What Is Yellow Tungsten Trioxide

中钨智造科技有限公司

CTIA GROUP LTD

CTIA GROUP LTD

Global Leader in Intelligent Manufacturing for Tungsten, Molybdenum, and Rare Earth Industries

INTRODUCTION TO CTIA GROUP

CTIA GROUP LTD， a wholly-owned subsidiary with independent legal personality established by CHINATUNGSTEN ONLINE , is dedicated to promoting the intelligent, integrated, and flexible design and manufacturing of tungsten and molybdenum materials in the Industrial Internet era. CHINATUNGSTEN ONLINE, founded in 1997 with www.chinatungsten.com as its starting point—China's first top-tier tungsten products website—is the country's pioneering e-commerce company focusing on the tungsten, molybdenum, and rare earth industries. Leveraging nearly three decades of deep experience in the tungsten and molybdenum fields, CTIA GROUP inherits its parent company's exceptional design and manufacturing capabilities, superior services, and global business reputation, becoming a comprehensive application solution provider in the fields of tungsten chemicals, tungsten metals, cemented carbides, high-density alloys, molybdenum, and molybdenum alloys.

Over the past 30 years, CHINATUNGSTEN ONLINE has established more than 200 multilingual tungsten and molybdenum professional websites covering more than 20 languages, with over one million pages of news, prices, and market analysis related to tungsten, molybdenum, and rare earths. Since 2013, its WeChat official account "CHINATUNGSTEN ONLINE" has published over 40,000 pieces of information, serving nearly 100,000 followers and providing free information daily to hundreds of thousands of industry professionals worldwide. With cumulative visits to its website cluster and official account reaching billions of times, it has become a recognized global and authoritative information hub for the tungsten, molybdenum, and rare earth industries, providing 24/7 multilingual news, product performance, market prices, and market trend services.

Building on the technology and experience of CHINATUNGSTEN ONLINE, CTIA GROUP focuses on meeting the personalized needs of customers. Utilizing AI technology, it collaboratively designs and produces tungsten and molybdenum products with specific chemical compositions and physical properties (such as particle size, density, hardness, strength, dimensions, and tolerances) with customers. It offers full-process integrated services ranging from mold opening, trial production, to finishing, packaging, and logistics. Over the past 30 years, CHINATUNGSTEN ONLINE has provided R&D, design, and production services for over 500,000 types of tungsten and molybdenum products to more than 130,000 customers worldwide, laying the foundation for customized, flexible, and intelligent manufacturing. Relying on this foundation, CTIA GROUP further deepens the intelligent manufacturing and integrated innovation of tungsten and molybdenum materials in the Industrial Internet era.

Dr. Hanns and his team at CTIA GROUP, based on their more than 30 years of industry experience, have also written and publicly released knowledge, technology, tungsten price and market trend analysis related to tungsten, molybdenum, and rare earths, freely sharing it with the tungsten industry. Dr. Han, with over 30 years of experience since the 1990s in the e-commerce and international trade of tungsten and molybdenum products, as well as the design and manufacturing of cemented carbides and high-density alloys, is a renowned expert in tungsten and molybdenum products both domestically and internationally. Adhering to the principle of providing professional and high-quality information to the industry, CTIA GROUP's team continuously writes technical research papers, articles, and industry reports based on production practice and market customer needs, winning widespread praise in the industry. These achievements provide solid support for CTIA GROUP's technological innovation, product promotion, and industry exchanges, propelling it to become a leader in global tungsten and molybdenum product manufacturing and information services.

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Yellow tungsten trioxide (**YTO,** WO_3) **Product Introduction**

1. Product Overview

CTIA GROUP LTD Yellow tungsten trioxide is produced by high-temperature calcination process of ammonium paratungstate, which meets the requirements of GB/T 3457-2013 "Tungsten Oxide" first-class product. WO_3 is widely used in the preparation of tungsten powder, cemented carbide, tungsten wire and ceramic colorants. CTIA GROUP LTD is committed to providing high-quality Yellow tungsten trioxide products to meet the needs of powder metallurgy and industrial manufacturing.

2. product characteristics

High stability: stable in air, insoluble in water and inorganic acids except hydrofluoric acid.

Reactivity: It can be reduced to tungsten powder by hydrogen (>650°C) or carbon.

Uniformity: Uniform particle distribution, suitable for downstream processing.

3. Product specifications

index	CTIA GROUP LTD Yellow tungsten trioxide first-class product standard
WO_3 content (wt%)	≥99.95
Impurities（ wt% ，max.）	Fe≤0.0010，Mo≤0.0020，Si≤0.0010，Al≤0.0005，Ca≤0.0010，Mg≤0.0005，K≤0.0010, Na≤0.0010, S≤0.0005, P≤0.0005
Particle size	1-10（μm，FSSS）
Loose density	2.0-2.5（g/cm^3）
Customization	Particle size or impurity limits can be customized according to customer requirements

4. Packaging and warranty

Packing: Inner sealed plastic bag, outer iron drum or woven bag, net weight 50kg or 100kg, moisture-proof design.

Warranty: Each batch comes with a quality certificate, including WO_3 content, impurity analysis, particle size (FSSS method), loose density and moisture data.

5. Procurement information

Email: sales@chinatungsten.com

Phone: +86 592 5129696

For more Yellow tungsten trioxide information, please visit the China Tungsten online website www.tungsten-powder.com. For more market and real-time information, please follow the WeChat public account "China Tungsten Online".

CTIA GROUP LTD Yellow tungsten trioxide

Chapter 1 Introduction

As an important functional material, tungsten trioxide (WO_3) has attracted much attention in the fields of materials science, energy, environment and electronics due to its excellent physical and chemical properties (e.g., band gap 2.6–2.8 eV, density 7.16 g/cm^3) and diverse application scenarios. Tungsten Yellow's unique properties, including electrochromic (70% >change in light transmittance), photocatalysis (hydrogen production >1 mmol/h·g), electrochemical activity (specific capacitance >500 F/g), and thermal stability (decomposition temperature >1700°C), make it ideal for smart materials, energy storage devices, and catalysts. This chapter systematically expounds the research significance and scientific value of yellow tungsten trioxide from three aspects: research background, research objectives and innovations, and research status at home and abroad, which lays the foundation for subsequent chapters.

1.1 Background

As an important member of the tungsten compound family, yellow tungsten trioxide is widely found in tungstate minerals (such as scheelite, WO_3 content >50). wt%) and purified by hydrometallurgy (yield >95%) or high-temperature roasting (purity >99.9%). The global tungsten resource reserves are about 3.5 million tons, mainly distributed in China (accounting for >50%), Russia and Australia, with an annual output of about 8-100,000 tons, of which yellow tungsten trioxide occupies an important position as a precursor of tungsten products (tungsten powder, tungsten wire) (market size > US$1 billion/year). In recent years, with the development of nanotechnology, the application of yellow-tungsten nanomaterials (particle size 20–200 nm, specific surface area >50 m^2/g) in high-tech fields has expanded rapidly, such as smart windows (energy saving >20%), lithium-ion batteries (capacity > 200 mAh/g), and photocatalytic water splitting (solar energy utilization rate >5%).

The research background of tungsten yellow is closely related to the global energy crisis, environmental pollution and the demand for intelligent manufacturing. In the energy sector, clean energy (e.g., hydrogen, with market demand growth > 10%/year) and efficient energy storage (e.g., supercapacitors, power density >10 kW/kg) are driving the use of tungsten in photocatalytic hydrogen production and electrode materials. In the environmental field, the photocatalytic degradation (organic matter removal rate > 90%) and gas sensing (detection limit <0.1 ppm) of yellow tungsten trioxide provide solutions for air purification and wastewater treatment. In the field of smart materials, the electrochromic and gas-sensitive properties of tungsten support the development of smart displays (response time <1 second) and sensors (sensitivity > 100). In addition, the application of tungsten in emerging fields such as fireproof fabrics (LOI>30%), agricultural films (temperature rise >2°C) and biomedicine (photothermal sterilization rate >99%) further broadened its market potential (growth rate >8%/year).

However, there are challenges in the production and application of yellow tungsten trioxide, including high energy consumption (1–5 kWh/kg), waste discharge (W<0.5 mg/L), and safety of nanomaterials (dust < 10 mg/m^3). These problems have prompted academia and industry to study the crystal structure (monoclinic, hexagonal, etc.), preparation methods (hydrothermal method, vapor deposition) and performance optimization (doping to increase the conductivity by >30%). Therefore, the systematic study of the properties, preparation and application of yellow tungsten trioxide is not only of great scientific significance, but also has practical value for promoting green manufacturing and sustainable development (carbon emission target < 0.1 kg/kg).

1.2 Research Objectives and Innovations

The purpose of this study is to comprehensively and systematically explore the basic properties, preparation technology, detection methods and multi-field applications of yellow tungsten trioxide, and to provide theoretical guidance and practical reference for its scientific research and industrialization. The specific research objectives include the following aspects: firstly, to elucidate the internal relationship between the physicochemical properties (band gap, density, solubility) and crystal structure (monoclinic and hexagonal) of yellow tungsten trioxide, and to reveal the structure-property relationship (electron transport, ion diffusion). Secondly, the traditional (high-temperature solid-phase method, sol-gel method) and new preparation methods (electrochemical deposition, biological template method) of yellow tungsten trioxide were sorted out, and the process parameters (energy consumption < 1 kWh/kg, yield >95%). Thirdly, the application potential of tungsten in the fields of tungsten products (carbide hardness > 90 HRA), energy (battery capacity> 200 mAh/g), environment (degradation rate >90%) and smart materials (coloring efficiency > 50 cm^2/C) were analyzed, and performance improvement strategies (doping and compounding) were proposed. Finally, the safety (LD50>2000 mg/kg) and environmental impact (waste W<0.1 mg/L) of yellow tungsten trioxide were evaluated, and suggestions for green production and standardization (compliance rate > 95%) were put forward.

Innovations in this study include:

1. **Structure-performance correlation system analysis**: X-ray diffraction (XRD, angular accuracy ±0.01°) and first-principles calculations (accuracy ±0.1 eV) to reveal the influence of the tungsten crystal structure (monoclinic and hexagonal) on the electron band (band gap 2.6–2.8 eV), ion transport (diffusion coefficient $>10^{-12}$ cm²/s) and catalytic performance (TOF>10 s^{-1}) to fill the nanoWO_3 Gaps in characterization studies (literature coverage < 50%).
2. **Optimization of new preparation process**: The biological template method (cost < US$50/kg) and low-temperature hydrothermal method (<150°C) were proposed to achieve efficient synthesis of nano-WO_3 (particle size <50 nm, yield >90%), reduce energy consumption (<0.5 kWh/kg) and improve morphology controllability (deviation <5%).
3. **Integrated research on cross-domain applications**: For the first time, the application data of yellow tungsten trioxide in emerging fields such as fireproof fabrics (LOI>30%), agricultural films (near-infrared absorption>80%) and biomedical (photothermal efficiency >40%), and composite strategies (such as WO_3/graphene) were proposed to improve performance (20–30%).
4. **Comprehensive assessment of safety and environmental protection**: Combined with MSDS and environmental protection standards (GB 25466-2010), the environmental impact of yellow tungsten trioxide production (CO_2<0.5 kg/kg, W emission <0.05 mg/L) was quantified, and waste recycling (>85%) and green process solutions were proposed to help sustainable development (market potential > US$2 billion/year).

1.3 Research status at home and abroad

Current status of domestic research

China is the world's largest producer of tungsten and its research focuses on tungsten products, energy and the environment. The University of Science and Technology Beijing and Central South University have made progress in the purification of yellow tungsten trioxide (purity > 99.95%) and tungsten powder preparation (particle size 0.5–5 μm), optimizing hydrometallurgy (yield > 95%) and reduction process (H_2 consumption < 10 L/g). Tsinghua University and the Chinese Academy of Sciences have taken the lead in the preparation (hydrothermal, particle size 20–200 nm) and application (photocatalytic degradation rate >90%) of nano-WO_3, and have developed doping technologies (e.g., N, Ti, which improve the visible light response > 30%).

In the field of energy, Zhejiang University has studied the application of WO_3 in lithium batteries (capacity > 200 mAh/g) and supercapacitors (specific capacitance > 500 F/g), and proposed composite electrodes (WO_3). /C, 1000 cycles >). In the field of environment, Fudan University has developed a WO_3-based sensor (NO_2 detection limit < 0.1 ppm) for air quality monitoring (sensitivity > 100). However, the analysis of the crystal structure-performance correlation of tungsten in domestic studies is insufficient (literature accounts for <30%), new preparation methods (such as biological template method) are still in the laboratory stage (scale < 1 kg/batch), and environmental protection process (energy consumption < 1 kWh/kg) needs to be broken through.

Current status of research abroad

Foreign research focuses on the United States, the European Union and Japan, focusing on the nano-properties and high-end applications of yellow tungsten trioxide. The Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) is a leader in WO_3 electrochromic devices (coloring efficiency > 50 cm^2/C) and has developed flexible smart windows (light transmittance change > 70% and a lifetime of > 5000 cycles). The European Union (e.g., the Max Planck Institute in Germany) has made progress in photocatalytic hydrogen production (hydrogen production > 1 mmol/h·g) and organic degradation (efficiency >90%), through doping and heterojunction (WO_3/TiO_2).) to increase quantum yield (>5%). The University of Tokyo, Japan, investigated the application of WO_3 in gas sensors (NH_3 detection limit < 0.1 ppm) and field-effect transistors (mobility > 10 cm^2/V·s) to optimize thin film preparation (vapor deposition, thickness 10–100 nm). Seoul National University in South Korea has explored the potential of WO_3 in biomedicine (photothermal sterilization rate >99%) and fire-retardant fabrics (LOI>30%), developing nanocomposite coatings (10–100 μm thickness). The advantages of foreign research are high-precision characterization (XRD, TEM, resolution < 0.1 nm) and theoretical simulation (DFT, error < 0.1 eV), but the production scale is small (< 1000 tons/year) and the cost is high (> 100 USD/kg), which limits industrialization.

Comparison and shortcomings of domestic and foreign research

Both domestic and foreign studies have paid attention to the nanoization (particle size < 200 nm) and functionalization (performance improvement >20%) of yellow tungsten trioxide, but there are differences. China has the advantage of production scale (> 80% of global production) and low-cost processes (US$<50/kg), but basic research (e.g., structure-performance linkage) is weak (500 articles/year of literature<). Foreign countries are leading in high-end applications (smart materials, biomedicine) and theoretical modeling (simulation accuracy± 0.05 eV), but lack large-scale production capacity (accounting for <20%). Common shortcomings include the lack of standardized data for nano-WO_3 (deviation > 10%), the lag in the industrialization of new preparation methods (conversion rate <10%), and the lack of environmental impact assessment (30% for <the study of waste liquid W<0.05 mg/L). In addition, there are few systematic studies on yellow tungsten trioxide in emerging fields (such as agricultural films and fireproof fabrics) (literature accounts for <10%), which needs to be further expanded.

Research Prospects

Future research on yellow tungsten trioxide should focus on the following directions: 1) the development of low-energy preparation technologies (<0.5 kWh/kg), such as biological template method and low-temperature hydrothermal method (<150°C); 2) deepening the structure-performance association, combining high-throughput calculations (>1000 groups/day) and in-situ characterization (temporal resolution<1 ms); 3) Expand emerging applications, such as fireproof fabrics (LOI>32%), agricultural films (light transmittance >85%), and biosensors (sensitivity>100); 4) Establish a green production system to reduce carbon emissions (<0.1 kg/kg) and waste emissions (W<0.01 mg/L); 5) Formulate international standards for yellow tungsten trioxide (purity > 99.95%, particle size deviation <5%) to enhance global competitiveness.

CTIA GROUP LTD Yellow tungsten trioxide

Chapter 2 Basic information of yellow tungsten trioxide

2.1 Definition of yellow tungsten trioxide

Tungsten flavour Yellow tungsten trioxide is an inorganic compound composed of tungsten and oxygen, and its chemical formula is WO_3. As one of the oxides of tungsten, tungsten has an important position in industry and scientific research, and is widely used because of its unique physical and chemical properties. Tungsten yellow derives its name from its appearance, which usually appears as a light yellow or yellowish-green crystalline powder, a color characteristic that is closely related to the oxidation state and crystal structure of tungsten. In the national standard (GB/T 3457-1998), tungsten is clearly defined as: Tungsten trioxide to distinguish it from other forms of tungsten oxide, such as blue tungsten oxide or purple tungsten oxide.

From a chemical point of view, the tungsten element in yellow tungsten trioxide is in the +6 oxidation state, which is one of the most common oxidation states of tungsten. The molecular formula WO_3 indicates that each tungsten atom is combined with three oxygen atoms to form a stable chemical structure. The crystal structure of tungsten varies with temperature, and is usually monoclinic at room temperature, and will change to a tetragonal crystal system at high temperatures (e.g., above 740°C). This diversity of crystal structures gives tungsten its unique properties under different conditions, such as changing its color from yellow to orange at high temperatures, and then returning to its original shape when cooled. Yellow tungsten trioxide has a relative density of 7.16, a melting point of up to 1473 °C and a boiling point of more than 1750 °C, showing its excellent thermal stability.

As a transition metal oxide, yellow tungsten trioxide not only exists in the form of hydrates in nature (such as tungstic acid minerals in tungsten ore), but can also be prepared by artificial synthesis. Industrially, tungsten is usually calcinedAmmonium paratungstateorTungstic acidIsoprecursors are prepared by decomposition at a specific temperature. This process involves complex chemical reactions, such as the release of ammonia and water vapor when ammonium paratungstate is heated above 400°C, resulting in the formation of yellow tungsten trioxide. Differences in preparation conditions (e.g., temperature, atmosphere) can significantly affect the particle size, crystal form and purity of tungsten.

In industrial applications, tungsten is an important intermediate in the production of tungsten metal powder, tungsten carbide and tungsten alloy. It plays a key role in the field of powder metallurgy, for example in the manufacture of carbide cutting tools, high-temperature wear-resistant materials, etc. In addition, tungsten is also used in photocatalysis, electrochromic materials, and gas sensors due to its optical and electrical properties. For example, the semiconducting properties of yellow tungsten trioxide give it potential for photocatalytic water splitting to produce hydrogen, while its rich yellow color also makes it a pigment for use in the ceramics and paint industries.

From a historical point of view, the study of yellow tungsten trioxide is closely related to the development of tungsten chemistry. As early as 1841, chemist Robert Oxland first proposed the preparation of tungsten trioxide, and is therefore considered the founder of systematic tungsten chemistry. Since then, the properties and applications of tungsten have been further explored, especially after the rise of modern nanotechnology, and nanoscale tungsten has attracted much attention due to its high specific surface area and excellent chemical activity. For example, nano-yellow tungsten trioxide (particle size of about 50 nm) has become a research hotspot in the field of new energy vehicles because it exhibits high theoretical specific capacity and good cycling stability in lithium-ion battery anode materials.

The definition of yellow tungsten trioxide is not limited to its chemical composition and physical form, but also encompasses its role in nature and industry. As an important part of the tungsten industry chain, yellow tungsten trioxide plays a bridge role in the transformation process from tungsten ore refining to final products. Its stability makes it difficult to decompose in air, but it dissolves to form tungstate ions (WO_4^{2-}) under alkaline conditions, a property that facilitates further chemical processing. In addition, the arrangement of WO_6 octahedron in the crystal structure of yellow tungsten trioxide determines its optical and electrical properties, making it also important in basic research.

In general, as a multifunctional chemical substance, the definition of yellow tungsten trioxide is not limited to the simple molecular formula "WO_3", but includes its physical form, chemical properties, crystal structure and a wide range of application values. From industrial raw materials to high-tech materials, the importance of tungsten has become increasingly important with technological advances. Whether as a precursor of tungsten products or innovative applications in the field of new energy, tungsten has a unique identity in materials science.

2.2 The form and distribution of tungsten in the present

Yellow tungsten trioxide, also known as Yellow tungsten trioxide, exists in various forms in nature and artificial environment, and its distribution is closely related to the geochemical properties of tungsten and industrial production. As a form of tungsten trioxide (WO_3), yellow tungsten trioxide occurs mainly in the form of minerals in nature, while in industry it is prepared and applied in the form of powders or crystals. The following is a detailed discussion of the forms of presence of yellow tungsten trioxide and its distribution in nature and human activities.

Tungsten flavour exists in the form

Tungsten does not exist directly in nature in the form of pure WO_3, but in the form of hydrates or complex minerals. The most common natural form is tungstate minerals, such as tungsten stone (WO_3·). H_2O), water tungsten stone ($WO_3 \cdot 2H_2O$) and so on. These minerals are secondary tungsten minerals that are usually formed in the oxide zone of tungsten deposits and are the product of weathering of primary tungsten ores such as wolframite and scheelite. Tungsten stone is yellow or yellow-green in color and similar to the artificial form of yellow tungsten trioxide, while tungsten stone is slightly different due to its higher water content. The crystal structure of these minerals is based on the WO_6 octahedron, but exhibits a certain complexity due to the incorporation of water molecules.

In artificial synthesis, tungsten is usually present in the form of a light yellow crystalline powder, and its particle size and crystal form vary depending on the preparation process. For example, the yellow tungsten trioxide prepared by calcination of ammonium paratungstate is usually monoclinic crystal system, and the orthorhombic form WO_3 can be obtained when calcined at high temperatures (e.g., around 700°C). Changes in crystal form not only affect the color and density of yellow tungsten trioxide, but also alter its physical properties, such as solubility and catalytic activity. In addition, nanoscale yellow tungsten trioxide is a research hotspot in recent years, and its particle size can be as small as tens of nanometers, with higher specific surface area and reactivity, and is often used in high-tech fields.

The chemical stability of yellow tungsten trioxide makes it less likely to react with other substances at room temperature, but it can be converted to other forms of tungsten oxide under certain conditions, such as high temperatures or reducing atmospheres. For example, when heated in a hydrogen atmosphere, yellow tungsten trioxide may be reduced to blue tungsten oxide ($W_{20}O_{58}$) or purple tungsten oxide ($W_{18}O_{49}$), which contain less oxygen than WO_3 and are a type of oxygen-vacant tungsten oxide. This conversion process reflects the polymorphism of tungsten and also provides a diverse selection of raw materials for industrial production.

Distribution of tungsten flavour

In nature, the distribution of tungsten-related minerals is closely related to the geographical location of tungsten deposits. Tungsten is a less abundant element in the earth's crust, with an average abundance of about 1.3 ppm, and is mainly stored in granite or pegmatites in the form of wolframite ($FeMnWO_4$) and scheelite ($CaWO_4$). The oxidation of these primary minerals may result in the formation of secondary minerals containing yellow tungsten trioxide. The world's major tungsten minerals include China, Russia, Canada, Australia and Bolivia, of which China is the world's largest tungsten producer, accounting for more than 50% of the world's reserves. Tungsten ore in China is mainly distributed in Hunan, Jiangxi, Guangdong and other places, such as the persimmon Zhuyuan deposit in Hunan and the Dajishan deposit in Jiangxi, which may also be potential sources of yellow tungsten trioxide-related minerals.

In the industrial sector, the distribution of tungsten yellow depends on the production chain of tungsten products. As an intermediate, tungsten yellow is mainly produced and used in tungsten smelters and powder metallurgy enterprises. The conversion from tungsten concentrate to yellow tungsten trioxide typically involves steps such as alkaline hydrolysis, neutralization, and calcination. For example, tungsten concentrate is treated with sodium hydroxide to produce sodium tungstate solution, which is then acidified to form tungstic acid precipitate, and finally pyrolytic decomposition into yellow tungsten trioxide. This process is particularly common among tungsten processing companies in China, such as large enterprises such as Hunan Zhuzhou Cemented Carbide Group and Xiamen Tungsten Industry.

2.3 Yellow tungsten trioxide and oxygen vacant tungsten oxide/defective tungsten oxide

Yellow tungsten trioxide (Yellow tungsten trioxide, WO_3) as a typical tungsten oxide, is used in combination with oxygen vacant tungsten oxide or defective tungsten oxide (such as blue tungsten oxide and Purple tungsten oxide There is a close connection and distinction. The properties and applications of these compounds vary depending on oxygen content, crystal structure, and defect states. This section will discuss in detail the relationship between yellow tungsten trioxide and oxygen-vacant tungsten oxide, including their chemical composition, structural characteristics, preparation methods, and application differences.

Basic properties of tungsten

The molecular formula of yellow tungsten trioxide is WO_3 and the oxygen index is 3, indicating that tungsten is in the +6 oxidation state. Its crystal structure is mainly composed of WO_6 octahedron through coangular or colateral connections, which is monoclinic at room temperature and can be transformed into orthorhombic or tetragonal crystal system at high temperature. The color of tungsten is usually light yellow, which is due to the optical absorption properties due to the saturation coordination of oxygen atoms in its electronic structure. As an n-type semiconductor, tungsten has a bandgap of about 2.6-2.8 eV, making it potential in photocatalysis, electrochromic, and other fields. Yellow tungsten trioxide has high chemical stability and is not easy to decompose in air, but it can change under reducing conditions.

Definition and types of oxygen vacant tungsten oxide

Oxygen vacant tungsten oxide refers to tungsten oxide with missing oxygen atoms in the crystal lattice, usually as non-stoichiometric compounds, such as blue tungsten oxide ($W_{20}O_{58}$, oxygen index about 2.9) and purple tungsten oxide ($W_{18}O_{49}$, oxygen index about 2.72). These compounds are also known as defective tungsten oxide because of the presence of oxygen vacancies in their crystal structure, resulting in an oxidation state of tungsten between +5 and +6. The presence of oxygen vacancies changes the electronic structure of the material and increases the concentration of free electrons, which significantly improves its conductivity and chemical activity.

- **Blue tungsten oxide**: the molecular formula is $W_{20}O_{58}$, dark blue or blue-black. The distribution of oxygen vacancies in the crystal structure is relatively uniform, which is usually prepared by partial reduction of yellow tungsten trioxide in a weak reducing atmosphere (such as hydrogen). The particle morphology of blue tungsten oxide inherits the characteristics of the raw material, but the internal structure is more loose.
- **Purple tungsten oxide**: the molecular formula is $W_{18}O_{49}$, which is purple and finely crushed. Its crystal structure is dominated by needle-like or rod-like grains, which are rich in cracks and oxygen vacancies. This structure allows it to exhibit excellent performance in reduction reactions, such as being suitable for the production of fine-grained tungsten powder.

Chemical and structural differences between tungsten and oxygen-vacant tungsten oxide

The main differences are oxygen content and crystal defects. In the WO_3 structure of yellow tungsten trioxide, the oxygen atoms are completely saturated and the crystal lattice is regular, while the oxygen vacancy tungsten oxide forms a defective state due to the absence of oxygen atoms. These oxygen vacancies are not only structurally imperfect, but also give the material unique physicochemical properties. For example, the presence of oxygen vacancies reduces the band gap of the material, making the blue and purple tungsten oxide darker and more conductive. In addition, oxygen vacancies act as electron donors, making these materials more active in catalytic reactions.

In terms of crystal structure, the WO_6 octahedron of yellow tungsten trioxide is closely arranged, while the blue and purple tungsten oxide are distorted or broken in the way the octahedron is connected due to oxygen loss. For example, the needle-like structure and internal cracks of purple tungsten oxide allow it to have a larger specific surface area, which facilitates the penetration of gas molecules and the diffusion of reactants. This structural difference directly affects the behavior of the two in the industrial reduction process: the reaction of yellow tungsten trioxide reduction mainly starts from the surface, while the purple tungsten oxide can react internally and on the surface at the same time due to the presence of cracks.

Preparation and transformation relationship between yellow tungsten trioxide and oxygen vacant tungsten oxide

Yellowschet is a precursor of oxygen-vacant tungsten oxide, and the two can be converted into each other by controlling the reaction conditions. Industrially, yellow tungsten trioxide is produced by calcining ammonium paratungstate or tungstic acid, while oxygen-vacant tungsten oxide needs to be further treated under a reducing atmosphere:

- **Tungsten to blue tungsten oxide**: In a hydrogen atmosphere of 300-600°C, tungsten loses some of its oxygen atoms to form $W_{20}O_{58}$. The oxygen index gradually decreases with increasing temperature and increasing reducibility.

- **Tungsten to purple tungsten oxide**: Under stronger reducing conditions (e.g., lower partial pressure of oxygen), tungsten can be further converted to $W_{18}O_{49}$. The unique morphology of purple tungsten oxide is related to the rapid oxygen loss and crystal reconstitution during its preparation.

This conversion process reflects the polymorphism of tungsten oxide and also provides flexibility for industrial production. For example, purple tungsten oxide is often used in the preparation of ultrafine tungsten powder due to its high reactivity, while yellow tungsten trioxide is more suitable as a stable intermediate.

Comparison of the application of tungsten yellow and oxygen vacant tungsten oxide

Yellow tungsten trioxide and oxy-vacant tungsten oxide have their own emphasis. Due to its stability, tungsten is widely used in powder metallurgy (e.g. tungsten alloy production), photocatalysts and pigments. Nano yellow tungsten trioxide exhibits high specific capacity and chemical stability in lithium battery anode materials, which is suitable for energy storage research. Oxygen-vacant tungsten oxide is more suitable for specific scenarios due to its high activity brought by defect states:

- Blue tungsten oxide is commonly used in the production of tungsten powder and catalysts because of its high reducibility.
- Purple tungsten oxide has advantages in the preparation of fine-grained tungsten powder and gas sensors due to its unique structure.

2.3.1 Yellow tungsten trioxide and blue tungsten oxide

Yellow tungsten trioxide (Yellow tungsten trioxide, WO_3) and blue tungsten (blue tungsten oxide, usually expressed as $W_{20}O_{58}$) are two important forms of tungsten oxide family, and there are significant differences in chemical composition, crystal structure, preparation methods and application fields. As a key substance in the tungsten industry chain, the relationship between yellow tungsten trioxide and blue tungsten not only reflects the polymorphism of tungsten oxide, but also reflects its different roles in industry and scientific research. The following is a detailed comparison of the two aspects.

Chemical composition and oxidation state of yellow tungsten trioxide and blue tungsten oxide

The chemical formula of yellow tungsten trioxide is WO_3, where tungsten is in the +6 oxidation state and the oxygen index is 3, indicating that its oxygen atom is completely saturated. The chemical formula for blue tungsten oxide is usually written as $W_{20}O_{58}$ and has an oxygen index of about 2.9, meaning that the average oxidation state of tungsten is slightly less than +6. This difference stems from the oxygen vacancies in the blue-tungsten crystal lattice, i.e., the partial absence of oxygen atoms, resulting in a structure with non-stoichiometric ratios. The presence of oxygen vacancies gives blue tungsten a higher electron concentration and conductivity, while yellow tungsten trioxide exhibits strong chemical stability due to oxygen saturation.

Crystal structure and physical properties of yellow tungsten trioxide and blue tungsten oxide

Tungsten is a monoclinic crystal system at room temperature, which is formed by a regular lattice structure formed by WO_6 octahedron through coangular or colateral connection, its color is light yellow or yellow-green, and the band gap is about 2.6-2.8 eV, which belongs to n-type semiconductors. The crystal structure of blue tungsten is slightly distorted due to oxygen vacancies, and is still based on WO_6 octahedron, but the loss of some oxygen atoms leads to an increase in lattice defects. Blue tungsten has a dark blue or blue-black color, and the band gap is slightly lower than that of yellow tungsten trioxide (about 2.4-2.6 eV), and the color change is due to the red shift of the electron transition absorption spectrum caused by oxygen vacancies. In addition, the density of blue tungsten (about 7.1 g/cm^3) is slightly lower than that of yellow tungsten trioxide (7.16 g/cm^3), and the particle morphology is more loose.

Preparation method of yellow tungsten trioxide and blue tungsten oxide

Yellow tungsten trioxide is usually calcinedAmmonium paratungstateor tungstic acid in an oxidizing atmosphere at 400-600 °C, e.g. ammonium paratungstate $(NH_4)_5H_5[H_2(WO_4)_6] \rightarrow WO_3 + NH_3\uparrow + H_2O\uparrow$。 Blue tungsten is partially reduced from yellow tungsten trioxide under weak reducing conditions (such as hydrogen atmosphere, 300-500 °C): $WO_3 + H_2 \rightarrow W_{20}O_{58} + H_2O$。 In the preparation of blue tungsten, the temperature, hydrogen concentration and reaction time need to be precisely controlled to avoid over-reduction to form metallic tungsten or purple tungsten oxide. In industry, blue tungsten is often used as an intermediate in the production of tungsten powder, because its reducing property is better than that of yellow tungsten trioxide.

Conversion relationship between yellow tungsten trioxide and blue tungsten oxide

Tungsten is a precursor of blue tungsten, and the conversion between the two reflects the redox-reduction dynamic equilibrium of tungsten oxide. By adjusting the reduction conditions (e.g., partial pressure and temperature of hydrogen), tungsten can gradually lose oxygen atoms to form blue tungsten. This process is not only common in industrial production, but also provides an experimental basis for studying the effect of oxygen vacancies on the properties of materials. For example, the dark blue color of bluetungsten serves as a visual indicator of the degree of reduction, while the yellow color of tungsten indicates that it is in a fully oxidized state.

2.3.2 Tungsten and purple tungsten oxide

Tungsten (WO_3) and purple tungsten (purple tungsten oxide, $W_{18}O_{49}$) are two typical compounds in tungsten oxide, and their chemical composition, structural characteristics and application scenarios are significantly different. Because of its unique needle-like structure and high reactivity, purple tungsten has shown better performance than yellow tungsten trioxide in specific fields. The similarities and differences between the two are discussed in detail below.

Chemical composition and oxidation state of yellow tungsten trioxide and purple tungsten oxide

The chemical formula of yellow tungsten trioxide is WO_3, tungsten is in +6 oxidation state, the oxygen index is 3, and there is no anaerobic vacancy in the structure. The chemical formula of purple tungsten is $W_{18}O_{49}$ and the oxygen index is about 2.72, indicating that its oxygen content is further lower than that of blue tungsten, and the average oxidation state of tungsten is between +5 and +6. The number of oxygen vacancies in purple tungsten is higher than that of blue tungsten, and this defective state structure makes it have higher electronic conductivity and chemical activity. The purple color of tungsten is due to the strong absorption band caused by oxygen vacancies, which contrasts sharply with the light yellow color of tungsten.

Crystal structure and physical properties of yellow tungsten trioxide and purple tungsten oxide

The monoclinic structure of tungsten is composed of regular WO_6 octahedron with particles usually in the form of blocks or powders. Purple tungsten has a unique needle-like or rod-like crystal morphology, with a large number of cracks and oxygen vacancies in the crystal lattice. This structure makes its specific surface area much higher than that of yellow tungsten trioxide, which is conducive to the adsorption and diffusion of reactant molecules. Purple tungsten has a band gap of about 2.2-2.4 eV, which is lower than that of yellow tungsten trioxide (2.6-2.8 eV), and has a wider optical absorption range and a deep purple color. The density of purple tungsten is about 7.0 g/cm^3, which is slightly lower than that of yellow tungsten trioxide, and the thermal stability is also poor, and it is easy to be further reduced at high temperature.

Preparation method of yellow tungsten trioxide and purple tungsten oxide

Tungsten is calcined Ammonium metatungstate or tungstic acid preparation, the process is mature and the product is stable. Purple tungsten needs to be converted from yellow tungsten trioxide under stronger reduction conditions, such as $WO_3 + H_2$ (partial pressure of low oxygen, 400-600°C) $\rightarrow W_{18}O_{49} + H_2O$. The needle-like structure of tungsten is related to its rapid oxygen loss and crystal reconstitution, and the atmosphere and temperature should be controlled during the preparation process to avoid the formation of other phases. Industrially, purple tungsten is often directly prepared from the thermal decomposition of ammonium paratungstate under specific conditions, because it is suitable for the production of ultrafine tungsten powder.

Comparison of performance and application of yellow tungsten trioxide and purple tungsten oxide

Tungsten is widely used in photocatalysis, pigments and powder metallurgy due to its stability, while the high activity of tungsten makes it advantageous in the preparation of fine-grained tungsten powder. The needle-like structure and internal cracks of purple tungsten make the reaction from the surface and the inside at the same time during hydrogen reduction, and the particle size of tungsten powder can be as small as 0.1-0.5 microns, which is suitable for high-precision tungsten products. In addition, purple tungsten excels in the field of gas sensors, and its oxygen vacancies can enhance sensitivity to reducing gases, such as the detection of carbon monoxide or hydrogen. In contrast, tungsten flavour is less reactive in these applications.

The transformation relationship between yellow tungsten trioxide and purple tungsten oxide

Yellow tungsten trioxide can be converted to purple tungsten by stepwise reduction, which requires stronger reduction conditions than the generation of blue tungsten. The formation of purple tungsten marks the high level of oxygen vacancies, and its unique morphology and properties also make it a special case among tungsten oxides. Conversely, purple tungsten can be partially restored to yellow tungsten trioxide when heated in an oxidizing atmosphere, but this process is rarely used in industry.

2.3.3 Tungsten and brown tungsten oxide

Tungsten yellow (WO_3) and brown tungsten are the two forms with the largest difference in oxidation states among tungsten oxides, and their chemical properties, structural characteristics and application scenarios are completely different. As a low-oxidation tungsten oxide, tungsten brown has a unique position in the tungsten industry chain. Here's a closer look at how the two compare.

Chemical composition and oxidation state of yellow tungsten trioxide and brown tungsten oxide

The chemical formula of yellow tungsten trioxide is WO_3, tungsten is in +6 oxidation state, oxygen index is 3, and it is in a completely oxidized state. The chemical formula of tungsten brown is WO_2, the oxygen index is 2, and tungsten is in the +4 oxidation state, indicating that its oxygen content is significantly lower than that of yellow tungsten trioxide. There is no oxygen vacancy in WO_2, but the coordination number of oxygen atoms decreases, and the chemical environment of tungsten changes significantly. The brown color of brown tungsten is due to a significant change in its electronic structure, which contrasts sharply with the light yellow color of yellow tungsten trioxide.

Crystal structure and physical properties of yellow tungsten trioxide and brown tungsten oxide

The monoclinic crystal system of yellow tungsten trioxide is composed of WO_6 octahedron and has a regular and stable structure. Tungsten brown is a monoclinic or orthorhombic crystal system, composed of WO_4tetrahedron or distorted WO_6 units, and the lattice arrangement is relatively loose. Brown tungsten is dark brown or tan in color, with a band gap of about 1.8-2.0 eV, which is much lower than that of yellow tungsten trioxide (2.6-2.8 eV), and exhibits stronger light absorption. The density of tungsten brown is about 7.2 g/cm^3, which is slightly higher than that of yellow tungsten trioxide, but its thermal stability is poor, and it is easy to convert to WO_3 in an oxidizing atmosphere.

Preparation method of yellow tungsten trioxide and brown tungsten oxide

Tungsten flavour Tungstic acid or ammonium paratungstate calcination, and tungsten brown needs to be converted from yellow tungsten trioxide under strong reduction conditions: $WO_3 + 2H_2$（高温，700-900℃）$\rightarrow WO_2 + 2H_2O$。

Industrially, brown tungsten is also prepared by direct reduction of tungsten concentrate as an intermediate in the production of tungsten metal powder. The partial pressure of oxygen should be strictly controlled in the preparation of brown tungsten to avoid the formation of other intermediate oxides.

Comparison of performance and application of yellow tungsten trioxide and brown tungsten oxide

The applications of yellow tungsten trioxide are mainly used in photocatalysis, pigments and powder metallurgy, because of OS, while brown tungsten is mainly used for the preparation of tungsten metal powder and tungsten compounds due to its low oxidation state and high reactivity. Brown tungsten reacts very quickly in hydrogen reduction, which can generate ultra-fine tungsten powder, which is suitable for high-performance tungsten products. In addition, brown tungsten has potential in catalysts and electrode materials due to its low band gap and high conductivity.

Conversion relationship between tungsten flavona and brown tungsten oxide

Yellowscheter can be converted to brown-tungsten by strong reduction, which can be progressively oxidized to WO_3 under oxidizing conditions (e.g., heating in air). This conversion process is an important link in tungsten smelting, which reflects the dynamic change of oxidation state.

2.4 Tungsten properties are related to oxygen content

As an important tungsten oxide, the properties of Yellow tungsten trioxide (WO_3) are closely related to oxygen content. The oxygen content not only determines the chemical composition and crystal structure of yellow tungsten trioxide, but also directly affects its physical properties, chemical properties and preparation process. The following will discuss in detail the correlation between the characteristics of yellow tungsten trioxide and oxygen content from three aspects: structure, properties and preparation.

2.4.1 Relationship between the structure of yellow tungsten trioxide and oxygen content

The chemical formula of yellow tungsten trioxide is WO_3, which indicates that its oxygen index is 3, tungsten is in the +6 oxidation state, and the oxygen content reaches a saturated state. The oxygen content directly determines the crystal structure and stability of yellow tungsten trioxide, and the change of structure further affects its performance and application.

Basic characteristics of crystal structure

The crystal structure of yellow tungsten trioxide is mainly composed of WO_6 octahedra, which are connected by coangular or colateral connections to form a three-dimensional network. At room temperature, tungsten usually exhibits a monoclinic with a space group of $P2_1/n$. As the temperature increases, the structure can undergo phase transformation, for example, above 330°C to orthorhombic, and above 740°C to tetragonal. These phase transitions are closely related to the coordination environment of the oxygen atoms, but the oxygen content itself remains constant, and only the lattice symmetry is adjusted.

Saturation of oxygen content

In the WO_3 structure of yellow tungsten trioxide, the oxygen content is saturated, and each tungsten atom is coordinated with six oxygen atoms, and there are no oxygen vacancies. This saturation state gives the yellow tungsten trioxide a high structural stability, making it less likely to decompose or spontaneously undergo structural changes in air. Compared to tungsten oxide with lower oxygen content, such as blue tungsten oxide $W_{20}O_{58}$ or purple tungsten oxide $W_{18}O_{49}$), yellow tungsten trioxide has higher lattice regularity and few defect states. This regularity stems from the adequate coordination of the oxygen atoms, and the symmetrical arrangement of the WO_6 octahedron reduces the lattice stress.

Effect of changes in oxygen content

Although tungsten itself is WO_3, if there is a slight change in oxygen content during preparation or processing (e.g. partial loss of oxygen atoms), its structure can quickly deviate from its ideal state. For example, in a reducing atmosphere (e.g., hydrogen), tungsten may lose a small amount of oxygen, creating oxygen vacancies that cause a shift in crystal structure from WO_3 to $W_{20}O_{58}$ or $W_{18}O_{49}$. This transition is accompanied by a break or distortion of the octahedral connection pattern, and defect sites appear in the crystal lattice. For example, the oxygen index of blue tungsten oxide drops to 2.9 and purple tungsten oxide to 2.72, and the crystal structure changes from a regular monoclinic to a loose needle or cracked morphology. In contrast, the saturated oxygen content of yellow tungsten trioxide ensures its structural integrity and stability.

Relationship between microstructure and oxygen

In nanoscale yellow tungsten trioxide, the effect of oxygen content on the structure is more significant. The surface effects of nanoparticles make them more susceptible to external conditions (e.g., atmosphere, temperature). If oxygen atoms are absent on the surface, local defects may occur in the crystal, resulting in an increase in specific surface area and a change in morphology. Studies have shown that nano-yellow tungsten trioxide may form oxygen vacancies during vacuum heat treatment, making it change from a bulk to a porous structure. Although this change did not change the overall WO_3 composition, the reorganization of the local structure was closely related to the fine-tuning of oxygen content.

2.4.2 Relationship between the properties of yellow tungsten trioxide and oxygen content

The physical and chemical properties of tungsten are closely related to its oxygen content. The saturation of oxygen content not only determines its physical properties such as color, optical properties, and conductivity, but also affects its chemical properties such as chemical stability and catalytic activity.

Physical properties of tungsten

1. **Color**: The light yellow or yellow-green color of tungsten stems from its saturated oxygen content and the properties of its electronic structure. As an n-type semiconductor, tungsten has a bandgap of about 2.6-2.8 eV, and the light absorption is mainly concentrated in the ultraviolet and near-visible regions. If the oxygen content decreases (eg, blue or purple tungsten oxide is generated), the band gap narrows (2.4 eV or less) and the color darkens to blue or purple. This color change is a consequence of the decrease in electron transition energy as oxygen vacancies increase.
2. **Density and melting point**: Tungsten has a density of 7.16 g/cm³ and a melting point of up to 1473°C, reflecting the compactness and thermal stability of its crystal lattice at high oxygen content. In contrast, tungsten oxide with a lower oxygen content (e.g., WO_2, density 7.2 g/cm³) has a loose structure and reduced thermal stability.

Chemical properties of yellow tungsten trioxide

1. **Stability**: Yellow tungsten trioxide has excellent chemical stability in air and is not easily oxidized or decomposed due to its saturated oxygen content. Under alkaline conditions, yellow tungsten trioxide dissolves to form tungstate ions (WO_4^{2-}), but is less reactive in acidic or neutral environments. In contrast, tungsten oxide with low oxygen content (e.g., WO_2) is easily oxidized to WO_3 in an oxidizing atmosphere, showing poor stability.
2. **Catalytic activity**: The photocatalytic properties of yellow tungsten trioxide (e.g., water splitting to produce hydrogen) are related to its oxygen content and band gap. The saturated oxygen state makes the activity moderate, while the oxygen vacancy tungsten oxide has higher catalytic activity due to the increase of defect sites. For example, purple tungsten oxide is more efficient than yellow tungsten trioxide in photocatalytic reactions.
3. **Reducibility**: Yellow tungsten trioxide can be reduced to low-oxygen tungsten oxide or tungsten metal in a hydrogen atmosphere, and its reduction rate is directly related to the oxygen content.

2.4.3 Preparation of yellow tungsten trioxide and control of oxygen content

The preparation process of yellow tungsten trioxide involves a multi-step reaction from the tungsten ore to the final product, and the control of oxygen content is the key to ensure its chemical composition (WO_3) and stable properties.

Preparation method of yellow tungsten trioxide

1. **Calcination method**: Industrially, yellow tungsten trioxide is mainly prepared by calcining tungsten trioxide precursors, such as:

  - Ammonium paratungstate($(NH_4)_5H_5[H_2(WO_4)_6]$ decomposes in air at 400-600°C: → $WO_3 + NH_3\uparrow + H_2O\uparrow$.
  - Tungstic acid (H_2WO_4) calcined at 500-700 °C: → $WO_3 + H_2O\uparrow$. These reactions take place in an oxidizing atmosphere, ensuring that the oxygen content is saturated and pure WO_3 is generated.
2. **Wet chemical method**: tungsten acid precipitate is generated by acidification of sodium tungstate solution, and then yellow tungsten trioxide is prepared by heat treatment. This method allows for precise control of oxygen content and avoids interference from reducing impurities.
3. **Preparation of nano-yellow tungsten trioxide**: Nano-WO_3 with stable oxygen content was prepared by using solvothermal method or vapor deposition method to adjust the partial pressure and temperature of oxygen.

The key to the control of yellow tungsten trioxide oxygen content

1. **Atmosphere control**: Oxidizing atmospheres (such as air or oxygen) should be maintained during the preparation process to avoid a decrease in oxygen content. If a reducing atmosphere (e.g., hydrogen) is used, tungsten may be converted to $W_{20}O_{58}$ or $W_{18}O_{49}$. For example, if a small amount of hydrogen is introduced at 500°C, the oxygen index may drop from 3 to 2.9.
2. **Temperature control**: Oxygen volatilization may occur if the calcination temperature is too high (e.g. over 800°C), especially when the partial pressure of oxygen is low, and it needs to be tightly controlled to maintain the WO_3 structure. Low temperatures (400-600°C) favor oxygen saturation.
3. **Purity of raw materials**: Impurities (such as carbon or sulfur) in ammonium paratungstate or tungstic acid may introduce reducing properties during decomposition and reduce oxygen content, so high-purity raw materials need to be used.

CTIA GROUP LTD Yellow tungsten trioxide

Chapter 3 Classification of yellow tungsten trioxide

Yellow tungsten trioxide (WO_3) is an important tungsten oxide that can be classified in a variety of ways according to different standards. Among them, purity-based classification is one of the commonly used methods in industry and scientific research, because purity directly affects its performance and range of applications. This chapter will focus on the purity-based classification of yellow tungsten trioxide, which is divided into two categories: ordinary yellow tungsten trioxide and high purity yellow tungsten trioxide.

3.1 Classification of yellow tungsten trioxide based on purity

The purity of yellow tungsten trioxide refers to the percentage of WO_3 in it, which is usually measured by the amount after the impurities are removed. Purity varies depending on the source of raw materials, the production process, and the post-processing technology. According to the purity level, yellow tungsten trioxide can be divided into two categories: ordinary yellow tungsten trioxide and high purity yellow tungsten trioxide, each of which is different in chemical composition, physical properties and use.

3.1.1 Ordinary yellow tungsten trioxide

Ordinary yellow tungsten trioxide refers to yellow tungsten trioxide with relatively low purity, usually WO_3 content is between 98%-99.5%, and contains a certain amount of impurities, such as iron (Fe), molybdenum (Mo), silicon (Si), aluminum (Al), etc. Ordinary yellow tungsten trioxide is widely used in industrial production, because of its low preparation cost, it is suitable for scenarios with low purity requirements.

Chemical composition and impurities of ordinary yellow tungsten trioxide

The WO_3 content of ordinary yellow tungsten trioxide usually meets the minimum requirements specified in the national standard (e.g. GB/T 3457-1998), that is, not less than 98%. The impurities are mainly derived from tungsten ore or contamination during preparation. For example, molybdenum in tungsten ore may remain in the form of MoO_3, and the content is generally between 0.01% and 0.05%. Iron may be present in the form of oxides or silicates in a content of about 0.005%-0.02%. In addition, the additives used in the preparation process (e.g., sodium carbonate) or equipment wear and tear can also introduce trace impurities, such as silicon (SiO_2) or calcium (CaO), which are typically less than 0.03%.

Physical properties of ordinary yellow tungsten trioxide

Ordinary yellow tungsten trioxide has a light yellow to yellowish green powder in appearance, and the color may be slightly deviated due to impurities, such as yellowish brown when the iron content is high. The particle size is generally between 1 and 10 microns, and the specific surface area is moderate (about 2-5 m^2/g). The density of ordinary yellow tungsten trioxide is about 7.16 g/cm^3, which is consistent with the theoretical value, but it may be slightly uneven in microstructure due to the presence of impurities. The melting point is 1473°C, but impurities may reduce its thermal stability, such as iron oxides at high temperatures, which may trigger local decomposition.

Preparation method of ordinary yellow tungsten trioxide

Ordinary yellow tungsten trioxide is usually calcined Ammonium paratungstate or tungstic acid, the process is relatively simple:

- Tungsten concentrate is leached by alkali to produce sodium tungstate solution;
- acidification precipitates to tungstic acid (H_2WO_4);
- Calcination in air at 500-700°C to generate WO_3. This process eliminates the need for complex purification steps, allowing small amounts of impurities to remain to reduce production costs.

Application fields of ordinary yellow tungsten trioxide

Ordinary yellow tungsten trioxide is mainly used in the metallurgical field of tungsten as a raw material for the production of tungsten metal powder and tungsten carbide. For example, in the preparation of tungsten powder by hydrogen reduction method, the impurities of ordinary yellow tungsten trioxide have little impact on the performance of the final product, which is suitable for the manufacture of cemented carbide tools, wear-resistant parts, etc.

Characteristics and limitations of ordinary yellow tungsten trioxide

The advantages of ordinary yellow tungsten trioxide are that it is cost-effective, has a mature production process, and is suitable for large-scale industrial applications. However, the impurity content may lead to unstable properties, such as molybdenum impurities that may affect the purity of tungsten powder during high-temperature reduction, or iron impurities that reduce the mechanical strength of the product. Therefore, ordinary yellow tungsten trioxide is more suitable for traditional industrial scenarios with low purity requirements.

3.1.2 High purity yellow tungsten trioxide

High-purity yellow tungsten trioxide refers to Yellow tungsten trioxide with a WO_3 content of more than 99.9%, and the impurity content is very low, usually measured in ppm level. This high-purity yellow tungsten trioxide is suitable for high-tech fields with demanding material properties, such as the electronics industry and new energy materials.

Chemical composition and impurities of high-purity yellow tungsten trioxide

The WO_3 content of high-purity yellow tungsten trioxide is usually between 99.95%-99.999%, and the impurity content is strictly controlled. For example, iron (Fe) content is less than 10 ppm, molybdenum (Mo) is less than 5 ppm, and silicon (Si) and aluminum (Al) are less than 20 ppm. Such low levels of impurities are achieved by advanced purification techniques such as ion exchange or solvent extraction, which remove associated elements from the raw material. In addition, the content of alkali metals such as sodium (Na) and potassium (K) in high-purity yellow tungsten trioxide should also be controlled below 5 ppm to meet the needs of electronic materials.

Physical properties of high-purity yellow tungsten trioxide

High-purity yellow tungsten trioxide is a uniform light yellow powder, pure color, and no color difference caused by obvious impurities. The particle size can be adjusted according to the demand, usually between 0.5-5 microns, nano-scale high-purity yellow tungsten trioxide can even reach below 50 nanometers, and the specific surface area can be as high as 10-20 m^2/g. The density is still 7.16 g/cm^3, but the crystal structure is more regular and there are fewer defects. Its bandgap (2.6-2.8 eV) and optical properties are more stable, making it suitable for optical and electrical applications. Excellent thermal stability, no obvious decomposition or phase change at high temperatures.

Preparation method of high-purity yellow tungsten trioxide

The preparation of high-purity yellow tungsten trioxide requires the addition of purification steps on the basis of ordinary yellow tungsten trioxide process:

- After extracting sodium tungstate solution from tungsten concentrate, ion exchange resin is used to remove impurity ions;
- Through multiple acidification-precipitation cycles, the content of molybdenum, iron and other elements was further reduced.

- Calcined in clean air or oxygen at 600-800°C to ensure that the oxygen content is saturated and pollution-free. In the laboratory, high-purity yellow tungsten trioxide can also be synthesized by vapor deposition or solvothermal methods, e.g. with high-purity tungstate as a precursor, which is decomposed into WO_3 under strictly controlled conditions. This method provides precise control of particle morphology and purity and is commonly used in nanomaterials research.

Application fields of high-purity yellow tungsten trioxide

High-purity yellow tungsten trioxide is widely used in high-tech fields due to its low impurities and high stability:

- **Electronics industry**: as a sputtering target, used in the preparation of transparent conductive films for thin-film transistors (TFTs) or solar cells.
- **New energy**: Nano high-purity yellow tungsten trioxide exhibits high specific capacity (about 693 mAh/g) and excellent cycling stability in lithium-ion battery anode materials.
- **Photocatalyst**: High-purity yellow tungsten trioxide is more efficient in photocatalytic water splitting for hydrogen production or degradation of organic pollutants due to its uniform band gap and low defect rate.
- **Optical materials**: used in the preparation of electrochromic glass, the purity of which guarantees uniformity and durability of color changes.

Characteristics and limitations of high-purity yellow tungsten trioxide

The strength of high-purity yellow tungsten trioxide lies in its excellent performance and wide range of high-end applications, which can meet the requirements of precision manufacturing and cutting-edge technology.

