Three-dimensional superconductivity induced by an extremely small amount of Li in Li_xSnSe₂

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Unconventional superconductivity occurs often in materials with low dimensionality. Here, we report superconductivity observed in layered Li_xSnSe₂ with the superconducting transition temperature $T_c \sim 6$ K. Through Li⁺ intercalation in semiconducting SnSe₂ via electrochemical process, Li_xSnSe₂ is formed with an extremely small x value as estimated from the *c*-axis lattice parameter, carrier concentration, and first-principles calculations. Electrical resistivity and magnetic susceptibility measurements allow the construction of both lower (H_{c1}^{ab}) and upper critical field (H_{c2}^{ab} and H_{c2}^{c}) phase diagrams. While H_{c2}^{c} obtained from 10% and 50% resistivity drops exhibits linear temperature dependence, H_{c2}^{c} (90% resistivity drop), H_{c1}^{ab} , and H_{c2}^{ab} can be described by the empirical formula $H_{ci}(T) = H_{ci}(0)[1 - (\frac{T}{T_{c0}})^2]$ (i = 1, 2), giving $H_{c2}^{c}(0) = 754$ Oe, $H_{c1}^{ab}(0) = 27$ Oe, and $H_{c2}^{ab}(0) =$ 1652 Oe. Using the Ginzburg-Landau formula, we further estimate that the *c*-axis penetration depth $\lambda_c(0) =$ 396 nm and the coherence length anisotropy $\xi_{ab}(0) = 66.1$ nm and $\xi_c(0) = 30.3$ nm. The fact that $\xi_c(0)$ is much longer than the interlayer separation implies three-dimensional superconductivity with superconducting anisotropy $\xi_{ab}(0)/\xi_c(0) \sim 2.2$.

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I. INTRODUCTION

Superconductivity has been a forefront subject of Condensed Matter Physics for over a century. Superconductors with layered structures are of particular interest due to the variety of unconventional characteristics such as high superconducting transition temperature (T_c) , structure manipulation, and interplay between superconductivity and magnetism. For example, cuprate superconductors have critical temperatures much higher than those predicted by the Bardeen-Cooper-Schrieffer (BCS) theory [1]. Infinite layer nickelates and Fe-based superconductors have unique magnetic interplay via competition between the superconducting state and long-range magnetic ordering [2,3]. Twisted bilayer graphene with rotational offsetting of the layers induces superconductivity [4]. The recent discovery of high- T_c superconductivity in $La_{n+1}Ni_nO_{3n+1}$ (n = 2 and 3) under pressure generates further excitement in this subject [5,6].

Superconductivity in layered materials is mostly obtained via chemical doping through high temperature synthesis or the application of external pressure [1–6]. A much less popular approach is through intercalation under ambient condition, which typically expands the interlayer spacing. This technique allows one to insert atoms or molecules within or between the layers of a host material. For example, the insertion of a H₂O molecule into Na_{0.3}CoO₂ results in superconductivity with $T_c \sim 5$ K and more than doubled interlayer spacing [7,8]. In the conventional wisdom, the enhanced two dimensionality in such a system favors the formation of superconductivity with possible unconventional pairing mechanisms including d-, p-, and f-wave symmetries [9–12]. While similar pairing symmetries are proposed for superconducting $Li_x SnSe_2$ [13,14], there is no clear trend on the relationship between superconductivity and crystal dimensionality as there are a few layered materials, such as TiSe₂ [15–20] and SnSe₂ [21–24], that can host superconductivity via either enhancing the two dimensionality through intercalation or squeezing the lattice through external pressure. It is considered that the interlayer Se-Se bonding plays a key role for pressure-induced superconductivity [25], which is obviously disadvantageous for intercalated systems that enhance the Se-Se separation. Understanding the relationship between the crystal structure, effective dimensionality, and superconductivity in such systems is extremely important for discovering new superconductors and/or pairing mechanisms.

