

Influence of Complexing Additives on the Reversible Deposition/Dissolution of Magnesium in an Ionic Liquid

Isabella Weber,^[a, b, c] Johannes Ingenmey,^[d] Johannes Schnaidt,^[a, b, c] Barbara Kirchner,^[d] and R. Jürgen Behm*^[a, b]

Aiming at a fundamental understanding of the synergistic effects of different additives on the electrochemical Mg deposition/dissolution in an ionic liquid, we have systematically investigated these processes in a combined electrochemical and theoretical study, using 1-butyl-1-methylpyrrolidinium bis (trifluoromethylsulfonyl) imide (BMP-TFSI) as the solvent and a cyclic ether (18-crown-6) and magnesium borohydride as additives. Both crown ether and BH_4^- improve Mg deposition, its reversibility, and cycling stability. The combined presence of

both additives and their concentration relative to that of Mg²⁺ are decisive for more facile and reversible Mg deposition/ dissolution. These results and those of quantum chemical calculations indicate that 18-crown-6 can partly displace TFSI⁻ from its direct coordination to Mg²⁺. Furthermore, the interaction between Mg²⁺ and directly coordinated TFSI⁻ is weakened by coordination with 18-crown-6, preventing its Mg⁺ -induced decomposition. Finally, Mg deposition is improved by the weaker overall coordination upon Mg²⁺ reduction to Mg⁺.

1. Introduction

Despite of the advantages of rechargeable Mg batteries in comparison to conventional lithium-ion batteries (LIBs), such as their generally higher energy density, the possibility of using elemental Mg anodes, the global availability and non-toxicity of Mg, and their recyclability and low costs, [1-8] their technical verification and commercial introduction is still far away. This is mainly due to problems in the reversible deposition and dissolution of Mg, which are – at least in part – related to complications arising from reductive electrolyte decomposition at the anode | electrolyte interface. In contrast to LIBs, where Li⁺ transport is possible through the so-called solid electrolyte interphase (SEI) formed at the anode during charge/discharge,

these layers often inhibit the Mg deposition/dissolution process. [2,3,9] Only recently, studies reported on a functional SEI formed upon Mg deposition, e.g., from Mg(BH₄)₃/LiBH₄-containing monoglyme, [10] in Mg/S systems, [11] or on Sn-modified anodes.[12] In general, most investigations so far have focused on salt/solvent combinations that allow reversible Mg deposition/dissolution without the formation of a protective surface layer. Among those, a limited number of electrolytes consisting of commercially available magnesium salts such $Mg(BH_4)_2^{[13-20]}$ $Mg((CF_3SO_2)_2N)_2$ (Mg bis (trifluoromethylsulfonyl)imide, MgTFSI₂)^[20-27] have been found to support largely reversible Mg plating and stripping without negative impact on the cell components (such as corrosion, which poses a problem in Cl-containing electrolytes). [4] However, even for these electrolytes, the oxidative instability of the borohydride, $^{[6]}$ as well as the $Mg^{2+_[18,28]}$ and moisture $induced^{[16,25,29,30]} \ decomposition \ of \ TFSI^-, \ severely \ limit \ their$ application. Hence, the development of suitable electrolytes allowing for reversible Mg plating/stripping is still of utmost importance for the introduction of rechargeable Mg-based batteries.[3,31-36]

lonic liquids (ILs) are a promising alternative to electrolytes based on organic solvents due to their generally low flammability, high electrochemical stability, and low vapor pressure. Specifically, TFSI-based ILs have attracted interest due to their relatively high conductivity, their commercial availability, and the simplicity of the system when adding MgTFSI2 as Mg salt. This approach, however, has turned out to be little successful so far, as the reductive decomposition of TFSI-, which is promoted by the interaction with the Mg²⁺ species, Species, Species to the formation of passivating films (in particular on Mg metal electrodes either ionic liquids that are stable in the entire potential range also upon interaction with Mg²⁺, or the development of additives that could lower any

- [a] I. Weber, Dr. J. Schnaidt, Prof. Dr. R. J. Behm Institute of Surface Chemistry and Catalysis Ulm University Albert-Einstein-Allee 47, 89081 Ulm, Germany E-mail: juergen.behm@uni-ulm.de
- [b] I. Weber, Dr. J. Schnaidt, Prof. Dr. R. J. Behm Helmholtz Institute Ulm (HIU) Electrochemical Energy Storage Helmholtzstraße 11, 89081 Ulm, Germany
- [c] I. Weber, Dr. J. Schnaidt Karlsruhe Institute of Technology (KIT) P.O. Box 3640 76021 Karlsruhe, Germany
- [d] J. Ingenmey, Prof. Dr. B. Kirchner Mulliken Center for Theoretical Chemistry Bonn University Beringstraße 4, 53114 Bonn, Germany
- Supporting information for this article is available on the WWW under https://doi.org/10.1002/celc.202001488
- An invited contribution to a joint Special Collection between
 ChemElectroChem and Batteries & Supercaps dedicated to research Beyond
 Lithium-lon Batteries
- © 2021 The Authors. ChemElectroChem published by Wiley-VCH GmbH. This is an open access article under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution Non-Commercial License, which permits use, distribution and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited and is not used for commercial purposes.



detrimental interaction between Mg²⁺ and the IL – while still allowing reversible Mg deposition/dissolution.

This is the topic of the present paper, where we report results of a combined experimental and theoretical study on the effect of two different additives, the crown ether 18-crown-6 and borohydride (BH₄⁻), on the deposition/dissolution of Mg IL 1-butyl-1-methylpyrrolidinium (trifluoromethylsulfonyl)imide (BMP-TFSI) using MgTFSI₂ and, where present, $Mg(BH_4)_2$ as Mg^{2+} source. Glassy carbon (GC) and, for comparison with realistic battery systems, Mg, were used as working electrodes. In this work, we are especially interested in a basic mechanistic understanding of the interplay between Mg²⁺, the anion TFSI⁻ and the additives Mg(BH₄)₂ and 18-crown-6, and particularly in synergistic effects. A semiquantitative understanding shall be derived by systematically varying the composition of the electrolyte, both in experiment and in simulations. Here, it is important that stabilization of the electrolyte does not inhibit Mg deposition. Furthermore, the role of the electrode shall be elucidated by comparing results obtained for the rather inert GC model electrodes and the more reactive, realistic Mg electrodes.

While there is a considerable number of studies investigating the Mg—TFSI interaction in organic solvents such as DME, THF or polyethers/glymes, [18,19,28,30,43-48] the number of studies performed in electrolytes using a TFSI⁻-containing IL as main component is much less, and such kind of insights as aimed at in the present study have not been reported so far. [16,17,39-41] Finally, the idea of adding a complexing additive was followed also in a study by Watkins *et al.*, who prepared chelating ILs by adding a polyether chain to the cation. [17] Compared to that approach, ours seems to be experimentally simpler and more feasible. On the other hand, combining chelating solvents such as glymes with an IL-based Mg source such as MgTFSI₂ (see above) may lose the advantages of a mainly IL-based electrolyte.

The crown ether is a typical complexing agent^[49] and has previously been employed to, e.g., enhance Mg plating/ stripping in an ionic liquid. [40,42] Mg(BH₄)₂ has been repeatedly in used water scavenger **IL-containing** electrolytes. [16,17,19,30,43,44,50] It was reported to prevent the formation of a passivating surface layer in TFSI-based electrolytes^[51] and also serves as Mg source.^[14] Furthermore, BH₄⁻ has been proposed to act as Mg²⁺-complexing agent^[15,16] and/or interact with the anode surface; either by adsorption (similar to chloride-containing electrolytes^[52]) or by dissolving passivation layers either during formation or pre-existing ones (native passivation layers) due to its highly reductive character.

In the following, we will first present cyclic voltammetry data on the Mg deposition/dissolution behavior on glassy carbon from a BMP-TFSI-based electrolyte containing either Mg(BH₄)₂ or a combination of Mg(BH₄)₂ and crown ether. Next, we show results of similar experiments using electrolytes containing also MgTFSI₂, where, for a better understanding of possible synergistic effects, the concentrations of the different components were varied systematically. For comparison, we also show data obtained for Mg deposition/dissolution from similar electrolytes on a Mg electrode. Subsequently, we

present results of a DFT-based quantum chemical analysis of the stability of clusters derived from classical molecular dynamics (MD) simulations, which contain Mg²⁺ in different coordination states and up to two BMP-TFSI ion pairs with or without 18-crown-6 as additional ligand. Finally, we discuss the implications of both the experimental and theoretical data and summarize the main conclusions derived from these data.

2. Results and Discussion

2.1. Electrochemical Characterization

In previous experiments, we had already shown that deposition and dissolution of Mg on a glassy carbon (GC) electrode is inhibited in MgTFSI₂-containing electrolyte.[41] This was reproduced also in the present experiments, though some improvement is achieved for Mg(BH₄)₂containing BMP-TFSI electrolytes. The first and later cycles of the CVs recorded at 10 mV s⁻¹ on the GC substrate, without any additional additives, largely resemble previous findings.^[17] They are displayed and discussed in detail with Figure S1a and b. In brief, the negative current increases towards the lower potential limit. A small anodic peak appears at around 1 V in the anodic scan. Within the first few cycles, both peaks decrease significantly. The overall reversibility of the cathodic and anodic processes, as indicated by the overall charge ratio in these potential regimes (Coulombic efficiency), is about 18% in the first cycle (inset in Figure S1a) and increases to around 35% in subsequent cycles (see Figure S4 and Table S1). Overall, however, the reversibility is very low and Mg deposition/dissolution is (at most) a minor process.