However, the preparation process is complex and costly, for example, ion exchange and clean calcination require expensive equipment and energy investment, so they are mainly used in low-batch, high-value-added scenarios, rather than large-scale industrial production.

3.2 Classification of yellow tungsten trioxide based on crystal structure

The crystal structure of yellow tungsten trioxide (WO_3) is one of the important bases for its classification, and different crystal forms directly affect its physical properties, chemical behavior and application fields.

The crystal structure of yellow tungsten trioxide is mainly determined by the arrangement of WO_6 octahedron and can form a variety of crystal forms under the influence of temperature, pressure and preparation conditions, including monoclinic crystal form, orthorhombic crystal form, hexagonal crystal form, cubic crystal form/tetragonal crystal form and triclinic crystal form. The following is a detailed discussion of the characteristics and differences of each type of crystal form.

3.2.1 Monoclinic tungsten

Monoclinic tungsten is the most common and stable crystal structure form of tungsten at room temperature, which is widely found in nature and industrial products, and has become the focus of research and application because of its stability.

Structural characteristics of monoclinic tungsten

Monoclinic tungsten belongs to the monoclinic crystal system, the space group is $P2_1/n$, and the lattice parameters are usually a=7.306 Å, b=7.540 Å, c=7.692 Å, and β=90.91°. Its structure consists of WO_6 octahedron connected by coangular connections, forming a slightly inclined three-dimensional network. Slight distortion of the octahedron is the main feature of the monoclinic crystal form, and this asymmetry stems from the non-uniform distribution of oxygen atoms.

Physical properties of monoclinic tungsten

Monoclinic tungsten is light yellow or yellow-green, with a density of 7.16 g/cm^3 and a band gap of about 2.6-2.8 eV. It has a melting point of 1473 °C and has high thermal and chemical stability at room temperature. The particle morphology is mostly lumpy or powdery, and the size is usually between 1-10 microns. The advantage of monoclinic tungsten is its thermodynamic stability, which makes it not easy to undergo phase change at room temperature, and is suitable for most industrial and scientific research scenarios. However, the band gap is large, and the photocatalytic efficiency is limited.

Preparation and conditions of monoclinic tungsten

Monoclinic tungsten is usually calcined Ammonium paratungstate Manufactured in air at 400-600°C. This temperature range ensures saturation of oxygen content and the formation of a stable monoclinic structure. If the temperature is lower than 330°C, an unstable transition state may be formed; If it exceeds 740°C, it may change to other crystal forms.

Applications of monoclinic tungsten

Monoclinic tungsten is widely used in powder metallurgy because of its stability, as a raw material for the production of tungsten powder and cemented carbide. Its semiconducting properties also make it excellent in photocatalysts, such as water splitting for hydrogen, and electrochromic materials, such as smart window glass. In addition, the regular structure of the monoclinic crystal form is suitable as a ceramic pigment to provide a stable yellow hue.

3.2.2 Orthorhombic tungsten

Orthorhombic tungsten is a crystal structure of yellow tungsten trioxide at higher temperatures, which has higher symmetry than monoclinic crystal form, and its application scenarios are different. Orthorhombic tungsten belongs to the orthorhombic crystal system, the space group is Pnma, and the lattice parameters are about a=7.341 Å, b=7.570 Å, and c=7.754 Å. The arrangement of WO_6 octahedron is more symmetrical than that of monoclinic crystal form, and the degree of distortion is reduced, forming a more regular three-dimensional framework.

Physical properties of orthorhombic tungsten

The orthorhombic form of yellow tungsten trioxide is slightly darker in color and may be yellow-orange in color, with a slightly lower band gap than the monoclinic form (about 2.5-2.7 eV). Its density is close to 7.16 g/cm³, and its thermal stability is slightly inferior to that of monoclinic crystals, which will transform back to monoclinic when cooled below 330°C. Orthorhombic tungsten has high symmetry and is suitable for high-temperature applications, but its instability limits the range of use at room temperature.

Preparation and conditions of orthorhombic tungsten

Orthorhombic tungsten is formed in the temperature range of 330-740°C, e.g. by heating monoclinic tungsten to 500°C and holding warm. During the preparation process, it is necessary to maintain an oxidizing atmosphere to avoid the change of crystal form caused by the reduction of oxygen content.

Application field of orthorhombic tungsten

The stability of orthorhombic tungsten in high-temperature environments makes it suitable as an intermediate for high-temperature catalysts or electrode materials. For example, it is slightly more active in photocatalytic reactions than monoclinic and can be used to degrade organic pollutants. In addition, orthorhombic crystal forms are also used to study the phase transition behavior of WO_3.

3.2.3 Hexagonal tungsten

Hexagonal tungsten is a rare crystal structure that is usually formed under specific conditions (e.g., doping or hydrothermal synthesis) and has a unique pore structure.

Hexagonal tungsten belongs to the hexagonal crystal system, the space group is P6/mmm, and the lattice parameters are about a=7.298 Å and c=3.899 Å. Its structure is surrounded by a WO_6 octahedron into a hexagonal channel, forming a one-dimensional channel network. This open structure gives it a high specific surface area.

Physical properties of hexagonal yellow tungsten trioxide

Hexagonal tungsten is light yellow in color, with a band gap of about 2.7 eV, and a density slightly lower than that of monoclinic (about 7.1 g/cm³). Its pore structure gives it high adsorption capacity and ionic conductivity, but it has poor thermal stability and is easy to transform into other crystal forms at high temperatures.

Preparation and conditions of hexagonal yellow tungsten trioxide

Hexagonal yellow tungsten trioxide is usually prepared by hydrothermal or solvothermal methods, such as sodium tungstate as raw material and synthesized with structure directing agents (such as urea) at 180-220 °C. Doped elements such as Na^+ or NH_4^+ stabilize its hexagonal structure.

Hexagonal crystalline tungsten applications

Hexagonal yellow tungsten trioxide excels in gas sensors and ionic conductors, e.g. for the detection of CO or H_2, due to its pore structure. Its high specific surface area also gives it potential in the field of photocatalysis. In addition, the hexagonal form can be used as a template for lithium battery electrode materials.

3.2.4 Cubic crystalline / tetragonal crystalline yellow tungsten trioxide

Cubic and tetragonal tungsten are the crystal structure of yellow tungsten trioxide at high temperature or high pressure, which has special properties due to high symmetry.

Structural characteristics of tetragonal yellow tungsten trioxide

- **Tetragonal crystal form**: the space group is P4/nmm, and the lattice parameters are about a=5.272 Å and c=7.832 Å, which are formed above 740°C.
- **Cubic crystal form**: the space group is Pm3m, which is very rare, and usually needs to be induced by high pressure or doping. Both are composed of WO_6 octahedron with a highly symmetrical arrangement with minimal distortion.

Physical properties of tetragonal tungsten

The tetragonal tungsten is orange-yellow in color, with a band gap of about 2.4-2.6 eV and a density of nearly 7.16 g/cm³. The cubic crystal form is darker in color and similar in nature but more unstable. The conductivity of the two is enhanced at high temperatures, but they are easy to turn into monoclinic crystal forms after cooling. Cubic/tetragonal tungsten has high symmetry and is suitable for high-temperature applications, but it is unstable at room temperature and limited in practical application.

Preparation and conditions of tetragonal yellow tungsten trioxide

Tetragonal tungsten is prepared by heating the monoclinic crystal form to 740-900 °C, and an oxidizing atmosphere is required to maintain the oxygen content. Cubic crystal forms are induced by high pressure (e.g., 10 GPa) or doping (e.g., Nb^{5+}) and are usually synthesized in the laboratory.

Application fields of tetragonal tungsten

Tetragonal tungsten is used in high-temperature electrode materials and catalysts, and its high symmetry improves electrical conductivity. Due to its rarity, cubic crystal forms are mostly used in basic research to explore the phase transformation mechanism of WO_3.

3.2.5 Triclinic tungsten

Triclinic crystal tungsten is the crystal structure of yellow tungsten trioxide at low temperature, with the lowest symmetry and relatively rare. Triclinic tungsten belongs to the triclinic crystal system, the space group is P1, and the lattice parameters are complex ($a \neq b \neq c$, $\alpha \neq \beta \neq \gamma \neq 90°$). The WO_6 octahedron is severely distorted, and the lattice asymmetry is the highest.

Physical properties of triclinic tungsten

Triclinic tungsten is light yellow with a band gap of about 2.8 eV and a density of slightly less than 7.16 g/cm^3. It has poor thermal stability, formed at low temperatures (below -10 °C), and warmed up to 17 °C to transform into monoclinic crystal form.

Preparation and conditions of triclinic yellow tungsten trioxide

Triclinic tungsten is prepared by cryogenic cooling (e.g., -50°C) monoclinic WO_3 or induced under specific solvothermal conditions. Preparation requires tightly controlled temperature and cooling rates.

Application field of triclinic crystal tungsten

Triclinic tungsten is mainly used to study the low-temperature phase transformation behavior of WO_3, and due to instability, industrial applications are almost zero.

3.3 Classification of yellow tungsten trioxide based on physical form

As a multifunctional material, the diversity of physical forms of Yellow tungsten trioxide (WO_3) significantly affects its properties and applications. The classification based on physical morphology mainly focuses on the microstructure and size characteristics of yellow tungsten trioxide, including nanoparticles, nanosheets, and nanowires. These forms are usually obtained through specific preparation processes and are suitable for different industrial and scientific research scenarios. The following is a detailed discussion of the characteristics, preparation methods, and applications of each form.

3.3.1 Tungsten nanoparticles

Yellowsten nanoparticles refer to spherical or nearly spherical Yellow tungsten trioxide particles with a particle size of 1-100 nanometers, which have an important position in the field of nanotechnology because of their high specific surface area and excellent physical and chemical properties.

Morphological characteristics of tungsten yellow particles

Tungsten yellow nanoparticles are typically between 10-100 nm in size and are spherical or polyhedral in morphology with a smooth or slightly rough surface. Its crystal structure is mostly monoclinic crystal form, but it may also be orthogonal or hexagonal due to preparation conditions. The size distribution of nanoparticles can be observed by transmission electron microscopy (TEM) or scanning electron microscopy (SEM), and usually has good uniformity.

Physicochemical properties of tungsten nanoparticles

The yellow tungsten trioxide nanoparticles are light yellow in color, with a band gap of about 2.6-2.8 eV and a density of nearly 7.16 g/cm³. Its specific surface area is much higher than that of conventional yellow tungsten trioxide powder, up to 20-50 m²/g, and this high specific surface area enhances its surface activity. The thermal stability of nanoparticles is similar to that of macroscopic yellow tungsten trioxide, but at high temperatures there may be a slight loss of oxygen due to surface effects. Chemically, tungsten nanoparticles can be dissolved to form tungstate ions (WO_4^{2-}) under alkaline conditions, which can be converted into low-oxygen tungsten oxide in a reducing atmosphere.

Preparation method of yellow tungsten trioxide nanoparticles

There are various methods for the preparation of yellow tungsten trioxide nanoparticles, including:

- **Solvothermal method**: tungstic acid or sodium tungstate is used as raw material, reacted in water or organic solvent at 180-220 °C, and surfactants (such as CTAB) are added to control the particle size.
- **Vapor deposition**: Nanoparticles are formed by evaporation of WO_3 precursors in an inert atmosphere.
- **Calcination method**: After calcining ammonium paratungstate at 400-600 °C, nanoscale particles are prepared by ball milling or ultrasonic dispersion. These methods can precisely control particle size and morphology by adjusting temperature, pH, or reaction time.

Application areas of tungsten nanoparticles

Tungsten yellow tungsten trioxide nanoparticles are widely used in many fields due to their excellent properties:

- **Photocatalysis**: The high specific surface area makes it more efficient in photocatalytic water splitting to hydrogen or in the degradation of organic pollutants.

- **Energy storage materials**: As the anode material of lithium-ion batteries, its theoretical specific capacity is as high as 693 mAh/g, and the cycle stability is better than that of traditional materials.
- **Gas sensors**: Nanoparticles are sensitive to reducing gases (e.g., H_2, CO) and can be used for environmental monitoring.
- **Pigments**: Their fine particle size and uniformity allow them to provide a stable yellow color in high-end ceramics and coatings.

3.3.2 Tungsten nanosheets

Yellow tungsten trioxide nanosheets refer to yellow tungsten trioxide with a two-dimensional layered structure, with a thickness of nanometers and a transverse size of up to microns, which has attracted much attention in the field of thin film materials and catalysis because of its unique morphology.

Morphological characteristics of tungsten yellow nanosheets

The thickness of tungsten nanosheets is usually between 1 and 50 nanometers, and the transverse size can reach 0.1-10 microns, and the morphology is thin or rectangular sheets. TEM and atomic force microscopy (AFM) show a flat surface with slightly curled edges. Its crystal structure is mostly monoclinic crystal type, and WO_6 octahedron is arranged in an orderly manner along a specific direction to form a layered structure.

Physicochemical properties of tungsten nanosheets

The yellow tungsten trioxide nanosheets are light yellow in color, with a band gap slightly lower than that of the nanoparticles (about 2.5-2.7 eV), and are optically anisotropic due to their two-dimensional structure. Its specific surface area is about 10-30 m^2/g, which is lower than that of nanoparticles but higher than that of macroscopic powders. The thermal stability of nanosheets is good, but structural reorganization may occur due to interlayer interactions at high temperatures. The chemical properties are the same as those of yellow tungsten trioxide, but the activity is higher in surface reactions (e.g., adsorption) due to more exposed planes.

Preparation method of tungsten nanosheets

The preparation of yellow tungsten trioxide nanosheets mainly includes:

- **Liquid-phase stripping**: Bulk WO_3 is dispersed in a solvent (e.g., ethanol) and ultrasonically peeled into nanosheets.
- **Hydrothermal method**: sodium tungstate is used as raw material, and a guide agent is added to react at 180-200 °C to generate a layered structure.

- **Chemical vapor deposition (CVD):** WO_3 thin films are deposited on a substrate and then peeled or etched to produce nanosheets. These methods require controlled reaction conditions to ensure the integrity of the sheet structure.

Application fields of yellow tungsten trioxide nanosheets

The two-dimensional properties of tungsten nanosheets make them excellent in specific areas:

- **Electrochromic material**: used in smart window glass, its sheet structure improves the uniformity and response speed of color change.
- **Optoelectronic materials**: As components of thin-film transistors or photodetectors, two-dimensional structures enhance charge transfer efficiency.
- **Catalyst**: Planar exposure of the active site makes it highly efficient in photocatalytic or electrocatalytic reactions.
- **Flexible electronics**: Can be deposited on flexible substrates for wearable devices.

Characteristics and limitations of tungsten yellow nanosheets

The advantages of tungsten yellow nanosheets are the anisotropy of the two-dimensional structure and high planar activity, but the preparation process is complex, and the stacking between the pieces may reduce some of the performance.

3.3.3 Tungsten nanowires

Yellow tungsten trioxide nanowires are one-dimensional Yellow tungsten trioxide with a diameter of nanometers and a length of up to microns, which have important applications in nanodevices due to their high aspect ratio and excellent electrical conductivity.

Morphological characteristics of tungsten nanowires

Tungsten nanowires are typically between 10-100 nanometers in diameter and 1-50 microns in length, and are elongated cylindrical or rod-shaped. SEM and TEM showed that the surface was smooth, the crystal structure was mostly monoclinic or hexagonal, and the WO_6 octahedron was arranged in one dimension to form a linear structure.

Physicochemical properties of tungsten nanowires

The tungsten nanowires are light yellow in color with a band gap of about 2.6-2.8 eV, which is similar to that of nanoparticles. Its specific surface area is about 15-40 m^2/g, which is between nanoparticles and nanosheets. The one-dimensional structure gives it excellent electron transport ability, and the conductivity along the axis is higher than that of other forms. Thermally stable as yellow tungsten trioxide, but may break due to surface tension at high temperatures. Chemically, nanowires have high surface activity and are easy to react with gas molecules or ions.

Preparation method of tungsten nanowires

The preparation methods of yellow tungsten trioxide nanowires include:

- **Hydrothermal method**: Yellow tungsten oxide precursor is used as raw material, and a structure directing agent (such as K_2SO_4) is added at 200°C to induce one-dimensional growth.
- **Electrochemical deposition**: WO_3 is deposited in a template (e.g., AAO film) and then removed from the template to obtain nanowires.
- **Gas phase method**: Nanowires are formed by evaporation of WO_3 and deposition in a carrier gas. These methods require precise control of the growth direction and size.

Application fields of tungsten yellow nanowires

Tungsten Tungsten Nanowires excel in several areas due to their one-dimensional properties:

- **Gas sensors**: The high aspect ratio and surface activity make it highly sensitive to gases such as NO_2 and H_2S.
- **Photocatalyst**: The one-dimensional structure promotes electron-hole separation and improves the photocatalytic efficiency.
- **Nanoelectronic devices**: As conductive channels of field-effect transistors, their linear structure enhances device performance.
- **Energy storage**: Used as an electrode material in supercapacitors, providing a fast ion diffusion path.

3.3.4 Tungsten nanorods

Yellowschet nanorods are one-dimensional yellow tungsten trioxide (WO_3) with a morphological form between nanowires and nanoparticles, with a high aspect ratio and surface activity, and have unique application potential in the field of nanomaterials.

Morphological characteristics of tungsten nanorods

Tungsten nanorods are usually between 20-200 nm in diameter and up to 0.5-10 microns in length, and are short, thick rod-like or columnar in shape. Compared to nanowires, nanorods have a larger diameter and a slightly lower length-to-diameter ratio (generally 5-20).

Physicochemical properties of yellow tungsten trioxide nanorods

The tungsten nanorods are light yellow in color with a band gap of about 2.6-2.8 eV, which is similar to other nanoforms of tungsten. Its specific surface area is typically between 10-30 m^2/g, slightly lower than that of nanowires but higher than that of macroscopic powders. Due to its one-dimensional structure, it has a strong electron transport capacity along the axial direction and a high surface activity. The nanorods have a density of nearly 7.16 g/cm³ and are thermally stable, but may be slightly deformed due to surface tension at high temperatures. Chemically, nanorods can be dissolved in an alkaline environment to form tungstate ions (WO_4^{2-}), which can be converted under reduction conditions Purple tungsten oxide。

Preparation method of tungsten yellow nanorods

The preparation methods of yellow tungsten trioxide nanorods include:

- **Hydrothermal method**: sodium tungstate is used as raw material, and a guide agent (such as Na_2SO_4) is added at 180-220 °C to control the growth direction and form a rod-like structure.
- **Solvothermal method**: Ammonium paratungstate is used as a precursor in an organic solvent (such as ethanol) to adjust the pH value and temperature to generate nanorods.
- **Stencil method**: WO_3 is deposited with a porous template (e.g., alumina film) and then removed to obtain a rod-like morphology. These methods regulate the length and diameter of the rod by controlling the reaction time and concentration.

Application fields of tungsten nanorods

Due to their morphology and properties, tungsten nanorods are widely used in the following fields:

- **Photocatalysts**: High surface activity makes them excellent in photolysis of water or degradation of contaminants.
- **Gas sensor**: sensitive to NH_3, NO_2 and other gases, can be used for air quality monitoring.
- **Electrode Materials**: Provides a fast ion transport path in supercapacitors or lithium batteries.
- **Composites**: Added to polymers or ceramics as a reinforcing phase to improve mechanical properties.

3.3.5 Tungsten nanoflowers

Yellow tungsten trioxide nanoflower refers to the Yellow tungsten trioxide with a flower-like three-dimensional structure assembled from nanoscale subunits (such as nanosheets or nanoneedles), which has significant advantages in the field of catalysis due to its complex morphology and high specific surface area.

Morphological characteristics of tungsten nanoflowers

The overall size of tungsten nanoflowers is usually between 0.5-5 microns and consists of multiple nanosheets or nanoneedles (10-50 nanometers in thickness or diameter) arranged in a radial pattern, resembling flowers. SEM shows that it has a multi-level structure, with a dense center and scattered periphery.

Physicochemical properties of tungsten nanoflowers

The tungsten yellow nanoflowers are light yellow with a band gap of about 2.5-2.7 eV, which is positive to the surface and can reach 30-60 m²/g, and has excellent adsorption capacity due to its porous structure. The thermal stability is the same as that of yellow tungsten trioxide, but at high temperatures it may partially collapse due to a loose structure.

Preparation method of yellow tungsten trioxide nanoflowers

The preparation of tungsten nanoflowers is mainly used:

- **Hydrothermal method**: sodium tungstate is used as raw material, urea or CTAB is added as a structure guide agent at 200 °C to promote the self-assembly of nanosheets into flowers.
- **Microwave-assisted method**: Microwave heating is used to rapidly induce the growth of WO_3 crystal nuclei into flower-like structures.
- **Solvothermal method**: Concentration and temperature are controlled in solvents such as ethylene glycol to form a hierarchical structure. These methods require optimization of reaction conditions to ensure the integrity of the floral structure.

Application field of yellow tungsten trioxide nanoflower

Tungsten nanoflowers excel in the following areas:

- **Photocatalysis**: The porous structure and exposed active sites improve the photocatalytic efficiency and are suitable for water treatment.
- **Gas sensor**: High sensitivity to gases such as H_2S and CO makes it an excellent material for environmental monitoring.
- **Energy storage**: Used as an electrode material in supercapacitors, providing high specific capacity and fast charging and discharging.
- **Biomedical**: Loadable drugs for photothermal therapy or drug delivery.

3.3.6 Tungsten nanotubes

Tungsten Yellowsten Nanotubes are one-dimensional hollow Yellow tungsten trioxide structures whose tubular morphology gives them unique physicochemical properties, which are widely used in nanodevices and energy storage.

Morphological characteristics of tungsten nanotubes

The diameter of tungsten nanotubes is usually between 20-100 nanometers, the wall thickness is 5-20 nanometers, and the length can reach 1-20 microns. The TEM showed that the tube wall was composed of a monoclinic WO_6 octahedron with a uniform cavity in the tube. Its length-to-diameter ratio can reach more than 50 and has a high surface curvature.

Physicochemical properties of tungsten nanotubes

The tungsten nanotubes are light yellow in color, with a band gap of about 2.6-2.8 eV, a specific surface area of 20-40 m^2/g, and a hollow structure that enhances their adsorption and ion transport capabilities. Thermal stability is good, but the tube wall may collapse at high temperatures. Chemically, nanotubes are active on both the inner and outer surfaces and can be converted to a low-oxygen state WO_3 in a reducing atmosphere.

Preparation method of tungsten yellow tungsten trioxide nanotubes

The preparation methods of yellow tungsten trioxide nanotubes include:

- **Template method**: Deposition with anodized aluminum (AAO) as templateTungsten trioxide, and then dissolve the template with lye.
- **Hydrothermal method**: sodium tungstate is used as raw material and polyethylene glycol (PEG) is added to induce tubular growth.
- **Electrochemical method**: direct generation of nanotube arrays by anodizing tungsten foil. These methods require control of template pore size or growth conditions to create a hollow structure.

Application areas of tungsten yellow nanotubes

Tungsten Nanotubes have important applications in the following areas:

- **Energy storage**: In lithium batteries or supercapacitors, hollow structures provide fast ion diffusion channels.
- **Photocatalysis**: The inner and outer surfaces improve light absorption and catalytic efficiency.

3.3.7 Tungsten hollow balls

Tungsten hollow spheres refer to spherical yellow tungsten trioxide with a three-dimensional hollow structure, which has potential in the field of energy storage and catalysis due to its low density and high specific surface area.

Morphological characteristics of tungsten hollow balls

The diameter of the tungsten hollow ball is between 0.2-5 microns, the shell thickness is 10-100 nanometers, and the interior is a hollow cavity. SEM and TEM showed that the surface may be composed of nanoparticles or nanosheets, and the crystal structure is mostly monoclinic crystal type, and the WO_6

octahedron forms a shell structure.

Physicochemical properties of tungsten hollow balls

The tungsten hollow sphere is light yellow in color, with a band gap of about 2.6-2.8 eV, and a specific surface area of 20-50 m²/g, which is reduced by the hollow structure (less than 7.16 g/cm³). Thermal stability is good, but the shell may crack at high temperatures.

Preparation method of tungsten hollow balls

The preparation method of tungsten hollow balls includes:

- **Template method**: Polystyrene (PS) microspheres are used as templates, covered with WO_3 and then calcined to remove the template.
- **Spray drying method**: the tungstate solution is atomized and heat treated to form a hollow structure.
- **Self-assembly method**: WO_3 nanoparticles are induced to self-assemble into spherical shapes by hydrothermal method. These methods require control of the template size and calcination temperature.

Application field of tungsten hollow balls

Applications for tungsten hollow balls include:

- **Energy Storage**: Provides high specific capacity and fast ion transport in lithium batteries.
- **Photocatalysis**: Hollow structures enhance light scattering and catalytic activity.
- **Adsorbents**: used to remove toxic substances from water.
- **Sensor**: sensitive to humidity or gas.

Characteristics and limitations of tungsten hollow balls

The advantages of tungsten hollow balls are their low density and high specific surface area, but the complex preparation process and the fragile shell limit their durability.

3.4 Classification of yellow tungsten trioxide based on particle size

The particle size of yellow tungsten trioxide (WO_3) is one of the important bases for its classification, which directly affects its physical properties, chemical behavior and application fields. Based on particle size, tungsten can be divided into three categories: coarse-grained yellow-tungsten, ultra-fine-grained yellow-tungsten and micro-yellow-tungsten. These categories reflect changes from the macro to micro scales, and each class has significant differences in preparation processes and uses. The following is a detailed discussion of each type of feature.

3.4.1 Coarse-grained yellow tungsten trioxide

Coarse-grained yellow tungsten trioxide refers to yellow tungsten trioxide with a large particle size, usually with a diameter of more than 10 microns, which is widely used in traditional industrial fields and is favored because of its simple preparation and low cost.

Characteristics of coarse-grained yellow tungsten trioxide

The particle size of coarse-grained chrysten is usually between 10-100 microns, and the morphology is mostly irregular polyhedra or bulk particles. Scanning electron microscopy shows that the surface is rough and may have microcracks or pores. Its crystal structure is dominated by monoclinic crystal form, and WO_6 octahedron forms a regular three-dimensional network. Due to the larger size of the particles, their specific surface area is low, usually between 0.5-2 m^2/g.

Physicochemical properties of coarse-grained yellow tungsten trioxide

The coarse-grained yellow tungsten trioxide is light yellow or yellow-green, with a band gap of about 2.6-2.8 eV, a density of 7.16 g/cm^3, excellent thermal stability, and a melting point of 1473 °C. It has high chemical stability and is not easy to decompose in air, but it can be dissolved to form tungstate ions (WO_4^{2-}) under alkaline conditions. Due to the small specific surface area, its surface activity is low and the reaction rate is slow.

Preparation method of coarse-grained yellow tungsten trioxide

The preparation process of coarse-grained yellow tungsten trioxide is simple, usually through:

- **Calcination method**: ammonium paratungstate is calcined in air at 500-700 °C to directly generate coarse particles.
- **Solid-phase reaction method**: tungstic acid or tungsten concentrate is used as raw material, and it is cooled to form large particles after high-temperature roasting. These methods do not require fine control of particle growth and are suitable for large-scale production.

Application areas of coarse-grained yellow tungsten trioxide

Coarse-grained yellow tungsten trioxide is mainly used in traditional industries:

- **Powder metallurgy**: used as a raw material for the production of tungsten metal powder and tungsten carbide, used in the manufacture of cemented carbide tools and wear-resistant parts.
- **Pigments**: provide a stable yellow color in ceramics and paints, due to the large particles, the color uniformity is moderate.

- **Catalyst carrier**: used as a basic material in chemical reactions, carrying active substances. Its low specific surface area limits its application in the field of high precision.

The advantages of coarse-grained yellow tungsten trioxide are low preparation cost and high stability, making it suitable for bulk industrial use. But its low surface activity and large particle size make it poor in nanotechnology or high-activity scenarios.

3.4.2 Ultrafine grain yellow tungsten trioxide

Ultrafine particle yellow tungsten trioxide refers to Yellow tungsten trioxide with a particle size between 100 nanometers and 1 micron, which has the characteristics of both micron and nano scale, and plays an important role in high-performance materials.

Characteristics of ultrafine grain yellow tungsten trioxide

The particle size range of ultrafine grain yellow tungsten trioxide is 0.1-1 micron (100-1000 nanometer), the morphology is mostly spherical or nearly spherical, and the particle distribution is relatively uniform. SEM and transmission electron microscopy (TEM) showed that the surface was smooth, and the crystal structure was dominated by monoclinic crystal form, and some of them may be hexagonal crystal form. Its specific surface area is between 5 and 20 m^2/g, which is significantly higher than that of coarse-grained yellow tungsten trioxide.

Physicochemical properties of ultrafine particle xantramite

The ultrafine yellow tungsten trioxide is light yellow in color, with a band gap of about 2.6-2.8 eV and a density of nearly 7.16 g/cm^3. It has good thermal stability, but at high temperatures it may lose a little oxygen due to surface effects. Chemically, its surface activity is higher than that of coarse-grained yellow tungsten trioxide, and it exhibits stronger capabilities in photocatalysis or gas adsorption. The size effect of ultrafine particles results in improvements in electrical and optical properties, such as slightly higher conductivity and light absorption efficiency.

Preparation method of ultrafine particle yellow tungsten trioxide

The preparation of ultrafine particle xantone needs to control the growth of particles, including:

- **Wet chemical method**: sodium tungstate solution is used as raw material, calcined at 400-600 °C after acidification and precipitation, and dispersant (such as PVP) is added to control the particle size.
- **Mechanical grinding method**: coarse-grained yellow tungsten trioxide is ground to ultra-fine size by high-energy ball mill.

- **Solvothermal method**: Tungstic acid is used as a precursor at high temperature and high pressure to adjust the reaction time to generate ultrafine particles. These methods need to balance particle size and crystal form stability.

Application fields of ultrafine grain yellow tungsten trioxide

Ultrafine grain yellow tungsten trioxide is widely used in the following fields:

- **Photocatalyst**: Higher specific surface area improves photocatalytic efficiency and is used for environmental treatment.
- **Energy storage materials**: provide higher specific capacity and cycling stability in lithium battery anodes.
- **Powder metallurgy**: preparation of fine-grained tungsten powder for high-precision tungsten products.

Characteristics and limitations of ultrafine grain yellow tungsten trioxide

Ultrafine grain yellow tungsten trioxide combines high activity and ease of processing for mid-to-high-end applications. However, it is more expensive to prepare than coarse particles, and may affect performance due to agglomeration.

3.4.3 Micron yellow tungsten trioxide

Micron yellow tungsten trioxide refers to Yellow tungsten trioxide with a particle size between 1 and 10 microns, which is the most common intermediate size form in the industry and is widely used in a variety of scenarios.

Characteristics of micron yellow tungsten trioxide

The particle size range of micron yellow tungsten trioxide is 1-10 microns, and the morphology is mostly polyhedral or irregular particles, and the particle distribution is relatively uniform. SEM observation showed that the surface roughness was moderate, the crystal structure was dominated by monoclinic crystal form, and the WO_6 octahedron formed a stable three-dimensional structure. Its specific surface area is between 2-5 m^2/g, between coarse and ultrafine particles.

Physicochemical properties of micron yellow tungsten trioxide

Micron yellow tungsten trioxide is light yellow, with a band gap of about 2.6-2.8 eV, a density of 7.16 g/cm^3, and thermal stability comparable to that of coarse-grained yellow tungsten trioxide. It is chemically stable and can be converted to a low-oxygen state WO_3 in a reducing atmosphere. Its micron-sized size gives it moderate surface activity, and its optical and electrical properties are consistent with those of conventional yellow tungsten trioxide, but exhibit better dispersibility in some applications.

Preparation method of micron yellow tungsten trioxide

The preparation methods of micron yellow tungsten trioxide include:

- **Calcination method**: Tungstic acid or ammonium paratungstate is used as raw material and calcined at 500-700 °C to control the cooling rate to generate micron particles.
- **Spray drying method**: the tungstate solution is atomized and then heat treated to form uniform micron-sized particles.

Application areas of micron yellow tungsten trioxide

Micron yellow tungsten trioxide is widely used in the following areas:

- **Powder metallurgy**: production of tungsten powder with medium particle size, suitable for cemented carbide and tungsten alloy.
- **Ceramic pigments**: provide a uniform yellow hue for ceramic tiles and crafts.
- **Catalyst:** as a carrier or active component, used in chemical reactions.
- **Electrochromic Materials**: Micron particles provide stable properties in smart glass.

3.4.4 Submicron xantrea

Submicron yellow tungsten trioxide refers to yellow tungsten trioxide (WO_3) with particle sizes between 100 nanometers and 1 micron, which makes it suitable for both nanoscale and micron properties, and has important applications in the field of high-performance materials.

Characteristics of submicron yellow tungsten trioxide

Submicron yellow tungsten trioxide has a particle size range of 0.1-1 microns (100-1000 nanometers) and is mostly spherical, polyhedral or slightly irregular particles. Observed by scanning electron microscopy (SEM) or transmission electron microscopy (TEM), the particle distribution is relatively uniform, and the surface is smooth or slightly rough. Its crystal structure is usually monoclinic crystal form, and the WO_6 octahedron forms a regular three-dimensional network. The specific surface area is generally between 5-20 m²/g, between micro-tungsten and nano-tungsten.

Physicochemical properties of submicron yellow tungsten trioxide

Submicron yellow tungsten trioxide is light yellow with a band gap of about 2.6-2.8 eV and a density of 7.16 g/cm³. It has good thermal stability, a melting point of 1473 °C, and is chemically stable in air, and can be dissolved under alkaline conditions to form tungstate ions (WO_4^{2-}). The sub-micron size makes its surface activity higher than that of micro-xantrean but lower than that of nano-xa-tungsten, with improved optical and electrical properties, such as slightly enhanced light absorption efficiency and electron mobility.

Preparation method of submicron yellow tungsten trioxide

The preparation methods of submicron yellow tungsten trioxide include:

- **Wet chemical method**: sodium tungstate is used as raw material, calcined at 400-600 °C after acidification and precipitation, and dispersants (such as PVP) are added to control the growth of particles to submicron level.
- **Mechanical grinding method**: micron-sized yellow tungsten trioxide is ground to sub-micron size by high-energy ball mill.
- **Solvothermal method**: ammonium paratungstate is used as the precursor, and the reaction conditions are adjusted under high temperature and high pressure to generate submicron particles. These methods require precise control of particle size to avoid over-refinement.

Applications of submicron yellow tungsten trioxide

Submicron yellow tungsten trioxide has a wide range of applications in the following areas: photocatalysts: its high specific surface area makes it excellent for photocatalytic degradation of organics or hydrogen production. Energy storage material: As an anode material for lithium batteries, it provides moderate specific capacity and stability.

3.4.5 Nano yellow tungsten trioxide

Nano xantrean refers to yellow tungsten trioxide with a particle size between 1 and 100 nanometers, which has significant advantages in the field of nanotechnology and high-tech because of its extremely small particle size and high specific surface area.

Particle characteristics of nano-yellow tungsten trioxide

The particle size range of nano-yellow tungsten trioxide is 1-100 nanometers, and the morphology is mostly spherical or nearly spherical, and the particle distribution is highly uniform. TEM shows that the surface is smooth, and the crystal structure is dominated by monoclinic crystal form, and some of them can be hexagonal crystal form or orthorhombic crystal form. It has a high specific surface positivity, typically between 20-50 m²/g, and exhibits a pronounced nano effect.

Physicochemical properties of nano-yellow tungsten trioxide

The nano-yellow tungsten trioxide is light yellow, with a band gap of about 2.6-2.8 eV and a density of nearly 7.16 g/cm³. Its thermal stability is consistent with that of macroscopic yellow tungsten trioxide, but at high temperatures it may be slightly lost due to surface effects. Chemically, the surface activity of nano-yellow tungsten trioxide is extremely high, and it performs well in photocatalysis, adsorption and electrochemical reactions. Due to the quantum size effect, its optical and electrical properties are significantly enhanced, such as the bandgap may be slightly blue-shifted, and the conductivity is improved.

Preparation method of nano yellow tungsten trioxide

The preparation methods of nano-yellow tungsten trioxide include:

- **Solvothermal method**: sodium tungstate is used as raw material, and surfactants (such as CTAB) are added at 180-220 °C to control the particle size.
- **Vapor deposition**: Nanoparticles are formed by evaporation of WO_3 precursors in an inert atmosphere.
- **Microemulsion method**: tungstic acid is used as raw material in an oil-water two-phase system to generate uniform nanoparticles. These methods require tightly controlled reaction conditions to ensure nanoscale size.

Application fields of nano-yellow tungsten trioxide

Nano yellow tungsten trioxide is widely used in high-tech fields:

- **Photocatalysis**: The high specific surface area and activity make it extremely efficient in water splitting and pollution control.
- **Energy storage**: Provides a theoretical specific capacity of up to 693 mAh/g in the anode of a lithium battery.
- **Gas sensor**: highly sensitive to H_2, CO and other gases, used for environmental monitoring.
- **Electrochromic**: Used in smart glass to provide fast color response.

3.4.6 Sub-nano yellow tungsten trioxide

Sub-nano yellow tungsten trioxide refers to yellow tungsten trioxide with a particle size of less than 1 nanometer, usually in the form of atomic clusters or molecular clusters, and has unique value in basic research and cutting-edge technology due to its extremely small size.

Characteristics of sub-nano yellow tungsten trioxide

Sub-nanometer yellow tungsten trioxide ranges in size from 0.1-1 nanometers (1-10 Å) and is close to the molecular or cluster scale to form a complete crystal structure.

The morphology is amorphous clusters or ultra-small particles that need to be characterized by high-resolution TEM or X-ray absorption spectroscopy (XAS). Due to its extremely small size, its specific surface area can reach more than 100 m²/g, and almost all atoms are exposed to the surface.

Physicochemical properties of sub-nano yellow tungsten trioxide

The color of sub-nanometer yellow tungsten trioxide may be light yellow or no obvious color, and the band gap is significantly increased due to the quantum confinement effect (which may exceed 3.0 eV). Its density is difficult to measure precisely because the particles are close to the molecular level. The thermal stability is poor, and it is easy to aggregate into larger particles or decompose at high temperatures. Chemically, the surface atom ratio of sub-nanometer xantrean is extremely high, and its activity far exceeds that of other forms, and it exhibits homogeneous catalytic characteristics in catalytic reactions.

Preparation method of sub-nano yellow tungsten trioxide

The preparation methods of sub-nano yellow tungsten trioxide are more complex, including:

- **Chemical reduction method**: using tungstate as raw material, sub-nano clusters are generated under the action of strong reducing agents (such as $NaBH_4$).
- **Gas phase method**: The deposition of sub-nanoparticles in a vacuum environment by laser evaporation WO_3.
- **Ligand protection method**: Wrap WO_3 molecular clusters with organic ligands (e.g., PVP) to prevent them from aggregating into larger particles. These methods need to be operated in a clean environment to avoid contamination from the outside world.

Application areas of sub-nano yellow tungsten trioxide

Sub-nano tungsten is mainly used in cutting-edge fields:

- **Catalysts**: exhibit high activity close to monoatomic catalysis in CO oxidation or organic synthesis.
- **Biomedical**: as a drug carrier or imaging agent because of its ultra-small size that allows it to enter the inside of cells.
- **Optoelectronic devices**: provide excellent optical performance in quantum dot displays.
- **Basic research**: for exploring quantum effects and surface chemistry of WO_3.

CTIA GROUP LTD

Yellow tungsten trioxide (**YTO,** WO₃) **Product Introduction**

1. Product Overview

CTIA GROUP LTD Yellow tungsten trioxide is produced by high-temperature calcination process of ammonium paratungstate, which meets the requirements of GB/T 3457-2013 "Tungsten Oxide" first-class product. WO_3 is widely used in the preparation of tungsten powder, cemented carbide, tungsten wire and ceramic colorants. CTIA GROUP LTD is committed to providing high-quality Yellow tungsten trioxide products to meet the needs of powder metallurgy and industrial manufacturing.

2. product characteristics

High stability: stable in air, insoluble in water and inorganic acids except hydrofluoric acid.
Reactivity: It can be reduced to tungsten powder by hydrogen (>650°C) or carbon.
Uniformity: Uniform particle distribution, suitable for downstream processing.

3. Product specifications

index	CTIA GROUP LTD Yellow tungsten trioxide first-class product standard
WO_3 content (wt%)	≥99.95
Impurities （wt%，max.）	Fe≤0.0010, Mo≤0.0020, Si≤0.0010, Al≤0.0005, Ca≤0.0010, Mg≤0.0005, K≤0.0010, Na≤0.0010, S≤0.0005, P≤0.0005
Particle size	1-10（μm，FSSS）
Loose density	2.0-2.5（g/cm³）
Customization	Particle size or impurity limits can be customized according to customer requirements

4. Packaging and warranty

Packing: Inner sealed plastic bag, outer iron drum or woven bag, net weight 50kg or 100kg, moisture-proof design.

Warranty: Each batch comes with a quality certificate, including WO_3 content, impurity analysis, particle size (FSSS method), loose density and moisture data.

5. Procurement information

Email: sales@chinatungsten.com
Phone: +86 592 5129696

For more Yellow tungsten trioxide information, please visit the China Tungsten online website www.tungsten-powder.com. For more market and real-time information, please follow the WeChat public account "China Tungsten Online".

CTIA GROUP LTD Yellow tungsten trioxide

Chapter 4 Crystal structure of yellow tungsten trioxide

The crystal structure of yellow tungsten trioxide, WO_3, is an important transition metal oxide, and its physical and chemical properties are fundamental to understanding. This chapter will discuss the crystal structure characteristics of tungsten in detail from four aspects: basic theory, atomic arrangement, crystallography basis, and crystal structure type.

4.1 Basic theory of the crystal structure of yellow tungsten trioxide

The crystal structure of yellow tungsten trioxide is the core determinant of its properties, and its basic theory is based on crystal chemistry and solid state physics, involving interatomic coordination, bonding and structural stability.

The chemical formula of yellow tungsten trioxide is WO_3, which indicates that each tungsten atom combines with three oxygen atoms to form a stable crystal structure. Its crystal structure consists of the spatial arrangement of tungsten and oxygen atoms, which directly affects its optical, electrical, and thermal properties. For example, the semiconductor properties of yellow tungsten trioxide (e.g., band gap 2.6-2.8 eV) are due to the band distribution of electrons in its crystal lattice, and its stability is closely related to the regularity of the crystal structure.

The basic unit of the yellow tungsten trioxide crystal structure is the WO_6 octahedron, i.e., one tungsten atom is located in the center, surrounded by six oxygen atoms, and the coordination number is 6. These octahedron are connected by corner-sharing, edge-sharing, or face-sharing to form a three-dimensional network. The geometry and arrangement of WO_6 octahedron determine the crystal form and physical properties of tungsten.

The crystal structure of tungsten yellow undergoes phase change with temperature, which is an important part of its basic theory. At room temperature, tungsten mainly exists in monoclinic crystal form, and with the increase of temperature, it can be successively transformed into orthorhombic crystal form (above 330 °C), tetragonal crystal form (above 740 °C), and even under extreme conditions (such as high pressure or doping) to form cubic crystal form. These phase transitions do not change its chemical composition (WO_3), but rather adjust the angle of inclination and connection of the WO_6 octahedron, resulting in a change in lattice symmetry.

The crystal structure theory of yellow tungsten trioxide also involves the stability of oxygen content. WO_3 is oxygen saturated with no anaerobic vacancy. If the oxygen content is reduced (e.g., $W_{20}O_{58}$ or $W_{18}O_{49}$) in a reducing atmosphere, defects in the crystal structure can occur, resulting in octahedral distortion or fracture. Therefore, the crystal structure theory of yellow tungsten trioxide emphasizes its regularity and stability in the state of oxygen saturation.

The study of the crystal structure of tungsten is based on X-ray diffraction (XRD), neutron diffraction, and electron microscopy techniques. XRD determines lattice parameters and spatial groups, neutron diffraction reveals the precise location of oxygen atoms, and transmission electron microscopy (TEM) provides local, atomic-scale images. Together, these methods form the basis of the theory of the structure of tungsten crystals.

4.1.2 Atomic arrangement of tungsten

The atomic arrangement of tungsten refers to the spatial distribution of tungsten and oxygen atoms in the crystal lattice and their connection mode, which is the key to understanding its crystal structure.

In a yellow tungsten trioxide crystal, the tungsten atom is located in the center of the WO_6 octahedron, and each tungsten atom is coordinated with six oxygen atoms, and the W-O bond length is about 1.8-2.0 Å (due to slight differences in crystal form). These octahedron are connected by coangular connections to form a three-dimensional framework, i.e., each oxygen atom belongs to two WO_6 octahedron at the same time. This coangular connection method allows the lattice to have a certain openness, while maintaining the stability of the structure.

Taking the most common monoclinic crystal form as an example, its atomic arrangement has the following characteristics:

- **Tungsten** atoms: located at a specific position in the crystal lattice (4e at Wyckoff) to form a periodic distribution.
- **Oxygen atoms**: There are two types, one that connects two tungsten atoms (bridge oxygen) and the other that coordinates only one tungsten atom (terminal oxygen). The distribution of oxygen atoms is slightly offset, causing the octahedron to tilt slightly.

- **Lattice parameters**: a=7.306 Å, b=7.540 Å, c=7.692 Å, β=90.91°, space group $P2_1/n$. This arrangement makes the monoclinic crystal form less symmetrical, and there is a certain distortion in the crystal lattice.

As the temperature increases, the arrangement of atoms adjusts. For example:

- **Orthorhombic crystal form**: the octahedron has a reduced tilt angle, the oxygen atom shift is reduced, and the lattice symmetry is improved (space group Pnma).
- **Tetragonal crystal form**: the octahedron is further aligned and arranged more regularly along the c-axis (space group P4/nmm). These changes do not involve a change in the species or number of atoms, only the spatial position and bond angle are adjusted.

The W-O bond in tungsten is partially covalent and ionic. The +6 oxidation state of tungsten causes it to form strong chemical bonds with oxygen atoms, and the bond energy is about 600-700kJ/mol. This bonding property makes the lattice strong while allowing a degree of flexibility to accommodate the phase transition.

By high-resolution TEM observation, the atomic arrangement of tungsten yellow showed a periodic lattice, the tungsten atom as a heavy element showed bright spots, and the oxygen atom was darker due to the low electron scattering ability. This arrangement is consistent with theoretical calculations such as density functional theory (DFT), which verifies the accuracy of its structure.

4.1.2 Basic knowledge of tungsten crystallography (crystal system, lattice, etc.)

The crystallography of yellow tungsten trioxide covers its crystal system, lattice type and related parameters, and is the theoretical basis for understanding its structural diversity.

Classification of the tungsten crystal system

The crystal structure of tungsten can be classified into the following crystal systems, which vary with conditions:

- **Monoclinic crystal system**: the main form at room temperature, lattice parameters $a \neq b \neq c$, $\alpha=\gamma=90°$, $\beta \neq 90°$.
- Orthogonal crystal system: 330-740° C interval, $a \neq b \neq c$, $\alpha=\beta=\gamma=90°$.
- Tetragonal crystal system: above 740℃, $a=b \neq c$, $\alpha=\beta=\gamma=90°$.
- Hexagonal crystal system: under certain conditions (such as hydrothermal synthesis), $a=b \neq c$, $\alpha=\beta=90°$, $\gamma=120°$.
- Cubic crystal system: high pressure or doping induction, $a=b=c$, $\alpha=\beta=\gamma=90°$.
- Trisloping crystal system: at low temperature (below -10° C), $a \neq b \neq c$, $a \neq b \neq c \neq 90°$.

Types of tungsten lattices

The lattice type of tungsten is mostly primitive (P-type), but it depends on the crystal system. For example:

- The lattice of the monoclinic crystal form is P-type, and the space group $P2_1/n$.
- The orthorhombic crystal form is P-type, and the space group Pnma.
- The tetragonal crystal form is P-type, and the space group is P4/nmm. There are no additional central symmetry points (e.g., body center or face center) in the lattice, reflecting the simple periodicity of the WO_6 octahedral connection.

Parameters of the tungsten crystal lattice

The lattice parameters of different crystal forms are significantly different, taking monoclinic crystal forms as an example: a=7.306 Å, b=7.540 Å, c=7.692 Å, β=90.91°. These parameters are determined by XRD and expand slightly with increasing temperature. For example, the A and B of the tetragonal form tend to be equal, and the C axis is shortened.

The Bravi lattice of yellow tungsten trioxide is dominated by the original lattice, and the arrangement of WO_6 octahedron determines the periodicity of the lattice. The lattice of the monoclinic crystal form has the lowest symmetry, while the cubic crystal form achieves the highest symmetry.

4.1.3 The type of crystal structure to which tungsten belongs

The crystal structure type of tungsten flavour can be classified as perovskite-related structure, which is manifested as a distorted ReO_3-type structure.

The ideal structure of yellow tungsten trioxide is similar to ReO_3 (rhenium trioxide) and consists of MO_6 octahedron (M is metal) connected at a common angle to form a cubic frame. The characteristics of the ReO_3 type are:

- Each metal atom coordinates 6 oxygen atoms.
- The oxygen atom connects two metal atoms to form a three-dimensional network.
- Ideally, it is a cubic crystal system with a space group of Pm3m.

The actual structure of yellow tungsten trioxide is an aberration of the ReO_3 type, which is mainly reflected in:

- **Octahedral tilt**: The WO_6 octahedron is not perfectly aligned, but rather tilted, resulting in a decrease in symmetry (e.g., monoclinic crystal form).
- **Lattice parameter changes**: A=B=C of the ideal cubic structure becomes A≠B≠C (monoclinic crystal form) or A=B≠C (tetragonal crystal form) in yellow tungsten trioxide.

- **Oxygen atom shift**: The position of the oxygen atom deviates from the ideal point, resulting in lattice distortion.

The ReO_3-type structure is a simplified form of perovskite (ABO_3) with the removal of A-position cations. The WO_3 of yellow tungsten trioxide can be regarded as the B position (tungsten) and oxygen atom moiety of the perovskite structure, and its vacancy properties make it different from intact perovskites.

The specific crystal form of tungsten is attributed

- **Monoclinic crystal form**: the most distorted ReO_3 type, with the lowest symmetry.
- **Orthorhombic and tetragonal crystal forms**: the degree of distortion is reduced, close to the ideal ReO_3 type.
- **Cubic crystal form**: closest to ReO_3 type, but rarely seen under natural conditions.

4.2 Factors influencing the crystal structure of tungsten

The crystal structure of yellow tungsten trioxide (Yellow tungsten trioxide, WO_3) is affected by a variety of factors, including preparation conditions, environmental parameters, and the properties of the material itself. These factors determine the specific crystal form and properties of tungsten by changing the arrangement, lattice parameters and symmetry of the WO_6 octahedron. The following will discuss in detail its influence on the crystal structure of tungsten from the perspective of preparation conditions.

4.2.1 Effect of preparation conditions on the crystal structure of tungsten

Preparation conditions are the key external factors affecting the structure of tungsten crystals, including reaction temperature, pressure, atmosphere, raw material selection and reaction time. These conditions directly determine the crystal system (e.g., monoclinic, orthogonal, tetragonal, etc.) and structural stability of tungsten by regulating the process of crystal nucleation, grain growth and phase transformation.

The reaction temperature is the main factor that determines the yellow tungsten trioxide crystal form. A change in temperature triggers WO_6 The octahedron is tilted and the lattice symmetry changes, resulting in phase transitions. For example, in industrial preparations, calcinationAmmonium paratungstate, the temperature control directly affects the crystal structure of the product.

The reaction pressure affects the crystal structure of the yellow tungsten trioxide by changing the volume of the crystal lattice and the spacing between atoms. Especially under high pressure conditions, tungsten can form crystal forms with high symmetry, such as cubic crystal forms, which are difficult to achieve under normal pressure.

The atmosphere during the preparation (e.g., oxidizing or reducing) determines whether the oxygen content is saturated or not. If the partial pressure of oxygen in the atmosphere is insufficient, tungsten may be converted into an oxygen vacancy structure (e.g., $W_{20}O_{58}$), which changes the crystal structure.

Raw material purity, solvent type, and reaction time also indirectly affect the crystal structure. For example, high-purity feedstocks reduce impurity-induced lattice defects, while solvents in solvothermal methods regulate the direction of nucleus growth.

4.2.1.1 Effect of reaction temperature on the structure of tungsten crystal

The reaction temperature is one of the most important parameters in the preparation of yellow tungsten trioxide, which directly affects its phase state, lattice parameters and WO_6 octahedral arrangement. Temperature regulates crystal structure through thermodynamic and kinetic mechanisms.

Tungsten crystal structure at low temperatures (below 330°C)

At lower temperatures (e.g., -50°C to 17°C), tungsten can form triclinic with a space group of P1. At this time, the WO_6 octahedron is severely distorted, and the lattice symmetry is the lowest, and the lattice parameters are $a \neq b \neq c$, and the $\alpha \neq \beta \neq \gamma \neq$ is 90°. As the temperature rises above 17°C, the triclinic crystal form changes to the monoclinic crystal form, indicating that the low temperature limits the ability of the atoms to rearrange the atoms.

- **Preparation example**: In the laboratory, triclinic crystal form formation can be induced by cooling monoclinic yellow tungsten trioxide to below -10 °C.

- **Characteristics**: Triclinic crystal form is unstable and only meaningful in low-temperature studies.

Tungsten crystal structure at room to medium temperature (17°C-330°C).

Under normal temperature conditions (about 20-25 °C) to 330 °C, the yellow tungsten trioxide is dominated by monoclinic crystal form, the space group is $P2_1/n$, and the lattice parameters are about a=7.306 Å, b=7.540 Å, c=7.692 Å, and β=90.91°. This is the most stable crystal form of yellow tungsten trioxide, and the WO_6 octahedron is connected by a coangular angle and is slightly inclined.

- **Preparation example**: Calcined tungstic acid at 400-600 °C, cooled to room temperature to form a monoclinic crystal form.
- **Characteristics**: The stability of the monoclinic crystal form makes it the main form in industry and scientific research.

Tungsten crystal structure at medium and high temperatures (330°C-740°C).

When the temperature rises above 330°C to below 740°C, the tungsten is transformed into an orthorhombic, the space group is Pnma, and the lattice parameters are about a=7.341 Å, b=7.570 Å and c=7.754 Å. The tilt angle of WO_6 octahedron decreases, and the lattice symmetry increases.

- **Preparation example**: Monoclinic tungsten is heated to 500°C and insulated, which can stabilize the orthorhombic crystal form.
- **Features**: The orthorhombic crystal form has good conductivity and catalytic activity at high temperature, but it is easy to change back to monoclinic crystal form after cooling.

Tungsten crystal structure at high temperatures (above 740°C).

Above 740°C, the tungsten enters the tetragonal crystal form, the space group is P4/nmm, and the lattice parameters are about a=b=5.272 Å and c=7.832 Å. The WO_6 octahedron is further aligned, the arrangement along the c-axis is more regular, and the symmetry is further improved.

- **Preparation example**: Calcining WO_3 in an oxidizing atmosphere at 800-900 °C can obtain a tetragonal crystal form.
- **Features**: The tetragonal crystal form is suitable for high-temperature applications, but it is unstable at room temperature.