Despite reported superconducting properties in SnSe₂ hosted superconductors with various intercalants, unique features are not properly addressed such as the role of the interlayer spacing and intercalants (nonmagnetic versus magnetic) in superconductivity, linear temperature dependence of the upper critical field H_{c2} [22–24], and normal-state behavior. In addition, most of the published experimental work was carried out in thin flakes and thin films, which makes the theoretical modeling difficult due to the small superconducting volume. In this article, we report experimental and theoretical investigations of both host material (SnSe₂) and Li intercalated SnSe₂ (i.e., Li_xSnSe₂) single crystals. We compare their electronic and magnetic properties in both the in-plane and out of plane directions in a wide temperature and field range,

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providing the insight on the origin of superconductivity in $Li_x SnSe_2$ induced by an extremely small amount of Li intercalation.

II. SINGLE-CRYSTAL GROWTH, EXPERIMENTAL CHARACTERIZATION METHODS, AND CALCULATION TECHNIQUES

The single crystals of SnSe_2 were grown using the modified Bridgman method. The elemental Sn shots (99.99+%, Alfa Aesar) and Se powder (99.999%, Alfa Aesar) with a molar ratio of Sn:Se = 1:2 were sealed in evacuated quartz tubes. The tubes were heated at a rate of 60 °C/h up to 900 °C and held at this temperature for 24 h. The mixture was then slowly cooled (-2 °C/h) to 200 °C and then to room temperature by turning off the furnace. Platelike single crystals with a typical surface area of 4 mm × 4 mm were obtained, which are stable in air. For Li_xSnSe₂ superconductors, dc current was applied between the Pt anode and SnSe₂ crystals which were submerged in a lithium hexafluorophosphate (LiPF₆) solution (Sigma-Aldrich). The current (5–200 µA), solution (0.1–1.0 *M*), and duration (2–12 h) were tuned for changing the *x* value.

As-grown and intercalated crystals were examined using a Rigaku Ultima IV x-ray diffractometer with Cu $K\alpha_1$ radiation ($\lambda = 1.5406$ Å). Electrical resistivity, Hall effect, and specific heat measurements were carried out on a Quantum Design Physical Property Measurement System (PPMS Dynacool, 14 T). The electrical resistivity and Hall effect were measured using the standard four-probe method. Data below 1.8 K were obtained in a dilution refrigerator with an 18 T superconducting magnet at National High Magnetic Field Laboratory (Tallahassee, Florida). Magnetic susceptibility measurements were carried out on a Quantum Design Magnetic Property Measurement System (MPMS XL).

The structural and electronic properties of $\text{Li}_x \text{SnSe}_2$ (x = 0, 0.52%, 1.2%, and 3.6%) were calculated using the Vienna *Ab Initio* Simulation Package (VASP) [26–29]. The projectoraugmented wave (PAW) pseudopotentials [30] with the Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof (PBE) exchange-correlation functional [31] were employed for Li ($1s^2, 2s^1$), Sn ($4d^{10}, 5s^2, 5p^2$), and Se ($4s^2, 4p^4$). In addition, van der Waals (vdW) interactions were treated using the semiempirical density functional theory (DFT)-D2 method of Grimme [32]. Other methods including semiempirical DFT-D3 [33,34], the Tkatchenko-Scheffler method with iterative Hirshfeld partitioning [35,36], and the nonlocal vdW functionals optB88 [37] and optB86b [38], as well as both meta-GGA SCAN [39] and r²SCAN [40] DFT combined with rVV10, were investigated.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

To determine the crystal structure, as-grown single crystals were ground into powder for x-ray diffraction (XRD) measurements. The XRD pattern is consistent with those reported earlier [41,42], corresponding to the P-3m1 space group. A schematic of the crystal structure of SnSe₂ is shown in Fig. 1(a), where the layer consists of a Se-Sn-Se slab. The distance between the adjacent layers is about 6.13 Å, which is