In the following, we will briefly summarize the different effects and influences of borohydride on the Mg deposition/ dissolution process that have been reported in the past. First, the addition of reductive, contamination-scavenging additives such as di-butyl Mg (in our case: Mg(BH₄)₂), which can react with traces of water, oxygen and other protic species, was found to improve the Mg plating/stripping efficiency by forming Mg oxides and hydroxides in the bulk, which, in return, reduces/avoids surface passivation. [30,51] Second, reversible Mg plating/stripping was found to require a minimum amount of such additives, which approximately corresponded to a slight excess relative to the estimated water content of the electrolyte.[30] Third, reversible Mg plating/stripping was possible also from MgTFSI2-containing solutions when using complexing solvents such as glymes upon addition of Mg(BH₄)₂^[30] or once the electrolyte was carefully dried. [25] Finally, high deposition reversibilities were obtained even without additional drying when using Mg(BH₄)₂ as Mg source rather than MgTFSI₂.^[14]

Overall, these studies support the idea that borohydride acts as efficient water scavenger.^[14,30] As stated above, our results of a very low reversibility for Mg plating/stripping fully agree with previous findings for cycling a Pt electrode in a similar electrolyte.^[17,18] They seem to disagree, however, with the previous findings summarized above, considering that, in

our experiments, the amount of $Mg(BH_4)_2$ added to the electrolytes should always be sufficient to fully remove the water impurities of BMP-TFSI, $MgTFSI_2$ and crown ether, based both on our estimations and on the suppliers' specifications (see Experimental part) and assuming that each BH_4^- can react with one water molecule. The discrepancy is most likely caused by the different solvents, with only small amounts of $TFSI^-$ in the above cases, together with complexing solvents, while in our case the $TFSI^-$ is part of the solvent and thus present in large excess and no other complexing species are present.

Electrolyte decomposition in Mg(BH₄)₂-containing BMP-TFSI was explained by the decomposition of TFSI-, which is coordinated with the metal ions in such IL mixtures. This kind of complex formation, where TFSI⁻ anions can coordinate to a single metal cation (contact ion pairs, CIPs) or to multiple metal cations in aggregate networks (where the Mg²⁺ cation is in direct contact with the TFSI⁻ anion), has been identified previously by both Infrared^[16] and Raman spectroscopy.^[17,18,53,54] Theoretical studies have shown that partial reduction of the Mg center, which is expected to happen at the interface at potentials in the Mg deposition regime, leads to a weakening of the C-S bond in the TFSI- anion, which in turn results in TFSIdecomposition rather than in Mg deposition.[18,28] In contrast, BH₄ was found to be stable under these conditions. In electrolytes containing both borohydride and TFSI-, TFSIdecomposition has been observed in experimental studies.^[17,18,43,45,51,55]

Next, we investigated the influence of 18-crown-6 upon cycling in $Mg(BH_4)_2$ -containing BMP-TFSI. CVs recorded in BMP-TFSI+0.1 M $Mg(BH_4)_2$ +0.1 M 18-crown-6 electrolyte are depicted in Figure 1. The additive leads to increased currents, both in the cathodic and in the anodic scan, as compared to the borohydride-containing IL in the absence of the crown ether (Figure S1). The cathodic current densities are at least four times higher and the increase of the anodic currents is even more drastic. These changes may originate from reversible processes, such as Mg plating and stripping, although the

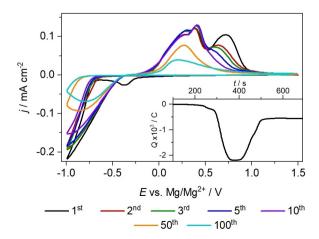


Figure 1. First and additional relevant potentiodynamic cycles recorded on a GC electrode in BMP-TFSI + 0.1 M Mg(BH₄)₂ + 0.1 M 18-crown-6 cycled at 10 mV s⁻¹. The inset shows the accumulated charge (i.e., the charge balance of Mg plating/stripping) during the first scan.

present data do not provide definite proof for the latter assignment. A weak peak is observed at $-0.4 \,\mathrm{V}$ in the first cathodic scan, which does not appear anymore in the subsequent cycles. Interestingly, in a crown ether-free, borohydride-containing IL, a similar signal appeared at -0.3 V in the first cathodic cycle (Figure S1a). We tentatively assign these peaks to the reductive removal of a surface contamination on the GC substrate, considering that this peak was only observed on the GC electrode, independent of the electrolyte composition. At potentials below -0.7 V, the characteristic current increase for Mg deposition appears. Here, Mg plating takes place with a nucleation overpotential that is by 0.1 V lower than the one observed for 0.1 M Mg(BH₄)₂-containing IL without any crown ether additive (see discussion with Figure S1). In the subsequent anodic scan, we find the corresponding signal for Mg dissolution at 0.3 V, down-shifted by 0.4 V from the Mg dissolution peak observed in crown ether-free IL. This is followed by two additional peaks at 0.4 V and 0.7 V, which seem to indicate that, next to Mg stripping, oxidation of species formed in cathodic side processes can take place under these conditions.

It is worth noting that the position of the peak at 0.7 V observed in the crown ether-containing system coincides with the position of the anodic peak recorded in the first cycles of the crown ether-free system (Figure S1). Therefore, it is also possible that the anodic signal at 0.7 V is due to Mg dissolution from a similar Mg species – as obtained for deposition from $\text{Mg}(\text{BH}_4)_2\text{-containing}$ electrolyte – while the peaks at 0.3/0.4 V are due to dissolution of Mg deposits created in crown ethercontaining electrolyte.

In the following cathodic scan, the process taking place at -0.4 V is inhibited, like the analogous process in the ether-free system. The decreasing currents in the Mg deposition region and, subsequently, in the Mg dissolution region (anodic scan), also indicate an increasing inhibition of the related processes and/or the depletion of oxidizable components with increasing cycling. This current loss is most pronounced for the highpotential peak at 0.7 V. During the next ten cycles, it decreases and disappears completely, while the anodic signals at 0.3 and 0.4 V do not change significantly. The peak at 0.4 V starts to decrease only after ten cycles and has disappeared after about 35 cycles (not shown). The signal at 0.3 V also decreases, but much slower, becoming the main anodic peak. It is still visible even after 100 cycles. The reversibility is about 70% in the first cycle (for comparison, the reversibility of the processes taking place in solely borohydride-containing IL was ~18% in the first cycle) and increases to 78% within the first ten cycles, as compared to 35% reached in ether-free electrolyte after the same number of cycles. Upon further cycling, however, the reversibility in the Mg(BH₄)₂- and 18-crown-6-containing IL decreases, as well, dropping to 25% after 20 cycles. This remains about constant for the rest of the cycling time (100 cycles in total), indicating that the continuing passivation process not only reduces the current densities both in the cathodic and anodic scan but also affects them in the same way, keeping the charge ratio between them constant (see Figure S5 and Table S2).



The results in Figure 1 can be compared with previous data and conclusions, which had already identified positive effects on the reversibility of the Mg plating/stripping process when modifying the IL cation^[17–19] or varying the solvents and/or adding complexing additives. [15,19,42,56,57] Our results are in agreement with reports on an improved Mg deposition/dissolution reversibility in the presence of ethers such as glymes, etc.[21,30,47,58] As one example, Mandai et al. reported an improved Mg deposition/dissolution activity for tetraglyme-coordinated MgTFSI₂ in BMP-TFSI in the presence of dialkylsulfones as compared to electrolytes with less efficiently coordinating additives, such as DMSO.[47] Increased current densities for Mg deposition in MgTFSI₂-containing electrolytes were reported also by Sagane et al. upon addition of 18-crown-6 ether, both in THF^[57] and in N-methyl-N-propylpiperidinium (MPPp)—TFSI.^[42] Similarly, Ma et al. have shown reversible and stable (for more than 280 cycles) Mg plating and stripping from 0.3 M MgTFSI₂containing BMP-TFSI/tetraglyme mixtures (1:2) after treatment with 0.019 M Mg(BH₄)₂. [19]

Employing ex situ scanning electron microscopy (SEM) characterization, Sagane et al. also observed the formation of Mg dendrites in the Mg deposits formed from 0.5 M crown ether- and 0.5 M MgTFSI₂-containing THF, which could hardly be dissolved subsequently.[57] Going to much higher concentrations of both ether additive and TFSI- salt in an IL electrolyte (MgTFSI₂, 18-crown-6 and MPPp-TFSI, with molar ratios of 1:1:5 and 1:5:5), the Mg deposits were significantly smoother than the dendritic morphologies obtained in THF-based electrolyte, but still exhibited a 'mossy' structure, which the authors attributed to the high viscosity of the ionic liquid as well as to accelerated TFSI⁻ decomposition.^[42] We assume that this is also the reason for the poor reversibility of about 3% obtained in that study. This deposition/dissolution behavior is very different from the uniform Mg deposits obtained in Grignard-based electrolytes, which also allowed reversible dissolution. [59]

Watkins et al. had proposed that the addition of a chelating agent (in their case, oligoether glymes or 18-crown-6) separates the direct coordination of Mg²⁺ by TFSI⁻ and results in the formation of [(Mg(glyme)_v)²⁺(TFSI⁻)]⁺ complexes, which they referred to as solvent-separated ion pairs (SSIPs).[54] This was concluded from the disappearance of the Raman band typical for Mg²⁺-coordinated TFSI⁻ and the appearance of a new band that was associated with Mg²⁺-coordinated glyme. Such a separation of TFSI⁻ from the Mg²⁺ cations could explain the more facile Mg deposition in the measurements in Figure 1, but similar results could also be obtained from a weakening of the Mg²⁺-TFSI⁻ coordination. Finally, DFT calculations comparing the different abilities to coordinate cations in chloride-containing Mg complexes in monoglyme-, diglyme-, triglyme- and tetraglyme-based electrolytes indicated that the longer and more flexible glymes were increasingly able to adjust their conformation and thus enhance the interaction between Mg and solvent. This was proposed to allow for the formation of larger Mg²⁺-, Cl⁻⁻ and solvent-containing aggregates, which, in turn, improves the reversibility of Mg deposition/dissolution, though at higher overpotentials.[60]

