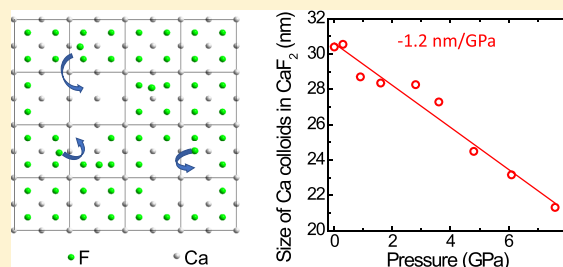


Reversible Tuning of Ca Nanoparticles Embedded in a Superionic CaF₂ Matrix

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ABSTRACT: Controlling the size and shape of metallic colloids is crucial for a number of nanotechnological applications ranging from medical diagnosis to electronics. Yet, achieving tunability of morphological changes at the nanoscale is technically difficult and the structural modifications made on nanoparticles generally are irreversible. Here, we present a simple nonchemical method for controlling the size of metallic colloids in a reversible manner. Our strategy consists of applying hydrostatic pressure on a Ca cationic sublattice embedded in the irradiated matrix of CaF₂ containing a large concentration of defects. Application of our method to CaF₂ along with in situ optical absorption of the Ca plasmon shows that the radii of the Ca nanoparticles can be reduced with an almost constant rate of -1.2 nm/GPa up to a threshold pressure of ~ 9.4 GPa. We demonstrate recovery of the original nanoparticles upon decompression of the irradiated matrix. The mechanisms for reversible nanocolloid-size variation are analyzed with first-principles simulations. We show that a pressure-driven increase in the binding energy between fluorine centers is responsible for the observed nanoparticle shrinkage. We argue that the same method can be used to generate other metallic colloids (Li, K, Sr, and Cs) with tailored dimensions by simply selecting an appropriate matrix.



INTRODUCTION

Metal nanoparticles (MNPs) are the pillar of many technological applications extending from calorimetric sensors and chemical catalysts to in vivo imaging and photothermal therapy.¹ The success of these technologies strongly depend on the shape and size of the MNPs. However, achieving specific modifications on the morphology of MNP can be an arduous and erratic task when chemical methods are used.^{2,3} Additionally, the structural changes inflicted on MNPs by synthetic methods normally are permanent, which hinders the reutilization of expensive products based on nanocolloids. An extreme case occurs when MNPs are embedded in composite materials involving dielectric matrices, which is a common setup in plasmonic applications;⁴ subsequent size tuning of the entrenched MNP is unattainable with current methods.

Here, we present a simple and effective physical method to reversibly tune the size of Ca MNP. Our method consists of applying hydrostatic pressure on Ca MNPs embedded in a dielectric matrix, which are generated by irradiating a crystal; in this way, a large concentration of highly mobile point defects is created. We apply our method to control the size of calcium nanoparticles in CaF₂ (Ca@CaF₂). Our starting point is a CaF₂ crystal irradiated with 2.2 GeV ¹⁹⁷Au ions⁵ (other irradiation techniques involving X-rays or different types of

ions,⁶ or simple exposure to ultraviolet light, metal vapor, or electron beam lithography,⁷ should also provide an alternative means to fabricate similar nanostructures^{8–10}); the irradiated matrix contains a large number of highly mobile fluorine vacancies and interstitials;^{11–16} hence, calcium nanoparticles with a crystal symmetry compatible with that of CaF₂ naturally appear (Figure 1a). Here, we show that subsequent application of hydrostatic pressure causes the radii of the so-generated MNPs to decrease considerably in a controlled and reversible manner. Specifically, using in situ optical absorption spectroscopy, we determine that the radii of the Ca nanoparticles are reduced at an almost constant rate of -1.2 nm/GPa up to a pressure of ~ 9.4 GPa, when a structural phase transition occurs in CaF₂ (Figure 1) and the MNPs vanish. The proposed MNP modification method under high pressure exploits the appearance of metallic clusters and color centers in dielectric matrices, which usually are regarded as a drawback for classical optic applications,^{17–20} to engineer new functional materials.

