

1 Self-assembled nanostructures in ionic liquids facilitate charge 2 storage at electrified interfaces

3 Xianwen Mao^{*1}, Paul Brown¹, Ctirad Červinka^{2,3}, Gavin Hazell⁴, Hua Li⁵, Yinying Ren¹, Di Chen⁶, Rob
4 Atkin⁵, Julian Eastoe⁴, Isabelle Grillo⁷, Agilio. A. H. Padua^{1,2}, Margarida. F. Costa Gomes^{*1,2}, T. Alan
5 Hatton^{*1}

6 ¹*Department of Chemical Engineering, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, 77 Massachusetts Avenue,*
7 *Cambridge, MA, 02139, United States*

8 ²*Ecole Normale Supérieure de Lyon, Laboratoire de Chimie, UMR CNRS 5182, 46 allée d'Italie, 69364*
9 *Lyon Cedex 07, France*

10 ³*Department of Physical Chemistry, University of Chemistry and Technology, Prague, Technická 5, CZ-*
11 *166 28 Prague 6, Czech Republic*

12 ⁴*School of Chemistry, University of Bristol, Cantock's Close, Bristol BS8 1TS, United Kingdom*

13 ⁵*School of Molecular Sciences, The University of Western Australia, Perth, WA 6009, Australia*

14 ⁶*Department of Materials Science and Engineering, Stanford University, Stanford, CA 94305*

15 ⁷*Institut Max-von-Laue-Paul-Langevin, BP 156-X, F-38042 Grenoble Cedex, France*

16 ^{*}Corresponding author: tahatton@mit.edu (T.A.H.), margarida.costa-gomes@ens-lyon.fr (M.F.C.G.),
17 xmao@mit.edu (X.M.)

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19 **ABSTRACT**

20 Driven by the potential applications of ionic liquids (ILs) in many emerging electrochemical
21 technologies, recent research efforts have been directed at understanding the complex ion ordering in
22 these systems, to uncover novel energy storage mechanisms at IL/electrode interfaces. Here, we discover
23 that surface-active ionic liquids (SAILs), which contain amphiphilic structures inducing self-assembly,
24 exhibit enhanced charge storage performance at electrified surfaces. Unlike conventional non-
25 amphiphilic ILs (NAILs), for which ion distribution is dominated by Coulombic interactions, SAILs
26 exhibit significant and competing van der Waals interactions owing to the nonpolar surfactant tails,
27 leading to unusual interfacial ion distributions. We reveal that at an intermediate degree of electrode
28 polarization SAILs display optimal performance, because the low-charge-density alkyl tails are
29 effectively excluded from the electrode surfaces, whereas the formation of nonpolar domains along the

30 surface suppresses undesired overscreening effects. This work represents a crucial step towards
31 understanding the unique interfacial behavior and electrochemical properties of amphiphilic liquid
32 systems showing long-range ordering, and offers insights into the design principles for high-energy-
33 density electrolytes based on spontaneous self-assembly behavior.

34

35 Research interest in ionic liquids (ILs) as electrolytes for energy devices stems from several
36 unique properties such as low volatility and flammability, as well as high electrochemical stability¹⁻⁵. An
37 understanding of the molecular-level interactions between ILs and electrified interfaces is crucial for
38 optimization of device performance⁶. For instance, interfacial IL layers at charged surfaces govern the
39 electric double layer (EDL) structure, a key factor determining the device energy density^{2,4,6,7}. The EDL
40 structure with ILs is drastically different from that in aqueous and organic electrolytes⁸⁻¹⁰; the complex
41 ion ordering in ILs exhibits many subtleties, and remains an active area of debate¹¹⁻¹⁴. Here we present
42 the first detailed investigation into electrocapacitive characteristics and fundamental EDL structures of
43 an emerging IL class based on surface-active agents, or surface-active ILs (SAILs)^{13,15-19}. Our study
44 reveals a novel material design principle for enhancing charge storage owing to the self-assembled
45 nanostructures in amphiphilic liquids, and introduces a class of liquids with long-range ordering, having
46 broad implications for diverse fields, ranging from interfacial science^{20,21} to energy technologies^{22,23}.

47 SAILs are inherently amphiphilic, and can self-assemble into nanostructures composed of
48 distinct polar and nonpolar domains^{13,15-19}. Most previous studies on the IL EDL structure and IL-based
49 energy devices focus on non-amphiphilic ILs (NAILs) where neither ion is based on a classical
50 surfactant structure^{6,24}. Whereas nanostructuring was observed under confinement for some NAILs
51 where one of the ions, usually the cation, bears moderate to long chains²⁵, these nanostructures are
52 weaker – less well defined – than those for SAILs. The bulk phase self-assembled nanostructures of
53 SAILs have been studied previously¹⁷, but how these nanostructures behave at electrified interfaces and
54 are related to EDL structures, critical for energy storage applications, remains unexplored. Compared to
55 NAILs, SAILs have different properties, which challenge the traditional understanding of IL
56 electrochemistry, as speculated previously²⁶. Here we show that at elevated temperatures SAILs impart
57 much higher capacitances than NAILs. Molecular dynamics (MD) simulations reveal that the ion
58 distribution, cation-anion correlations, and decay lengths of molecular layering of SAILs are
59 fundamentally different from those of NAILs. The unusual EDL structure of SAILs stems from their

60 unique ability to self-assemble into highly ordered interfacial nanostructures, which is key for producing
61 high capacitances at intermediate electrode polarizations. The energy densities achievable with neat
62 SAILs at elevated temperatures, or of SAIL-NAIL mixtures at room temperature, exceed those of many
63 known electrolytes (Supplementary Note 6), demonstrating adaptability of SAILs for high-energy-
64 density devices. This proof-of-concept work represents a new paradigm for electrochemical energy
65 storage, through exploitation of the unfavorable interactions between hydrocarbon groups and ionic
66 moieties in amphiphilic electrolytes, to drive partitioning of counterions near the interface, and hence,
67 reduce the EDL thicknesses.

68

69 **Bulk-phase structural and electrochemical characterization**

70 The SAIL examined here is 1-butyl-3-methylimidazolium 1,4-bis(2-ethylhexoxy)-1,4-
71 dioxobutane-2-sulfonate ($[C_4C_1Im][AOT]$) (Fig. 1a). $[AOT]^-$ is distinctly amphiphilic with a negative
72 charge located at one end of the ion (polar head) and a bulky branched di-chain hydrocarbon group at
73 the other end (nonpolar tail). The control IL is a common NAIL, $[C_4C_1Im][BF_4]$, that contains an
74 identical cation to $[C_4C_1Im][AOT]$ but a smaller, inorganic anion. Temperature-controlled small-angle
75 neutron scattering (SANS) measurements (Fig. 1b) show clearly that $[C_4C_1Im][AOT]$ displays a Bragg
76 peak at $q = 0.28 \text{ \AA}^{-1}$, indicating ordered nanostructures with a repeating unit length scale (d) of $\sim 22 \text{ \AA}$,
77 consistent with the expected repeat structure for $[C_4C_1Im][AOT]$ (Fig. 1b inset). The SANS is consistent
78 with $[AOT]^-$ bilayers formed via aggregation of the nonpolar tails, with charge neutralizing layers of
79 $[C_4C_1Im]^+$ adjacent to the anionic polar heads. The self-assembly of the $[AOT]^-$ nonpolar tails results in
80 formation of nanoscale nonpolar domains, whereas $[C_4C_1Im]^+$ and the $[AOT]^-$ polar heads form polar
81 domains. In contrast, SANS from $[C_4C_1Im][BF_4]$ does not exhibit a Bragg peak, indicating the absence
82 of any significant long-range ordered nanostructures. Fig. 1c compares the cyclic voltammograms (CVs)
83 of $[C_4C_1Im][BF_4]$ and $[C_4C_1Im][AOT]$, obtained using supercapacitors composed of carbon nanotubes
84 (CNTs) with a Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) surface area of $198 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$ (Supplementary Fig. 4 a-c). At
85 $25 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, the CV for $[C_4C_1Im][AOT]$ shows a more tilted shape and a smaller integral area than that for
86 $[C_4C_1Im][BF_4]$. The CV results suggest a higher ionic resistance and a smaller double-layer capacitance
87 for $[C_4C_1Im][AOT]$, which may be due to its higher viscosity at this temperature (Supplementary Fig.
88 3c). On increasing temperature the CV integral areas for both ILs increase, consistent with reduced
89 viscosity. However, unexpectedly, at 130 and $200 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, although $[C_4C_1Im][AOT]$ is still more viscous than