greater than the Sn-Se bonding within the layer. For comparison, XRD was carried out in intercalated crystals. Figures 1(c)and 1(d) present the x-ray diffraction patterns for intercalated and as-grown crystals in the flat plane, respectively. Note that, in both cases, all peaks can be indexed with $(0 \ 0 \ l) \ (l$ is an integer), indicating the high quality of single crystals. To identify any difference before and after the intercalation, we zoom in on the $(0 \ 0 \ 4)$ peaks as shown in Figs. 1(e) and 1(f) for intercalated and as-grown crystals, respectively. Due to high resolution, both $K\alpha_1$ and $K\alpha_2$ rays result in a (0 0 4) doublet. Compared to the as-grown crystal [Fig. 1(f)], the peak doublet for the intercalated crystal shifts to the left. Further calculations indicate that $c \sim 6.129 \pm 0.001$ Å for the as-grown SnSe₂ and ~6.134 \pm 0.001 Å for Li_xSnSe₂. Increasing the solution concentration, duration, and current does not increase the c value. As discussed later, such small difference in the c parameter implies that (1) the Li concentration is low and (2) Li is located more interstitially than between layers as illustrated in Fig. 1(b). Due to the strong electronegativity of Se, it is energetically favorable for Li to occupy the interlayer space, surrounded by Se. The subtle lattice parameter change is extremely surprising as intercalation of other ions can double [43] or even triple [24] the interlayer spacing.

With negligible structure change, one would wonder if there was any impact in physical properties after intercalation. Figure 2(a) shows the temperature dependence of the in-plane resistivity (ρ_{ab}) of SnSe₂. From room temperature down to about 110 K, the resistivity decreases from $ho_{ab}(300~{
m K})$ \sim 0.98 Ω cm to $ho_{ab}(110~{
m K})$ \sim 0.57 Ω cm, which can be described by the Bloch-Grüneisen (BG) formula $\rho_{ab}(T) = \rho_{ab}(0) + B_{e-ph}(\frac{T}{\Theta_D}) \int_0^{\Theta_D/T} \frac{x^5}{(e^x - 1)(1 - e^{-x})} dx.$ From the fit, we obtain the electron-phonon scattering strength $B_{e-ph} \sim$ 2.2 Ω cm, the Debye temperature $\Theta_D \sim 180$ K, and $\rho_{ab}(0) \sim$ $0.072 \,\Omega$ cm. Below ~110 K, the system changes into a nonmetallic state marked by an increase in the resistivity with decreasing temperature. By plotting the low-temperature data as $\ln(\rho_{ab})$ versus 1/T as shown in the inset, the linear behavior is revealed, which allows one to estimate the activation energy E_0 via $\rho_{ab}(T) = Ae^{E_0/2k_BT}$, where A is a constant and k_B is the Boltzmann constant. The fit of data between 20 and 45 K gives $E_0 \sim 23.8$ meV, which is much smaller than the theoretical value [43,44]. On the other hand, the c-axis resistivity (ρ_c) increases with decreasing temperature in the entire temperature range measured. Nevertheless, the resistivities, ρ_{ab} and ρ_c , obtained from intercalated crystals, as shown in Fig. 2(b), exhibit very different behavior. (1) ρ_{ab} of Li_xSnSe₂ decreases with decreasing temperature down to 20 mK, indicating metallic behavior in the entire measured temperature range. (2) The resistivity at room temperature is three orders smaller than that for an as-grown sample with $\rho_{ab}(300 \text{ K}) \sim 622 \ \mu\Omega \text{ cm}$. (3) The resistivity drops quickly down to zero below 6 K. (4) ρ_c changes not only in magnitude but also in temperature dependence, revealing a peak around 35 K. These differences indicate that the intercalated crystals are different from that of as-grown samples, even though the interlayer spacing shows little change.

Quantitatively, ρ_{ab} of Li_xSnSe₂ can be well fitted by the BG formula between 300 and 32 K with $B_{e-ph} \sim 525 \mu\Omega$ cm and $\Theta_D \sim 105$ K. These values are much smaller than that



FIG. 1. (a), (b) Crystal structure of $SnSe_2$ and Li_xSnSe_2 (a $5 \times 5 \times 5$ supercell). (c), (d) Single-crystal diffraction patterns of $SnSe_2$, (d) Li_xSnSe_2 (c). (e), (f) Zoomed-in (004) peak for the intercalated (e) and unintercalated (f) cases.

