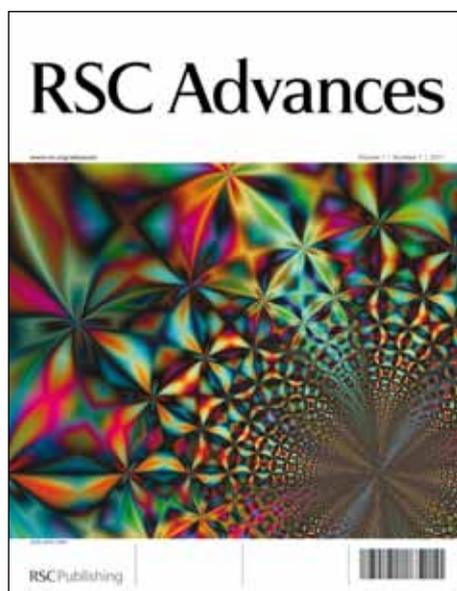


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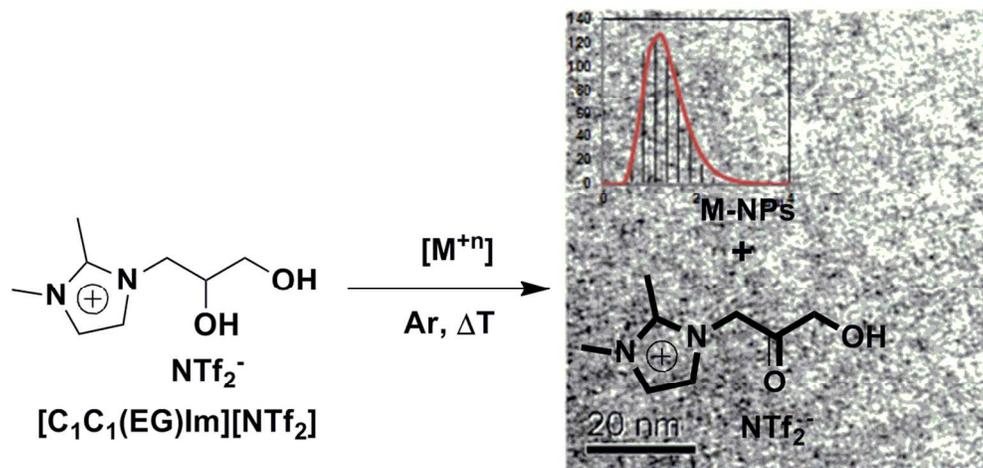
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Full Paper

Single step synthesis of metallic nanoparticles using dihydroxyl functionalized ionic liquids as reductive agent

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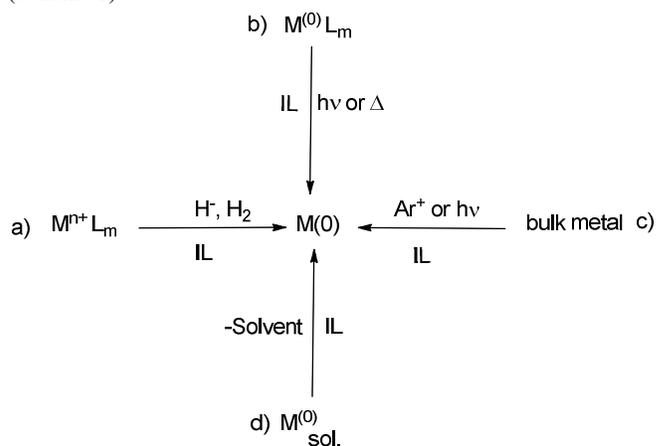
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In the last years, ionic liquids (ILs) have revealed their broad versatility for application towards the synthesis of shape and size controlled nanoscale metal catalysts, respectively metal(0) nanoparticles (M-NPs) in absence of additive ligand. ILs play the role of solvent and ligand. In our work, we depict the synthesis of M-NPs (M = Cu, Ag, Ni, Ru) using dihydroxyl functionalized imidazolium ILs 1-(2,3-dihydroxypropyl)-2,3-dimethylimidazolium bis(trifluoromethanesulfonimide) [C₁C₁(EG)Im][NTf₂] as simultaneously solvent, stabilizer and reductive agent. In this IL the formation of stable dispersion of NPs from silver and copper salts in the absence of any reducing agent has been observed. The comparison of the ¹³C-NMR, and IR data of pure IL and IL-NP (Cu and Ag) suspensions proved the oxidation of the hydroxyl group to a carbonyl group, confirming that the dihydroxyl function of the IL acted as the reducing agent. This oxido-reduction depends on the nature of metal. No reaction occurred with Ni^{II} and Ru⁰ precursors, and with Ru^{II} and Ni⁰ salts the formation of M-NPs is due to the activation of the acidic protons on the imidazolium ring. The Ru-NPs were then further evaluated for selective partial hydrogenation, here we observed good selectivities for α,β-unsaturated compounds such cyclohexenone and cinnamic aldehyde, which can be converted exclusively into the unsaturated alcohols or saturated alcohols.

