural modulations of interest electrocatalysis and energy storage applications. Here, we report on the use of a chemical system consisting of an ionic liquid (1-ethyl-3bis(trifluoromethanesulfonyl)imide: methylimidazolium [EMIm+][TFSI-]) and Sn-based precursor Sn(TFSI)2 both featuring similar anionic groups. This strategy enabled to increase the solubility of the cationic precursor in the IL and avoid the formation of side products during the precipitation of Sn-nanoparticles formed upon reaction with a reducing agent (NaBH₄). Using NMR relaxometry, we further established that these nanoparticles are stabilized by specific interactions with the cationic group of the IL. Targeting the composition Cu₆Sn₅, we further demonstrated that this approach can be used to prepare Sn-based alloys which could not be prepared using conventional chloride-based precursors.

Introduction

Sn-based alloys are an interesting class of materials for applications spanning from catalysis to electrochemical energy storage. Alloying serves as a mean to tune the solid electronic properties[1] and can provide enhanced electrochemical performances in lithium cells owing to the formation of an inert matrix^[2]. The precise control of the atomic structure of alloys appears, however, largely dependent on the synthesis method employed. Although ionic liquids are considered as suitable solvents to prepare unusual materials, the synthesis of binary alloys is more challenging. The resulting compound may not be alloys but core-shell like nanoparticles, fused clusters, or simply a mixture of the monometallic nanoparticles.[3] This diversity of results is due to the numerous contributing factors that are the nature of the solvent, its compatibility with the metallic precursors, the reaction kinetics and metal surface interactions with the solvent.

Literature data dealing with the synthesis of Sn-based alloys in ionic liquid solvent mostly relied on the decomposition of metallic precursors. For example, Wegner et al reported the synthesis of ruthenium and tin metallic alloys using methylimidazolium tetrafluoroborate [BMIm+][BF4-], leading to the formation of Ru₂Sn alloys and a mixture of a Ru₃Sn₇ and α-Sn phase.^[4] Dietrich et al used PtCl₂, SnCl₂ or Sn(acac)₂ as metallic precursors, methyltrioctylammonium bis(trifluoromethylsulfonyl)imide the solvent as triethylborohydride as the reducing agent. Pt-Sn alloy nanoparticles were obtained without being able to strictly define the synthetized phase. According to x-ray diffraction analysis, the crystalline phase obtained were indexed with cubic metallic Pt, with diffraction peaks displaced to smaller Bragg angles, indicating the incorporation of Sn into the Pt lattice, and the possible formation of randomly alloyed nanoparticles. In addition, small SnO2 nanoparticles in close contact with alloyed nanoparticles were observed by HRTEM.^[5] This illustrates the difficulty to control the composition of the alloyed phase.

To control the chemical composition of Sn-based alloys, we proposed to use metallic precursors based on TFSI counter ions dissolved in an [EMIm $^+$][TFSI $^-$] ionic liquid. The use of common anion for both metallic precursors and the ionic liquid was shown to be an effective approach to (i) increase the solubility of cations in ILs, $^{[6,7]}$ especially as compared to conventionally used halide salts, $^{[8]}$ (ii) prevent impurities related to CI anions $^{[7]}$ and (iii) enable the successful synthesis of nanosized metals $^{[6,7,9,10]}$. We selected the tin-copper system and particularly the Cu_6Sn_5 chemical composition for its possible use as an anode for lithium-ion batteries. We compared the synthesis employing TFSI based precursors with conventionally used chloride salts.

Results and Discussion

Synthesis of metallic Sn. The precipitation of metallic Sn synthetized using NaBH₄ as the reducing agent in [EMIm⁺][TFSI⁻] ionic liquid was investigated using two salts that are Sn(TFSI)₂ and SnCl₂. In both cases, the addition of the salt and the reducing agent dissolved in [EMIm⁺][TFSI⁻] results in the formation of a black precipitate. **Figure 1a** gathers the X-ray diffraction powder pattern of both samples recovered after the synthesis. As previously reported,^[11] the use of SnCl₂ led to the formation of a phase mixture consisting in β -Sn and NaCl as an impurity. The use of Sn(TFSI)₂ enabled to prepare single phase of β -Sn without any traces of impurity.

We further compared the particle size and polydispersity of the two samples. $Sn(TFSI)_2$ precursor led to an average particle size ~15 nm (Figure S1) which is larger than that observed for $SnCI_2$ (~7 nm). This increase of the particle size is accompanied by an increase of the size polydispersity going from 29 to 35%. Such differences suggest that the nature of the cationic precursor affects the nucleation/growth mechanism of metallic Sn. This can be tentatively explained by differences in metallic salt solubility. The low solubility of $SnCI_2$ precursor might result in a continuous supply of cations promoting growth of metal particles with a smaller size and a narrower distribution. $^{[12,13]}$

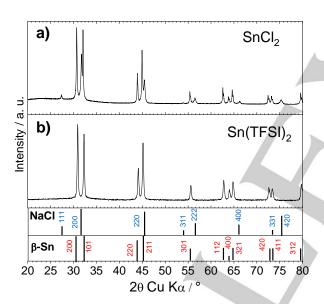


Figure 1. X-ray diffraction powder patterns of the samples prepared using a) SnCl₂ and b) Sn(TFSl)₂ as precursors.