90 [C₄C₁Im][BF₄], the CVs for [C₄C₁Im][AOT] now exhibit significantly larger integral areas than those
91 for [C₄C₁Im][BF₄]. The CV-derived specific capacitances (Fig. 1d) clearly show that at 130 and 200 °C,
92 [C₄C₁Im][AOT] possesses a remarkably better capacitive energy storage capability than does
93 [C₄C₁Im][BF₄]. Control experiments show that the unusually large capacitances observed for
94 [C₄C₁Im][AOT] do not result from peculiar electrode properties or high-temperature-operation-induced
95 degradation (Supplementary Note 7).

96

97 **MD simulations reveal anomalous EDL structures in SAILs**

98 The observed differences in electrocapacitive performance between [C₄C₁Im][AOT] and
99 [C₄C₁Im][BF₄] may stem from their distinct molecular architectures, leading to different EDL structures.
100 To understand why [C₄C₁Im][AOT] outperforms [C₄C₁Im][BF₄] at higher temperatures, we interrogated
101 the detailed EDL structures of the two ILs, confined by electrified graphite surfaces at elevated
102 temperature, via atomistic molecular dynamics (MD) simulations (details in Methods and
103 Supplementary Note 4.1). Fig. 2 a and c show the ion number density (ρ_N , normalized to the bulk value)
104 profiles of [C₄C₁Im][BF₄] and [C₄C₁Im][AOT], respectively, at electrified interfaces with applied
105 potentials (U) of ± 2 V. The NAIL [C₄C₁Im][BF₄] exhibits a lamellar structure of alternating charges,
106 which persists for \sim eight ion layers (4 distinguishable maxima for cation and anion ρ_N profiles),
107 consistent with previous experimental¹¹ and theoretical²⁷ observations of charged-surface-induced long-
108 range molecular layering in common NAILs. Interestingly, [C₄C₁Im][AOT] displays a different
109 molecular layering behavior: the surface induced charge-alternating structure for [C₄C₁Im][AOT] only
110 persists for \sim two ion layers, with the first peak showing a much larger ρ_N relative to that of
111 [C₄C₁Im][BF₄]. Notably, the simulated static neutron scattering structure factors for [C₄C₁Im][AOT] and
112 [C₄C₁Im][BF₄] (Supplementary Fig. 11, Supplementary Note 4.1) match their respective SANS profiles
113 (Fig. 1b)

114 The nanoscale self-assembly of the nonpolar groups in [C₄C₁Im][AOT] may account for the
115 atypical ion packing behavior at electrified interfaces (Fig. 2 c-d), being in stark contrast to the
116 conventional behavior of NAILs (Fig. 2 a-b). At neutral interfaces, the bulk microscopic structure of
117 [C₄C₁Im][AOT] is characterized by the formation of charged polar domains and nonpolar domains (Fig.
118 1b inset). Introduction of surface charges then induce alignment of charged domains along the interface.
119 Near a positively charged surface, the polar heads of [AOT]⁻ are electrostatically attracted to the

120 interface, whereas the nonpolar tails orientate outward, in close proximity to the nonpolar tails of the
121 next $[AOT]^-$ layer, thus forming a bilayer parallel to the positively charged surface, with a neutralizing
122 $[C_4C_1Im]^+$ layer adjacent to the anionic polar heads of $[AOT]^-$. At a negatively charged surface, the
123 innermost ion layer is enriched in $[C_4C_1Im]^+$ cations which fully neutralize the adjacent anionic $[AOT]^-$
124 bilayer (i.e., the presence of an $[AOT]^-$ bilayer squeezes excess cations into the first ion layer near the
125 interface). The ability to pack *excess* ions at charged interfaces is an advantageous feature of SAILs
126 compared to NAILs, and is driven by the unfavorable interaction between the hydrocarbon and ionic
127 groups compared to cation-anion interactions. Another unexpected finding for $[C_4C_1Im][AOT]$ is that
128 the cation and anion ρ_N profiles beyond the first two ion layers are *positively* correlated (Fig. 2e, right
129 panel), possibly due to the co-movement of $[C_4C_1Im]^+$ cations and $[AOT]^-$ polar heads. The nonpolar
130 tail-tail interaction could lead to the confinement of small $[C_4C_1Im]^+$ cations and $[AOT]^-$ polar heads
131 within the polar domains. With short-alkyl-chain NAILs, which cannot self-assemble, the ion-ion
132 electrostatic interactions alone dictate that the anionic density reaches a maximum where the cationic
133 density reaches a minimum, which should result in negatively-correlated anion-cation spatial
134 distributions (Fig. 2e, left panel).

135 The ability of $[C_4C_1Im][AOT]$ to pack excess ions at the interface and the positive correlation
136 between the cation and anion spatial distribution suggests that $[C_4C_1Im][AOT]$ should reach bulk
137 electroneutrality over shorter distances than $[C_4C_1Im][BF_4]$, which can be validated by calculating the
138 net charge density (ρ_Q) distributions (Fig. 2f). The NAIL $[C_4C_1Im][BF_4]$ shows a pronounced ρ_Q
139 oscillatory pattern before reaching electroneutrality at around 30 \AA from the surface. In contrast, the
140 amplitude of ρ_Q oscillation for $[C_4C_1Im][AOT]$ diminishes more quickly, and decays to its bulk value
141 around 10 \AA from the surface. The decay length (ζ) of the charge oscillation, quantified using an
142 envelope function that confines the ρ_Q profile (Supplementary Note 4.2), is shown in Fig. 2g as a
143 function of U . Compared to $[C_4C_1Im][BF_4]$, $[C_4C_1Im][AOT]$ generally exhibits smaller ζ values,
144 indicating thinner EDLs and thus larger capacitances. The calculated differential capacitances (C_d) (Fig.
145 2h; Supplementary Note 4.2) show that with intermediate electrode polarization (i.e., $1 \text{ V} < |U| < 2 \text{ V}$)
146 $[C_4C_1Im][AOT]$ generally exhibits higher differential capacitances than does $[C_4C_1Im][BF_4]$. However,
147 at low electrode polarization (i.e., U is near 0 V), $[C_4C_1Im][AOT]$ shows lower capacitances than
148 $[C_4C_1Im][BF_4]$, probably because near the electrode surface the former has a larger density of $[AOT]^-$
149 nonpolar tails (i.e., latent voids), reducing the near-surface charge density (Supplementary Fig. 12). By
150 contrast, at intermediate polarization (i.e., $|U|$ is about 1 to 2 V), those nonpolar tails do not partition to