When the temperature exceeds 1473°C (melting point), the tungsten begins to melt and the crystal structure is lost. If it is accompanied by low oxygen partial pressure at ultra-high temperatures, it may decompose into low-oxygen tungsten oxide or tungsten metal.

Structural mechanism of tungsten crystal due to temperature effect

- **Thermodynamics**: The increase in temperature provides energy that allows the octahedron to overcome the barrier and adjust the arrangement.
- **Kinetics**: High temperature accelerates atomic diffusion and promotes lattice reconstruction.
- **Phase change path**: triclinical→monoclinic→ orthogonal → quadripartite to improve symmetry in turn.

The temperature-determined crystal form directly affects the properties of tungsten. For example, monoclinic forms are suitable for photocatalysis, orthorhombic forms are better in high-temperature catalysis, and tetragonal forms improve conductivity.

4.2.1.2 Effect of reaction pressure on the crystal structure of tungsten

The reaction pressure affects the crystal structure of the yellow tungsten trioxide by changing the lattice volume and atomic spacing. The pressure effect is particularly pronounced in high-pressure synthesis or under special conditions.

Tungsten crystal structure at atmospheric pressure

At standard atmospheric pressure (about 0.1 MPa), the crystal form of tungsten is mainly determined by temperature, the monoclinic crystal form is at room temperature, and the crystal form can be orthogonal or tetragonal crystal form at high temperature. The arrangement of WO_6 octahedron is affected by thermal expansion, and the direct effect of pressure on the crystal lattice is not obvious.

- **Preparation example**: Conventional calcination or hydrothermal method is carried out under atmospheric pressure to generate monoclinic crystal form.
- **Features**: The crystal structure is stable under atmospheric pressure, suitable for large-scale production.

Medium pressure (1-100 MPa) tungsten crystal structure

In the medium pressure range (e.g., 1-10 MPa in hydrothermal reactions), tungsten is still dominated by monoclinic crystals, but the lattice parameters may be slightly compressed. For example, the length of the a, b, and c axes may be reduced by 0.1%-0.5%, and the degree of octahedral distortion may vary slightly.

- **Preparation example**: Yellow tungsten trioxide was synthesized under hydrothermal conditions of 5 MPa and 200°C, and the crystal lattice was slightly dense.
- **Features**: Medium pressure has a limited effect on the crystal form, but can improve the grain uniformity.

High pressure (100 MPa-10 GPa) yellow tungsten trioxide crystal structure

Under high pressure conditions (e.g., 100 MPa to 10 GPa), tungsten can form highly symmetrical crystal forms, such as cubic (space group Pm3m). At this time, the WO_6 octahedron is forced to be tightly aligned, the lattice parameters tend to be a=b=c, and the distortion disappears.

- **Preparation example**: Cubic crystal form is combined at 5 GPa, 1000°C using a high-pressure device (e.g., diamond anvil).
- **Features**: The cubic crystal form has the highest symmetry, but it is unstable under normal pressure, and may change back to monoclinic crystal form after pressure relief.
- **Transition form**: In the range of 1-5 GPa, a transition state of tetragonal form may occur.

Tungsten crystal structure at ultra-high pressure (above 10 GPa).

At ultra-high pressures (e.g., 20 GPa), tungsten may undergo structural collapse or form new high-pressure phases, such as amorphous or unknown crystal forms. At this point, the W-O bond length is significantly shortened, and the lattice volume is compressed by more than 10%.

- **Preparation example**: Structural transformation was observed in the laboratory through ultra-high pressure experiments.

- **Features**: The research value of ultra-high pressure phase is greater than the practicability.

Structural mechanism of tungsten crystal under pressure

- **Volumetric compression**: The pressure reduces the lattice spacing, forcing the octahedral alignment.
- **Symmetry improvement**: The high pressure overcomes the energy barrier of the octahedral tilt and improves the lattice symmetry.
- **Phase change drive**: pressure and temperature work together to induce high-density crystal forms.

4.2.1.3 Effect of reaction time on the structure of tungsten crystal

Reaction time is a key parameter in the preparation of Yellow tungsten trioxide (WO_3), which has a significant effect on its crystal structure by influencing crystal nucleation formation, grain growth and phase transition. The length of the reaction time is directly related to the maturity and structural stability of the crystal.

Effect of short reaction time (seconds to minutes) on the structure of tungsten crystals

In very short reaction times (e.g., a few seconds to a few minutes), the crystal structure of tungsten is often in an incomplete state of development, and may form an amorphous or transitional state. For example, in rapid precipitation or microwave-assisted synthesis, WO_3 crystal nuclei are just beginning to form and lack sufficient time for an orderly arrangement.

- **Structural characteristics**: amorphous or nanocrystalline, unclear lattice parameters, WO_6 octahedral arrangement is chaotic.
- **Preparation example**: Amorphous WO_3 is generated by rapidly acidifying sodium tungstate solution (reaction time<1 min).
- **Impact**: Short-term restriction of atomic diffusion and lattice reconstruction, resulting in many structural defects, high specific surface area but poor stability.

Effect of moderate reaction time (minutes to hours) on the structure of tungsten crystals

When the reaction time is extended to a few minutes to several hours (e.g., 1-6 hours in hydrothermal methods), the scheelite crystal has enough time to form a stable crystal form, usually a monoclinic (space group $P2_1/n$). At this time, the nucleus growth is completed, and the WO_6 octahedron is connected at the same angle to form a regular three-dimensional network.

- **Structural characteristics:** monoclinic crystal form, lattice parameters a=7.306 Å、b=7.540 Å、c=7.692 Å，β=90.91°。

- **Preparation example**: Tungstic acid was reacted with hydrothermal reaction at 200 °C for 4 hours to generate monoclinic yellow tungsten trioxide.
- **Impact**: Moderate time allows for orderly grain growth, stabilization of crystal structure, and reduction of defects.

Effect of long reaction time (hours to days) on the structure of tungsten crystals

During a longer reaction time (e.g., 6 hours to several days), the tungsten crystal matures further, the grain size increases, and the crystal form transformation or morphology change may occur. For example, at high temperatures (e.g., 600°C for 12 hours), the monoclinic form can remain stable, but at higher temperatures (>740°C), it may change to an orthorhombic or tetragonal form.

- **Structural characteristics**: monoclinic crystal form is dominant, and the grain size can reach the micron level; It may be orthogonal (Pnma) or tetragonal (P4/nmm) at high temperatures.
- **Preparation example**: Calcined ammonium paratungstate was kept at 500 °C for 24 hours to generate a large-particle monoclinic crystal form.
- **Impact**: Promotes grain growth and structural optimization over a long period of time, but too long may lead to grain boundary fusion or oxygen loss.

Tungsten crystal mechanism of reaction time

- **Crystal nucleus formation**: only crystal nuclei are formed in a short period of time, and they are arranged in a disordered manner.
- **Grain growth**: Moderate time supports orderly nucleus expansion to form a stable crystal form.
- **Phase Transformation and Remodeling**: Allowing atomic rearrangement for a long time may induce a crystalline transition. The reaction time and temperature work synergistically, making it suitable for rapid synthesis of nanostructures in a short period of time, and the generation of large particles or highly symmetrical crystal forms in a long time.

Effect of reaction time on the application of yellow tungsten trioxide

- Short-lived products (e.g., amorphous) are suitable for highly active catalysts.
- Medium-time products, such as monoclinic crystal form, are used in powder metallurgy and photocatalysis.

4.2.1.4 Effect of reaction atmosphere on the crystal structure of tungsten

The reaction atmosphere directly affects the crystal structure of yellow tungsten trioxide by regulating the oxygen content and redox environment. A change in atmosphere may cause WO_3 to change from an oxygen-saturated state to an oxygen-vacancy structure, which in turn may change the crystal form.

Effect of oxidizing atmosphere (high oxygen partial pressure) on the structure of tungsten crystals

In oxidizing atmospheres such as oxygen or air (e.g., O_2 partial pressure >0.2 atm), tungsten remains

WO_3 saturated with oxygen and has a stable crystal structure, usually monoclinic, orthorhombic or tetragonal, depending on temperature.

- **Structural characteristics**: monoclinic crystal form ($P2_1/n$), anaerobic vacancies, WO_6 octahedral regular arrangement.
- **Preparation example**: Calcinate ammonium metatungstate in air at 500 °C to generate monoclinic yellow tungsten trioxide.
- **Effects**: High oxygen partial pressure ensures saturation of oxygen atoms, prevents lattice defects, and maintains high symmetry and stability.

Effect of neutral atmosphere (inert gas) on the structure of tungsten crystals

In neutral atmospheres (e.g., nitrogen or argon, O_2 partial pressure close to 0), the crystal structure of yellow tungsten trioxide remains largely WO_3 morphological, but local defects may occur due to trace oxygen loss. It is usually still monoclinic but the lattice parameters may vary slightly.

- **Structural characteristics**: monoclinic crystal form, a small amount of oxygen vacancy, slightly distorted lattice.
- **Effects**: Neutral atmosphere reduces oxygen replenishment, and crystal structure stability decreases slightly.

Effect of reducing atmosphere (low oxygen partial pressure) on the structure of tungsten crystals

In a reducing atmosphere (e.g., H_2 or CO, O_2 partial pressure is very low), yellow tungsten trioxide loses part of its oxygen atoms and forms oxygen vacancies such as blue tungsten oxide ($W_{20}O_{58}$) or purple tungsten oxide ($W_{18}O_{49}$), and the crystal structure changes significantly.

- **Structural characteristics**: blue tungsten oxide:oxygen index 2.9, uniform distribution of oxygen vacancies in the crystal lattice. Purple tungsten oxide: oxygen index 2.72, needle-like structure, abundant cracks.
- **Effects**: The reducing atmosphere disrupts the integrity of the WO_6 octahedron, resulting in lattice distortion or reconstruction.

Structural mechanism of tungsten crystal in atmosphere

- **Oxygen saturation**: The oxidizing atmosphere maintains the WO_3 structure.
- **Oxygen loss**: The reducing atmosphere induces oxygen vacancies, forming a defective state.

Effect of atmosphere on the application of yellow tungsten trioxide

- Oxidizing atmosphere products are suitable for photocatalysis or pigments. Reducing atmosphere products (e.g. purple tungsten) are used to prepare fine-grained tungsten powder.

4.2.1.5 Effect of reaction rate on the structure of tungsten crystal

The reaction rate refers to the speed of crystal formation in the preparation process, which is controlled by factors such as temperature, concentration, stirring speed, etc., which directly affects the crystal structure and morphology of yellow tungsten trioxide.

Effect of fast reaction (high reaction rate) on the structure of tungsten crystals

High reaction rates (e.g., seconds to minutes) usually occur at high concentrations, high temperatures, or under strong stirring conditions, where the tungsten crystals do not have time to be arranged in an orderly manner to form an amorphous or nanocrystalline state.

- **Structural characteristics**: amorphous or nanoscale monoclinic crystal form, WO_6 octahedral arrangement is chaotic.
- **Effects**: The rapid response limits the growth time of crystal nuclei, resulting in many defects and immature crystal forms.

Effect of moderate reaction rate on the crystal structure of yellow tungsten trioxide

The medium reaction rate allows the nucleus to grow in an orderly manner, and the tungsten forms a stable monoclinic crystal form with moderate grain size.

- **Structural characteristics**: monoclinic crystal form ($P2_1/n$), regular lattice, particle size 0.1-1 microns.
- **Effects**: Balanced crystal nucleus formation and growth at a moderate rate, stable crystal structure.

Effect of slow reaction (low reaction rate) on the crystal structure of tungsten

Slow reactions (e.g., hours to days) are performed at low temperatures, low concentrations, or at rest, and the schetamite grains are sufficiently grown to form large particles or special crystal forms (e.g., hexagonal crystal forms).

- **Structural characteristics**: monoclinic or hexagonal crystal form, grain size up to micron level.
- **Effects**: The slow reaction promotes the orderly arrangement of grains, which may induce a highly symmetrical crystal form.

Structural mechanism of tungsten crystal at reaction rate

- **Nucleus formation rate**: A large number of small crystal nuclei are formed at a high rate, and a small number of large crystal nuclei are formed at a low rate.

- **Growth kinetics**: The fast reaction restricts growth, and the slow reaction promotes grain propagation.
- **Morphological influence**: the rate is fast and easy to form amorphous, and it is easy to form complex structures (such as nanoflowers) slowly.

Effect of reaction rate on the application of yellow tungsten trioxide

- Fast reaction products are suitable for highly active catalysts.
- Medium-speed products are used for photocatalysis or energy storage.
- Slow products are suitable for large pigments or high-temperature materials.

4.2.1.6 Effect of precursors on the crystal structure of tungsten

The precursor is the starting substance for the preparation of yellow tungsten trioxide (Yellow tungsten trioxide, WO_3), and its chemical composition, structure and decomposition characteristics directly affect the crystal structure of yellow tungsten trioxide. Different precursors determine the final crystal form and morphology by releasing ions, controlling crystal nucleus formation, and influencing the growth direction during the reaction.

Effect of tungstic acid (H_2WO_4) on the crystal structure of tungsten

Tungstic acid is a common precursor that is usually prepared by precipitation of acidified tungstate solution, which decomposes to form yellow tungsten trioxide.

- **Structural effects**: Tungstic acid itself is a hydrate ($WO_3 \cdot H_2O$), which contains a layered structure, is dehydrated during calcination to form a monoclinic yellow tungsten trioxide (space group $P2_1/n$). The WO_6 octahedron changed from a layered arrangement to a three-dimensional network.
- **Preparation example**: Calcinate H_2WO_4 in air at 500-600 °C to generate monoclinic WO_3.
- **Characteristics**: The decomposition process is simple, the oxygen content is saturated, and it is easy to form a stable monoclinic crystal form, but the grain is large.
- **Mechanism**: The octahedron is directly connected after dehydration, and the crystal form is temperature controlled.

Ammonium paratungstate ($(NH_4)_{10}[H_2W_{12}O_{42}] \cdot 4H_2O$) on the crystal structure of tungsten

Ammonium paratungstate (APT) is the main precursor of industrial preparation of yellow tungsten trioxide, and its polytungstate structure affects crystal formation.

- **Structural effects**: APT contains complex $[W_{12}O_{42}]^{10-}$ clusters, which release NH_3 and H_2O when decomposed, forming monoclinic tungsten. If the calcination temperature rises (>740°C), orthogonal or tetragonal crystalline forms may be formed.

- **Preparation example**: In the production of tungsten trioxide, APT is calcined at 500°C to form monoclinic crystal form.
- **Characteristics**: slow decomposition process, controllable grain size (0.1-10 microns), stable crystal form.
- **MECHANISM**: AFTER THE DECOMPOSITION OF THE CLUSTER STRUCTURE, THE WO_6 OCTAHEDRON IS GRADUALLY REARRANGED, AND THE CRYSTAL FORM IS AFFECTED BY THE SYNERGY OF ATMOSPHERE AND TEMPERATURE.

Ammonium metatungstate ($(NH_4)_6[H_2W_{12}O_{40}]\cdot nH_2O$) on the crystal structure of yellow tungsten trioxide

Ammonium metatungstate (AMT) has high water solubility and is suitable for the preparation of yellow tungsten trioxide by wet chemical method.

- **Structural effects**: AMT decomposes into monoclinic or hexagonal yellow tungsten trioxide, depending on the reaction conditions. Hexagonal crystal form (P6/mmm) may be formed under hydrothermal conditions, because tungsten oxide clusters in solution tend to grow in one direction.
- **Preparation example**: AMT was subjected to hydrothermal reaction at 180°C for 6 hours to generate hexagonal crystalline nanowires.
- **Characteristics**: The grains are relatively small (nano to submicron level), and the morphology is diverse.
- **Mechanism**: The coordination properties of tungsten oxide clusters in solution induce special crystal forms.

Effect of sodium tungstate (Na_2WO_4) on the crystal structure of tungsten

Sodium tungstate is often used in the preparation of yellow tungsten trioxide by solution method, and its ionic state affects the formation of crystal nuclei.

- **Structural effects**: Monoclinic or amorphous WO_3 is formed after acidification of sodium tungstate, and hexagonal crystal form can be induced under hydrothermal conditions. Sodium ions may be doped into the crystal lattice, affecting symmetry.
- **Preparation example**: Na_2WO_4 hydrothermal reaction at 200°C to generate hexagonal crystalline nanosheets.
- **Features**: easy to form nanostructures, diverse crystal forms.
- **Mechanism**: Ionic precursors promote rapid crystal nucleation formation, and the crystal form is regulated by solvent and temperature.

Mechanism of precursors

- **Decomposition path: The** cleavage mode of the chemical bonds (e.g., W-O, N-H) of the precursor determines the initial arrangement of crystal nuclei.
- **Ion coordination**: The morphology of tungsten oxide clusters in solution affects the growth direction.
- **Impurity effects**: Cations (e.g., Na^+, NH_4^+) in the precursor may remain, altering lattice parameters.

Effect of precursors on the application of yellow tungsten trioxide

- Tungstic acid and APT are suitable for large-particle monoclinic crystal form and are used in powder metallurgy. AMT and Na_2WO_4 are suitable for nanoscale special crystal forms for photocatalysis or sensors.

4.2.1.7 Effect of solvents on the structure of tungsten crystals

Solvents play a key role in the preparation of yellow tungsten trioxide by wet chemistry, regulating its crystal structure by affecting nucleation formation, solute diffusion and growth direction.

Effect of water (H_2O) on the crystal structure of tungsten

Water is the most commonly used solvent and is suitable for the preparation of yellow tungsten trioxide by hydrothermal or precipitation methods.

- **Structural effects**: The high polarity of water promotes the uniform dispersion of tungsten oxygen clusters, usually resulting in monoclinic crystal forms. If a structure directing agent (e.g., NaCl) is added, a hexagonal crystal form may be formed.
- **Features**: Uniform grains, controllable size (nano to micron scale).
- **MECHANISM**: THE HYDROGEN BONDING NETWORK OF WATER STABILIZES THE CRYSTAL NUCLEUS, INDUCING WO_6 octahedral coangular connection.

Effect of organic solvents (e.g., ethanol, ethylene glycol) on the crystal structure of tungsten

Organic solvents are often used in solvothermal methods due to their low polarity and high viscosity.

- **Structural effects**: Ethanol or ethylene glycol can induce hexagonal or amorphous WO_3 because it reduces the rate of ion diffusion and promotes one-dimensional or lamellar growth.
- **Characteristics**: complex morphology (such as nano flowers), various crystal forms.
- **Mechanism**: Organic solvents change the solvation environment and affect the crystal nucleus alignment.

Effect of mixed solvents (e.g., water-ethanol) on the crystal structure of tungsten

The mixed solvent combines the polarity of water and the viscosity of organic solvents to regulate the crystal structure.

- **Structural effects**: Water-ethanol mixtures can produce monoclinic or hexagonal crystal forms, with different proportions affecting grain size and crystal form. For example, when there is more water, there is a tendency to monoclinic crystal form, and when there is more ethanol, hexagonal crystal form may be formed.
- **Features**: Adjustable crystal form and morphology.
- **Mechanism**: The solvent ratio changes the dielectric constant and diffusion rate, affecting crystal growth.

Mechanism of solvents

- **Polarity**: Highly polar solvents (e.g., water) promote uniform nucleation formation, and low-polarity solvents (e.g., ethanol) induce special morphologies.
- **Viscosity**: High-viscosity solvents slow down grain growth and form fine crystals.
- **Coordination**: Solvent molecules may coordinate with tungsten ions, affecting octahedral arrangement.

Effect of solvents on the application of yellow tungsten trioxide

- The monoclinic form prepared in water is suitable for photocatalysis. Hexagonal crystals generated by organic solvents are used in gas sensors.

4.2.2 Effect of external stimuli on the crystal structure of yellow tungsten trioxide

External stimuli (such as light, mechanical force, electromagnetic field, etc.) may change the crystal structure of tungsten during preparation or use, and affect its performance by inducing phase transition, defect formation or lattice reconstruction.

Effect of light on the crystal structure of tungsten

Illumination, especially ultraviolet light, can trigger local changes in the structure of the tungsten crystal.

- **Structural effects**: Prolonged exposure to ultraviolet light may lead to the formation of oxygen vacancies on the surface, and the monoclinic crystal form may locally transform into an oxygen defect state (such as $W_{20}O_{58}$).
- **Example**: Monoclinic WO_3 is exposed to UV light for several hours, and trace oxygen vacancies appear on the surface.
- **Mechanism**: Photo-excitation of electron-hole pairs, desorption of oxygen atoms forms defects.

Effect of mechanical force on the crystal structure of tungsten

Mechanical forces (e.g., grinding, ultrasonic) affect the crystal structure through stress.

- **Structural influences**: high-energy ball milling may break monoclinic grains and generate amorphous or nanocrystalline states; Ultrasound exfoliates lamellar structures.
- **Mechanism**: Mechanical energy destroys lattice regularity and increases defects.

Effect of electromagnetic field on the crystal structure of tungsten

Electromagnetic fields (e.g., microwaves, electric fields) affect crystal structure through heating or ion migration.

- **Structural influence**: microwave heating accelerates the formation of crystal nuclei, which may form monoclinic or hexagonal crystal form; A strong electric field may induce lattice distortion.
- **Mechanism**: Electromagnetic fields alter atomic diffusion rates and energy distributions.
- **Application**: Crystal forms prepared by electromagnetic fields are used for the rapid synthesis of nanomaterials.

Mechanism of external stimuli

- **Energy input**: Light and electromagnetic fields provide energy, inducing phase transitions or defects.
- **Stress**: Mechanical force changes the lattice stress distribution.
- **Synergistic effect**: stimulation synergizes with temperature and pressure to regulate the crystal form.

Effect of external stimuli on the application of yellow tungsten trioxide

- Light and electromagnetic field products are suitable for optoelectronic materials.
- Mechanical products are used for highly active catalysts or energy storage.

4.2.2.1 Effect of optical radiation on the structure of tungsten crystals

As an external stimulus, light radiation affects the crystal structure of yellow tungsten trioxide (Yellow tungsten trioxide, WO_3) crystals through the interaction of photon energy. The type of optical radiation (ultraviolet, visible, etc.), intensity, and irradiation time determine the degree to which it changes the crystal lattice, especially in photocatalytic or optoelectronic applications.

Effect of ultraviolet (UV) radiation on the crystal structure of tungsten

Ultraviolet light (wavelength < 400 nm) can effectively excite the electronic transition in the crystal because its energy is higher than that of the yellow tungsten trioxide band gap (2.6-2.8 eV).

- **Structural effects**: Long-term UV light irradiation may lead to desorption of oxygen atoms on the surface, forming oxygen vacancies, and locally transforming the monoclinic crystal form ($P2_1/n$) into an oxygen defect state (such as $W_{20}O_{58}$). The lattice parameters may vary slightly, with slight distortions in the octahedral WO_6 arrangement.
- **Preparation example**: Monoclinic tungsten was irradiated with 254 nm UV light for several hours, and oxygen vacancies were detected on the surface.
- **Mechanism**: Photons excite electrons to transition from valence bands to conduction bands, generating electron-hole pairs, which react with oxygen atoms to form O_2, leaving oxygen vacancies.
- **Features**: The overall structure of the crystal remains monoclinic crystalline, but the surface defects increase, and the specific surface area and activity increase.

Effect of visible light radiation on the structure of scheelite crystals

Visible light (400-700 nm) has lower energy than the yellow tungsten trioxide band gap and is generally unable to excite electrons directly, but can cause local changes if doping or defects are present.

- **Structural effects**: Pure WO_3 changes the crystal structure weakly under visible light, and only the surface may be slightly rearranged due to thermal effects. If doped (e.g., Ti or N), visible light can induce trace oxygen vacancies.
- **Preparation example**: Ti-doped yellow tungsten trioxide is irradiated under visible light, and slight defects appear on the surface.
- **Mechanism**: Doping reduces the band gap, so that visible light excites electrons, which indirectly affects the crystal lattice.
- **Characteristics**: The effect is limited to the surface, and there is no significant change in the overall crystal form (e.g., monoclinic).

Effect of high-intensity optical radiation (e.g., laser) on the structure of tungsten crystals

High-intensity light sources, such as lasers, can alter crystal structures through thermal effects or photochemical reactions.

- **Structural effects**: Laser irradiation may cause local melting or grain reconstitution, and monoclinic forms may turn amorphous or nanocrystalline. High-dose lasers may even induce phase change to orthorhombic crystals.
- **Preparation example**: A 532 nm laser (high power) irradiates a WO_3 film, and the local area becomes amorphous.
- **Mechanism**: The photothermal effect raises the local temperature and accelerates the rearrangement of atoms; Photochemical effects generate oxygen vacancies.

- **Features**: The changes are concentrated in the irradiated area, which is suitable for micromachining.

Mechanism of light radiation

- **Photon energy**: UV light directly excites electrons and changes the coordination of oxygen atoms.
- **Thermal effect**: High-intensity light induces local high temperatures, which promotes lattice adjustment.
- **Defect formation**: Oxygen vacancies alter the WO_6 octahedral connection, affecting symmetry.

Effect of Optical Radiation on Tungsten Applications

- UV-induced oxygen vacancies increase photocatalytic efficiency and are used to decompose water or degrade pollutants. The laser-treated structure is suitable for miniature device fabrication.

4.2.2.2 Effect of electric field on the structure of tungsten crystals

Electric fields may induce lattice distortion, ion migration, or phase transitions by acting on charged particles (such as ions or electrons) in the tungsten crystal, which can affect its crystal structure.

Effect of weak electric field ($<10^4$ V/m) on the structure of yellow tungsten trioxide crystals

The direct effect of the low-intensity electric field on the structure of the tungsten crystal is small, and the electron distribution is mainly changed.

- **Structural effects**: The monoclinic crystal form ($P2_1/n$) remains the same, but the surface charge distribution may be slightly adjusted, and the electron cloud of the WO_6 octahedron is slightly offset.
- **Preparation example**: In the electrochromic experiment, the crystal structure did not change significantly when a voltage of 1-5 V was applied.
- **Mechanism**: Electron migration driven by a weak electric field is not reached, and the threshold for changing the crystal lattice is not reached.
- **Characteristics**: The crystal form is stable, which only affects the electrical properties.

Effect of medium electric field (10^4-10^6 V/m) on the structure of tungsten crystals

Medium-intensity electric fields can induce ion migration or local rearrangement, especially at high temperatures or in solution.

- **Structural effects**: Trace defects such as oxygen vacancies or tungsten atomic shifts may occur in the monoclinic crystal form. If the electric field is combined with heat treatment, it may induce orthogonal crystal form (Pnma) formation.
- **Mechanism**: The electric field drives the tungsten oxygen ions to move, changing the octahedral arrangement, and the thermal effect enhances the phase transition.
- **Characteristics**: The change of crystal form is limited, and the morphology (e.g., nanowires) is more susceptible.

Effect of strong electric field (>10^6 V/m) on the structure of tungsten crystals

The high intensity of the electric field may cause significant distortion or destruction of the crystal lattice, especially in areas with large electric field gradients.

- **Structural impacts**: Monoclinic forms may become locally amorphous, or under extreme conditions generate oxygen-vacancy-rich structures (eg Purple tungsten oxide）。
- **Mechanism**: Strong electric field tears the W-O bond and destroys the octahedral network; Electromigration induces local reconstruction.

The mechanism of the electric field

- **Charge Migration**: An electric field drives the movement of ions or electrons, altering local coordination.
- **Polarization effect**: The WO_6 octahedron is polarized by the electric field, and the lattice stress increases.
- **Thermal synergy**: electric field heating accelerates atomic rearrangement.

Effect of electric field on yellow tungsten trioxide applications

- Medium electric fields are used in electrochromic materials to maintain the crystal form while changing the optical properties. Strong electric field products are suitable for highly active electrocatalysts.

4.2.2.3 Effect of magnetic field on the structure of tungsten crystals

The influence of the magnetic field on the crystal structure of the yellow tungsten trioxide is relatively weak, because WO_3 is a non-magnetic material (diamagnetic), but under certain conditions (e.g., solution synthesis or doping), the magnetic field can still affect the crystal structure indirectly.

Effect of weak magnetic field (<1 T) on the structure of tungsten crystal

The direct effect of the low-intensity magnetic field on the crystal structure of the tungsten is almost negligible.

- **Structural influence**: The monoclinic crystal form ($P2_1/n$) remained unchanged, and the WO_6 octahedral arrangement was not significantly adjusted.
- **Preparation example**: Calcined WO_3 under a magnetic field of 0.5 T, and the crystal form did not change.
- **Mechanism**: The diamagnetism of tungsten makes it insensitive to weak magnetic fields.
- **Characteristics**: The crystal structure is stable, and only the electron spin state may be affected.

Effect of medium magnetic field (1-10 t) on the crystal structure of tungsten

Medium magnetic field can affect the nucleus orientation and growth direction in the solution preparation.

- **Structural influences**: monoclinic polymorphs, but magnetic fields may induce grains to align in a specific direction, or hexagonal morphs (P6/mmm) can be formed under hydrothermal conditions. The lattice parameters change slightly.
- **Mechanism**: The magnetic field acts on the charged particles in the solution, changing the diffusion path and affecting the crystal growth direction.
- **Characteristics**: The crystal form does not change much, and the morphology (such as one-dimensional structure) is more susceptible.

Effect of strong magnetic field (>10 t) on the structure of yellow tungsten trioxide crystal

High levels of magnetic fields can cause local lattice adjustments, especially under doping or high temperature conditions.

- **Structural effects**: Monoclinic forms may have local defects or increased symmetry (e.g., orthorhombic forms). If doped with magnetic ions (e.g., Fe^{3+}), the magnetic field can induce a crystalline transition.
- **MECHANISM**: the strong magnetic field interacts with the magnetic moment of the doped ions to change the WO_6 octahedral arrangement; Thermal effects enhance phase transitions.
- **Features**: The change of crystal form needs to be doped or synergistic at high temperature, and the effect of pure WO_3 is limited.

The mechanism of the magnetic field

- **Lorentz force**: A magnetic field acts on ions moving in solution, changing the distribution of crystal nuclei.
- **Indirect effect**: The magnetic field changes the reaction kinetics and affects the crystal growth.

Effect of magnetic field on tungsten applications

- Medium magnetic field products are used in ordered nanostructures such as sensors.

- Strong magnetic field doped products are suitable for magnetic catalysts or optoelectronic materials.

4.3 The intrinsic relationship between the structure and properties of tungsten crystals

The crystal structure of yellow tungsten trioxide (Yellow tungsten trioxide, WO_3) is the basis of its properties and determines its optical, electrical, thermal and chemical properties. Through atomic arrangement, bonding and symmetry, the crystal structure is intrinsically related to the electronic structure, optical band gap, conductivity and other properties. This connection will be explored in terms of electronic structure and further subdivided into two aspects: electron transport and band structure.

4.3.1 Relationship between the crystal structure of tungsten and the level of electronic structure

The electronic structure of tungsten is determined by its crystal structure, and the arrangement of WO_6 octahedron, lattice symmetry and saturation of oxygen content directly affect the electron distribution, band characteristics and transport behavior. This connection is the core property of yellow tungsten trioxide as a semiconductor material. The electronic structure of yellow tungsten trioxide stems from the interaction of tungsten (W) and oxygen (O) atoms. The 5d orbital of tungsten and the 2p orbital of oxygen form valence bands (VB) and conduction bands (CB) by hybridization. The W-O bond in the WO_6 octahedron is partially covalent and ionic, with a bond length of about 1.8-2.0 Å and a bond energy of about 600-700 kJ/mol. This bonding property makes tungsten an n-type semiconductor, and its electronic structure is closely related to the crystal structure.

Effect of tungsten crystal structure

- **Monoclinic crystal form ($P2_1/n$):** The most common crystal form at room temperature, the octahedron is slightly inclined and has low symmetry, resulting in an uneven distribution of electron clouds.
- **Orthogonal crystal form (Pnma):** formed at high temperatures, the octahedral alignment is improved, the symmetry is enhanced, and the electrons are distributed more uniformly.
- **Tetragonal crystal form (P4/nmm):** higher symmetry, the octahedron is arranged regularly along the c-axis, and the electronic bands tend to be degenerate.
- **Oxygen vacancies**: If oxygen vacancies occur in the crystal structure (e.g., $W_{20}O_{58}$), the defective state introduces additional electron energy levels and changes the electrical conductivity.

4.3.1.1 Effect of tungsten crystal structure on electron transport

The electron transport capability of yellow tungsten trioxide is a key performance in photocatalysis, sensors, and electrochromic applications, and is directly influenced by crystal structure, including crystal form, defects, and morphology.

Monoclinic tungsten with electron transport

Monoclinic tungsten is a stable form at room temperature, and its WO_6 octahedral tilt results in low lattice symmetry.

- **Effects**: The electron transport path is blocked by octahedral distortion, and the electron mobility along the lattice direction is low (about 0.1-1 $cm^2/V \cdot s$). The band gap is 2.6-2.8 eV, and the electrons are transitioned mainly by thermal or photoexcitation.
- **Example**: Monoclinic WO_3 thin films have a long response time in electrochromism due to limited electron transport efficiency.
- **Mechanism**: Low symmetry increases electron scattering and restricts carrier migration.

Orthogonal and tetragonal tungsten with electron transport

The symmetry of orthogonal and tetragonal crystal forms is improved at high temperatures, and the octahedral arrangement is more regular.

- **Impact**: Improved electron transport efficiency, mobility up to 1-10 $cm^2/V \cdot s$, reduced lattice scattering. The band gap is slightly lower (2.4-2.6 eV) and the electronic transition is easier.
- **Example**: The orthorhombic form WO_3 is more conductive than the monoclinic form in high-temperature electrodes.
- **Mechanism**: High symmetry reduces electron path obstruction and enhances transport along the crystal axis.

Effect of tungsten oxide oxygen vacancies

Oxygen vacancies (e.g., blue or purple tungsten oxide) introduce defect states that significantly alter electron transport.

- **effect**: Oxygen vacancies act as electron donors, increasing the concentration of free electrons, and the conductivity is greatly improved (up to 10-100 S/cm). For examplePurple tungsten oxide($W_{18}O_{49}$) further facilitates one-dimensional electron transport.
- **Example**: $W_{20}O_{58}$ is more responsive in a gas sensor, with enhanced electron migration due to defects.
- **Mechanism**: Oxygen vacancies form shallow donor energy levels and reduce electron excitation energy.

The crystal structure of nanoscale xantrean (e.g., nanowires, nanosheets) amplifies the electron transport effect through morphology.

- **Impact**: 1D nanowires are more efficient in axial transport, while 2D nanosheets are better in the plane.

- **Example**: Monoclinic crystal nanowires WO_3 improve the efficiency of electron-hole separation in photocatalysis.

4.3.1.2 Relationship between tungsten band structure and crystal structure

The band structure of tungsten is the specific manifestation of its electronic structure, which determines its optical and electrical properties, and is closely related to the symmetry, bond length and defects of the crystal structure.

Band structure of monoclinic tungsten

Monoclinic tungsten has a bandgap of 2.6-2.8 eV, which is an indirect bandgap semiconductor.

- **Relationship**: Octahedral tilt leads to low lattice symmetry, the top of the valence band (mainly composed of O2p) and the bottom of the conduction band (mainly composed of W 5d) at different points in the Brillouin zone, and the electronic transition needs to be compensated for by momentum.
- **Features**: Wide band gap, light absorption is limited to ultraviolet and near-visible regions.
- **Example**: Monoclinic WO_3 has moderate efficiency in photocatalysis, but the use of visible light is limited by the band gap.
- **Mechanism**: Low symmetry enables band dispersion is poor, and carrier effective mass is high.

Band structure of orthogonal and tetragonal tungsten

The bandgap of orthogonal and tetragonal crystal forms is slightly lower (2.4-2.6 eV) and remains an indirect bandgap.

- **Relationship**: Octahedral alignment improves symmetry, W-O bond length tends to be uniform, band dispersion is enhanced, and the band gap is slightly narrower.
- **Features**: The light absorption range is slightly expanded, and the conductivity is improved.
- **Example**: The orthorhombic form WO_3 performs better in high-temperature optoelectronic devices.
- **Mechanism**: High symmetry reduces band degeneracy splitting, making electron transitions easier.

Band structure of hexagonal yellow tungsten trioxide

The hexagonal crystal form (P6/mmm) has a bandgap of about 2.7 eV and a special one-dimensional channel structure.

- **Relationship**: The WO_6 octahedron is surrounded by a hexagonal channel, and the electronic state distribution along the c-axis is more continuous, and there may be a direct bandgap in the local area.
- **Features**: High electron-hole separation efficiency and unique optical properties.
- **Example**: Hexagonal WO_3 is more efficient than monoclinic in photocatalysis.
- **Mechanism**: The pore structure optimizes the band arrangement and reduces the carrier recombination rate.

Tungsten oxide oxygen vacancies and band structure

Oxygen vacancies (e.g., $W_{20}O_{58}$ or $W_{18}O_4$°F) significantly alter the band structure.

- **Relationship**: Oxygen vacancies introduce defect energy levels (0.1-0.5 eV below the conduction band), shrink the band gap (2.2-2.5 eV), and may turn to a direct band gap.
- **Features**: Light absorption red shift to the visible light region, enhanced conductivity.
- **Example**: $W_{18}O_{49}$ has a wider response range in photodetectors.
- **Mechanism**: Defect states provide additional electronic transition channels.

4.3.2 The relationship between the structure of the tungsten crystal and the ion transport plane

The crystal structure of yellow tungsten trioxide (WO_3) not only affects electron transport, but also plays a decisive role in its ion transport performance. Ion transport is critical in applications such as tungsten electrochromics, energy storage (e.g., lithium batteries), and sensors. Crystal structures are intrinsically linked to ion diffusion and embedding/ejection processes through channel properties, symmetry, and defect states. The following is a detailed analysis of the effects of ion diffusion and ion insertion/ejection on structural stability.

4.3.2.1 Effect of tungsten crystal structure on ion diffusion

Ion diffusion refers to the migration of ions (e.g., H^+, Li^+, Na^+) in the yellow tungsten trioxide crystal lattice, and its efficiency is directly controlled by the crystal structure, including crystal form, channel size, and defects.

Monoclinic tungsten with ion diffusion

Monoclinic tungsten is the main form at room temperature, and its WO_6 octahedron is connected at the same angle to form a three-dimensional network.

- **Effects**: The monoclinic crystal form has low lattice symmetry, octahedral tilt results in narrow and discontinuous channels, and low ionic diffusion coefficients (about 10^{-12}-10^{-111} cm^2/s). For example, the diffusion of Li^+ in the monoclinic form is limited and the migration path is tortuous.

- **Example**: In electrochromism, the Li^+ embedding speed is slow and the chromochromic response time is longer.
- **Mechanism**: Low symmetry and tightly packed octahedron hinder the passage of ions, and diffusion is mainly dependent on lattice gaps.

Orthogonal and tetragonal tungsten with ion diffusion

Orthorhombic crystal form (Pnma) and tetragonal crystal form (P4/nmm) are formed at high temperatures, and the octahedral arrangement is more regular.

- **Effects**: Symmetry is improved, lattice channels are slightly wider, and ionic diffusion coefficient increases (about 10^{-111}-10^{-10} cm²/s). The C-axis channel of the tetragonal crystal form is more open, and the ion migration is smoother.
- **Example**: The orthorhombic form WO_3 exhibits good Li^+ diffusion performance in high-temperature ionic conductors.
- **Mechanism**: High symmetry reduces diffusion barrier and enhances channel connectivity.

Hexagonal crystalline tungsten with ion diffusion

Hexagonal tungsten (P6/mmm) has a unique hexagonal pore structure.

- **Effects**: The diameter of the pore is about 2-3 Å, and a one-dimensional channel is formed along the c-axis, and the ion diffusion coefficient is significantly increased (up to 10^{-10}-10^{-9} cm²/s). For example, the migration rate of H^+ or Li^+ in the hexagonal form is much higher than that of the monoclinic form.
- **Example**: Hexagonal WO_3 In lithium battery electrodes, Li^+ diffusion is fast and the charge and discharge performance is excellent.
- **Mechanism**: The open pore structure provides a straight path and reduces diffusion resistance.

Tungsten oxide oxygen vacancies and ion diffusion

Oxygen vacancies (e.g., $W_{20}O_{58}$ or $W_{18}O_{49}$) alter the lattice structure and affect ion diffusion.

- **effect**: Oxygen vacancies increase lattice voids and increase diffusion coefficient (10^{-10}-10^{-9} cm²/s). For examplePurple tungsten oxide($W_{18}O_{49}$) further facilitates ion transport.
- **Example**: $W_{20}O_{58}$ In electrochromic, H^+ embedding is fast and the response time is short.
- **MECHANISM**: Oxygen vacancies act as additional channels to reduce the ion mobility energy barrier.

Tungsten oxide morphology and ion diffusion

The crystal structure of nanoscale yellow tungsten trioxide (e.g., nanotubes, hollow spheres) amplifies the ion diffusion effect through morphology.

- **Impact**: Nanotubes provide one-dimensional channels, hollow spheres increase internal diffusion space, and ion diffusion efficiency is improved.
- **Example**: Monoclinic crystal nanotubes WO_3 significantly increase the Na^+ diffusion rate in supercapacitors.

4.3.2.2 Effect of ion intercalation/extraction process on the structural stability of tungsten crystal

Ion intercalation and extraction (e.g., H^+, Li^+, Na^+) are core processes of yellow tungsten trioxide in electrochemical applications and can have short- and long-term effects on crystal structure stability, including volume expansion, phase transition, and defect accumulation.

Stability of monoclinic tungsten

Monoclinic tungsten presents structural challenges during ion intercalation/extraction.

- Effects: When a small amount of ions are intercalated (e.g., Li_xWO_3 with $x<0.1$), the lattice parameters expand slightly (a, b, c increase by about 0.1-0.5%), and the monoclinic crystal form remains stable. A large number of embeddings (e.g., $x>0.3$) may cause local phase changes to tetragonal or amorphous forms.
- **Example**: In electrochromic, H^+ embedding turns WO_3 into $HxWO_3$, and microcracks may appear in the lattice after multiple cycles.
- **Mechanism**: Ion intercalation causes W-O bond stretching, and octahedral distortion is aggravated. Detachment restores the structure, but repeated stresses can lead to fatigue.

Stability of orthogonal and tetragonal tungsten

The orthogonal and tetragonal crystal forms at high temperatures have strong adaptability to ion intercalation.

- **Effects**: The lattice channel is wide, the volume expansion caused by ion intercalation is small (<0.3%), and the crystal form remains stable. However, shedding at high temperatures may accelerate oxygen loss and form defects.
- **Example**: Orthorhombic form WO_3In high-temperature cells, there is no significant change in the crystal form after Li^+ embedding.
- **Mechanism**: High symmetry distributes stress and reduces structural damage.

Stability of hexagonal yellow tungsten trioxide

The pore structure of the hexagonal crystal form has excellent adaptability to ion insertion/expulsion.

- **Impact**: Pore accommodates ions, minimal volume expansion (<0.2%), and high crystal stability. After multiple cycles, the orifice may be slightly blocked, but the overall structure is maintained.
- **Example**: Hexagonal crystal form WO_3 retains its crystal form after hundreds of charges and discharges in lithium batteries.

Stability of tungsten oxide oxygen vacancy structure

Oxygen-vacant xantrean (e.g., $W_{18}O_4$°F) exhibits different behaviors in ion intercalation/expulsion.

- **Impact**: Oxygen vacancies provide additional intercalation sites with good initial stability. However, a large number of ions can further disrupt the crystal lattice, causing the irreversible phase to become amorphous or metallic tungsten.
- **Mechanism**: The defect state enhances the ionic capacity but weakens the structural integrity.

Long-term stability impacts

- **Volume effect**: Repeated embedding/expulsion causes lattice expansion-contraction cycles, accumulating microcracks or grain boundary defects.
- **Phase transition risk**: High concentrations of ions intercalation may induce irreversible phase transitions (e.g., monoclinic → tetragon).
- **Chemical changes**: Ions (e.g., H^+) may react with oxygen to form water or a low-oxygen state WO_3, disrupting the crystal lattice.

Influence of topography

Nanostructures (e.g., nanosheets, nanotubes) alleviate stability issues through high specific surface area and flexibility.

- **Impact**: The nanosheets disperse the stress, the nanotubes buffer the expansion, and the stability is better than that of the blocks.
- **Example**: Monoclinic nanosheets WO_3 have a longer cycle life in batteries.

App Contact

- Hexagonal forms are suitable for high cycle stability requirements (e.g. batteries).
- Monoclinic forms are used for short-term ion transport (e.g., electrochromic).
- The oxygen vacancy structure needs to be optimized to balance capacity and stability.

4.3.3 Relationship between tungsten crystal structure and surface properties

The crystal structure of Yellow tungsten trioxide (WO_3) is closely related to its surface properties, including adsorption capacity, surface electronic state and chemical activity, which directly affect its performance in catalysis, sensors and energy storage. Crystal structure is intrinsically linked to these properties by determining surface atomic coordination, crystal plane exposure, and defect distribution. The following is a detailed analysis of both surface adsorption and surface electron state.

4.3.3.1 Effect of tungsten crystal structure on surface adsorption

Surface adsorption refers to the attachment process of molecules or ions (such as H_2O, O_2, CO, etc.) to the surface of yellow tungsten trioxide, and its efficiency is controlled by the crystal structure, including the influence of crystal form, exposed crystal planes and defects.

Monoclinic tungsten with surface adsorption

Monoclinic yellow tungsten trioxide (space group $P2_1/n$) is the dominant form at room temperature, and its WO_6 octahedral tilt forms a regular but compact three-dimensional network.

- **Effects**: Surface-exposed crystal planes (e.g., (002), (020)) have high atomic densities, limited number of coordination unsaturated tungsten atoms (W^{6+}) and oxygen atoms (O^{2-}), few adsorption sites, and a specific surface area of typically 2-5 m^2/g (bulks). The adsorption capacity is moderate, mainly relying on physical adsorption.
- **Example**: Monoclinic WO_3 exhibits moderate adsorption to H_2O molecules, making it suitable for humidity sensors.
- **Mechanism**: Low symmetry results in a flat surface with uniform but sparse distribution of chemisorption sites (e.g., W^{6+}-O bridges).

Orthogonal and tetragonal tungsten with surface adsorption

Orthorhombic crystal form (Pnma) and tetragonal crystal form (P4/nmm) are formed at high temperatures, and the octahedral arrangement is more regular.

- **Effects**: Improved symmetry, flatter exposed crystal planes (e.g., tetragonal crystal form (001)), slightly increased coordination unsaturated sites, and slightly higher specific surface area (5-10 m^2/g). Slightly improved adsorption capacity, especially for polar molecules (e.g., NH_3).
- **Example**: The orthorhombic form WO_3 enhances the adsorption of O_2 at high temperatures, which is suitable for catalyst supports.
- **Mechanism**: High symmetry increases surface regularity and more uniform distribution of chemisorption sites.

Hexagonal crystalline yellow tungsten trioxide adsorption with surface

Hexagonal tungsten (P6/mmm) has a unique hexagonal pore structure.

- **Impact**: The pore opening is exposed to the surface (e.g., (001) crystal plane), and the specific surface area is significantly increased (10-30 m²/g), providing a large number of adsorption sites. The internal channels further enhance the molecular retention ability and have strong adsorption to small molecules (such as H_2 and CO).
- **Example**: Hexagonal WO_3 has high sensitivity to CO adsorption in gas sensors.
- **Mechanism**: Open pores and surface coordination unsaturated atoms (e.g., W^{6+}) work synergistically to promote physical and chemical adsorption.

Tungsten oxide oxygen vacancies and surface adsorption

Oxygen vacancies (e.g., $W_{20}O_{58}$ or $W_{18}O_4$°F) change the crystal structure and significantly improve the surface adsorption capacity.

- **Effects**: Oxygen vacancies expose more tungsten atoms (W^{5+} or W^{4+}), forming strong adsorption sites and increasing specific surface area (20-50 m²/g). For example, the needle-like structure and cracks of $W_{18}O_{49}$ further amplify the adsorption capacity.
- **Example**: $W_{20}O_{58}$ exhibits superior adsorption to NO_2 and is used for gas detection.
- **MECHANISM**: Oxygen vacancies act as Lewis acid sites to enhance the chemisorption of electron-donor molecules (e.g., NH_3).

4.3.3.2 Relationship between tungsten crystal structure and surface electronic state

The surface electronic state refers to the electronic distribution and energy level characteristics of the atoms on the surface of yellow tungsten trioxide, which directly affects its catalytic activity, optical properties and electrochemical behavior, and is closely related to the crystal structure.

Surface electronic state of monoclinic tungsten

The surface of the monoclinic tungsten is composed of a regular WO_6 octahedron.

- **Relationship**: The electron clouds on the surface W^{6+} and O^{2-} are evenly distributed, the top of the valence band is composed of O2p orbitals, and the bottom of the conduction band is dominated by W 5d orbitals. The surface band gap is consistent with the bulk (2.6-2.8 eV), and there is no significant defect state.
- **Characteristics**: Low surface electron activity and limited electron transfer capacity.
- **Mechanism**: Low symmetry makes the surface electronic state dispersive poor, lacking additional energy levels.

Surface electronic states of orthogonal and tetragonal tungsten

The orthogonal and tetragonal crystal forms are more symmetrical and the surface structure is more regular.

- **Relationship**: Octahedral alignment results in a more uniform surface W-O bond length, a more uniform electron cloud distribution, and a slightly narrower band gap (2.4-2.6 eV). A small number of superficial defect states may appear on the surface.
- **Features**: The surface electron transfer efficiency is slightly increased, and the activity is enhanced.
- **Example**: The orthorhombic WO_3 surface has faster electron migration in high-temperature catalysis.
- **Mechanism**: High symmetry reduces electron scattering and optimizes the electronic state of the surface.

Surface electronic state of hexagonal yellow tungsten trioxide

The pore structure of the hexagonal crystal form gives the surface unique electronic properties.

- **Relationship**: The exposed W^{6+} and O^{2-} of the pore form a local charge center with a surface band gap of about 2.7 eV, which may introduce a shallow statement. The electron distribution is more continuous along the channel direction.
- **Features**: High surface electron activity, improved electron-hole separation efficiency.
- **Example**: Hexagonal WO_3 surfaces respond faster in photoelectric detection.
- **Mechanism**: The pore structure optimizes the electron path and reduces the recombination rate.

Tungsten oxide oxygen vacancies and surface electronic state

Oxygen vacancies (e.g., $W_{20}O_{58}$ or $W_{18}O_{48}$) significantly alter the surface electronic state.

- **Relationship**: Oxygen vacancies expose W^{5+} or W^{4+}, introduce defect energy levels (0.1-0.5 eV below the conduction band), and narrow the band gap (2.2-2.5 eV). The electron concentration on the surface increases, and the conductivity increases.
- **Characteristics**: The surface electrons are extremely active, and it is easy to transfer with adsorbed molecules.
- **Example**: $W_{18}O_{49}$ surfaces respond strongly to NO_2 electrons in a gas sensor.
- **Mechanism**: The defect state provides additional electron channels that facilitate surface reactions.

4.3.4 The relationship between tungsten crystal structure and mechanical properties

The mechanical properties of yellow tungsten trioxide (Yellow tungsten trioxide, WO_3), such as hardness, elastic modulus and fracture resistance, are closely related to its crystal structure. The crystal structure determines the response behavior of yellow tungsten trioxide under force through atomic arrangement, bond strength, and defect distribution. This connection is analyzed below from the perspective of crystal form, morphology, and defects.

Mechanical properties of monoclinic tungsten

Monoclinic yellow tungsten trioxide (space group $P2_1/n$) is the main form at room temperature, and WO_6 octahedron is connected at the same angle to form a three-dimensional network.

- **Connection**: Octahedral tilt results in low lattice symmetry, uneven distribution of W-O bonds (bond energy about 600-700 kJ/mol), moderate hardness (about 4-5 on the Mohs scale), and elastic modulus of about 100-150 GPa. Grain boundary slip is difficult, and fracture resistance is limited.
- **Example**: Monoclinic WO_3 blocks exhibit brittleness in compression tests and are prone to fracture along grain boundaries.
- **Mechanism**: Low symmetry concentrates the stress in the octahedral distortion region, reducing the resistance to deformation.

Mechanical properties of orthogonal and tetragonal tungsten

Orthorhombic crystal form (Pnma) and tetragonal crystal form (P4/nmm) are formed at high temperatures, and the octahedral arrangement is more regular.

- **Connection**: Symmetry is improved, the W-O bond distribution is more uniform, the hardness is slightly increased (about 5 on the Mohs scale), and the modulus of elasticity can reach 150-200 GPa. The tetragonal crystal form is more rigid in the C-axis direction.
- **Example**: Orthorhombic WO_3 thin films have better resistance to deformation at high temperatures than monoclinic films.
- **Mechanism**: High symmetry disperses stress and reduces local stress concentration.

Mechanical properties of hexagonal yellow tungsten trioxide

The hexagonal crystal form (P6/mmm) has a hexagonal pore structure.

- **Connection**: The pores have a reduced crystal density (about 7.1 g/cm³, lower than the monoclinic of 7.16 g/cm³) and a slightly lower hardness (about 3.5-4.5 on the Mohs scale), but are more flexible because the pores cushion stresses. The modulus of elasticity is about 80-120 GPa.
- **Example**: Hexagonal WO_3 nanowires exhibit some toughness in bending tests.
- **Mechanism**: The open structure absorbs stress and reduces crack propagation.

Tungsten oxide oxygen vacancies and mechanical properties

Oxygen vacancies (e.g., $W_{20}O_{58}$ or $W_{18}O_{48}$) alter the crystal structure and affect the chemical properties.

- **Connection**: Oxygen vacancies introduce defects, reduce W-O bond density, significantly reduce hardness (about 3-4 on the Mohs scale), and decrease in elastic modulus (50-100 GPa). For example, the needle-like structure of $W_{18}O_{49}$ is prone to breakage.
- **Example**: $W_{20}O_{58}$ is prone to crumbling in mechanical grinding.
- **Mechanism**: Defects destroy lattice integrity and increase stress concentration points.

4.3.5 The relationship between tungsten crystal structure and optical properties

The optical properties of yellow tungsten trioxide, including light absorption, refractive index, and electrochromic properties, are closely related to its crystal structure. Crystal structure determines the interaction of photons with materials through band structure and surface properties.

Optical properties of monoclinic tungsten

Monoclinic tungsten has an indirect band gap (2.6-2.8 eV).

- **Connection**: The octahedral tilt makes the electron cloud unevenly distributed, and the light absorption is mainly in the ultraviolet and near-visible regions (<450 nm), which is light yellow. The refractive index is about 2.2-2.4 and the electrochromic response is moderate (color changes from yellow to blue-green).
- **Example**: Monoclinic WO_3 has a stable but slower discoloration efficiency in smart glass.
- **Mechanism**: Low symmetry leads to poor band dispersion and limited optical transition efficiency.

Optical properties of orthogonal and tetragonal tungsten

The orthogonal and tetragonal crystal forms are more symmetrical and the bandgap is slightly narrower (2.4-2.6 eV).

- **Contact**: Light absorption edge slightly redshifted (to 480 nm), yellowish-orange color. The refractive index is slightly higher (2.3-2.5), and the electrochromic response speed is faster.
- **Example**: The orthorhombic form WO_3 exhibits a wider light response in high-temperature optics.
- **Mechanism**: High symmetry enhances band continuity and promotes photon excitation.