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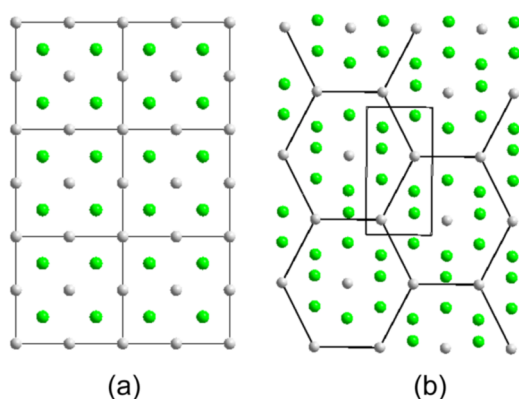


Figure 1. (a) Crystal structure of fluorite CaF_2 in which the Ca cationic lattice coincides that of fcc metallic calcium. (b) Crystal structure of the high-pressure contunnite CaF_2 structure in which the Ca cations are arranged in an hcp sublattice. Ca and F atoms are represented with white and green spheres, respectively. The cationic lattice is highlighted with solid lines. In (a), the cationic lattice coincides with the unit-cell edges, but in (b), they are represented by the rectangle.

EXPERIMENTAL DETAILS

Irradiated high-purity CaF_2 single crystals from the Optical Institute (St. Petersburg, Russia) were employed. The irradiation with ions was performed in vacuum at a linear accelerator UNILAC (GSI, Darmstadt, Germany) with 2.2 GeV ^{197}Au ions at ambient temperature; the ion flux was kept to 10^8 – 10^9 ion/cm 2 s with a fluence of 2×10^{11} ions/cm 2 . More details can be found in ref 5. For optical absorption in the UV–vis range, ~ 15 μm -thick single crystals were cleaved and placed together with a ruby chip for pressure determination⁴² into a 200 μm hole drilled in a 50 μm -thick stainless steel gasket inserted between two IIA diamonds of a membrane-type diamond anvil cell (DAC). The transmittance measurements were carried out with a confocal optical setup that consisted of a deuterium lamp, fused silica lenses, two Cassegrain objectives, and two UV–vis spectrometers to cover the measured range. The surface area of the sample was around 80×60 μm^2 , and the focused beam spot was 25 μm in diameter.

CALCULATIONS DETAILS

First-principles calculations were performed with the VASP code⁴³ by the generalized gradient approximation to the exchange–correlation energy from Perdew et al.⁴⁴ The projector augmented wave method is used to represent the ionic cores,⁴⁵ and the Ca's 6p–2s and F's 2s–5p electronic states are considered as valence band states. Wave functions are represented in a plane-wave basis truncated at 650 eV. Using these parameters and dense k -point grids for integration within the Brillouin zone (equivalent to a $16 \times 16 \times 16$ mesh employed for the cubic fluorite structure), the resulting energies are converged to within 1 meV per formula unit. In the geometry relaxations, a threshold tolerance of 0.01 eV/Å is imposed on the atomic forces.

The binding energy between F centers has been estimated with the formula¹⁰

$$E_{\text{bind}}(P) = \frac{1}{64} [E_{\text{Ca}_{32}}(P) + 63E_{\text{Ca}_{32}\text{F}_{64}}(P)] - E_{\text{Ca}_{32}\text{F}_{63}}(P) \quad (1)$$

where the first term in the RHS of (1) corresponds to the energy of bulk fcc Ca, the second to the energy of bulk fluorite CaF_2 , and the third to the energy of nonstoichiometric bulk fluorite CaF_2 for a given pressure P ; the subscripts indicate the size of the supercells that have been employed to compute each energy term (e.g., $\text{Ca}_{32}\text{F}_{63}$ represents a 32-formula unit fluorite CaF_2 supercell in which one F ion has been removed).