NPs stabilization probed by NMR relaxometry. The chemical reactants used provides a versatile system to investigate the nature of the interactions between the ionic liquid and the surface of the nanoparticles. To do so, we explore the use of 1 H and 19 F spin-lattice relaxation experiments performed on a solution containing freshly precipitated β -Sn prepared using the TFSI precursor, in the frequency range of 10 kHz – 40 MHz (referring to the 1 H resonance frequency).

"Classical" NMR relaxation experiments are performed at a single magnetic field while here, the magnetic field can be varied in a very broad range thanks to the concept of Fast Field Cycling^[14,15], a technique well suited to probe the interactions between a solvent and nanoparticle's surfaces.^[16] The great advantage of

this method is its ability to probe in a single experiment, molecular and ionic dynamical processes occurring on much different time scales. ^{20,[19],24,25} The relaxation dispersion profiles (relaxation rates plotted versus the resonance frequency) reveal specific effects (not observed in "classical" NMR relaxation studies) that can be treated as a fingerprint of the slowing down of ionic dynamics due to interaction with surfaces. Here, we used an original approach as the experiments were performed at the frozen state and exploit the modification of the ¹⁴N nuclear energy levels induced by the presence of metallic nanoparticles. Indeed, the standard approach is to record relaxation dispersion profiles in the liquid state and to model the fluctuations of the dipolar interactions - source of relaxation - experienced by the nuclei.[18],[20] In other words, the goal in liquid is to model the dynamics of the molecule: rotation, diffusion in the bulk, diffusion at the surface of the particles, etc.[18,21-25] In the present situation, it can be tricky to distinguish between the case of the cation (or anion) diffusing on the surface of the raw nanoparticles of diameter D and the case of nanoparticles covered by a layer of anion (or cation) leading to a diameter of D+d (d being approximately 20 times smaller than D). With [EMIm+][TFSI-], the presence of ¹⁴N in both the anion and the cation can be a source of relaxation enhancement at specific frequencies provided that the dynamic is slow. This effects is referred as Quadrupole Relaxation Enhancement (QRE).^{21,[29],33-35} The ¹H (¹⁹F) spinlattice relaxation originates from several relaxation pathways between the ¹H (¹⁹F) nuclei and other NMR active nuclei in the neighborhood, especially ¹⁴N. As the spin quantum number of ¹⁴N nuclei is larger than ½ (it is 1), the nuclei experience two kinds of interactions: Zeeman interaction and quadrupole coupling, i.e., a coupling with the electric field gradient tensor at its position. For slow dynamics, the energy level structure of ¹⁴N is determined by a superposition of its Zeeman and quadrupole interactions. When the ¹H resonance frequency (the transition frequency between the ¹H energy levels) matches one of the ¹⁴N transition frequencies, the ¹H polarization can be taken over by ¹⁴N, as a result of the mutual magnetic dipole-dipole coupling between the participating nuclei, leading to a frequency-specific enhancement of the 1H spin-lattice relaxation rate referred to as QRE; the ¹H spin-lattice relaxation maxima are called quadrupole peaks. The positions of the quadrupole peaks depend on the quadrupole parameters which are determined by the electric field gradient tensor at the ¹⁴N position and appear when (as already pointed out) the dynamic is sufficiently slow.[15,26-28] For ¹⁴N there are three quadrupole peaks at the frequencies of $3/4 a_0 (1-\eta/3)$, $3/4 a_Q (1+\eta/3)$ and $a_Q (\eta/2)$ where a_Q is the quadrupolar coupling constant of ^{14}N , and η the asymmetry parameter of the electric field gradient at the position of the 14N nucleus. The positions of the quadrupole peaks can be treated as markers of the ¹⁴N chemical environment as a_0 and η values are sensitive to the electric field gradient.

Figure 2 a and b display the ¹H and ¹⁹F spin-lattice relaxation rate profile for [EMIm⁺][TFSI⁻] at frozen state (T = -40 °C) where motions are sufficiently slow to allow QRE peaks existence. At least six clear peaks (some may be overlapped) on ¹H profile and four peaks on ¹⁹F profile are observable. The mechanism of the ¹H and ¹⁹F NMR relaxation is the dipole-dipole interaction that decreases as r^3 , r being the distance between the two dipoles, *i.e.*, ¹H (or ¹⁹F) – ¹⁴N distance for the QRE peaks. To identify the origin of the QRE peaks, we used the crystalline structure of the solid [EMIm⁺][TFSI⁻] solved by Choudhury et al^{301} , and listed the

different inter-atomic distances between ¹⁴N and ¹H/¹⁹F close neighbors **(Table S1)**. On one hand, it appears that all the ¹⁴N carried by both the cation and the anion, are close to ¹H leading to seven observable QRE peaks. On the other hand, ¹⁴N are far from ¹⁹F except for the ¹⁴N carried by the anion^[30] leading to a lower number of QRE peaks in the ¹⁹F NMR relaxation profile. Furthermore, by comparing both profiles, peaks II and III seems to be related to the ¹⁴N carried by the anion.