Introduction

The progress in the comprehension of metallic nanoparticles (NPs) is a central aspect due to their great potential in the development of new and innovative materials for applications in areas such as catalysis or microelectronics.¹⁻¹¹ Their small sizes, generally reported between 1 and 100 nm, lead to unique physico-chemical properties between the bulk and molecular states, which vary greatly with small changes in NP size. For example, the catalytic properties of NPs are largely determined by the energy of the surface atoms, in turn controlled by the number of neighbouring atoms, dictated by their size, as well as the presence and nature of ligands or supports.¹²⁻¹⁶ Particles less than 10 nm in diameter are particularly interesting in catalysis, due to their high surface to volume ratio, and are also greatly influenced by the aforementioned size-effect.^{17, 18} To prevent aggregation, NPs must be stabilized by the use of capping agents such as (water-soluble) polymers, quaternary ammonium salts, surfactants, ligands or polyoxoanions, providing electronic and/or steric protection.^{19, 20} In this context, ionic liquids (ILs), defined as low temperature molten salts, have emerged as one of the most important and the most investigated media for the synthesis of metal NPs.²¹⁻²⁴ Moreover, an advantage of using ILs is that stabilizing additives such as ligands, polymers and supports are not required.²³ The soluble transition-metal NPs are *in situ*

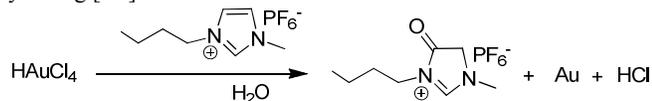
generated in ILs mainly from the following routes a) simple reduction of M⁽ⁿ⁺⁾ salts, b) decomposition of the organometallic complexes in the formal zero oxidation state, c) bombardment of bulk metal precursors with deposition onto the ILs and d) phase transfer of pre-formed NPs in water or organic solvents to the IL (Scheme 1).²³



Scheme 1: General methods used to prepare metal NPs in ILs.

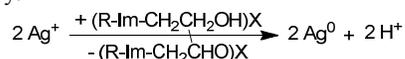
In general, appropriate metal complexes or metal salts are

dispersed / dissolved in the ILs and subsequently reduced to the corresponding M-NPs, in the ubiquitous presences such as molecular dihydrogen gas,²⁵ ethylene glycol,²⁶ ascorbic acid,²⁷ hydrazine,²⁸ and disulfide.²⁹ In some cases, the IL has been claimed to be the reducing agent.³⁰⁻³² However, in certain cases, an aqueous solution of ILs was used. For instance, the formation of Au⁰ microprisms in 1-butyl-3-methylimidazolium hexafluorophosphate in the presence of water has been explained by an oxido-reduction reaction consuming the IL (Scheme 2) and yielding [Cl⁻] anions in the media.



Scheme 2: The formation of Au⁰ microprisms in 1-butyl-3-methylimidazolium hexafluorophosphate in the presence of water.³⁰

In water, using halide salts of mono and di-hydroxyl ILs as surfactants, a suspension of narrow size Ag⁰-NPs (means size 2 or 4 nm following the IL) stabilized by the hydroxyl groups has been obtained using AgNO₃ as metal source (Scheme 3).³¹ The oxidation of the OH-group to the corresponding aldehyde during the reduction of Ag^I into Ag⁰ has been evidenced by IR spectroscopy.



Scheme 3: Preparation of Ag NPs using the hydroxyl group linked to the imidazolium cation as reducing agents.³¹

Pointing out that the particle size control can also be influenced by dissolved halides, especially in aqueous solutions of ILs. For instance, [Cl⁻] anions and water may coordinate onto the metal surface, acting as extra-stabilizers, but also influencing the nanoparticle properties (optical, magnetic and catalytic).³³

Contrary, in our previous studies using neat anhydrous alkyl imidazolium IL like [C₁C_nImNTf₂] (n = 4 and 6) as reaction media under argon, the formation of Ru⁰-NPs and Ni⁰-NPs by reduction of bis(2-methylallyl)(1,5-cyclooctadiene) ruthenium [Ru^{II}(Me-allyl)₂(COD)], respectively auto-decomposition of bis(η⁴-1,5-cyclooctadiene)nickel [Ni⁰(COD)₂] have been observed.³² These methods afforded small-sized and mono-dispersed Ru-NPs (1-3 nm; mean diameter: 2.0±0.3 nm) and for Ni-NPs a broader size distribution (2-12 nm; mean diameter: 7.0±2.0 nm and higher agglomeration).

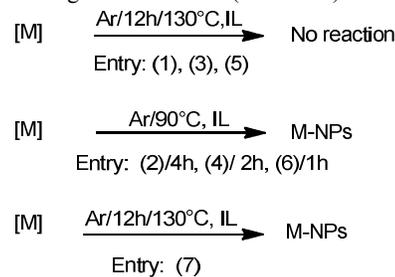
Generally, the NP formation in solution depends on three key factors (i) the solvent medium, (ii) the reducing agent, and (iii) the stabilizer. ILs are largely depicted as solvent and stabilizer for NPs and are scarcely used as a reducing agent. In this work, we report, that an anhydrous dihydroxyl functionalized imidazolium IL, namely 1-(2,3-dihydroxypropyl)-2,3-dimethylimidazolium bis(trifluoromethanesulfonimide) ([C₁C₁(EG)Im][NTf₂]) based on a building block derived from abundant biomass namely glycerine, conjuncts these three roles: solvent, stabilizer, surface modifier and reductant in the *in situ* synthesis of NPs.