151 the electrode surface (Supplementary Fig. 12), resulting in ~ 22 Å wide nonpolar domains parallel to the
152 electrode surface. This prevents the development of strongly oscillating, cation-anion alternating
153 structure, commonly observed in NAILs, that would lead to overscreening and EDL thickening. The role
154 of such nonpolar domains in preventing overscreening effects may be analogous to that played by a
155 second electrode wall inside a nanopore²⁸. The potential-dependent rearrangement of the [AOT]⁻
156 nonpolar tails, revealed by these atomistic MD simulations, agrees with earlier studies based on Monte
157 Carlo simulations of liquids with elongated ions containing charged “heads” and neutral “tails”^{29,30}. At
158 high electrode polarization (i.e., $|U| > 2$ V), lattice saturation effects due to the steric constraints of finite
159 ion sizes^{6,7} occur, and the capacitances of both [C₄C₁Im][AOT] and [C₄C₁Im][BF₄] will decrease.
160 Additionally, the thinner EDL (and thus shorter Debye length) for [C₄C₁Im][AOT] relative to that of
161 [C₄C₁Im][BF₄] at intermediate electrode polarization implies a higher *free* ion concentration in the
162 former. In the EDL of [C₄C₁Im][BF₄], as in other NAILs^{8,10}, most cations and anions are strongly
163 associated to form “neutral aggregates” (Fig. 2b) which contribute weakly to the free ion concentration.
164 By contrast, in the EDL of [C₄C₁Im][AOT], due to its amphiphilic nature, only half the population of the
165 first counterion layer could form neutral aggregates with the neighboring co-ion layer, resulting in
166 abundant free counter-ions at the interface (Fig. 2d). Additional constant-surface-charge simulations
167 (Supplementary Fig. 7) yielded consistent results with those shown here by the constant-surface-
168 potential method (Fig. 2).

169

170 **Elucidation of interfacial nanostructures by atomic force microscopy**

171 Atomic force microscopy (AFM) measurements were performed to examine the nanoscale
172 molecular layering of these ionic liquids at a graphite electrode (for experimental details, see Methods
173 and Supplementary Note 5). It is recognized that ionic liquids form layered structures near solid surfaces,
174 which are referred to as interfacial nanostructures³¹⁻³⁵. The AFM force-distance profiles for
175 [C₄C₁Im][BF₄] and [C₄C₁Im][AOT] (Fig. 3) consist of a series of pronounced, discrete steps, produced
176 by the AFM tip pushing up against, and then rupturing, interfacial layers. The “rupture force” for an IL
177 layer is reflected by the maximum of each step; a larger rupture force indicates a higher degree of
178 ordering (i.e., stronger cohesive interactions) in the ion layer. For both ILs, at the open circuit potential
179 (OCP), the data reveal only two steps with small rupture forces, indicating weak interfacial structures,
180 whereas with applied biases (OCP \pm 1 V) at least four steps are seen, with much higher rupture forces,

181 indicating stronger ordering of interfacial nanostructures. Additionally, for all the three cases (at OCP,
182 OCP - 1 V and OCP + 1 V), the rupture force decreases more rapidly with layer number for
183 [C₄C₁Im][AOT] than [C₄C₁Im][BF₄], which matches well the simulations described above (Fig. 2 a and
184 c). Moreover, the rupture force for step I is higher for [C₄C₁Im][AOT] than for [C₄C₁Im][BF₄], again
185 consistent with the simulations (Fig. 2 a and c) showing that ρ_N of the innermost layer is much larger for
186 [C₄C₁Im][AOT] than for [C₄C₁Im][BF₄].

187 The separation between two adjacent steps (i.e., between steps I/II, II/III, or III/IV shown in Fig.
188 3) for [C₄C₁Im][BF₄] and [C₄C₁Im][AOT] is notably different. For [C₄C₁Im][BF₄] the separation is 6-7
189 Å (corresponding to the physical dimension of an ion pair of [C₄C₁Im]⁺ and [BF₄]⁻), in accordance with
190 the MD simulations (Fig. 2a, schematically illustrated by orange double arrows in Fig. 2b). In stark
191 contrast, the separation between steps for [C₄C₁Im][AOT] is three to four times larger (22-24 Å), in
192 good agreement with both the repeating unit length scale measured by SANS (Fig. 1b) and the
193 simulations (Fig. 2c, schematically illustrated by orange double arrows in Fig. 2d). For [C₄C₁Im][BF₄],
194 with applied biases of ± 1 V, the separation between the electrode surface and step I (corresponding to
195 the layer nearest to the surface) is about 2-3 Å, indicating a single ion layer (either cation or anion,
196 depending on the applied bias, as shown by the green double arrow in Fig. 2b). This agrees well with the
197 simulated ion number density profiles, indicating the first ion layer is about 2-3 Å thick (Fig. 2a). For
198 [C₄C₁Im][AOT], at OCP - 1 V, the separation between the electrode surface and step I is about 4 Å,
199 corresponding to a cation-rich layer, also consistent with the simulations (Fig. 2c, left; green double
200 arrow in Fig. 2d, left). For [C₄C₁Im][AOT] at OCP + 1V, step I is about 6 Å thick, consistent with
201 simulations (Fig 2c, right; green double arrow in Fig. 2d, right), but much smaller than the distance
202 expected for an [AOT]⁻ double layer. This is a consequence of the [AOT]⁻ neutral tails tending to
203 orientate towards the electrode surface through solvophobic interactions (Supplementary Fig. 12). These
204 force measurements unambiguously confirm the fundamentally different interfacial nanostructures
205 between [C₄C₁Im][AOT] and [C₄C₁Im][BF₄] as suggested by the MD simulations. While high-energy x-
206 ray reflectivity (XRR) measurements may be used to elucidate interfacial nanostructures of ionic
207 liquids¹¹, we could not obtain good XRR signals for our IL systems, possibly due to the difficulty of
208 preparing a thin, uniform IL film with high stability under x-ray exposure (Supplementary Note 5).

209

210 **EDL properties probed by impedance measurements**

211 To further examine how the EDL capacitances of $[C_4C_1Im][AOT]$ and $[C_4C_1Im][BF_4]$ vary with
212 applied potential, impedance measurements (Methods and Supplementary Note 3) were performed to
213 obtain the differential capacitance *versus* potential profile for both ILs (Fig. 4), using a glassy carbon
214 electrode consisting of a flat IL/graphite interface. With increasing temperature, the capacitances of both
215 ILs become larger consistent with decreasing viscosities, in accordance with the CV measurements in a
216 supercapacitor device (Fig. 1d). More importantly, the capacitance curve of $[C_4C_1Im][AOT]$ is
217 characterized by a minimum at small $|U|$ and two maxima at intermediate $|U|$, whereas that for
218 $[C_4C_1Im][BF_4]$ exhibits a bell-like shape. These capacitance profiles for $[C_4C_1Im][AOT]$ and
219 $[C_4C_1Im][BF_4]$ agree generally with the simulations (Fig. 2h), re-emphasizing fundamental differences
220 in the EDL structures between SAILs and NAILs. Certain fine features, such as the exact positions of
221 minima and maxima in the capacitance curves differ between the simulations and experimental data,
222 possibly due to factors such as specific adsorption or local dielectric properties which are not accurately
223 captured by the simulations. Notably, the experimentally measured capacitances here are not dictated by
224 the quantum capacitances of the carbon electrodes employed, and reflect faithfully the EDL capacitances
225 of the ionic liquids investigated (Supplementary Note 8).