Focusing on BH₄⁻-containing electrolytes, both experimental studies[15,50] and calculations[61,62] for several electrolytes have concluded that the dissociation of the Mg²⁺-BH₄- coordination is a key aspect for Mg deposition, which, in ether-type solvents, is influenced by the number of coordinating oxygen atoms or possibly also by coordinating TFSI⁻ ions. The Mg²⁺ coordination in BH₄-- and TFSI--containing diglyme was investigated by Hu et al. in a combined experimental and theoretical study. [63] Using the electrolyte components without further purification or drying, they found an improved electrochemical performance in the mixed electrolyte as compared to a TFSI--free electrolyte. They explained this by a formation of mixed ion pair clusters containing Mg²⁺ as central ion, which is coordinated by BH₄ and TFSI anions as well as by O-atoms of the glyme molecules. The latter are expected to reduce the strong interaction between Mg²⁺ and BH₄⁻ anions, which was claimed to allow for reversible Mg plating and stripping. [63] Using a special TFSI--based IL with an oligoether group in the cation and Mg(BH₄)₂ as Mg source, Watkins et al. found that Mg deposition/dissolution reversibility are significantly improved compared to that from BMP-TFSI.[17] They attributed this to the complexation of the Mg²⁺ cation by the polyether groups, which prevents the direct TFSI- coordination and weakens the Ma²⁺-BH₄ coordination. Comparable results were reported by Gao et al., [18] who, furthermore, observed that the above effects increase with increasing ether functionalization of the cation.

Based on aforementioned results, the crown ether may either displace the TFSI⁻ anions from the Mg²⁺ coordination sphere and thus prevent the decomposition of the TFSI-; or it may weaken the interaction with Mg²⁺ and thus stabilize the TFSI⁻ against decomposition. In both cases, one would expect an improved reversibility of the Mg deposition/dissolution process and, in particular, a better stability/slower inhibition of these processes in the presence of the crown ether. Still open, however, is the role of the borohydride in this process. It may either solely act as water scavenger, removing trace impurities of water in the different chemicals (see Experimental section) from the electrolyte, or it may also coordinate to Mg²⁺. BH₄⁻ coordination to Mg²⁺ has indeed been reported to be stronger than that of TFSI-[18,63] which will be important also for the present case. Finally, also the ratio between the different components seems to be important; as indicated by the results of Hu et al., who observed significant differences in the Mg deposition/dissolution current when varying the ratio of the TFSI⁻ and BH₄⁻ concentration in Mg²⁺-containing diglyme.^[63]

In order to investigate the role of the TFSI⁻ and BH_4^- anions and of the crown ether and, in particular, their relative concentrations, in more detail, we prepared electrolytes with different concentrations of these species. In all cases, the Mg^{2+} concentration was kept at $0.1 \, \mathrm{mol} \, L^{-1}$. We would expect that, if borohydride acts only as water scavenger and is necessary for that, a certain minimum concentration of borohydride is required for reversible Mg deposition/dissolution. In that case, crown ether would be furthermore required to coordinate to Mg^{2+} and displace TFSI⁻. Alternatively, both borohydride and crown ether contribute to the displacement of TFSI⁻ from the Mg^{2+} coordination sphere. In this case, the total amount of



borohydride plus crown ether relative to the amount of ${\rm Mg^{2}}^+$ would be decisive for reversible and reasonably stable Mg deposition/dissolution.

In Figure 2a, we present a set of CVs recorded with a GC substrate in Mg(BH₄)₂-, MgTFSI₂-, and 18-crown-6-containing BMP-TFSI, with a 1:1 molar ratio of crown ether to Mg²⁺ and a 1:1 mixture of Mg(BH₄)₂ and MgTFSI₂ (0.05 M Mg(BH₄)₂ + 0.05 M MgTFSI₂ + 0.1 M 18-crown-6). The characteristic features in these CVs are essentially identical to those obtained and discussed before for GC in a solution of 0.1 M Mg(BH₄)₂ and 0.1 M 18crown-6 in IL (Figure 1). The reversibility is about 80% in the first ten cycles, which is comparable to the results obtained for the MgTFSI₂-free electrolyte (Figure 1). However, with increasing cycling times, the reversibility decreases to about 12% after 20 cycles (see Figure S6 and Table S3) and the electrode is completely inert after 50 cycles (Figure 2a). For comparison, the GC electrode cycled in BMP-TFSI+0.1 M Mg(BH₄)₂+0.1 M 18crown-6 (discussed with Figure 1) still displayed more than half of the initial current densities after 50 scans. Considering that the relative increase in TFSI⁻ concentration is marginal and the concentrations of Mg²⁺ and 18-crown-6 are identical to those in Figure 1, these changes in reversibility must be related to the lower amount of BH₄⁻ in the measurement to Figure 2a.

Upon further increasing the amount of MgTFSI₂ at the expense of Mg(BH₄)₂ (Figure 2, 0.09 M MgTFSI₂+0.01 M Mg-(BH₄)₂+0.1 M 18-crown-6), we observe a pronounced decay of the current density and a down-shift of the Mg deposition potential (blue curve). Obviously, the increasing lack of BH₄⁻ is detrimental for the Mg²⁺ deposition process. The current trace in the anodic scan is affected even more and shows only a very weak and broad Mg dissolution feature. Hence, both Mg plating and Mg stripping are reduced when replacing BH₄⁻ by TFSI⁻, or the other way around, when reducing the amount of BH₄⁻, while keeping the concentration of crown ether constant.

Interestingly, when doubling the amount of crown ether added to this $Mg(BH_4)_2/MgTFSI_2$ mixture (Figure 2b, violet dashed curve, 0.09 M $MgTFSI_2+0.01$ M $Mg(BH_4)_2+0.2$ M 18-crown-6, for more cycles see Figure S7 and Table S4), the high

current densities are restored again and the reversibility is significantly improved. The latter increases from 75% in the first cycle to 82% in the second cycle, then decreases again continuously to 75% in the 10th cycle. This trend in the reversibility, with an initial increase and a later decrease, is very similar to that obtained for the sample cycled in IL containing $0.05 \text{ M} \text{ Mg(BH}_4)_2 + 0.05 \text{ M} \text{ MgTFSI}_2 + 0.1 \text{ M} \text{ 18-crown-6}$ (Figure 2a). We assume that the similar trends reflect that, in both cases, an increasing excess of BH₄ plus crown ether relative to the Mg concentration is beneficial for the Mg deposition/ dissolution reaction. Also, the onset potential for Mg deposition (-0.6 V) is slightly more anodic than that obtained in pure borohydride and crown ether-containing IL with no MgTFSI₂ (-0.7 V, equivalent to an up-shift of the onset potential for Mg deposition by 0.1 V), supporting the above conclusion of more facile Mg deposition in this electrolyte. In combination, these results indicate that the sole coordination of TFSI⁻ with Mg²⁺ is detrimental for the Mg deposition/dissolution processes. However, when either the crown ether or BH_4^- - or both in combination - are present in the electrolyte in sufficient amounts, TFSI- can either at least partly be displaced from the inner Mg²⁺ coordination sphere, or the Mg²⁺—TFSI⁻ interaction can be weakened to an extent that Mg+-induced TFSIdecomposition is inhibited during reaction. Both could enable improved plating and stripping. On the other hand, Hu et al. had demonstrated that an increase of the MgTFSI2 content, from zero content to fourfold excess at constant Mg(BH₄)₂ concentration (0.01 M), leads to a continuous increase in reversible Mg deposition/dissolution from diglyme. [63] Based on quantum chemical calculations, they proposed that TFSIdisplaces one of the BH₄ ligands in the inner coordination shell, which was seen as origin for the improved Mg deposition/ dissolution. The apparent discrepancy to our findings - an improved Mg deposition/dissolution upon addition of TFSI- to Mg(BH₄)₂-containing electrolyte in their case vs. an improved Mg deposition performance upon addition of Mg(BH₄)₂ to TFSI-based electrolyte in our experiments - is most likely due to the very different situations in both cases. While in our

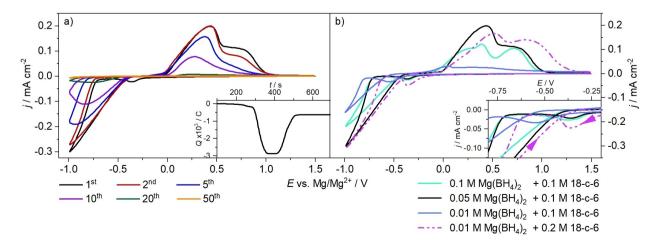


Figure 2. Sets of CVs recorded on GC in BMP-TFSI + 0.05 M Mg(BH₄)₂ + 0.05 M MgTFSl₂ + 0.1 M 18-crown-6 (a) and in BMP-TFSI with different concentrations of Mg(BH₄)₂, MgTFSl₂ and 18-crown-6 (b, first cycle). The concentration of MgTFSl₂ is 0.1 M - concentration of Mg(BH₄)₂. The inset in (a) shows the accumulated charge during the first scan, in (b) an enlarged section of the lower potential region between -0.2 and -0.8 V. All scan rates are 10 mVs⁻¹.

experiments TFSI⁻ is present also as solvent and thus in strong excess, they use TFSI⁻ in rather low concentrations, comparable to that of BH₄⁻, together with an excess of the Mg-coordinating glyme as solvent.