The role as metal nanoparticle surface modifier we have investigated in particular regarding the partial hydrogenation of organic substrates with ruthenium nanoparticles. In previous

works we reported that functional groups in the moieties of ionic liquid side-chain show significant influence towards the selectivity while using Ru-NPs as hydrogenation catalyst for arene versus nitrile entities.³⁸⁻³⁹ There, we showed that nitriles completely suppress the usual occurring arene hydrogenation.

Results and Discussion

In order to prove the specific reactivity of [C₁C₁(EG)Im][NTf₂], the thermal stability of all chosen metal precursors (Table 1) in this IL under argon have also been studied in [C₁C₄Im][NTf₂]. Each precursor has been successively heated in IL under argon until a colour change was observed (Scheme 4).



Scheme 4: General overview for the decomposition/reduction of metal precursors in [C₁C₁(EG)Im][NTf₂] at the applied reaction temperatures and durations (refer Table 1)

Experiments with AgNO₃, CuMes, anhydrous CuSO₄ and Ru(COD)(COT) in [C₁C₄Im][NTf₂] showed no reaction. In contrast Ru(Me-allyl)₂(COD) and Ni(COD)₂ already decompose at low temperature.³² In [C₁C₁(EG)Im][NTf₂] no reactions were observed with anhydrous CuSO₄, Ru(COD)(COT) and Ni(NTf₂)₂ after stirring overnight at 130 °C, neither colour changes of the solutions were visible, nor NPs could be located in TEM images (Table 1, Entries 1, 3, 5). In [C₁C₁(EG)Im][NTf₂], Ru(Me-allyl)₂(COD), Ni(COD)₂ and AgNO₃ led to NPs at 90 °C in 1, 2 and 4 h, respectively (Table 1, Entries 2, 4, 6). The formation of Cu-NPs in [C₁C₁(EG)Im][NTf₂] from mesityl copper (CuMes) was observed after 12 h at 130 °C (Table 1, Entry 7). All results with the corresponding mean diameters are listed in Table 1.

Table 1: Experimental conditions and the mean sizes of the M-NPs formed in [C₁C₁(EG)Im][NTf₂] under argon

Entry	Metal Source [M] ^a	t[h]/T[°C]	NP size (nm)
1	CuSO ₄	12 h/130 °C	n.r.*
2	AgNO ₃	4 h/90 °C	4.7± 0.8nm
3	Ru(COD)(COT)	12 h/130 °C	n.r.*
4	Ni(COD) ₂	2 h/90 °C	3.5 ± 0.5nm
5	Ni(NTf ₂) ₂	12 h/130 °C	n.r.*
6	Ru(COD)(Me-allyl) ₂	1 h/90 °C	6.9 ± 1.3nm
7	CuMes	12 h/130 °C	5.7 ± 0.8nm

^a[C] 0.01 M of metal precursor in 1.5 ml of [C₁C₁(EG)Im][NTf₂], n.r.*= no reaction.

Silver Nanoparticle Synthesis:

Silver nitrate is reduced in aqueous mono- and dihydroxyl functionalized imidazolium ionic liquid within in 2 h at 60°C, the generated Ag-NPs show sizes of 4-8 nm and 2-4 nm, respectively.³¹ The presence of dihydroxyl functional group induces probably a higher size control. In our experimental conditions, (Table 1, Entry 2: 2 h at 90 °C in neat [C₁C₁(EG)Im][NTf₂]) the Ag-NP were formed with a mean size about 4.7 ± 0.8nm (Figure 1) for 90% of the NP population and at ca. 10 nm for 10 %. The structure of individual particles was investigated using HRTEM, Figure 1. The interplanar distance measured from this micrograph is 0.2295nm (table 2), corresponding to the (101) interplanar distance of hexagonal metallic Ag.

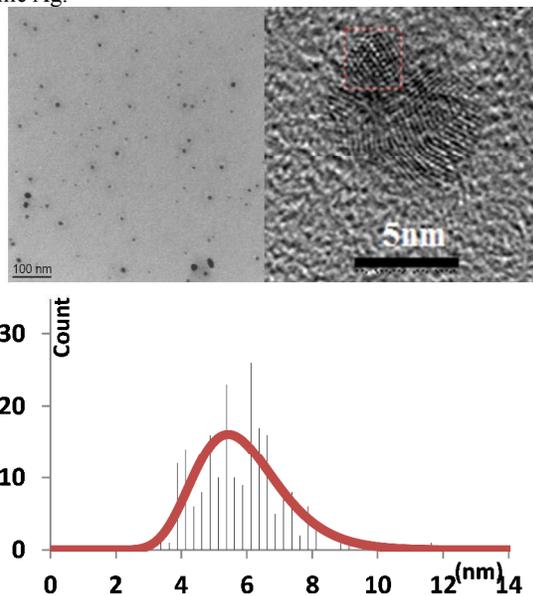


Figure 1: TEM and HRTEM images of Ag-NPs in [C₁C₁(EG)Im][NTf₂] and their particles size distribution

Table 2: Theoretical[‡] (JCPD 04-016-1388) and experimental interplanar distances (nm), and angles[°] for AgNPs

spot	hkl	d(exp) nm	d(theo) nm	Angle (exp)	Angle (theo)
1	101	0.2295	0.224270	0	0
2	011	0.2466	0.224270	50.29	52.44
3	-110	0.2529	0.224270	119.67	116.22