226

227 **Generality, applicability and limitations of SAILs**

228 We simulated the EDL structures of two other SAILs sharing the same $[C_4C_1Im]^+$ cation as
229 $[C_4C_1Im][AOT]$, but with different anions: dodecylsulfonate ($[DDS]^-$ single-chain surfactant anion) and
230 1,5-bis(hexyloxy)-3-((hexyloxy)carbonyl)-1,5-dioxopentane-2-sulfonate ($[TC]^-$ tri-chain surfactant
231 anion) (Fig. 5a). These other SAILs show significant structural variations compared to $[AOT]^-$. The
232 simulations indicate that, compared to $[C_4C_1Im][BF_4]$, both $[C_4C_1Im][DDS]$ and $[C_4C_1Im][TC]$ also
233 exhibit diminished ρ_Q oscillations (Fig. 5b) and a thinner EDLs (Fig. 5c) at intermediate electrode
234 polarizations (i.e., surface charge density $\sigma = \pm 5$ and $\pm 10 \mu C/cm^2$), suggesting that these may be
235 generic features of SAILs. To validate that MD captures the self-assembly behavior shown by SANS,
236 additional simulations were performed using uncharged confining surfaces at a lower temperature of
237 100 K. Such conditions allow for the study of SAIL structures in the absence of an electric field, and
238 with suppressed thermal fluctuations, so that the nonpolar domains align parallel to the confining surface
239 (Fig. 5d, left) instead of assuming random orientations (Fig. 5d, right). Therefore, the repeating
240 structures of SAILs along the z -axis normal to the interface can be visualized directly. Fig. 5e shows

241 clearly that the three SAILs, [C₄C₁Im][DDS], [C₄C₁Im][AOT] and [C₄C₁Im][TC], display a periodic ρ_N
242 pattern reflecting their repeating nanostructures, lacked by the profile for [C₄C₁Im][BF₄]. The average
243 peak spacing in the ρ_N patterns appears to decrease from [C₄C₁Im][DDS] to [C₄C₁Im][AOT] to
244 [C₄C₁Im][TC], consistent with the reduction in anion size/length ([DDS]⁻ > [AOT]⁻ > [TC]⁻) as well as
245 the decreasing characteristic length of repeating structures measured by small-angle X-ray scattering
246 ([C₄C₁Im][DDS] = 22.9 \square , [C₄C₁Im][AOT] = 21.5 \square , [C₄C₁Im][TC] = 18.8 \square)¹⁹.

247 To validate experimentally that SAILs generally outperform NAILs at elevated temperatures, we
248 synthesized three other SAILs, [C₄C₁Im][C₈SO₄], [C₄C₁Im][C₁₀SO₄] and [C₄C₁Im][C₁₂SO₄]
249 (Supplementary Fig. 10 and Supplementary Table 6). Their SANS profiles (Fig. 6a) at 70 \square display
250 clear Bragg peaks at $q = 0.24, 0.22$ and $0.22 \square^{-1}$, respectively, indicating repeat structures with
251 characteristic dimensions of 26, 28 and 28 \square , respectively. The SANS profiles at 25 and 50 \square for
252 [C₄C₁Im][C₈SO₄] and [C₄C₁Im][C₁₀SO₄] are similar to those at 70 \square . The long chain analogue
253 [C₄C₁Im][C₁₂SO₄] is solid at low temperatures (25 and 50 \square), resulting a Bragg peak at $q = 0.31 \square^{-1}$.
254 Fig. 6b depicts the specific capacitances (left axis) of the three SAILs (using CNT supercapacitors),
255 together with the enhancement (right axis) relative to those of [C₄C₁Im][BF₄]. Relative to
256 [C₄C₁Im][BF₄], and at high temperature (130 \square), these SAILs exhibit larger capacitances with a two- to
257 three-fold enhancement, similar to the findings with [C₄C₁Im][AOT] (Supplementary Fig. 6).

258 The energy storage performance of SAILs depends not only on temperature but also on the
259 operating voltage window. For example, whether [C₄C₁Im][AOT] exhibits larger or smaller differential
260 capacitances than [C₄C₁Im][BF₄] depends on the degree of electrode polarization (i.e. the applied
261 potential), as shown experimentally (Fig. 4) and also via MD simulations (Fig. 2h). Therefore, when
262 operating over a wide voltage window, a supercapacitor with [C₄C₁Im][AOT] should show larger
263 capacitances than if [C₄C₁Im][BF₄] is used, whereas when operating over a narrow voltage window, the
264 order is reversed. However, [C₄C₁Im][AOT] is preferred for energy storage applications because in
265 practice it is advantageous to have large capacitances when operating over broad voltage windows since
266 energy density scales as $\int_0^V CUdU$ or CV^2 , where C is the capacitance, U is the applied potential, and V
267 is the operating voltage window.

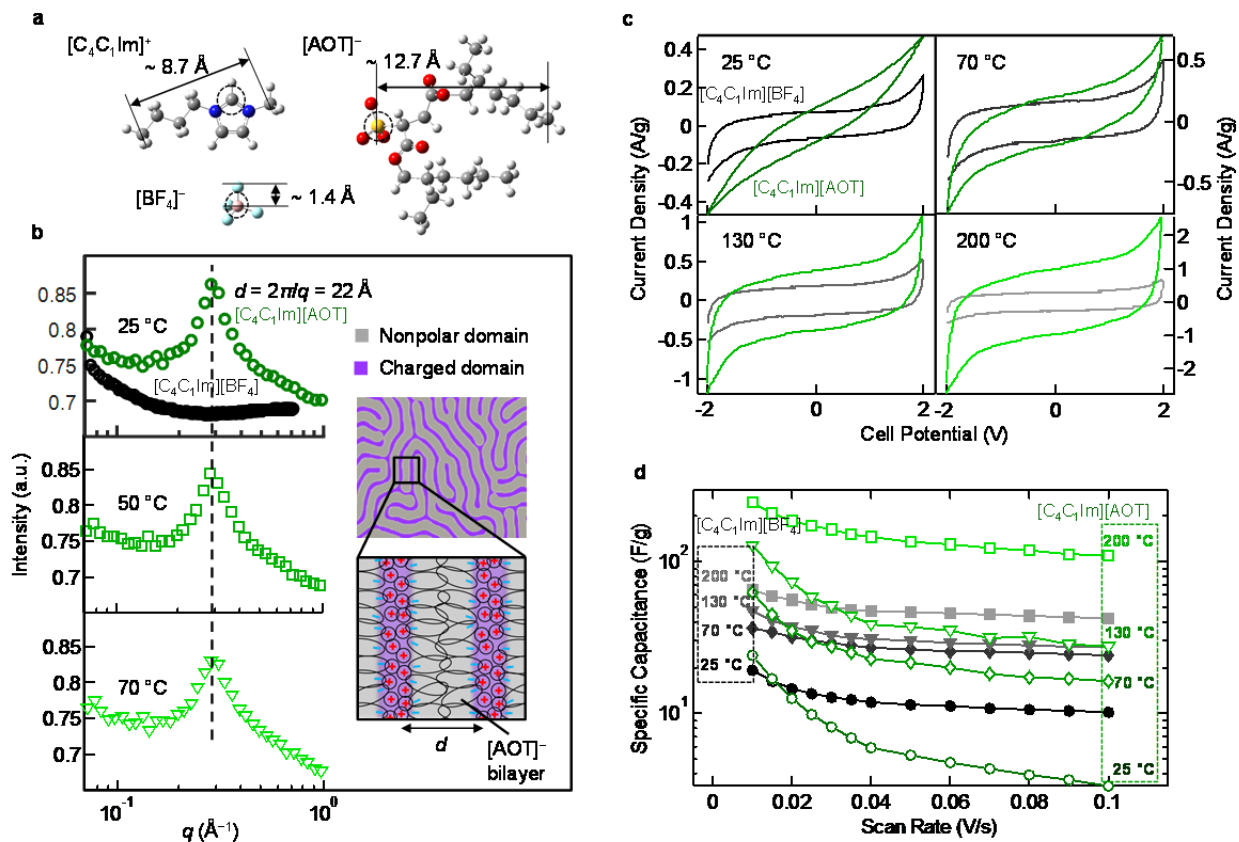
268 The Ragone plot (Supplementary Fig. 14) shows that at low temperatures, the high viscosity of
269 [C₄C₁Im][AOT] results in energy density/power density combinations that are worse than those of
270 [C₄C₁Im][BF₄]. However, at high temperatures where [C₄C₁Im][AOT] is more fluid, it outperforms