The interface energy per unit surface of a fcc Ca nanoparticle embedded in a fluorite CaF_2 matrix can be estimated with the formula¹⁰

$$E_{\text{interface}}(P) = E_{\text{Ca}_{n/2}\text{F}_n|\text{Ca}_m|\text{Ca}_{n/2}\text{F}_n}(P) - E_{\text{Ca}_m}(P) - E_{\text{Ca}_n\text{F}_{2n}}(P) \quad (2)$$

where “ $\text{Ca}_{n/2}\text{F}_n|\text{Ca}_m|\text{Ca}_{n/2}\text{F}_n$ ” stands for a supercell constructed by stacking m fcc Ca unit cells on top of n fluorite CaF_2 unit cells and in which periodic boundary conditions are applied along the three Cartesian directions. The lattice parameter of bulk CaF_2 is constrained along the stacking direction; this can be done because the arrangement of Ca atoms in the nanoparticle and fluorite CaF_2 is the same and the stiffness of CaF_2 is significantly larger than that of Ca (hence, we assume that the colloid completely takes up the mechanical stress). The energy penalty associated with the mechanical strain of the nanoparticle is considered separately (see below). To avoid spurious interactions between periodic interface images, the size of the supercell along the stacking direction needs to be sufficiently large. We have performed tests on the convergence of the $E_{\text{Ca}_{n/2}\text{F}_n|\text{Ca}_m|\text{Ca}_{n/2}\text{F}_n}$ energy with respect to the supercell size and concluded that parameters $m = 3$ and $n = 11$ provide sufficiently accurate results converged to within 10 meV/nm 2 .

Finally, the stress energy per unit volume of a fcc Ca nanoparticle embedded in a fluorite CaF_2 matrix is calculated as¹⁰

$$E_{\text{strain}}(P) = \int \sigma d\epsilon = \frac{3}{2} B(P) \epsilon^2(P) \quad (3)$$

where B represents the bulk modulus of bulk fcc Ca and $\epsilon \equiv \frac{a_{\text{Ca}} - a_{\text{CaF}_2}}{a_{\text{CaF}_2}}$ represents the accompanying lattice strain for a given pressure P .

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

At ambient conditions, the interaction of light with calcium colloids in irradiated CaF_2 produces a broad absorption band located at around 560 nm (Figure 2), which can be modeled as a function of colloid size by Mie theory.^{21–23} To in situ monitor the size of the calcium colloids in CaF_2 under high pressures, we employ optical absorption spectroscopy. This technique is widely used to quantify the number of MNPs in ionic crystals and can be performed inside the DAC. The experimental data are analyzed by Mie theory assuming that the calcium nanoparticles are spherical, and ab initio simulations are performed to disclose the atomistic mechanisms causing the MNP size reduction.

A summary of the absorption spectra obtained at different pressures is shown in Figure 2. The absorbance spectrum of irradiated CaF_2 at ambient pressure is well known and consists of two bands (Figure 2b). The first band, located at 2.28 eV (545 nm), is a relatively intense broad band that normally is attributed to the presence of Ca colloids.²⁴ The second band is a narrower and weaker band located at 3.25 eV (382 nm) that