FT-IR spectroscopy was used to investigate the interactions between different species and changes in chemical composition of the mixtures. Figure 2 shows the FT-IR spectra of pure [C₁C₁(EG)Im][NTf₂] (b), and of the reaction media after the formation of Ag-NPs (a). In the IR spectra of the neat [C₁C₁(EG)Im][NTf₂], a broad peak of (3220-3720) cm⁻¹ centred at 3504 cm⁻¹ and peaks at 1530 cm⁻¹ and 1590 cm⁻¹ are related to the hydroxyl function. In the IR spectra of the Ag-NP suspensions, all these bands are less wide and changed from (3220-3720 cm⁻¹) to (3500-3600 cm⁻¹) and are centred at 3525 cm⁻¹ and a new peak is observed at 1645 cm⁻¹ assigned to the vibration of conjugated carbonyl groups resulting from the oxidation of the OH-group, during the reduction of metal ions (Figure 2 and Scheme 5). The formation of this carbonyl function is also confirmed by the peak at 205 ppm assigned to a δ_{C=O} in

the ¹³C NMR spectra of the Ag-NP suspension (Figure 3).

Copper Nanoparticle Synthesis:

The decomposition of mesityl-copper (CuMes) in [C₁C₁(EG)Im][NTf₂] at 130 °C within 12 h yielded well dispersed Cu-NPs with a mean size around 5.7 nm (Figure 4). While, CuMes in [C₁C₄Im][NTf₂] under 0.9 MPa of H₂ resulted in Cu-NPs with a size distribution centred around 6.4 nm at 30 °C, respectively 4.5 nm at 100 °C reaction temperatures.⁴

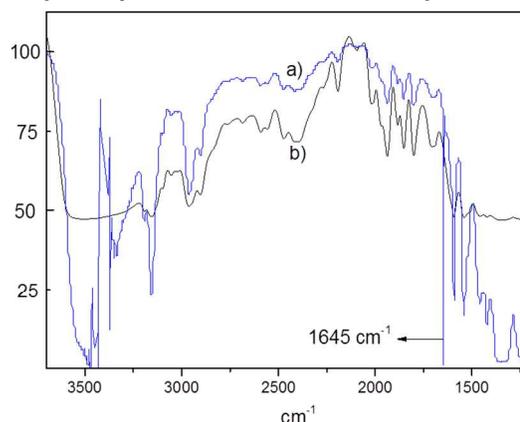


Figure 2 FT-IR spectra of suspension of (a) Ag-NPs in [C₁C₁(EG)Im][NTf₂] after reaction (b) pure [C₁C₁(EG)Im][NTf₂]

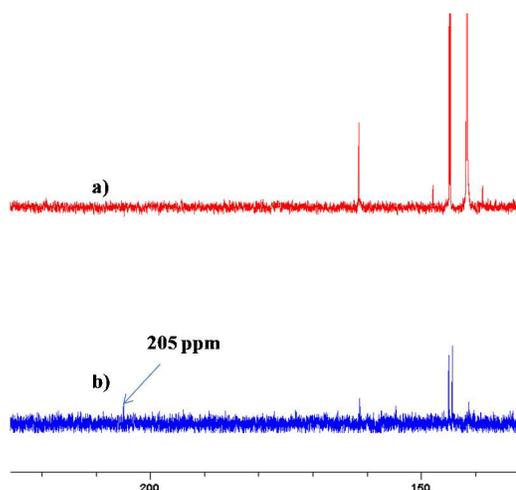
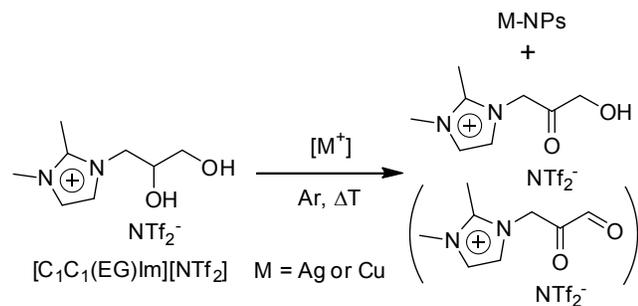


Figure 3: ¹³C NMR spectra a) pure [C₁C₁(EG)Im][NTf₂]; b) suspension of Ag-NPs in [C₁C₁(EG)Im][NTf₂]

Note that no reaction occurs with CuSO₄ in [C₁C₁(EG)Im][NTf₂] whatever the experimental conditions are. Contrarily, Cu-NPs are formed using this salt in C₁C₄ImBF₄ in the presence of hydrazine as a reducing agent and ethylene glycol playing the role as ligand.²⁸ The comparison of the FT-IR spectra of the Cu-NP suspension in [C₁C₁(EG)Im][NTf₂] (Figure S1a) and the pure [C₁C₁(EG)Im][NTf₂] (Figure S1b) shows the presence of stretching peaks at 1645 cm⁻¹ corresponding to a carbonyl group vibration, similar to the Ag-NPs synthesis (see above).

With AgNO₃ and CuMes an oxidation of one of the hydroxyl to carbonyl function was observed affording Ag-NPs and Cu-NPs, following the oxido-reduction mechanism depicted in Scheme 5.

The interplanar distance measured from this micrograph is 0.2012 nm (table 3), which coincides with the (1 1 1) interplanar distance of cubic metallic Cu.