obtained for SnSe₂, implying the change of electronic and phonon structures. The smaller Debye temperature reflects phonon softening in the intercalated crystals. On the other hand, since the fit of ρ_{ab} for SnSe₂ and Li_xSnSe₂ is in a different temperature range, there may be large uncertainties in fitting parameters. As shown below, the Debye temperature of Li_xSnSe₂ obtained from the specific heat is much higher than 105 K. Nevertheless, in Fig. 2(c), we plot the low-temperature resistivity data as ρ_{ab} versus T^2 , revealing linear behavior between 7 and 30 K. It can thus be fitted using $\rho_{ab}(T) = \rho_{ab,0} + A'T^2$ with $\rho_{ab,0} = 76.7\mu\Omega$ cm and A' = $0.03\mu\Omega \,\mathrm{cm/K^2}$. The T^2 dependence of the resistivity in a nonmagnetic system indicates the Fermi liquid behavior with dominant electron-electron scattering at low temperatures. This is in sharp contrast with that seen in SnSe₂ with the nonmetallic ground state. Furthermore, ρ_{ab} of Li_xSnSe₂ drops to zero starting at $T_c^{\text{onset}} = 6.0$ K and ρ_c shows slightly lower T_c , as shown in Fig. 2(d). Such feature suggests the c-axis resistivity starts to drop when sufficient Cooper pairs are formed, at which the in-plane resistivity already reaches zero. The observation of the zero-resistivity state in ρ_c indicates that Li intercalation penetrates to the bulk single crystals, leading to 3D superconductivity.

To confirm the superconducting transition, the magnetic properties need to be investigated. Figure 2(e) presents the temperature dependence of the magnetic susceptibility measured by applying the magnetic field H//c with H = 1 T for both as-grown $SnSe_2$ and intercalated Li_xSnSe_2 . In both cases, the *c*-axis susceptibility χ_c is negative in the entire measured temperature range. This suggests the dominant core contribution, which is diamagnetic. Compared to that for the as-grown crystals, χ_c for Li_xSnSe₂ is less negative, because of positive contribution from free electrons. To understand the zero-resistivity state shown in Fig. 2(d), we measure the temperature dependence of the magnetic susceptibility of Li_xSnSe₂ under 10 Oe between 1.8 and 10 K. As shown in Fig. 2(f), a strong diamagnetic signal develops below $T_c^{\text{onset}} = 6.0$ K for both the zero field cooling (ZFC) and field cooling (FC) conditions. With decreasing temperature, both χ_{ZFC} and χ_{FC} continuously decrease with $4\pi \chi_{FC} \sim -0.07$ and $4\pi \chi_{ZFC} \sim -0.65$ at T = 2 K. Both the zero resistivity and diamagnetism below T_c^{onset} indicate the entrance to the superconducting state. At 2 K, the superconducting volume is $\sim 7\%$ based on $4\pi \chi_{FC}$, while $4\pi \chi_{ZFC}$ reaches ~65% [45]. The ratio χ_{FC}/χ_{ZFC} is much larger than that for the molecularly intercalated case which is ~ 0.06



FIG. 2. (a) Temperature dependence of the in-plane (ρ_{ab}) and out-of-plane (ρ_c) electrical resistivity of SnSe₂. The red dashed line is the fit of metallic ρ_{ab} to the Bloch-Grüneisen formula. Inset: $\rho_{ab}(T)$ plotted as $\ln(\rho_{ab})$ versus 1/T, showing the linear relationship. (b) Temperature dependence of the in-plane (ρ_{ab}) and out of plane (ρ_c) electrical resistivity of Li_xSnSe₂. (c) Temperature dependence of the normal-state ρ_{ab} for Li_xSnSe₂ plotted as ρ_{ab} versus T^2 below 33 K. (d) Temperature dependence of ρ_{ab} and ρ_c of Li_xSnSe₂ between 1.8 and 10 K. (e) Temperature dependence of the magnetic susceptibility for Li_xSnSe₂ (black squares) and SnSe₂ (red squares) taken by applying H = 1 T along the *c* direction. (f) Temperature dependence of the magnetic susceptibility for Li_xSnSe₂ between 1.8 and 10 K at H = 10 Oe under both zero field cooling (ZFC) and field cooling (FC) modes.

[24]. The latter was considered as two-dimensional (2D) superconductivity [24].