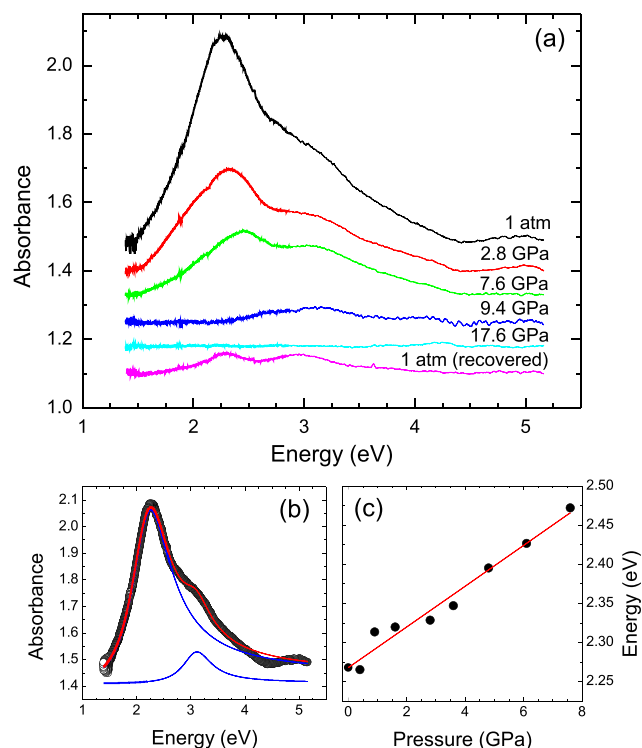


Figure 2. (a) Optical absorption spectra of CaF₂ at different pressures. (b) Lorentzian fit of the spectrum at ambient pressure. (c) Pressure dependence of the broad and intense absorbance band of CaF₂ due to the absorption of Ca colloids. The experimental data and fits are represented by points and continuous red lines, respectively, in (b) and (c).

is attributed to the presence of F centers.²⁵ Under pressure, the overall absorbance reduces and the maximum of the broad band blue-shifts at a rate of 0.025 eV/GPa (Figure 2c). At $P = 9.4$ GPa, the absorption spectrum changes drastically and the intensity of the first peak drops abruptly. Such an intensity reduction is most probably related to a noticeable decrease in the density of colloids under pressure confirmed by the complete disappearance of the bands at higher pressures. However, when pressure is released, both bands reappear (although their absorbance intensities are much lower). The disappearance of the bands above 9.4 GPa can be associated with the pressure-induced phase transition²⁶ that CaF₂ undergoes at this pressure from the fluorite (space group $Fm\bar{3}m$) to the contunnite (space group $Pnma$) phase, as shown in Figure 1. We will elaborate on the causes of this effect latter on when explaining our ab initio calculations.

To a first approximation, and due to their small size, let us assume that the optical properties of the Ca@CaF₂ colloids can be described within the Rayleigh limit, a good approximation when the size of the MNPs is much smaller than the wavelength of light. In this case, the resonance in the total absorption cross section of the system is expected to occur when

$$\epsilon(\omega) = -2\epsilon_m \quad (4)$$

where $\epsilon(\omega)$ and ϵ_m are the dielectric functions of metallic calcium and the surrounding CaF₂ medium, respectively. Considering that the pressure coefficient of the refractive index of CaF₂ is very small (2.44×10^{-3} GPa⁻¹),²⁸ ϵ_m can be assumed to be independent of wavelength and pressure, while

$\epsilon(\omega)$ can be expressed by the Drude model, which neglects interband transitions and the finite lifetime of the plasmons, i.e., $\epsilon(\omega) = 1 - \omega_p^2/\omega^2$ (where $\omega_p^2 = 4\pi Ne^2/m^*$ is the plasma frequency of the bulk metal and N and m^* are the density and effective mass of the conduction electrons, respectively). According to Rayleigh's condition, the resonance takes place when

$$\omega = \frac{\omega_p}{\sqrt{1 + 2\epsilon_m}} \quad (5)$$

Using the value $m^* = 1.9m_e$ for the optical mass of the electrons in bulk Ca, the resulting plasma frequency for Ca is 5.78 eV.²² Using these values and eq 5, it is found that the resonance frequency for Ca@CaF₂ nanocolloids should occur at 2.56 eV, which is close to the maximum absorbance measured in our sample at ambient pressure (2.28 eV, see Figure 2). Thus, the Rayleigh approximation provides a reasonable estimation of the wavelength of the maximum absorbance in these colloids.

The pressure behavior of the optical properties of the Ca@CaF₂ system can then be obtained analytically from eq 5 by taking its pressure derivative

$$\frac{d\omega}{dP} = \frac{(\omega_p/2B_0)}{\sqrt{1 + 2\epsilon_m}} \quad (6)$$