These results point to an equilibrium of Mg²⁺ coordination with the various ligands, where coordination of TFSI⁻ to Mg²⁺ and, thus, also Mg⁺-induced decomposition of TFSI⁻, are still possible as long as BH₄⁻ and/or crown ether (or a combination of them) are not present in over-stoichiometric amounts (for crown ether: 1:1). This conclusion also fits well to the results reported by Shao et al., who observed a significant enhancement of the Coulombic efficiency with increasing BH₄concentration, as well as when changing from a monodentate solvent molecule (THF) to bidentate (DME) and finally tridentate (diglyme) molecules.[15] They explained this behavior by synergistic effects, without, however, explaining in more detail how this would affect Mg deposition. As mentioned before, we found that, also in the presence of crown ether, a certain amount of BH_4^- is required, as indicated by the experiment with 0.09 M MgTFSI₂ + 0.01 M Mg(BH₄)₂ + 0.1 M crown ether, where Mg deposition was strongly hindered. Finally, additional measurements with other concentrations of crown ether (Figure S3) further confirmed that a certain minimum amount of BH₄⁻ is required for Mg deposition from MgTFSI₂. Even a tenfold excess of crown ether did not support Mg deposition from MgTFSI₂ if no BH₄⁻ was added. This is most easily explained in a picture where some BH₄⁻ is necessary for removal of trace impurities of water, and, additionally may coordinate with Mq^{2+} .

Here it should be mentioned that Sagane *et al.* observed that the addition of stoichiometric (1:1) amounts of 18-crown-6 to MgTFSI₂ in MPPp—TFSI is required and sufficient for a complete displacement of TFSI⁻ from the coordination sphere of the Mg²⁺, resulting in the formation of "free" TFSI⁻ anions. The CV of that mixture shows Mg plating and stripping, but with a very low reversibility. Furthermore, there may be an influence of the IL cation on the complexation process, as these authors used 1-methyl-1-propylpiperidinium (MPPp⁺) as cation rather than the 1-butyl-1-methyl-pyrrolidinium (BMP⁺) employed in the present work.

Finally, we want to briefly test for possible effects induced by the nature of the electrode by changing to a Mg electrode. Figure 3 displays a CV recorded in 0.1 M Mg(BH₄)₂-containing BMP-TFSI with 0.1 M 18-crown-6 on a magnesium substrate. Different from the current traces recorded on the glassy carbon substrates in 0.1 M Mg(BH₄)₂ and 0.1 M 18-crown-6-containing IL, the first cathodic scan (after a potential step from the OCV to the upper potential limit) already exhibits oxidative currents in the potential range 1.5-0 V, which we assume are due to Mg dissolution from the roughened electrode (see Experimental section). This is different from results reported by Ma et al., who only observed dissolution of freshly deposited Mg, but not of the Mg substrate, in 0.5 M MgTFSI₂/tetraglyme electrolyte containing 6 mM Mg(BH₄)₂, at least when cycling below 1.0 V. They concluded that, most likely, the underlying Mg surface is passivated completely despite the roughening pretreatment.[30] Mg deposition starts already at a potential below 0.5 V, i.e., at a

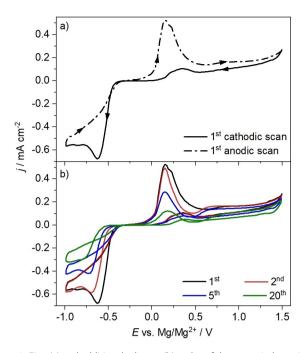


Figure 3. First (a) and additional relevant (b) cycles of the potentiodynamic scan of a Mg electrode in 0.1 M Mg(BH₄)₂ + 0.1 M 18-crown-6-containing BMP-TFSI at 10 mV s⁻¹.

lower overpotential compared to that obtained on a glassy carbon electrode in the same electrolyte (Figure 1, around 0.7 V). This indicates a lower nucleation overpotential for the roughened Mg electrode compared to the GC substrate, most likely due to the presence of efficient sites for heterogeneous nucleation on the surface. The corresponding Mg dissolution peak appears at 0.2 V, also down-shifted by 0.1 V compared to the Mg dissolution peak observed on GC. Initially, the current density is almost three times higher than the corresponding current traces on glassy carbon. With increasing cycle number it decreases rapidly, having lost about half the initial current density by the fifth cycle. This loss is far more pronounced than on glassy carbon. We tentatively explain this by the generally higher reactivity of the Mg surface, which reacts more efficiently both with trace impurities in the electrolyte and/or with the solvent during cycling. This reaction may hinder further Mg deposition and thus result in the distinct peak between -0.6and $-0.7 \,\mathrm{V}$ in the Mg deposition range, rather than the expected exponential current increase when approaching the lower potential limit. The peak in the anodic scan at about 0.2 V is most likely related to dissolution of the freshly plated Mg, whereas oxidation of the underlying Mg substrate proceeds only in the anodic currents above 0.5 V. Interestingly, while the onset and peak maximum for Mg dissolution remain the same, the onset for Mg deposition shifts to more negative potentials with continued cycling. Overall, compared to Mg plating/ stripping on GC, both these and also the passivation processes are faster on Mg.

It is also worth mentioning that, aside of its role as water scavenger, borohydride may also dissolve the (native) passivation layer present on the Mg surface due to its strongly reducing nature.^[14] However, we observed both Mg deposition/ dissolution and electrolyte decomposition currents only on *in situ* roughened Mg electrodes. Hence, the sole presence of borohydride is not enough to dissolve the native passivation layer and allow for reversible Mg plating and stripping.

To learn more about the question in how far these effects are specific for Mg deposition, we studied the plating/stripping behavior on GC in analogous electrolyte systems, employing Ca²⁺ instead of Mg²⁺. No Ca²⁺ deposition was observed from Ca(BH₄)₂-containing BMP-TFSI, neither in the absence nor presence of 18-crown-6 (Figure S2 and S3). We speculate that this difference is related to the different mismatch^[49] between the cavity size of the crown ether (2.9 Å for 18-crown-6) and the ion diameters of the two ions (Ca^{2+} 2.0 Å, Mg^{2+} 1.44 Å). The better fit would result in a stronger binding of Ca²⁺ than of Mg²⁺. In that case, Mg²⁺ deposition could still be possible when it is coordinated to 18-crown-6, while Ca²⁺ is too tightly bound for deposition. This hypothesis is also in agreement with the fact that we found neither Ca nor Mg deposition from BMP-TFSI containing 15-crown-5 (cavity size 2.0 Å), as, as we assume, both cations are too strongly bound for metal deposition.

Finally, we would like to note that the proposed mechanism of a displacement of the anion of the IL solvent/Mg source by the additives requires that the additives coordinate more strongly to the Mg²⁺ cation than the weakly coordinating TFSI⁻ anions and also weaken the Mg²⁺–TFSI⁻ interaction, but still are sufficiently weakly coordinated to allow facile Mg deposition. The partial displacement of the Mg²⁺-coordinated TFSI⁻ species and the weakening of the Mg²⁺-TFSI⁻ interaction of the remaining TFSI⁻ ligands inhibits the decomposition of the TFSI⁻, which is induced by interaction with the Mg⁺ upon partial reduction of the Mg²⁺ ion.^[28] Hence, we propose that in such cases the optimum additive is one that is i) stable against decomposition itself and that has ii) an optimum interaction with the metal cation; i.e., sufficiently strong that it can partly displace the instable component (here TFSI⁻) and/or weaken its interaction with the central Mg²⁺ ion, but sufficiently weak that it does not inhibit metal deposition by formation of a stable coordination shell. This also requires that the coordination of the unstable component be sufficiently weak that it can still be displaced by the additive under the conditions described in ii). These questions were investigated theoretically, as detailed in the next section.

2.2. Simulation

To test the above interpretation, we conducted MD simulations and quantum chemical calculations at the density functional level of theory (DFT), comparing the stability of the coordination sphere of the Mg²⁺ cation in the presence and absence of 18-crown-6 (for details, see Experimental section and Supporting Information). Note that in our classical MD simulations, which are used as starting point, the interactions between Mg²⁺ and the solvent molecules are limited to solely electrostatic forces and will not include contributions from covalent interactions between Mg²⁺ and oxygen. However, such inter-

actions are fully captured in the subsequent DFT calculations. In these calculations, the reference level for the energy of the respective clusters was defined by the energy of an isolated MgTFSI₂ cluster plus that of the separate additional ligands (BMP-TFSI ion pairs, 18-crown-6), where the energies were calculated using the frozen geometry of the most stable complete cluster. Accordingly, the coordination energies E_c refer to the energy gained upon coordinating one or more additional ligands to the MgTFSI₂ cluster, while the binding energy $E_{\rm b}$ of a specific ligand in that cluster refers to the energy required for removing that ligand in a frozen configuration. For selected configurations obtained during the MD simulations, we cut clusters containing the MgTFSI₂ as well as up to two BMP-TFSI ion pairs in the absence and presence of 18-crown-6, which were further optimized geometrically (see Experimental section). For the determination of the coordination and binding energies presented in Figures 4 and 6 and in Table 1, we used the cluster configurations with the most stable final geometry. Note that the structure of the MgTFSI₂ complex included therein may not be the most stable configuration of the isolated MgTFSI₂ cluster.

In Figure 4, we show a selection of clusters cut from the MD simulations consisting of MgTFSl₂ in the presence of up to two BMP-TFSI ion pairs and up to one 18-crown-6 molecule. The Mg²⁺ cation is displayed in different coordination states and geometries, along with the respective (additional) coordination energies. The clusters are portrayed in the most stable configurations observed for the respective coordination. Note that these are not necessarily the configurations with the highest coordination energies. Visualizations of some other clusters considered in this work are provided in the Supporting Information (Figure S8). A main characteristic for all clusters is the bond between the Mg²⁺ cation and the oxygen atoms of the TFSI⁻ anions or of the 18-crown-6 molecule. The different configurations in Figure 4 involve coordination geometries of the Mg²⁺ cation with different numbers of directly coordinating oxygen atoms, as illustrated in Figure 5. The Mg²⁺ cation prefers a seven-fold coordination by oxygen atoms in the presence of 18-crown-6, while a five- or six-fold oxygen coordination, arranged in a pyramidal or octahedral configuration, respectively, is preferred in its absence.