Scheme 5: Proposed oxido-reduction mechanism

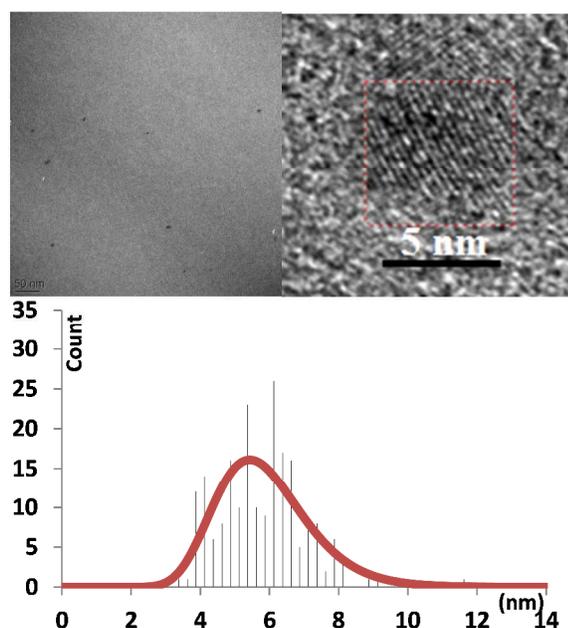


Figure 4 : TEM and HRTEM images of Cu-NPs in $[C_1C_1(EG)Im][NTf_2]$ and their particles size distribution

Table 3 : Theoretical[‡] (JCPD 04-001-3342) and experimental interplanar distances (nm) and angles of CuNPs

spot	hkl	d(exp) nm	d(theo) nm	Angle (exp)	Angle(theo)
1	1 1 1	0.2012	0.2087240	0	0
2	2 0 0	0.1753	0.1807600	90.11	90
3	2 2 0	0.1344	0.1278170	42.90	45

Nickel Nanoparticle Synthesis:

An auto-decomposition of the organometallic complex $Ni(COD)_2$ is observed affording nickel nanoparticles NiNPs in neat $[C_1C_4Im][NTf_2]$ at room temperature under argon. This occurs via a C-H insertion at the acidic C_2 -position of the imidazolium ring and the formation of N-heterocyclic carbenes.³² To overcome this side reaction, we have used $[C_1C_1(EG)Im][NTf_2]$ substituted

with a methyl group at the C_2 -position. When $Ni(COD)_2$ was dissolved in $[C_1C_1(EG)Im][NTf_2]$ under argon, no reaction was observed at room temperature. At 90 °C after 2 h, a homogeneous suspension of Ni-NPs was obtained with a narrow size distribution centred around 3.5 ± 0.5 nm (Figure 5).

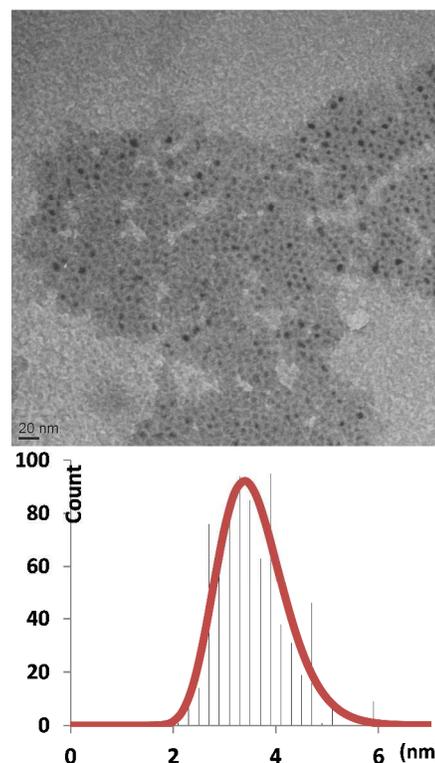


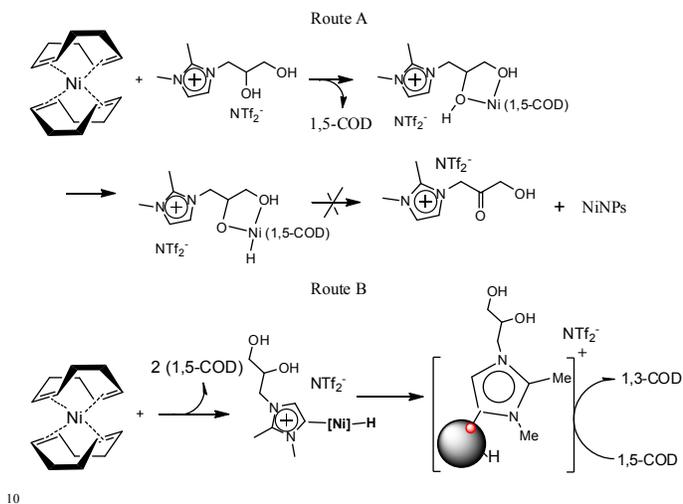
Figure 5 : TEM image of Ni-NPs in $[C_1C_1(EG)Im][NTf_2]$ and particles size distribution