Optical properties of hexagonal crystalline yellow tungsten trioxide

The hexagonal pore structure gives it unique optical properties.

- **Contact**: The band gap is about 2.7 eV, and the light absorption efficiency is enhanced by the scattering of the pore, and the color is light yellow. Excellent electrochromic properties due to faster ion intercalation.

- **instance**: Hexagonal form WO_3 has high light utilization rate in photocatalysis.
- **Mechanism**: The pore structure optimizes the photon path and reduces the electron-hole recombination rate.

Tungsten oxide oxygen vacancies and optical properties

Oxygen vacancies (e.g., $W_{20}O_{58}$ or $W_{18}O_{48}$) significantly alter optical properties.

- **Contacts**: Defect states reduce the band gap (2.2-2.5 eV), redshift the light absorption to the visible region (500-600 nm), and darken the color (e.g., blue or violet). Electrochromic response is faster.
- **Mechanism**: Defect energy levels provide additional transition paths.

4.3.6 Relationship between tungsten crystal structure and catalytic properties

The catalytic properties of yellow tungsten trioxide, including photocatalytic, electrocatalytic and thermocatalytic capabilities, are closely related to its crystal structure. Crystal structure determines catalytic efficiency through surface-active sites, electron transfer, and adsorption capacity.

Catalytic properties of monoclinic tungsten

The monoclinic WO_3 has a limited surface active site.

- **Contact**: Band gap 2.6-2.8 eV, photocatalysis limited to UV light, moderate surface adsorption capacity (specific surface area 2-5 m^2/g). The catalytic activity is mainly dependent on the W^{6+} and O^{2-} sites.
- **Mechanism**: Low symmetry limits electron-hole separation, and surface loci are sparsely distributed.

Catalytic properties of orthogonal and tetragonal tungsten

The orthogonal and tetragonal crystal forms have high symmetry and a more regular surface.

- **Connection**: The band gap is slightly narrower (2.4-2.6 eV), the photocatalytic efficiency is slightly increased, the surface sites are evenly distributed, and the thermocatalytic activity is enhanced.
- **MECHANISM**: High symmetry promotes electron transfer and the surface-active site is more efficient.

Catalytic properties of hexagonal yellow tungsten trioxide

The pore structure of the hexagonal crystal form significantly improves the catalytic performance.

- **Connection**: High specific surface area (10-30 m^2/g) and pores provide a large number of adsorption sites, high electron-hole separation efficiency, and excellent photocatalytic activity.
- **Mechanism**: Pore enhances molecular adsorption and photon utilization.

Tungsten oxide oxygen vacancies and catalytic properties

Oxygen vacancies (e.g., $W_{20}O_{58}$ or $W_{18}O_4$°F) greatly increase catalytic activity.

- **Contact**: Oxygen vacancies expose W^{5+}/W^{4+}, forming a strongly active site, shrinking the band gap (2.2-2.5 eV), and photocatalytic expansion to visible light. High specific surface area.
- **Mechanism**: The defect state promotes electron transfer and enhances adsorption and reaction.

4.4 Experimental determination of the crystal structure of tungsten

The determination of the crystal structure of yellow tungsten trioxide (Yellow tungsten trioxide, WO_3) is the basis for studying its properties and applications, relying on a variety of experimental techniques to reveal atomic arrangement, lattice parameters, and phase characteristics. X-ray diffraction (XRD) and neutron diffraction are two core technologies that provide detailed information about crystal structure through different principles. The principles and applications of X-ray diffraction and the role of neutron diffraction in the determination of the structure of yellow tungsten trioxide will be discussed in detail.

4.4.1 Principles of X-ray diffraction technology

X-ray diffraction (XRD) is the most commonly used technique to determine the structure of yellow tungsten trioxide crystals, which uses the interference effect of X-rays and the scattering of atoms in the crystal to obtain information such as lattice parameters, space groups, and atomic positions.

X-ray diffraction is based on Bragg's law ($n\lambda = 2d \sin\theta$), where:
- **λ**: the wavelength of X-rays (commonly used Cu Kα radiation, $\lambda = 1.5406$ Å).
- **d**: Crystal plane spacing.
- **θ**: Incident angle and crystal plane angle.
- **n**: diffraction order (integer). When X-rays irradiate the tungsten crystal, the atoms scatter it, and the scattered waves that meet the Bragg conditions produce constructive interference, forming diffraction peaks. The position (2θ angle), intensity, and shape of the diffraction peaks reflect crystal structure information.

Experimental process of X-ray diffraction technique

1. **Sample preparation**: Place a yellow tungsten trioxide sample (e.g., powder, thin film, or single crystal) on the sample stage to ensure a flat surface. Powder samples need to be ground to the micron scale to reduce preference orientation.

2. **X-ray irradiation**: Monochromatic X-rays are produced using an X-ray tube (such as a Cu target) to irradiate the sample, rotate the sample, or detector to scan at different angles (2θ is usually 5°-90°).
3. **Data collection**: The detector records the intensity and position of the diffraction peaks to generate a diffraction pattern.
4. **Data analysis**:
    - **Peak position**: Calculate the crystal plane spacing d according to Bragg's law, and determine the crystal system and lattice parameters.
    - **Peak intensity**: reflects the atomic position and plane density and is used for structural refinement.
    - **Peak shape**: Grain size (by Scherrer formula) and stress are analyzed.

Application of X-ray diffraction technology in yellow tungsten trioxide

- **Crystal form identification**: Tungsten has characteristic diffraction peaks in monoclinic ($P2_1/n$), orthorhombic (Pnma) or hexagonal (P6/mmm). For example, the (002), (020), and (200) peaks of the monoclinic crystal form appear at 2θ≈ 23.1°, 23.6°, and 24.4° (Cu Kα), respectively.
- **Lattice parameters**: The a=7.306 Å, b=7.540 Å, c=7.692 Å and β=90.91° of the monoclinic crystal form were determined by refining the diffraction data.
- **Phase transition studies**: XRD can track the transition of monoclinic → orthogonal → tetragonal crystal forms as temperature increases.
- **Defect Analysis**: Oxygen vacancies (e.g., $W_{20}O_{58}$) cause a slight shift in peak position or a change in intensity.

Advantages and limitations of X-ray diffraction techniques

- **Advantages**: Popularization of equipment, easy operation, suitable for rapid determination of crystal form and parameters; Sensitive to heavy elements (e.g. tungsten) and has a strong diffraction signal.
- **Limitations**: Weak scattering ability of light elements (such as oxygen), and it is difficult to accurately determine the position of oxygen atoms; Limited resolution for complex structures or nanosamples.

In the study of yellow tungsten trioxide calcination by ammonium paratungstate, XRD confirmed that the product was monoclinic at 500°C, the peak position was consistent with the standard card (JCPDS 43-1035), and the grain size was estimated to be 50-100 nm by Scherrer's formula.

4.4.2 Application of neutron diffraction technology in structure determination

Neutron diffraction obtains detailed information about the structure of tungsten crystals through the scattering of neutrons and nuclei, which is particularly advantageous in determining the position and defect structure of light elements such as oxygen.

Neutron diffraction is also based on Bragg's law ($n\lambda = 2d \sin\theta$), but uses a neutron beam (usually 0.5-5 Å) instead of X-rays. Neutrons interact with the nucleus, scatter independently of atomic number, and are sensitive to light elements such as oxygen. Neutrons also have magnetic scattering properties, which can be used to study magnetic structures (tungsten flavour is diamagnetic, this function is rarely used).

Experimental process of neutron diffraction technique

1. **Sample Preparation**: Tungsten samples should be powders or single crystals with a large volume (usually a few grams) due to the low neutron beam flux. The sample should be packed into a container with no neutron absorption (e.g., a vanadium tank).
2. **Neutron irradiation**: Hot or cold neutrons are generated at a neutron source (such as a nuclear reactor or spallation source), monochromatized to irradiate the sample, and diffraction data is collected at a scanning angle (2θ).
3. **Data collection**: Diffraction peaks are recorded using a neutron detector (e.g., ^{3}He counter) to generate high-resolution spectra.
4. **Data analysis**: **Rietveld refinement**: Fitting the diffraction pattern to determine lattice parameters, atomic positions, and occupancy. **Oxygen position**: Precise determination of the coordinates and thermal vibration parameters of oxygen atoms. **Defect Analysis**: Detection of the distribution of oxygen vacancies or doped atoms.

Application of neutron diffraction technique in yellow tungsten trioxide

- **Oxygen atom positioning**: neutron diffraction has a strong scattering ability to oxygen atoms, which can accurately determine the Wyckoff position (such as 4e position) of oxygen atoms in monoclinic crystal form, and resolve the difference between bridge oxygen and terminal oxygen.
- **Crystal form confirmation**: Verification of spatial groups and lattice parameters of monoclinical, orthogonal, or hexagonal crystal forms. For example, the pore structure of a hexagonal crystal form confirms its c-axis channel characteristics by neutron diffraction.
- **Oxygen vacancy analysis**: In $W_{20}O_{58}$ or $W_{18}O_{49}$, neutron diffraction quantifies the proportion of oxygen vacancies (e.g., oxygen index 2.9 or 2.72), revealing the effect of defects on the crystal lattice.
- **Phase transition studies**: Trace the transition from low-temperature triclinic (P1) to monoclinic crystal form, and analyze oxygen atomic rearrangement.
- **Nanostructure**: Combined with neutron scattering, the surface defects and grain boundary characteristics of nano-xantret were studied.

Advantages and limitations of neutron diffraction

- **Advantages**: Sensitive to light elements (such as oxygen), suitable for accurate determination of the position and dynamics of oxygen atoms in yellow tungsten trioxide; Penetrates thick samples and is suitable for bulk analysis; Oxygen vacancies and doping effects can be detected.

- **Limitations**: Neutron sources are scarce and the experimental cost is high; Large sample volumes are required; The resolution of anti-heavy elements such as tungsten is not as good as that of XRD.

Complementarity of neutron diffraction techniques with XRD

- **XRD**: Rapid determination of crystal form and lattice parameters for the localization of heavy elements such as tungsten.
- **Neutron diffraction**: Precise determination of oxygen atom position and defects, suitable for complex structure analysis.
- **Combined use**: XRD provides preliminary structure, neutron diffraction refinement, oxygen location and defects. For example, the lattice parameters of the monoclinic form WO_3 are determined by XRD, and the thermal vibration parameters of the oxygen atom are optimized by neutron diffraction.

CTIA GROUP LTD

Yellow tungsten trioxide (**YTO,** WO_3) **Product Introduction**

1. Product Overview

CTIA GROUP LTD Yellow tungsten trioxide is produced by high-temperature calcination process of ammonium paratungstate, which meets the requirements of GB/T 3457-2013 "Tungsten Oxide" first-class product. WO_3 is widely used in the preparation of tungsten powder, cemented carbide, tungsten wire and ceramic colorants. CTIA GROUP LTD is committed to providing high-quality Yellow tungsten trioxide products to meet the needs of powder metallurgy and industrial manufacturing.

2. product characteristics

High stability: stable in air, insoluble in water and inorganic acids except hydrofluoric acid.

Reactivity: It can be reduced to tungsten powder by hydrogen (>650°C) or carbon.

Uniformity: Uniform particle distribution, suitable for downstream processing.

3. Product specifications

index	CTIA GROUP LTD Yellow tungsten trioxide first-class product standard
WO_3 content (wt%)	≥99.95
Impurities （wt%，max.）	Fe≤0.0010, Mo≤0.0020, Si≤0.0010, Al≤0.0005, Ca≤0.0010, Mg≤0.0005, K≤0.0010, Na≤0.0010, S≤0.0005, P≤0.0005
Particle size	1-10（μm，FSSS）
Loose density	2.0-2.5（g/cm³）
Customization	Particle size or impurity limits can be customized according to customer requirements

4. Packaging and warranty

Packing: Inner sealed plastic bag, outer iron drum or woven bag, net weight 50kg or 100kg, moisture-proof design.

Warranty: Each batch comes with a quality certificate, including WO_3 content, impurity analysis, particle size (FSSS method), loose density and moisture data.

5. Procurement information

Email: sales@chinatungsten.com

Phone: +86 592 5129696

For more Yellow tungsten trioxide information, please visit the China Tungsten online website www.tungsten-powder.com. For more market and real-time information, please follow the WeChat public account "China Tungsten Online".

CTIA GROUP LTD Yellow tungsten trioxide

Chapter 5 Physical and Chemical Properties of Yellow tungsten trioxide

As an important transition metal oxide, the physical and chemical properties of Yellow tungsten trioxide (WO_3) directly determine its application potential in industry, scientific research and high-tech fields. In this chapter, we will discuss in detail the properties of yellow tungsten trioxide and its relationship with crystal structure and preparation conditions from three aspects: appearance and color, density/specific gravity, and thermal stability.

5.1 Appearance and color of tungsten

The appearance and color of tungsten are the most intuitive physical properties, which are affected by factors such as crystal structure, particle size, impurities and oxygen content, and show diversified performance under different conditions.

Appearance characteristics of yellow tungsten trioxide

- **Morphology**: Tungsten flavour is usually present in powder form, and the particle morphology varies depending on the preparation method. Bulk yellow tungsten trioxide is irregular polyhedral, and nanoscale yellow tungsten trioxide can be granular, flake, linear or flower-like.
- **Particle size**: Most of the industrial yellow tungsten trioxide particles are micron level, and the laboratory nano yellow tungsten trioxide can be as small as 10-100 nm.
- **Surface characteristics**: Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) showed that the surface flatness of tungsten changed with the crystal form, the surface of the monoclinic crystal form was rough, and the hexagonal crystal form might have pore openings.

Color characteristics of yellow tungsten trioxide

- **Typical color**: Pure yellow tungsten trioxide is light yellow to bright yellow as a result of its band gap (2.6-2.8 eV) absorbing ultraviolet and near-visible light.
- **Influence of polymorph:**
  - **Monoclinic form**: light yellow or yellow-green, with slight variations in light scattering due to octahedral tilt.
  - **Orthorhombic form**: yellowish-orange with a slightly narrower band gap (2.4-2.6 eV) and redshifted absorption edges.
  - **Tetragonal crystal form**: dark yellow, the color is deepened by improved symmetry.
  - **Hexagonal crystal form**: light yellow, pore scattering enhances brightness.
- **Effect of oxygen vacancy**: When the oxygen content decreases (e.g., $W_{20}O_{58}$ is blue, $W_{18}O_{49}$ is purple), the color changes significantly, and the band gap is reduced (2.2-2.5 eV) due to the defect state, and the absorption expands to the visible region.
- **Impurity effects**: Trace amounts of iron (Fe) or molybdenum (Mo) impurities may make the color yellowish-brown or grayish-yellow. For example, tungsten with 0.01% Fe is slightly darker in color.
- **Influence of preparation temperature**: high-temperature calcination (>740°C) generates orthogonal or tetragonal crystal form, and the color is deepened; The low-temperature hydrothermal method (<200°C) is mostly light yellow nanostructures.
- **Preparation atmosphere effect**: reducing atmosphere (e.g., H_2) produces blue or purple tungsten oxide, and oxidizing atmosphere (e.g., air) remains yellow.

5.2 Density/specific gravity of tungsten

The density (or specific gravity) of tungsten is an important parameter of its physical properties, reflecting the compactness of the crystal structure and the arrangement of atoms, which is affected by the crystal form and defects.

Density definition

- **Specific gravity**: The density relative to water, unitless, which is discussed here on an equivalent basis with density.
- **Theoretical density**: The molecular weight of WO_3 is 231.84 g/mol by lattice parameters and molecular weight calculations.

Density of monoclinic tungsten

- **Value**: The theoretical density is about 7.16 g/cm³, and the experimental value is close to 7.1-7.2 g/cm³.

- **Reason**: The WO_6 octahedron of monoclinic crystal form ($P2_1/n$) is connected by coangular to form a tight three-dimensional network, and the lattice parameters (a=7.306 Å, b=7.540 Å, c=7.692 Å) determine the number of atoms per unit volume.
- **Measurements**: Refinement of lattice parameters by X-ray diffraction (XRD), combined with mass calculations.

Density of orthogonal and tetragonal tungsten

- **Values**: The orthorhombic form (Pnma) is about 7.15 g/cm³, and the tetragonal form (P4/nmm) is slightly lower (7.12-7.15 g/cm³).
- **Causes**: Symmetry is improved, the octahedral arrangement is more regular, but the lattice volume expands slightly, resulting in a slight decrease in density.
- **Measurement**: Calculation after high temperature XRD confirms the crystal form.

Density of hexagonal yellow tungsten trioxide

- **Value**: about 7.1 g/cm³, slightly lower than monoclinic crystal form.
- **Reason**: The pore structure of the hexagonal crystal form (P6/mmm) reduces the mass per unit volume, and the lattice parameters (a=7.298 Å, c=3.899 Å) show openness.
- **Measurements**: Neutron diffraction combined with crystal model validation.

Tungsten oxide oxygen vacancies and density

- **Values**: For example, $W_{20}O_{58}$ (oxygen index 2.9) is about 6.8-7.0 g/cm³, and $W_{18}O_{49}$ (oxygen index 2.72) is lower (about 6.5-6.8 g/cm³).
- **Causes**: Oxygen vacancies reduce molecular weight and increase lattice defects, decreasing density.

Tungsten oxide morphology and density

- **Nanostructures**: The apparent density of nano-yellow tungsten trioxide (e.g., nanoparticles, nanotubes) is lower than the theoretical value (5-6 g/cm³) due to pore or surface effects.
- **Block**: close to theoretical density, few pores.

Measurement method of tungsten oxide density

- **Archimedes**: Immersion in liquid to measure volume and mass, suitable for blocks.
- **Helium displacement method**: determination of true density, suitable for powders.

5.3 Thermal stability of yellow tungsten trioxide

The thermal stability of yellow tungsten trioxide refers to its structure and chemical stability at high temperatures, which is closely related to the crystal structure, oxygen content and preparation conditions.

Thermal stability of monoclinic tungsten

- **Range**: Extremely stable at room temperature to 330°C, melting point of 1473°C.
- **Change**: Above 330°C it changes to orthogonal crystal form (Pnma), and above 740°C it changes to tetragonal crystal form (P4/nmm), but the chemical composition (WO_3) remains unchanged.
- **Example**: The monoclinic WO_3 is calcined in air at 500°C for several hours, and the structure remains intact.
- **Mechanism**: The coangular connection of the WO_6 octahedron provides high bond energy, and the oxygen saturation state prevents decomposition.

Thermal stability of orthogonal and tetragonal tungsten

- **Range**: Orthorhombic crystal form is stable at 330-740 °C, tetragonal crystal form is stable at 740-1473 °C.
- **Change**: Monoclinic crystal form is restored after cooling to below 330°C, indicating that the high-temperature crystal form is metastable.
- **Example**: The orthorhombic form WO_3 is kept in an oxidizing atmosphere at 600°C for several hours without decomposition.
- **Mechanism**: The highly symmetrical octahedral arrangement adapts to high temperatures, but the aerobic atmosphere is maintained.

Thermal stability of hexagonal yellow tungsten trioxide

- **Range**: Stable at 200-600°C, above 600°C may turn to monoclinic crystal form.
- **Change**: The pore structure is easy to collapse at high temperatures and loses its hexagonal characteristics.
- **Example**: Hexagonal form WO_3 is stable in hydrothermal products at 400°C and becomes monoclinic after calcination at 800°C.
- **Mechanism**: The density of the pores is reduced, and thermal vibration is easy to destroy its open structure.

Tungsten oxide oxygen vacancies and thermal stability

- **Range**: Oxygen vacancy structures (such as $W_{20}O_{58}$, $W_{18}O_{49}$) are more stable at 300-500°C, and are easy to oxidize or decompose above this range.
- **Variation**: In an oxidizing atmosphere, $W_{18}O_{49}$ can be oxidized to WO_3; In a reducing atmosphere, it is possible to further reduce to W or WO_2.
- **Mechanism**: Oxygen vacancies reduce bond energy and decrease thermal stability.

Effect of preparation conditions on the thermal stability of tungsten oxide

- **Atmosphere**: Oxidizing atmosphere (e.g., O_2) maintains WO_3 stability, reducing atmosphere (e.g., H_2) reduces stability.
- **Temperature**: High temperature induces phase change or decomposition.
- **Morphology**: Due to the surface effect, the thermal stability of nanostructures is lower than that of bulk bodies.

Method for measuring the thermal stability of tungsten oxide

- **Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA):** Determination of mass as a function of temperature to evaluate the decomposition point.
- **Differential Scanning Calorimetry (DSC):** Detects the phase change temperature.
- **High-temperature XRD**: Real-time tracking of polymorph changes.

5.3.1 Melting point of yellow tungsten trioxide

The melting point of yellow tungsten trioxide (Yellow tungsten trioxide, WO_3) is an important indicator of its thermal stability, reflecting the physical limit of its crystal structure at extreme high temperatures. The melting point is closely related to the crystal form, bond strength, and experimental conditions.

Melting point value of yellow tungsten trioxide

- **Standard melting point**: The melting point of yellow tungsten trioxide is usually determined to be 1473 °C (1746 K), which is the melting temperature of the monoclinic form WO_3 at a standard atmospheric pressure (0.1 MPa).
- **Experimental measurement**: Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) or high-temperature furnace experiments confirmed that at about 1473 °C, the yellow tungsten trioxide changed from a solid state to a liquid state and lost its crystal structure.

Effect of crystal form on the melting point of yellow tungsten trioxide

- **Monoclinic crystal form**: as a stable phase at room temperature, the melting point is 1473 °C. The WO_6 octahedron is formed by a three-dimensional network of coangular connections that provide high bond energies (W-O bonds of about 600-700 kJ/mol), allowing them to maintain their structural integrity at high temperatures.
- **Orthogonal and tetragonal crystal forms**: These high-temperature phases are stable in the range of 330-740 °C (orthogonal) and 740-1473 °C (quadrigon), but melt directly near the melting point without significant melting point differences.
- **Hexagonal crystal form**: The pore structure of hexagonal crystal form may collapse to monoclinic crystal form at 600-800 °C, and the final melting point is still 1473 °C.

Effect of preparation conditions on the melting point of yellow tungsten trioxide

- **Atmosphere**: In an oxidizing atmosphere such as air or O_2, the melting point is stable at 1473°C. In a reducing atmosphere (e.g., H_2), tungsten may decompose into low-oxygen tungsten oxide (e.g., WO_2) or metallic tungsten (W) at lower temperatures, rather than being melted directly.
- **Pressure**: At high pressure, the melting point may rise slightly, and the strength of the W-O bond is enhanced by lattice compression, but the data are scarce.
- **Impurities**: Trace impurities (e.g., Fe, Mo) may lower the melting point by several degrees because they disrupt lattice regularity.

Measurement method of tungsten melting point

- **DSC**: Heat the sample to melt and record the position of the endothermic peak.
- **High-temperature microscope**: Observe the morphological changes of the sample and confirm the melting point.
- **Thermogravimetric Analysis (TGA):** Combined with mass changes, decomposition interference is excluded.

The mechanism of the melting point of yellow tungsten trioxide

The high melting point is due to the strong covalent and ionic nature of the W-O bonds, as well as the tight arrangement of WO_6 octahedrals. When melted, the octahedral network breaks and the atoms enter a disordered liquid state.

5.3.2 Decomposition temperature of tungsten

The decomposition temperature of yellow tungsten trioxide refers to the temperature at which it loses oxygen atoms or transforms into other compounds under specific conditions, which is closely related to thermal stability. The decomposition behavior is significantly affected by the atmosphere and crystal form.

The decomposition temperature value of tungsten

- **Oxidizing atmosphere**: In air or O_2, yellow tungsten trioxide (WO_3) does not decompose until the melting point (1473 °C). Its oxygen saturation state makes it chemically stable.
- **Reducing atmosphere**: In H_2 or CO atmosphere, the decomposition temperature of yellow tungsten trioxide is significantly reduced, and it is decomposed into low-oxygen tungsten oxide or tungsten
  - **$WO_3 \rightarrow WO_{2.9}$（$W_{20}O_{58}$）**：约 400-600°C。
  - **$WO_3 \rightarrow WO_2$**: 800-1000°C。
  - **$WO_3 \rightarrow W$**:1000-1200°C。

- **Vacuum conditions**: At low pressure, the decomposition temperature is about 1200-1300°C, generating WO_2 or volatile WO_3 gases.

Effect of crystal form on the decomposition temperature of yellow tungsten trioxide

- **Monoclinic crystal form**: stabilized to the melting point in an oxidizing atmosphere, oxygen loss may occur at 400°C in a reducing atmosphere, and blue tungsten oxide is formed.
- **Hexagonal crystal form**: The pore structure makes it easier to lose oxygen in the reducing atmosphere, and the decomposition temperature is slightly lower (about 350-500 °C).
- **Oxygen vacancy structure**: If $W_{18}O_{49}$ is at 300-400°C, it may further decompose because it is already defective.

Effect of preparation conditions on the decomposition temperature of yellow tungsten trioxide

- **Atmosphere**: The more reducible (e.g., the higher the H_2 concentration), the lower the decomposition temperature. Oxidizing atmospheres inhibit decomposition.
- **Temperature rate**: Rapid warming may delay decomposition due to kinetic lag.
- **Impurities**: The decomposition temperature of yellow tungsten trioxide containing Fe or C decreases under reducing conditions, due to the loss of oxygen catalyzed by impurities.

Measurement method of tungsten decomposition temperature

- **TGA**: The recording quality decreases with temperature, and the starting point of decomposition is identified.
- **XRD**: High-temperature real-time analysis of product morphs, such as WO_2 or W.
- **Mass spectrometry (MS):** Detection of gases (e.g., O_2) released by decomposition.

Mechanism of the decomposition temperature of yellow tungsten trioxide

The decomposition process is a stepwise oxygen loss reaction:

- $WO_3 + H_2 \rightarrow WO_{3-x} + xH_2O$（Oxygen vacancy formation）。
- $WO_3 + 3H_2 \rightarrow W + 3H_2O$ (full reduction). Thermodynamically, the decrease in partial pressure of oxygen drives decomposition, which is dynamically controlled by atmosphere and temperature.

5.3.3 Coefficient of thermal expansion of tungsten

The coefficient of thermal expansion (CTE) of yellow tungsten trioxide measures the degree of expansion of its volume or length with increasing temperature, which is related to the symmetry and bonding characteristics of the crystal structure.

The value of the coefficient of thermal expansion of tungsten flavour

- **Monoclinic crystal form**:
  - Coefficient of linear thermal expansion (α): approx. 8-12 × 10^{-6} K^{-1} (20-300°C).
  - Anisotropy: Slight differences along the a, b, and c axes (about 10 × 10^{-6} K^{-1} on the a-axis, about 12 × 10^{-6} K^{-1} on the c-axis), and the lattice is asymmetrical due to octahedral inclination.
- **Orthorhombic form**: about 7-10 × 10^{-6} K^{-1} (330-740°C), symmetry is improved, and expansion is more uniform.
- **Tetragonal form**: approx. 6-9 × 10^{-6} K^{-1} (740-1473°C), slightly larger c-axis expansion.
- **Hexagonal form**: about 10-14 × 10^{-6} K^{-1}, the pore structure makes the expansion slightly higher.

Effect of crystal form on the value of the coefficient of thermal expansion of yellow tungsten trioxide

- **Monoclinic crystal form**: low symmetry leads to anisotropic expansion, and W-O bond stiffness limits expansion.
- **Orthogonal and tetragonal crystal forms**: High symmetry results in more uniform expansion and enhanced bond length adjustment ability.
- **Hexagonal crystal form**: The pores reduce the density, and the thermal vibration makes the expansion coefficient slightly higher, but the structure may collapse at high temperatures.

Effect of preparation conditions on the value of tungsten thermal expansion coefficient

- **Temperature range**: At the point of phase transition, the coefficient of expansion may change abruptly, causing volume changes due to the transformation of the crystal form.
- **Morphology**: Nano-tungsten (e.g. nanoparticles) may have a slightly higher coefficient of expansion (10-15% increase) due to surface effects.
- **Impurities**: Doping (e.g., Na^+) may alter bond strength and affect expansion behavior.

A method for measuring the value of the coefficient of thermal expansion of tungsten

- **High-temperature XRD**: Determine the lattice parameters as a function of temperature, and calculate $\alpha = (1/L_0)(\Delta L/\Delta T)$.
- **Thermomechanical Analysis (TMA):** Direct measurement of sample length changes.
- **Dilatometer**: Records the volumetric expansion of the bulk material.

The thermal expansion is due to the increased thermal vibration of the W-O bond, with a slight increase in bond length (about 0.001-0.002 Å/100°C) as the temperature increases. The high-symmetry crystal form reduces the expansion amplitude by evenly distributing the vibration energy; Holes or defects amplify the vibration effect.

5.4 Solubility of yellow tungsten trioxide

The solubility of yellow tungsten trioxide (Yellow tungsten trioxide, WO_3) is an important aspect of its chemical properties, reflecting its stability and reactivity under different solvents and conditions. Solubility is significantly affected by crystal structure, particle size, and chemical environment.

Solubility of yellow tungsten trioxide in water

- **Solubility**: The solubility of yellow tungsten trioxide in pure water is very low, about 0.02 g/L (20 °C, pH≈7), which is a poorly soluble compound.
- **Reason**: The crystal structure of WO_3 is formed by the conformal connection of WO_6 octahedron to form a stable three-dimensional network, and the W-O bond (bond energy is about 600-700 kJ/mol) is not easily broken by water molecules.
- **Mechanism**: Water molecules cannot effectively coordinate tungsten atoms and lack sufficient chemical drive to dissociate the lattice.

Solubility of yellow tungsten trioxide in acidic solutions

- **Weak acids (e.g., acetic acid):** solubility is still low (<0.1 g/L) because it is not acidic enough to break the W-O bond.
- **Strong acids (e.g., HCl, H_2SO_4):** solubility is slightly increased, but still limited (about 0.1 to 0.5 g/L). Some WO_3 may be converted to soluble tungstic acid (H_2WO_4), but the reaction is slow.
- **MECHANISM**: H^+ in strong acids attacks surface oxygen atoms to form H_2WO_4, but the internal stability of the crystal lattice is high.

Solubility of yellow tungsten trioxide in alkaline solution

- **Solubility**: The solubility of yellow tungsten trioxide in strong bases (such as NaOH, KOH) is significantly improved, and soluble tungstate (such as Na_2WO_4) is generated. In 1 M NaOH, the solubility can reach tens of g/L.
- 反应：$WO_3 + 2NaOH \rightarrow Na_2WO_4 + H_2O$。
- **Example**: The monoclinic form WO_3 is completely dissolved within a few hours in a boiling 10% NaOH solution.
- **Mechanism**: OH^- attacks the W-O bond, destroys the octahedral structure, and generates WO_4^{2-} ions, and the solubility increases with the increase of alkali concentration and temperature.

Solubility of tungsten in organic solvents

- **Solubility**: almost insoluble in common organic solvents such as ethanol and acetone.
- **Reason**: Organic solvents lack strong coordination ability and cannot dissociate WO_3 lattice.

Factors influencing the solubility of yellow tungsten trioxide

- **Crystal form**: The monoclinic crystal form has the lowest solubility due to the compact structure, and the hexagonal crystal form is slightly soluble in the base due to the pore structure.
- **Particle size**: Nano-xachetamite (e.g., 10-100 nm) has slightly higher solubility than microns due to its high specific surface area.
- **Temperature**: High temperatures accelerate dissolution, especially under alkaline conditions.
- **Oxygen vacancies**: such as $W_{18}O_{49}$, which dissolves more quickly in the base due to increased defects.

Method for measuring the solubility of tungsten

- **Gravimetric method**: Weigh the mass of solids before and after dissolution.
- **Spectrometry**: Determination of tungsten content in solution (e.g., ICP-MS).

5.5 Catalytic properties of yellow tungsten trioxide

The catalytic properties of Yellow tungsten trioxide include photocatalytic, electrocatalytic and thermocatalytic capabilities, which are the core properties of tungsten yellow as a functional material, which are closely related to crystal structure, surface properties, specific surface area and electronic state. These properties make it widely used in the fields of photolysis of water to hydrogen production (hydrogen production rate > 1 mmol/h·g), pollutant degradation (efficiency > 90%), fuel cells (overpotential < 500 mV) and exhaust gas purification (conversion rate >90%). The catalytic activity of yellow tungsten trioxide is due to its n-type semiconductor properties, surface active sites and defect states, and the catalytic efficiency can be significantly improved (> 50% by optimizing the crystal form, morphology and doping. The following is a popular but professional analysis of photocatalytic, electrocatalytic, and thermocatalytic properties and their mechanisms, morphological influences, conditional effects, and application examples in the form of paragraphs, so as to provide comprehensive guidance for their catalytic applications.

The photocatalytic performance of yellow tungsten trioxide is based on its semiconducting properties, which drive redox reactions by photoexcited electron-hole pairs. The monoclinic crystal form ($P2_1/n$) has a bandgap of 2.6–2.8 eV, absorbs only ultraviolet light (<450 nm), and has moderate photocatalytic activity, such as 50–70% efficiency for decomposition dyes (e.g., rhodamine B). Due to the pore structure and high specific surface area (10–30 m²/g), the hexagonal crystal form (P6/mmm) improves the photon utilization rate (scattering > increase by 20%) and adsorption capacity (adsorption rate >80%), and the photocatalytic efficiency reaches 80–90%, which is suitable for photolysis of aquatic H_2 (hydrogen production rate >1 mmol/h·g). The band gap of the oxygen vacancy structure (e.g., $W_{20}O_{58}$) is reduced to 2.2–2.5 eV, the absorption is extended to the visible region (500–600 nm), and the visible light catalytic efficiency is 70–85%, which is excellent in the degradation of organic matter (degradation rate >90%). Nanostructures (e.g., nanosheets, particle size 20–200 nm) further improve the photocatalytic efficiency (>30%) due to the high specific surface area (30–60 m²/g) and short carrier diffusion path (<10 nm). The photocatalytic mechanism involves the transition of photoexcited electrons from the O2p valence band to the W 5d conduction band, the generation of electron-hole pairs, and the generation of H_2O by hole oxidation. OH, electron reduction O_2 generation · O_2^-, driving reactions such as $H_2O + h^+ \rightarrow \cdot OH + H^+$。

The electrocatalytic performance of yellow tungsten trioxide is mainly reflected in oxygen evolution reaction (OER) and hydrogen evolution reaction (HER), which depend on conductivity and surface active sites. The monoclinic WO_3 has limited electrocatalytic activity due to low conductivity (10^{-7} S/cm) (OER overpotential > 700 mV). Orthogonal (Pnma) and tetragonal (P4/nmm) conductivity is slightly higher (10^{-6}–10^{-5} S/cm), but still limited. Oxygen vacancy structures (e.g., $W_{18}O_4$°F) have significantly increased electrocatalytic activity (OER overpotential ≈500 mV) due to high conductivity (10^{-1}–10^2 S/cm) and defect states (>10^{18} cm^{-3}). Due to the high specific surface area (30–60 m^2/g) and short charge transport path (<10 nm), nanostructures (e.g., nanotubes) have an OER overpotential of about 500 mV and a HER Tafel slope of 100–150 mV/dec in acidic electrolytes (e.g., 0.5 M H_2SO_4). The electrocatalytic mechanism is based on the W^{6+}/W^{5+} site to promote charge transfer, the OER process is $2H_2O \rightarrow O_2 + 4H^+ + 4e^-$, and the oxygen vacancy enhances OH^- adsorption (adsorption energy is reduced >by 20%). Nano WO_3 performs well in fuel cells (current density > 10 mA/cm^2) and can be further reduced by doping Pt (0.1–1 wt%) (> 10%).

The thermocatalytic properties of yellow tungsten trioxide are outstanding in high-temperature redox reactions, such as CO oxidation and NO_x reduction. The orthorhombic form is highly efficient at 300–600 °C for CO oxidation and NO_x reduction (conversion rate > 90%) due to its stable structure (temperature resistance <740 °C) and moderate specific surface area (5–10 m^2/g). The oxygen vacancy structure (e.g., $W_{18}O_4$°F) enhances gas adsorption (adsorption rate >80%) due to defect sites (>10^{17} cm^{-3}), and catalyzes the conversion rate of CO oxidation at 300°C >90%. The hexagonal crystal form promotes gas diffusion due to the pore structure (pore size > 1 nm), and the efficiency in NO_x reduction is more than 85%. The thermocatalytic mechanism involves the adsorption of reactants (e.g., CO) by oxygen vacancies, the participation of lattice oxygen: $CO + O^{2-} \rightarrow CO_2 + e^-$, and the defect site reduces the activation energy (> 30%). Measurements were performed using fixed-bed reactor test conversion (±1% accuracy) and in-situ infrared spectroscopy (resolution ±1 cm^{-1}) for adsorbed species, with temperature (±1°C) and gas flow rate (±0.1 mL/min) controlled.

The morphology has a significant effect on the compressive strength. Due to the high specific surface area (30–60 m^2/g) and abundant surface sites (>10^{17} cm^{-3}), nanostructures (e.g., nanotubes, nanosheets, particle size 20–200 nm) increase the photocatalytic efficiency by 30%, reduce the electrocatalytic overpotential by 20%, and increase the thermocatalytic conversion rate by 50%, far exceeding the bulk structure. Microparticles (1–10 μm) have low activity due to their low specific surface area (2–10 m^2/g), but they have good stability at high temperatures (temperature resistance > 1000°C), making them suitable for thermal catalysis. The pore structure of the hexagonal crystal form enhances gas diffusion and photon capture (20% increase> further improving the catalytic performance. Optimizing the morphology (e.g., nanotubes) can significantly increase the catalytic activity (> 50%).

The reaction conditions are key to the influence of compressive strength. High temperatures (300–600°C) increase the efficiency of thermocatalysis (conversion > 50%), but excessive temperatures (>800°C) may cause crystal form transitions (hexagonal → monoclinics) and reduced activity (> 20%). Photocatalysis requires controlling light source intensity (>10 mW/cm²) and pH (6–8), while electrocatalysis requires optimizing electrolyte (0.5–1 M) and voltage (1–3 V). Doped Pt or Pd (0.1–1 wt%) enhances activity through catalytic effects, such as a 30% increase in CO oxidative conversion >rate of Pt doped WO_3. Humidity (>50%) may inhibit catalytic efficiency (> 20%), which needs to be improved by hydrophobic modification. Optimizing the conditions can improve the catalytic performance (efficiency > 30%).

The catalytic properties of tungsten have important applications in many fields. In terms of photocatalysis, hexagonal polymorphs and nano-WO_3 are used for hydrogen production by photolysis of water (hydrogen production rate >1 mmol/h·g) and pollutant degradation (degradation rate >90%), promoting new energy and environmental purification (market size > US$100 million/year). In terms of electrocatalysis, nano-WO_3 performs well in fuel cell OER and HER (overpotential ≈ 500 mV) and supports efficient energy conversion (efficiency > 80%). In terms of thermal catalysis, orthorhombic crystalline forms and oxygen vacancies WO_3 are used for exhaust gas purification, such as CO oxidation (conversion rate >90%) and NO_x reduction (efficiency >85%), contributing to industrial emission control (market growth > 10%/year). Catalytic performance can be further improved by composites (e.g., WO_3/TiO_2) and in-situ characterization (temporal resolution < 1 ms).

The catalytic properties of tungsten include photocatalysis (80–90% efficiency), electrocatalysis (overpotential ≈500 mV), and thermal catalysis (conversion >90%), which are regulated by crystal form, morphology, and defects. Hexagonal crystal forms and nanostructures exhibit excellent performance due to their high specific surface area (>30 m²/g) and defect states ($>10^{18}$ cm^{-3}), and the oxygen vacancy structure enhances the catalytic ability of visible light and low temperature. By optimizing temperature (200–600°C), doping (Pt, Pd), and morphology (nanotubes), catalytic efficiency can be increased by more than 50%. Future research should focus on composite materials and low-temperature operation (<100°C) to promote the wide application of yellow tungsten trioxide in the field of energy and environmental protection.

5.6 Specific surface area of tungsten

The specific surface area of yellow tungsten trioxide (WO_3, Yellow tungsten trioxide) is a key parameter of its physical properties, defined as the surface area per unit mass (unit: m²/g), which directly affects its adsorption capacity, photocatalytic performance (hydrogen production>1 mmol/h·g), electrochemical activity (specific capacitance>500 F/g) and gas sensitivity (sensitivity >100). The specific surface area is closely related to the crystal structure, morphology, particle size and preparation conditions of yellow tungsten trioxide, which is an important index to evaluate its application potential in catalysts (conversion > 90%), sensors (detection limit < 0.1 ppm) and energy storage materials (> 1000 cycles). Through accurate measurement methods and microscopic analysis, we can deeply understand the regulatory mechanism of specific surface area and its application value.

Yellow-tungsten with different crystal forms showed significant differences in specific surface area. Due to its compact three-dimensional network structure, the monoclinic crystal form (space group $P2_1/n$) has a relatively flat surface and a low specific surface area. The specific surface area of monoclinic crystalline blocks is typically 2–5 m²/g, and micron-sized particles (particle size 1–10 μm) rise slightly to 5–10 m²/g. The specific surface area of orthorhombic forms (Pnma) and tetragonal forms (P4/nmm) is 5–10 m²/g, which is slightly higher than that of monoclinic blocks, because their higher lattice symmetry makes the surface slightly rougher and increases the effective surface area. Due to its unique pore structure, the hexagonal crystal form (P6/mmm) exposes more surface surface in the internal pores, and the specific surface area is significantly increased to 10–30 m²/g. Oxygen vacancy structures (e.g., $W_{18}O_{49}$) further increase the specific surface area to 20–50 m²/g due to needle morphology and crack defects in the crystal lattice. Nanostructured tungsten (e.g., nanoparticles, nanoflowers, particle size 20–200 nm) exhibits excellent surface activity due to its high surface-to-volume ratio and specific surface area of 30–60 m²/g.

The effect of topography on compressive strength is particularly important. Due to its large grain size (>10 μm) and flat surface, the bulk yellow tungsten trioxide has a low specific surface area (2–5 m²/g) and is suitable for applications that require high mechanical strength (e.g. hard coatings, hardness > 600 MPa). Micron-sized particles (1–10 μm) slightly increase the specific surface area (5–10 m²/g) by reducing their size, making them suitable for partial catalytic scenarios. Nanostructures (e.g., nanowires, nanosheets, nanoflowers) have a significant increase in specific surface area due to size effects and high surface-to-volume ratios, e.g., nanoflower WO_3 can reach 50–60 m²/g. The internal pores of porous structures such as hexagonal crystalline forms or nanoflowers contribute additional surface area that makes them excellent in adsorption and catalytic applications (adsorption rate > 80%). For example, the removal rate of organic matter in photocatalytic degradation of WO_3 nanoflowers can reach >90%.

Preparation conditions and external factors significantly affect the specific surface area. The preparation method is key, with hydrothermal (180–200°C, 12–24 h) producing nanostructured WO_3 (particle size < 200 nm) having a high specific surface area (30–60 m²/g), while bulk WO_3 generated by high-temperature calcination (>800°C) has a low specific surface area (<5 m²/g) due to grain growth (>10 μm). Particle size is inversely proportional to specific surface area, with smaller sizes (e.g., 10 nm) increasing specific surface area (> 50%). High-temperature sintering (>800°C) reduces the specific surface area (> 30%) by promoting grain growth and pore closure, and the sintering temperature (<600°C) needs to be controlled to retain high surface area. In addition, doping (e.g., N, Ti) or surface modification can further optimize the surface roughness and increase the specific surface area (> 20%).

The measurement of specific surface area mainly relies on the BET (Brunauer-Emmett-Teller) method, which is calculated by N_2 adsorption-desorption isotherm (77 K) with high accuracy (±0.1 m²/g), which is the standard method for industrial and academic research. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM, resolution < 1 μm) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM, resolution < 0.1 nm) can be combined with image analysis to estimate particle size and surface area and provide topography support. The Langmuir method is based on a single-layer adsorption model and is used to validate BET results for low surface area samples (<10 m²/g). These methods need to be operated in a moisture-free (humidity < 10%) and clean environment to ensure data reliability (error <5%).

The mechanism of specific surface area is determined by the openness of the crystal structure and the size of the particles. The tight structure of the monoclinic crystal form limits the surface area growth (<10 m²/g) and is suitable for scenarios with high mechanical property requirements. The hexagonal pore openings expose the internal surface (10–30 m²/g), significantly improving adsorption and catalytic capacity. The size effect of nanostructures (particle size < 200 nm) greatly increases the specific surface area (30–60 m²/g) by increasing the surface atomic ratio (>20%) and grain boundary density. Cracks and needle-like morphology of oxygen-vacant structures (e.g., $W_{18}O_4$°F) further increase the surface area (20–50 m²/g) but may reduce mechanical stability.

In terms of applications, hexagonal polymorphs and nanostructures WO_3 (>30 m²/g) with high specific surface area are ideal for catalysts and sensors. For example, the hexagonal form WO_3 exhibits high efficiency (hydrogen production > 1 mmol/h·g) in photocatalytic hydrogen production, and the detection limit of NO_2 in gas sensors can reach <0.1 ppm (sensitivity >100). Oxygen vacancy structures (e.g., $W_{18}O_4$°F) are suitable for supported catalysts (>90% conversion) due to their high surface area (20–50 m²/g). Monoclinic blocks with a low specific surface area (2–5 m²/g) are more suitable for structural materials such as hard coatings (hardness > 600 MPa) or matrix materials (compressive strength > 800 MPa) due to their low surface activity requirements.

5.7 Loose density of tungsten

The bulk density of yellow tungsten trioxide (WO_3, Yellow tungsten trioxide) refers to the density of the powder in the natural packing state, measured in g/cm³, which reflects the packing efficiency and porosity of the particles. This parameter is closely related to the crystal structure, particle morphology, size and preparation conditions of yellow tungsten trioxide, which directly affects its application performance in powder metallurgy (density > 95%), catalyst support (conversion > 90%), energy storage materials (specific capacitance > 500 F/g) and other fields. The bulk density determines the transport efficiency of the powder (volume reduction > 20%), processing characteristics (flowability > 80%) and the properties of the final product (e.g. hardness > 600 MPa). Through precise measurements and microscopic analysis, the accumulation characteristics of tungsten can be optimized to meet specific needs.

There was a significant difference in the density of tungsten pine with different crystal forms. The monoclinic crystal form (space group $P2_1/n$) has a dense particle density and high bulk density due to the tight network structure formed by the WO_6 octahedron. Monoclinic microparticles (1–10 μm in size) have a bulk density of 1.5–2.5 g/cm³ and bulk powders (grain > 10 μm) can reach 2.0–3.0 g/cm³. The bulk density of 2.0–2.8 g/cm³ for orthorhombic and tetragonal (P4/nmm) is slightly lower than that of monoclinic forms, as high-temperature preparation (>800°C) may result in a slight increase in particle clearance (porosity >5%). The hexagonal crystal form (P6/mmm) reduces the density of the particles themselves due to their pore structure, and the porosity is higher when packed, and the bulk density is 1.2–2.0 g/cm³. Oxygen vacancy structures (e.g., $W_{18}O_4$°F) have a further reduction in packing efficiency due to needle morphology and lattice defects, and the bulk density is only 1.0–1.8 g/cm³. Nanostructured tungsten (e.g., nanoparticles, nanoflowers, particle size 20–200 nm) has a significant reduction in bulk density in the range of 0.5–1.5 g/cm³ due to high porosity and surface effects, making it suitable for lightweight applications.

Particle morphology has an important influence on the density of loose packing. Micron-sized particles (1–10 μm) are typically spherical or polyhedral in shape, tightly packed and have a high bulk density (1.5–3.0 g/cm³), making them suitable for powder metallurgy (e.g., tungsten powder preparation, density > 95%). Nanostructures (e.g., nanoparticles, nanowires, nanoflowers) have a significant decrease in bulk density (0.5–1.5 g/cm³) due to surface effects and increased inter-particle voids (porosity >30%). Porous structures (e.g., hexagonal nanoflowers) have the lowest bulk density (<1.5 g/cm³) due to the further reduction of packing efficiency due to internal pores, but their high specific surface area (>50 m²/g) makes them excellent in catalytic applications (hydrogen production > 1 mmol/h·g). For example, the adsorption rate of WO_3 nanoflowers in photocatalysts can reach >80% due to their low density and high surface area.

The preparation conditions significantly affected the bulk density. Calcination methods (e.g., thermal decomposition of ammonium paratungstate, 600–800 °C) produce micron particles with large grains, regular morphology, and high bulk density (2.0–3.0 g/cm³). The nanostructured WO_3 (particle size < 200 nm) generated by hydrothermal method (180–200°C, 12–24 h) has a low bulk density (0.5–1.5 g/cm³) due to its small particles and pores. Particle size is a key factor, and the smaller the size (e.g., 10 nm), the larger the interparticle void and the lower the bulk density (> 30%). Although high-temperature sintering (>800°C) increases grain density, it may lead to particle agglomeration and slightly reduce the bulk density (< 10%). Optimization of the preparation process (e.g., controlling the hydrothermal temperature <200°C) balances the density and surface area by 20% (> 20%).

The bulk density is measured mainly by the volumetric method, in which the yellow tungsten trioxide powder is naturally packed into a container of known volume, and the density is calculated after weighing ($\rho = m/V$, accuracy ± 0.01 g/cm³). The vibration method simulates the loosening state by means of slight vibrations (frequency< 10 Hz) to obtain a density value close to the actual accumulation. Combined with the true density (7.1–7.16 g/cm³), the porosity (porosity = 1 - bulk density/true density) can be estimated, which provides a basis for material design. Measurements should be performed in a dry environment (humidity < 10%) to avoid moisture (adsorption capacity <0.1 wt%) affecting the accumulation efficiency. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM, resolution <1 μm) aids in the analysis of particle topography and packing, ensuring data reliability (<5% error).

The mechanism of bulk density is determined by the physical accumulation between the particles and the intrinsic density of the crystal structure. The compactness and regular morphology of the monoclinic crystal form (e.g., spherical particles) make it highly efficient and loose (2.0–3.0 g/cm³). The pore structure of the hexagonal crystal form and the porosity of the nanostructure (porosity >30%) reduce the packing efficiency, resulting in a low bulk density (0.5–2.0 g/cm³). The needle-like morphology and irregular surface of oxygen vacancy structures (e.g., $W_{18}O_4$°F) further reduce the contact area between particles and reduce the density (1.0–1.8 g/cm³). The core of the nano effect lies in the increase of inter-particle voids (>20%) and the enhancement of surface effects, which significantly reduce the bulk density.

In terms of applications, the micron-sized monoclinic WO_3 (1.5–3.0 g/cm³) with high bulk density is suitable for powder metallurgy, such as tungsten powder and cemented carbide preparation (hardness > 90 HRA), due to its high packing efficiency and increased forming density (>95%). Moderate densities (2.0–2.8 g/cm³) in orthogonal and tetragonal crystalline forms are suitable for structural materials (e.g. wear-resistant coatings with a lifetime of > 2000 hours). The hexagonal crystalline form and nanostructured WO_3 (0.5–2.0 g/cm³) with low bulk density are ideal for lightweight catalyst supports, such as photocatalysts (quantum yield >5%) and gas sensors (sensitivity>100), which enhance surface activity due to their high specific surface area (>50 m²/g). The low density of the oxygen vacancy structure (1.0–1.8 g/cm³) is suitable for supported catalysts (>90% conversion).

5.8 Optical properties of yellow tungsten trioxide

The optical properties of yellow tungsten trioxide (WO_3, Yellow tungsten trioxide), including light absorption, refractive index, and color-changing properties, are key properties for its applications in photocatalysis, optoelectronics, and smart materials. These properties are closely related to the crystal structure, electronic structure and morphology of yellow tungsten trioxide, which determine its potential in the fields of photolysis of water (hydrogen production>1 mmol/h·g), pollutant degradation (efficiency > 90%), and smart glass (light transmittance change >70%). As an n-type semiconductor, the band gap of tungsten is in the range of 2.2–2.8 eV, which determines its light absorption range, which is mainly concentrated in the ultraviolet and near-visible regions (<500 nm). It has a refractive index of about 2.2–2.5 and varies with crystal form and wavelength, making it suitable for optical devices (refractive index deviation <5%). The color of tungsten varies from light yellow (monoclinic form WO_3) to blue or purple (oxygen vacancy structures such as $W_{18}O_{49}$) and is determined by lattice defects and electronic state. Tungsten with different crystal forms exhibits unique optical properties, which affect its application performance.

The effect of the crystal form on the compressive strength is significant. The monoclinic crystal form (space group $P2_1/n$) has a band gap of 2.6–2.8 eV, and the light absorption is limited to ultraviolet light and a small amount of blue light (<450 nm), and it is light yellow in color, which is suitable for ultraviolet photocatalysis (degradation rate 50–70%). The orthorhombic form (Pnma) and tetragonal form (P4/nmm) have a slightly narrower band gap of 2.4–2.6 eV, the absorption edge is red shifted to about 480 nm, and the color is yellowish-orange, which enhances the visible light response (> 10%). The hexagonal crystal form (P6/mmm) has a band gap of about 2.7 eV, and its pore structure enhances the light scattering and trapping efficiency, which contributes to photocatalysis (hydrogen production efficiency > 80%). The band gap of the oxygen vacancy structure (e.g., $W_{18}O_4°F$) is reduced to 2.2–2.5 eV, the absorption range is extended to the visible region (500–600 nm), and the color is deepened to blue-violet, which significantly improves the visible light catalytic activity (efficiency 70–85%).

5.8.1 Light absorption and photocatalytic properties of tungsten

The light absorption and photocatalytic properties of yellow tungsten trioxide are the core of its optical properties, which directly determine its application efficiency in photolysis of water, pollutant degradation and environmental purification. The monoclinic crystal form has an indirect band gap of

2.6–2.8 eV, which mainly absorbs ultraviolet light and a small amount of blue light (<450 nm), and has a high transmittance in the visible region and a light yellow appearance. Due to the wide band gap, the electron-hole separation efficiency is low, and the photocatalytic activity is moderate, making it suitable for UV photocatalysis, such as degrading dyes (50–70% efficiency). The orthogonal and tetragonal crystal forms have a narrow bandgap (2.4–2.6 eV), an extended absorption range of 480 nm, and a yellowish-orange color, which enhances the photocatalytic performance (efficiency > increased by 10%). The hexagonal crystal form has a bandgap of about 2.7 eV, and its pore structure and high specific surface area (10–30 m²/g) improve the adsorption capacity and photon utilization, resulting in a significant increase in photocatalytic efficiency, such as 80–90% in photolyzed aquatic H_2. Due to the presence of defect states, the band gap of the oxygen vacancy structure (e.g., $W_{20}O_{58}$) is reduced to 2.2–2.5 eV, the absorption red shift is shifted to the visible region (500–600 nm), and the photocatalytic activity is greatly increased under visible light (efficiency 70–85%). Due to the high specific surface area (>50 m²/g) and short carrier diffusion path, the photocatalytic efficiency of nanostructures (such as nanosheets and nanoflowers) is better than that of bulk bodies, and the degradation efficiency of organic pollutants can reach >90%.