Similar experiment was then conducted on a [EMIm⁺][TFSI⁻] solution of β -Sn freshly prepared using TFSI⁻ precursor. **Figure 2 c and d** show the ¹H and ¹⁹F NMR relaxation profile for a frozen (T=-40 °C) [EMIm⁺][TFSI⁻] solution of β -Sn. The striking feature is the strong modification of the QRE peaks at high frequencies on the ¹H profile. Instead of the two narrow peaks at 2.7 and 3.2 MHz,

appears a broad and intense feature around 4.4 MHz. On the contrary, ¹⁹F profile is weakly modified by the presence of metallic nanoparticles. The ¹H and ¹⁹F NMR relaxation results suggest that *only* the cationic groups [EMIm⁺] interact strongly with the surface of the nanoparticles.

Furthermore, the same experiments were conducted on oxidized Sn nanoparticles dispersion in [EMIm⁺][TFSI⁻]. In this case, both the ¹H and ¹⁹F profiles for oxidized Sn nanoparticles dispersion are superimposed to those of neat [EMIm⁺][TFSI⁻] (Figure S2). First, this result confirms that the chemical nature of the nanoparticles - and not the possible chemical bonding with the surface - is responsible of the strong modification of ¹⁴N properties. Second, it confirms that the nanoparticles are not oxidized in the ionic liquid.

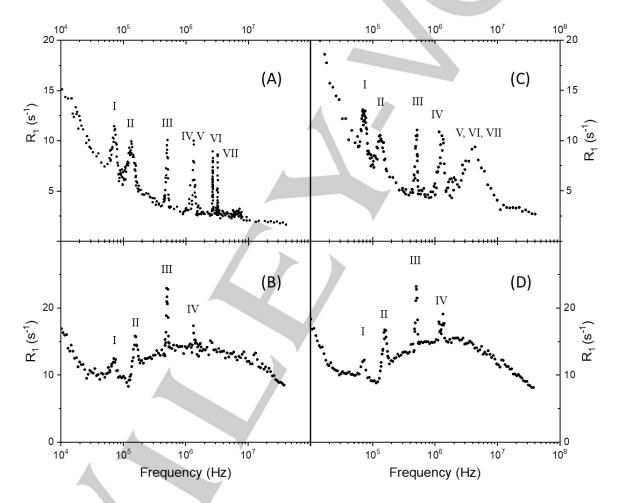


Figure 2. Spin lattice relaxation rates, R1, as a function of the frequency for frozen (A) 1 H and (B) 19 F within neat [EMIm⁺][TFSI⁻] and (C) 1 H and (D) 19 F within β-Sn in [EMIm⁺][TFSI⁻].

Synthesis of Cu-Sn alloys. The synthesis of Cu-Sn alloy of nominal composition Cu_6Sn_5 was first attempted using chloride precursors (see experimental section). The addition of the reducing agent led to the successive formation of a brownish precipitate followed by a black coloration (Figure S3). After powder recovery, XRD analysis (Figure 3) revealed the formation of a phase mixture of cubic metallic Cu and β -Sn as well as NaCl as an impurity. The successive formation of monometallic

nanoparticles, without the formation of Sn-Cu alloys, might be due to a concomitant effect of the low solubility of chloride precursors and standard potentials gap between Cu²+/Cu (+0.34 V vs. SHE) and Sn²+/Sn (-0.13 V vs. SHE).

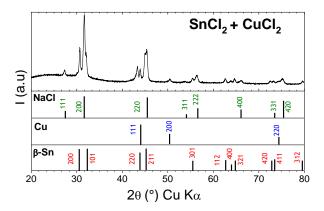


Figure 3. X-ray diffraction pattern of the sample prepared from chloride Sn-Cu precursors.

To probe the reactivity of a [EMIm+][TFSI-] solution containing Sn(TFSI)₂ and Cu(TFSI)₂ salts, we used cyclic voltammetry (CV) performed on an inert Mo working electrode, Pt as counter electrode and Sn as the reference. Figure 4a gathers the CVs of [EMIm+][TFSI-] solutions containing 25 mM of Sn(TFSI)2 or 25 mM of Cu(TFSI)₂. The scan was performed at 0.05 V s⁻¹ starting from the open circuit potential $(E_{\mbox{\scriptsize OCP}})$ toward cathodic and reversed anodic sides. Concerning the solution of Sn2+, we observed a cathodic peak at -0.17 V vs. Sn2+/Sn previously assigned to the reduction of Sn2+ to Sn0 and a re-oxydation occurring at +0.10 V.[7] In the case of a 25 mM Cu(TFSI)2 in [EMIm+][TFSI-], the voltammograms stabilized after several cycles (Figure S4) indicating that side reactions occurred. Thereafter, the CV showed a reduction peak at -0.02 V vs. Sn²⁺/Sn, followed by an oxidation occurring at +0.53 V. Such a cathodic peak value cannot be assigned based on standard potential due to the contribution of the solvation energy of copper ions in [EMIm+][TFSI-] solvent.[31] Subsequently, we performed CVs on solutions of 25 mM of Sn(TFSI)2 where we introduced copper with different Sn:Cu molar stoichiometries of 1.0:0.1, 1.0:0.5 and 1.0:1.2 (Figure 4b).