The analysis of the resulting solution by gas chromatography showed as major product cycloocta-1,5-diene (1,5-COD), accompanied by its isomer cycloocta-1,3-diene (1,3-COD) and cyclooctene and traces of cyclooctane (Figure S2). The presence of large amount of 1,5-COD could be explained by a ligand exchange with a diol functionality. Following Route A (Scheme 6), the formation of $Ni^{II}-H$ is necessary to explain the isomerization of 1,5-COD into 1,3-COD. But, Ni^{II} salt are not reduced to Ni-NPs, in this media, *vide supra*, thus Route A (Scheme 6) could not explain the experimental results. Consequently the decomposition can only be explained by C-H insertion at the less acidic C_4 -H, C_5 -H positions of the imidazolium ring and generation of transitory non-classical NHC ligands; Route B in Scheme 6.^{32,34}

Ruthenium Nanoparticle Synthesis:

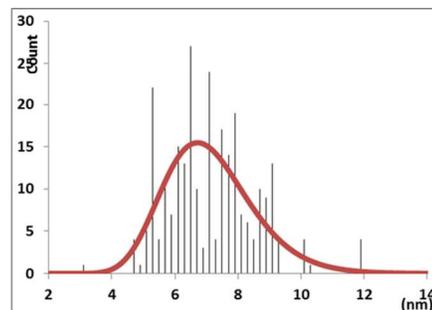
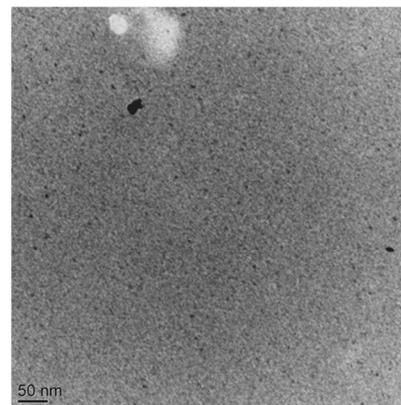
While $Ru(COD)(COT)$ under H_2 since 0 °C readily affords Ru-NPs in any ILs; contrarily, in $[C_1C_1(EG)Im][NTf_2]$ under argon, as well in $[C_1C_4Im][NTf_2]$ no Ru-NPs are observed. In $[C_1C_4Im][NTf_2]$, $Ru(Me-allyl)_2(COD)$ is readily decomposed at room temperature after prolonged reaction time (Scheme S1).³² In $[C_1C_1(EG)Im][NTf_2]$, Ru-NPs were formed at 90°C after 1h,

leading to a broader size distribution (6.9 ± 1.3 nm; Figure 6; Figure S3). These NP could result from a decomposition as already reported,³² through an oxido-reductive reaction as observed with Cu and Ag precursors or by the attack on the two acidic protons C₄-H, C₅-H as observed with Ni(COD)₂. No difference was observed between the FT-IR and ¹³C NMR spectra of the media before and after reaction (Figure S4).



Scheme 6 : Possible mechanism to explain the formation of Ni-NPs in [C₁C₁(EG)Im][NTf₂].³²

The gas chromatogram of the reaction media was similar to the one obtained with Ni(COD)₂ (Figure S5) due to ligand loss. Consequently, as for [Ni(COD)₂], the formation of M-NPs from [Ru(COD)(2-methylallyl)]₂, was probably due to the activation of the acidic protons on the imidazolium ring.³² However, in [C₁C₁(EG)Im][NTf₂], the formation Ru-NPs differs to those previously reported in non-functionalized ILs such as [C₁C₄Im][NTf₂] because contrary in [C₁C₁(EG)Im][NTf₂] no imidazolium ring fragmentation was observed during the reaction of the ruthenium precursor with the IL.³²



25 Figure 6 : TEM image of Ag-NPs in [C₁C₁(EG)Im][NTf₂] and particles size distribution

Catalytic Hydrogenation with Ruthenium Nanoparticles:

For further evaluation of the properties of the ruthenium nanoparticles we tested their catalytic activity for hydrogenation of different unsaturated substrates with arene, carbonyl and alkene functionalities (Table 4). Moreover, recycling experiments were performed for two aromatic substrates (Figure 7).

For the study of nanoscale catalysts, one important factor is the surface to volume ratio of the particles. Of course one cannot exclude partial aggregation of the nanoparticles, and even topology changes,²³ but the metal atoms located on the surface are accessible to interact with substrates, hence are potentially catalytically active. For the calculation of the amount of surface atoms on a nanoparticle, we estimated the volume of a spherical particle with a mean diameter of 6.9 nm. This diameter corresponds to a particle volume of 172.0 nm³ consisting of approx. 11862 atoms. According to the magic numbers methodology as convenient tool for the evaluation of cluster formation,³⁵⁻³⁷ the number of shells is 16 and this corresponds to ~18 % surface atoms which are potentially active for heterogeneous catalysed reactions such as arene hydrogenation. The surface to volume ratio was used to determine the substrate catalyst ratio and TONs for the hydrogenation reactions. The Ru-NPs dispersions in ILs are stable in presence of other solvents. Therefore these IL-phases are interesting for their application in multiphase catalysis.