271 [C₄C₁Im][BF₄] in terms of both energy and power density, making [C₄C₁Im][AOT] particularly suitable
272 for important high-temperature applications³⁶. Also, mixing [C₄C₁Im][AOT] with [C₄C₁Im][BF₄] led to
273 higher capacitances than those of individual component alone at room temperature (Supplementary Fig.
274 9), suggesting a path to engineer SAIL-based energy devices for low-temperature uses. Due to their
275 larger ion sizes, SAILS might not adsorb so easily into ultranarrow pores with certain porous carbon
276 electrodes³⁷; however, SAILS could be used in combination with other nonporous high-surface-area
277 electrodes such as onion-like carbon³⁸, carbon nanocage³⁹ and carbon fibers^{40,41}. Moreover, the
278 electrocapacitive performance of SAILS depends on the specific chemical structure (e.g., the length of
279 the alkyl chains), because these determine the strength of interactions between alkyl chains, as well as
280 between the electrode surfaces and alkyl chains. Therefore, SAIL chemical architecture dictates i) how
281 the density of neutral tails varies with the applied potential, and ii) how effective the self-assembled
282 nonpolar domains are for preventing overscreening. These two factors combined would ultimately
283 determine the shape of the capacitance *versus* potential profile, which can provide direct information on
284 the performance of SAILS and the desired operation voltages.

285

286 In conclusion, this study reveals a fundamentally new interfacial phenomenon where the self-
287 assembled nanostructures in ionic liquids facilitate charge storage at electrified surfaces. This paves the
288 way for building “designer” SAILS, since there are a huge number of possible anion-cation
289 combinations that can be employed to fine-tune the self-assembled nanostructures of SAILS and hence
290 control interfacial electrochemical properties. Additionally, due to exceptional stability and tunable
291 electrochemical performance, rationally engineered SAILS could be used for a wide array of next-
292 generation electrochemical devices for improved safety (e.g., avoidance of flammable organic
293 electrolytes in batteries⁴²), and afford electrochemical modulation *in vivo* (e.g., drug delivery⁴³) or for
294 gas-based applications (e.g., CO₂ capture⁴⁴, gas sensing⁴⁵, biomimetic multiphase transport⁴⁶). More
295 broadly, the self-assembly-based charge storage mechanism discovered here offers a new approach for
296 optimizing interfacial electrochemical behavior of other fluids with ordered nanostructures beyond
297 SAILS (e.g., liquid crystals, block copolymer electrolytes, emulsions), and could have profound impacts
298 on related emerging technologies.

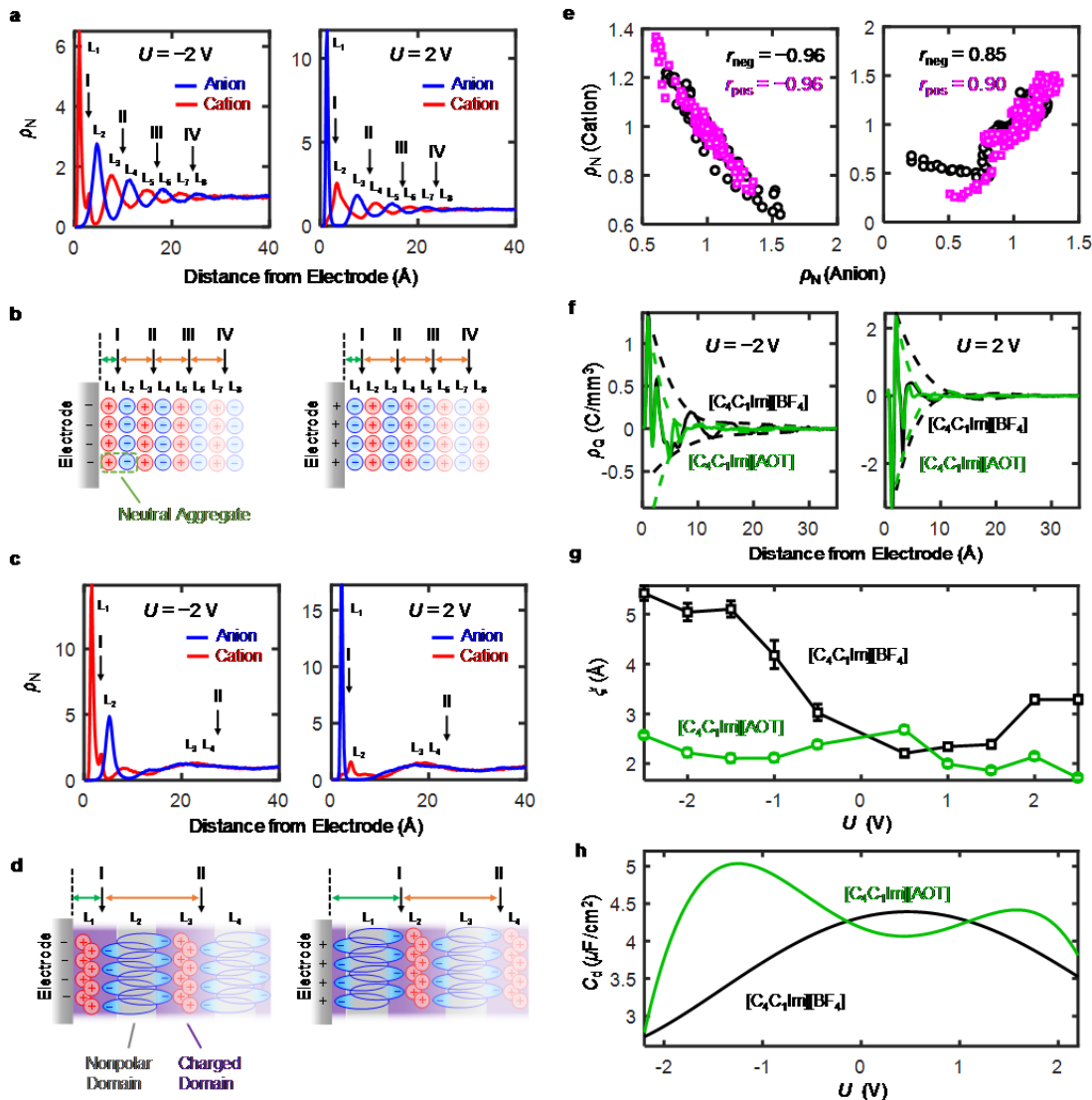
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302 **Fig. 1. Bulk-phase structural and electrochemical characterization of [C₄C₁Im][AOT].** a, Molecular structures of
 303 [C₄C₁Im]⁺, [BF₄]⁻, and [AOT]⁻ (H = white, C = gray, N = blue, S = yellow, O = red, B = pink, F = cyan). Typical distances in
 304 the molecular ions are indicated. b, SANS profiles of [C₄C₁Im][BF₄] (25 □) and [C₄C₁Im][AOT] (25, 50, 70 □). Inset:
 305 illustration of self-assembly of [C₄C₁Im][AOT] leading to a repeating nanostructure comprising [AOT]⁻ bilayers (red: cation;
 306 blue: anion). Simulated SANS profiles (Supplementary Fig. 11) are consistent with the experimental data. c-d, CV profiles
 307 (scan rate = 20 mV/s) (c) and specific capacitance *versus* scan rate (d) for [C₄C₁Im][BF₄] or [C₄C₁Im][AOT] at 25, 70, 130
 308 and 200 □.