As expected, the increasing coordination of the ${\rm Mg^{2^+}}$ ion in the ${\rm MgTFSI_2}$ cluster increases the stability of the cluster. Coordination with an additional BMP-TFSI ion pair leads to a stabilization by -132 kJ/mol (Figure 4a). Note that this denotes

Table 1. Electron affinity $E_{\rm A}$ and equilibrium potential $E_{\rm red}$ for molecule/cluster reduction vs. Mg/Mg²⁺ for different molecule/cluster types.

Cluster/molecule	E_{A} [eV]	E _{red} [V]
TFSI ⁻	2.16	-1.19
18c6	-0.49	-3.84
Mg ²⁺ + 18c6	1.68	−1.67
MgTFSI ₂	3.75	0.40
MgTFSI ₂ + BMP-TFSI	3.49	0.14
MgTFSI ₂ + 2 BMP-TFSI	3.10	-0.25
MgTFSI ₂ + 18c6	2.97	-0.38
MgTFSI ₂ + 18c6 + BMP-TFSI	2.91	-0.44

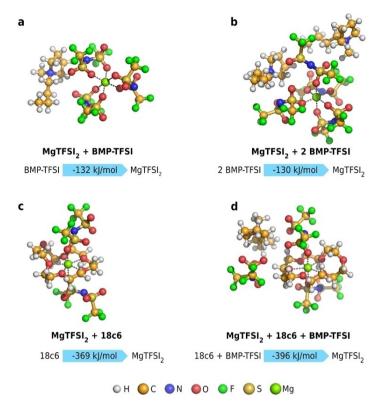


Figure 4. Representation of the most stable clusters at different compositions, cut from MD simulations, and the respective coordination energies E_c.

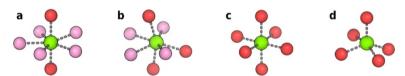


Figure 5. Different coordination states of Mg²⁺, colored in green, in the presence (a, b) and absence (c, d) of 18-crown-6. Oxygen atoms belonging to the 18-crown-6 ring are colored in pink; those belonging to TFSI⁻ in red.

the overall energy gain of the system, which may also contain contributions from a change in bonding within the original MgTFSI₂ cluster and within the ion pair. Hence, it is not necessarily the strength of the bond between Mg²⁺ and the ion pair, but it would properly describe the energy needed to detach the ion pair. Adding a second BMP-TFSI ion pair to the MgTFSI₂+BMP-TFSI cluster does not lead to a further stabilization of the cluster; the coordination energy of -130 kJ/mol for two BMP-TFSI ion pairs is almost equal to that of a single ion pair (Figure 4b). Qualitatively, this can be understood from the fact that, for coordination with a single BMP-TFSI ion pair, the TFSI⁻ anion can coordinate via two oxygen atoms, while for coordination by two BMP-TFSI ion pairs each of them coordinates only by a single oxygen atom of the TFSI- species to the Mg²⁺ cation (see Figure 4). Hence, coordination by the second ion pair weakens the bond to the first ion pair, and this effect is quite significant. Therefore, one would expect an equilibrium between both states at room temperature, which also means that thermal detachment of the second ion pair is easily achieved at room temperature. This weakening of the bond to the first BMP-TFSI ion pair is illustrated also in the energy scheme in Figure 6. It represents the binding energies for different ligands in the frozen geometry of the final cluster, which were calculated by comparing the cluster energies before and after removal of the respective ligand in that geometry. In this case, the binding energies of the two different BMP-TFSI ion pairs are almost identical (Figure 6c), and they are much smaller than that of the BMP-TFSI ion pair in Figure 4a. Also, it does not seem to matter which of the two ion pairs is added first. Hence, synergistic effects between the two ion pairs are absent.

In a similar way, we explored the additional coordination of an 18-crown-6 molecule to either the MgTFSl₂ (Figure 4c) or the MgTFSl₂+BMP-TFSI (Figure 4d) cluster. In the first case, this results in a stabilization by -369 kJ/mol. Hence, the coordination of the MgTFSl₂ cluster by the crown ether is significantly stronger than that by a BMP-TFSI ion pair. Also, the addition of a single 18-crown-6 molecule to a MgTFSl₂+BMP-TFSI cluster results in a drastic increase in cluster stability by -264 kJ/mol. Qualitatively, this is evident already from the structure of the most stable cluster in Figure 4d. This shows a significant weakening of the coordination to the two original TFSI⁻ anions,

which are coordinated now only via one oxygen atom, and to the third TFSI⁻ anion (that of the BMP-TFSI ion pair), which is no longer part of the inner coordination sphere. Here, we identify the TFSI⁻ anion of the ion pair by its stronger interaction to the BMP⁺ cation compared to the other two TFSI⁻ species. On a more quantitative scale, this is illustrated in the energy scheme in Figure 6d. Addition of a crown ether molecule to the MgTFSI₂ cluster, in the frozen geometry of the stable configuration of the MgTFSI₂+BMP-TFSI+18-crown-6, results in a binding energy stabilization by -353 kJ/mol; further addition of a BMP-TFSI ion pair stabilizes this by another -43 kJ/mol (total coordination energy -396 kJ/mol), which is even less than the binding energy per BMP-TFSI ion pair in the MgTFSI₂+BMP-TFSI cluster. Also in this case, it almost does not matter whether the crown ether or the ion pair is added first and synergies are very small. Overall, the strong coordination by the crown ether molecule leads to a significant weakening of the bond between Mg²⁺ and the two TFSI⁻ anions, and essentially a displacement of the BMP-TFSI ion pair. Also considering these effects in the overall energy balance, one expects that the bond between crown ether and Mg²⁺ cation is even significantly stronger than -353 kJ/mol.

In addition to the above calculations, we also explored whether coordination of two 18-crown-6 molecules to the MgTFSI₂ cluster would be strong enough to additionally displace the original TFSI⁻ anions from their direct coordination to the Mg²⁺ cation. For this purpose, we built and optimized a cluster in which the Mg²⁺ cation is surrounded by two 18-crown-6 molecules and the two TFSI⁻ anions are displaced to the second coordination layer (Figure S9). Here, we find that the total binding energy in that cluster is stronger by -70 kJ/mol, as compared to the coordination states in the absence of 18-crown-6. However, it is less stable by -27 kJ/mol as compared to the coordination by just one 18-crown-6 and two directly coordinating TFSI⁻ anions.

Overall, these calculations indicate that i) the coordination with the 18-crown-6 molecule is much stronger than that with TFSI⁻ anions, that ii) the interaction with the 18-crown-6 molecule leads to a significant destabilization of the remaining coordination to the two TFSI⁻ anions, as indicated by the change from two-fold to one-fold coordination, and, finally, that iii) a complete screening of the Mg²⁺ cation by two 18-crown-6 molecules is energetically unfavorable. In the absence of 18-crown-6, the coordination of MgTFSI₂ with one or two BMP-TFSI ion pairs always results in either a six-fold or five-fold coordination of the Mg²⁺ cation, i.e., in an octahedral or trigonal bipyramidal structure, respectively. In contrast, in the presence of 18-crown-6, the Mg²⁺ cation is coordinated by four to five oxygen atoms of the ether and two to three anions coordinated by a single oxygen atom each.

Next, we considered that Mg deposition requires the cation to be able to (stepwise) strip its coordination shell when attaching to the electrode surface. As evident from the numbers in Figures 4 and 5, the binding energies with the TFSI⁻ anions in the BMP-TFSI ion pairs calculated are of an order of magnitude that allows their thermal detachment at room temperature. This is true both for coordination of one or two

ions pairs - actually, removing the second BMP-TFSI ion pair does not cost any energy - and especially in the presence of a crown ether molecule acting as a second ligand. On the other hand, it would be very hard for the Mg²⁺ cation to escape coordination with 18-crown-6. Previous studies have suggested that the partial reduction of Mg²⁺ to Mg⁺ via an outer sphere electron transfer reaction will weaken the interaction with TFSI-.[18,28] Similar effects may also be expected for the coordination to an 18-crown-6 molecule. Figure 7 compares the coordination energies of different 18-crown-6 and/or BMP-TFSIcontaining clusters before and after partial reduction of the cation from Mg²⁺ to Mg⁺. Indeed, the coordination energies decrease significantly (strictly speaking, the absolute values of the coordination energies decrease). Most importantly, the coordination energy of the 18-crown-6-containing cluster decreases by -130 kJ/mol, falling to -212 kJ/mol. This moves it significantly closer to the range where Mg deposition seems feasible. On the other hand, while the addition of a second BMP-TFSI ion pair to the coordination sphere of Mg²⁺ does not result in a further stabilization of the cluster (see above), this is different for the reduced Mg+ ion. Here, the addition of a second BMP-TFSI ion pair to the coordination sphere of [MgTFSl₂]⁻ reduces the cluster stability, which, in turn, would improve Ma deposition on the electrode due to its reduced coordination. Overall, the data in Figure 7 demonstrate that

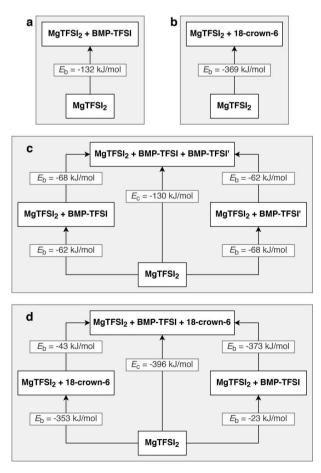


Figure 6. Scheme of the coordination energies E_c and binding energies E_b for different cluster compositions.