where B_0 is the bulk modulus of the Ca nanocolloids (which appears after taking the pressure derivative of N). The degree of compression of the Ca nanocolloids should be dictated by the less compressible CaF₂ matrix; hence, it can be assumed that B_0 is equal to the bulk modulus of CaF₂, namely, 82 GPa.²⁷ Using this value and eq 6, one finds that the pressure coefficient expected for the plasmon resonance within the Rayleigh limit is 0.015 eV/GPa, which is significantly smaller than the experimental value of 0.025 eV/GPa. The difference between these theoretical results and the experiments becomes even larger when the pressure behavior of the CaF₂ refractive index²⁸ is taken into consideration in the analysis: the pressure coefficient deduced in this case becomes larger by ~ 4 meV/GPa. In spite of the possible limitations of the presented simple approach based on the Rayleigh's limit, the large differences between the theory and experiments suggest that an overlooked effect may be modifying the pressure dependence of the optical absorbance of Ca@CaF₂ colloids. As we will show next, such a difference can be explained in terms of a pressure-induced shrinkage of the colloids.

A better description of the pressure behavior of the optical absorbance of the Ca@CaF₂ colloids can be obtained with Mie theory.^{10,22} In the present work, we employ the software MiePlot,²⁹ which is based on the classical work by Bohren and Huffman,³⁰ and closely follow the procedure used by Orea and Alcalá to simulate the optical properties of Ca@CaF₂ spherical colloids at ambient conditions.²² Within this approach, the dielectric function of the metal is modeled through the Drude function, including the finite lifetime of the plasmons and interband terms that, for the sake of simplicity, here are assumed to be independent of pressure. An additional correction on the plasmon damping due to the small particle size of the colloids has been taken into account.²² In the present calculations, the dielectric functions and spherical sizes of metallic Ca nanocolloids were obtained at different pressures by assuming that the pressure dependence of the corresponding dielectric function stems from changes in the

electron density, a good approximation within the Drude model; the bulk modulus of CaF₂ was employed, as justified previously. The pressure dependence of the refractive index of CaF₂ is also included in our analysis by following the work of Schmidt and Vedam.²⁸ It is worth noting that test calculations of the extinction efficiency performed for vanishingly small particle sizes at ambient pressure, Q_{ext} , are in very good agreement with those obtained analytically with the Rayleigh approximation (eq 5).

Figure 3 shows the experimental absorbance (solid curves) and Q_{ext} calculated with Mie theory (dashed curves) at two

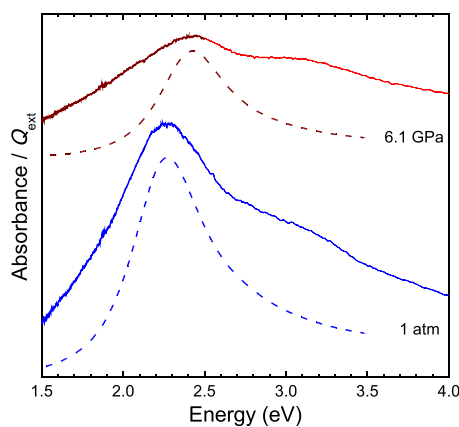


Figure 3. Experimental (continuous line) and calculated by Mie theory (dashed line) absorbance spectra of irradiated CaF₂ at ambient temperature and $P = 1$ atm and 6.1 GPa.

different pressures (1 atm and 6.1 GPa). As can be seen in the figure, the theoretical curves qualitatively follow the wavelength dependence of the absorbance maxima. At ambient pressure, the best agreement between the experimental absorbance and Q_{ext} is obtained by considering a radius R of 31 nm for spherical Ca colloids. At $P = 6.1$ GPa, the particle size that is found to better reproduce the experimental curve is 23 nm. These values are of the same order of magnitude as those reported by Rix et al. for CaF₂ crystals irradiated with intense UV light.¹⁰

Figure 4 shows the pressure dependence of the particle size of the Ca colloids as extracted from the analysis of the absorbance curves with Mie theory. As can be seen therein, the size of the nanocolloids is approximately reduced at a constant rate of -1.2 nm/GPa over the entire pressure range. By performing similar calculations at different particle sizes and a constant pressure, it can be shown that such a size reduction leads to a ~ 0.014 eV/nm increase in the absorbance maximum at zero pressure. At around 6 GPa, this value decreases down to ~ 0.011 eV/nm. Consequently, the pressure coefficient of the absorbance maxima is enhanced by 0.013–0.017 eV/GPa due to a pressure-induced size reduction, regardless of the shifts arising from the increase in N under pressure. As shown previously in the description of the optical properties of Ca@CaF₂ colloids within the Rayleigh limit, such an increase can account for around half of the experimental pressure coefficient (0.025 eV/GPa). The remaining part, as predicted by the Rayleigh limit (~ 0.011 eV/GPa), is originated by the increase of N upon compression. Hence, our analysis based on Mie theory provides an explanation for the fast blue shift observed in the Ca colloidal band.