For Sn:Cu of 1.0:0.1, the CV present a cathodic peak at -0.15 V assigned to Sn²⁺ → Sn⁰ and a small peak at -0.6V which might be related to Sn-Cu alloy. The anodic scan features a first intense oxidation peak at 0.02V assigned to the oxidation of Sn⁰ and a small peak at 0.38V tentatively assigned to the oxidation of Sn-Cu alloy. Upon increasing the copper concentration, we did not observed cathodic peaks characteristic of the reduction of Sn2+ or Cu²⁺. For Sn:Cu of 1.0:0.5, a cathodic peak is observed at -0.39V along with a broad shoulder centered at -0.77V. These two features can be assigned to the formation of Sn-Cu alloys with different Sn:Cu stoichiometries. In the anodic reverse scan, we observed three peaks at 0, 0.25 and 0.41V, assigned to the oxidation of Sn and two types of Sn-Cu alloys, respectively. For Sn:Cu of 1.0:1.2 that is the targeted nominal composition of Cu₆Sn₅, the cathodic scan displayed two broad peaks at around +0.0 and -0.6V. The anodic scan showed the absence of the peak related to Sn at 0.0V and a broad peak at +0.54V related to the formation of different Cu-Sn alloys.

Cyclic voltammetry revealed that the electrochemical responses of a solution of copper and tin in [EMIm⁺][TFSI⁻] depends on the Cu-Sn stoichiometry. In such a system, the measured redox potential is related to the Gibbs energy of the Sn-Cu alloy. The

richness of the Sn-Cu phase diagram is reflected by the numerous peaks observed by CV. This demonstrates that the use of TFSI precursor is a suitable approach for the control synthesis of alloys. It should be noted that attempts to measure CVs using chloride precursors failed which can be due to the low solubility of the salt.

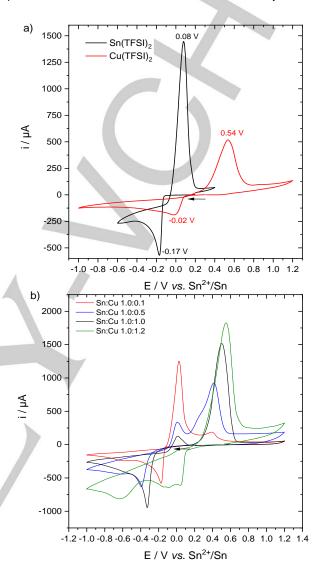


Figure 4. Cyclic voltammograms of $[EMIm^{+}][TFSI^{-}]$ solution containing a) 25 mM Sn(TFSI)₂ or Cu(TFSI)₂ and b) 50 mM of Sn(TFSI)₂ and different content of Cu(TFSI)₂.

In agreement with cyclic voltammetry measurements, the use of TFSI-based precursors resulted in a rapid and homogeneous precipitation upon reaction with NaBH₄ (Figure S3). The x-ray diffraction pattern measured on the recovered powder (Figure 5) revealed the formation of Cu-Sn based alloy without any traces of monometallic phases. TEM micrographs (Figure S5) showed the formation of nanoparticles with an average size of 17 nm and a large dispersity of 30 %. For the targeted composition Cu₆Sn₅, two types of polymorphs can be formed and are denoted η and η' -Cu₆Sn₅. According to the binary diagram, η' -Cu₆Sn₅ corresponds to the low-temperature phase. This structure was previously solved by Larsson et al, $^{[33]}$ who described it in a monoclinic system (space group C2/c) presenting a NiAs-Ni₂In superstructure. The

high temperature modification $\eta\text{-}\text{Cu}_6\text{Sn}_5$ crystallizes in a hexagonal system (space group $P6_3/mmc$) and presents a NiAstype structure. [34] Attempts to index the XRD pattern did not allow to distinct between the two η and η '-Cu₆Sn₅ polymorphs because of overlapping and broadness of the peaks.

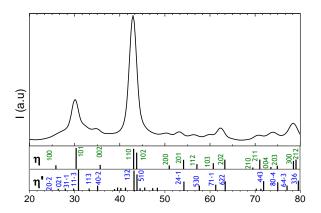


Figure 5. X-ray diffraction pattern of the sample prepared from TFSI Sn-Cu precursors.