Figure 3(a) presents the temperature dependence of $\rho_{ab}(T)$ between 20 mK and 10 K measured at various fields for $Li_x SnSe_2$. With increasing H, the superconducting transition is pushed to lower temperatures. At 1 T, $\rho_{ab}(T)$ becomes completely flat down to 20 mK. We determine the transition temperature at each field $T_c(H)$ based on the 10%, 50%, and 90% resistivity drop with respect to the normal-state resistivity (ρ_{ab}^{norm}). Figure 3(b) shows the $T_c(H)$ values plotted as the temperature dependence of the upper critical field (H_{c2}^c) . For H_{c2}^c obtained from either 90% ρ_{ab}^{norm} or 50% ρ_{ab}^{norm} , its temperature dependence is nearly linear in the entire phase diagram, consistent with that seen close to T_{c0} [22–24]. Interestingly, $H_{c2}^c(T)$ obtained from 10% ρ_{ab}^{norm} can be well fitted by the empirical formula, $H_{c2}(T) = H_{c2}(0)[1 - (\frac{T}{T_{c0}})^2]$, as demonstrated by the red dashed line in Fig. 3(b). The fit gives $H_{c2}^c(0) = 754$ Oe. Using the Ginzburg-Landau formula, we can further estimate the in-plane coherence length $\xi_{GL}^{ab} =$ $\sqrt{\frac{\varphi_0}{2\pi H_{c2}^c(0)}} \sim 66.1 \text{ nm} (\varphi_0 = h/2e).$

The linear temperature dependence of the upper critical field applied normal to the superconducting plane is the signature of 2D superconductivity [22,24,46]. The fact that $H_{c2}^c(T)$ obtained from 10% ρ_{ab}^{norm} follows the quadratic temperature dependence suggests that the occurrence of linear H_{c2}^c (90% ρ_{ab}^{norm}) and H_{c2}^c (50% ρ_{ab}^{norm}) in our system has the same origin, i.e., with the initial in-plane superconductivity only, which is also reflected in slightly lower T_c determined from the *c*-axis resistivity. To confirm, we estimate critical fields through the magnetization, which represents the bulk mea-

surements. Figure 3(c) shows the field dependence of the magnetization at indicated temperatures, where *H* is applied along the *ab* plane. At each temperature, we define the inplane upper critical field H_{c2}^{ab} when the magnetization departs from the high-temperature behavior [represented by a dashed line in Fig. 3(c)] and the in-plane lower critical field H_{c1}^{ab} when the magnetization deviates from the low-field linearity. The temperature dependence of H_{c1}^{ab} (green) and H_{c2}^{ab} (red) is plotted in Fig. 3(d) as a function of T/T_{c0} . Interestingly, both $H_{c1}^{ab}(T)$ and $H_{c2}^{ab}(T)$ can be described by the aforementioned empirical formulas as illustrated by dashed curves in Fig. 3(d). The fitting gives $H_{c1}^{ab}(0) \sim 27$ Oe and $H_{c2}^{ab}(0) \sim 1652$ Oe. Using the GL formula $H_{c2}^{ab} = \frac{\varphi_0}{2\pi\xi_{c1}^{ab}\xi_{c1}^{cc}}$, we can estimate the *c*-axis coherence length $\xi_{c1}^c \sim 30.3$ nm. Furthermore, from the relationship $H_{c1}^{ab} = \frac{\varphi_0}{4\pi\lambda_c^2} \ln(\frac{\lambda_c}{\xi_{c1}^{cb}})$, we can estimate the *c*-axis penetration depth $\lambda_c \sim 396$ nm, which is much larger than ξ_{GL}^c .

From the above superconducting parameters, it is clear that $\text{Li}_x \text{SnSe}_2$ is a type-II superconductor with the Ginzburg-Landau parameter $\lambda_c/\xi_{\text{GL}}^c \sim 13$. The superconducting anisotropy can be estimated via $\xi_{\text{GL}}^{ab}/\xi_{\text{GL}}^c \sim 2.2$. This is much smaller than the anisotropy in [DEMB]⁺ intercalated SnSe₂ (~8.8) [23] and Li intercalated SnSe₂ flakes (~11) [22]. While a small superconducting anisotropy was also reported in [Co(Cp)₂] intercalated SnSe₂ [47], it is not clear how this is possible as the insertion of [Co(Cp)₂] nearly doubles the interlayer distance [13]. Nevertheless, from what is shown in Fig. 3, the superconducting state is well established in our Li_xSnSe₂ with 3D characteristics.