The mechanism of light absorption arises from the transition of electrons from the O2p orbital (valence band) to the W 5d orbital (conduction band). Oxygen vacancies introduce defect energy levels, reduce transition energy, and extend the absorption range (redshift>50 nm). The pore structure of the hexagonal crystal form optimizes photon capture (scattering > increase by 20%), and the nanostructure shortens the carrier diffusion path (<10 nm) through size effect, and improves the electron-hole separation efficiency (> 30%). The photocatalytic performance was measured by UV-Vis spectroscopy (wavelength accuracy ± 1 nm) to determine the absorption edge, and the band gap (error < 0.1 eV) was calculated by the formula $Eg = 1240/\lambda$. Photocatalytic experiments evaluate performance by monitoring the degradation rate of contaminants (e.g., rhodamine B, degradation rate >90%) or H_2/O_2 yield (>1 mmol/h·g), with control of light source intensity (>10 mW/cm²) and reaction conditions (pH 6–8).

In terms of applications, monoclinic WO_3 is widely used in water treatment (50–70% degradation rate) and air purification (VOC removal rate >60%) due to its stable UV photocatalytic properties. Due to their high specific surface area and visible light response, hexagonal crystalline and oxygen vacancy structures are suitable for efficient photocatalysts, such as photolysis of water to hydrogen production (efficiency >80%) and organic degradation (efficiency > 90%). The high photocatalytic efficiency of nano-WO_3 is driving its application in environmental remediation (market size > USD 100 million/year) and new energy (growth rate > 10%/year). In the future, the visible light catalytic performance can be further improved by doping (e.g., N, Ti, response >30%) and compounding (e.g., WO_3/TiO_2, efficiency increased by >20%).

5.8.2 Photochromic properties of tungsten

The photochromic properties of tungsten flavour refer to its ability to change color reversibly under light exposure, which is the basis for its application in smart glass (energy saving > 20%), displays (response time < 1 second) and optical sensors (sensitivity > 100). The monoclinic form WO_3 changes from light yellow to blue-green ($HxWO_3$ or WxO_3) when irradiated with ultraviolet light (<400 nm), which is due to the partial reduction of W^{6+} to W^{5+} due to H^+ or electron injection. The orthogonal and tetragonal crystal forms have a slightly faster rate of discoloration and increase the ion diffusion efficiency (diffusion coefficient $>10^{-12}$ cm²/s) due to their high symmetry. Due to the accelerated H^+ embedding of the hexagonal crystal form, the hexagonal crystal form has excellent color-changing performance, and the color change time can be shortened to a few seconds due to the accelerated H^+ embedding of the pore structure. Oxygen vacancy structures (e.g., $W_{18}O_{49}$) have a darker initial color (blue-violet) and a faster photochromic response and a deeper blue, which is suitable for high-efficiency chromic devices. Nanostructures (e.g., nanofilms, 10–100 nm thick) have significantly improved discoloration efficiency (70% > light transmittance) due to short diffusion paths (<10 nm) and high surface area (>50 m²/g).

The mechanism of photochromism is based on the following reaction: $WO_3 + xh\nu \rightarrow W^{6+}O_3 + xH^+ + xe^- \rightarrow HxW^{5+}{}_xW^{6+}{}_{1-x}O_3$。 Photon excitation produces electron-hole pairs, and the holes react with surface H_2O to form H^+, and H^+ and electrons are embedded in the lattice, reducing W^{6+} to W^{5+}, forming color centers, resulting in color changes. The pore structure of the hexagonal crystal form (pore size > 1 nm) and the defect energy level of oxygen vacancies accelerate the transport of H^+ and electrons (> rate by 30%), and enhance the depth and speed of color change. The short diffusion path of the nanostructure further improves the discoloration efficiency (response time > 50%). Performance parameters include color change time (seconds to minutes for monoclinic forms, seconds for hexagonal forms and nanostructures < seconds), change in transmittance (>70%), and reversibility (1000 cycles for 1000 cycle>s with attenuation <5% when exposed to air or heat).

The photochromic performance was measured by recording the change of transmittance before and after illumination by transmittance test (UV-Vis spectrometer, accuracy ± 0.1%), and the color transition was quantified by combining with the CIE color coordinate system (error <0.01). Spectroscopic analysis monitors changes in absorption peaks (e.g., 600–800 nm absorption peaks at W^{5+}) to reveal the mechanism of discoloration. The light source intensity (>10 mW/cm²) and ambient humidity (<50%) were controlled to ensure data reliability (error < 5%). SEM (resolution < 1 μm) and XPS (energy resolution<0.1 eV) aid in the analysis of surface topography and chemical state changes.

In terms of applications, the monoclinic WO_3 is suitable for basic photochromic devices, such as optical recording materials (lifetime > 1000 times), due to its stable photochromic properties. Hexagonal crystalline and nanostructured WO_3 are suitable for high-efficiency smart windows (light transmittance change > 70%, energy saving >20%) and displays (response time <1 second) due to fast response and deep color change effect. The rapidly changing color of the oxygen-vacancy structure makes it a potential in dynamic optics (market size >$50 million/year). By optimizing the polymorphic form (hexagonal), nano (thickness < 100 nm) and composite (e.g., WO_3/graphene, efficiency > 20%), the photochromic properties can be further improved, and the wide application of yellow tungsten trioxide in the field of smart materials (growth rate > 10%/year).

5.9 Electrical properties of yellow tungsten trioxide

The electrical properties of yellow tungsten trioxide (WO_3) are the core properties of yellow tungsten trioxide (WO_3) as a functional material, which are closely related to crystal structure, electronic structure and external conditions. As a typical n-type semiconductor, the electrical properties of yellow tungsten trioxide include band gap, conductivity and carrier mobility, which determine its wide application in electrochromic devices (light transmittance change >70%), gas sensors (sensitivity > 100) and energy storage materials (specific capacitance > 500 F/g).

5.9.1 Semiconducting properties of tungsten yellow

The semiconductor properties of tungsten are due to its unique electronic structure, which makes it exhibit excellent properties in terms of conductivity, carrier mobility and band gap. Tungsten yellow provides free electrons for n-type semiconductors, oxygen vacancies or other defects as donor energy levels, significantly affecting its conductivity. With a bandgap range of 2.2–2.8 eV, it is a wide bandgap semiconductor suitable for optoelectronic and electrochemical applications. Pure WO_3 has a low conductivity of 10^{-7}–10^{-6} S/cm at room temperature, limiting its application in highly conductive scenarios. However, the conductivity of xanthosten (e.g., $W_{18}O_4$°F) in oxygen vacancy structures can be significantly increased to 10^{-1}–10^{2} S/cm, making it an excellent performer in conductive electrodes and sensors (> 50% more sensitivity).

The effect of the crystal form on the compressive strength is significant. The monoclinic crystal form (space group $P2_1/n$) has an indirect band gap of 2.6–2.8 eV, a conductivity of about 10^{-7} S/cm, and a low electron mobility (0.1–1 cm²/V·s). This is because the inclined structure of the WO_6 octahedron increases electron scattering, limiting the carrier transport efficiency and is suitable for insulating or low conductivity applications (e.g., insulating coatings, resistance >10^{6} Ω·). cm）。 The orthorhombic form (Pnma) and tetragonal form (P4/nmm) have a slightly narrower band gap (2.4–2.6 eV), a conductivity of 10^{-6}–10^{-5} S/cm, and a mobility increase of 1–10 cm²/V·s. The high symmetry reduces electron scattering and optimizes the electron transport path, making it suitable for moderately conductive scenarios (e.g., electrode materials with a 10-fold increase in conductivity >). The hexagonal crystal form (P6/mmm) has a bandgap of about 2.7 eV, a conductivity of 10^{-6}–10^{-4} S/cm, and its pore structure promotes one-dimensional electron transport, reducing the carrier recombination rate (recombination rate <5%), and is suitable for sensors (response time < 10 seconds). Oxygen vacancy structures (e.g., $W_{18}O_{49}$) have a band gap of 2.2–2.5 eV, conductivity of up to 10^{-1}–10^{2} S/cm, and mobility of 10–50 cm²/V·s. The oxygen vacancy introduces a shallow donor energy level, which greatly increases the free electron concentration (>10^{18} cm^{-3}) and significantly enhances the conductivity, which is suitable for high-performance conductive electrodes (conductivity > 1000 times more).

The influence of topography on electrical properties is equally important. Nanostructured WO_3 (e.g., nanowires, nanosheets, particle size 20–200 nm) is superior to bulk materials due to short transmission paths (<10 nm) and high surface defect concentrations (>10^{17} cm^{-3}). For example, nanowire WO_3 exhibits high sensitivity (>100) in gas sensors. The conductivity of bulk WO_3 is close to the theoretical value (10^{-7}–10^{-6} S/cm), but the carriers are limited by grain boundary scattering (mobility <1 cm²/V·s), which is suitable for scenarios with low conductivity requirements (e.g., matrix materials). The surface effects and defect states of nanostructures significantly improve the electrical performance (conductivity > 100-fold), driving their use in high-performance devices.

The influence of external conditions on compressive strength cannot be ignored. The effect of temperature on conductivity conforms to the Arrhenius equation ($\sigma = \sigma_0 e^{-}Ea/kT$), the activation energy (Ea) is about 0.3–0.5 eV, and the conductivity increases exponentially with increasing temperature. For example, the conductivity of monoclinic WO_3 can be increased to 10^{-4} S/cm at 300°C. Atmosphere conditions are also crucial, with reducing atmospheres (e.g., H_2, 5% concentration) increasing conductivity by increasing oxygen vacancies (> a factor of 10), while oxidizing atmospheres (e.g., O_2, 21% concentration) reducing conductance by reducing defects (> 50%). Doping (e.g., Nb^{5+}, Ti^{4+}, doping 0.1–1 at%) can further improve n-type conductivity, and increase the conductivity to 10^{-3}–10^{-11} S/cm by increasing the free electron concentration (>10^{19} cm^{-3}) by introducing an additional donor energy level. These conditions provide a flexible means to optimize the electrical properties of yellow tungsten trioxide (performance > 30%).

A variety of methods are used to measure semiconductor properties. The four-probe method is used to determine conductivity (accuracy ± 0.1 μS/cm) by applying a constant current and measuring the voltage drop to ensure that the results are not affected by the contact resistance. Hall effect measurements are performed to determine the carrier type (n-type) and mobility (accuracy ±0.1 $cm^2/V\cdot s$) at a magnetic field strength (e.g., 0.5 T). The band gap ($Eg = 1240/\lambda$, error < 0.1 eV) was indirectly determined by absorption edge analysis, and the accuracy was improved by Tauc mapping. The test should be performed in a controlled environment (temperature 25±1°C, humidity <50%) to ensure data reliability (error <5%). Scanning electron microscopy (SEM, resolution < 1 μm) and X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS, energy resolution< 0.1 eV) were used to assist in the analysis of topography and defect states.

In terms of applications, the low conductivity (10^{-7} S/cm) of the monoclinic WO_3 is suitable for insulating applications such as dielectric layers (breakdown voltage> 1 MV/cm) or insulating coatings (resistance> 10^6 Ω·). cm）。 Moderate conductivity (10^{-6}–10^{-5} S/cm) of orthogonal and tetragonal forms is suitable for electrode materials such as energy storage electrodes (specific capacitance >500 F/g). The hexagonal crystal form is suitable for gas sensors (NO_2 detection limit < 0.1 ppm) due to its pore structure and high conductivity (10^{-6}–10^{-4} S/cm). The high conductivity of the oxygen vacancy structure (10^{-1}–10^{2} S/cm) makes it excellent in conductive electrodes (e.g., field-effect transistors with a mobility of >10 $cm^2/V\cdot s$) and high-efficiency sensors (sensitivity >100). The high conductivity of nanoWO_3 drives its high-performance applications in energy storage (> 1000 cycles) and sensing (market size > $100 million/year).

5.9.2 Electrochromic properties of tungsten

The electrochromic properties of tungsten yellow change from light yellow (or transparent) to blue, dark blue or even purple under the action of an electric field, and the original color can be restored after the electric field is removed. The monoclinic crystal form (space group $P2_1/n$) WO_3 changes from light yellow to blue ($MxWO_3$ is formed, M is H^+, Li^+, etc.) when an electric field (1–3 V) is applied, with a response time of seconds to minutes, and a slower ion diffusion (diffusion coefficient <10^{-13} cm^2/s) due to its low symmetry. The orthogonal crystal form (Pnma) and the tetragonal crystal form (P4/nmm) have similar color changes, but the response time is reduced to a few seconds, thanks to the high symmetry that accelerates ion transport (diffusion coefficient increases by $> 20\%$). The hexagonal crystal form (P6/mmm) exhibited excellent color-changing properties, the color changed from light yellow to dark blue, the color change depth was large (the transmittance was reduced to $<20\%$), the response time was 1–5 seconds, and its pore structure (pore size > 1 nm) promoted the ion intercalation efficiency (the intercalation rate was $>80\%$). Oxygen vacancy structures (e.g., $W_{18}O_{49}$) are darker blue due to the initial color (blue-purple) and become darker blue under the action of the electric field, with an extremely fast response time (<1 second) and enhanced conductivity (conductivity $>10^{-1}$ S/cm) due to the defect state. Nanostructures (e.g., nanofilms, nanosheets, 10–100 nm thickness) have high color change efficiency due to short diffusion paths (<10 nm) and high specific surface area (>50 m²/g), with a response time of as little as <1 seconds and a 70–80% change in light transmittance.

The mechanism of electrochromism is based on the following reversible reaction: $WO_3 + xM^+ + xe^- \leftrightarrow M_xWO_3$ (M is H^+, Li^+, Na^+). The specific processes include: 1) an applied electric field driving M^+ and electron injection into the WO_3 lattice; 2) W^{6+} is reduced to W^{5+} to form a color center, which enhances the absorption of visible light at 600–800 nm, resulting in a blue color change; 3) The reverse electric field causes the M^+ and electrons to come out and return to their original color. The pore structure of the hexagonal crystal form and the defect states of the oxygen vacancy accelerate the transport of M^+ and electrons (the rate increases by $>30\%$), and the speed and depth of the discoloration are increased. The n-type semiconductor properties of yellow tungsten trioxide provide an electron transport channel (mobility > 1 cm²/V·s), while the shallow donor energy level ($>10^{18}$ cm^{-3}) introduced by oxygen vacancies enhances conductivity (conductivity $>$ 100-fold), further optimizing the color-changing properties. The short diffusion path and surface defects of the nanostructure (concentration $>10^{17}$ cm^{-3}) significantly increase the ion intercalation efficiency ($> 50\%$).

Key parameters for electrochromic performance include color change efficiency (CE), cycling stability, and transmittance variation. The color-changing efficiency is defined as the ratio of the change in optical density to the charge density ($CE = \Delta OD/Q$), with monoclinic forms of about 30–50 cm²/C and hexagonal forms and nanostructures up to 80–100 cm²/C, indicating higher charge utilization. In terms of cycling stability, monoclinic crystalline forms can withstand >1000 cycles (attenuation $<5\%$), and nanostructures can withstand 5000 cycles (attenuation $<3\%$) due to high structural stability. The change in transmittance is reduced from the initial 70–80% (transparent) to 10–20% (blue) to meet the needs of smart windows (transmittance change $>70\%$). These parameters can be further improved by optimizing the crystal form and morphology ($CE > 20\%$).

The influence of external conditions on compressive strength is significant. The type of electrolyte affects the color-changing properties, and H^+-based electrolytes (e.g., H_2SO_4, 0.1 M) are affected by high ion mobility ($>10^{-3}$ cm²/V·). s) rapid discoloration (response time < 1 second), but poor long-term stability (500 cycles<); Li^+-based electrolytes (e.g., $LiClO_4$, 1 M) are slow to change color (response time 1–5 seconds) but have high durability (> 5000 cycles). The voltage range is 1–3 V, and overvoltage (>3 V) can accelerate discoloration (time $> 50\%$), but may cause lattice damage (stability reduced >by 10%).

Temperature increases (e.g., 60°C) reduce response time by increasing the ion diffusion rate (> 30%), but high temperatures (>100°C) may trigger electrolyte decomposition and the operating temperature (<80°C) needs to be controlled. Optimizing these conditions can significantly improve color change performance (20% increase in efficiency> efficiency).

Electrochromic properties are measured in a variety of ways. The transmittance test was performed by recording the change of transmittance before and after the application of voltage by UV-Vis spectrometer (wavelength accuracy ± 1 nm), and the depth of discoloration was quantified (error < 0.1%). Cyclic voltammetry (CV) was used to determine the charge injection/ejection capacity (accuracy ±0.1 mC/cm²), reflecting the ion intercalation efficiency. Spectroscopic analysis monitors changes in absorption peaks (e.g., W^{5+}'s 650 nm peak) to reveal the mechanism of color change. The tests were performed in a controlled environment (humidity < 50%, temperature 25±1°C), combined with SEM (resolution < 1 μm) and XPS (energy resolution <0.1 eV) to analyze the topography and chemical state to ensure data reliability (error <5%).

In terms of application, the monoclinic WO_3 is suitable for basic electrochromic devices such as optical switches (lifetime > 1000 cycles) due to its stable electrochromic properties. Hexagonal crystalline and nanostructured WO_3 are suitable for high-efficiency smart windows (energy saving > 20%, light transmittance change > 70%) and displays (response time < 1 second) due to their fast response time (< 1 second) and high color change efficiency (80–100 cm²/C). The rapidly changing color of the oxygen-vacancy structure makes it a potential in dynamic optics (market size >$50 million/year). By optimizing the polymorphic form (hexagonal), nano (thickness < 100 nm) and composite (e.g., WO_3/graphene, with a 20% >increase in efficiency), electrochromic properties can be further improved and the widespread use of yellow tungsten trioxide in the field of smart materials (market growth > 10%/year).

5.10 Thermal properties of yellow tungsten trioxide

The thermal stability of yellow tungsten trioxide (WO_3, Yellow tungsten trioxide) refers to its ability to maintain crystal structure and chemical composition at high temperatures, which is an important performance of yellow tungsten trioxide as a functional material, which is closely related to crystal form, oxygen content, morphology and external conditions. The thermal stability of tungsten determines its suitability in the fields of high-temperature ceramics (temperature resistance > 1000°C), catalysts (conversion > 90%), electrochromic devices (> 1000 cycles) and sensors (stability > 50 hours). The thermal stability range, phase transition behavior, and decomposition characteristics of different crystal forms are different, and thermal analysis and in-situ characterization can provide insight into their thermal behavior and provide guidance for high-temperature applications.

Monoclinic tungsten (space group $P2_1/n$) is the most common structure of WO_3 and exhibits excellent thermal stability. In the range of room temperature to 330°C, the monoclinic crystal form is extremely stable, with a melting point of up to 1473°C. Above 330°C, the monoclinic crystal form gradually changes to orthorhombic crystal form (Pnma), and above 740°C, it further changes to tetragonal crystal form (P4/nmm), but the chemical composition (WO_3) remains unchanged. For example, the monoclinic

WO_3 is calcined in air at 500 °C for several hours, leaving the crystal structure and chemistry intact (mass loss < 0.1%), making it suitable for high-temperature ceramics (hardness > 600 MPa). The orthorhombic form is stable at 330–740°C and the tetragonal form is stable at 740–1473°C, but these high-temperature phases are metastable and revert to monoclinic forms when cooled below 330°C. For example, the orthorhombic form WO_3 is stable in an oxidation atmosphere at 600°C and is suitable for catalyst support in high-temperature oxidation environments (conversion > 90%). The hexagonal crystal form (P6/mmm) is stable at 200–600°C, and the pore structure is easy to collapse above 600°C and transform into monoclinic crystal form. For example, the hexagonal form WO_3 is stable in hydrothermal products at 400 °C, but completely converts to monoclinic after calcination at 800 °C, limiting its high-temperature applications. Oxygen vacancy structures (e.g., $W_{20}O_{58}$, $W_{18}O_4$°F) have low thermal stability and are stable at 300–500°C, above which they are prone to oxidation to WO_3 or decomposition into WO_2 or metal W in a reducing atmosphere. For example, $W_{20}O_{58}$ is converted to WO_2 in a 400°C H_2 atmosphere, which requires tight control of the atmosphere to maintain performance.

The influence of external conditions on compressive strength is significant. Atmosphere is a key factor, in an oxidizing atmosphere (e.g., O_2, 21% concentration), WO_3 can be stabilized to the melting point (1473°C), and the oxygen vacancy structure (e.g., $W_{18}O_{49}$) will be oxidized to WO_3 (oxidation rate >95%), improving thermal stability. Under the reduction atmosphere (such as H_2, 5% concentration), the stability of WO_3 decreases, the oxygen loss begins at 400–600°C, and the metal W is completely reduced to metal W (reduction rate >90%) at 1000–1200°C, and the high-temperature reduction environment should be avoided. The temperature rise and fall rate affects the phase transformation behavior, and the rapid temperature rise (>10°C/min) may delay the phase transition or decomposition (delay >50°C) due to the kinetic hysteresis, and the heating rate (<5°C/min) needs to be optimized. The influence of morphology on compressive strength cannot be ignored, and nanostructures (such as nanoparticles, particle size 20–200 nm) are prone to grain growth or phase transformation (grain > 50%) at lower temperatures (e.g., 500°C) due to their high surface energy (>10%) and surface defects ($>10^{17}$ cm^{-3}) and lower thermal stability than bulk bodies. For example, nano-WO_3 may turn to monoclinic at 600°C, while bulk WO_3 can stabilize to higher temperatures (>1000°C).

A variety of complementary methods are used to measure thermal stability. Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) determines the decomposition temperature by monitoring the mass change (accuracy ±0.01 mg) and is suitable for evaluating oxidation or reduction reactions (mass loss <0.1%). Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) detects phase change endothermic/exothermic peaks (with an accuracy of ±0.1 J/g) and can accurately identify the crystal transition temperature (e.g., 330°C monoclinic to orthogonal transition). High-temperature X-ray diffraction (XRD, resolution ± 0.01°) tracks the crystal form transition in real time and provides data on lattice parameter changes (error < 0.1%). These methods are performed under controlled atmosphere (O_2 or N_2 flow, < 1 ppm impurities) and temperature (accuracy ±1°C), combined with SEM (resolution <1 μm) to analyze topography changes to ensure data reliability (error <5%).

The mechanism of thermal stability stems from the coangular connection of WO_6 octahedron and the intrinsic stability of the crystal lattice. The high bond energy of the W-O bond (about 600–700 kJ/mol) provides structural integrity at high temperatures, making WO_3 resistant to 1473°C in an oxidizing atmosphere. Oxygen-saturated WO_3 (e.g., monoclinic crystal form) exhibits excellent thermal stability due to high bond density (>95%), while oxygen-vacant structures (e.g., $W_{18}O_{49}$) are susceptible to decomposition or oxidation due to reduced bond density (<90%). The phase transition is driven by thermal vibrations, and the octahedral rearrangement results in a crystalline transition (e.g., 330°C monoclinic - orthogonal), but does not change the chemical composition. The surface effect of nanostructures reduces the lattice stability (the phase transition temperature drops >50°C), and the thermal >stability needs to be improved by compounding (e.g., WO_3/graphene) by 20%.

5.10.2 Thermal expansion properties of tungsten

The thermal expansion properties of yellow tungsten trioxide are characterized by the coefficient of thermal expansion (CTE, unit: K^{-1}), which reflects the change in volume or length caused by increasing temperature. This performance is closely related to the crystal structure, the bonding characteristics of W-O bonds, morphology and external conditions, and directly affects the application of yellow tungsten trioxide in the fields of high-temperature ceramics (temperature resistance >> 1000°C), electrochromic devices (1000 cycles), sensors (stability > 50 hours) and precision optics (deformation < 0.1%). The differences in thermal expansion properties are due to the symmetry of the crystal form, pore structure, and defect states, and its high temperature stability (deformation reduction > 20%) and application performance can be optimized through accurate measurement and mechanism analysis.

The coefficient of thermal expansion of tungsten of different crystal forms showed significant differences. The linear CTE of the monoclinic crystal form (space group $P2_1/n$) is $8–12 \times 10^{-6}\ K^{-1}$ at 20–300°C, with anisotropic expansion due to the tilt of the WO_6 octahedral with an anisotropic expansion of about $10 \times 10^{-6}\ K^{-1}$ in the a-axis, $9 \times 10^{-6}\ K^{-1}$ in the b-axis, and $12 \times 10^{-6}\ K^{-1}$ in the c-axis. This anisotropy makes it necessary to consider directional thermal stress (stress < 50 MPa) in precision devices. The orthogonal crystal form (Pnma) has a CTE of $7–10 \times 10^{-6}\ K^{-1}$ at 330–740°C and a tetragonal crystal form (P4/nmm) of $6–9 \times 10^{-6}\ K^{-1}$ at 740–1473°C, with high symmetry for more uniform expansion and slightly larger c-axis expansion (approx. $10 \times 10^{-6}\ K^{-1}$), making it suitable for high-temperature stable applications (e.g., electrode materials, 1000 cycle>s). The hexagonal crystal form (P6/mmm) has a higher CTE of $10–14 \times 10^{-6}\ K^{-1}$, which reduces the density of the pore structure and amplifies the thermal vibration effect, but it is prone to pore collapse at high temperature (>600°C), which limits its application. The CTE of oxygen vacancy structures (e.g., $W_{18}O_{49}$) can reach $15 \times 10^{-6}\ K^{-1}$, and the defects reduce the density of W-O bonds, weaken the rigidity of the lattice, and lead to significant expansion, so it is necessary to avoid the scene of high thermal stress (stress > 100 MPa).

The effect of the crystal form on the compressive strength is due to the structural properties. The low symmetry of the monoclinic form results in anisotropic expansion, and the high stiffness of the W-O bond (bond energy 600–700 kJ/mol) limits the expansion amplitude ($<12 \times 10^{-6}\ K^{-1}$). The high symmetry of orthogonal and tetragonal crystal forms disperses the thermal vibration energy, has a low CTE ($6–10 \times 10^{-6}\ K^{-1}$), and expands uniformly, making it suitable for precision high-temperature devices (deformation < 0.1%). The hexagonal pore structure reduces the lattice density (about 6.5–7 g/cm^3), and the expansion coefficient increases by thermal vibration (>10 × 10^{-6} K^{-1}), but the pore collapse at high temperature may cause structural failure. Oxygen vacant structures (e.g., purple tungsten oxide) have reduced W-O bond density (<90%) due to defects, significant thermal expansion (15 × 10^{-6} K^{-1}), and require tightly controlled conditions (temperature<500°C) in high-temperature applications.

The influence of external conditions on compressive strength cannot be ignored. Temperature range is critical, and near the point of phase transition (eg, 330°C monoclinic → orthogonal, 740°C orthogonal →quad), CTE may be abrupt (increase or decrease by >20%), and volume changes (about 0.5–1%) may occur due to the crystalline transition. The morphology has a significant effect on the compressive strength, and the CTE of nanostructures (e.g., nanoparticles, particle size 20–200 nm) is 10–15% higher than that of bulk bodies due to surface effects and high surface energy (>10%), e.g., nano-WO_3 CTE can reach 13–16 × 10^{-6} K^{-1}. Impurities or doping (e.g., Na^+, doping 0.1–1 at%) affect the swelling behavior by changing the strength of the W-O bond (bond energy reduced by >5%), and the impurity content (<50 ppm) needs to be controlled. Optimizing these conditions can effectively regulate the thermal expansion performance (CTE reduction > 10%).

The coefficient of thermal expansion is measured in a variety of ways. High-temperature X-ray diffraction (XRD, resolution ±0.01°) calculates CTE($\alpha = (1/L_0)(\Delta L/\Delta T)$ with an accuracy of ±0.1 × 10^{-6} by measuring lattice parameters as a function of temperature K^{-1}), suitable for anisotropic expansion. Thermomechanical analysis (TMA) directly measures sample length changes (± 0.1 μm accuracy) for bulk and thin films (thickness > 1 μm). The dilatometer records the volume expansion of the block (with an accuracy of ±0.01%) and is suitable for large samples (> 10 mm). Tests were performed in a controlled atmosphere (N_2 or O_2, impurities <1 ppm) and temperature (accuracy ±1°C), combined with SEM (resolution < 1 μm) to analyze topography changes to ensure data reliability (error <5%).

The mechanism of thermal expansion stems from the thermal vibration of the W-O bond and the change of lattice structure. The increase in temperature slightly increases the length of the W-O bond (about 0.001–0.002 Å/100°C), and the increased thermal vibration causes the lattice to expand. Highly symmetrical crystal forms (e.g., orthogonal, tetragonal) reduce CTE (<10 × 10^{-6} K^{-1}) by uniformly distributing vibrational energy, while pore structures (hexagonal) and oxygen vacancies amplify vibrational effects and increase CTE (>10 × 10^{-6} K^{-1}). Phase transitions (eg, monoclinic → orthogonal) induce octahedral rearrangements with a slight increase in volume (0.5–1%), resulting in a transient anomaly (> 20% increase in CTE). The surface effect of nanostructures slightly increases CTE by increasing grain boundary vibration (>10%), and thermal expansion performance needs to be optimized by compounding (e.g., WO_3/SiO_2) (CTE > reduced by 15%).

5.11 Gas sensitivity of yellow tungsten trioxide

The gas sensitivity of tungsten yellow (WO_3, Yellow tungsten trioxide) refers to its ability to undergo reversible changes in electrical or optical properties in a specific gas environment, making it a key material in the field of gas sensors. Gas sensitivity is closely related to crystal structure, surface properties, specific surface area and electronic state, which determines the application potential of yellow tungsten trioxide in environmental monitoring (NO_2 detection limit <0.1 ppm), industrial safety (H_2 detection sensitivity >100) and health diagnosis (NH_3 detection limit <1 ppm). As an n-type semiconductor, yellow tungsten trioxide exhibits different response characteristics to oxidizing gases (e.g., NO_2, O_3) and reducing gases (e.g., H_2, CO) through surface gas adsorption.

The gas sensing properties of yellow tungsten trioxide vary depending on the crystal form, morphology and defect states. The monoclinic crystal form (space group $P2_1/n$) exhibits high sensitivity to oxidizing gases (e.g., NO_2, O_3), because the conductivity is significantly reduced (>50%) after adsorption of oxidizing gases on the surface, but the response to reducing gases (e.g., H_2, CO) is weak (sensitivity <10). The hexagonal crystal form (P6/mmm) exhibits high sensitivity ($S \approx 50–200$) to a variety of gases (e.g., NO_2, NH_3, H_2S) due to its pore structure and high specific surface area (10–30 m^2/g), and the pore enhances the diffusion and adsorption of gas molecules (adsorption rate >80%). Oxygen vacancy structures (e.g., $W_{18}O_{49}$) have a significant increase in response to reducing gases (e.g., H_2, CO) due to the large number of defect states and surface-active sites ($>10^{17}$ cm^{-3}), and the sensitivity can reach 10–100 times that of pure WO_3, making it suitable for low-concentration gas detection (<1 ppm). Nanostructures (e.g., nanowires, nanosheets, particle sizes 20–200 nm) excel in high-performance sensors due to their ultra-high specific surface area (30–60 m^2/g) and short carrier transport path (<10 nm), short response time (<10 seconds), and high sensitivity (S>100).

The gas-sensitive response of yellow tungsten trioxide is based on the electrical changes induced by the adsorption of gases on the surface. Oxidizing gases (e.g., NO_2) adsorb on the surface of WO_3 and trap free electrons to form NO_2^-, depleting the conduction band electrons of n-type semiconductors, resulting in a decrease in conductivity (> 50%). The reaction is: $NO_2 + e^- \rightarrow NO_2^-$. Reducing gases (e.g., H_2) react with oxygen species (O^- or O^{2-}) adsorbed on the surface, releasing electrons back into the lattice, increasing conductivity (> 100%). The reaction is: $H_2 + O^- \rightarrow H_2O + e^-$. The hexagonal pore structure (pore size >1 nm) provides more adsorption sites (>30% increase), and the defect state of oxygen vacancies ($>10^{18}$ cm^{-3}) enhances surface activity and significantly improves gas sensitivity (sensitivity > 50%). The short diffusion paths and surface defects of the nanostructures further accelerate the interaction of gas molecules with electrons (the reaction rate > increased by 20%). The low specific surface area (2–10 m^2/g) and limited adsorption sites of the monoclinic form limit its response to reducing gases (S<20).

Key parameters for gas sensing performance include sensitivity, response time, and operating temperature. Sensitivity (S) is defined as R_a/R_9 (resistance in air/resistance in target gas) for oxidizing gases or R_9/R_a for reducing gases. The sensitivity of monoclinic crystal form to NO_2 is 5–20, and hexagonal crystal form and nanostructure can reach 50–200, showing excellent gas selectivity. In terms of response time, the monoclinic crystal form is 10–60 seconds, due to the slower ion and electron diffusion (diffusion coefficient $<10^{-13}$ cm^2/s); The response time of the nanostructure and the oxygen vacancy structure is < 10 seconds, due to the short path and high surface activity (diffusion coefficient increased by >50%). The operating temperature is typically 200–400 °C, and oxygen vacancy structures (e.g., $W_{18}O_4$°F) can operate efficiently at lower temperatures (100–200°C) and reduce energy consumption (<1 mW/cm^2). These parameters can be further improved by optimizing the crystal form and morphology (sensitivity > 30%).

The influence of external conditions on compressive strength is significant. Temperature is key, high temperatures (200–400°C) enhance gas adsorption and reaction rates (rate >50%), increasing sensitivity, but excessive temperatures (>500°C) may reduce selectivity (> 20%) due to reduced oxygen adsorption on the surface. The effect of humidity on compressive strength cannot be ignored, water vapor (humidity >50%) competes for adsorption sites, reducing sensitivity (> 30%), operating in a low humidity environment (<30%) or improving through surface modification (e.g., hydrophobic coatings). Doping (e.g., Au, Pt, doping 0.1–1 wt%) significantly improves the response to H_2 and CO (sensitivity > 100%) through catalytic effects, e.g., the detection limit of H_2 can be <0.1 ppm for H_2 with Pt doped WO_3. Optimizing these conditions can significantly improve gas sensing performance (response time > 20%).

Gas sensitivity is measured mainly by electrical and optical tests. The conductivity test uses a four-probe method (accuracy ±0.1 μS/cm) to record the change in resistance of the gas before and after adsorption, and the sensitivity is calculated ($S = R_a/R_9$ or R_9/R_a with an error of <5%). The dynamic response test monitors response and recovery time (accuracy ±0.1 seconds) and controls gas concentration (<1 ppm deviation) and temperature (±1°C). UV-Vis spectroscopy (wavelength accuracy ±1 nm) for the analysis of changes in optical properties (e.g., enhancement of the absorption peak at 650 nm after NO_2 adsorption) is suitable for optical gas sensors. The tests were performed in a stable atmosphere (N_2 or air, impurities <1 ppm) and humidity (<30%), combined with SEM (resolution <1 μm) and XPS (energy resolution <0.1 eV) to analyze the surface topography and chemical state to ensure data reliability (error <5%).

The gas sensitivity of tungsten is widely used in gas sensors. Due to its high sensitivity to NO_2 (S≈10–20, detection limit of 10 ppm), monoclinic WO_3 is used for environmental monitoring, such as air quality sensors (NO_2 removal rate > 90%). Hexagonal crystalline nanowires excel in NH_3 detection (detection limit < 1 ppm) due to their high specific surface area (>30 m²/g) and fast response (< 10 seconds) for industrial emissions monitoring (sensitivity > 100). The high sensitivity (S>100) of oxygen vacancy structures (e.g., $W_{18}O_{49}$) to H_2 and CO makes them suitable for combustible gas detection (H_2 detection limit < 0.1 ppm) for industrial safety (response time <5 seconds).

5.12 Yellow-tungsten redox reactions

Tungsten yellow (WO_3, Yellow tungsten trioxide) is an important transition metal oxide, and its redox reaction characteristics are due to the polyvalence of tungsten (+6, +5, +4, 0) and the diversity of crystal structure. These reactions have a wide range of applications in catalysis (conversion > 90%), energy storage (specific capacitance > 500 F/g), gas sensors (sensitivity > 100), and hydrometallurgy (tungsten recovery > 95%). Redox reactions involve the reduction of WO_3 to low-valence compounds (e.g., $W_{18}O_{49}$, WO_2, or metal W) or the oxidation of low-valence tungsten oxides to WO_3, depending on the crystal form, morphology, and reaction conditions. The following is a paragraph review of the redox reaction of yellow tungsten trioxide in plain but professional language, covering the reaction type, mechanism, crystal form and morphology influence, conditional effect, measurement method and application examples.

The redox reaction of yellow tungsten trioxide mainly includes oxidation reaction (WO_3 is reduced) and reduction reaction (low-valent tungsten is oxidized), which can occur in gas, liquid or electrochemical environments. In gas-phase reduction, WO_3 loses oxygen in a reducing atmosphere (e.g., H_2, CO) to form valence compounds. For example, WO_3 is converted to WO_2 in H_2 at 400–600°C (conversion rate >90%), and 1000–1200°C can further generate the metal W. In liquid-phase reduction, a strong reducing agent (e.g., $NaBH_4$) converts WO_3 to $W_{18}O_{44}$ f, as stirred at room temperature in 0.1 M $NaBH_4$ solution, with yields of >85%. Electrochemical reduction is commonly used in electrochromic devices by injecting electrons and ions (e.g., H^+) with an applied electric field to form M_xWO_3 (e.g., H_xWO_3, transmittance reduced to <20%). Conversely, low-valent tungsten (e.g., $W_{18}O_4$°F) is oxidized to WO_3 in an oxidizing atmosphere (e.g., O_2, 300–500 °C) or in an oxidizing agent (e.g., H_2O_2, 50–100 °C) with a conversion rate of more than 95%.

The reaction mechanism is based on the change of tungsten oxidation state and the gain and loss of lattice oxygen. In the reduction reaction, a reducing agent (e.g., H_2) is adsorbed on the surface of WO_3 and reacts with lattice oxygen to form H_2O, leaving an oxygen vacancy ($>10^{18}$ cm^{-3}), which is reduced to W^{5+} (e.g., $W_{18}O_{42}$) or W^{4+} (e.g., WO_2). In electrochemical reduction, electrons and M^+ (e.g., H^+) are injected into the crystal lattice to form a color center (600–800 nm absorption), resulting in a color change. In the oxidation reaction, O_2 fills oxygen vacancies and W^{5+} or W^{4+} is oxidized to W^{6+}, restoring the WO_3 structure. The high bond energy of the W-O bond (600–700 kJ/mol) enables the reaction to be driven by high temperatures or strong reagents, while the oxygen vacancy reduces the activation energy (> 30%), accelerating the reaction. The pore structure of the hexagonal crystal form (pore size > 1 nm) promotes gas/ion diffusion (rate increase >50%), and defect states enhance electron transfer (> increase by 50%).

The crystal form and morphology significantly affect the reaction rate and product. The monoclinic crystal form ($P2_1/n$) limits diffusion due to its compact structure (density ≈ 7.16 g/cm³) and the reaction rate is slower (e.g., WO_2 is generated at 500°C H_2, and the conversion rate is <80%). The pore structure of the hexagonal crystal form (P6/mmm) (specific surface area 10–30 m²/g) accelerates reactions, such as the formation of $W_{18}O_{49}$ (conversion >90%) at 400°C H_2 with an electrochemical response time of only 1–5 seconds. Oxygen vacancy structures (e.g., $W_{18}O_{49}$) reduce activation energy due to defective states ($>10^{18}$ cm^{-3}) and react faster (e.g., oxidized to WO_3 in air at 300°C, with an efficiency of >95%). Nanostructures (particle size 20–200 nm) more than double the reaction rate due to high specific surface area (30–60 m²/g) and surface defects ($>10^{17}$ cm^{-3}), e.g., electrochemical color change time < 1 second.

The reaction conditions are key to the influence of compressive strength. The temperature increase accelerates the reaction: WO_2 is generated at 400–600°C by gas-phase reduction, and metal W is generated at 1000–1200°C; Oxidation is most effective at 300–500°C; The liquid should be at 50–100°C for maximum efficiency (yield > 90%). A reducing atmosphere (e.g., H_2) promotes WO_3 reduction, an oxidizing atmosphere (e.g., O_2) drives oxidation, and an inert atmosphere (e.g., N_2) slows down the reaction (rate reduction >50%). High concentrations of reagents (e.g., 1 M $NaBH_4$ or 30% H_2O_2) or a potential of 1–3 V increase the reaction rate (> 100%), but too high a potential (>3 V) may damage the structure (stability > reduced by 10%). The nanostructure reaction rate is fast (100% > increase), and the doping of Pt or Au (0.1–1 wt%) increases the efficiency through catalytic effect (> 30%).

A variety of methods are used to characterize redox reactions to ensure data accuracy (error <5%). Chemical analysis was performed by weighing (accuracy ± 0.01 mg) to calculate the conversion and ICP-MS (accuracy ± 0.1 ppm) to determine the tungsten oxidation state. XPS (energy resolution <0.1 eV) was used to analyze the W^{6+}/W^{5+} ratio, and UV-Vis spectroscopy (wavelength accuracy ± 1 nm) was used to detect color center absorption. XRD (resolution ±0.01°) and SEM (resolution < 1 μm) were used to analyze crystal form and morphology changes. Electrochemical measurements include CV (accuracy ± 0.1 mV) and EIS (resolution ± 0.1 Ω), in-situ high-temperature XRD and infrared spectroscopy (resolution ± 1 cm^{-1}) to monitor the reaction process in real time. The test requires control of temperature (±1°C), atmosphere (impurities< 1 ppm) and humidity (<30%).

The redox reaction of yellow tungsten trioxide has important applications in many fields. In catalysis, $W_{18}O_{49}$ catalyzes CO oxidation (conversion rate >90%) through the $W^{6+}\leftrightarrow W^{5+}$ cycle for exhaust gas purification (market size > $100,000/year). The electrochemical reaction generates M_xWO_3, which is used in smart windows (70% change in transmittance>) and supercapacitors (specific capacitance > 500 F/g, 5000 cycles >). The sensor reduces conductivity (sensitivity >100) with NO_2 reduction WO_3 and a detection limit of < 0.1 ppm. In hydrometallurgy, WO_3 is oxidized to WO_4^{2-}, and the tungsten recovery rate is >95%. Photocatalysis generates active sites through redox, and the hydrogen production efficiency is > 1 mmol/h·g.

The redox reaction of yellow tungsten trioxide is the core of its chemical activity, and the hexagonal crystal form and nanostructure accelerate the reaction (rate increase by >100%) due to pore channels and high specific surface area (>30 m^2/g), and the activation energy is reduced by oxygen vacancies (> decrease by 30%). Temperature (300–600°C), atmosphere (H_2/O_2), voltage (1–3 V), and doping (Pt, Au) are key regulatory factors. In the future, composites (e.g., WO_3/graphene, up >to 50% more efficient), low-temperature reactions (<100°C), and in-situ characterization (temporal resolution<1 ms) can be further optimized to promote their applications in catalysis, energy storage, and sensors.

5.13 Acid-base reaction of yellow tungsten trioxide

As an amphoteric oxide, Yellow tungsten trioxide exhibits different chemical behaviors in acidic and alkaline environments, and its acid-base reaction characteristics are closely related to crystal structure, surface properties and reaction conditions. This amphoteric property makes it an important application in the fields of tungsten extraction, catalyst preparation, and material stability research. WO_3 reacts slowly in an acidic environment and usually produces insoluble tungstate, while it easily dissolves in an alkaline environment to form soluble tungstate. By analyzing acid-base reaction mechanisms, crystal form influences, and conditional effects, it is possible to optimize their chemical properties and industrial applications.

Tungsten is less reactive in an acidic environment and exhibits strong chemical stability. In weak acids (e.g., CH_3COOH, pH≈2.5), WO_3 is almost non-reactive (solubility <0.01 g/L) because of its high resistance to H^+ attack by weak acids due to its W-O bond (bond energy 600–700 kJ/mol). In strong acids (e.g., HCl, H_2SO_4, 6 M), WO_3 reacts slowly to form insoluble tungstic acid (H_2WO_4). The reaction was: $WO_3 + 2H^+ \rightarrow H_2WO_4$, and H_2WO_4 had low solubility (0.1–0.5 g/L) and often existed as a precipitate. For example, WO_3 is heated at 80 °C in 6 M HCl for several hours and dissolves only a small amount into an H_2WO_4 precipitate (solubility <5%). The reaction mechanism involves H^+ attacking the W-O bonds on the WO_3 surface and destroying the octahedral structure to form H_2WO_4, but the tight lattice of the monoclinic crystal form (density ≈ 7.16 g/cm³) restricts the further penetration of H^+, resulting in a slow reaction rate (rate <0.1 mg/min). This property makes WO_3 valuable in stability studies in acidic environments (corrosion resistance > 80%).

Yellow tungsten trioxide has high reactivity in alkaline environment, and is easy to react with strong alkalis (such as NaOH, KOH) to form soluble tungstate, and the reaction is rapid and thorough. The reaction was: $WO_3 + 2NaOH \rightarrow Na_2WO_4 + H_2O$ to generate soluble WO_4^{2-} ions (solubility >100 g/L). For example, WO_3 boiled in a 10% NaOH solution (about 2.5 M) for several hours dissolves completely (solubility >95%), resulting in a transparent Na_2WO_4 solution. The reaction mechanism involves OH^- breaking the W-O bond and dissociating WO_6 octahedron to form WO_4^{2-}, and the reaction rate increases significantly with the alkali concentration and temperature (rate increase >50%). At high concentrations of bases (>5 M) and high temperatures (>100°C), the reaction can be completed in minutes (dissolution time < 10 minutes). This property is widely used in the hydrometallurgical extraction of tungsten (recovery >95%) and catalyst precursor preparation.

The crystal form and morphology of tungsten have a significant effect on compressive strength. Due to the tight three-dimensional network structure (porosity <5%), the monoclinic crystal form ($P2_1/n$) has less W-O bonds exposed on the surface and a slower acid-base reaction rate (solubility reduced >30%). The pore structure (pore size >1 nm) of the hexagonal crystal form (P6/mmm) increased the surface exposure area (specific surface area 10–30 m²/g), significantly enhanced the alkali solubility (the solubility increased by >50%), and the reaction rate in the acidic environment was slightly increased (> 20%). The oxygen vacancy structure (e.g., $W_{18}O_4$°F) weakens the lattice stability (bond density <90%) due to the defect state, and the acid-base reaction rate is further accelerated (> 40%). Nanostructures (e.g., nanoparticles, nanosheets, particle size 20–200 nm) have a significantly higher acid-base reaction rate (>100% increase) due to their high specific surface area (30–60 m²/g) and large number of surface active sites (>10^{17} cm⁻³), e.g., nanoWO_3 can be completely dissolved in a few minutes in 1 M NaOH (dissolution time <5 minutes).

The reaction conditions are crucial for the effect of compressive strength. The increase of temperature significantly promoted the acid-base reaction, and the dissolution rate at 80°C was >50% higher than that at 25°C in an acidic environment. In an alkaline environment, the reaction rate at 100°C is 2–3 times higher than that at 60°C (rate increase > 100%). The concentration of acid or base has a significant effect on the compressive strength, and high concentrations of acid (e.g., 6 M HCl) or base (e.g., 5 M NaOH) increase the solubility (> by 80%) and reaction rate (> 100%) by increasing the chemical potential of H^+ or OH^-. In addition, the stirring rate (>200 rpm) and particle size (<200 nm) further accelerated the reaction (rate > 30%) by enhancing mass transfer. Optimizing these conditions can significantly improve the efficiency of the reaction (solubility > 95%).

The measurement of acid-base reaction properties is mainly carried out by chemical and physical analysis. The dissolution rate (mg/min) was calculated by weighing the mass loss of the WO_3 sample in an acid/alkali solution with an accuracy of ±0.01 mg. Ultraviolet-visible spectroscopy (UV-Vis, wavelength accuracy ±1 nm) monitors the characteristic absorption peaks of WO_4^{2-} in solution (e.g., 250 nm) and quantifies tungstate concentrations (error <1%). X-ray diffraction (XRD, resolution ± 0.01°) and scanning electron microscopy (SEM, resolution < 1 μm) were used to analyze the changes in crystal form and morphology before and after the reaction, revealing the reaction mechanism. The test was performed at a controlled temperature (±1°C) and concentration (±0.1 M) to ensure data reliability (error <5%).

The acid-base reaction mechanism of WO_3 is based on the chemical stability of the W-O bond and its interaction with H^+ or OH^-. In an acidic environment, H^+ attacks the surface W-O bond and progressively dissociates the WO_6 octahedron to form insoluble H_2WO_4, and the reaction is limited by the compactness of the crystal lattice (diffusion rate $<10^{-14}$ cm²/s). In an alkaline environment, OH^- rapidly breaks the W-O bond by nucleophilic attack, forming a tetrahedral WO_4^{2-}, and the reaction kinetics are controlled by OH^- concentration and temperature (activation energy ≈50–70 kJ/mol). The nanostructure and high specific surface area significantly reduce the activation energy of the reaction (>>20%) by increasing the reaction site (10^{17} cm^{-3}) and accelerate the dissolution process.

CTIA GROUP LTD Yellow tungsten trioxide

Chapter 6 Preparation method of yellow tungsten trioxide

Yellow tungsten trioxide (WO_3), commonly known as yellow tungsten trioxide, is an inorganic compound in the form of light yellow crystal powder, which has attracted much attention in the fields of catalysis, optoelectronics, sensing and energy storage due to its excellent physical and chemical properties. As tungstic anhydride, the preparation method of WO_3 directly affects its crystal form, particle size and performance, and then determines its application effect. The traditional preparation method is characterized by mature process and stable operation, and is widely used in industry and scientific research. This chapter will deeply discuss the two traditional preparation methods of yellow tungsten trioxide, the high-temperature solid-state reaction method and the sol-gel method, analyze their chemical principles, process flow, key parameter control, advantages and disadvantages and application scenarios in detail, and combine professional data and the latest research progress to provide readers with a comprehensive technical reference.

6.1 Traditional preparation methods of yellow tungsten trioxide

The traditional preparation method of yellow tungsten trioxide relies on chemical reactions and physical transformation to convert tungsten-based raw materials into high-purity WO_3 under controlled conditions. These methods have been optimized for decades to form a stable process system, which is suitable for a variety of scenarios from laboratory trials to industrial mass production. As representatives of traditional methods, the high-temperature solid-phase reaction method and the sol-gel method are known for their high yields and nanoscale precision, respectively, to meet the performance requirements of different applications. The following will analyze the connotation and practice of each of these methods.

6.1.1 The traditional preparation method of yellow tungsten trioxide - high temperature solid-phase reaction method

The high-temperature solid-phase reaction method is a classic method for the preparation of yellow tungsten trioxide, which has become the mainstream technology of industrial production due to the advantages of simple equipment, intuitive process and high yield. The core of this is to induce a chemical reaction of solid raw materials through high-temperature calcination to directly generate crystalline WO_3, which is suitable for the production of high-purity powders or bulk materials.

The high-temperature solid-phase reaction method usually uses tungstic acid (H_2WO_4) or ammonium paratungstate ($(NH_4)_2WO_4$, abbreviated as APT) as the starting material, and is heat treated in an oxygen or air atmosphere. Chemical reactions mainly involve oxidation or decomposition processes, such as the decomposition of tungstic acid into WO_3 and water vapor at 500–800°C with the following formula: $H_2WO_4 \rightarrow WO_3 + H_2O$; Ammonium paratungstate, on the other hand, decomposes at 400–700°C to form WO_3, ammonia and water with the following formula: $(NH_4)_2WO_4 \rightarrow WO_3 + 2NH_3 + H_2O$. These reactions are completed quickly at high temperatures, the volatile components are removed, and the tungsten combines with oxygen to form stable tungsten trioxide crystals. The crystal form of WO_3 is closely related to temperature, for example, monoclinic crystal form is formed at 600°C, and it may change to orthogonal or tetragonal crystal form above 700°C, and the crystal form transition has a significant impact on optical and electrical properties.

The process starts from the preparation of raw materials, and the purity of tungstic acid or ammonium paratungstate is required to be higher than 99.9% to avoid impurities such as Fe, Ca, Si and other impurities affecting product quality. The raw material is ground to 1–10 μm and sieved to ensure uniform particles to improve reaction efficiency. Subsequently, the raw material is loaded into a high-temperature furnace (e.g. muffle furnace or rotary tube furnace) and calcined at 500–800°C for 2–6 hours, depending on the target particle size and crystal form. For example, 550°C produces fine particles of 0.1–1 μm, which are suitable for catalysts; Larger particles of 1–10 μm are generated at 750°C, which is suitable for ceramics or targets. After calcination, the product is slowly cooled to room temperature to avoid cracking due to crystal stress. After cooling, WO_3 can be further ground, sieved, adjusted particle size distribution, and finally confirmed crystal form, morphology and purity by X-ray diffraction (XRD), scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and inductively coupled plasma (ICP) analysis.

The control of critical parameters is critical to process success. The calcination temperature is the core factor, which directly affects the grain size and crystal form, and needs to be precisely controlled within the range of ±10°C. The atmosphere needs to be oxygen-rich with a partial pressure of oxygen above 0.2 atm to prevent the formation of low-valence oxides such as WO_2 or $W_{18}O_{49}$. The holding time is usually 2–4 hours, and too long a length can lead to grain overgrowth (>10 μm) and reduce the specific surface area. If it is too short, the reaction will be incomplete, and the raw materials will not be decomposed. The particle size and uniformity of the raw materials should also be strictly managed, and the particle size deviation should be controlled within ±20% to ensure consistent reaction kinetics. In addition, the cooling rate should be less than 5°C/min to avoid crystal defects induced by rapid cooling.

The advantages of the high-temperature solid-phase reaction method are significant, the process is simple, the equipment cost is low, and it is suitable for large-scale production, with an annual output of thousands of tons. The product has high purity (up to 99.99%) and controllable crystal form, which can meet the needs of catalysts, tungsten powder and electrochromic materials. Tungstic acid and ammonium paratungstate are common intermediates in tungsten ore smelting, and the supply chain is stable. However, this method also has limitations, such as high energy consumption (about 2000 kWh per ton of WO_3) and high operating costs. Grain size is difficult to precisely control and is prone to agglomeration, resulting in a decrease in specific surface area (typically < 10 m²/g). High requirements for the quality of raw materials, and excessive impurities can significantly reduce optical or electrical performance. This method is widely used in the production of SCR denitrification catalysts (specific surface area requires 5–15 m²/g) and smart glass films (monoclinic crystal form), but it is limited in the preparation of nanoscale WO_3, and it is difficult to meet the needs of high-performance photocatalytic or battery materials.

6.1.2 Traditional preparation method of yellow tungsten trioxide - sol-gel method

The sol-gel method is a wet chemical technique that prepares nanoscale yellow tungsten trioxide by molecular reactions in solution, which is known for its small particle size, high uniformity and controllable morphology. This method generates WO_3 under mild conditions, which is particularly suitable for the development of high-performance optoelectronic and energy storage materials, and despite the complexity of the process, it excels in laboratory and high-end applications.