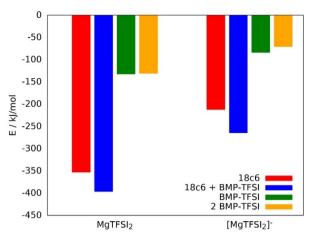


Figure 7. Coordination energies of different 18-crown-6 and BMP-TFSI-containing clusters (MgTFSI $_2$ +X, X see Figure) with [Mg 2 +-TFSI $_2$] or [Mg 4 -TFSI $_2$] as central unit. Coordination energies are referenced to the energies of the respective MgTFSI $_2$ clusters.

partial reduction of the Mg²⁺ to Mg⁺, e.g., via an outer sphere charge-transfer step, destabilizes the coordination not only to solvent ion pairs, but also to 18-crown-6 molecules to an extent that detachment of these species becomes feasible at room temperature, which is a precondition for Mg deposition.

Finally, we investigated the reductive stability of the TFSIanions in different clusters. Recently, several groups have proposed to derive trends in the electrochemical stability window calculating reduction and oxidation potentials, rather than using the strongly simplified previous scheme which relates the stability window to the HOMO and LUMO of the solvent molecules. [64-67] The main difference in this approach is the proper accounting of solvation effects and of contributions from reduction-/oxidation-induced reactions. [67] Here, we employed a method which is closely related to the general ideas of the thermodynamic cycle method, but proceeds in a different way: namely, by calculating the electron affinities E_A of the solvated clusters based on the adiabatic energy difference between a cluster and its reduced form. As described in the Experimental section, both clusters were geometry-relaxed to the nearest local minimum. Table 1 lists the values of E_A for a number of different clusters. For comparison, we also included the isolated TFSI- anion, the 18-crown-6 molecule, and the MqTFSI₂ cluster. Based on the electron affinities, trends in the equilibrium potential for reduction of the respective molecules/ cluster E_{red} can be estimated (see Experimental section), which are listed in Table 1 as well.

First of all, we find that the uncoordinated TFSI⁻ anion shows a significantly higher electron affinity compared to its coordinated state in the MgTFSI₂ cluster. Considering the magnitude of the difference in electron affinities, this trend is significant, even though for these latter two species solvation effects are included only implicitly. A similar trend can be observed for 18-crown-6, which becomes more susceptible to reduction when coordinated to Mg²⁺. However, both in its free and its coordinated state, 18-crown-6 ether shows significantly lower electron affinities than TFSI⁻.

Furthermore, we found that, during geometric relaxation, all TFSI⁻-containing clusters exhibit the dissociation of a -CF₃ group upon reduction. Therefore, the electron affinity of the TFSI⁻-containing clusters is a measure also for the stability against reductive decomposition of the TFSI⁻ group. In contrast, no bond breaking was observed in the 18-crown-6 ether, neither in the free molecule nor when coordinated to Mg²⁺ or MgTFSI₂. Spin density plots (Figure S15) reveal that, in TFSI⁻containing clusters, the unpaired electron is entirely located on the dissociated -CF3 group after reduction, whereas in the case of the isolated TFSI⁻ the unpaired electron is shared between both fragments. In the absence of TFSI⁻ and presence of 18crown-6, the additional, unpaired electron will be entirely located at the Mg²⁺ cation, reducing it to Mg⁺. Hence, the coordination to Mg²⁺ strongly enhances the known tendency of TFSI⁻ to decompose upon reduction via dissociation of a -CF₃ group.^[18,28,68] Similar findings were recently described by Tuerxun et al. for MgTFSI2 in different organic solvents (THF, diglyme), based on the comparison of the calculated HOMO/ LUMO energy levels of the free TFSI⁻ and of the MgTFSI₂ cluster, respectively. [20] In this case, implicit solvation effects were included, while explicit solvent effects by coordination of solvent molecules were not considered. Furthermore, we found that the addition of one BMP-TFSI ion pair slightly reduces the electron affinity E_{Δ} . On the other hand, the reductive stability of the coordinated TFSI- anion is significantly increased by the addition of an 18-crown-6 ligand. Hence, even though there are still two TFSI⁻ anions weakly coordinated to the Mg²⁺ cation also in the presence of the 18-crown-6 molecule, these are less susceptible to reductive decomposition than the strongly coordinated TFSI⁻ species present in the absence of the crown ether. The same trend is indicated by the spin density distribution plots. A high electron affinity correlates with a pronounced localization of the unpaired electron, whereas the clusters with lower electron affinity show a more diffuse spin distribution. In isolated 18-crown-6, the electron is delocalized over the whole ring upon reduction, while the additional electron is localized on the cation upon attachment to Mg²⁺, reducing it to Mg⁺ and increasing the electron affinity. The reduction of isolated TFSI⁻ leads to the dissociation of a -CF₃ group, but the spin density plot shows that the unpaired electron is still shared between both fragments in the stable configuration. Again, the interaction with Mg2+ leads to a pronounced localization of the electron, which is then entirely located on the dissociated -CF₃ group. This leaves the other fragment with a twofold negative charge, which is stabilized by the cation. In the presence of 18-crown-6, the spin density distribution becomes more diffuse again, which goes along with a lower electron affinity.

Overall, on a qualitative scale these calculations can well explain the experimental observation that i) the addition of 18-crown-6 results in a pronounced suppression of the reductive decomposition of TFSI⁻ species, even though these are present at large excess, and that ii) Mg²⁺ deposition is still possible despite the rather strong coordination of the 18-crown-6 molecule to the Mg²⁺ cation. In the first case, this is due to the fact that coordination to 18-crown-6 prohibits the two-fold



coordination to the TFSI⁻ anions and, thus, decreases their binding energy to the Mg²⁺ cation. On the other hand, for the partly reduced Mg⁺, the interaction of the 18-crown-6 additive with the Mg⁺ cation is sufficiently weak that direct interaction with the electrode as a first step for Mg deposition seems to be feasible at room temperature.

3. Conclusions

Based on the results of a systematic electrochemical and theoretical study on the influence of additives, in our case 18crown-6 and Mg(BH₄)₂, on the reversible deposition/dissolution of Mg on a glassy carbon model electrode in the ionic liquid BMP-TFSI, we could show that these can significantly improve the extent and reversibility of Mg plating/stripping. While Mg²⁺ deposition is inhibited in purely MgTFSI2-containing BMP-TFSI, it is improved upon addition of the crown ether and/or of Mg(BH₄)₂. Varying the amount of the additives while keeping the Mg²⁺ concentration constant reveals i) that either of them can improve the deposition characteristics. However, ii) a certain excess of these species together relative to the Mg²⁺ concentration is required for more facile and reversible Mg deposition, and iii) regardless of the presence of the crown ether, a minimum amount of BH₄ is required as well, most likely to act as water scavenger. These trends can be convincingly explained by the results of our quantum chemical calculations. Including implicit and explicit solvent effects, they reveal that i) the interaction between Mg²⁺ and the surrounding TFSI⁻ anions is significantly weakened upon coordination of an 18-crown-6 molecule to MgTFSI₂ or to MgTFSI₂ + BMP-TFSI, which severely reduces the tendency for Mg+-induced TFSIdecomposition during Mg²⁺ reduction, that ii) increasing coordination stabilizes the resulting cluster, but with a nonlinear effect, that iii) partial reduction of Mg²⁺ to Mg⁺, possibly via an outer sphere reduction process, weakens the [Mg+ -TFSI₂]⁻ interaction, which allows for coordination of the Mg cation to the electrode at room temperature, and that iv) the changes in Mg-TFSI interaction are reflected also by changes in the electron affinity and in the equilibrium potential for reduction of the respective clusters. When using a Mg substrate, as common in realistic battery systems, instead of the model GC electrode, the passivation process is far more efficient, but otherwise the data appear to be in agreement with our interpretation.

In combination, experiment and calculations result in a detailed mechanistic picture of the role of additives on Mg deposition/dissolution in an ionic liquid electrolyte, including also synergistic effects. The observation of similar trends for reversible Mg plating/stripping on GC model electrodes and realistic Mg electrodes, only with higher currents, indicates that the above picture is not electrode-specific, but of more general validity.

Experimental Section

Electrochemical Methods

For the preparation of the electrolytes, the appropriate amounts of Mg(BH₄)₂ (Sigma Aldrich, 95.0%), MgTFSI₂ (Solvionic, 99.5%, \leq 250 ppm H₂O) and 18-crown-6 (Alfa Aesar, 99.0+%, \leq 0.29% H₂O) were dissolved in 1-butyl-1-methylpyrrolidinium bis(trifluoromethylsulfonyl)imide (BMP-TFSI, Solvionic, 99.9%, \leq 20 ppm H₂O) by stirring. We prepared the following solutions: BMP-TFSI with a) $0.1 \text{ M} \text{ Mg(BH}_4)_2$, b) $0.1 \text{ M} \text{ Mg(BH}_4)_2 + 0.1 \text{ M} 18$ -crown-6, c) 0.05 M $Mg(BH_4)_2 + 0.05 \text{ M MgTFSI}_2 + 0.1 \text{ M } 18\text{-crown-6, d}) 0.01 \text{ M Mg}(BH_4)_2$ $+0.09 \text{ M MgTFSI}_2 + 0.1 \text{ M } 18\text{-crown-6}, \text{ and e}) 0.01 \text{ M Mg(BH}_4)_2 +$ 0.09 M MgTFSI₂ + 0.2 M 18-crown-6. Karl Fischer Titration of solutions of 0.1 M MgTFSI₂+BMP-TFSI and 0.1 M MgTFSI₂+0.1 M 18-crown-6 in BMP-TFSI yielded water contents of 23 and 35 ppm, respectively. The water content of Mg(BH₄)₂-containing solutions cannot be determined this way due to its reaction with iodide; here we assumed similar water contents in the solvent and that all water originally present in the Mg(BH₄)₂-containing electrolyte was reactively removed. Electrochemical measurements were conducted in a beaker cell-type three-electrode setup using glassy carbon (GC, HTW Germany, Sigradur G, 4 mm thickness, d=8 mm) or Mg disks (Goodfellow, 1.5 mm thickness, d=8 mm, 99.9%) as working electrode (WE), a gold wire as counter electrode (CE) and a Mg rod (Goodfellow, d=3.2 mm, 99.9%) as quasi-reference electrode (RE).