FIG. 3. (a) Temperature dependence of the in-plane electrical resistivity measured under indicated applied magnetic fields (H||c) for Li_xSnSe₂. (b) Temperature dependence of the upper critical field $(\mu_0 H_{c2}^c)$ corresponding to 90% ρ_{ab} (blue squares), 50% ρ_{ab} (green squares), and 10% ρ_{ab} (black squares) for Li_xSnSe₂. The dashed red line is the fit of data to the empirical formula (see text); dashed green and blue lines are guide to eyes. (c) Field dependence of the in-plane magnetization at indicated temperatures for Li_xSnSe₂. (d) Upper critical field $(\mu_0 H_{c2}^{ab})$ and lower critical field $(\mu_0 H_{c1}^{ab})$ versus temperature for Li_xSnSe₂. The dashed red lines are the fit of data to the empirical formula (see text).

Given that there is very little change in the crystal structure [see Fig. 1(e)], one may wonder how the ground state is changed from the nonmetallic ground state in the as-grown system to the superconducting state in the intercalated system. To answer the question, we measure the Hall resistivity (ρ_{xy}) for SnSe₂ and Li_xSnSe₂. Figures 4(a) and 4(b) show the field dependence of ρ_{xy} for as-grown SnSe₂ and intercalated $Li_x SnSe_2$ in the indicated temperatures. For as-grown $SnSe_2$, $\rho_{\rm rv}(H)$ exhibits linear behavior between 0 and 14 T. The exception is $\rho_{xy}(H)$ at 50 K, which deviates from linearity above H > 6 T. We fit data using $\rho_{xy}(H) = R_H \mu_0 H$ in the linear regime (H < 6 T), with the Hall coefficient R_H shown in Fig. 4(c). Between 1.8 and 300 K, R_H is negative with its amplitude initially increasing with decreasing temperature. It decreases again after reaching the maximum at 50 K. For $Li_x SnSe_2$, $\rho_{xy}(H)$ exhibits linear behavior between 0 and 14 T at all temperatures measured. R_H can then be easily extracted, which is also negative between 1.8 and 300 K as shown in Fig. 4(d). Note that the amplitude of R_H for Li_xSnSe₂ decreases with decreasing temperature with slight increase below ~ 30 K.

The negative R_H implies dominant electron carriers in both as-grown SnSe₂ and intercalated Li_xSnSe₂. To estimate the carrier concentration *n*, we use $R_H = -\frac{1}{ne}$, which is for the single-band systems (where *e* is electron charge). The temperature dependence of the carrier concentration *n* is shown in Figs. 4(c) and 4(d) for SnSe₂ and Li_xSnSe₂, respectively. It is worth noting that the carrier concentration has increased by two orders of magnitude after the intercalation. This clearly demonstrates the existence of Li⁺ in the intercalated crystals. Based on the carrier concentration at 300 K, we estimate that the Li concentration x < 0.02%.

Difference between the as-grown and intercalated systems can also be seen in the specific heat. Figure 5(a) shows the low-temperature specific heat (*C*) plotted as *C*/*T* versus T^2 for both as-grown SnSe₂ and intercalated Li_xSnSe₂, respectively. For SnSe₂, *C*/*T*(T^2) exhibits linear behavior below ~7 K. We fit data using $C/T = \gamma + \beta T^2$, where γ is the



FIG. 4. (a), (b) Magnetic field dependence of the Hall resistivity (ρ_{xy}) measured between 1.8 and 300 K for SnSe₂ (a) and Li_xSnSe₂ (b). (c) Temperature dependence of the Hall coefficient (R_H) for SnSe₂ (black squares) and Li_xSnSe₂ (red squares). (d) Temperature dependence of the carrier concentration for SnSe₂ (black squares) and Li_xSnSe₂ (red squares).