To study the atomic structure of the Cu-Sn alloy prepared using TFSI based precursors, we used the pair distribution function, G(r), particularly suited to investigate nanostructured/disordered materials.[35] The PDF gives the interatomic distance distribution of finding atom separated from the distance r. [36] At the short interatomic distance, we noted the presence of a small peak at around 1.91 Å characteristic of Sn-O bonds indicating the presence of oxides. Attempts to refine the PDF data were performed in the rrange of 2.1-50 Å based on structural models of η and η'-Cu₆Sn₅ polymorphs. The quality of the refinement was quantified by the reliability factor weighted R-value, denoted R_w. The use of η-Cu₆Sn₅ as structural model fairly reproduced the PDF data with an R_w value of 29.5% (Figure S6). Structural model based on η' -Cu₆Sn₅ polymorph improved the fit with an R_w value of 24.8% (Figure S6). Finally, a two-phase refinement including both polymorphs as structural models led to a better fit with an Rw value of 20.7% (Figure 6). The refinement of the scale factor, however, indicated that the η ' polymorph was the dominant phase, *i.e.*, the mass percents of the η ' and η phases were 97 and 3%, respectively. The refinement included a size parameter to account for the finite size effect of the nanoparticles on the PDF with a refined value of 11 nm which agrees with TEM observations. The structural parameters of the dominant η phase extracted from the PDF refinement are gathered in Table 1 and compared with literature data. Attempts to refine the rate occupancy of Sn atoms improved the fit and revealed the presence of a large content of Sn vacancies. The chemical formula determined from the refinement yielded to $Cu_6Sn_{3.3}\square_{1.7}$ where \square represents vacancy. Furthermore, the volume of the cell was slightly larger than the stoichiometric compound suggesting structural distortions which might be due to size effect and/or due to the presence of vacancies.

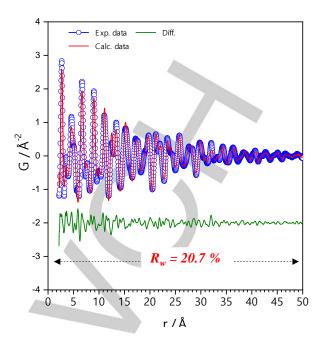


Figure 6. PDF refinement of the sample prepared from TFSI Sn-Cu precursors.

Table 1. Structural parameters of the sample prepared from TFSI- precursors extracted from the PDF refinement. Structural parameters of the reference compound η' -Cu₆Sn₅ were added for comparison purpose.

Parameters	This work	η'-Cu ₆ Sn₅
Unit cell parameters		
a (Å) b (Å) c (Å) beta V (ų)	11.13(2) 7.38(1) 9.74(2) 98.84 792.32	11.022(5) 7.282(4) 9.827(2) 98.84 779.37
Sn atomic occupancy Sn(1) – 8f Sn(2) – 8f Sn(3) – 4e	0.53(8) 0.75(8) 0.75(9)	1.0 1.0 1.0

The chemical composition of the phase was further investigated using high-angle annular dark-field (HAADF) imaging with a scanning transmission electron microscope (STEM) coupled with Energy-dispersive X-ray (EDX) spectroscopy. Figure 7a shows the HAADF-STEM image of an isolated particle presenting a coreshell morphology. The observation of lattice fringes (see Figure S7 for detailed view) in the core region suggested that it is crystallized. In contrast, the shell appeared amorphous. EDX measured on this individual particle yielded Cu₂Sn₁ composition which was close to that found by PDF refinement, i.e., Cu₂Sn_{1.1}, therefore supporting the presence of Sn vacancies. EDX elemental mapping showed that Cu atoms were essentially present in the core region of the particle (Figure 7b). Moreover, we noted the presence of oxygen and tin at the shell level suggesting that the amorphous part was related to an oxide layer formed during the washing step^[11].

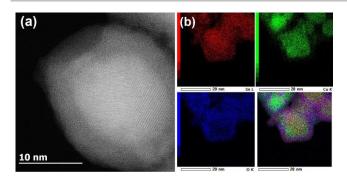


Figure 7. (a) HAADF-STEM image of an isolated particle. (b) EDX elemental mapping for Sn L, Cu K, and O K and overlay color image (right corner) on several nanoparticles. The sample was prepared from TFSI⁻ Sn-Cu precursors.

The Mössbauer spectroscopy of ¹¹⁹Sn (NA: 8.6%) is a powerful tool for characterizing the oxidation state and the local environment (coordination, chemical bonding, interactions, ...) of tin atoms within crystalline, amorphous or intermetallic compounds. The ¹¹⁹Sn Mössbauer spectra recorded at room temperature and 4.2 K (Figure 8) were reconstructed with three components corresponding to three different Sn oxidation states. These three subspectra may be associated with different Sn phases that may have different Debye temperatures and thus different Lamb-Mössbauer factors (f), which are related to the subspectrum absorption area. The value that the f factor tends towards as the temperature decreases is 1 then, at 4.2 K the subspectra relative areas (Table 2) correspond more accurately to the relative proportion of the three associated Sn phases. The refined Mössbauer hyperfine parameters (at 293 K) are consistent with crystalline η'-Cu₆Sn₅ for the Sn⁰ quadrupole doublet with isomer shift $\delta = 2.09 \text{ mm.s}^{-1}$ and a quadrupole splitting parameter (Δ) around 0.70 mm.s⁻¹,[37,38] amorphous (disordered) SnO for the Sn2+ quadrupole doublet centered at $\delta = 2.96 \text{ mm.s}^{-1} \text{ with a high } \Delta \text{ value } (\sim 1.6 \text{ mm.s}^{-1})^{[11,39]} \text{ and }$ amorphous SnO₂ for the Sn⁴⁺ quadrupole doublet characterized by an isomer shift close to zero (δ = 0.06 mm.s⁻¹).^[11,37] A better fit to the experimental data was achieved by considering both Sn⁰ and Sn⁴⁺ subspectra as the weighted sum of quadrupole doublets with Lorentzian shape (line width 0.90 mm.s⁻¹) and the same isomer shift but different values of Δ , i.e., with a distribution of quadrupole splitting values. The Δ distributions, which reflect some local disorder or heterogeneity in the tin electronic environment and/or the occurrence of several tin sites, are then characterized by their shape (mono- or multi-modal pattern and extent) and a mean value (labelled with the * sign in the Table 2). The Sn⁰ subspectrum exhibits a bimodal distribution of the quadrupole splitting parameter with a contribution at low values (associated with symmetrical electronic environment) and a broad component centered at about 1.0 mm.s⁻¹ (Figure 8). This may reflect different environments for the tin nucleus depending on the distribution of tin and copper atoms in its surroundings, as expected in the n'-Cu₆Sn₅ crystalline network where three different sites have been identified for tin.[33,38] Furthermore, for copper-tin intermetallic compounds, the 119Sn isomer shifts increase with the tin: metal ratio; for example, at room δ (Cu₃Sn) = 1.71 mm.s⁻¹ δ (Cu₆Sn₅) = 2.20 mm.s⁻¹.[37,38] Thus, the Sn⁰ subspectrum (Figure 8) may be attributed to a tin-copper alloy with a crystalline structure similar to n'-Cu₆Sn₅ but presenting tin vacancies, as