The electrochemical cell consists of a KelF cell body with three interconnected compartments and a total volume of 0.7 ml. CE and RE are placed in the outermost and middle compartment, respectively. With this configuration, the distance between counter and working electrode is maximized to minimize effects of oxidative reaction products formed at the CE on the processes taking place at the WE. The WE compartment, finally, has an opening at the bottom, with the edges of the opening pressing on the WE. A Viton O-ring (FKM 75, inner diameter 5 mm, cross section 1 mm) between WE and cell body prevents electrolyte leakage. Prior to the assembly, the GC substrates were polished and rinsed with Caroic acid, acetone, and ultrapure water. The cell body and O-rings were rinsed with acetone and then sonicated and boiled in ultrapure water. All cell components were finally dried in Ar atmosphere at 100 °C for 16 hrs. The Mg electrodes (both reference and working electrodes) were polished in an Ar-filled glove box (MBraun LabStar, $O_2 < 0.5$ ppm; $H_2O < 1$ ppm) before use. The cell was assembled inside the glove box, then quickly filled with electrolyte. In addition, the Mg electrode was roughened immediately after electrolyte filling, using a sharp glass tip. The potential was controlled by a Solartron Analytical Modulab (Pstat 1MS/s) potentiostat. Cycling involved at least 25 and at maximum 100 cycles between 1.5 and -1.0 V vs. Mg/Mg²⁺ at 10 mV s⁻¹. The electrochemical measurements were always started with a potential step from the OCV to the upper potential limit, with a rest time of 60 s at that point before the CV was initiated with the cathodic

Computational Methods

Classical molecular dynamics (MD) simulations of MgTFSI₂ in BMP-TFSI in the presence and absence of 18-crown-6 were performed using the LAMMPS program package (version 17th of Nov, 2016), ^[69] employing the OPLSA-AA force field^[70] for Mg²⁺ and 18-crown-6 and the CL&P force field for the ionic liquid (BMP-TFSI). ^[71] In these simulations, the solvent was represented by 256 BMP-TFSI ion pairs. For selected compositions, clusters were cut from these simulations using the post-processing tool TRAVIS. ^[72,73] The cluster structures



were geometrically optimized to the local energy minimum using density functional theory (DFT) with the ORCA program package, [74] the BP86 functional [75,76] and def2-SVP[77] basis set with Grimme's D3 dispersion correction.^[78] Geometrical counterpoise (qCP) correction was applied to deal with the inter-molecular as well as intramolecular basis set superposition error (BSSE). [79] Tight SCF convergence criteria were applied in each geometry optimization. Solvent effects were considered via the MD simulation; furthermore, they were considered explicitly in the DFT calculations by BMP-TFSI ion pairs in the cluster and implicitly by the conductor-like polarizable continuum model (CPCM); [80] setting the dielectric constant to 14.7^[81] and the refractive index to 1.423.^[82] Note that, while electrostatic interactions are the dominant attractive force between Mg²⁺ and oxygen, covalent interactions may also contribute to this, leading to delocalization of electron density to the cation's empty 3s and 3p orbitals. Such effects are not included in our classical MD simulations, which serve as starting point, but are fully considered in the subsequent DFT optimizations. Cluster coordination energies and ligand binding energies were obtained by performing single-point calculations of isolated parts of the optimized clusters at the same level of theory, maintaining their frozen structure (see also Results – Simulation). Electron affinities E_A and the equilibrium potential for reduction $E_{\rm red}$ of the respective clusters were obtained by explicitly calculating the adiabatic energy difference between a cluster R and its reduced form R- (all geometry-optimized) via Equation (1):

$$E_{\mathsf{A}}(\mathsf{R}) = E(\mathsf{R}) - E(\mathsf{R}^{\scriptscriptstyle{-}}) \tag{1}$$

and Equation (2):

$$E_{\rm red}(R) = \frac{E_{\rm A}(R)}{nF} - E_{\rm ref} \tag{2}$$

where E(R) and $E(R^-)$ are the electronic energies of the solvated clusters, n is the number of exchanged electrons, F is the Faraday constant and E_{ref} is the reference potential calculated for Mg/Mg²⁺. This yields values very close to those obtained by via the thermodynamic cycle method. [64-67]

Acknowledgements

We would like to thank Dr. Markus Eckardt and Sascha Gehrke for their help with the electrochemical pre-tests and MD simulations, respectively. We gratefully acknowledge financial support by the German Federal Ministry of Education and Research (BMBF) in the project 03EK3051 C ('LuCaMag: Wege zu sekundären Mg/Ca–Luftbatterien') and by the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft under project BE 1201/22-1 ('Zn-Air Batteries') and ID 422053626 (POLiS Cluster of Excellence). This work contributes to the research performed at CELEST (Center for Electrochemical Energy Storage Ulm-Karlsruhe). Open access funding enabled and organized by Projekt DEAL.

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Keywords: magnesium batteries · magnesium · complexing additives · electrochemistry · quantum chemical calculations

- [1] P. Novák, F. Joho, R. Imhof, J. C. Panitz, O. Haas, J. Power Sources 1999, 81, 212–216.
- [2] D. Aurbach, Y. Gofer, A. Schechter, O. Chusid, H. Gizbar, Y. Cohen, M. Moshkovich, R. Turgeman, J. Power Sources 2001, 97, 269–273.
- [3] I. Shterenberg, M. Salama, Y. Gofer, E. Levi, D. Aurbach, MRS Bull. 2014, 39, 453–460.
- [4] R. Mohtadi, F. Mizuno, Beilstein J. Nanotechnol. 2014, 5, 1291.
- [5] C. B. Bucur, T. Gregory, A. G. Oliver, J. Muldoon, J. Phys. Chem. Lett. 2015, 6, 3578–3591.
- [6] Z. Zhao-Karger, M. Fichtner, MRS Commun. 2017, 7, 770-784.
- [7] N. N. Rajput, T. J. Seguin, B. M. Wood, X. Qu, K. A. Persson, *Top. Curr. Chem. (Z)* 2018, 376, 19.
- [8] M. Fichtner, Magnesium Batteries: Research and Applications, The Royal Society of Chemistry 2020; Chapter 1, pp. 1–16.
- [9] Z. Lu, A. Schechter, M. Moshkovich, D. Aurbach, J. Electroanal. Chem. 1999, 466, 203–217.
- [10] T. S. Arthur, P. A. Glans, N. Singh, O. Tutusaus, K. Nie, Y. S. Liu, F. Mizuno, J. Guo, D. H. Alsem, N. J. Salmon, R. Mohtadi, *Chem. Mater.* 2017, 29, 7183–7188
- [11] T. Gao, S. Hou, K. Huynh, F. Wang, N. Eidson, X. Fan, F. Han, C. Luo, M. Mao, X. Li, ACS Appl. Mater. Interfaces. 2018, 10, 14767–14776.
- [12] R. Lv, X. Guan, J. Zhang, Y. Xia, J. Luo, Nat. Sci. Rev. 2019, 7, 333-341.
- [13] J. H. Connor, W. E. Reid, G. B. Wood, J. Electrochem. Soc. 1957, 104, 38–41.
- [14] R. Mohtadi, M. Matsui, T. S. Arthur, S. J. Hwang, Angew. Chem. Int. Ed. 2012, 51, 9780–9783; Angew. Chem. 2012, 124, 9918–9921.
- [15] Y. Shao, T. Liu, G. Li, M. Gu, Z. Nie, M. Engelhard, J. Xiao, D. Lv, C. Wang, J. G. Zhang, Sci. Rep. 2013, 3, 3130.
- [16] M. Kar, Z. Ma, L. M. Azofra, K. Chen, M. Forsyth, D. R. MacFarlane, Chem. Commun. 2016, 52, 4033–4036.
- [17] T. Watkins, A. Kumar, D. A. Buttry, J. Am. Chem. Soc. 2016, 138, 641–650.
- [18] X. Gao, A. Mariani, S. Jeong, X. Liu, X. Dou, M. Ding, A. Moretti, S. Passerini, J. Power Sources 2019, 423, 52–59.
- [19] Z. Ma, M. Forsyth, D. R. MacFarlane, M. Kar, Green Energy & Environ. 2019, 4, 146–153; Environ. 2019, 4, 146–153.
- [20] F. Tuerxun, K. Yamamoto, M. Hattori, T. Mandai, K. Nakanishi, A. Choudhary, Y. Tateyama, K. Sodeyama, A. Nakao, T. Uchiyama, M. Matsui, K. Tsuruta, Y. Tamenori, K. Kanamura, Y. Uchimoto, ACS Appl. Mater. Interfaces 2020, 12, 25775–25785.
- [21] S. Y. Ha, Y. W. Lee, S. W. Woo, B. Koo, J. S. Kim, J. Cho, K. T. Lee, N. S. Choi, ACS Appl. Mater. Interfaces 2014, 6, 4063–4073.
- [22] C. J. Barile, R. Spatney, K. R. Zavadil, A. A. Gewirth, J. Phys. Chem. C 2014, 118, 10694–10699.
- [23] T. Fukutsuka, K. Asaka, A. Inoo, R. Yasui, K. Miyazaki, T. Abe, K. Nishio, Y. Uchimoto, Chem. Lett. 2014, 43, 1788–1790.
- [24] N. Sa, N. N. Rajput, H. Wang, B. Key, M. Ferrandon, V. Srinivasan, K. A. Persson, A. K. Burrell, J. T. Vaughey, RSC Adv. 2016, 6, 113663–113670.
- [25] S. Terada, T. Mandai, S. Suzuki, S. Tsuzuki, K. Watanabe, Y. Kamei, K. Ueno, K. Dokko, M. Watanabe, J. Phys. Chem. C 2016, 120, 1353–1365.
- [26] S. Hebié, F. Alloin, C. Iojoiu, R. Berthelot, J. C. Leprêtre, ACS Appl. Mater. Interfaces 2018, 10, 5527–5533.
- [27] S. J. Kang, H. Kim, S. Hwang, M. Jo, M. Jang, C. Park, S. T. Hong, H. Lee, ACS Appl. Mater. Interfaces 2018, 11, 517–524.
- [28] N. N. Rajput, X. Qu, N. Sa, A. K. Burrell, K. A. Persson, J. Am. Chem. Soc. 2015, 137, 3411–3420.
- [29] L. Lodovico, V. L. Martins, T. M. Benedetti, R. M. Torresi, J. Braz. Chem. Soc. 2014, 25, 460–468.
- [30] Z. Ma, M. Kar, C. Xiao, M. Forsyth, D. R. MacFarlane, *Electrochem. Commun.* 2017, 78, 29–32.
- [31] D. Aurbach, I. Weissman, Y. Gofer, E. Levi, *Chem. Rec.* **2003**, *3*, 61–73.
- [32] N. Amir, Y. Vestfrid, O. Chusid, Y. Gofer, D. Aurbach, J. Power Sources 2007, 174, 1234–1240.
- [33] J. Muldoon, C. B. Bucur, A. G. Oliver, T. Sugimoto, M. Matsui, H. S. Kim, G. D. Allred, J. Zajicek, Y. Kotani, Energy Environ. Sci. 2012, 5, 5941–5950.
- [34] J. Muldoon, C. B. Bucur, T. Gregory, Angew. Chem. Int. Ed. 2017, 56, 12064–12084; Angew. Chem. 2017, 129, 12232–12253.
- [35] R. Deivanayagam, B. J. Ingram, R. Shahbazian-Yassar, Energy Storage Mater. 2019, 21, 136–153.
- [36] J. Zhang, X. Yao, R. K. Misra, Q. Cai, Y. Zhao, J. Mater. Sci. Technol. 2020, 44, 237–257.