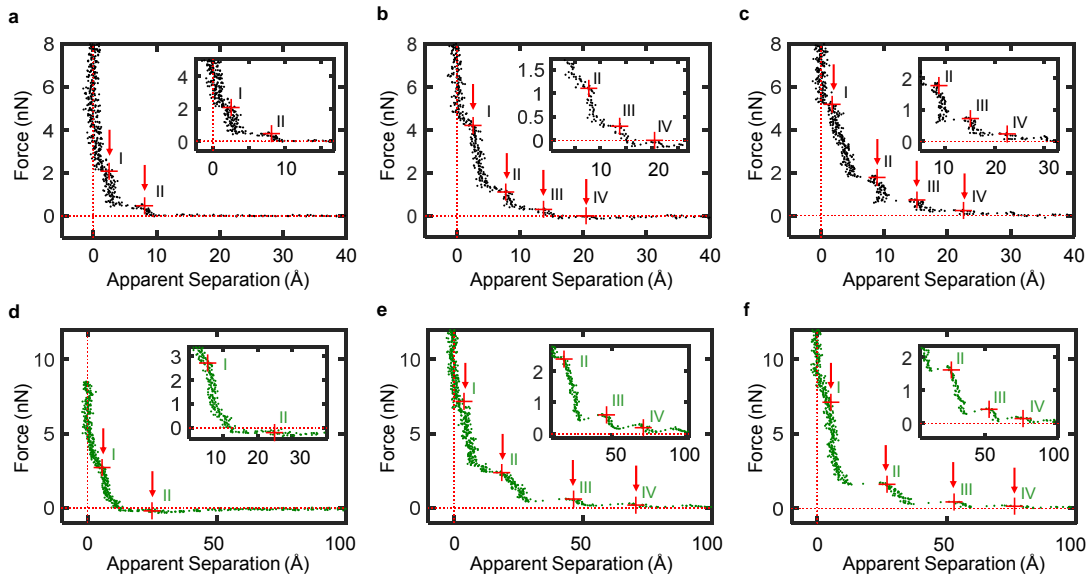
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311 **Fig. 2. MD simulations reveal unusual EDL structures of [C₄C₁Im][AOT].** a-d, Ion number density (ρ_N) profile obtained
 312 from MD simulations and schematic illustration of hypothesized ion arrangement for [C₄C₁Im][BF₄] (a, b) and
 313 [C₄C₁Im][AOT] (c, d) at negatively (left panel) and positively (right panel) charged interfaces with applied potentials (U) of
 314 ± 2 V. Black arrows with I, II, III and IV indicate possible positions corresponding to the AFM push-through locations (Fig.
 315 3). e, Correlations between the cationic and anionic ρ_N obtained at positively (magenta, $U = 2$ V) and negatively (black, $U =$
 316 -2 V) charged interfaces for [C₄C₁Im][BF₄] (left panel) and [C₄C₁Im][AOT] (right panel) for the distance range of 10 to 40
 317 Å away from the interface. r_{neg} and r_{pos} are the Pearson correlation coefficients for negatively and positively charged
 318 interfaces, respectively. f, Net charge density (ρ_Q) profiles (solid line) and corresponding envelope functions (dashed line) of
 319 [C₄C₁Im][BF₄] and [C₄C₁Im][AOT] at negatively (left panel, $U = -2$ V) and positively (right panel, $U = 2$ V) charged
 320 interfaces. g-h, Decay length (ξ) of the surface-induced ion layering (g) and differential capacitance (C_d) (h) as a function of
 321 U for [C₄C₁Im][BF₄] and [C₄C₁Im][AOT].

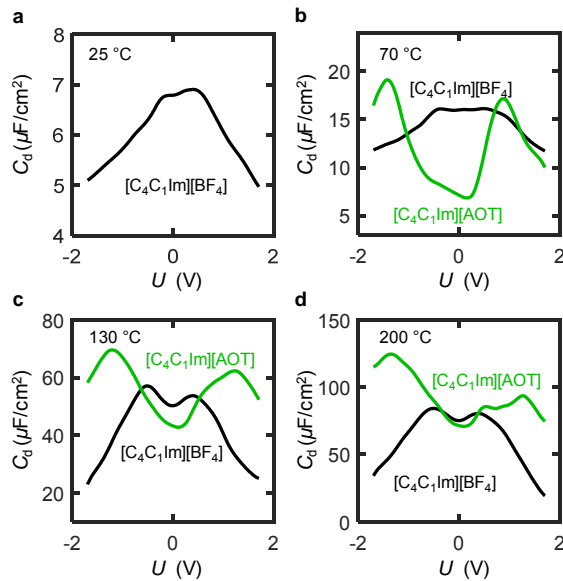
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324 **Fig. 3. Elucidation of interfacial molecular layering through AFM force measurements.** a-c, Force versus
 325 apparent separation profiles obtained with a silica colloid probe approaching a graphite electrode surface immersed in $[C_4C_1Im][BF_4]$
 326 at OCP (a), OCP - 1 V (b), and OCP + 1 V (c). Inset: zoom-in of the lower force regime. Red cross with I, II, III or IV
 327 indicates the location of each discrete step and the “rupture force” magnitude. d-f, same as a-c but for the case of
 328 $[C_4C_1Im][AOT]$.