The principle of the sol-gel method is based on the hydrolysis and polycondensation of tungsten precursors in solution. Sodium tungstate (Na_2WO_4) or tungsten chloride (WCl_6) is usually used as the precursor and reacted in water or ethanol solvents. For example, tungsten chloride is hydrolyzed to form tungstic acid intermediates: $WCl_6 + 3H_2O \rightarrow H_2WO_3 + 6HCl$, which is subsequently polycondensed to form a WO_3 network: $nH_2WO_3 \rightarrow (WO_3)n + nH_2O$。 By controlling pH, temperature and additives, the reaction forms a stable sol, which is then gelled, and finally dried and calcined at low temperature to obtain nanoWO_3. The resulting WO_3 morphology (e.g. spherical, rod or flake) and particle size (10–100 nm) can be precisely controlled by process parameters, while the crystal form depends on the calcination temperature, e.g. amorphous or monoclinic crystal form at 350 °C and orthorhombic crystal form at 500 °C.

The process begins with sol preparation, the precursor is dissolved in deionized water or ethanol at a concentration of 0.1–0.5 mol/L, hydrochloric acid or ammonia is added to adjust the pH to 2–4, and stirred for several hours to form a transparent sol. Sol polycondensation is then induced to form a three-dimensional gel network by heating to 40–80°C or by adding a gelling agent such as polyethylene glycol, typically with a gelation time of 6–48 hours. The gel is then aged at 20–50°C for 12–48 hours to strengthen the skeletal structure and avoid collapsing when drying. In the drying stage, atmospheric pressure drying (80–120 °C, 12–24 hours) or supercritical drying (CO_2 with > 7.4 MPa) can be used, the latter of which can better preserve the nanopore structure. The dry gel is calcined at 300–500°C for 1–3 hours to remove residual organic matter and moisture and form a crystalline WO_3. After grinding and screening, the particle size (10–100 nm), specific surface area (20–100 m^2/g) and crystal form of the final product were characterized by transmission electron microscopy (TEM), BET specific surface area analysis and XRD.

The control of key parameters directly determines the performance of WO_3. The pH value needs to be maintained at 2–4, too high will cause tungstate precipitation, too low will inhibit polycondensation and affect the gel quality. Ethanol has a low surface tension (22 mN/m vs. 72 mN/m for water) to form 10–50 nm particles, while aqueous solutions tend to form 50–100 nm particles. The calcination temperature is the determining factor of crystal form and particle size, with a high specific surface area (50–100 m^2/g) generated at 300–400 °C, and grain growth above 500°C (>100 nm) reduces the specific surface area to less than 20 m^2/g. Aging takes at least 24 hours to stabilize the gel structure, but too long (> 72 hours) will increase the cost. Gelling agents (e.g., polyethylene glycol, molecular weight 2000–6000) should be controlled at 0.5–2 wt% to optimize porosity (30–60%) and particle dispersion.

The advantage of the sol-gel method is that it can prepare WO_3 nanoparticles with a high specific surface area (20–100 m^2/g) and a small particle size (10–100 nm) with controllable particle uniformity and morphology, which meets the high-performance requirements of photocatalysts (degradation efficiency >90%) and gas sensors (NO_2 detection limit <1 ppm). The reaction conditions are mild, the calcination temperature is less than 600°C, and the energy consumption is only 30–50% of that of the high-temperature solid-phase method. By introducing a template (e.g., CTAB) or conditioning solvent, it is possible to customize the preparation of WO_3 in rod form (aspect ratio 5:1) or sheet (thickness < 20 nm). However, the disadvantages of this method should not be ignored, such as the numerous process steps (usually 5–7 steps) and long cycle time (2–5 days), which is not suitable for rapid mass production; The requirements for precursor purity and pH control are extremely high (pH deviation <0.2), and the operation is complex; The high cost of solvents and gelling agents (about \$50–\$100 per kg of WO_3 consumables) limits industrial applications. This method performs well in photocatalytic degradation of organic compounds (e.g., methyl orange, quantum yield >0.1), lithium battery anode (specific capacity 693 mAh/g), and electrochromic devices (response time <5 seconds), but further optimization of cost and efficiency is required.

6.1.3 Traditional preparation method of yellow tungsten trioxide - hydrothermal method

Hydrothermal is a wet chemical method for the preparation of yellow tungsten trioxide in an aqueous solution environment at high temperature and pressure, and is known for its ability to generate WO_3 with high crystallinity and nanoscale particles. This method achieves crystal growth under mild conditions and is widely used in the preparation of high-performance optoelectronic materials.

The core principle of the hydrothermal method is to generate WO_3 nanocrystals by dissolving and recrystallizing the tungsten precursor in an aqueous solution in a sealed autoclave. Sodium tungstate ($Na_2WO_4 \cdot$) is usually used $2H_2O$) or tungsten chloride (WCl_6) as precursors reacted at 130–250°C and 0.3–4 MPa. For example, sodium tungstate reacts with an acid to form a tungstic acid intermediate:

$Na_2WO_4 + 2HCl \rightarrow H_2WO_4 + 2NaCl$, which is subsequently decomposed and recrystallized into WO_3:$H_2WO_4 \rightarrow WO_3 + H_2O$ in a hydrothermal environment. High temperatures and pressures promote nucleation and crystal growth, resulting in monoclinic or orthogonal WO_3 morphologies, typically 20–200 nm in size, and morphology that can be nanoparticles, rods, or flakes, depending on the reaction conditions.

The process begins with the preparation of the precursor solution, dissolving sodium tungstate in deionized water (concentration 0.05–0.2 mol/L), adding hydrochloric acid to adjust the pH to 1–3, stirring evenly and transferring to a PTFE-lined autoclave with a filling degree controlled at 60–80%. The autoclave is sealed and placed in an oven and reacted at 150–200°C for 6–24 hours to generate a WO_3 precipitate. At the end of the reaction, it is cooled to room temperature, and the product is centrifuged and washed with deionized water and ethanol several times to remove residual ions and organic matter. After washing, the pellet was dried at 80–100 °C for 12 h to obtain WO_3 powder. Optionally, calcinate at 300–400°C for 1–2 hours to increase crystallinity. The final product was characterized by transmission electron microscopy (TEM), X-ray diffraction (XRD), and BET specific surface area analysis to confirm particle size, crystal form, and specific surface area (typically 20–80 m^2/g).

The control of key parameters is critical to WO_3 performance. The reaction temperature affects the crystal form and particle size, and a monoclinic form WO_3 of 20–50 nm is formed at 150°C, and an orthorhombic crystal form of 100–200 nm may be formed above 200°C. The pH value should be controlled at 1–3, too high will cause tungstate precipitation, and too low will inhibit crystal growth. The reaction time affects the grain size, resulting in smaller particles (<50 nm) in 6 hours and larger particles (>100 nm) in 24 hours. The precursor concentration should be moderate, too high (>0.3 mol/L) will easily lead to agglomeration, and too low (<0.02 mol/L) will cause insufficient yield (<80%). The addition of a surfactant (e.g., CTAB, 0.1–0.5 wt%) modifies morphology, such as inducing rod WO_3 (aspect ratio 3:1–10:1). The filling degree and pressure (0.5–3 MPa) of the autoclave need to be balanced to avoid overpressure or incomplete reaction of the equipment.

The advantage of the hydrothermal method is that it can directly generate high-crystallinity nano-WO_3, without high-temperature calcination (<500 °C), avoiding grain growth and hard agglomeration, and the specific surface area can reach 80 m^2/g, which is much higher than that of the high-temperature solid-phase method (<10 m^2/g). The product has a small particle size, uniform distribution (deviation <15%), and controllable morphology, which is suitable for photocatalysts (85% degradation efficiency for rhodamine B> and gas sensing sensors (detection limit for H_2S <0.5 ppm). Mild reaction conditions, low energy consumption (approx. 200–300 kWh per kilogram of WO_3), environmentally friendly and easy disposal of waste liquids. However, its disadvantages include the need for high-voltage resistant equipment (cost about $5,000–10,000/unit), long production cycle time (1–2 days), and unsuitable for rapid mass production. Batch yields are limited by autoclave volume (typically < 1 L), and industrial scale-up presents equipment and cost challenges. This method has excellent performance in the preparation of nano-WO_3 photocatalysts and battery anode materials (cycle capacity >600 mAh/g), but the equipment design needs to be optimized to increase the scale-up potential.

6.1.4 The traditional preparation method of yellow tungsten trioxide - ammonium tungstate method

The ammonium tungstate method is a chemical preparation method based on the decomposition of ammonium tungstate ($(NH_4)_2WO_4$), which converts tungsten concentrate or tungstate into yellow tungsten trioxide through a multi-step reaction. This method is widely used in the tungsten smelting industry and has both high purity and process stability.

The principle of the ammonium tungstate method involves the chemical conversion of tungsten concentrate and the thermal decomposition of ammonium tungstate. The process usually starts with tungsten concentrate (e.g., scheelite $CaWO_4$) and is alkalinized by sodium hydroxide (NaOH) to produce sodium tungstate: $CaWO_4 + 2NaOH \rightarrow Na_2WO_4 + Ca(OH)_2$. The sodium tungstate solution is neutralized with hydrochloric acid to pH 7–8 and then reacted with ammonium chloride (NH_4Cl) to form ammonium tungstate: $Na_2WO_4 + 2NH_4Cl \rightarrow (NH_4)_2WO_4 + 2NaCl$. Ammonium tungstate solution is acidified by hydrochloric acid to generate tungstic acid precipitate: $(NH_4)_2WO_4 + 2HCl \rightarrow H_2WO_4 + 2NH_4Cl$. Finally, tungstic acid is decomposed by calcination at 500–700°C into WO_3:$H_2WO_4 \rightarrow WO_3 + H_2O$. The whole process realizes the purification and transformation of tungsten through a multi-step chemical reaction, and the product is monoclinic or orthorhombic form WO_3.

The process includes raw material pretreatment and multi-stage reactions. First, tungsten concentrate was ball-milled to 200 mesh, 4–6 mol/L NaOH solution was added, alkalinized at 80–100°C for 2–4 hours, and Na_2WO_4 solution was filtered. The solution was neutralized with 6 mol/L HCl to pH 7.5, 1.5–2 times stoichiometric NH_4Cl was added, and stirred at 50–70°C for 1–2 hours to crystallize $(NH_4)_2WO_4$。 Ammonium tungstate was dissolved and acidolyzed with 8–10 mol/L HCl to generate an H_2WO_4 precipitate at 60–80°C, filtered and washed with deionized water until Cl^--free. Tungstic acid is roasted at 500–600°C in a muffle furnace for 2–3 hours to generate WO_3 powder. The product was cooled and ground to 1–5 μm, and the crystal form and purity (>99.9%) were detected by XRD and ICP-MS, and packaged after qualification. The waste liquid is neutralized and then ammonia and sodium chloride are recovered.

Key parameters need to be strictly controlled to ensure product quality. If the concentration of NaOH is too low (<3 mol/L) during alkaline hydrolysis, it will lead to incomplete dissolution of $CaWO_4$, and too high (>8 mol/L) will increase the cost. The pH of acidolysis needs to be accurate to 7.5±0.5, and deviations will lead to a decrease in ammonium tungstate yield (<90%). The acidolysis temperature is controlled at 60–80°C, too high will form insoluble impurities, and too low will slow the reaction. The roasting temperature affects the WO_3 crystal form, which forms monoclinic crystal form (specific surface area 10–20 m^2/g) at 500°C and orthorhombic crystal form (specific surface area < 10 m^2/g) above 600°C. The roasting time is 2–3 hours, and too long can lead to grain agglomeration (>10 μm). Ammonium chloride should be used in excess of 20–30% to ensure complete conversion of sodium tungstate.

The advantages of the ammonium tungstate method are that the process is mature, the product purity is high (>99.95%), and the yield can reach more than 95%, which is suitable for extracting WO_3 from complex tungsten ore. The raw material adaptability is strong, and it can process scheelite, wolframite and mixed ore, and the supply chain is stable. The equipment is simple (mainly reactors and roasters), and the investment cost is low (about 100,000 US dollars per ton of capacity). However, its disadvantages include many process steps (5–7 steps), complex operation, and long (3–5 days). The amount of acid and alkali used is large (about 1.5 tons of HCl and 0.8 tons of NaOH per ton of WO_3), and the waste liquid needs to be treated, which increases the cost of environmental protection (about 200 US dollars/ton). Roasting energy consumption (approx. 1500 kWh/ton) and large grain size (1–10 μm) make it unsuitable for nanoscale applications. This method is widely used in the production of tungsten powder and cemented carbide raw materials, but it needs to be optimized in combination with other technologies in the field of high-performance nanomaterials.

6.1.5 The traditional preparation method of yellow tungsten trioxide - hydrochloric acid decomposition method of tungstate

The hydrochloric acid decomposition method of tungstate is a wet chemical method for the direct preparation of yellow tungsten trioxide by acidifying tungstate solution, which occupies a place in tungsten chemical industry with its simplicity, efficiency and low cost. This method is particularly suitable for the extraction of WO_3 from sodium tungstate solution.

The principle of this method is based on the decomposition of sodium tungstate under acidic conditions to produce tungstic acid, which is subsequently roasted to WO_3. The process is based on sodium tungstate ($Na_2WO_4 \cdot 2H_2O$) was added to acidify hydrochloric acid to generate tungstic acid precipitate: $Na_2WO_4 + 2HCl \rightarrow H_2WO_4 + 2NaCl$. Tungstic acid is roasted and dehydrated at 500–600°C to produce WO_3: $H_2WO_4 \rightarrow WO_3 + H_2O$. The reaction is simple, and the by-product is sodium chloride solution, which is easy to handle. In order to reduce sodium impurities (<0.01%), sodium tungstate solution is often pretreated by ion exchange or solvent extraction to ensure the purity of WO_3. The resulting WO_3 is monoclinic with a particle size of 1–5 μm.

The process begins with the preparation of sodium tungstate solution, which is usually obtained by alkalizing of tungsten concentrate or recovery of waste tungsten material at a concentration of 0.5–2 mol/L. The solution was slowly acidified to pH 1–2 by adding 6–10 mol/L HCl at 50–80°C and stirring to produce a yellow H_2WO_4 precipitate. Acidification should be controlled to 30–60 minutes to avoid rapid precipitation and uneven particles. The pellet is centrifuged or filtered and washed 5–6 times with deionized water to be Cl^- and Na^+ free (limit of detection< 10 ppm). After washing, H_2WO_4 is dried at 100°C for 6–12 hours to obtain a dry powder. The dry powder is roasted at 500–600°C for 2–3 hours to generate WO_3, cooled and ground to 1–5 μm. The product was detected by XRD, SEM and ICP-MS for crystal form, morphology and impurity content (Na<50 ppm). The waste liquid is neutralized and NaCl is recovered or discharged.

The control of key parameters has a direct impact on WO_3 quality. The acidification pH needs to be kept at 1–2, too high (>3) will cause incomplete dissolution of tungsten acid, and too low (<0.5) will form unstable by-products (such as metatungstate). The acidification temperature is controlled at 50–80°C, too low will cause slow precipitation, and too high will introduce sodium impurities. HCl concentrations of more than 6 mol/L are required to ensure that the reaction is complete, and an excess of 20–30% can increase the yield (>90%). The roasting temperature affects the crystal form and particle size, and the monoclinic form WO_3 (specific surface area 10–15 m²/g) is formed at 500°C, and the grain grows (>5 μm) above 600°C. The number of washes and the water quality (conductivity < 10 μS/cm) need to be tightly controlled to reduce impurities. Drying for too long (> 24 hours) may cause partial decomposition of H_2WO_4, affecting subsequent roasting.

The advantages of this method are the simplicity of the process, the few steps (3–4 steps), the mild reaction conditions (<600 °C), and the low energy consumption (approx. 1000 kWh/ton). The cost of raw materials is low, sodium tungstate can be recovered from tungsten scrap (about $3,000 per tonne), and the yield is high (90–95%). The equipment requirements are low (mainly stirring kettles and roasters) and suitable for small and medium-scale production (100–1000 tons per year). However, its disadvantages include a large particle size (1–5 μm) and a low specific surface area (<15 m²/g), making it unsuitable for nanoscale applications. The acidification process produces a large amount of waste (about 10 m³ per ton of WO_3), which needs to be neutralized (cost about $100/ton). Sodium impurities are difficult to control, and the sodium content of traditional acidification methods often reaches 100–200 ppm, which requires additional purification. The method is suitable for the production of catalyst support and tungsten powder raw materials, but the competitiveness in the field of optoelectronic materials is weak.

6.1.6 Thermal decomposition of ammonium paratungstate, the traditional preparation method of yellow tungsten trioxide

Ammonium paratungstate thermal decomposition method is a traditional method for the direct preparation of yellow tungsten trioxide by high-temperature decomposition of ammonium paratungstate ($(NH_4)_2WO_4$, referred to as APT). This method is widely used in tungsten smelting and powder preparation, and is known for its high yield and high product purity, which is suitable for industrial production.

The principle of ammonium paratungstate thermal decomposition method is based on the decomposition reaction of APT at high temperatures. In an air or oxygen atmosphere, APT is thermally decomposed, releasing ammonia and water vapor, which ultimately produce WO_3. The reaction formula is: $(NH_4)_2WO_4 \rightarrow WO_3 + 2NH_3\uparrow + H_2O\uparrow$. The reaction usually takes place at 400–700 °C and involves multi-step decomposition: first, APT loses part of its ammonia and water at 200–300 °C, forming an intermediate phase (e.g., $(NH_4)_xWO_3$-y); It then completely decomposes to amorphous WO_3 at 400–500°C; Finally, crystallization to monoclinic or orthorhombic form WO_3 at 500–700°C. The crystal form and particle size are controlled by temperature, atmosphere, and holding time, e.g. monoclinic crystal form (particle size 1–5 μm) is formed at 600 °C, and orthorhombic crystal form (particle size > 5 μm) may be formed above 700 °C.

The process starts with the preparation of raw materials. High-purity APT (purity > 99.9%) is selected, ground to a particle size of 10–50 μm and sieved to ensure uniformity to improve decomposition efficiency. The ground APT is loaded into a ceramic crucible or stainless steel tray, placed in a muffle furnace or a rotary tube furnace, heated to 400–600°C at 5–10°C/min in an air atmosphere, and kept warm for 2–4 hours. During the decomposition process, ammonia and water vapor are recovered through the tail gas absorption device (containing dilute acid solution) to prevent environmental pollution. At the end of the reaction, the WO_3 product is naturally cooled to room temperature to avoid crystal defects caused by rapid cooling. After cooling, WO_3 can be further ground to 1–10 μm, and the crystal form, morphology, and impurity content (Fe, Ca<50 ppm) can be detected by X-ray diffraction, scanning electron microscopy, and inductively coupled plasma (ICP-MS). The qualified products are sealed and packaged, and the exhaust gas is discharged after treatment.

Precise control of critical parameters is critical to product quality. The decomposition temperature is the core, and 400–500 °C generates fine particles (0.5–2 μm, specific surface area 10–20 m^2/g), which are suitable for catalysts; Large particles (5–10 μm, specific surface area <10 m^2/g) are generated at 600–700°C, which are suitable for tungsten powder raw materials. The partial pressure of oxygen should be maintained at >0.2 atm to prevent the formation of low-valence oxides (e.g., WO_2 or $W_{18}O_{49}$). The holding time is controlled at 2–4 hours, and too long (>6 hours) will lead to grain agglomeration and reduce the specific surface area. Too short (< 1 hour) may result in residual unresolved APT (yield < 90%). The particle size uniformity of APT should be controlled at ±20%, otherwise the decomposition rate will be uneven, which will affect the consistency of crystal form. The exhaust gas treatment efficiency needs to be >95% to ensure that the NH_3 emission concentration < 10 mg/m^3, which meets environmental protection standards.

The advantages of ammonium paratungstate thermal decomposition method are simple process, few steps (2–3 steps), and low equipment requirements (mainly roasters, with an investment of about 50,000 US dollars/ton capacity). The product has high purity (> 99.95%), yield up to 98%, and controllable crystal form, which meets the needs of catalyst support (specific surface area requirement of 10–20 m^2/g) and tungsten products (purity > 99.9%). As an intermediate product of the tungsten industry chain, APT has low raw material cost (about US$4,000 per ton) and a stable supply chain. However, its disadvantages include high roasting energy consumption (approx. 1200–1500 kWh per tonne WO_3) and large grain size (>1 μm), which makes it unsuitable for nanoscale applications (specific surface area < 20 m^2/g). Ammonia emissions need to be strictly treated, increasing the cost of environmental protection (about 100 US dollars/ton). The uniformity of particles depends on the grinding of raw materials, which is difficult to control. This method is widely used in the production of SCR denitrification catalysts and tungsten powder raw materials, but the particle size and morphology need to be further optimized in the field of optoelectronic materials.

6.2 New preparation method of yellow tungsten trioxide

With the development of nanotechnology and green chemistry, new preparation methods for yellow tungsten trioxide have emerged to achieve higher performance, lower energy consumption and environmental friendliness. As an emerging technology, electrochemical deposition has shown great potential in the field of optoelectronics and sensors due to its precise control and thin film preparation capabilities.

6.2.1 A new preparation method for yellow tungsten trioxide - electrochemical deposition

Electrochemical deposition is a method in which tungsten precursors are deposited on a conductive substrate to form WO_3 thin films or nanostructures by an electric field. This method has become an important technology for the preparation of high-performance optoelectronic materials due to its simple operation, controllable morphology and low-temperature preparation.

The principle of electrochemical deposition is based on the reduction or oxidation of tungstate ions on the surface of the electrode. Sodium tungstate (Na_2WO_4) or peroxytungstic acid solution is usually used as the electrolyte, and WO_4^{2-} ions react on the surface of the cathode or anode to form WO_3 under the action of a direct current or pulsed electric field. For example, in cathodic deposition, WO_4^{2-} binds to H^+ and reduces: $WO_4^{2-} + 4H^+ + 2e^- \rightarrow WO_3 + 2H_2O$. The reaction is carried out in an acidic solution (pH 1–3) at room temperature to 60°C to generate amorphous or crystalline WO_3 films ranging in thickness from 50 nm to several microns and morphologies including porous, nanowire, or granular structures. After deposition, WO_3 can be annealed at 200–400°C to increase the crystallinity and form monoclinic or orthorhombic crystal forms.

The process begins with electrolyte preparation. Place $Na_2WO_4 \cdot 2H_2O$ (concentration 0.01–0.1 mol/L) dissolved in deionized water, HCl or H_2SO_4 was added to adjust the pH to 1.5–2.5, and a stabilizer (e.g., H_2O_2, 0.1–0.5 vol%) was added to prevent the solution from decomposing. A conductive substrate (e.g., ITO glass, FTO, or stainless steel) is used as the working electrode, and the surface is ultrasonically cleaned with ethanol and acetone (10–15 minutes) to remove organics. The counter electrode (e.g., Pt sheet) and reference electrode (e.g., Ag/AgCl) are placed in the electrolytic cell to form a three-electrode system. Deposition is performed in potentiostatic (-0.5 to -1.0 V vs. Ag/AgCl) or galvanostatic (1–10 mA/cm²) mode for 30 seconds to 30 minutes, controlling film thickness (50–2000 nm). After deposit, the WO_3 film was rinsed with deionized water and dried at 80°C for 1–2 hours, optionally annealed at 300–400°C air for 1–2 hours to enhance crystallinity. The final film was characterized by SEM, XRD, and ultraviolet-visible spectroscopy (UV-Vis) for its morphology, crystal form, and optical properties (e.g., bandgap 2.5–2.8 eV).

The regulation of key parameters determines the performance of WO_3 films. The electrolyte pH needs to be maintained at 1.5–2.5, with too high (>3) causing WO_4^{2-} not to be deposited, and too low (<1) generating low-valence oxides (e.g., WO_2). The deposition potential or current density affects the topography, with -0.7 V forming porous structures (pore size 50–200 nm) and -1.0 V forming nanowires (20–50 nm diameter). The deposition time controls the film thickness, resulting in 100–200 nm films in 1 minute and 1–2 μm in 20 minutes. The electrolyte concentration affects the deposition rate, 0.05 mol/L is appropriate, and too high (>0.2 mol/L) will lead to film cracking. The annealing temperature should be below 400 °C to avoid failure of the substrate (e.g., ITO, temperature resistant < 450 °C) and to ensure the formation of monoclinic crystal forms (0.38–0.39 nm plane spacing). The surface roughness of the substrate (Ra<10 nm) needs to be controlled to improve the adhesion of the film (peel strength > 5 MPa).

The advantages of electrochemical deposition are low temperature preparation (< 100 °C) and very low energy consumption (approx. 0.1 kWh per square meter of film), making it suitable for flexible substrates and large-scale coating production. The morphology of the film is controllable, and the porous WO_3 (specific surface area 50–100 m^2/g) performs well in photocatalysis (degradation efficiency of methyl orange >90%) and electrochromic (coloring efficiency >50 cm^2/C). The process is accurate, and the film thickness deviation is <5%, which is suitable for micro-nano devices (e.g. sensors, with a response time of < 1 second). However, its disadvantages include a slow deposition rate (about 10–50 nm/min) and unsuitability for thick film preparation (>5 μm). Electrolytes need to be replaced regularly, and waste disposal costs are high (about US$ 50/m^3). The equipment needs corrosion-resistant electrodes (Pt cost about 1000 US dollars/set), which increases the initial investment. This method has great promise in the fields of smart glass (70% >change in light transmittance), photocatalytic coatings, and miniature sensors, but it is necessary to optimize the deposition efficiency to reduce costs.

6.2.2 A new preparation method for yellow tungsten trioxide - vapor deposition method

Vapor deposition is an advanced technique in which a gaseous precursor reacts or deposits on a substrate to form WO_3 thin films or nanostructures. Known for its high purity, controllable morphology, and process flexibility, this method is widely used in the preparation of optoelectronic and catalytic materials, especially for high-performance thin-film devices.

The principle of vapor deposition is based on the decomposition or reaction of a gaseous tungsten precursor under specific conditions to form WO_3. According to the process differences, it can be divided into chemical vapor deposition (CVD) and physical vapor deposition (PVD). In CVD, tungsten hexachloride (WCl_6) or tungsten carbonyl ($W(CO)_6$) are commonly used as precursors to react with oxygen or water vapor at 300–600°C, e.g., $WCl_6 + 3H_2O \rightarrow WO_3 + 6HCl$. PVD (e.g. magnetron sputtering) bombards the tungsten target with high-energy particles and deposits WO_3 in an oxygen atmosphere with the following reaction: $W + 3/2O_2 \rightarrow WO_3$. The deposition process takes place in a vacuum or at low pressure (10^{-3}–10 Pa) to generate WO_3 films with thicknesses ranging from 10 nm to a few microns, with morphologies ranging from dense films, porous structures, or nanoparticles. The thin film morphology (amorphous, monoclinic or orthogonal) is determined by the deposition temperature and subsequent annealing, e.g. 400°C annealing yields a monoclinic form WO_3 (band gap 2.6–2.8 eV).

The process flow takes CVD as an example. The precursor WCl_6 is dissolved in ethanol or converted to a gaseous state by sublimation (150–200 °C), mixed with a carrier gas (e.g., Ar or N_2 at a flow rate of 50–200 sccm) and introduced into the reaction chamber. Substrates (e.g., silicon wafers, FTO glass) are pre-cleaned (ultrasonic with ethanol/acetone for 10 min) and heated to 300–500°C. Oxygen or water vapor is used as a reaction gas (flow rate 10–50 sccm) and reacted at an intracavity pressure of 1–10 Pa for a deposition time of 5–60 minutes, controlling the film thickness (50–1000 nm). After deposition, the film is cooled in air and optionally annealed at 300–400°C for 1–2 hours to increase crystallinity. The

PVD process is similar, but with tungsten targets (>99.99% purity) deposited in an oxygen/Ar mixture atmosphere (O_2 ratio 10–30%) under RF or DC sputtering (power 50–200 W). The product was characterized by scanning electron microscopy (SEM), X-ray diffraction (XRD), and ultraviolet-visible spectroscopy (UV-Vis) to confirm morphology (e.g., aperture 50–200 nm), crystal form, and optical properties (transmittance > 80%).

The control of key parameters directly affects the quality of WO_3 films. The deposition temperature determines the morphology and morphology, with amorphous or porous WO_3 (specific surface area of 30–50 m²/g) formed at 300°C and dense monoclinic crystal form (specific surface area < 10 m²/g) at 500°C. The precursor flow rate needs to be controlled at 0.1–1 g/min, too high will cause particle agglomeration, and too low will cause a slow deposition rate (<5 nm/min). The pressure in the cavity affects the uniformity of film thickness, and 5 Pa is appropriate, and the deviation is <10%. The oxygen ratio needs to be precise (10–20%), too low to generate low-price WO_{2-x}, too high to reduce deposition efficiency (yield <80%). The surface roughness of the substrate (Ra<5 nm) needs to be controlled to enhance adhesion (peel strength > 10 MPa). The annealing temperature is below 450 °C to protect the substrate (e.g., FTO, temperature resistant < 500 °C) while ensuring a plane spacing of 0.37–0.39 nm (monoclinic form). The HCl by-products of CVD are treated by caustic absorption (NaOH solution, concentration 1 mol/L), and PVD requires regular maintenance of vacuum pumps (cost about US$500/time).

The advantages of the vapor deposition method are that it can prepare high-purity (>99.999%) WO_3 films, with high film thickness accuracy (deviation <5 nm) and diverse morphologies (porous, nanowire, dense films), which meet the requirements of photocatalysis (degradation efficiency of methyl orange >90%), electrochromic (coloring efficiency >60 cm²/C) and sensors (detection limit of NO_2 <0.1 ppm). The process is flexible, it can be deposited on complex substrates (e.g. curved glass) and is suitable for large-scale coatings (deposition area > 1 m²). CVD equipment is less expensive (about $100,000/set), while PVD provides higher purity and uniformity. However, its disadvantages include high energy consumption (CVD about 1 kWh per square meter of film and PVD about 2 kWh) and complex maintenance of the vacuum system (annual cost of about $5,000). Precursors (e.g. WCl_6, price approx. US$200/kg) and increased costs for exhaust gas treatment (approx. US$50/m²). The deposition rate is slow (CVD 10–50 nm/min, PVD 1–10 nm/min) and not suitable for thick film preparation (>5 µm). This method has a promising future in the field of smart glass (light transmittance change >75%) and photocatalytic coatings, but it is necessary to optimize the precursor efficiency to reduce costs.

6.2.3 A new preparation method of yellow tungsten trioxide - biological template method

The biological template method is a green preparation technology that uses biological structures in nature (such as plants, bacteria, or proteins) as templates to guide the growth of WO_3 nanostructures. This method is known for its environmental friendliness, unique morphology, and low cost, and provides a biologically inspired innovation path for nanomaterial design.

The principle of the biotemplate method is based on the multi-level pore or surface chemistry of the biomaterial, which induces the deposition of tungsten precursors and their conversion to WO_3. Commonly used templates include cellulose (e.g., filter paper, wood), proteins (e.g., bacterial outer membrane), or polysaccharides (e.g., chitosan). Taking the cellulose template as an example, a sodium tungstate (Na_2WO_4) solution is impregnated in the template, WO_4^{2-} is adsorbed on the fiber surface by hydrogen bonding or electrostatic action, and then converted to WO_3 by heat treatment (300–500°C): $Na_2WO_4 + 2HCl \rightarrow H_2WO_4 + 2NaCl$, $H_2WO_4 \rightarrow WO_3 + H_2O$。 The template is partially or completely burned off during heat treatment, leaving a WO_3 that replicates the morphology of the template, such as nanotubes (50–200 nm diameter), porous networks (100–500 nm pore size), or nanosheets (10–50 nm thickness). The resulting WO_3 is typically monoclinic with a specific surface area of 50–150 m²/g.

The process begins with template selection. Cellulose filter paper (50–70% porosity) or bacteria (e.g., E. coli, cell size 1–2 μm) were washed (deionized water, pH 7) and dried (60°C, 6 h). The template was soaked in 0.05–0.2 mol/L Na_2WO_4 solution (pH 2–4, HCl adjusted) and adsorbed at 25–50°C for 1–12 hours to ensure uniform WO_4^{2-} distribution. After impregnation, the template is lightly washed with deionized water, dried (80 °C, 4 hours), placed in a muffle furnace, and heat-treated in air at 300–500 °C for 1–3 hours. Heat treatment requires a slow temperature increase (2–5°C/min) to avoid template collapse and WO_3 nucleation in the pores or surface of the template. After cooling, the product is ground or ultrasonically dispersed, and morphology (e.g., porosity 40–60%), specific surface area, and crystal form (monoclinic with 0.38 nm plane spacing) were characterized by transmission electron microscopy (TEM), BET specific surface area analysis, and XRD. If template residue needs to be removed, it can be washed with dilute acid (0.1 mol/L HCl) or extended heat treatment.

The optimization of key parameters is critical to WO_3 topography and performance. Template porosity affects WO_3 structure, cellulose (porosity >50%) forms porous WO_3, and bacteria (porosity <20%) form nanoparticles (20–50 nm). Precursor concentrations of 0.1–0.2 mol/L are required, too high (>0.5 mol/L) will cause pore clogging, and too low (<0.05 mol/L) will reduce yields (<70%). The impregnation time is controlled at 6–12 hours, and if it is too short (<2 hours), the adsorption is insufficient, and if it is too long (> 24 hours), the cost will be increased. The heat treatment temperature determines the polymorph and template removal rate, and the monoclinic form WO_3 (specific surface area 100–150 m²/g) is generated at 400°C, and the grain grows (>200 nm, specific surface area <50 m²/g) above 500°C. pH 2–4 is required, too high (>5) inhibits WO_4^{2-} adsorption, and too low (<1) destroys the template structure (e.g., cellulose degradation). The heat treatment atmosphere needs to be oxygen-enriched (O_2>20%) to ensure complete combustion of the formwork.

The advantage of the biological template method is that it is environmentally friendly, and the formwork is mostly renewable resources (e.g. wood, bacteria) and the cost is low (about US$10–20 per kilogram of WO_3). WO_3 has a unique morphology and porous structure (specific surface area of 50–150 m²/g), which performs well in photocatalysis (degradation efficiency of rhodamine B >95%) and battery anode (specific capacity >700 mAh/g). The process is gentle (heat treatment < 500 °C) and the energy consumption is low (approx. 200 kWh per kg WO_3). Templates come from a wide range of sources and can be customized to design nanotubes, sheets, or mesh WO_3. However, disadvantages include complex template preparation (eg, 24–48 hours for bacterial culture, costing about $50/L). The yield is low (60–

80%) because some of the tungsten precursors are burned out with the template. The consistency of morphology depends on the quality of the template (deviation > 20%), and the scale-up production needs to be standardized (e.g., the porosity of cellulose is controlled at ±5%). Carbon impurities (<1 wt%) may remain during heat treatment and require additional purification. This method has great potential in the field of photocatalysts and energy storage materials, but it needs to optimize template recovery to improve economy.

CTIA GROUP LTD

Yellow tungsten trioxide (**YTO,** WO_3) **Product Introduction**

1. Product Overview

CTIA GROUP LTD Yellow tungsten trioxide is produced by high-temperature calcination process of ammonium paratungstate, which meets the requirements of GB/T 3457-2013 "Tungsten Oxide" first-class product. WO_3 is widely used in the preparation of tungsten powder, cemented carbide, tungsten wire and ceramic colorants. CTIA GROUP LTD is committed to providing high-quality Yellow tungsten trioxide products to meet the needs of powder metallurgy and industrial manufacturing.

2. product characteristics

High stability: stable in air, insoluble in water and inorganic acids except hydrofluoric acid.
Reactivity: It can be reduced to tungsten powder by hydrogen (>650°C) or carbon.
Uniformity: Uniform particle distribution, suitable for downstream processing.

3. Product specifications

index	CTIA GROUP LTD Yellow tungsten trioxide first-class product standard
WO_3 content (wt%)	≥99.95
Impurities （wt%，max.）	Fe≤0.0010, Mo≤0.0020, Si≤0.0010, Al≤0.0005, Ca≤0.0010, Mg≤0.0005, K≤0.0010, Na≤0.0010, S≤0.0005, P≤0.0005
Particle size	1-10（μm，FSSS）
Loose density	2.0-2.5（g/cm^3）
Customization	Particle size or impurity limits can be customized according to customer requirements

4. Packaging and warranty

Packing: Inner sealed plastic bag, outer iron drum or woven bag, net weight 50kg or 100kg, moisture-proof design.

Warranty: Each batch comes with a quality certificate, including WO_3 content, impurity analysis, particle size (FSSS method), loose density and moisture data.

5. Procurement information

Email: sales@chinatungsten.com

Phone: +86 592 5129696

For more Yellow tungsten trioxide information, please visit the China Tungsten online website www.tungsten-powder.com. For more market and real-time information, please follow the WeChat public account "China Tungsten Online".

CTIA GROUP LTD Yellow tungsten trioxide

Chapter 7 Yellow tungsten trioxide production equipment

Yellow tungsten trioxide (WO_3), also known as yellow tungsten trioxide, as an important functional material, has attracted much attention for its wide range of applications in catalysis, optoelectronics, sensing and energy storage. The selection and optimization of production equipment directly determines product quality, process efficiency and production cost. This chapter focuses on the production equipment of yellow tungsten trioxide, with the high-temperature solid-phase reaction method as the core, discusses in detail the function, structure, operation points and technical characteristics of its key equipment, especially analyzes the crusher and ball mill in the raw material processing stage, and provides an in-depth reference for industrial production and equipment selection.

7.1 Core equipment for the preparation of yellow tungsten trioxide by high-temperature solid-phase reaction method

The high-temperature solid-phase reaction method is the traditional mainstream technology for the preparation of yellow tungsten trioxide, which uses tungstic acid (H_2WO_4) or ammonium paratungstate (($(NH_4)_2WO_4$ by high-temperature roasting , APT) and other solid feedstocks are converted to WO_3. The requirements of the process for the equipment are concentrated in three links: raw material pretreatment, reaction control and product post-treatment, in which the performance of the raw material processing equipment directly affects the subsequent reaction efficiency and product quality. The core equipment includes raw material processing equipment (crusher, ball mill), high-temperature reaction equipment (such as muffle furnace, rotary furnace) and post-processing equipment (such as screening machine, grinder). The following focuses on the analysis of crushers and ball mills in raw material processing equipment, and explains their roles, technical parameters and optimization strategies in the production of yellow tungsten trioxide.

7.1.1 Raw material handling equipment

In the process of preparing yellow tungsten trioxide by high-temperature solid-phase reaction, raw material treatment is the starting point of the process, aiming to convert raw materials such as tungstic acid or APT into a suitable particle size and homogeneity state for the reaction. The particle size of the raw material is usually controlled at 1–10 μm to ensure consistent reaction kinetics and the quality of WO_3 crystals. Raw material handling equipment mainly includes crushers and ball mills, which work together to gradually refine bulk or coarse granular raw materials, while ensuring impurity control and uniformity of particle distribution.

7.1.1.1 Crushers

The crusher is the first line of raw material processing in the production of yellow tungsten trioxide, which is used to crush the initial raw material (such as tungstic acid precipitation, APT crystallization or recovered tungsten material) from lump or larger particles (centimeter level) to millimeter level, and provide a suitable feed particle size for subsequent ball milling. The selection of the crusher directly affects the pretreatment efficiency of the raw material and the smoothness of the downstream process.

In the production of yellow tungsten trioxide, the commonly used types of crushers include jaw crusher, hammer crusher and roll crusher, among which jaw crusher is the most popular because of its simple structure, convenient maintenance and strong processing capacity. The jaw crusher extrudes the raw material through the relative movement of the moving jaw and the fixed jaw, and the typical model (e.g., PE-250×400) can process the raw material with a particle size of 50–200 mm and an output particle size of 5–20 mm. Its working principle is based on mechanical force crushing, the motor drives the eccentric shaft to make the moving jaw move periodically, and the raw material is squeezed, split and broken in the crushing chamber. The key components of the equipment include the jaw plate (high manganese steel, hardness HB 200–300), the frame (cast steel, compressive strength > 600 MPa) and the flywheel (balance inertia and reduce vibration). In order to adapt to the characteristics of yellow tungsten trioxide raw materials, wear-resistant coatings (e.g., tungsten carbide coating, hardness HRC 60–70) are often used on the surface of the jaw plate to reduce iron impurity (Fe<50 ppm) and ensure WO_3 purity (>99.9%).

The operation process begins with the pre-treatment of the raw materials. Tungstic acid or APT feedstock is output from drying or crystallization processes, typically with a block size of 10–100 mm and a moisture content of <5% to avoid bonding. The raw material is evenly fed into the crusher inlet by means of a vibrating feeder (frequency 10–20 Hz), and the crusher speed (200–400 rpm) is adjusted according to the hardness of the raw material (about 3–4 on the Mohs scale of tungstate) with a crushing time of 5–10 minutes per batch. The output particles are conveyed to the screen (5–10 mm pores) via a belt, and the oversized particles are returned to the crusher for secondary treatment. The particle size distribution of the crushed raw material is controlled at D50=5–15 mm, and the uniformity deviation is <20% to meet the feed requirements of the ball mill. The operation of the equipment needs to be equipped with a dust removal system (such as a bag filter, with an efficiency of >99%), which captures dust (concentration < 10 mg/m³) and prevents tungsten material loss (<0.5%) and environmental pollution.

The optimization of key parameters is crucial for the crushing effect. The feed particle size needs to be < 150 mm, and too large (>200 mm) can lead to overloading of the equipment or wear of the jaw plate (life< 6 months). The crushing gap is adjusted to 3–10 mm to ensure that the output particle size is suitable for ball milling (D90<20 mm). The motor power (15–30 kW) needs to be matched to the capacity (1–5 t/h), too low will lead to a decrease in efficiency (<80%) and too high an increase in energy consumption (about 50 kWh/t). The feed rate is controlled at 0.5–2 t/h, which can lead to blockage and affect continuity. Jaw plate materials need to be highly abrasion resistant (e.g. Mn13Cr2, wear rate < 0.1 mm/1000h) to reduce the frequency of maintenance (replacement every 3–6 months). Customized for the production of yellow tungsten trioxide, the inner wall of the crusher can be lined with polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE, coefficient of friction < 0.1) to further reduce metal contamination (Fe<20 ppm).

The advantage of the crusher is its high processing capacity, with a single unit capacity of 1–10 t/h, suitable for large-scale production (> 1000 t WO_3 per year). The structure is simple, the maintenance cost is low (about 1000 US dollars per unit per year), the operation is stable, and the failure rate is <2%. The equipment investment is moderate (about 5,000-10,000 US dollars/set), and it is suitable for a variety of raw materials such as tungstic acid, APT and recycled materials. However, the disadvantages include a coarse output particle size (>1 mm), which does not directly meet the needs of high-temperature reactions (1–10 μm) and must be used with a ball mill. Trace metal impurities (Fe, Cr approx. 10–50 ppm) may be introduced during the crushing process, which need to be removed by magnetic separation (magnetic field strength >1 T) or pickling (0.1 mol/L HCl). High energy consumption (30–60 kWh/t), especially when working with high-hardness regrind (Mohs >5). Noise (80–100 dB) requires sound insulation (reduced to <60 dB).

7.1.1.2 Ball mills

The ball mill is the second key equipment in the raw material processing of yellow tungsten trioxide production, which is used to further refine the crushed millimeter particles to the micron scale (1–10 μm) to meet the requirements of particle size and uniformity of high-temperature solids. The performance of the ball mill has a direct impact on the formation kinetics of WO_3 crystals and the specific surface area of the final product.

The ball mill drives the grinding medium (such as ceramic balls or steel balls) to collide with the raw material and grind to achieve refinement by rotating the cylinder. In the production of yellow tungsten trioxide, planetary ball mills or horizontal ball mills are commonly used, the planetary type is more suitable for laboratory and small and medium-scale production (<1 t/batch) due to its high efficiency and fine grinding capacity, while the horizontal ball mill is suitable for industrialization (>5 t/batch). In the case of a planetary ball mill (type QM-3SP4), the principle of operation is based on the rotation of the mill pot on the main disc (300–600 rpm) and with the rotation of the main disc (150–300 rpm), generating centrifugal and frictional forces, and the raw material is refined under the impact of ceramic balls (zirconia, diameter 5–10 mm, hardness HRC 85–90). Key components of the plant include a grinding tank (zirconia or stainless steel, 0.5–5 L volume), grinding balls (10:1–20:1 ball ratio) and drive motor (1–5 kW). In order to avoid contamination by impurities, zirconia material (ZrO_2, purity > 99.5%) is often used for grinding jars and grinding balls to ensure that impurities such as Fe and Al < 10 ppm.

The operation process starts with the loading of raw materials. The crushed tungstic acid or APT (D50=5–15 mm) is fed into the mill via a screw feeder (speed 0.1–0.5 t/h), and deionized water or ethanol is added as the wet grinding medium (solid-liquid ratio 1:1–1:2) to reduce agglomeration and improve grinding efficiency (yield >95%). The ball filling rate was controlled at 30–50%, the rotation speed was 400–600 rpm, and the grinding time was 4–12 hours, depending on the target particle size (D50=1–10 μm). After grinding, the slurry is separated by vacuum filtration or centrifugation (3000–5000 rpm), and the solids are dried at 80–100°C for 6–12 hours to obtain a micron-sized powder. The dried powder is ultrasonically sieved (10–20 μm sieve hole) to remove large particles (<5%). The grinding process needs to be equipped with a cooling system (water cooling, temperature < 50°C) to prevent overheating and APT decomposition (>150°C). The particle size distribution (D90<15 μm) and morphology were detected by laser particle size analyzer and SEM, and the product was sent to a high-temperature furnace after qualification.

The optimization of key parameters determines the grinding results. The diameter of the grinding ball needs to be 5–10 mm, and too large (>15 mm) will result in insufficient refinement (D50>10 μm) and too small (<3 mm) will reduce efficiency (grinding time > 24 hours). The pellet-to-material ratio is controlled at 10:1–15:1, with too high (>20:1) increasing wear (ZrO_2<0.01 wt%) and too low (<5:1) increasing grinding time (>12 hours). Rotational speeds of 400–600 rpm are required, too high (>800 rpm) will cause vibration (amplitude >2 mm) and heat generation, too low (<300 rpm) will result in low grinding efficiency (<70%). Ethanol (purity>99.5%) can reduce agglomeration (particle dispersion >90%), but the cost is higher (about $2/L); Water mills are inexpensive (< $0.1/L), but pH 6–8 needs to be controlled to avoid tungstic acid dissolution. The grinding time is related to the target particle size, reaching D50 = 5 μm in 6 hours and D50 = 1 μm in 12 hours, but too long (> 24 hours) may introduce impurities (Zr<20 ppm). The grinding jar material needs to be highly abrasion resistant (ZrO_2 wear rate <0.005 g/h) to ensure WO_3 purity (>99.9%).

The advantages of the ball mill are the efficient refinement of the raw material, the precise control of the particle size of 1–10 μm, the high uniformity (D90/D10<3), and the high temperature reaction requirements (specific surface area 10–20 m²/g). The equipment is flexible, with planetary ball mills suitable for small batches of high-precision grinding (0.1–100 kg/batch) and horizontal ball mills supporting high capacities (1–10 t/batch). Stable operation and simple maintenance (annual cost of about 2000 US dollars/unit). However, disadvantages include higher energy consumption (100–200 kWh/t) and additional drying steps (50 kWh/t) for wet grinding. Abrasion may introduce trace impurities (about 5–20 ppm Zr, Fe) and need to be removed by magnetic separation (magnetic field > 1.5 T) or pickling (0.05 mol/L HNO_3). Long grinding time (4–12 hours) makes it unsuitable for rapid production. Noise (70–90 dB) requires acoustic enclosures.

7.1.2 Molding equipment

In the production of yellow tungsten trioxide, the molding equipment is responsible for processing the refined powder raw materials into a green body with a certain strength and shape, providing a stable physical form for the high-temperature reaction. The high-temperature solid-phase reaction method requires the raw material body to have an appropriate density (2–4 g/cm³) and porosity (20–40%) to ensure the smooth release of gases (e.g., water vapor, ammonia) and to avoid cracking of the green body during calcination. Molding equipment includes tablet presses, granulators and extruders, among which tablet presses have become commonly used molding equipment in the production of yellow tungsten trioxide because of their easy operation, high molding accuracy and strong adaptability, especially suitable for the preparation of flakes or small blocks.

7.1.2.1 Tablet presses

Tablet press is a kind of equipment that presses powder raw materials into flakes or blocks through mechanical or hydraulic pressure, which is used to form tungstic acid (H_2WO_4) or ammonium paratungstate ($(NH_4)_2WO_4$, APT) powder into regular blanks in the production of yellow tungsten trioxide, which is convenient for loading into a high-temperature furnace for solid-phase reaction. The performance of the tablet press directly affects the density, strength and reaction efficiency of the green body, and is an indispensable equipment in the high-temperature solid-phase reaction method.

The working principle of the tablet press is based on the plastic deformation of the powder under high pressure and the reconstitution of the particles. In the production of yellow tungsten trioxide, a single press is often used, a single press is suitable for laboratory and small batch production (< 100 kg/batch), and a rotary press is suitable for industrialization (>1 t/batch). In the case of a single press (type e.g. TDP-5), the structure consists of a hopper, a die (punch and cavity, made of high-strength steel, HRC 55–60), a pressure system (hydraulic or mechanical, pressure 10–100 MPa) and a drive motor (power 1–5 kW). The powder enters the mold cavity through the hopper, and the punch applies pressure (20–50 MPa) to compress the powder into a body, and the thickness (2–10 mm) and diameter (5–50 mm) of the body are determined by the size of the mold. After forming, the green body is ejected through the pusher device and enters the collection system. In order to avoid contamination by impurities, the surface of the mold is often chrome-plated (Cr coated, thickness 10–20 μm, hardness HRC 65) or stainless steel (316L, Fe release < 10 ppm) to ensure WO_3 purity (>99.9%).

The process begins with the preparation of raw materials. After grinding, tungstic acid or APT powder (D50 = 1–10 μm, moisture content <2%) is passed through a vibrating sieve (sieve hole 20–50 μm) to remove agglomerated particles and ensure fluidity (repose angle < 40°). A small amount of binder (e.g., polyvinyl alcohol PVA, 0.5–2 wt%) can be added to the powder to increase the strength of the green body (compressive strength > 5 MPa), but it is necessary to ensure that it is fully volatile (<400°C) during heat treatment. The powder is evenly fed into the hopper by means of a screw feeder (speed 0.1–0.5 kg/min), and the inner wall of the hopper is coated with polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE, coefficient of friction <

0.1) to prevent sticking. The tablet press mold was pre-cleaned (ethanol wiping, residual < 1 mg/cm²), the pressure was adjusted to 20–40 MPa, the pressing time was 0.5–2 seconds/piece, and the density of the green body was controlled at 2.5–3.5 g/cm³. The formed body is collected on a conveyor belt and inspected for appearance (no cracks, edge integrity rate >95%) and dimensions (deviation < 0.1 mm). The unqualified green body (density < 2 g/cm³) is returned to crushing and re-pressed. The pressing process needs to be equipped with a ventilation system (air volume 500–1000 m³/h) to control the dust concentration (<5 mg/m³) and prevent tungsten loss (<0.2%).

The optimization of key parameters is crucial for the quality of the green body. The pressing pressure needs to be 20–50 MPa, and too low (<10 MPa) will cause the green body to be loose (porosity >50%), and easy to fragment during calcination (yield < 90%); Too high (>60 MPa) reduces porosity (<10%), hinders gas release, and causes the green body to expand or crack (scrap rate >5%). The particle size of the powder is controlled at 1–10 μm, too large (>20 μm) will lead to uneven molding (density deviation >10%), and too small (<0.5 μm) will increase dust flying (loss of >1%). The size of the mold should match the purpose of the green body, with a diameter of 10–30 mm and a thickness of 3–8 mm. The diameter >50 mm is used as a raw material for tungsten powder. The binder dosage is controlled at 0.5–1 wt%, and too high (>3 wt%) will leave carbon (>0.1 wt%) in the heat treatment, affecting the purity of WO_3 (<99.9%). The pressing speed (10–60 pieces/min) needs to balance efficiency and quality, too fast (>100 pieces/min) can lead to wear and tear (life< 6 months). The mold material needs to be highly abrasion resistant (e.g. GCr15 steel, wear rate <0.01 mm/1000h) to ensure the surface finish of the green body (Ra<0.5 μm).

The advantages of the tablet press are high molding accuracy, uniform density of the green body (deviation <5%), controllable size (error < 0.1 mm), and meeting the requirements of the green body structure for high-temperature reactions (porosity 20–40%). The equipment is easy to operate, with a single press for small batches (10–100 kg/h) and a rotary press for high throughput (0.5–2 t/h). The investment cost is moderate (about 2,000–5,000 US dollars per unit for single flushing, about 2–50,000 US dollars per unit for rotation), and the maintenance cost is low (about 500–1,000 US dollars/unit per year). High body strength (compressive strength 5–10 MPa) for easy loading and transport, reduced dust pollution (emission < 5 mg/m³). However, the disadvantages include the limitation of the pressing speed due to the powder fluidity (efficiency <80% at a repose angle > 40°) and the need to add a binder to increase the cost (about $10/kg PVA). High pressures can lead to mold wear (replacement every 3–6 months, costing about $100/set) and trace metal contamination (Fe, Cr<20 ppm) can be removed by magnetic separation (magnetic field >1 T) or pickling (0.05 mol/L HNO_3). High energy consumption (0.5–1 kWh/t for single flush, 2–5 kWh/t for rotation) and unsuitable for ultrafine powder (<0.5 μm) molding. In the production of yellow tungsten trioxide, the tablet press ensures the stability and reaction efficiency of the green body (WO_3 yield >95%), and provides reliable support for the catalyst support (specific surface area 10–20 m²/g) and the tungsten powder raw material (purity >99.9%).

7.1.3 High-temperature sintering equipment

High-temperature sintering equipment is at the heart of tungsten production and is used to provide a stable high-temperature environment that promotes the decomposition of raw materials (e.g., $H_2WO_4 \rightarrow WO_3 + H_2O$) and crystallization (e.g., amorphous WO_3 to monoclinic crystal form). The equipment needs to meet the requirements of high temperature (up to 900°C), corrosion resistance (resistance to NH_3, H_2O) and high reliability (5000 hours of continuous operation> while ensuring the quality (impurities < 50 ppm) and yield (>95%) of WO_3 crystals. The high-temperature furnace is the main force of the sintering equipment, combined with the temperature control system to achieve precise process management, which is suitable for small laboratory testing (<1 kg/batch) to industrial mass production (>1 t/batch).

7.1.3.1 High-temperature furnaces

The high-temperature furnace is the core sintering equipment for the preparation of yellow tungsten trioxide by high-temperature solid-state reaction method, which provides a high-temperature environment for the decomposition of raw materials and WO_3 crystallization through electric heating or gas heating. The design needs to take into account temperature uniformity, atmosphere control, and energy efficiency optimization to ensure that the crystal form (monoclinic, orthogonal) and particle size (0.1–10 μm) of WO_3 meet the needs of the application (e.g., catalysts, tungsten powder feedstocks).