suggested by PDF refinement and EDX analysis. Hence, the ¹¹⁹Sn Mössbauer that the Sn-Cu NPs synthesized using TFSI-precursors present a core of intermetallic tin-copper alloy (51%), and a shell containing SnO (10%) and SnO₂ (39%) at the outer surface in good agreement with the HAADF-STEM and EDS analyses.

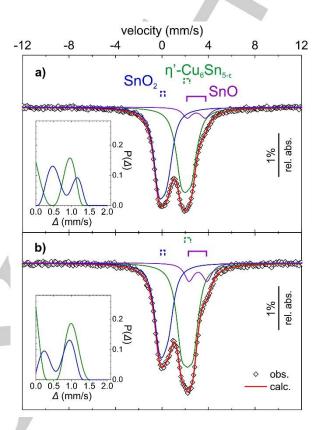


Figure 8. ¹¹⁹Sn Mössbauer spectra recorded at room temperature (a) and 4.2 K (b) of Sn-Cu alloy synthesized with TFSI⁻ precursors. Dots represent the observed experimental data and solid lines the calculated spectra with three distinct components associated with tin-copper intermetallic phase and tin(II) or tin(IV) oxide. Insets: distributions of the quadrupole splitting parameter.

Table 2. Refined ¹¹⁹Sn Mössbauer hyperfine parameters of tin-copper alloy NPs synthesized in [EMIm*][TFSI*].

		δ (mm.s ⁻	Δ (mm.s⁻ 1)	Γ (mm.s ⁻ 1)	Rel. area (%)
293 K	η'-Cu ₆ Sn ₅ - $_x\square_x$ SnO SnO ₂	2.09(2) 2.96(2) 0.06(2)	0.70* 1.55(5) 0.72*	0.90(-) 0.99(5) 0.90(-)	47(3) 7(3) 46(3)
4.2 K	η '-Cu ₆ Sn ₅ - $_x\square_x$ SnO SnO ₂	2.19(2) 3.07(3) 0.11(3)	0.76* 1.55(5) 0.66*	0.90(-) 0.96(3) 0.90(-)	51(3) 10(3) 39(3)

 δ : isomer shift (rel. to BaSnO₃); Δ : quadrupole splitting; Γ : Lorentzian linewidth; * mean value of the quadrupole splitting distribution

Concerning the electrochemical properties of Cu_6Sn_5 , the theoretical capacity associated with lithium insertion for the stoichiometric compound is 605 mAh.g⁻¹. According to Larcher et al^{40} , the electrochemical mechanism of bulk η '- Cu_6Sn_5 proceeds via three types of lithium insertion reactions related to (i) a solid solution behavior, (ii) a partial extrusion of Cu leading to Li_2CuSn

and (iii) a complete extrusion of Cu ultimately leading to the lithium rich phase $Li_{22}Sn_5$. During the latter, Choi et $al^{[41]}$ showed that the reaction was limited to the Li_7Sn_2 composition. In bulk phases, steps (ii) and (iii) were associated to plateau region occurring at 0.4 and 0.1 V, respectively.