The hydrogenation of toluene (Table 4; Entry 1-2) only occurred at higher pressure. This stays in contrast to previous studies with unfunctionalised ILs like [C₁C₄Im][NTf₂] where hydrogenation already occurred in high conversions at H₂ pressures as low as 4 bar.^{32, 38} This observation can be related to two properties of this

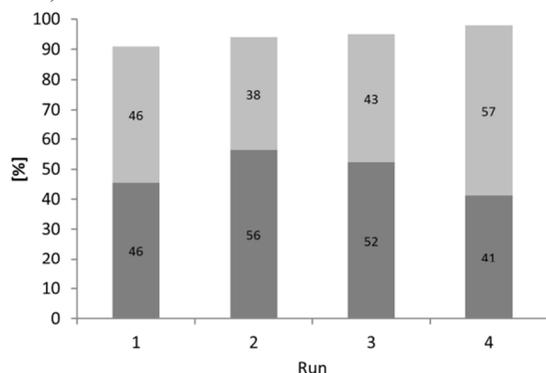
IL: (I) The gas solubility depends on the viscosity of the IL, as $[C_1C_1(EG)Im][NTf_2]$ is a highly viscous material, higher pressures are necessary to guarantee significant amounts in the IL-phase of dissolved hydrogen. (II) Functional groups linked to the IL may act as ligands on the metal surface, and these ligands may hinder the coordination of the substrate, thus suppressing the hydrogenation of arenes, but still allowing the hydrogenation of functional groups via ligand-exchange on the surface.³⁹ At higher pressure (40 bars) toluene was completely converted into methylcyclohexane in five runs with a total TON of $>>2600$, this proves the capability for recycling without significant loss of activity (Entry 2).

Table 4: Hydrogenation of different substrates with RuNPs.

Entry	Substrate ^a	t [h]	p (bar) ^a	conv. [%] ^b	TON	product selectivity ^b
1	toluene 1	24	4	0	0	-
2	toluene 1	24	40	>99	2640 ^c	-
3	acetophenone 2	24	15	91 ^d	1847 ^c	50:50 ^d (6 : 7)
4	cinnamic aldehyde 5	24	15	>99	438	100 (8)
5	cinnamic aldehyde 5	4	15	56	245	100 (9)
6	cyclohexene 3	20	15	>99	550	-
7	cyclohexen-2-one 4	24	15	>99	572	100 (10)
8	cyclohexen-2-one 4	3	15	>99	572	100 (11)

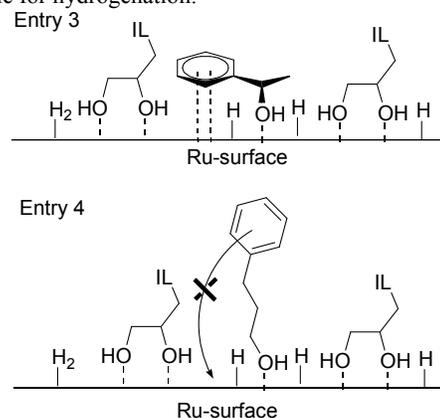
^a 1 mL (7.9-10.3 mmol); reaction temp. = 75 °C; ^b determined by ¹H-NMR. ^c in all five runs. ^dfirst run. ^etotal TON of 5 (toluene) or 4 (acetophenone) runs. 1,1-phenylethanol **6**; 1,1-cyclohexylethanol **7**; 3-phenylpropanol **8**, 3-phenylpropanal **9**, cyclohexanol **10**, cyclohexanone **11**

For proving the chemo-selectivity of the catalyst phase, hence to distinguish between a suppressed hydrogenation due to gas solubility/IL-viscosity or ligand-like poisoning of the surface (see above), we used acetophenone **2** as model substrate (Table 4; Entry 3). Here, we obtained a mixture of 1-phenylethanol **6** and 1-cyclohexylethanol **7** in a ~1:1 ratio after 24 h in high conversions (91 %; Entry 3). This ratio undergoes a variation in four subsequent runs during the recycling of the catalyst phase (Figure 7).

Figure 7: Hydrogenation of acetophenone **2** in recycling runs, yielding 1-phenylethanol **8** (dark grey) and 1-cyclohexylethanol **9** (light grey)

However, one could say that there is no significant chemo-selectivity for the hydrogenation of the arene moiety and the ketone. This implies that in this certain case there is no blocking of the catalyst surface by the diol of $[C_1C_1(EG)Im][NTf_2]$ as surface ligand.³⁹ Indeed, the intermediate 1-phenylethanol **8** can

still coordinate as O-ligand onto the surface via ligand exchange (substrate vs. IL) which also brings the arene moiety close to the surface, hence accessible for hydrogenation (Table 4, Entry 3; Figure 8). Interestingly and contrary, the hydrogenation of cinnamic aldehyde gives under similar conditions selectively 3-phenylpropanol at high conversions (Entry 4; >99%), respectively 3-phenylpropanal **9** at moderate conversions (Entry 5; 56%). The aldehyde and olefin are hydrogenated subsequently and can be kinetically distinguished, but the arene remains untouched. This is again most likely due to steric aspects. During the coordination onto the surface via the oxygen, the propyl-chain acts as a spacer and the arene moiety is not accessible for hydrogenation (Figure 9). Furthermore, we tried then to distinguish between an olefin and ketone in a hydrogenation. The hydrogenation of cyclohexene gave also quantitative conversion within one hour (Table 4; Entry 6). Following, we used cyclohexen-2-one **4** which is also selectively converted into cyclohexanol **10** in high conversions (Table 2; Entry 7; >99%) and at shorter reaction times cyclohexanone **11** is formed exclusively. Again both double bonds can be hydrogenated, similar to Entry 4, and a kinetic distinction is possible with high selectivity for the partially and fully hydrogenated products. This shows that the tested catalytic system hydrogenate olefins and aldehydes/ketones with kinetic selectivity. Arene hydrogenation occurs effectively in absence of functional groups (Entry 1-2), but it is slightly hindered already in presence of a neighbouring functional group (Entry 3), and it can be fully blocked while incorporating a functional group via a spacer (Entry 4) leading to a suppression of the arene coordination, hence, the arene moiety is not accessible for hydrogenation.