electronic specific heat coefficient and $\beta = \frac{12\pi^4 N k_B}{5\theta_D^3}$ with k_B the Boltzmann constant, and N the atomic number of the unit cell. The fit results in $\gamma(SnSe_2) = 0$ and $\theta_D(SnSe_2) =$ 190 K. The zero γ (SnSe₂) is consistent with the semiconducting ground state of SnSe₂. The Debye temperature is close to that obtained from fitting the metallic ρ_{ab} . For the intercalated system, C/T is enhanced, resulting in a larger slope above and below T_c . The corresponding $\theta_D(\text{Li}_x \text{SnSe}_2) = 175 \text{ K}$, softer than that of SnSe₂. This again indicates the effect of Li on the crystal structure. Note that the intercept $\gamma_N(\text{Li}_x \text{SnSe}_2) \sim 3.4$ mJ/mol K² at $T > T_c$, but $\gamma_{residual}(Li_x SnSe_2) \sim 0$ at $T < T_c$. The difference that should be attributed to the superconducting transition. Due to small superconducting volume, the specific heat peak is absent. We emphasize that the absence of the specific heat peak is not in contradiction with 3D superconductivity discussed above. As described in Ref. [47], organometallic intercalate $SnSe_2[Co(ETA - C_5H_5)_2]_{0.3}$ results in more 3D and less anisotropic superconductivity as well. Our data for superconducting Li_xSnSe₂ support such claim.

Based on the above comparative study, it is obvious that Li intercalation results in drastic physical properties changes both in plane and out of plane. Figure 5(b) shows the magnetic field dependence of ρ_{ab} at T = 20 mK with field direction rotating from 0° (*H*//*c*) to 90° (*H*//*ab*). At all measured angles, after the initial rise due to the suppression of superconductivity, $\rho_{ab}(H)$ increases more or less linearly without any sign of saturation up to 18 T. According to Abrikosov theory [48], the linear field dependence of the resistivity occurs in the quantum limit due to the linear energy-momentum dispersion relationship. Unfortunately, the absence of quantum oscillations prevents the assessment of the quantum limit experimentally.

According to the recent systematic study, there is a simple relationship between the intercalated single-element concentration x and T_c [49]. For Li_xSnSe₂ with $T_c = 6.0$ K, the x value is expected to be of the order of ~0.1 [48]. However, our Hall effect data give a three orders of magnitude lower x. To figure out how an extremely small amount of Li intercalation makes a drastic property change, we perform relativistic band structure calculations by placing one Li atom in $2 \times 2 \times 2$ (222), $3 \times 3 \times 3$ (333), $4 \times 4 \times 4$ (444), and $5 \times 5 \times 5$ [555; see Fig. 1(b)] supercells. Figure 5(c) shows the band structure of the 333 supercell with ~1.2% Li



FIG. 5. (a) Low-temperature specific heat (C) plotted as C/T versus T^2 for as-grown SnSe₂ (black filled circles) and intercalated Li_xSnSe₂ (blue circles). The brown solid line is the linear fit of $C/T(T^2)$ for SnSe₂ below 6 K. The red and green lines represent linear fit of $C/T(T^2)$ for Li_xSnSe₂ below and above T_c , respectively. (b) Field dependence of ρ_{ab} under different field directions ($\theta = 0^\circ$, 30° , 60° , and 90°) at T = 20 mK. (c) Electronic structure of the $3 \times 3 \times 3$ supercell (1.2% Li concentration). (d) Brillouin zone. (e) Calculated density of states (DOS) versus energy for different Li concentrations, i.e., one Li atom in $2 \times 2 \times 2$ (222), $3 \times 3 \times 3$ (333), and $4 \times 4 \times 4$ (444) supercells, respectively. (f) Calculated *c*-axis lattice parameter and DOS(E_F) versus Li concentration. Crosses represent data from experiment.