The electrochemical properties of $Cu_6Sn_{3.3}\Box_{1.7}$ were assessed using galvanostatic discharge/charge experiments (Figure 9a). The discharge/charge curves were obtained by cycling $Cu_6Sn_{3.3}\Box_{1.7}$ electrode against metallic lithium under 100 mA.g⁻¹ within the voltage range 0.05-2.0 V. The first discharge curve featured a sloping curve with a lack of plateau region and a capacity of 1086 mAh.g⁻¹ largely exceeding the theoretical value. These two aspects were commonly observed for nanosized Cu_6Sn_5 with the extra capacity assigned to an irreversible conversion process of SnO_x phases.[$^{142-45}$] According to the phase's proportion ($Cu_6Sn_{5-\epsilon}$, SnO, SnO_2) determined by Mössbauer spectrometry, we calculated the theoretical capacity including the contribution of conversion and alloying reactions

from SnO_x phases. This led to a value of 967 mAh.g⁻¹ close to that found for the first discharge (Table S2). During the first charge, a capacity of 576 mAh.g⁻¹ was obtained. Moreover, most of this capacity was obtained within the low voltage region (<1V) which is characteristic of alloying processes, hence ruling out the contribution of conversion reactions in the overall lithiation mechanism.^[46,47] Upon cycling, a stable capacity of 530 mAh.g⁻¹ was maintained after 90 cycles. In the used electrode formulation, a large content of carbon was added that partially contributed to the overall capacity. To account for this contribution, we subtracted it leading to a capacity close to 400 mAh.g⁻¹ (Figure 9b). This capacity value remained, however, lower than expected for a full utilization of the Sn matrix (Table S2) suggesting that some Sn were inactive probably those embedded in a Li₂O matrix.

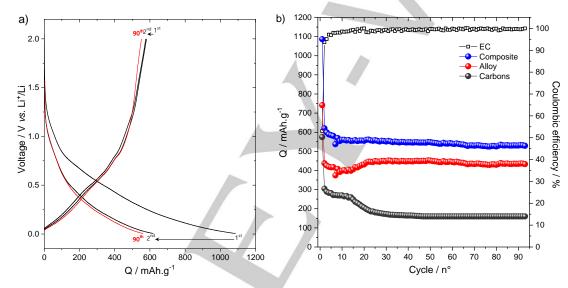


Figure 9. a) Galvanostatic discharge-charge curves of $Cu_6Sn_{3.3}\square_{1.7}$ electrode cycled vs. Li⁺/Li. b) Evolution of the capacity as a function of cycle number for $Cu_6Sn_{3.3}\square_{1.7}$ electrode with and without the capacity contribution of carbon additive.

Conclusion

A direct synthesis of Sn and Sn-Cu alloy was developed by using metallic precursors and ionic liquid sharing the same anionic group that is TFSI-. This approach enabled to avoid side impurities typically encountered using chloride precursors and allowed to stabilize alloys. NMR relaxometry of ¹H (cation) and ¹⁹F (anion) further showed that NPs are surrounded by a first shell of neighbor constituted by cations of the IL. Using TFSI-precursor, we successfully prepared Sn-Cu alloy as opposed to the chloridesalt route which led to the precipitation of monometallic phases. This difference in reactivity was investigated by means of cyclic voltammetry measured on a solution containing different stoichiometries of Sn:Cu with the reduction potential (Gibbs energy) varying depending on the cation concentrations. The structure of the precipitated Sn-Cu alloy was investigated using PDF showing that it crystallized in the n' polymorph with Sn deficiency, i.e., the composition determined by structural analysis was Cu₆Sn_{3,3}□_{1,7} which was further confirmed by EDX analysis. Mössbauer spectrometry allowed us to assert the occurrence of ${\sf SnO}_{\sf x}$ phases located at the outer shell of the nanoparticles. The lithium insertion properties was assessed by galvanostatic cycling with a sloping voltage profile characteristic of NPs. The reversible capacity was explained by considering an alloying process. Overall, this study demonstrated that the chemical system used is an effective route for the preparation of alloys and can be certainly extended to other elements.

Experimental Section

The synthesis of Sn-based compounds was performed following a published protocol. $^{I11,48]}$ All operations were performed in a glove box filled with argon (H₂O and O₂ content < 1 ppm). For the synthesis of metallic Sn, a 40mM solution of SnCl₂ (99%, Alfa Aesar) or Sn(TFSl)₂ (Alfa Aesar) was prepared by dissolving the salt in 1 mL of [EMIm⁺][TFSl⁻] (99.5%, Solvionic). The reduction of Sn was initiated by mixing the Sn(II) solution and a 400 mM of NaBH₄ in 1 mL of [EMIm⁺][TFSl⁻] solution. For the synthesis of Cu-Sn alloy, a nominal composition of Cu₆Sn₅ was targeted. A 40 mM solution of Sn(TFSl)₂ and Cu(TFSl)₂ (Alfa Aesar) was prepared by dissolving cationic precursors in the targeted stoichiometry, in 1 mL of

[EMIm⁺][TFSI⁻]. After the addition of a 400 mM of NaBH₄ in 1 mL of [EMIm⁺][TFSI⁻] solution, the mixture was stirred at room temperature for six hours. The powder was separated from the IL by centrifugation and then washed with acetone and water.

X-ray diffraction pattern were measured using a Rigaku Ultima IV X-ray diffractometer with a Cu K α radiation (λ = 1.54059 Å) with a scan rate of 0.1°min⁻¹ between 10° and 80° (20).