The working principle of the high-temperature furnace is based on the conversion of electrical or chemical energy into heat energy by electric heating elements (such as silicon carbon rods, molybdenum wires) or gas burners, heating the furnace to 400–800°C and inducing a solid-phase reaction of the raw material. In the production of tungsten, muffle furnaces, rotary tube furnaces and push plate furnaces are commonly used. The muffle furnace is suitable for laboratory and small batch production (0.1–10 kg/batch), the rotary tube furnace is suitable for continuous pilot (50–500 kg/h), and the push-plate furnace supports large-scale production (>1 t/h). In the case of a muffle furnace (type SX2-10-12), the structure consists of a furnace body (shell of cold-rolled steel, temperature resistant > 200°C), furnace chamber (alumina fiber, thermal conductivity < 0.2 W/m·K), heating element (silicon carbon rod, maximum temperature 1400°C), crucible (alumina, purity > 99.5%) and exhaust system (corrosion-resistant pipes, resistant to NH_3). The furnace size (0.01–0.5 m^3) is designed according to the capacity and the inner walls are coated with refractory materials (e.g. ZrO_2 coating, temperature resistant > 1000 °C) to reduce contamination (Fe, Al< 20 ppm). During the reaction, the raw material (density 2.5–3.5 g/cm^3) is placed in a crucible and heated in an air or oxygen atmosphere (O_2>20%) to produce WO_3 (yield >95%).

The process starts with loading. The formed tungstic acid or APT body (diameter 10–50 mm, thickness 3–10 mm) is evenly placed in the furnace chamber by means of a tray or automatic conveyor, and the charging density is controlled at 0.5–1 kg/L to avoid uneven heat conduction (temperature deviation of > 10°C) due to accumulation. The furnace chamber is preheated to 100–200 °C (heating rate 5 °C/min) to remove residual moisture (<1 wt%), followed by 5–10 °C/min to 500–700 °C and incubated for 2–4 hours. During the reaction, the oxygen flow rate in the furnace (0.1–1 L/min) is regulated by a flow meter (±1% accuracy) to ensure complete oxidation (WO_2 content <0.1%). The NH_3 and H_2O produced by the decomposition are exported by the exhaust system (100–500 m^3/h) and treated with a dilute acid absorption tower (H_2SO_4, 0.5 mol/L) (NH_3 removal rate >98%). After sintering, the furnace chamber was cooled to room temperature at 3–5°C/min, and the WO_3 product was collected and the crystal form (monoclinic, plane spacing 0.38 nm), particle size (D50=1–5 μm), and purity (>99.9%) were detected by X-ray diffraction (XRD), scanning electron microscopy (SEM), and inductively coupled plasma (ICP-MS). The unqualified product (crystal form deviation >5%) is returned for grinding and re-sintering.

The optimization of key parameters is crucial for WO_3 quality. The sintering temperature needs to be precisely controlled at 500–700°C, and fine particles (0.1–1 μm, specific surface area 10–20 m^2/g) are generated at 500–600°C, which are suitable for catalysts. Larger particles (5–10 μm, specific surface area <10 m^2/g) are generated at 700°C for tungsten powder feedstock. The temperature deviation needs to be <±5°C, and too much (>±10°C) will lead to uneven crystal form (monoclinic/orthogonal mixing rate > 10%). The holding time is controlled at 2–4 hours, which is too short (<1 hour) and will cause incomplete decomposition (H_2WO_4 residue >1 wt%), and too long (>6 hours) will cause grain agglomeration (D50>10 μm). The partial pressure of oxygen needs to be > 0.2 atm, below which low-valence oxides (e.g., $W_{18}O_{49}$, > 0.5%) may be generated. The thickness of the green charge < 50 mm, and too thick (>100 mm) will result in an under-reactive central area (yield < 90%). The thermal conductivity of the furnace chamber needs to be < 0.3 W/m·K to ensure energy efficiency (heat loss < 10%). The exhaust gas treatment efficiency needs to be >98% to ensure that NH_3 emissions < 5 mg/m^3, in line with environmental protection standards (GB 16297-1996).

The advantage of the high-temperature furnace is the wide temperature range (200–1400°C) and the adaptability to a wide range of raw materials (tungstriate, APT, recyclate) and crystal form requirements (monoclinic, orthogonal). The equipment has high stability (continuous operation > 5000 hours, failure rate <1%), high yield (>95%), suitable for small test (0.1 kg/batch) to mass production (>1 t/h). The investment in muffle furnaces is low (about 50 million to 20,000 US dollars/unit), and the rotary furnaces and push furnaces support continuous production (capacity 1–10 t/h). WO_3 has a high purity (> 99.95%) and meets the requirements of catalysts (specific surface area > 10 m^2/g) and tungsten products (impurities < 50 ppm). However, the disadvantages include higher energy consumption (500–1000 kWh/t for muffle furnaces and 300–600 kWh/t for rotary furnaces) and optimized thermal efficiency (target >80%). High temperatures may cause the furnace material to deteriorate (alumina fiber life < 2 years and cost about $1000/$m^3$). Tail gas treatment increases costs (about US$ 50–100/t). It is difficult to control the grain size (deviation > 20%), and an accurate temperature field is required. In the production of yellow tungsten trioxide, high-temperature furnaces ensure efficient reactions and product quality, but energy consumption and automation need to be optimized to improve economy.

7.1.3.1 Temperature control systems

The temperature control system is the nerve center of the high-temperature furnace, which is responsible for monitoring and regulating the furnace temperature in real time, ensuring the stability of the sintering process and the precise formation of WO_3 crystal forms. The performance of the system has a direct impact on temperature uniformity (deviation <±5°C), reaction efficiency (yield >95%) and energy consumption (<1000 kWh/t).

The operating principle of the temperature control system is based on a closed-loop feedback mechanism, where sensors, controllers, and actuators work together. Thermocouples (type K or S with an accuracy of ± 1°C) act as sensors to monitor the furnace temperature (400–800°C) in real time and transmit the signal to a programmable logic controller (PLC, e.g. Siemens S7-1200, response time < 0.1 seconds). The PLC calculates the deviation according to the set temperature curve (heating, heat preservation, cooling), outputs the control signal to the actuator (such as the thyristor power regulator, the power adjustment accuracy is ±0.5%), and adjusts the current (10–100 A) of the heating element (silicon carbon rod, resistance 0.1–1 Ω) to achieve dynamic temperature control. The system supports multi-stage program control (10–20 stages, heating rate 0.1–20°C/min) to ensure that the reaction is carried out in stages (e.g., APT decomposition 200–400°C, WO_3crystallization 500–700°C). To increase reliability, the system is equipped with an alarm module (automatic power-off at 10°C over temperature ±) and data logging (storage > 1 year, sampling frequency 1 Hz).

The process starts with system calibration. The thermocouple is mounted in the center and edge of the furnace chamber (50 mm from the body< 50 mm) and is calibrated to an accuracy of ±1°C, verified using a standard platinum resistance (PT100, error < 0.5°C). Set the temperature curve: preheat at 100–200°C (5°C/min, hold for 30 minutes), sinter at 400–600°C (5–10°C/min, hold for 2–4 hours), and cool to room temperature (3–5°C/min). After the green body is loaded, the PLC is started, and the system automatically executes the program, and the temperature curve is displayed in real time (error <± 2°C). During the reaction, the thermocouple signal is monitored (refresh rate 0.5 seconds) and the power is automatically adjusted (5–10% increase or decrease) if the deviation is > 5°C. The exhaust gas flow rate (0.1–1 L/min) is linked to the temperature to avoid overpressure (>0.1 MPa). After sintering, the system records data (temperature, time, power) for quality traceability. Product testing (XRD, SEM) confirmed the crystal form (monoclinic, plane spacing 0.38 nm) and particle size (D50=1–5 µm).

The optimization of key parameters is crucial to the effectiveness of temperature control. Thermocouple accuracy needs to be ± 1°C and the response time < 1 second, too slow (>2 seconds) will cause a temperature lag (deviation of > 10°C). The temperature deviation is controlled at ±5°C, too large (>±10°C) can lead to uneven crystal form (monoclinic/orthogonal mixing rate >10%) or yield loss (<90%). The heating rate is 5–10°C/min, too fast (>20°C/min) will cause cracking of the green body (scrap rate >5%), too slow (<2°C/min) will prolong the cycle time (>6 hours). The PLC sampling frequency > 1 Hz to ensure a dynamic response (adjustment cycle< 0.5 seconds). The heating element power needs to be matched to the furnace volume (10–50 kW/m³), too low will result in insufficient temperature rise (<400 °C) and too high will increase energy consumption (> 1000 kWh/t). The system needs to be equipped with redundant thermocouples (at least 2 thermocouples/zone) to prevent a single point of failure (failure rate < 0.1%). Ambient temperature (<40°C) and humidity (<80%) should be controlled to avoid overheating or short circuiting of the controller.

The advantages of the temperature control system are high accuracy (deviation <± 5 °C), support for complex processes (multi-segment curves, accuracy ± 0.1 °C) and stable WO_3 crystal form (monoclinic ratio > 95%). Fast response speed (<0.1 seconds), adapt to changes in raw materials (tungstic acid, APT). The PLC has high reliability (MTBF > 100,000 hours) and supports remote monitoring (data transmission delay < 1 second). The system is moderately expensive (about $1,000–5,000/set) and simple to maintain (about $200 per year). However, the disadvantages include the aging of thermocouples (< 1 year and the cost of about $50 per unit) and the need for regular calibration (every 6 months). Complex furnaces (rotary furnaces) require multi-point temperature measurement (> 5 thermocouples), which increases the cost (about 500 USD/point). The energy consumption optimization depends on the algorithm (PID parameter K_p=0.5–1), and the debugging is complex (it takes > 24 hours). In the production of yellow tungsten trioxide, the temperature control system ensures the stability and efficiency of the sintering (yield > 95%), and provides technical support for high-purity WO_3 (>99.95%) and catalysts.

7.1.4 Atmosphere control equipment

Atmosphere control equipment is used in the production of yellow tungsten trioxide to create and maintain a specific reaction atmosphere to ensure complete oxidation of raw materials to WO_3 while preventing contamination by impurities (e.g. carbon, sulfur) and crystal defects. The equipment needs to be highly hermetic (leakage rate <0.01 L/min), precise gas flow control (accuracy ±1%) and corrosion resistance (NH_3, HCl resistance). The atmosphere furnace implements atmosphere management through an integrated gas path and furnace design, while the gas supply system supplies the pure gas and regulates its parameters, which together guarantee process stability and WO_3 quality (specific surface area 5–20 m^2/g).

7.1.4.1 Atmosphere furnaces

The atmosphere furnace is the core atmosphere control equipment for the preparation of yellow tungsten trioxide by high-temperature solid-state reaction method, which provides a stable oxygen-rich environment (oxygen concentration > 20%) for raw material sintering through a sealed furnace and a controllable gas path system. The design needs to take into account high temperature tolerance (400–800°C), atmosphere uniformity and exhaust gas treatment capability to ensure high purity (>99.9%) and yield (>95%) of WO_3.

The working principle of the atmosphere furnace is based on the dynamic equilibrium of the gases in the furnace chamber. The furnace chamber is heated to 500–700°C by electric heating (silicon carbon rod, maximum temperature 1400°C), and air or pure oxygen (flow rate 0.1–5 L/min) is introduced into the gas supply system to maintain a partial pressure of oxygen > 0.2 atm and promote the oxidation of raw materials (e.g. $H_2WO_4 \rightarrow$). $WO_3 + H_2O$）。 The NH_3 and H_2O produced by the reaction are exported through the exhaust port (pipe material 316L stainless steel, corrosion resistant), and the exhaust gas is treated by an absorption device (removal rate >98%). Common types of atmosphere furnaces include chamber furnaces (small batches, 0.1–10 kg/batch), tubular atmosphere furnaces (pilot scale, 10–100 kg/h) and continuous atmosphere furnaces (mass production, > 500 kg/h). In the case of a chamber furnace (type such as GSL-1200X), the structure consists of a furnace body (double steel shell, insulation thickness >50 mm), furnace chamber (alumina fiber, thermal conductivity < 0.2 W/m·K), sealing system (silicone O-ring, air leakage rate <0.005 L/min), gas circuit (stainless steel tube, inner diameter 6–12 mm) and heating element (silicon carbon rod, power 5–20 kW). The inner wall of the furnace chamber is coated with ZrO_2 (thickness 0.5–1 mm, temperature resistance > 1000°C) to reduce contamination (Fe, Al<20 ppm).

The process begins with the preparation of the furnace. The furnace chamber is pre-cleaned (compressed air at a pressure of 0.5 MPa) to remove residual dust (<1 mg/cm²) and the crucible (alumina, purity > 99.5%) is loaded into the moulding body (tungstic acid or APT, density 2.5–3.5 g/cm³, thickness <50 mm). Close the furnace door and check the tightness (vacuum< 10 Pa, hold for > 10 min). Nitrogen (purity>99.99%, flow rate 1–2 L/min) was introduced to replace air (oxygen concentration <1%) for 5–10 minutes. Heating is then initiated, heated to 100–200 °C (5°C/min) to remove water (<1 wt%), then raised to 500–600°C at 5–10°C/min, introduced with air or oxygen (flow 0.2–1 L/min, oxygen concentration 20–30%), and insulated for 2–4 hours. During the reaction, NH_3 and H_2O were exported from the exhaust system (air volume 200–1000 m³/h), and the exhaust gas was absorbed by dilute acid (H_2SO_4, 0.5 mol/L, NH_3 removal rate >98%). After sintering, the furnace chamber was cooled at 3–5°C/min, and WO_3 was collected and detected by X-ray diffraction (XRD), scanning electron microscopy (SEM), and inductively coupled plasma (ICP-MS), crystal form (monoclinic, plane spacing 0.38 nm), particle size (D50=1–5 μm), and purity (>99.9%).

The optimization of key parameters has a direct impact on the atmosphere effect. Oxygen concentrations of 20–30% are required, too low (<15%) will result in low-valence oxides (WO_2 content > 0.5%), and too high (>50%) will increase costs (about US$ 0.5/m³ for oxygen). The gas flow rate is controlled at 0.2–1 L/min, too large (>5 L/min) will lead to overpressure in the furnace (>0.1 MPa) and too small (<0.1 L/min) will cause an uneven atmosphere. The leakage rate of the furnace sealing needs to be < 0.005 L/min to ensure that the oxygen utilization rate is > 95%. The sintering temperature is 500–600 °C, the deviation is <± 5 °C, and too large (>±10 °C) will lead to uneven crystal form. The discharge pressure should be 0.01–0.05 MPa to avoid exhaust gas backflow contamination products (NH_3 residue < 10 ppm). The charge density of the green body < 1 kg/L, and too high (>2 kg/L) will hinder the diffusion of the gas (yield < 90%). The gas path material needs to be corrosion-resistant to ensure long-term stability.

The advantages of atmosphere furnaces are precise atmosphere control (oxygen concentration deviation <5%), support for a variety of processes (air, pure oxygen, nitrogen protection), and ensure WO_3 purity (> 99.95%) and crystal form stability (monoclinic ratio >95%). The equipment is highly adaptable, with chamber furnaces suitable for laboratories (0.1–10 kg/batch) and continuous furnaces for mass production (>500 kg/h). Exhaust gas treatment is highly efficient (NH_3 emission <5 mg/m³) and meets environmental standards (GB 16297-1996). However, its disadvantages include high energy consumption (500–1000 kWh/t) and complex maintenance of the sealing system (O-rings are replaced every 6 months, costing about $50 per ring). High temperature corrosion can lead to furnace aging (alumina fiber life < 2 years, cost about $1000/m³). The uniformity of the atmosphere depends on the gas circuit design, and complex furnaces (rotary furnaces) require multiple intakes (cost about $500/point). In the production of yellow tungsten trioxide, the atmosphere furnace ensures a stable reaction environment and reliably supports the high quality of WO_3 (specific surface area 10–20 m²/g).

7.1.4.2 Gas supply systems

The gas supply system is the supporting equipment of the atmosphere furnace, which is responsible for providing pure reaction gases (such as oxygen, air, nitrogen) and precisely adjusting their flow, pressure and composition to create a stable oxidizing atmosphere for the production of yellow tungsten trioxide. The performance of the system has a direct impact on reaction efficiency (yield >95%) and WO_3 mass (low-valent oxide <0.1%).

The working principle of the gas supply system is based on gas storage, purification and distribution. The system consists of a gas source (oxygen cylinder, purity > 99.99%, pressure 10–15 MPa), a pressure reducing valve (output pressure 0.1–0.5 MPa, accuracy ± 0.01 MPa), a mass flow controller (MFC, accuracy ±1%), tubing (304 stainless steel, 4–10 mm I.D.), and a filter (pore size 0.01 μm, removal rate > 99.9%). After oxygen or air is depressurized through the pressure reducing valve, impurities are removed through a filter (moisture < 10 ppm, oil content < 0.01 ppm) and fed into the furnace chamber by MFC regulated flow rate (0.1–10 L/min). The system is equipped with a pressure sensor (accuracy ±0.5 kPa) and an oxygen analyzer (range 0–100%, accuracy ±0.1%) to monitor the furnace atmosphere (oxygen concentration 20–30%) in real time. For safety, the system consists of a pressure relief valve (trigger pressure >0.6 MPa) and an emergency shut-off valve (response time < 0.1 seconds).

The process starts with a gas inspection. Oxygen cylinder or air compressor (pressure > 5 MPa) is connected to the system, and the air tightness of the pipeline is checked (air leakage rate < 0.001 L/min). Start the filter (3–6 months replacement cycle) to ensure gas purity (N_2, CO_2<5 ppm). The MFC flow rate (0.2–1 L/min) was set, adjusted according to the furnace volume (0.01–1 m^3), and the initial nitrogen gas (1–2 L/min, 5 min) was used to displace the air (oxygen concentration <1%). After heating to 100–200 °C, switch to air or oxygen (oxygen concentration 20–30%), monitored by an oxygen analyzer (sampling frequency 1 Hz). During the reaction, the pressure was maintained at 0.01–0.05 MPa with a flow deviation of <±5%. The exhaust gas is exported through the exhaust port, and the system records the flow and concentration data (stored > 1 month). At the end of the reaction, nitrogen gas (0.5 L/min) is used to cool down to prevent excessive oxidation. Regular maintenance of the equipment (every 6 months, cost about $200), replacement of filters and seals (silicone, life < 1 year).

The optimization of key parameters is essential for atmosphere control. Oxygen flow rates are 0.2–1 L/min, too high (>5 L/min) increases costs (about US$ 0.5/m^3), and too low (<0.1 L/min) leads to insufficient oxidation (WO_2 content > 0.5%). MFC accuracy needs to be ±1%, and a deviation of >±5% will cause atmospheric fluctuations (oxygen concentration deviation > 10%). The purity of the gas > 99.99%, impurities (H_2O, CO_2>10 ppm) may contaminate the product (C<50 ppm). The pipeline pressure is controlled at 0.1–0.5 MPa, too high (>1 MPa) will cause leakage (>0.01 L/min), too low (<0.05 MPa) will affect the flow stability (<90%). The oxygen analyzer response time is <1 second, ensuring real-time feedback (error < 0.1%). The filter pore size < 0.01 μm prevents particulate clogging of the MFC (flow error >5%). The air circuit material needs to be corrosion-resistant (304SS, corrosion rate <0.005 mm/year) to ensure a life of > 10 years.

The advantages of the gas supply system are precise control (flow rate deviation of <±1%, oxygen concentration deviation of <5%), support for a wide range of gases (O_2, N_2, air), and WO_3 purity (>99.95%) and crystal form (monoclinic ratio >95%). The system has high reliability (MTBF > 50,000 hours) and simple operation (automation degree > 90%). The cost is moderate (about $1,000–5,000/set) and the maintenance is low (about $200 per year). However, its disadvantages include the high cost of gas consumption (about $0.5/m³ for oxygen and $0.2/m³ for nitrogen). Filters and MFCs need to be replaced regularly (every 3–6 months, at a cost of about $100 per unit). Complex furnace type (continuous) requires multiple gas paths (>5 circuits, the cost is about 500 US dollars/circuit), which increases the investment. In the production of yellow tungsten trioxide, the gas supply system provides a stable gas source for the atmosphere furnace, ensuring high reaction efficiency and product quality (yield > 95%).

7.1.5 Cooling equipment

Cooling equipment in tungsten production is used to safely reduce the high-temperature WO_3 product (500–700 °C) to room temperature (<40 °C) after sintering by high-temperature solid-phase reaction to avoid crystal defects, thermal stress cracking or excessive oxidation, and to ensure product quality (purity>99.9%, polymorphic monoclinic or orthogonal). The cooling process requires controlled rate (2–10°C/min) and ambient (oxygen concentration <30%) to maintain the physicochemical stability of WO_3 (specific surface area 5–20 m²/g). The equipment needs to have a stable cooling capacity, low energy consumption (<100 kWh/t) and high reliability (> 5000 hours of continuous operation) while preventing contamination by impurities (Fe, C< 20 ppm). The main cooling equipment includes natural cooling device and forced cooling equipment, the former uses the environment to dissipate heat and is suitable for small batch production (<10 kg/batch); The latter is suitable for continuous mass production (> 100 kg/h) by means of active heat exchange. The following is a detailed analysis of the role, structure, operation points and technical characteristics of the two types of equipment in the production of yellow tungsten trioxide.

7.1.5.1 Free cooling devices

Free cooling units in tungsten production rely on ambient air or furnace heat dissipation to slowly cool the high-temperature WO_3 product and are widely used in laboratory and small batch production (0.1–10 kg/batch). Its simple design, which requires no additional energy, is suitable for scenarios with low cooling rate requirements (2–5°C/min) to ensure green body integrity and crystal form stability.

Free cooling units are usually integrated into high-temperature furnaces (e.g. muffle furnaces, model SX2-10-12) without the need for separate equipment. The structure consists of a furnace body (double-walled cold-rolled steel shell, thickness 5–10 mm, temperature resistance >200°C), furnace chamber (alumina fiber, thermal conductivity < 0.2 W/m·K, temperature resistance >1200°C), crucible (alumina, purity > 99.5%, thermal conductivity 20 W/m·K) and exhaust port (316L stainless steel, inner diameter 10–50 mm). The operating principle is based on the transfer of heat from the high-temperature WO_3 (500–700 °C) to the environment (20–30 °C) through the crucible and furnace. After sintering, the heating element (silicon carbon rod, power 5–20 kW) is switched off and the WO_3 body (density 2.5–3.5 g/cm^3, mass 0.1–10 kg) is cooled in the crucible by natural convection (air velocity 0.1–0.5 m/s) and radiative heat dissipation. The inner wall of the furnace chamber is coated with ZrO_2 (thickness 0.5–1 mm, temperature resistance > 1000°C) to reduce metal contamination. The cooling rate is determined by the warmth of the furnace chamber and is typically 2–5°C/min and takes 4–8 hours to drop to <40°C.

The operation process begins with the end of sintering. After the high-temperature furnace has completed WO_3 sintering (500–600°C, holding for 2–4 hours), the heating power is turned off, and the furnace chamber is kept sealed (air leakage rate <0.005 L/min) to avoid contamination by external moisture (relative humidity <80%) or dust (concentration <5 mg/m^3). The green body (diameter 10–50 mm, thickness 3–10 mm) is evenly placed in the crucible with a charging density of < 1 kg/L to ensure air circulation (convection coefficient 5–10 W/m^2· K)。 The exhaust port is slightly open (10–20% opening), the slight positive pressure (0.01–0.02 MPa) is maintained, and residual NH_3 or H_2O (concentration < 10 ppm) is discharged. During cooling, the furnace door is closed and the ambient temperature is controlled at 20–30°C (fluctuating <±5°C) to avoid cracking of the green body due to too fast cooling (>10°C/min) (scrap rate <2%). After cooling to <40°C, the furnace door was opened, WO_3 was collected, and the crystal form (monoclinic, plane spacing 0.38 nm), particle size (D50=1–5 μm), and purity (>99.9%) were detected by X-ray diffraction (XRD), scanning electron microscopy (SEM), and inductively coupled plasma (ICP-MS). The unqualified product (crack rate >5%) is returned to grinding and re-sintering.

The optimization of key parameters is crucial for the cooling effect. The cooling rate needs to be 2–5°C/min, and too fast (>10°C/min) will lead to thermal stress (compressive strength <5 MPa) and crack (>5%). Too slow (<1°C/min) to extend the cycle (>12 hours) reduces efficiency (<80%). The thickness of the furnace insulation layer is >50 mm, and the thermal conductivity is < 0.2 W/m·K, ensuring a heat loss of <10%. The charging thickness of the green body < 50 mm, and the overthickness (>100 mm) will lead to the central cooling hysteresis (temperature deviation > 20°C) and affect the homogeneity of the crystal form (monoclinic ratio <90%). The ambient humidity < 80%, too high (>90%) may cause WO_3 hygroscopicity (moisture content > 0.5 wt%). The exhaust pressure was 0.01–0.02 MPa, too high (>0.05 MPa) accelerated heat dissipation (rate > 10°C/min), too low (<0.005 MPa) led to exhaust gas retention (NH_3>20 ppm). The crucible material needs to be of high purity (Al_2O_3>99.5%) and avoid impurities.

The advantages of free cooling units are zero energy consumption (≈0 kWh/t) and low operating costs (maintenance < $100/year). Low investment ($500 additional <cost for integration in a high-temperature furnace) for small batches (0.1–10 kg/batch). Mild cooling, >98% integrity of the green body, stable crystal form (monoclinic ratio >95%), meet the needs of catalyst (specific surface area 10–20 m^2/g) and tungsten powder raw material (purity >99.9%). However, its disadvantages include a long cooling time (4–8 hours) and unsuitability for fast production (efficiency < 50 kg/h). The cooling rate is difficult to precisely control (deviation ± 2°C/min) and depends on environmental conditions (crack rate >5% at temperature fluctuation >±5°C). Large furnaces (>0.5 m^3) are cooled unevenly (temperature difference > 20°C), which affects consistency (particle size deviation >20%). In tungsten production, free cooling units support small-scale processes with low cost and high reliability.

7.1.5.2 Forced cooling equipment

Forced cooling equipment in tungsten production rapidly reduces the temperature of WO_3 products through active heat transfer (e.g., air cooling, water cooling), and is suitable for medium-to-large-scale continuous production (100 kg/h–10 t/h). Its design focuses on efficient heat dissipation and controllable rates (5–10°C/min) to ensure crystal quality (purity>99.95%) and production efficiency.

Forced cooling equipment is usually a stand-alone system or a companion module to a high-temperature furnace, including an air-cooled heat exchanger and a water-cooled jacketed furnace. The air-cooled system purges the body with air driven by a fan (flow rate of 1–5 m/s) and the water-cooled unit absorbs heat through circulating water (5–20°C). Taking the air-cooled heat exchanger (model FC-500) as an example, its structure includes a cooling chamber (304 stainless steel, temperature resistance > 800°C), a fan (power 5–20 kW, air volume 1000–5000 m^3/h), a heat exchanger tube (copper, thermal conductivity> 300 W/m·K), a filter (pore size 0.1 mm, removal rate >99%) and a control valve (accuracy ±5%). The operating principle is based on forced convection, where the WO_3 body (500–700°C) is heated by air in a cooling chamber (convection coefficient 50–200 $W/m^2 \cdot K$), 30–60 minutes to cool to <40°C. The water-cooled jacket furnace (model WC-1000) has a water-cooled tube (inner diameter 10–20 mm, flow rate 1–10 m^3/h) embedded in the outer wall of the furnace chamber and a water heat capacity (4.18 kJ/kg· K) Absorb heat at a cooling rate of 5–15°C/min.

The process begins with a post-sintering transfer. The WO_3 body (500–600 °C, 10–1000 kg) is moved to the cooling chamber via a conveyor belt (temperature > 800°C, speed 0.1–0.5 m/min) with a loading density of < 1 kg/L. The air-cooled plant starts the fan (1000–3000 m^3/h) and the air is purged through a filter (removal rate >99%), with a cooling rate of 5–10°C/min. The temperature sensor (type K thermocouple, accuracy ± 1°C) real-time monitoring (1 Hz), PLC (Siemens S7-1200, response <0.1 seconds) to adjust the air volume (error <±5%). The water-cooled plant starts the pump (1–5 kW) with a water temperature of 5–15°C, a flow rate of 2–5 m^3/h, and a jacket pressure of 0.1–0.3 MPa. After cooling to <40°C, the green body is collected and the crack rate (<2%) and hardness (compressive strength > 5 MPa) are checked. The product was detected by XRD, SEM and ICP-MS for crystal form (monoclinic, plane spacing 0.38 nm), particle size (D50=1–5 μm) and purity (>99.95%). Exhaust gases (NH_3<5 ppm) are discharged through a dust collector (>99% efficiency) and recycled water testing (pH 6–8) to avoid corrosion (pipe life > 5 years).

The optimization of key parameters is crucial for the cooling effect. The cooling rate is 5–10 °C/min, too fast (>15 °C/min) leads to cracking (>5%), too slow (<3 °C/min) and low efficiency (<100 kg/h). The air volume is 1000–3000 m^3/h, too large (>5000 m^3/h), high energy consumption (>100 kWh/t), too small (<500 m^3/h) and uneven cooling (temperature difference > 20°C). The flow rate of water cooling is 2–5 m^3/h, the pipe vibration is too high (>10 m^3/h) (amplitude>1 mm), and the heat dissipation is insufficient (<1 m^3/h) (rate <5°C/min). The air or water temperature is 5–20°C, too high (>30°C) and the heat exchange efficiency is low (<50%). The tightness of the cooling chamber requires an air leakage rate of <0.01 L/min to prevent contamination by moisture (>80%) or dust (>5 mg/m^3). The cleanliness of the heat exchanger tube is < 0.5 μm to avoid dust accumulation (>0.1 g/cm^2). PLC accuracy ± 1°C to ensure consistency (deviation < 10°C).

The advantages of forced cooling plants are their high speed (30–60 minutes), their suitability for continuous production (100 kg/h–10 t/h) and their high efficiency (>95%). The rate is controllable (5–15°C/min, deviation <±1°C/min), the integrity rate of the green body is >98%, and the crystal form is stable (monoclinic ratio >95%). It supports large capacities (10–1000 kg/batch) to meet the needs of catalysts (specific surface area 10–20 m²/g) and tungsten powder raw materials (purity > 99.95%). However, its disadvantages include high energy consumption (50–100 kWh/t air-cooled, 20–50 kWh/t water-cooled) and operating costs of $10–20/t. The investment is large (1–50,000 US dollars/unit for air cooling, 2–100,000 US dollars/unit for water cooling), and the maintenance is complex (the fan bearing is replaced every 6 months, and the cost is 200 US dollars/unit). Water cooling needs to be corrosion protection (304SS, cost 1000 USD/m), and wastewater treatment costs about 5 USD/m³. Forced cooling equipment supports the mass production process with high efficiency and precision, ensuring WO_3 quality.

7.1.6 Post-processing equipment

Post-processing equipment in yellow tungsten trioxide production is used to refine WO_3 products after high-temperature solid-phase reaction sintering to meet specific particle size, uniformity, and purity requirements (purity>99.9%, D50=1–10 µm). The aim of the post-processing process is to refine, disperse and sort the cooled WO_3 green or bulk product to ensure that it is suitable for downstream applications such as catalysts (specific surface area 10–20 m²/g), tungsten powder raw materials (purity > 99.95%) or optoelectronic materials (particle size deviation < 20%). The equipment needed to be highly efficient (> 95%), low contamination (Fe, C<20 ppm) and stable (5,000 hours of continuous operation> while controlling dust (concentration < 5 mg/m³) to meet environmental standards. The post-processing equipment mainly consists of grinding equipment, which refines WO_3 to the target particle size, and screening equipment, which ensures uniform particle size distribution. The following is a detailed analysis of the function, structure, operation points and technical characteristics of grinding equipment and screening equipment in the production of yellow tungsten trioxide, combined with professional data and industrial applications.

7.1.6.1 Grinding equipment

Grinding equipment in tungsten production is used to further refine the cooled WO_3 green body or coarse particles (particle size 0.1–10 mm) to the micron scale (D50=1–10 µm) to improve the specific surface area and dispersion to meet the particle size requirements of catalysts, optoelectronic materials or tungsten powder production. The grinding equipment needs to ensure low impurity contamination (Fe<20 ppm) and controlled agglomeration (dispersion > 90%).

The grinding equipment mainly uses planetary ball mills, jet mills or vibratory mills, of which planetary ball mills are widely used in the production of yellow tungsten trioxide due to their high precision and flexibility, and are suitable for small and medium-sized batches (0.1–100 kg/batch). In the case of the planetary ball mill (model QM-3SP4), the structure consists of a grinding tank (zirconia, volume 0.5–5 L, purity >99.5%), grinding balls (zirconia, diameter 3–10 mm, hardness HRC 85–90), main disc (stainless steel, revolution speed 150–300 rpm) and drive motor (power 1–5 kW). The operating principle is based on the centrifugal force (10–20 g) generated by the rotation of the grinding tank (300–600 rpm) and revolution, and the WO_3 particles are refined under the impact of the grinding ball, shear and friction. The inner wall of the grinding jar and the grinding ball are made of zirconia to reduce metal contamination (Fe, Zr<10 ppm). Dry grinding can be done or wet grinding (medium is ethanol or deionized water, solid-liquid ratio 1:1–1:2), and wet grinding is more suitable for yellow tungsten trioxide to reduce agglomeration (particle dispersion > 95%).

The process begins with the preparation of raw materials. The cooled WO_3 body (sintered at 500–600°C, density 2.5–3.5 g/cm³) is pretreated with a moisture content of <1% by primary crushing (jaw crusher, output D50=0.1–1 mm) to prevent bonding. WO_3 was loaded into the mill jar with a pellet-to-material ratio of 10:1–15:1, and ethanol (purity>99.5%, solid-liquid ratio 1:1.5) was added as the wet grinding medium, and the grinding jar filling rate was 30–50%. The ball mill is set to rotate at 400–600 rpm and grinds for 4–8 hours, depending on the target particle size (D50=1–5 μm). After grinding, the slurry is separated by vacuum filtration (pore size 0.1 μm) or centrifugation (4000 rpm), and the solids are dried at 80–100°C for 6–12 hours to obtain micron-sized powders. The particle size distribution (D90<10 μm) and morphology (agglomeration rate <5%) were detected by laser particle size analyzer (accuracy ±1%) and SEM of the dried powder. The grinding process needs to be equipped with a cooling system (water cooling, temperature < 50°C) to prevent overheating (>100°C) and crystal form changes (monoclinic ratio < 90%). The waste liquid (ethanol) is recovered and distilled (recovery rate >90%), and the dust is controlled by a bag filter (efficiency > 99%) (emission < 5 mg/m³).

The optimization of key parameters is crucial for grinding results. The ball diameter is 3–10 mm, which is too large (>15 mm) resulting in insufficient refinement (D50>10 μm) and too small (<2 mm) and low efficiency (grinding time > 12 hours). The pellet-to-pellet ratio is 10:1–15:1, too high (>20:1) increases wear (ZrO_2<0.01 wt%), and too low (<5:1) prolongs the cycle time (>12 hours). The rotational speed is 400–600 rpm, too high (>800 rpm) causes vibration (amplitude >2 mm) and heat generation, too low (<300 rpm) and low efficiency (<70%). Wet mill ethanol reduces agglomeration (dispersion >95%), but is costly ($2/L); Water mills should be pH 6–8 to avoid WO_3 dissolution (loss >1%). The grinding time is 4–8 hours, too long (> 12 hours) introduces impurities (Zr<20 ppm) and too short (<2 hours) with uneven particle size (D90>20 μm). The material of the grinding jar should be wear-resistant (ZrO_2, abrasion rate <0.005 g/h) and ensure purity (> 99.9%).

The advantages of the grinding equipment are precise particle size control (D50=1–10 μm, deviation <15%), high uniformity (D90/D10<3), and the need for catalysts (specific surface area >15 m²/g) and optoelectronic materials (particle size deviation<20%). The equipment is flexible, with planetary ball mills for small batches (0.1–100 kg/batch) and jet mills for mass production (> 500 kg/h). Stable operation (failure rate <1%), simple maintenance (annual cost of about 1000 US dollars/unit). However, the disadvantages include high energy consumption (100–200 kWh/t) and drying (50 kWh/t) for wet grinding. Abrasion can introduce impurities (Zr, Fe<20 ppm) and require magnetic separation (magnetic field > 1.5 T) or pickling (0.05 mol/L HNO_3). Long grinding time (4–8 hours) makes it unsuitable for fast production. Noise (70–90 dB) should be soundproofed (<55 dB). The grinding equipment provides efficient refinement for the post-treatment of yellow tungsten trioxide, ensuring product quality (yield > 95%).

7.1.6.2 Screening equipment

Screening equipment in tungsten production is used to sort the ground WO_3 powder by particle size, to remove oversized or ultra-fine particles, and to ensure uniform particle size distribution (D50=1–10 μm, D90<15 μm) to meet the specifications of downstream applications (e.g. tungsten powder, catalysts). The screening plant needs to be high throughput (>100 kg/h) and low contamination (Fe<10 ppm).

The screening equipment mainly uses vibrating screens or ultrasonic screens, which are widely used in the production of yellow tungsten trioxide due to their high efficiency and cost-effectiveness, and are suitable for medium and large scale (100 kg/h–1 t/h). In the case of a vibrating screen (model ZS-1000), the structure consists of a screen frame (304 stainless steel, diameter 0.5–2 m), a screen (nylon or stainless steel, aperture 5–20 μm), a vibrating motor (power 0.5–2 kW, frequency 20–50 Hz) and an outlet (inclination angle 10–30°). The operating principle is based on a motor driving the vibration of the screen frame (amplitude 2–5 mm), the WO_3 powder is layered on the screen, particles smaller than the pore size pass through, and large particles are trapped. The screen is made of stainless steel (316L, corrosion resistant) or nylon (coefficient of friction< 0.2) to avoid metal contamination (Fe<10 ppm). Multi-layer screens (2–4 layers) enable multi-level classification, e.g. 5 μm, 10 μm, and 20 μm.

The process begins with powder preparation. The ground WO_3 powder (D50=1–10 μm, moisture content <0.5%) is evenly fed into the sieve frame by a screw feeder (speed 0.1–0.5 t/h) with a loading thickness of <50 mm. The vibrating screen is set at a frequency of 30–40 Hz, an amplitude of 3–4 mm, and a screening time of 5–10 minutes/batch. After screening, the good powder (D50=1–5 μm) is collected from the lower outlet, the oversized particles (>20 μm) are returned from the upper discharge for grinding, and the ultrafine particles (<0.5 μm) are processed separately (e.g., photocatalyst). The screening process needs to be equipped with a dust removal system (bag filter, air volume 500–2000 m^3/h) to control dust (emission < 5 mg/m^3, loss <0.5%). The screen is cleaned regularly (ultrasonic, frequency 40 kHz, 5 min) to remove clogging (porosity > 90%). The distribution (D90<15 μm) and morphology (agglomeration <5%) were detected by laser particle size analyzer and SEM. Failed powders (deviation > 20%) are re-screened or ground.

The optimization of key parameters is crucial for the screening results. The mesh pore size is 5–20 μm, too large (>50 μm) leads to coarse particle mixing (>5%), and too small (<2 μm) reduces the flux (<50 kg/h). Vibration frequency 30–40 Hz, too high (>60 Hz) increases noise (>100 dB) and screen wear (life < 6 months), too low (<20 Hz) and low efficiency (<70%). The amplitude is 3–4 mm, too large (>6 mm) leads to powder flying (loss of >1%), and too small (<2 mm) incomplete sieving (residual > 10%). The charge thickness < 50 mm, and the over-thickness (>100 mm) clogs the screen (flux < 80%). The screen material needs to be abrasion resistant (316L, wear rate <0.01 mm/year) and ensure purity (Fe<10 ppm).

The feed rate was 0.1–0.5 t/h, and too fast (>1 t/h) resulted in inaccurate grading (deviation > 20%). The dust collection efficiency > 99%, and the discharge is guaranteed to < 5 mg/m³.

The advantages of the screening equipment are accurate grading (D50 deviation <10%) and high throughput (100 kg/h–1 t/h) for catalysts (D50=1–5 μm) and tungsten powder (D50=5–10 μm). The equipment is simple (investment 0.5-20,000 US dollars/unit), and the maintenance cost is low (about 500 US dollars per year). The multi-layer screen supports multiple specifications (2–4 levels) and is highly adaptable. However, disadvantages include high energy consumption (10–20 kWh/t) and sifter clogging (cleaning every 1–3 months, costing $50/time). Trace abrasion may introduce impurities (Fe<10 ppm) and require magnetic separation (magnetic field > 1 T). Noise (80–100 dB) should be soundproofed (<55 dB). The screening equipment ensures WO_3 particle size uniformity and ensures high-quality post-processing.

7.2 The core equipment for the preparation of yellow tungsten trioxide by sol-gel method

When tungsten yellow (WO_3) is prepared by the sol-gel method, the core equipment needs to support the homogeneous mixing, gelation, drying, and heat treatment of the precursor solution to generate high-purity (>99.9%), nanoscale (particle size 20–200 nm) WO_3 powders or thin films that meet the requirements of photocatalysis (degradation efficiency >85%), sensors (detection limit<1 ppm), and electrochromic (coloring efficiency> 50 cm²/ C) and other application requirements. The sol-gel process uses sodium tungstate (Na_2WO_4) or tungsten chloride (WCl_6) as precursors to form WO_3 through dissolution, acidification, gelation and heat treatment, and the process requires high accuracy (temperature deviation <±1°C), low contamination (Fe<10 ppm) and stability (continuous operation > 5000 hours). The core equipment includes mixing equipment, heating equipment, drying equipment and sintering equipment, etc., this section focuses on the mechanical agitator in the mixing equipment, as well as the constant temperature water bath and oven in the heating equipment, and analyzes its function, structure, operation points and technical characteristics in detail, combined with professional data and industrial applications.

7.2.1 Mixing equipment

Stirring equipment is used to mix precursor solutions (e.g., Na_2WO_4 solution at a concentration of 0.05–0.2 mol/L), acidifiers (e.g., HCl, pH 1–3), and solvents (water or ethanol) in the sol-gel preparation of yellow tungsten trioxide to ensure uniform dispersion of reactants and promote sol formation (colloidal particle size 10–50 nm). The equipment needs to provide stable shear (100–1000 rpm), corrosion resistance (HCl, pH<2) and low contamination (Fe, C<10 ppm) to avoid impurities affecting WO_3 purity (>99.9%). Mechanical agitators are the most commonly used agitators in the sol-gel method due to their efficient mixing and process flexibility.

7.2.1.1 Mechanical agitators

The mechanical agitator rotates the paddle through a motor, providing shear and turbulence to the precursor solution, promoting solute diffusion and uniform formation of sol particles (dispersion > 95%). It is widely used in small-scale (0.1–10 L/batch) and pilot (10–100 L/batch) of tungsten production for laboratory and small- to medium-scale processes.

The mechanical agitator (type JJ-1) consists of a motor (0.1–1 kW power, 50–2000 rpm), a stirring paddle (PTFE or 316 L stainless steel, length 50–300 mm), a stirring shaft (stainless steel clad PTFE, corrosion resistant), and a reaction vessel (glass or stainless steel, volume 0.5–100 L). The operating principle is based on the flow field generated by the rotation of the paddle (shear rate 10–100 s^{-1}), which rapidly mixes Na_2WO_4 with HCl to generate a tungstic acid (H_2WO_4) colloid: $Na_2WO_4 + 2HCl \rightarrow H_2WO_4 + 2NaCl$。 The impeller design (e.g. three-bladed pusher, 20–100 mm diameter) ensures fluid turbulence (Reynolds number > 1000) and avoids local overconcentration (concentration deviation > 10%). PTFE (coefficient of friction< 0.1) prevents metal contamination (Fe<5 ppm) and is acidic (pH 1–14) for acidifying environments (pH 1–3).

The process begins with the preparation of the solution. Na_2WO_4 (purity>99.5%) was dissolved in deionized water (conductivity<10 μS/cm, 0.05–0.2 mol/L), poured into a reaction vessel (glass, temperature resistant >100°C), and ethanol (0–20 vol%) was added to adjust the viscosity (<10 mPa·s). The agitator is fitted with PTFE paddles (cleanliness Ra<0.5 μm), immersed 2/3 below the liquid level, and set at 200–500 rpm. Slowly add HCl dropwise (6 mol/L, drip rate 0.1–0.5 mL/min), control pH 1–3, and stir for 1–2 hours until a homogeneous sol (colloidal particle size 10–50 nm) is formed. During agitation, the container is sealed (air leakage rate < 0.01 L/min) to avoid volatilization (ethanol loss <1%). The sol is transferred to the gelation or coating process, and the agitator is cleaned with deionized water and ethanol (residual < 1 mg/cm²). The process needs to be equipped with a ventilation system (200–500 m³/h) to control the acid mist (HCl<1 mg/m³). The product was detected by dynamic light scattering (DLS) and ultraviolet-visible spectroscopy (UV-Vis) to detect the colloidal particle size and stability (precipitation rate <5%).

Optimization of critical parameters is critical to sol quality. At 200–500 rpm, too high (>1000 rpm) leads to bubbles (volume >5%) and colloidal rupture (particle size deviation >20%), too low (<100 rpm) and uneven mixing (concentration deviation >15%). The blade diameter matches the vessel (1/3–1/2 vessel diameter), too large (>2/3) increases energy consumption (>0.5 kWh/L), and too small (<1/4) reduces efficiency (<80%). The pH is controlled at 1–3, too high (>4) will not form H_2WO_4 (yield <70%), and too low (<1) will produce unstable by-products (WO_2>0.5%). The solution temperature is 20–40 °C, too high (>60 °C) accelerates volatilization (solvent loss >5%), too low (<10 °C) has high viscosity (>20 mPa·s). The mixing time is 1–2 hours, too long (> 4 hours) increases energy consumption (>1 kWh/L), too short (<0.5 hours) and uneven colloids (dispersion < 90%). The propeller material needs to be PTFE or 316L (corrosion rate < 0.01 mm/year) to ensure purity (Fe<5 ppm).

The advantages of the mechanical agitator are homogeneous mixing (dispersion > 95%), adjustable speed (50–2000 rpm), and suitable for a wide range of precursors (Na_2WO_4, WCl_6). The equipment is simple (investment 1000-5000 US dollars/unit), and the maintenance cost is low (about 200 US dollars per year). High efficiency (>90%) for small batch production (0.1–100 L/batch). However, its disadvantages include high energy consumption (0.1–0.5 kWh/L) and unsuitability for very large capacities (>500 L). Propeller wear (PTFE life < 1 year, cost $50/piece) can introduce trace impurities (C<10 ppm). Acid mist needs to be treated (cost about $20/m³). The mechanical agitator provides efficient mixing for the preparation of the yellow wolfram sol, ensuring the quality of the colloid (yield > 95%).

7.2.2 Heating equipment

Heating equipment is used to control the reaction temperature of the solution (20–80 °C), to promote gelation and drying (60–150 °C), and to generate WO_3 (300–500 °C) by heat treatment in the sol-gel preparation of yellow tungsten trioxide. The device needs to provide uniform heating (deviation <±1°C), corrosion resistance (HCl, ethanol resistance) and high stability (failure rate <1%) to ensure the formation of WO_3 nanostructures (particle size 20–200 nm) and crystal form (monoclinic with band gap 2.6–2.8 eV). Thermostatic water baths and ovens are commonly used heating equipment, the former for the solution and gelation stages, and the poster for drying and preliminary heat treatment.

7.2.2.1 Thermostatic water bath

The thermostatic water bath provides stable low-temperature heating (20–80°C) for the sol-gel method for precursor reactions and gelation, promoting homogeneous precipitation of H_2WO_4 colloids (yield >90%). It is suitable for laboratory and small-scale trials (0.1–10 L/batch) and is known for its high accuracy and safety.

The thermostatic water bath (model HH-4) consists of a sink (304 stainless steel, volume 5–50 L, corrosion resistant), heating tube (nichrome, power 0.5–2 kW), thermostat (PID, accuracy ± 0.5°C) and a circulation pump (flow rate 1–5 L/min). The operating principle is based on the high heat capacity of water (4.18 kJ/kg· K) The heat is transferred, the heating tube is heated to a set value (20–80°C), and the circulating pump ensures that the water temperature is uniform (deviation <± 0.5°C). The reaction vessel (glass beaker, 0.1–5 L) is placed in a sink and the solution (eg, Na_2WO_4+HCl, pH 1–3) is stirred at a constant temperature to form a sol or gel. The inner wall of the sink is polished (Ra<0.5 μm) to reduce contamination (Fe<5 ppm). Safety devices include over-temperature protection (power off >85°C) and a level sensor (low water level alarm).

The process begins with the preparation of the equipment. The tank was filled with deionized water (conductivity < 10 μS/cm, filling rate 80–90%), set at 40–60 °C (gelation optimal), and pre-warmed for 10–20 minutes (deviation <± 0.5°C). The reaction vessel was filled with a precursor solution (0.05–0.2 mol/L Na_2WO_4) and placed in a sink below the water level (2–5 cm). The solution was mixed with a stirrer (200–500 rpm), HCl (0.1–0.5 mL/min) was added dropwise to pH 1–3, and a constant temperature of 1–2 hours was used to form a gel (viscosity > 100 mPa·s). During the reaction, the thermostat is monitored (1 Hz) and the circulating pump maintains the water flow (flow rate 0.1–0.2 m/s). The gel is transferred to the drying process and cleaned in the sink drain (residue < 1 mg/cm²). The process requires ventilation (air volume 200 m³/h) and control of acid mist (HCl<1 mg/m³). DLS and UV-Vis were used to detect particle size (10–50 nm) and transparency (>90%).

Optimization of critical parameters is critical to gel quality. The temperature is 40–60 °C, too high (> 80 °C) leads to colloidal decomposition (yield < 80%), too low (<20 °C) and slow reaction (time > 4 hours). The temperature control accuracy ± 0.5°C, and a deviation of >±2°C will lead to uneven colloids (particle size deviation >20%). The sink volume is matched to the container (2–5 times), too small (< 1.5 times) and the heat dissipation is insufficient (deviation >± 2°C). The flow rate of the circulating pump is 1–5 L/min, and the temperature is too low (<0.5 L/min) and the temperature is uneven (>±3°C). The volume of the solution < 1/3 of the volume of the tank, and too large (>1/2) affects the heat transfer (efficiency < 80%). The water quality should be pure (impurities < 10 ppm) and avoid contamination (Ca, Mg< 5 ppm). The power of the heating tube is 0.5–2 kW, and the energy consumption is high (>0.5 kWh/L) if it is too high (>3 kW).

The advantage of a thermostatic water bath is that it is precisely temperature (deviation <± 0.5°C) and is suitable for gelation (yield > 90%). The equipment is simple (investment 500-2000 US dollars/unit), and the maintenance cost is low (about 100 US dollars per year). High safety (0.1 sec for power failure < over temperature) suitable for laboratories (0.1–10 L/batch). However, its disadvantages include high energy consumption (0.1–0.5 kWh/L) and unsuitability for large capacities (>50 L). The sink needs to be descaled regularly (every 3 months, cost $20). The limited temperature range (<100°C) makes it unsuitable for drying or heat treatment. The thermostatic water bath provides a stable environment for the gelation of the yellow tungsten trioxide and ensures the formation of nanostructures.

7.2.2.2 Ovens

The oven is used in the sol-gel method to prepare yellow tungsten trioxide for drying the gel (60–150 °C) or for preliminary heat treatment (200–400 °C) to remove solvents (water, acetol) and organic matter (e.g., PVA, content < 1 wt%) to form an amorphous or crystalline WO_3 (particle size 20–200 nm). It is suitable for small (0.1–10 kg/batch) to pilot (10–100 kg/batch) and is known for its homogeneous heating and flexibility.

The oven (model DGG-9070) consists of a chamber (double-walled steel shell, insulated aluminium silicate, thickness 50 mm), furnace chamber (304 stainless steel, volume 30–500 L), heating tube (nichrome, power 1–5 kW), fan (air volume 200–1000 m^3/h) and thermostat (PID, accuracy ± 1°C). The operating principle is based on the heating of the air by electric heating pipes (thermal conductivity 0.02 W/m·K) and the fan circulation ensures a uniform furnace chamber (deviation <± 2°C). The gel is placed in a tray (alumina, purity>99.5%) and dried at 60–100 °C (6–12 h) or heat treated at 300–400 °C (1–2 h) to form WO_3. The inner wall of the furnace is polished (Ra <0.5 μm) to reduce contamination (Fe<5 ppm). The exhaust port (10–50 mm diameter) discharges volatiles (ethanol, H_2O< 10 ppm).

The process starts with loading. The gel (50–80% moisture) is evenly applied to a tray (thickness < 10 mm) or loaded into a crucible (charge density< 0.5 kg/L) and placed in the furnace. Set temperature 60–100°C (drying) or 300–400°C (heat treatment), heating rate 2–5°C/min, holding for 6–12 hours (drying) or 1–2 hours (heat treatment). Fan operation (500 m^3/h) ensures uniform temperature (deviation <± 2°C).

After drying, the moisture content of WO_3 <1 wt%, crystallized after heat treatment (monoclinic, plane spacing 0.38 nm). The exhaust system (316L stainless steel) releases volatiles and recovers ethanol (>90%) through a condenser (efficiency > 95%). Cooled to <40°C (3–5°C/min), WO_3 was collected, and the crystal form, particle size (D50=20–200 nm), and specific surface area (20–80 m²/g) were detected by X-ray diffraction (XRD), scanning electron microscopy (SEM), and BET. Furnace cleaning (compressed air, residual < 1 mg/cm²), exhaust gas treatment (discharge< 5 mg/m³).

The optimization of key parameters is crucial for WO_3 quality. The drying temperature is 60–100°C, too high (>150°C) leads to gel cracking (>5% rejection rate), too low (<40°C) and long (> 24 hours). The heat treatment temperature is 300–400 °C, too high (>500 °C) grain growth (D50>500 nm), too low (< 200 °C) incomplete crystallization (monoclinic ratio <80%). The temperature control accuracy ± 1°C, and the deviation >± 5°C affects the uniformity (the specific surface area deviation >20%). The heating rate is 2–5°C/min, and the cracking (>5%) is too fast (>10°C/min). The thickness of the tray loading < 10 mm, and the over-thickness (>20 mm) is unevenly dried (moisture content >5 wt%). The fan has an air volume of 200–1000 m³/h and a temperature deviation of >±5°C if it is too low (<100 m³/h). The tray material needs to be of high purity (Al_2O_3>99.5%) to avoid contamination (Si<5 ppm).

The advantages of the oven are the wide temperature range (50–500 °C) and the support for drying and heat treatment (yield > 95%). Homogeneous heating (deviation <±2°C) suitable for nanometer WO_3 (specific surface area > 50 m²/g). The investment is moderate ($1,000–$5,000/unit) and the maintenance is simple (about $200 per year). However, its disadvantages include high energy consumption (0.5–2 kWh/kg) and unsuitability for very large volumes (>500 kg/batch). Volatiles need to be treated (cost $20/m³). The heat treatment temperature is limited (<500°C), and a high-temperature furnace (>500°C) is required. The oven provides reliable support for the drying and crystallization of the yellow tungsten trioxide, ensuring the nanostructure and properties.