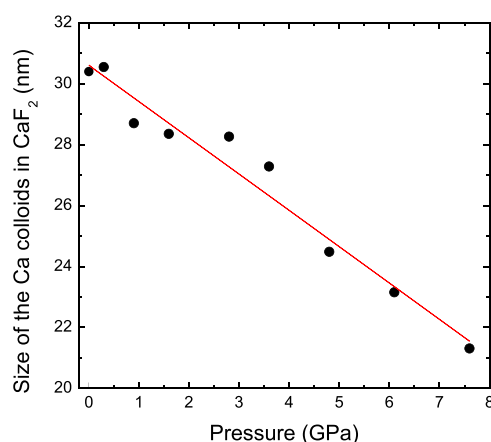


Figure 4. Pressure dependence of the Ca colloid radius in CaF₂. Results are obtained by approximating the calculated extinction spectra with Mie theory to the experimental absorbance spectra. The fit (continuous line) yields a size reduction of $dR/dp = -1.2$ nm/GPa.

To analyze the mechanisms of the formation of Ca nanoparticles in irradiated CaF₂ and their pressure-induced shrinkage, we focus on the binding of F centers since it can be related to the formation of the Ca colloids in CaF₂. We perform first-principles calculations based on density functional theory (DFT). Following the previous work by Rix et al.,¹⁰ we express the formation energy of a spherical metal nanoparticle as

$$E_{\text{colloid}} = E_{\text{bind}} + E_{\text{interface}} + E_{\text{strain}} \quad (7)$$

where the first term in the RHS of eq 7 accounts for the binding between F centers (or vacancies), the second for the energy associated to the creation of the colloid interface, and the third for the distortion energy resulting from the lattice mismatch between the metal nanoparticle and the surrounding CaF₂ matrix. Normally, E_{bind} favors the formation of colloids, whereas $E_{\text{interface}}$ and E_{strain} prevent it.

Figure 5 shows the dependence of the colloid formation energy and the components E_{bind} , $E_{\text{interface}}$, and E_{strain} on the nanoparticle radius, R , and pressure (Calculation Details section). At equilibrium (Figure 5a), we compute a binding energy between F centers of -47.35 eV/nm³ (or, equivalently, of -0.99 eV per fluorine vacancy), an interface colloid energy of 3.24 eV/nm², and a strain colloid energy of 0.002 eV/nm³. In this case, the minuteness of the E_{strain} term is due to the practically coincident equilibrium lattice parameters of bulk fcc Ca and fluorite CaF₂ (Calculation Details section). The formation of Ca colloids is energetically favorable for radii larger than $R_{\text{min}}(0) = 0.21$ nm owing to the dominant role of the E_{bind} term at such lengths. Under compression (Figure 5b), the bind and interface colloid energies decrease (e.g., $E_{\text{bind}} = -56.07$ eV/nm³ and $E_{\text{interface}} = 2.19$ eV/nm² at $P_m = 10$ GPa), while the colloid strain energy increases due to the increase in the lattice mismatch between the fcc nanoparticle and surrounding fluorite matrix (e.g., $E_{\text{strain}} = 2.36$ eV/nm³ at P_m). Nevertheless, the P -driven rise in strain energy is not able to counteract the steadily more attractive binding between F centers and consequently the threshold radius R_{min} decreases under pressure; for instance, we estimate a R_{min} of 0.19 nm at 5 GPa and of 0.13 nm at P_m .