The measurements of the ¹H and ¹⁹F nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) relaxation rates $R_1=1/T_1$ have been carried out on a Stelar Spinmaster Fast Field Cycling (FFC) relaxometer. In this case, only R_1 has been measured using a pre-polarized (PP) sequence from 10 kHz to 8 MHz and a non-polarized (NP) sequence from 10 MHz to 30 MHz.[49] The parameters used for the experiments were the following: 90° RF pulse duration: 8.5 (9.5) µs, the acquisition frequency: 15.8 MHz, for ¹H (¹⁹F) relaxation measurements. The recycle delay between two consecutive acquisitions was set to fivefold the longest spin-lattice time at the highest relaxation field, the polarization time was set to fourfold the spin-lattice time at 25 MHz (referring to the ¹H resonance frequency). Magnetization values were recorded for 16 logarithmically spaced values of evolution times; in the whole frequency range, the evolution of magnetization was monoexponential within experimental error. The temperature value was set at 233K and checked before and after measurements to ensure a stability of + 0.5 K.

The high-angle annular dark field scanning transmission electron microscopy (*HAADF-STEM*) and simultaneously acquired energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDX) elemental mapping analysis was performed on a JEM ARM200F cold FEG probe and image aberration corrected electron microscope operated at 200 kV and equipped with a large solid-angle CENTURIO EDX detector. TEM sample was prepared by crushing of material in agate mortar, dispersed in ethanol and following transferring suspension to a Ni holey carbon grid.

Cyclic voltammetry (CV) curves were recorded at 0.5 Vs⁻¹ in the potential range of -0.6 and +0.4 V vs. Sn²⁺/Sn. All electrochemical measurements were performed in a glove box filled with argon (H₂O and O₂ content < 1 ppm). A three-electrode electrochemical cell controlled by a potentiostat (PAR 273A) was used. Mo (A = 0.503 cm²) foils was used as working electrode. The counter electrode was a Pt wire and a Sn bar was used as reference electrode. For solutions containing tin and copper, a second compartment was used with a 10 mM solution of Sn(TFSI)₂ to ensure stable potential measurements.

High-energy X-ray data were collected at the 11-ID-B station at the Advanced Photon Source (Argonne National Laboratory) with an X-ray energy of 86.7 keV (λ =0.1430 Å). After corrections (background and Compton scattering), Pair Distribution Functions (PDFs), G(r) were extracted from the data using PDFgetX2 software. [50] Refinements of the PDF data were performed using PDFgui, [51] with structural models from ICSD (Inorganic crystal structure database) database. [52] Refined parameters were the instrument parameters, the lattice parameters, the atomic positions, atoms rate occupancy and the scale factor. The coherence length was refined using the spherical particle size parameter (sp_{diameter}). The difference between the experimental observation (data) and the calculated values (model) correspond to the difference curve, which computes the quality of the refinement defined by the weighted Rfactor noted Rw. The R-value describes the difference between the experimental observation (data) and the calculated value (fit) for a single data point.

¹¹⁹Sn Mössbauer measurements were carried out using a constant acceleration Halder-type spectrometer operating in transmission geometry with a room temperature ^{119m}Sn (CaSnO₃) source (370 MBq). Thin absorbers containing about 15 mg.cm⁻² of Sn (¹¹⁹Sn natural abundance 8.59%) were placed into a liquid helium bath cryostat. Spectra were

recorded from room temperature down to 4.2 K, and the refinement of Mössbauer hyperfine parameters (δ isomer shift, Δ quadrupole splitting, Γ Lorentzian line width and relative areas) was performed using both homemade programs and the *WinNormos* software (Wissenschaftliche Elektronik GmbH).^[53] The ¹¹⁹Sn isomer shifts are referenced to BaSnO₃ at room temperature.

The electrochemical properties of Sn-based alloy were investigated against metallic lithium using CR2032-type coin cells. The electrode formulation, adapted from Kravchyk et al^{54} , was 30 wt.% of active material, 45wt.% of carbon (1:1 mixture of Timcal®, super C-65), and 25 wt.% of carboxymethyl cellulose CMC (Aldrich, Mw = 250 000). The electrolyte was 1 M LiPF₆ dissolved in a mixture of ethylene carbonate (EC) and ethyl methyl carbonate (EMC) (1:1 vol. %) with 2%wt. of fluoroethylene carbonate (FEC). The cells were assembled in a glove box filled with argon (H₂O and O₂ content < 1 ppm) with lithium metal as the anode and were cycled under 100 mA.g⁻¹ in the voltage range of 2.0 – 0.05 V vs. Li⁺/Li.

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Keywords: Sn-Cu alloys, NMR relaxometry, cyclic voltammetry, ionic liquids nanoparticles, surface interactions, lithium-ion batteries

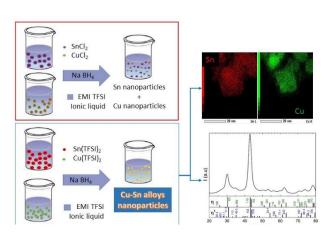
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Entry for the Table of Contents



The use of a chemical system consisting of an ionic liquid (IL: [EMIm⁺][TFSI⁻]) and metallic precursors based on TFSI⁻ anionic groups enabled to prepare Sn-based alloys which could not be prepared using conventional chloride precursors.