concentration. Both Sn and Se bands cross the Fermi level (E_F) centered at M and L and between K and Γ [see the Brillouin zone presented in Fig. 5(d)]. This implies the metallicity in the 1.2% Li doped system. Figure 5(e) shows the Li concentration dependence of the density of states [DOS(E)] for the undoped (marked as 111), 222, 333, and 444 supercells. As soon as Li is introduced, the DOS at E_F becomes finite, implying that the system becomes metallic [see Fig. 5(f)]. The finite DOS $(E - E_F = 0)$ results mostly from Sn, consistent with previous calculations [21]. This is different from the pressure effect. According to Ref. [25], pressure-induced superconductivity in SnSe₂ is due to strong Se-Se bonding, providing finite DOS at the Fermi level. This implies that SnSe₂ is an extremely sensitive system, susceptible to any perturbation. Figure 5(f) displays the calculated c lattice parameter at various Li concentration (squares). Based on our experimentally obtained c value, we estimate $x \sim 0.017\%$, consistent with our estimate from the Hall effect. At this doping level, DOS is barely nonzero.

Through the combined experimental and computational investigation, it becomes clear that superconductivity can be induced in SnSe₂ through multiple approaches by (1) intercalation with noticeable interlayer expansion, (2) compression with enhanced Se-Se bonding, and (3) an extremely small amount of doping with negligible structure change which is from this work. The enhanced interlayer separation is considered to soften phonons to enhance the electron-phonon coupling [21]. In our case, there is a slight decrease of the Debye temperature from 190 K for SnSe₂ to 175 K for $Li_x SnSe_2$, which is difficult to count for the enhanced electron-phonon coupling. In fact, the in-plane resistivity of $Li_x SnSe_2$ can be perfectly fitted by the T^2 dependence between T_c and ~ 30 K implying predominantly electronelectron interaction at low temperatures. This points to the scenario proposed in Ref. [44] that charge fluctuation may be responsible for Cooper pairing in $Li_x SnSe_2$. The observation of superconductivity along both the inplane and c direction could be the consequence of charge fluctuation.

IV. CONCLUSION

Superconducting Li_xSnSe₂ single crystals were prepared through electrochemical intercalation. Both the electrical resistivity and magnetic susceptibility indicate the superconducting transition temperature $T_c \sim 6.0$ K. Through in-plane resistivity measurements down to 20 mK and magnetic susceptibility measurements down to 1.8 K, we construct the lower critical field (H_{c1}^{ab}) and upper critical field $(H_{c2}^{ab} \text{ and } H_{c2}^{c})$ diagrams. While H_{c2}^{c1} obtained from 90% ρ_{ab}^{norm} and 50% ρ_{ab}^{norm} exhibits linear temperature dependence, H_{c2}^{c} (90% ρ_{ab}^{norm}), and $H_{c1}^{ab}(M)$ and $H_{c2}^{ab}(M)$ can be described by the empirical formula $H_{ci}(T) = H_{ci}(0)[1 - (T/T_{c0})^2(i = 1, 2)],$ giving $H_{c2}^{c}(0) = 754$ Oe, $H_{c1}^{ab}(0) = 27$ Oe, and $H_{c2}^{ab}(0) =$ 1652 Oe. Using the Ginzburg-Landau formula, we further estimate that the *c*-axis penetration depth $\lambda_c(0) =$ 396 nm and the coherence length anisotropy $\xi_{ab}(0) =$ 66.1 nm and $\xi_c(0) = 30.3$ nm. The fact that $\xi_c(0)$ is much longer than the interlayer separation implies 3D superconductivity, consistent with the observation of the zero-resistivity state of ρ_c , the electronic specific heat change at T_c , and small superconducting anisotropy.

What is most remarkable is the extremely small amount of Li concentration in superconducting $\text{Li}_x \text{SnSe}_2$ with $x \sim 1.7 \times 10^{-4}$, based on the estimate from the *c*-axis lattice parameter, carrier concentration, and first-principles calculations. This is three orders of magnitude lower than the required superconductivity onset condition [47]. Such lowdoping-induced superconductivity could serve as a model system for studying unconventional superconducting mechanisms such as charge fluctuation mediated Cooper pairing [14], as there is the minimum change of the crystal structure. The perfect T^2 dependence of the in-plane resistivity down to T_c suggests the importance of electron-electron interaction.

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