The E_{colloid} theory that we employ here assumes an infinite source of F centers, which is a highly idealized picture of the real system (in practice, the number of F centers is limited by

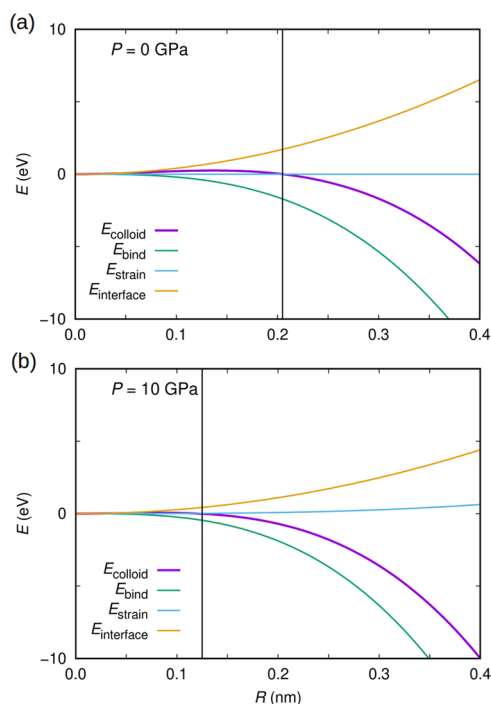


Figure 5. First-principles calculations of the formation energy of Ca colloids in irradiated CaF_2 at (a) 0 pressure and (b) 10 GPa. The R dependence of the different E_{colloid} contributing terms is shown. The vertical black lines in the figure indicate the minimum threshold radii for energetically favorable formation of nanoparticles, R_{min} .

the amount of received radiation and occurrence of recombination events with F_2^- dimers). Consequently, we are not able to calculate an optimal or average Ca nanoparticle radius as a function of pressure. Nevertheless, it can be reasonably assumed that such an optimal or average colloid radius, R_{opt} will follow a similar pressure-induced variation than R_{min} since the average number of F centers per colloid will remain roughly constant owing to the energy barriers involved in ionic diffusion (which typically increase under pressure^{31,32}); therefore, based on our DFT calculations, we estimate that at $P_t = 8$ GPa R_{opt} will shrink by $\sim 25\%$ of its equilibrium value. This theoretical prediction is in good agreement with our experimental observation that the size of Ca colloids decreases by $\sim 30\%$ when increasing pressure from ambient to the fluorite \rightarrow contunnite transition point (see Figure 4), which comes to validate our energy arguments explained above. Meanwhile, the likely reasons for the disappearance of Ca colloids at pressures $P_t < P$ are (1) the lack of superionicity in the contunnite phase of CaF_2 ,^{32,33} which prevents the coalescence of F centers, and (2) the large energy penalty involved in the creation of a fcc Ca/contunnite CaF_2 interface owing to the very distinct arrangements of Ca ions in the two structures.³⁴

The dissipation of Ca nanoparticles at the pressure point at which CaF_2 undergoes a phase transition from a cubic to an orthorhombic phase illustrates the fact that our MNP size-tuning technique cannot be generalized to any material. In particular, the crystal symmetry of the metallic sublattice within the matrix and the resulting MNP need to be coincident (fcc in the present case). Moreover, to guarantee the initial formation of nanocolloids at ambient temperature within the matrix, the lattice mismatch between the metallic sublattice and the MNP must be small. Otherwise, the formation of

anion centers dominates and the resulting MNPs are amorphous and most likely to be unstable under high pressures.³⁵ This is the case, for instance, for heavily irradiated NaCl in which metallic Na is bcc and the matrix Na@NaCl is fcc. This forces Na to keep an unstable fcc arrangement.