- [37] A. Lewandowski, A. Swiderska-Mocek, *J. Power Sources* **2009**, *194*, 601–
- [38] G. A. Giffin, J. Mater. Chem. A 2016, 4, 13378-13389.
- [39] G. T. Cheek, W. E. O'Grady, S. Z. El Abedin, E. M. Moustafa, F. Endres, J. Electrochem. Soc. 2008, 155, D91-D95.
- [40] O. Shimamura, N. Yoshimoto, M. Matsumoto, M. Egashia, M. Morita, J. Power Sources 2011, 196, 1586–1588.
- [41] D. Alwast, J. Schnaidt, K. Hancock, G. Yetis, R. J. Behm, ChemElectroChem 2019, 6, 3009–3019.
- [42] F. Sagane, K. Ogi, A. Konno, K. Kanamura, J. Electrochem. Soc. 2019, 166, A5054-A5058.
- [43] G. Vardar, A. E. S. Sleightholme, J. Naruse, H. Hiramatsu, D. J. Siegel, C. W. Monroe. ACS Appl. Mater. Interfaces 2014. 6, 18033–18039.
- [44] S. Su, Y. NuLi, N. Wang, D. Yusipu, J. Yang, J. L. Wang, *J. Electrochem.* Soc. **2016**, *163*, D682-D688.
- [45] H. Kuwata, M. Matsui, N. Imanishi, J. Electrochem. Soc. 2017, 164, A3229-A3236.
- [46] J. Z. Hu, N. R. Jaegers, Y. Chen, K. S. Han, H. Wang, V. Murugesan, K. T. Mueller, ACS Appl. Mater. Interfaces 2019, 11, 38689–38696.
- [47] T. Mandai, K. Tatesaka, K. Soh, H. Masu, A. Choudhary, Y. Tateyama, R. Ise, H. Imai, T. Takeguchi, K. Kanamura, Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys. 2019, 21, 12100–12111.
- [48] T. J. Seguin, N. T. Hahn, K. R. Zavadil, K. A. Persson, Front. Chem. 2019, 7, 175–175(13).
- [49] C. J. Pedersen, H. K. Frensdorff, Angew. Chem. Int. Ed. 1972, 11, 16–25; Angew. Chem. 1972, 84, 16–26.
- [50] F. Tuerxun, Y. Abulizi, Y. NuLi, S. Su, J. Yang, J. Wang, J. Power Sources 2015, 276, 255–261.
- [51] I. Shterenberg, M. Salama, H. D. Yoo, Y. Gofer, J. B. Park, Y. K. Sun, D. Aurbach, J. Electrochem. Soc. 2015, 162, A7118-A7128.
- [52] P. Canepa, G. S. Gautam, R. Malik, S. Jayaraman, Z. Rong, K. R. Zavadil, K. Persson, G. Ceder, Chem. Mater. 2015, 27, 3317–3325.
- [53] G. Giffin, A. Moretti, S. Jeong, S. Passerini, J. Phys. Chem. C 2014, 118, 9966–9973.
- [54] T. Watkins, D. A. Buttry, J. Phys. Chem. B 2015, 119, 7003-7014.
- [55] O. Tutusaus, R. Mohtadi, N. Singh, T. S. Arthur, F. Mizuno, ACS Energy Lett. 2017, 2, 224–229.
- [56] Y. Shao, N. N. Rajput, J. Hu, M. Hu, T. Liu, Z. Wei, M. Gu, X. Deng, S. Xu, K. S. Han, J. Wang, Z. Nie, G. Li, K. R. Zavadil, J. Xiao, C. Wang, W. A. Henderson, J. G. Zhang, Y. Wang, K. T. Mueller, K. Persson, J. Liu, *Nano Energy* 2015, 12, 750–759.
- [57] F. Sagane, K. Ogi, A. Konno, M. Egashira, K. Kanamura, J. Electrochem. Soc. 2016, 84, 76–78.
- [58] A. Kitada, Y. Kang, Y. Uchimoto, K. Murase, J. Electrochem. Soc. 2014, 161, D102-D106.

- [59] M. Matsui, J. Power Sources 2011, 196, 7048-7055.
- [60] P. Jankowski, J. M. García Lastra, T. Vegge, Batteries & Supercaps 2020, 3, 1350–1359; Supercaps 2020, 3, 1350–1359.
- [61] D. Samuel, C. Steinhauser, J. G. Smith, A. Kaufman, M. D. Radin, J. Naruse, H. Hiramatsu, D. J. Siegel, ACS Appl. Mater. Interfaces 2017, 9, 43755–43766
- [62] J. D. Deetz, F. Cao, Q. Wang, H. Sun, J. Electrochem. Soc. 2018, 165, A61-A70.
- [63] J. Z. Hu, N. N. Rajput, C. Wan, Y. Shao, X. Deng, N. R. Jaegers, M. Hu, Y. Chen, Y. Shin, J. Monk, Z. Chen, Z. Qin, K. T. Mueller, J. Liu, K. A. Persson, *Nano Energy* 2018, 46, 436–446.
- [64] O. Borodin, W. Behl, T. R. Jow, J. Phys. Chem. C 2013, 117, 8661-8682.
- [65] X. Qu, A. Jain, N. N. Rajput, L. Cheng, Y. Zhang, S. P. Ong, M. Brafman, E. Maginn, L. A. Curtiss, K. A. Persson, Comput. Mater. Sci. 2015, 103, 56–67.
- [66] S. Kazemiabnavi, Z. Zhang, K. Thornton, S. Banerjee, J. Phys. Chem. C 2016, 120, 5691–5702.
- [67] P. Peljo, H. H. Girault, Energy Environ. Sci. 2018, 11, 2306-2309.
- [68] Y. Yu, A. Baskin, C. Valero-Vidal, N. T. Hahn, Q. Liu, K. R. Zavadil, B. W. Eichhorn, D. Prendergast, E. J. Crumlin, Chem. Mater. 2017, 29, 8504–8512
- [69] S. Plimpton, J. Comput. Phys. 1995, 117, 1-19.
- [70] W. L. Jorgensen, D. S. Maxwell, J. Tirado-Rives, J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1996, 118, 11225–11236.
- [71] J. N. Canongia Lopes, A. A. H. Pádua, Theor. Chem. Acc. 2012, 131, 1129.
- [72] M. Brehm, B. Kirchner, J. Chem. Inf. Model. 2011, 51, 2007-2023.
- [73] M. Brehm, M. Thomas, S. Gehrke, B. Kirchner, J. Chem. Phys. 2020, 152, 164105-164105-21.
- [74] F. Neese, WIREs Comput. Mol. Sci. 2012, 2, 73-78.
- [75] J. P. Perdew, Phys. Rev. B 1986, 33, 8822-8824.
- [76] A. D. Becke, Phys. Rev. A 1988, 38, 3098-3100.
- [77] F. Weigend, R. Ahlrichs, Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys. 2005, 7, 3297–3305.
- [78] S. Grimme, J. Antony, S. Ehrlich, H. Krieg, J. Chem. Phys. 2010, 132, 154104.
- [79] H. Kruse, S. Grimme, J. Chem. Phys. 2012, 136, 154101.
- [80] V. Barone, M. Cossi, J. Phys. Chem. A 1998, 102, 1995-2001.
- [81] M. M. Huang, Y. Jiang, P. Sasisanker, G. W. Driver, H. Weingärtner, J. Chem. Eng. Data 2011, 56, 1494–1499.
- [82] A. B. Pereiro, H. I. M. Veiga, J. M. S. S. Esperança, A. Rodríguez, J. Chem. Thermodyn. 2009, 41, 1419–1423.

Manuscript received: November 22, 2020 Revised manuscript received: December 29, 2020 Accepted manuscript online: January 7, 2021