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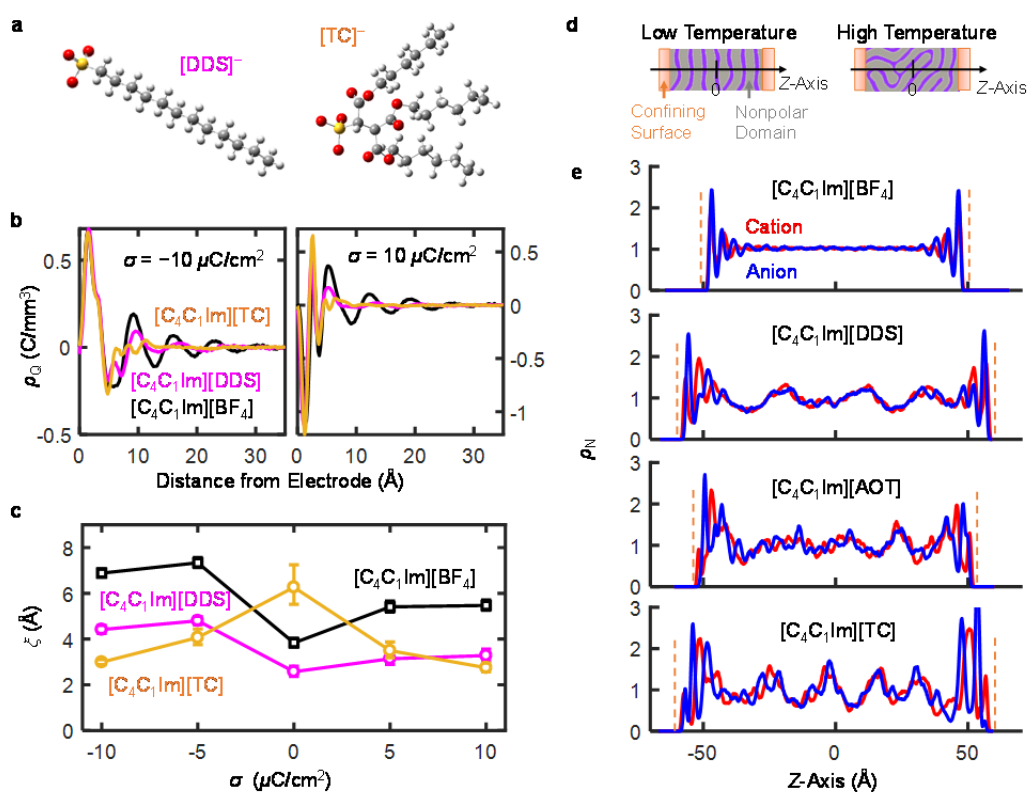
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331 **Fig. 4. EDL properties probed by impedance measurements.** Experimentally determined differential capacitances as a
 332 function of the applied potential (U , versus OCP) for $[C_4C_1Im][BF_4]$ and $[C_4C_1Im][AOT]$ at 25 °C (a), 70 °C (b), 130 °C (c),
 333 and 200 °C (d) on a glassy carbon electrode.

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338 **Fig. 5. MD simulations of other SAILs.** **a**, Molecular structures of $[\text{DDS}]^-$ and $[\text{TC}]^-$ (H = white, C = gray, S = yellow, O =
 339 red). **b**, Net charge density (ρ_Q) profiles of $[\text{C}_4\text{C}_1\text{Im}][\text{DDS}]$, $[\text{C}_4\text{C}_1\text{Im}][\text{TC}]$ and $[\text{C}_4\text{C}_1\text{Im}][\text{BF}_4]$ at negatively (left panel) and
 340 positively (right panel) charged interfaces. **c**, Decay length (ζ) versus σ for $[\text{C}_4\text{C}_1\text{Im}][\text{DDS}]$, $[\text{C}_4\text{C}_1\text{Im}][\text{TC}]$ and
 341 $[\text{C}_4\text{C}_1\text{Im}][\text{BF}_4]$. **d**, Schematic illustration of the possible orientations of nonpolar domains in SAILs at low (left) and high
 342 (right) temperatures. **e**, Ion number density (ρ_N) profiles of $[\text{C}_4\text{C}_1\text{Im}][\text{BF}_4]$, $[\text{C}_4\text{C}_1\text{Im}][\text{DDS}]$, $[\text{C}_4\text{C}_1\text{Im}][\text{AOT}]$ and
 343 $[\text{C}_4\text{C}_1\text{Im}][\text{TC}]$ at 100 °C with zero charge on the confining surface. Dashed line: position of the IL/solid interface.

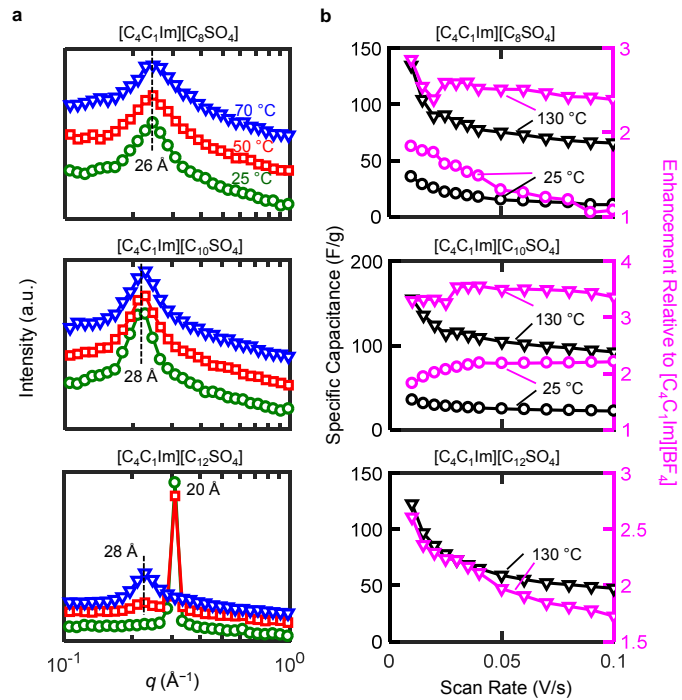
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350 **Fig. 6. Electrocapacitive performance of other SAILs. a**, SANS profiles of [C₄C₁Im][C₈SO₄], [C₄C₁Im][C₁₀SO₄] and
 351 [C₄C₁Im][C₁₂SO₄] at 25, 50 and 70 °C. **b**, Specific capacitance (left axis) versus scan rate for [C₄C₁Im][C₈SO₄] (25 and
 352 130 °C), [C₄C₁Im][C₁₀SO₄] (25 and 130 °C) or [C₄C₁Im][C₁₂SO₄] (130 °C), together with the enhancement factor (right axis)
 353 compared to the performance of [C₄C₁Im][BF₄].

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467

468 **Acknowledgments**

469 This work was supported by an MIT Energy Initiative seed grant. X.M. acknowledges financial support
470 from an MIT Skoltech fellowship. C. C. acknowledges financial support from the Czech Science
471 Foundation (GACR No.19-04150Y). C. C. and A. P. thank Dr. Alain Dequidt of Université Clermont
472 Auvergne for the use of the computer program to calculate structure factors. The UK research council
473 STFC is thanked for the provision of beam time at Institut Laue Langevin, Grenoble, France.

474

475 **Author contributions**

476 X.M. and P.B. conceived the initial idea. X.M. designed and led the research, carried out
477 electrochemical experiments, and analyzed experimental and simulation data, under the supervision of
478 T.A.H. P.B. synthesized SAILs and contributed to electrochemical experiments, under the supervision of
479 T.A.H. C.C. carried out MD simulations under the supervision of A.A.H.P. and M.F.C.G. G.H.
480 performed SANS experiments under the supervision of J.E. and I.G. H.L. performed AFM force
481 measurements under the supervision of R.A. Y.R. contributed to synthesis of SAILs and x-ray
482 reflectivity measurements. D.C. performed x-ray reflectivity measurements. X.M. wrote the manuscript.
483 All authors revised the manuscript.