Figure 8: Model for the coordination of intermediates/products during the hydrogenation in presence of $[C_1C_1(EG)Im][NTf_2]$.

Experimental

All operations were performed in the strict absence of oxygen and water under a purified argon atmosphere using glovebox (Jacomex or MBraun) or vacuum-line techniques if not otherwise indicated. *Materials*: Mesitylcopper Cu-Mes (Nanomeps, 97%), Bis(η^3 -2-methylallyl)(η^4 -1,5-cyclooctadiene)ruthenium Ru(Meallyl)₂(COD) (Strem, 97%), bis(η^4 -1,5-cyclooctadiene) nickel Ni(COD)₂ (Strem), bis(trifluoromethylsulfonyl)nickel Ni(NTf₂)₂ (Solvionic), Silver nitrate (AgNO₃) (ACS reagent, $\geq 99.0\%$) and Copper sulfate (CuSO₄) (Sigma-Aldrich) were used without further purification. (η^4 -1,5-cyclooctadiene)(η^6 -1,3,5-

cyclooctatriene) ruthenium(0) Ru(COD)(COT), 1-butyl-3-methylimidazolium bis(trifluoromethane -sulfonimide), [C₁C₄Im][NTf₂] and 1-(2,3-dihydroxypropyl)-2,3-dimethylimidazolium bis(trifluoromethanesulfonimide), [C₁C₁(EG)Im][NTf₂] have been prepared as described in literature.⁴⁰⁻⁴²

General procedure for the nanoparticle synthesis:

In 1.5ml of [C₁C₄Im][NTf₂] or [C₁C₁(EG)Im][NTf₂] with a concentration of 0.01 M metallic salt or organometallic precursor were mixed, then the reaction media was kept under stirring overnight. At this step if no NP formation occurred, the temperature was maintained, until a colour change appeared, successively 2 h at 90 °C, then 4 h at 110 °C, and finally 130 °C for 12 h under argon atmosphere. No reaction was claimed, when after overnight at 130 °C, no colour change and no NPs in TEM images were observed. The reaction time and the results of these experiments are depicted in Table 1.

General procedure for the hydrogenation reactions:

1 mL of an unsaturated substrate (see Table 2) was added to ruthenium nanoparticles in [C₁C₁(EG)Im][NTf₂] (see above; 1 mL IL) on air in a screw-capped vial with a septa and needle. The vial was placed in a stainless reactor and heated to 75 °C and pressurised with hydrogen (pressure see Table 2). After the indicated reaction time (Table 2), the autoclave was cooled to room temperature, the pressure was carefully released and an aliquot was analysed by ¹H-NMR in C₆D₆.

For the recycling, the IL-layer was extracted with pentane or ether (at least three times), the catalyst-/IL-phase was dried under reduced pressure and then the pure catalyst-/IL-phase was charged with substrate again.

Characterization:

The UV-Vis absorption spectra of the NP dispersions were recorded on a Unicowfz UV-2000 spectrophotometer. The Cu-, Ni-, Ru- and Ag-Np sizes were determined by transmission electron microscopy (TEM) on a Philips CM120 (120 keV), and the structure of the nanoparticles were examined using a Jeol-2010 transmission electron microscope (TEM) operated at a 200 KV acceleration voltage. TEM and HRTEM samples were prepared by dropping the IL solution onto a copper TEM grid with amorphous carbon over layers, followed by the removal of excess amounts of solution with filter paper. The preparation is stored in pill-box filled with argon and taken from the glove box only right before the analysis. ¹H- and ¹³C-NMR spectra were recorded on a 300 MHz Bruker, with C₆D₆, CD₂Cl₂ or d₆-DMSO as external reference.

Conclusions

In unfunctionalized C₁C₄ImNTf₂ no formation of NP was observed under heating in absence of a reductive agent with Ag¹NO₃, Cu¹SO₄, Cu¹Mes, Ni¹¹(NTf₂)₂, and Ru⁰(COD)(COT). In the dihydroxyl IL C₁C₁(EG)ImNTf₂ the synthesis of MNPs (M = Cu, Ag,) from Ag¹NO₃ and Cu¹Mes occurred through the oxidation of hydroxyl functionality. With Ni⁰(COD)₂ and [Ru¹¹(COD)(2-methylallyl)₂], Ni-NPs and Ru-NPs were formed due to the activation of the acidic protons on the imidazolium

ring. For all these *in situ* NP syntheses the [C₁C₁(EG)Im][NTf₂] is simultaneously solvent, stabilizer and reductive agent. The catalytic hydrogenation with Ru nanoparticles in [C₁C₁(EG)Im][NTf₂] showed that it is possible to hydrogenate effectively arenes only in absence of functional groups. And, the arene hydrogenation is completely blocked by incorporation of a functional group via a spacer. In this case only alkenes and aldehydes are accessible for hydrogenation via a ligand exchange reaction. Pointing out, that hydrogenation of alkenes is possible while aldehydes and ketones remain untouched

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