Figure 6 shows a number of binary ionic compounds in which superionicity has been observed, or is very likely to

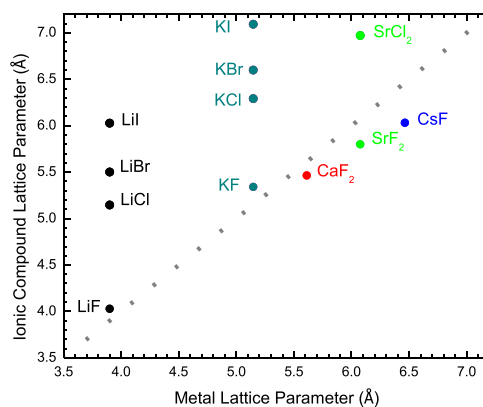


Figure 6. Lattice parameter of binary fcc ionic compounds versus the lattice parameter of the corresponding bulk fcc metals. In bcc- or hcp-structured binary ionic crystals, there is no structural correspondence with the structure of their corresponding metallic cations. The discontinuous line represents an ideal zero lattice strain between both lattice parameters.

occur,^{32,36} and the structural symmetry requirement explained above is fulfilled. Among those compounds, LiF, SrF_2 , and CsF also fulfill the second requirement that a (compound) $\approx a$ (metal) (in the case of LiF above 7 GPa).³⁷ Therefore, Li, Sr, and Cs MNPs with customized radii in principle could be also produced with pressure-based techniques. Moreover, pressure-induced quenching could be exploited to accomplish further MNP radius control. For instance, bulk Li crystallizes in a bcc structure whereas in LiF, LiCl, LiBr, and LiI, lithium renders a fcc sublattice; however, at ~ 7 GPa, Li transforms³⁷ from bcc to fcc with an almost identical lattice parameter to LiF; hence, the appearance of Li MNPs is expected beyond that point. In this particular case, pressure-induced quenching could be used to achieve control of the Li MNP radius at pressures below ~ 7 GPa. Exactly, the same would occur for KF in which K undergoes a bcc to fcc transition³⁸ at 12.4 GPa. Likewise, Sr undergoes a fcc-to-bcc phase transition³⁹ at 4.2 GPa. In this case, the stress due to lattice mismatch could quench Sr MNP in SrF_2 and SrCl_2 at pressures beyond that transition point. Meanwhile, the case of CsF is almost identical to CaF_2 . CsF transforms from fcc to a cubic structure (space group $Pm\bar{3}m$) with a simple cubic cationic lattice at 4.8 GPa,⁴⁰ however, at ambient temperature, Cs displays a fcc structure that is stable up to 88 GPa;⁴¹ hence, Cs MNPs are likely to vanish at $P > 4.8$ GPa.

In order to fulfill the lattice parameter requirement a (compound) $\approx a$ (metal), doping strategies based on isoelectronic element substitutions may be used; in this way the electronic features of the system would not be affected while potentially improving their structural and superionic properties.³² Biaxial and uniaxial stresses could lead to similar control of MNP radii as demonstrated here. An additional feature is that negative stresses, inducing an increase in the

dimensions of the nanocolloids formed at equilibrium, can be applied effectively.³¹

CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, we have found a nonchemical method for reversibly controlling the size of metallic colloids embedded in the cationic sublattice of an irradiated crystal. Contrary to conventional synthetic procedures in which the production of size-controlled metallic nanoparticles is nonreversible, the high-pressure method introduced here allows us to reversibly tune the size of Ca MNP at an almost constant rate of -1.2 nm/GPa. At 9.4 GPa, CaF_2 undergoes a structural phase transition from the fluorite to a contunnite phase, which is not superionic and displays a hexagonal cationic structure that is not compatible with the cubic symmetry of Ca nanocolloids.^{32,33} Consequently, the formation of MNP is energetically not favorable (that is, the F centers cannot diffuse and the creation of a sharp fcc Ca/contunnite CaF_2 interface is not possible due to the incommensurability of the cation sublattices in the two involved structures) and the Ca nanocolloids vanish. This finding highlights the importance of choosing an appropriate ionic compound (i.e., with a cationic sublattice structure that is compatible with the resulting nanocolloid crystal symmetry) when employing our MNP size control method. Examples of materials in which our approach can be applied successfully include LiF, KF, SrF_2 , CsF, and numerous solid solutions involving similar binary compounds. Hence, our work should stimulate the design of new functional materials containing MNPs with tailored dimensions for use in advanced optoelectronic and plasmonic applications.

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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