484

485 **Competing interests**

486 X.M., P.B., M.F.C.G., and T.A.H. have filed a patent application based on this work. Title: HIGH-
487 TEMPERATURE SUPERCAPACITORS CONTAINING SURFACE ACTIVE IONIC LIQUIDS. Filed

488 with the U.S. Patent and Trademark Office (U.S. Patent Application No.: 16/323,468) on February 5,
489 2019, and published on June 20, 2019 with Publication No. US-2019-0189364-A1.

490 **Methods**

491 **Synthesis of SAILs.** 1-Butyl-3-methyl-imidazolium chloride ($[\text{C}_4\text{C}_1\text{Im}][\text{Cl}]$, $\geq 99\%$) was purchased from
492 Sigma-Aldrich and used as received. Aerosol-OT (AOT, sodium 1,4-bis(2-ethylhexoxy)-1,4-
493 dioxobutane-2-sulfonate) was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich and purified by Soxhlet extraction using
494 dry acetone and subjected to repeated centrifugation. Ethyl acetate ($\geq 99.5\%$) was purchased from
495 Sigma-Aldrich and used without further purification. The ionic liquid 1-butyl-3-methylimidazolium 1,4-
496 bis(2-ethylhexoxy)-1,4-dioxobutane-2-sulfonate, $[\text{C}_4\text{C}_1\text{Im}][\text{AOT}]$ was synthesized via an ion-exchange
497 technique¹⁹ using a strong ion exchange resin (Amberlite IR 120 H^+ form) as follows: surfactant
498 (sodium salt, 50 mmol) dissolved in 100ml EtOH/ H_2O (1:1 v/v) and passed through a column (20 cm x 2
499 cm^2) of the ion exchange resin. For synthesis of $[\text{C}_4\text{C}_1\text{Im}][\text{C}_8\text{SO}_4]$, $[\text{C}_4\text{C}_1\text{Im}][\text{C}_{10}\text{SO}_4]$ and
500 $[\text{C}_4\text{C}_1\text{Im}][\text{C}_{12}\text{SO}_4]$, Sodium octyl sulfate ($>99.0\%$, $[\text{Na}][\text{C}_8\text{SO}_4]$), sodium decyl sulfate ($>99.0\%$,
501 $[\text{Na}][\text{C}_{10}\text{SO}_4]$), and sodium dodecyl sulfate ($>99.0\%$, $[\text{Na}][\text{C}_{12}\text{SO}_4]$) were purchased from Sigma
502 Aldrich and used without further purification. These surfactants were also converted into ionic liquids
503 via an ion-exchange technique as for the $[\text{C}_4\text{C}_1\text{Im}][\text{AOT}]$. Details on the synthesis and characterization
504 of SAILs are presented in Supplementary Note 1.

505 **Small-angle neutron scattering.** Scattering was measured on the D22 diffractometer at ILL, Grenoble,
506 France. A neutron wavelength of $\lambda = 10 \text{ \AA}$ was employed at two different detector distances, giving
507 $0.0024 < Q < 0.37 \text{ \AA}^{-1}$. Data normalization using accepted procedures gave the absolute cross section
508 $I(Q)$ (cm^{-1}) as a function of momentum transfer Q (\AA^{-1}). Samples were placed in Hellma fused silica
509 cuvettes: path length 2 mm. Additional data analysis procedures are discussed in Supplementary Note 2.

510 **Electrochemical experiments.** All electrochemical measurements of the supercapacitor devices were
511 carried out with a VersaSTAT4 potentiostat (Princeton Applied Research) in a two-electrode
512 electrochemical cell thermostatted at the temperature of interest ($\pm 1 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$). For the construction of the
513 MWCNT supercapacitor devices⁴⁰, two pieces of MWCNT-deposited Toray carbon paper (active area =
514 2 cm^2 , mass loading = 2.67 mg/cm^2) were assembled with a VWR filter paper sandwiched between them
515 as the separator. The entire assembly was then sandwiched between two microscope glass slides, and
516 dipped in the ionic liquid of interest. The two Toray carbon papers were attached to conductive copper
517 tapes, which were connected to the potentiostat via alligator clips. The SWCNT and AC supercapacitor
518 devices were assembled similarly as in the case of MWCNTs. Electrochemical impedance
519 measurements were performed in a three-electrode system that consists of i) a flat-surface working

520 electrode (either glassy carbon electrode with a diameter of 3.0 mm, or Au electrode with 99.95% purity
521 and a diameter of 3.0 mm), ii) a Ag/Ag⁺ reference electrode made of a silver wire, 10 mM AgBF₄, the
522 respective ionic liquid inside a glass tube with a porous CoralPor™ tip, and iii) a platinum gauze
523 auxiliary electrode (90/10 platinum/iridium alloy, 50.0 mm height, 38.0 mm diameter). The
524 heterogeneous electron transfer kinetics on the selected electrode were measured by sampled current
525 voltammetry (SCV)⁴⁷ using an electrolyte solution consisting of 1 mM Ru(NH₃)₆^{3+/2+} and 1.0 M KCl.
526 Details of electrochemical characterizations are presented in Supplementary Note 3.

527 **Molecular dynamics simulation.** The [C₄C₁im]⁺ cation^{48,49} and the [BF₄]⁻ anion were represented by
528 the CL&P all-atom nonpolarizable force field⁵⁰. For the [AOT]⁻, [DDS]⁻, and [TC]⁻ anions, the force
529 field parameters were assembled from existing values of similar molecules containing sulphonate, ether,
530 and alkyl chain groups from OPLS-AA^{51,52} and are listed in Supplementary Table 1-4. The atom types
531 are illustrated in Supplementary Fig. 1. The graphite layers were modeled using the parameterization of
532 Girifalco *et al.*⁵³ Molecular dynamic simulations were performed using the LAMMPS⁵⁴ software
533 package with the Verlet integrator⁵⁵. Short-range forces (Lennard-Jones) were cut-off at 12 Å of
534 interatomic separation and long-range electrostatic forces calculated with the particle-particle particle-
535 mesh (PPPM)⁵⁶ method. The SHAKE algorithm⁵⁷ was employed to keep length of the bonds terminating
536 in hydrogen atoms constant, enabling to use the time step of 1 fs for the simulations with constant
537 electrode charge density. Alternative simulations, during which the electrodes are kept at a constant
538 electrostatic potential difference, were run using the constant potential method (CPM) developed by
539 Siepmann *et al.*⁵⁸ and Reed *et al.*⁵⁹ and implemented in LAMMPS by Wang *et al.*⁶⁰ Details on the MD
540 simulations are presented in Supplementary Note 4.1.

541 **Atomic force microscopy.** Force-distance profiles were performed using a Veeco NanoScope IV AFM.
542 Three sharp silicon cantilevers (spring constant 0.3±0.1 N/m) from the same batch (model NSC36,
543 Mikromasch, Tallinn, Estonia) were used over the course of the investigation. The cantilevers were
544 cleaned prior to use by careful rinsing in Milli-Q water and ethanol, drying under nitrogen and
545 irradiation with ultraviolet light for 20 min. An AFM electrochemistry fluid cell (MMTMEC, Bruker)
546 was used to hold ionic liquids on an HOPG surface during the measurements. HOPG was used as both
547 the working electrode and the solid substrate for AFM measurements. Pt wires of 0.25 mm were used as
548 both the counter and “quasi” reference electrodes. More details on the AFM measurements can be found
549 in Supplementary Note 5.

550

551 **Data availability**

552 The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding authors upon
553 reasonable request.

554

555 **References**

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