7.2.3 Reaction vessels

The reaction vessel is used in the sol-gel method to prepare yellow tungsten trioxide for the mixing and reaction of precursor solutions (e.g., Na_2WO_4, concentration 0.05–0.2 mol/L), acidifiers (e.g., HCl, pH 1–3), and solvents (water or ethanol) to ensure uniform formation of sol and gel (colloidal particle size 10–50 nm). Containers need to be corrosion-resistant (pH 1–14), highly airtight (<0.01 L/min) and low contamination (Fe, C<10 ppm) to guarantee WO_3 purity (>99.9%). Due to its controllable environment and versatility, the reactor is a commonly used reaction vessel in the sol-gel method.

7.2.3.1 Reactors

The reactor provides a sealed, corrosion-resistant reaction environment for the preparation of yellow tungsten trioxide by sol-gel method, and supports precursor acidification, sol formation, and gelation (yield > 90%). It is suitable for small-scale (0.1–10 L/batch) to pilot (10–100 L/batch) and is widely used in laboratory and industrial transition stages.

The reactor structure (e.g. GSH-5L) consists of a kettle body (316 L stainless steel or glass lining, 0.5–100 L volume), a stirring system (PTFE paddles, 50–1000 rpm), a heating/cooling jacket (temperature control 20–200 °C), a sealing cap (silicone O-ring, 0.1–1 MPa) and a sampling valve (316L stainless steel, 5–10 mm inner diameter). The operating principle is based on a controlled reaction in a closed environment, where Na_2WO_4 reacts with HCl under agitation (shear rate 10–100 s^{-1}) to form H_2WO_4 colloid: $Na_2WO_4 + 2HCl \rightarrow H_2WO_4 + 2NaCl$。 The jacket regulates the temperature (20–80°C) by circulating water or oil (thermal conductivity 0.1–0.15 W/m·K) to ensure a homogeneous reaction (colloidal dispersion >95%). The inner wall of the kettle is lined with glass (thickness 1–2 mm, pH 1–14) or PTFE coating (coefficient of friction < 0.1) to reduce contamination (Fe<5 ppm). Safety devices include a pressure relief valve (triggered > 1.2 MPa) and a temperature alarm (de-energized > 100°C).

The operation process starts with the formulation of raw materials. Na_2WO_4 (purity>99.5%) was dissolved in deionized water (conductivity<10 μS/cm, 0.05–0.2 mol/L), ethanol (0–20 vol%) was added to adjust the viscosity (<10 mPa·s), and the kettle was poured (filling rate 50–70%). The kettle body was pre-cleaned (ethanol, residual < 1 mg/cm^2), PTFE paddles were installed (1/3 diameter of the kettle), and the sealing lid was locked (air leakage rate <0.01 L/min). Set the stirring speed at 200–500 rpm, add hot water (40–60°C, flow rate 1–5 L/min) to the jacket, and add HCl dropwise (6 mol/L, drip rate 0.1–0.5 mL/min) to pH 1–3. The reaction takes 1–2 hours to form a sol (particle size 10–50 nm), and gels (viscosity > 100 mPa·s) for 4–12 hours. The sampling valve detects pH and colloidal status (DLS, deviation <10%). The gel is transferred through a bottom valve (10 mm inner diameter) and the kettle is washed with deionized water (waste pH 6–8). The process requires ventilation (air volume 200–500 m^3/h) and control of acid mist (HCl<1 mg/m^3). The product was detected by dynamic light scattering (DLS) and ultraviolet-visible spectroscopy (UV-Vis) to detect the colloidal particle size and stability.

Optimization of key parameters is critical to the effectiveness of the reaction. The stirring speed is 200–500 rpm, too high (>1000 rpm) produces bubbles (> 5% volume), too low (<100 rpm) is uneven mixing (concentration deviation >15%). The temperature is 40–60 °C, too high (>80 °C) colloidal decomposition (yield < 80%), too low (<20 °C) slow reaction (> 4 hours). pH 1–3, too high (>4) does not form H_2WO_4 (yield <70%), too low (<1) increases by-products (WO_2>0.5%). The filling rate of the kettle is 50–70%, and too high (>80%) affects the stirring (dispersion < 90%). The temperature control accuracy of the jacket is ± 1°C, and the deviation of >±3°C leads to uneven colloids (particle size deviation > 20%). The material of the kettle body needs to be corrosion-resistant (glass lining, corrosion rate <0.01 mm/year) and ensure purity (Fe<5 ppm). The reaction time is 4–12 hours, and if it is too short (<2 hours), the gelation is incomplete (viscosity < 50 mPa·s).

The advantages of the reactor are its high tightness (leakage rate <0.01 L/min) and the support for controlled reactions (yield > 90%). Corrosion-resistant (pH 1–14) and suitable for a wide range of precursors (Na_2WO_4, WCl_6). The equipment is flexible (0.1–100 L/batch) and the investment is moderate (2000–20,000 USD/unit). However, disadvantages include high energy consumption (0.2–0.5 kWh/L) and complex cleaning (about 0.5 hours per session, costing $10). Large kettle (>100 L) is unevenly stirred (deviation > 10%). Acid mist treatment increases costs. The reactor provides a stable environment for the sol-gelation of yellow tungsten trioxide and ensures the quality of nanocolloids.

7.2.4 Grinding equipment

In the sol-gel preparation of yellow tungsten trioxide, the grinding equipment is used to refine the WO_3 bulk (particle size 0.1–10 mm) after drying or heat treatment, to generate nanoscale powder (D50=20–200 nm), and to improve the specific surface area (20–80 m²/g) and dispersion (>95%). The equipment needed to be low contamination (Fe, Zr<10 ppm), high efficiency (>90%), and controllable particle size (deviation <20%) to meet the needs of photocatalysts and sensors. The mortar and pestle are suitable for laboratory small grinds (<1 kg/batch), and the planetary ball mill is suitable for pilot testing (1–100 kg/batch).

7.2.4.1 Mortars and pestles

The mortar and pestle refine WO_3 blocks by manual or semi-mechanical grinding, making them suitable for small-scale laboratory preparation (10 g–1 kg/batch) to meet the needs of high-purity WO_3 (>99.9%) with simple operation and low cost.

The mortar and pestle (agate or zirconia, purity >99.5%) consists of a mortar (inner diameter 50–200 mm, depth 20–100 mm) and pestle (diameter 10–50 mm, length 50–150 mm). The operating principle is based on hand-applied shearing and crushing forces, and WO_3 blocks (particle size 0.1–10 mm) are crushed with a pestle in a mortar and refined to D50 = 0.5–10 μm. Agate (Mohs 7, abrasion rate < 0.01 g/h) or zirconia (HRC 85–90) reduces contamination (Si, Zr<5 ppm). Grinding can be dry grinding or wet grinding (ethanol, solid-liquid ratio 1:1), wet grinding reduces agglomeration (dispersion > 90%).

The process begins with the preparation of raw materials. WO_3 bulk (heat treated at 300–400°C, moisture content <1%) was placed in a mortar (cleanliness Ra<0.5 μm) and ethanol (purity>99.5%, 0–10 mL) was added. Hand grinding (pressure 0.1–0.5 MPa, frequency 1–2 Hz) for 10–30 minutes, depending on particle size (D50 = 0.5–5 μm). After grinding, the slurry is filtered (pore size 0.1 μm) or dried (80°C, 2–4 hours) and the powder is collected. The particle size (D90<10 μm) and morphology (agglomeration rate <5%) were detected by laser particle size analyzer and SEM. The mortar and pestle were washed with deionized water and ethanol (residue< 1 mg/cm²). The process needs to be ventilated (100 m³/h) and dust controlled (<5 mg/m³). Waste liquid recovery (ethanol > 90%).

The optimization of key parameters is crucial for grinding results. The grinding time is 10–30 minutes, too long (> 1 hour) introduces impurities (Si<10 ppm), and too short (<5 minutes) with uneven particle size (D50>10 μm). Pressure 0.1–0.5 MPa, too high (>1 MPa) damages the mortar (lifespan < 6 months), too low (<0.05 MPa) and low efficiency (<70%). The amount of ethanol was 5–10 mL for wet grinding, with too much (>20 mL) increasing drying time (>6 hours) and too little (<2 mL) agglomerating (>10%). The inner diameter of the mortar matches the sample (sample volume <1/3), and the grinding is uneven (deviation >20%) when it is overfilled (>1/2). The material needs to be of high purity (agate, Si<5 ppm) to ensure WO_3 purity (>99.9%). The dust control efficiency > 99%, and the emission < 5 mg/m³.

The advantages of mortars and pestles are their simple operation (investment of US$ 50–500/set) and no energy consumption (0 kWh/kg). High purity (Fe, Si<5 ppm) suitable for laboratories. However, its disadvantages include low efficiency and unsuitable for mass production (>1 kg). It is difficult to control the particle size, and the consistency of manual operation is poor (>10%). Dust flying needs to be protected. Mortars and pestles provide a low-cost solution for small-scale grinding of yellow tungsten trioxide.

7.2.4.2 Planetary ball mills

The planetary ball mill refines the WO_3 bulk by rotating at high speed to generate nanoscale powder (D50=20–200 nm), suitable for pilot (1–100 kg/batch), and meets the catalyst with high efficiency and controllable particle size.

The planetary ball mill (model QM-3SP4) consists of a grinding tank (zirconia, volume 0.5–5 L, purity >99.5%), grinding balls (zirconia, diameter 3–10 mm, hardness HRC 85–90), main disc (stainless steel, 150–300 rpm) and motor (power 1–5 kW). The operating principle is based on the rotation of the grinding pot (300–600 rpm) and revolution (centrifugal force 10–20 g), with WO_3 refinement under grinding ball impact and shear. Zirconia material reduces pollution (Zr, Fe<10 ppm). Dry grinding can be done or wet grinding (ethanol, solid-liquid ratio 1:1–1:2), and wet grinding improves dispersion.

The process starts with loading. WO_3 blocks (D50 = 0.1–10 mm, moisture content <1%) were loaded into grinding jars with a pellet-to-material ratio of 10:1–15:1 and ethanol (solid-liquid ratio 1:1.5). The grinding pot is filled at 30–50%, the rotation speed is 400–600 rpm, and the grinding is 2–6 hours (D50 = 20–200 nm). Slurry filtration (pore size 0.1 μm) or centrifugation (4000 rpm), drying (80–100°C, 6–12 hours). The powder was detected by laser particle size analyzer and SEM (D90<500 nm, agglomeration rate <5%). Cooling system (water-cooled, < 50°C) prevents overheating (>100°C). Waste liquid recovery (ethanol > 90%), dust through the dust collector (efficiency > 99%, discharge < 5 mg/m³).

The optimization of key parameters is crucial for grinding results. The grinding ball diameter is 3–10 mm, too large (>15 mm), under-refined (D50>500 nm), too small (<2 mm), and inefficient (>8 h). The pellet-to-pellet ratio is 10:1–15:1, too high (>20:1) with high wear (ZrO_2<0.01 wt%), too low (<5:1) and long cycle time (>8 hours). Rotational speed 400–600 rpm, too high (>800 rpm) vibration (amplitude>2 mm), too low (<300 rpm) and low efficiency (<70%). Ethanol for wet milling reduces agglomeration (>95%), while pH 6–8 for water milling (loss <1%). The grinding time is 2–6 hours, and if it is too long (>8 hours), impurities increase (Zr<20 ppm). The grinding jar needs to be abrasion resistant (ZrO_2, wear rate < 0.005 g/h) and ensure purity (>99.9%).

The advantages of planetary ball mills are precise particle size (D50 = 20–200 nm, deviation <15%) and high efficiency (1–100 kg/batch). Suitable for nano WO_3 (specific surface area > 50 m²/g). However, the disadvantages include high energy consumption (100–200 kWh/t) and drying (50 kWh/t) for wet grinding. Abrasion impurities (Zr<20 ppm) require magnetic separation (magnetic field > 1.5 T). Noise (70–90 dB) should be soundproofed (<55 dB). The planetary ball mill provides efficient support for tungsten grinding and ensures the quality of the nanopowder.

7.2.5 Filtration and washing equipment

Filtration and washing equipment is used in the sol-gel preparation of yellow tungsten trioxide for the separation of solid WO_3 (or H_2WO_4 precursors) from gels or milled slurries, and for the removal of residual ions (e.g., Na^+, Cl^-<10 ppm) and organic matter (ethanol<0.1 wt%) by washing. The equipment needs to provide high filtration efficiency (solids recovery >98%), precise pore size control (0.1–1 μm), and acid and alkali resistance (pH 1–14) to avoid contamination by impurities (Fe<5 ppm) and agglomeration (dispersion > 95%). The suction filter unit is suitable for laboratory and pilot (0.1–10 L/batch), and the centrifuge is suitable for pilot and mass production (10–1000 L/batch), both of which work together to ensure high purity and homogeneity of WO_3.

7.2.5.1 Suction filtration device

The suction filter separates liquids from WO_3 gels or slurries by negative pressure filtration and washes away residual impurities, which are widely used in laboratories and small-scale production (0.1–10 L/batch). Its simple design makes it suitable for fine processing of high-purity WO_3 (>99.9%).

The suction filter unit (type e.g., SHZ-DIII) consists of a Brinell funnel (glass or polypropylene PP, volume 0.1–5 L), membrane (PTFE or nylon, pore size 0.1–1 μm), suction filter bottle (glass, volume 0.5–10 L), vacuum pump (power 0.1–0.5 kW, ultimate vacuum <10 Pa), and connecting tubing (silicone or PTFE, I.D. 5–10 mm). The operating principle is based on the vacuum pump generating a negative pressure (0.01–0.09 MPa), the liquid passes through the filter membrane (filtration rate 1–10 mL/s) into the suction filter flask, and the WO_3 gel (particle size 10–50 nm) or powder (D50=20–200 nm) is trapped on the membrane. PTFE membranes (pH 1–14) ensure corrosion resistance and low contamination (Fe, C<5 ppm). The inner wall of the Brinell funnel is polished (Ra <0.5 μm) to avoid residues (loss of solids <1%).

The procedure begins with gel preparation. WO_3 gels (50–80% moisture, pH 1–3) or abrasive slurry (solid-liquid ratio 1:1–1:2) were poured into a Brinell funnel and pre-laid with PTFE membrane (pore size 0.45 μm, cleanliness Ra<0.5 μm). The vacuum pump (vacuum degree 0.05–0.08 MPa) was started, filtered for 5–20 minutes, and the liquid was collected into the suction filter flask (recovery rate >98%). The filter cake (thickness 5–20 mm) was washed 3–5 times with deionized water (conductivity<10 μS/cm, 50–200 mL) to remove Na^+ and Cl^- (<10 ppm). After washing, suction filtration is continued for 2–5 minutes, and the moisture content of the filter cake is reduced to 20–30%. The filter cake was transferred to an oven (80–100°C, 6–12 hours) to dry to obtain WO_3 powder. Membranes and funnels were cleaned with deionized water and ethanol (residue< 1 mg/cm²). The waste liquid (pH 6–8) is neutralized and discharged. The process requires ventilation (200 m³/h) to control dust and acid mist (HCl<1 mg/m³). The product was tested for purity (>99.9%) and specific surface area (20–80 m²/g) with inductively coupled plasma (ICP-MS) and BET.

The optimization of key parameters is critical to filtration effectiveness. The pore size of the membrane was 0.1–1 μm, and the solids loss was too large (>2 μm) (>2%), and the filtration was slow (<1 mL/s) due to the small (<0.05 μm). The vacuum level is 0.05–0.08 MPa, too high (>0.09 MPa) damages the membrane (lifetime < 100 times), too low (<0.02 MPa) and low efficiency (<50%). The cake thickness is 5–20 mm, and the overthickness (>30 mm) is uneven (moisture content >40%). Wash volume 50–200 mL, too much (>500 mL) wasted (cost>0.1 USD/L), too little (<20 mL) impurity residue (Cl^->20 ppm). The filtration time is 5–20 minutes, and the energy consumption is high (>0.1 kWh/L) if it is too long (> 30 minutes). The membrane material needs to be PTFE (corrosion resistant, life > 200 cycles) to ensure purity (Fe<5 ppm). The exhaust air of the vacuum pump needs to be filtered (efficiency > 99%) to avoid oil mist contamination (<0.01 mg/m^3).

The advantage of the suction filter unit is its simple operation (investment of $500–2000/set) and its suitability for small-scale trials (0.1–10 L/batch). High purity (Fe, C<5 ppm) and high filtration efficiency (>98%). Low energy consumption (0.05–0.1 kWh/L) and low maintenance costs (approx. $100 per year). However, its disadvantages include slow filtration rates (<10 mL/s) and unsuitability for large volumes (> 10 L). Membranes need to be replaced ($10 per 100–200 cycles). Poor consistency of manual operation (deviation >10%). The suction filter unit provides high purity support for the separation of tungsten gels, ensuring product quality (yield > 95%).

7.2.5.2 Centrifuges

The centrifuge separates liquids from WO_3 gels or slurries by spinning at high speed and washes impurities, making it suitable for pilot and mass production (10–1000 L/batch). Its efficient separation and automation support large-scale preparation of yellow tungsten trioxide (purity>99.95%).

The centrifuge (model LW-400) consists of a bowl (316 L stainless steel, volume 5–100 L, corrosion resistant), motor (power 5–20 kW, speed 1000–6000 rpm), filter bag (PTFE or nylon, pore size 0.1–1 μm), feed tube (PTFE, I.D. 10–20 mm) and control system (PLC, accuracy ±1%). The operating principle is based on centrifugal force (1000–5000 g), where gels or powders (particle size 10–200 nm) are deposited on the inner wall of the bowl and the liquid is discharged through filter bags (filtration rate 10–100 L/min). The 316L bowl (corrosion rate <0.01 mm/year) and PTFE filter bag (pH 1–14) ensure low contamination (Fe<5 ppm). Safety devices include overspeed protection (> 6000 rpm power off) and vibration sensor (amplitude > 2 mm alarm).

The process begins with slurry preparation. WO_3 gel (50–80% moisture) or abrasive slurry (solid-liquid ratio 1:1–1:2) is injected into the bowl (50–70% fill) through a feed tube (flow rate 0.1–1 L/s). The centrifuge was set at 3000–5000 rpm, centrifuged for 5–15 minutes, and the liquid was collected into the waste tank (recovery rate >98%). The filter cake (10–30 mm thickness) was washed 3–5 times with deionized water (100–500 L, conductivity <10 μS/cm) to remove Na^+ and Cl^- (<10 ppm). After further centrifugation (3000 rpm, 5 min), the moisture content of the filter cake decreases to 15–25%. The cake scraper is discharged (0.1–0.5 m/s) and transferred to the oven (80–100°C, 6–12 hours). The bowl and filter bag were cleaned with deionized water (residual < 1 mg/cm^2). Effluent neutralization (pH 6–8) discharge. The process requires ventilation (500–2000 m^3/h) and dust control (<5 mg/m^3). The products were tested for purity (>99.95%), specific surface area (20–80 m^2/g) and particle size (D50=20–200 nm) by ICP-MS, BET, and SEM.

Optimization of key parameters is critical to centrifugation results. The rotation speed is 3000–5000 rpm, too high (>6000 rpm) damages the filter bag (life < 100 times), too low (<1000 rpm) and incomplete separation (solids residue >5%). Filter bag pore size 0.1–1 µm, too large (>2 µm) lost (>2%), too small (<0.05 µm) clogged (flow rate < 5 L/min). Centrifugation time is 5–15 minutes, too long (> 20 minutes) with high energy consumption (>0.5 kWh/L) and too short (<3 minutes) with high moisture content (>40%). Wash volume 100–500 L, too much (> 1000 L) is costly (> \$0.1/L), too little (<50 L) impurity residue (Cl^->20 ppm). The cake thickness is 10–30 mm, and it is difficult to discharge over-thick (>50 mm) (efficiency < 80%). The bowl material needs to be 316L (Fe<5 ppm), and the filter bag needs to be PTFE (life > 200 cycles). The waste liquid treatment efficiency > 98%, and the discharge < 5 mg/L.

The advantage of centrifuges is their fast separation speed (10–100 L/min) and their suitability for mass production (10–1000 L/batch). High efficiency (>98%) and excellent purity (Fe<5 ppm). High degree of automation (PLC control, deviation <1%), support continuous production. However, its disadvantages include high energy consumption (0.2–0.5 kWh/L) and large investment (\$1–100,000/unit). Bag replacement (\$50/filter per 100–200 cycles) and bowl cleaning (\$20 per 0.5 hours) are added to the cost. Noise (80–100 dB) should be soundproofed (<55 dB). The centrifuge supports the efficient separation of the yellow tungsten trioxide, ensuring the quality and yield of the nano-WO_3.

7.3 Core equipment for the preparation of yellow tungsten trioxide by electrochemical deposition

Tungsten (WO_3) is deposited on the surface of the electrode by electrochemical deposition method using sodium tungstate (Na_2WO_4) or tungstic acid (H_2WO_4) as electrolyte to form WO_3 thin films or nanostructures (thickness 0.1–10 µm, particle size 20–200 nm), which are widely used in electrochromic (coloring efficiency >50 cm^2/C), photocatalysis (degradation efficiency >85%) and sensors (detection limit<1 ppm). The method induces WO_3 deposition by applying an electric field, and the process requires high accuracy (voltage deviation <±0.1 V), corrosion resistance (pH 1–14), and stability (5000 hours of continuous operation> to ensure high purity (>99.9%) and uniformity (thickness deviation <10%) of WO_3. The core equipment includes electrolyzers, electrodes, and power supplies, and this section discusses in detail their functions, structure, operational points, and technical characteristics, combined with specialized data and industrial applications.

7.3.1 Electrolyzers

The electrolyzer is the core equipment for the preparation of yellow tungsten trioxide by electrochemical deposition, which is used to accommodate the electrolyte solution (e.g., Na_2WO_4, 0.05–0.2 mol/L), the electrode, and the reaction environment, and supports the deposition of WO_3 on the surface of the working electrode (deposition rate 0.01–0.1 µm/min). It needs to be corrosion-resistant (HCl, H_2SO_4), high tightness (leakage rate <0.01 mL/min) and low contamination (Fe, C<5 ppm) to ensure film quality.

The electrolyzer (type e.g. EC-100) consists of a tank (glass, PTFE or 316 L stainless steel, volume 0.1–10 L), electrode holder (PTFE, 5–50 mm spacing), stirring device (magnetic stirring, 50–500 rpm), and a temperature-controlled jacket (20–80 °C). The working principle is based on the redox reaction of the electrolyte under an electric field, and WO_4^{2-} is reduced and deposited at the working electrode (cathode) as WO_3: $WO_4^{2-} + 2H^+ + 2e^- \rightarrow WO_3 + H_2O$。 The tank was made of PTFE (pH 1–14) or glass (purity>99.5%) to avoid metal contamination (Fe<5 ppm). The jacket is kept at a temperature (25–40°C) by circulating water (thermal conductivity 0.6 W/m·K) and stirred to ensure a homogeneous solution (concentration deviation of <5%). Sealing cap (silicone O-ring, pressure resistant to 0.1 MPa) prevents volatilization (solvent loss <1%).

The process begins with the preparation of the solution. Na_2WO_4 (purity>99.5%) was dissolved in deionized water (conductivity< 10 μS/cm, 0.05–0.2 mol/L), pH 1–3 was adjusted by adding H_2SO_4 (0.1 mol/L), and poured into the tank (filling rate 50–80%). The tank was pre-cleaned (ethanol, residual < 1 mg/cm²), fixed electrodes (working electrode area 10–100 cm²), and spaced 10–20 mm. Stirring was initiated (200–300 rpm) and the jacket temperature was controlled to 25–40°C (deviation <± 1°C). Connected to the power supply (constant voltage 1–5 V, deposition for 30–120 minutes), the WO_3 film is deposited on the working electrode (0.5–5 μm thickness). After deposition, the electrodes were removed and washed with deionized water (Cl^-<10 ppm) and dried (60 °C, 2 h). Tank cleaning (waste pH 6–8), ventilation (air volume 200–500 m³/h), and acid mist control (H_2SO_4<1 mg/m³). Scanning electron microscopy (SEM), X-ray diffraction (XRD), and ultraviolet-visible spectroscopy (UV-Vis) were used to detect thickness (deviation <10%), crystal form (monoclinic, plane spacing 0.38 nm), and band gap (2.6–2.8 eV).

The optimization of key parameters is critical to the deposition effect. The pH of the solution is 1–3, too high (>4) is slow to deposit (<0.01 μm/min), and too low (<1) to form by-products (WO_2>0.5%). At a temperature of 25–40°C, too high (>60°C) the solution volatilizes (>5%), and too low (<20°C) is unevenly deposited (thickness deviation >20%). The electrode spacing is 10–20 mm, too large (>50 mm) has high resistance (efficiency <80%), and too small (<5 mm) has an uneven electric field (deposition deviation >15%). Stirring speed 200–300 rpm, too high (>500 rpm) to disturb the deposition (porosity > 20%), too low (<100 rpm) concentration deviation > 10%. The tank is made of PTFE or glass (Fe<5 ppm) and has a leakage rate of < 0.01 mL/min. The deposition time is 30–120 minutes, and if the film is too long (>4 hours) the film cracks (>5%). The advantage of the electrolyzer is that it is controlled in an environment (> 95% yield), making it suitable for laboratory and small-scale trials (0.1–10 L/batch). Low investment ($500–5,000/unit) and simple maintenance (about $100 per year). However, its disadvantages include limited capacity (<10 L) and unsuitable for mass production. Acidic waste needs to be neutralized (cost $20/m³). Stirring may introduce trace impurities (C<5 ppm). The electrolytic cell provides a stable environment for the deposition of yellow tungsten trioxide and ensures the quality of the film.

7.3.2 Electrodes

The electrode is used as the carrier (working electrode) and current conduction medium (counter electrode, reference electrode) for WO_3 deposition in the preparation of yellow tungsten trioxide by electrochemical deposition, which directly affects the uniformity (thickness deviation <10%) and performance (electrochromic efficiency >50 cm^2/C) of the film. The electrode needs to be highly conductive (resistance < 1 Ω), corrosion resistance (pH 1–3), and stability (lifetime > 1000 hours).

The electrode system consists of a working electrode (conductive substrate, e.g., FTO glass, 10–100 cm^2 area), a counter electrode (platinum plate or carbon rod, 1–2 times the working electrode), and a reference electrode (e.g., Ag/AgCl, potential 0.197 V vs. SHE). The working principle is based on a three-electrode system, WO_4^{2-} reduction deposition WO_3 on the working electrode (cathode), oxidation reaction (such as $H_2O \rightarrow O_2$) occurs on the counter electrode (anode), and the reference electrode provides a stable potential reference. FTO glass (SnO_2:F, resistance 10–20 Ω/sq) is used as a working electrode with a flat surface (Ra<0.1 μm) for WO_3 adhesion (binding force > 5 MPa). The platinum counter electrode (purity > 99.9%) is corrosion resistant (corrosion rate < 0.01 mm/year), and the Ag/AgCl reference electrode (KCl saturation, leakage rate <0.01 μL/h) ensures potential accuracy (±1 mV).

The procedure begins with electrode pretreatment. FTO glass was sonicated with ethanol and deionized water (40 kHz, 10 min) to remove organics (C<1 ppm). Platinum counter electrode pickling (0.1 mol/L HNO_3, 5 min) and reference electrode calibration (potential deviation <± 2 mV). The electrodes are fixed in the electrolyzer (10–20 mm apart), the FTO is immersed in the electrolyte (Na_2WO_4, pH 1–3), and the exposed area is 10–100 cm^2. WO_3 thin film formation (0.5–5 μm thickness) was formed when connected to a power supply (constant voltage 2–5 V or constant current 0.1–1 mA/cm^2) and deposited for 30–120 minutes. After deposition, FTO was washed with water (Cl^-<10 ppm) and dried (60 °C, 2 h). Wash the electrode before reuse (residual < 1 mg/cm^2). The process needs to be ventilated (200 m^3/h) to avoid acid mist (H_2SO_4<1 mg/m^3). Thin films were tested with SEM, XRD, and UV-Vis for morphology (porosity <10%), crystal form, and band gap (2.6–2.8 eV).

The optimization of key parameters is critical to film quality. The working electrode area is 10–100 cm^2, and the current is uneven (>200 cm^2) (thickness deviation >20%). The area of the counter electrode is 1–2 times > that of the working electrode, and the resistance is too small (<1 times) and high (efficiency <80%). The electrode spacing is 10–20 mm, and the electric field is weak (>50 mm) (deposition rate < 0.01 μm/min). FTO resistance 10–20 Ω/sq, too high (>50 Ω/sq) and uneven deposition (>15%). The reference electrode potential accuracy ± 1 mV, and the deviation >± 5 mV affects the control (voltage error > 0.1 V). The deposition time is 30–120 minutes, and the film is loose (porosity >20%) if it is too long (>4 hours). The electrode material needs to be of high purity (FTO, Pt, Fe<1 ppm). The advantages of the sensor are high electrical conductivity (FTO current density > 1 mA/cm^2) and corrosion resistance (Pt lifetime > 2000 hours). Supports uniform deposition (thickness deviation <10%). However, disadvantages include the high cost of FTO (US$ 10–50/dm^2) and the high cost of platinum electrodes (US$ 100/cm^2 >). The reference electrode needs to be calibrated (every 3 months, cost $20). The electrodes provide an efficient carrier for the deposition of tungsten and ensure thin film performance.

7.3.3 Power Supply

The power supply provides a stable voltage or current for the electrochemical deposition of tungsten and drives WO_3 to be deposited at the working electrode (deposition rate 0.01–0.1 μm/min). It requires high accuracy (voltage± 0.1 V, current ±0.1 mA), wide range (0–30 V, 0–5 A), and stability (ripple <1%) to ensure film uniformity (thickness deviation < 10%).

The power supply (e.g. CHI-660E) consists of a DC output module (50–500 W power), a control panel (digital display, accuracy ± 0.1%), an electrode interface (three-electrode system), and a feedback circuit (response time <0.1 ms). The operating principle is based on constant voltage (1–5 V), constant current (0.1–1 mA/cm²) or cyclic voltammetry (CV, scan rate 1–100 mV/s) to control the electric field, which is reduced to WO_4^{2-} on the electrode surface. The power supply supports multiple modes (potentiostat, galvanostat, pulse deposition), with potentiostatic for homogeneous thin films (porosity < 10%) and pulsed deposition for nanostructures (particle size 20–100 nm). The feedback circuit adjusts the output (error <±0.1 V) via a reference electrode (Ag/AgCl) to ensure stable deposition.

The process starts with the setting of the parameters. The power supply is connected to three electrodes (FTO, Pt, Ag/AgCl) and the output is calibrated (voltage deviation <± 0.1 V). Set a constant pressure of 2–5 V (thin film deposition) or a constant current of 0.5 mA/cm² (nanostructure) for 30–120 minutes. Electrolyte (Na_2WO_4, pH 1–3) stir at 25–40 °C (200 rpm). During deposition, the power supply monitors the current (accuracy ± 0.1 mA) and records the amount of electricity (Coulombic efficiency >90%). After deposition, turn off the power and electrode water wash (Cl^-<10 ppm) and dry (60 °C, 2 h). The power supply is calibrated regularly (every 6 months, error <± 0.1%). The process needs to be grounded (resistance < 1 Ω) to avoid interference (ripple > 1%). Thin films were detected with SEM and UV-Vis for thickness (0.5–5 μm) and bandgap (2.6–2.8 eV).

The optimization of key parameters is critical to the quality of the deposit. The voltage is 2–5 V, too high (>10 V) bubble interference (porosity >20%), too low (<1 V) and slow deposition (<0.01 μm/min). The current density is 0.1–1 mA/cm², too high (>5 mA/cm²) for loose film (>20%), too low (<0.05 mA/cm²) and low efficiency (<50%). Deposition time is 30–120 minutes, and cracking (>5%) is too long (>4 hours). The power supply accuracy ± 0.1 V/±0.1 mA, and the deviation >± 0.5 V affects uniformity (>15%). Pulse deposition frequency of 0.1–10 Hz optimizes nanostructures (particle size deviation <10%). Ripple <1%, too high (>5%) and uneven film (>20%). The advantage of the power supply is the precise control (error <± 0.1%) and the support for multiple modes (> 95% yield). The investment is moderate (1000-10,000 US dollars/unit) and the life is long (>5 years). However, disadvantages include higher energy consumption (0.1–0.5 kWh/m²). Complex processes require commissioning (> 1 hour). Power failures require professional repairs (cost $500 per time). The power supply provides a stable driving force for the yellow tungsten trioxide deposition, ensuring film quality and performance.

7.3.4 Electrolyte configuration and storage equipment

Electrolyte Preparation and Storage Equipment is used to prepare homogeneous electrolyte solutions (e.g., Na_2WO_4+H_2SO_4, pH 1–3) in the electrochemical deposition of yellow tungsten trioxide and store them for long-term storage to ensure the stability and repeatability of WO_3 deposition (deposition rate 0.01–0.1 μm/min). The equipment needs to provide efficient mixing (dispersion > 95%), acid and alkali resistance (pH 1–14), and high cleanliness (Fe<5 ppm) to avoid impurities affecting WO_3 purity (>99.9%). The stirring equipment is used for solution preparation, and the storage container is used for electrolyte preservation, and the two work together to ensure the quality of the solution and the efficiency of the process.

7.3.4.1 Mixing equipment

The mixing of electrolyte solutions is mechanically or magnetically driven to ensure a homogeneous dispersion of Na_2WO_4, acidifiers (e.g., H_2SO_4) and solvents (deionized water) (concentration deviation of <5%), providing a stable electrolyte environment for scheelite deposition. It is suitable for small-scale (0.1–10 L/batch) to pilot (10–100 L/batch) and is widely used in laboratory and industrial transitions.

The agitator (type MS-H-Pro+) consists of an agitator (magnetic or mechanical, power 0.1–1 kW), stir bars (PTFE-coated, length 20–100 mm) or paddles (PTFE, diameter 20–100 mm), vessel (glass or 316 L stainless steel, volume 0.5–100 L) and speed control module (50–2000 rpm, accuracy ±1%). The operating principle is based on a rotationally generated flow field (shear rate 10–100 s^{-1}), rapid mixing of Na_2WO_4 (0.05–0.2 mol/L) and H_2SO_4 (0.1 mol/L) in solution, adjusting the pH to 1–3 to produce a stable electrolyte (precipitation rate <1%). PTFE (pH 1–14, coefficient of friction < 0.1) avoids metal contamination (Fe<5 ppm). Magnetic stirring is suitable for small volumes (<10 L) and mechanical stirring supports large volumes (10–100 L). The speed control module precisely regulates the flow field (Reynolds number > 1000) via a digital display panel (error <± 1 rpm).

The process begins with the preparation of the solution. Deionized water (conductivity<10 μS/cm) was poured into a container (50–80% filling), Na_2WO_4 (purity>99.5%, 0.05–0.2 mol/L), stirring was initiated (magnetic 200–500 rpm or mechanical 100–300 rpm), and dissolved for 10–20 minutes (concentration deviation<5%). Slowly add H_2SO_4 (0.1–0.5 mol/L, drip rate 0.1–0.5 mL/min), adjust pH to 1–3, and continue stirring for 10–30 minutes to ensure uniformity (pH deviation<±0.1). The solution is tested by a sampling valve (pH meter, accuracy ± 0.01) and transferred to a storage container. The stirrer and vessel were washed with deionized water and ethanol (residue< 1 mg/cm²). The process requires ventilation (air volume 200–500 m³/h) and control of acid mist (H_2SO_4<1 mg/m³). The electrolyte was detected with ultraviolet-visible spectroscopy (UV-Vis) and conductivity to detect transparency (>95%) and ion concentration (Na^+<0.2 mol/L).

The optimization of critical parameters is critical to solution quality. Stirring speed 200–500 rpm (magnetic) or 100–300 rpm (mechanical), too high (>1000 rpm) produces bubbles (volume >5%), too low (<50 rpm) uneven mixing (concentration deviation >10%). pH 1–3, too high (>4) low deposition efficiency (<0.01 μm/min), too low (<1) increased by-products (WO_2>0.5%). The solution temperature is 20–40 °C, too high (>60 °C) volatilizes (solvent loss >5%), too low (<10 °C) dissolves slowly (> 30 minutes). The container filling rate is 50–80%, too high (>90%) and uneven mixing (dispersion < 90%). Stir bars or paddles require PTFE (corrosion rate <0.01 mm/year) to ensure purity (Fe<5 ppm). The mixing time is 20–50 minutes, too long (> 1 hour) is high in energy consumption, too short (< 10 minutes) is uneven (deviation >10%). The exhaust gas treatment efficiency > 98%, and the emission < 1 mg/m³.

The advantages of the mixing system are homogeneous mixing (dispersion > 95%), adjustable speed (50–2000 rpm), and suitable for a wide range of electrolytes (Na_2WO_4, H_2WO_4). Low investment ($500–5,000/unit) and simple maintenance (about $100 per year). High efficiency (>95%) in small-scale and pilot-scale tests. However, disadvantages include higher energy consumption (0.05–0.2 kWh/L) and high capacity (>100 L) requiring mechanical mixing (investment of > $100). Wear and tear of PTFE components (life < 1 year, cost $20/piece) can introduce trace impurities (C<5 ppm). Acid mist treatment increases the cost (about $10/m³). The stirring equipment provides efficient support for the preparation of tungsten electrolyte and ensures the quality of the solution.

7.3.4.2 Storage containers

The storage container is used for long-term storage of the electrolyte solution prepared by electrochemical deposition of yellow tungsten trioxide, to prevent volatilization (loss of <1%), contamination (Fe<5 ppm) and degradation (precipitation rate <1%), and to ensure the stability and repeatability of the deposition process (film thickness deviation < 10%). It is suitable for laboratory (0.1–10 L) and pilot (10–1000 L).

The structure of the storage container (type type PTFE-50L) consists of the container body (PTFE, glass or 316L stainless steel, volume 0.5–1000 L), sealing lid (PTFE or silicone O-ring, pressure resistance 0.1 MPa), sampling valve (PTFE, inner diameter 5–10 mm), and exhaust valve (316L stainless steel, pressure relief > 0.2 MPa). The operating principle is based on closed storage, where the electrolyte (e.g. Na_2WO_4, pH 1–3) remains stable inside the container, and PTFE (pH 1–14 resistant) or glass (purity >99.5%) prevents corrosion and contamination (Fe, C<5 ppm). The sealing cap ensures a leakage rate of <0.01 mL/min, and the exhaust valve maintains a slight positive pressure (0.01–0.05 MPa) to avoid air ingress (O_2<1 ppm). The inner wall of the vessel is polished (Ra <0.5 μm) to reduce residue (solids < 1 mg/cm²).

The procedure begins with the transfer of the solution. The formulated electrolyte (0.05–0.2 mol/L Na_2WO_4, pH 1–3) is pumped into the vessel (50–80% filling) via a PTFE tube (5–10 mm inner diameter). The container was pre-cleaned (deionized water and ethanol, residual < 1 mg/cm²) and the lid was tightly closed (leakage rate < 0.01 mL/min). The storage environment is controlled at 15–25 °C (fluctuating <± 5 °C), protected from light (light transmittance <1%) to prevent photolysis (precipitation rate <1%). Periodic sampling (5–10 mL once a week) was taken to measure pH (deviation <±0.1) and concentration (UV-Vis, error <±1%). Extracted by a sampling valve (flow rate 0.1–0.5 L/min) at the time of use, the remaining solution continues to be stored (up to 6 months). The vessel was cleaned with deionized water (waste pH 6–8) and ventilated (air volume 200 m³/h) to control acid mist (H_2SO_4<1 mg/m³). The electrolyte was detected with ICP-MS and conductivity to detect impurities (Na^+, Cl^-<10 ppm) and stability (conductivity deviation <5%).

The optimization of key parameters is crucial for storage results. The storage temperature is 15–25°C, too high (>40°C) accelerates volatilization (>5%), and too low (<5°C) precipitates crystals (>1%). Leakage rate < 0.01 mL/min and high risk of contamination (Fe>10 ppm) (>0.1 mL/min). The filling rate is 50–80%, too high (>90%), too high pressure (>0.2 MPa), too low (<30%), air pollution (O_2>5 ppm). The container should be made of PTFE or glass (corrosion rate < 0.01 mm/year) to ensure purity (Fe<5 ppm). The exhaust valve pressure is 0.01–0.05 MPa, and the solution loss (>1%) is too high (>0.1 MPa). The storage time < 6 months, and the degradation (precipitation > 2%) is too long (>1 year). The flow rate of the sampling valve was 0.1–0.5 L/min, and the disturbance solution was too fast (>1 L/min) (deviation >5%).

The advantage of the storage container is its high tightness (leakage rate < 0.01 mL/min) and allows for long-term storage (> 6 months). Corrosion-resistant (pH 1–14) and excellent purity (Fe<5 ppm). The investment is modest ($500–5000/unit) and suitable for a wide range of capacities (0.5–1000 L). However, its disadvantages include the high cost of large containers (> 1000 L) (> $100). Complex cleaning (0.5 hours per session, cost $10). PTFE containers are expensive (> $1,000/L). The storage vessel provides a stable storage environment for the tungsten electrolyte and ensures the reliability of the deposition process.

7.3.5 Heating and cooling devices

Heating and cooling units are used to regulate the temperature of the electrolyte solution (20–60 °C) and the heat treatment (60–200 °C) or cooling (<40 °C) of the electrode after deposition in the preparation of yellow tungsten trioxide by electrochemical deposition to optimize the WO_3 deposition rate (0.01–0.1 μm/min) and film properties (porosity <10%). The equipment needs to provide precise temperature control (deviation <±1°C), corrosion resistance (H_2SO_4, pH 1–3), and efficient heat transfer (>90% efficiency) to avoid thermal stress (crack rate <2%) and solution volatilization (loss of <1%).

Heating and cooling units are usually integrated into an electrolyzer or run independently, and common types include thermostatic water baths and recirculating chillers. In the case of a thermostatic water bath (model DK-8D), the structure consists of a sink (316 L stainless steel, volume 5–50 L), heating tubes (nichrome, power 0.5–2 kW), cooling coil (copper, thermal conductivity> 300 W/m·K), circulation pump (flow rate 1–10 L/min), and thermostat (PID, accuracy ± 0.5°C). The operating principle is based on the heat capacity of water (4.18 kJ/kg· K), the heating tube is heated to 20–60°C to facilitate deposition (yield >95%), and the cooling coil is circulated with water (5–15°C) to reduce the temperature and prevent overheating (>80°C). The 316L grade (corrosion rate < 0.01 mm/year) ensures low contamination (Fe<5 ppm). Safety devices include over-temperature protection (power off > 85°C) and liquid level alarm (water level < 10%).

The process begins with electrolyte preparation. The electrolyte (Na_2WO_4, 0.05–0.2 mol/L, pH 1–3) was placed in an electrolyzer, deionized water was injected into a water bath (conductivity < 10 μS/cm, filling rate 80–90%), set temperature 25–40 °C (optimal for deposition), and preheated for 10–20 minutes (deviation <± 0.5 °C). During deposition (constant pressure 2–5 V, 30–120 minutes), the circulating pump (flow rate 2–5 L/min) maintains a uniform temperature (deviation <± 1°C). After deposition, the electrodes (FTO+WO_3) are transferred to a water bath (60–80°C, 10–30 min) for heat treatment to enhance film adhesion (>5 MPa) or cooled to <40°C (5–10 min) to avoid thermal stress. Unit cleaning (residue < 1 mg/cm²), wastewater treatment (pH 6–8). The process requires ventilation (air volume 200–500 m³/h) and control of acid mist (H_2SO_4<1 mg/m³). Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and X-ray diffraction (XRD) were used to detect the morphology (porosity <10%) and crystal form (monoclinic, 0.38 nm spacing between crystal planes).

The optimization of key parameters is crucial to the effectiveness of temperature control. The deposition temperature is 25–40 °C, volatilization (>5%) is too high (>60 °C), and slow deposition (<0.01 μm/min) is too low (<20 °C). The heat treatment temperature is 60–80 °C, too high (>200 °C) the film cracks (>5%), too low (<40 °C) and poor adhesion (<3 MPa). The temperature control accuracy ± 0.5°C, and the deviation of >±2°C leads to uneven deposition (thickness deviation > 15%). The flow rate of the circulating pump is 2–5 L/min, and the temperature deviation is >±3°C if it is too low (<1 L/min). The cooling water temperature is 5–15°C, too high (>20°C) and low efficiency (<80%). The material of the sink should be 316L (Fe<5 ppm) and the water quality should be pure (impurities < 10 ppm). The running time is 10–120 minutes, and the energy consumption is high (>0.2 kWh/L) for too long (>4 hours). The advantages of the unit are precise temperature control (deviation <± 0.5°C) and support for deposition and heat treatment (yield > 95%). The investment is moderate ($1,000–$5,000/unit) and the maintenance is simple (about $200 per year). However, its disadvantages include high energy consumption (0.1–0.3 kWh/L) and unsuitability for ultra-high temperatures (>200°C). The sink needs to be descaled (every 3 months, cost $20). The heating and cooling unit provides a stable environment for the deposition of tungsten and ensures the quality of the film.

7.3.6 Filtration Equipment

The filtration equipment is used to purify the electrolyte solution in the preparation of yellow tungsten trioxide by electrochemical deposition, remove suspended particles (>0.1 μm), impurities (Fe, C<10 ppm) and precipitate (<1%), and ensure the transparency of the solution (>95%) and the purity of the WO_3 film (>99.9%). The equipment needs to be highly efficient filtration (>98% recovery), corrosion resistant (pH 1–3), and low contamination (Fe<5 ppm) to support uniform deposition (thickness deviation <10%).

Common types of filtration equipment include vacuum filters and pressure filters, with vacuum filters (model SHZ-DIII) suitable for laboratories (0.1–10 L/batch). The structure consists of a Brinell funnel (polypropylene PP, volume 0.1–5 L), membrane (PTFE, pore size 0.1–0.45 μm), suction filter bottle (glass, volume 0.5–10 L), vacuum pump (power 0.1–0.5 kW, ultimate vacuum < 10 Pa) and tubing (PTFE, inner diameter 5–10 mm). The operating principle is based on a negative pressure (0.05–0.08 MPa), the passage of the electrolyte (Na_2WO_4, pH 1–3) through the membrane (filtration rate 1–10 mL/s), and particle retention (removal rate >99%). PTFE membranes (pH 1–14) avoid contamination (Fe<5 ppm) and funnel polishing (Ra<0.5 μm) reduces carryover (<1 mg/cm²).

The procedure begins with the pretreatment of the solution. The electrolyte (0.05–0.2 mol/L Na_2WO_4) was allowed to stand for 1–2 hours (precipitation <1%), poured into a Brinell funnel, and pre-laid PTFE filter (pore size 0.45 μm, cleanliness Ra<0.5 μm). The vacuum pump (vacuum degree 0.05–0.08 MPa) was started, filtered for 5–20 minutes, and the filtrate was collected into the suction filter bottle (recovery rate >98%). The residue on the membrane (<0.1 g/L) was washed with deionized water (50–100 mL) and the waste was neutralized (pH 6–8). The filtrate was transferred to the electrolyzer, and the membrane and funnel were cleaned (ethanol, residual < 1 mg/cm²). The process requires ventilation (200 m³/h) and control of acid mist (H_2SO_4<1 mg/m³). The filtrate was detected with ultraviolet-visible spectroscopy (UV-Vis) and conductivity meter to detect transparency (>95%) and impurities (Fe<5 ppm).

The optimization of key parameters is critical to filtration effectiveness. The membrane pore size is 0.1–0.45 μm, and particles that are too large (>1 μm) leak (>1%), and too small (<0.05 μm) have a slow rate (<1 mL/s). Vacuum 0.05–0.08 MPa, too high (>0.09 MPa) membrane damage (lifetime < 100 times), too low (<0.02 MPa) and low efficiency (<50%). The filtration time is 5–20 minutes, and the energy consumption is high (>0.1 kWh/L) if it is too long (> 30 minutes). The wash volume is 50–100 mL, too much (> 200 mL) is expensive (> $0.1/L), too little (<20 mL) and residual impurities (Fe>10 ppm). The membrane needs PTFE (lifetime > 200 cycles) and the funnel needs PP (Fe<5 ppm). The exhaust gas treatment efficiency > 98%, and the emission < 1 mg/m³. The advantage of the filtration equipment is that it is highly efficient (>99% removal) and is suitable for small tests (0.1–10 L/batch). Low investment ($500–2,000/unit) and simple maintenance (about $100 per year). However, its disadvantages include slow filtration (<10 mL/s) and unsuitable for mass production (> 10 L). Membranes need to be replaced ($10 per 100–200 cycles). The filtration equipment supports the purification of the yellow tungsten trioxide electrolyte and ensures the quality of the deposits.

7.3.7 Analysis and testing equipment

The analysis and testing equipment is used to monitor the performance (thickness, crystal form, band gap) of electrolyte (pH, concentration) and WO_3 thin films in real time in the preparation of yellow tungsten trioxide by electrochemical deposition to ensure process stability (deposition deviation <10%) and product quality (purity > 99.9%). The device requires high accuracy (error <±1%), fast response (<1 second), and durability (life> 5 years) to support photocatalytic (degradation efficiency >85%) and electrochromic (coloring efficiency >50 cm²/C) applications.

Analysis and testing equipment includes pH meters, ultraviolet-visible spectrometers (UV-Vis), scanning electron microscopy (SEM), X-ray diffraction (XRD) and potentiostats. Taking the potentiostat (model CHI-660E) as an example, its structure includes an electrode interface (three-electrode system), a potential/current control module (accuracy ± 0.1 mV/±0.1 μA), a data acquisition system (sampling rate > 1 kHz), and software (CV, EIS analysis). Other devices such as SEM (model JEOL JSM-7800F, resolution 1 nm) for topography, XRD (Bruker D8, angular accuracy ±0.01°) for crystal form, UV-Vis (Shimadzu UV-2600, wavelength accuracy ±0.5 nm) for band gap measurement, pH meter (Mettler Toledo, accuracy ±0.01) for electrolyte monitoring.

The procedure begins with electrolyte testing. The pH meter measures the solution (Na_2WO_4, 0.05–0.2 mol/L), controls pH 1–3 (deviation <± 0.1), and UV-Vis detects the concentration (error <±1%). During deposition (2–5 V, 30–120 min), the workstation records current (0.1–1 mA/cm²) and electric current (coulombic efficiency >90%), and analyzes deposition kinetics (CV curve, scan rate 10 mV/s). After deposition, the morphology of the WO_3 thin film (FTO substrate) was observed by SEM (porosity <10%), the crystal form was confirmed by XRD (monoclinic, plane spacing 0.38 nm), and the band gap was measured by UV-Vis (2.6–2.8 eV). Sample wash (ethanol, residual < 1 mg/cm²), equipment calibration (monthly, error <±1%). The process needs to be in a clean environment (dust< 1 mg/m³). The test data was used to optimize the process (deposition rate 0.01–0.1 μm/min).

The optimization of key parameters is crucial to the detection effect. The pH accuracy ± 0.01, and the deviation >± 0.1 affects the deposition (WO_2>0.5%). The UV-Vis wavelength accuracy ± 0.5 nm, and the error is >± 2 nm misjudgment concentration (>5%). SEM resolution < 1 nm, too low (>5 nm) to resolve nanostructures (20–200 nm). The XRD angle accuracy ±0.01°, and the deviation is >±0.05° misjudging the crystal form (monoclinic ratio <80%). The current accuracy of the workstation ± 0.1 μA, and the error >± 1 μA affects the kinetic analysis (error > 10%). The detection time is 5–30 minutes/sample, which is too long (>1 hour) and inefficient (<10 samples/hour). The material of the equipment should be clean (glass, Pt, Fe<1 ppm). The advantage of the analysis and testing equipment is high accuracy (error <±1%), and support for multi-parameter analysis (morphology, crystal form, performance). The investment is high (US$10,000-500,000/unit), but the service life is long (>5 years). However, its disadvantages include complex operation (training required > 1 week) and high maintenance costs (about $1,000 per unit per year). Sample preparation should be clean (dust< 1 mg/m³). The analysis and testing equipment provides quality assurance for the deposition of tungsten and ensures the performance of the film.

7.4 Core equipment for the preparation of yellow tungsten trioxide by physical vapor deposition

When tungsten or WO_3 is prepared by physical vapor deposition (PVD), tungsten or WO_3 is deposited in a vacuum environment to form WO_3 thin films (thickness 10–1000 nm), which are widely used in electrochromic (coloring efficiency >50 cm²/C), photocatalysis (degradation efficiency >85%), and sensors (detection limit<1 ppm). The PVD method transfers target atoms to the substrate by evaporation or sputtering, and requires high vacuum ($<10^{-4}$ Pa), precise control (deposition rate 0.1–10 nm/s), and stability (5000 hours of continuous operation> to ensure high purity (>99.9%), uniformity (thickness deviation<5%), and polymorphology (monoclinic or amorphous) of WO_3 films. The core equipment includes evaporation source equipment, vacuum systems, substrate heating and cooling devices, and film thickness monitoring equipment, and its function, structure, operational points and technical characteristics are analyzed in detail in this section, combined with professional data and industrial applications.

7.4.1 Evaporation source equipment

In the preparation of yellow tungsten trioxide by PVD, the evaporation source equipment is used to heat the target material (such as WO_3 powder or tungsten particles) to the vaporized state, and generate a stream of atoms or molecules to be deposited on the substrate to form a WO_3 thin film (deposition rate

0.1–5 nm/s). The equipment needs to have high thermal efficiency (>90%), high temperature resistance (>2000°C) and low contamination (Fe, C<5 ppm) to ensure film quality.

Common types of evaporation source equipment include resistance evaporation sources and electron beam evaporation sources, and electron beam evaporation sources (model EB-500) are widely used for WO_3 deposition due to their high temperature and high accuracy. The structure consists of a crucible (alumina or molybdenum, volume 10–100 cm^3, temperature resistance >2500°C), electron gun (power 1–10 kW, beam current 0.1–1 A), water-cooling system (flow rate 1–5 L/min, 5–15°C) and deflection magnetic field (intensity 0.01–0.1 T). The operating principle is based on an electron beam (acceleration voltage 5–10 kV) bombarding the target, WO_3 (melting point 1473 °C) sublimation to form a vapor phase, which is deposited on a substrate (10–50 cm distance). The crucibles are made of alumina (purity>99.5%) to avoid contamination (Al<5 ppm) and the water-cooling system is protected from overheating (<100°C). The deflection magnetic field controls the beam spot (1–5 mm diameter) to ensure uniform evaporation (deposition deviation <5%).

The procedure begins with target preparation. WO_3 powder (purity>99.9%, particle size 0.1–1 mm) or tungsten granules (diameter 1–5 mm) were loaded into crucibles (charge density 0.5–1 g/cm^3) and the crucibles were pre-cleaned (ethanol, residual < 1 mg/cm^2). The vacuum chamber was pumped to <10^{-4} Pa, the electron gun (power 2–5 kW) was activated, the target was preheated (1000–1200 °C for 5 min), and the evaporation temperature was raised (1500–1800 °C). Electron beam scanning targets (frequency 1–10 Hz) for 10–60 minutes with film thicknesses of 100–500 nm. After deposition, turn off the electron gun and cool to < 100 °C (10–20 min). Target residue recovery (>90%), crucible cleaning (ultrasonic, 40 kHz). The process needs to be clean (dust< 0.1 mg/m^3). Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and X-ray diffraction (XRD) were used to detect the morphology (porosity <5%) and crystal form (monoclinic, plane spacing 0.38 nm).

The optimization of key parameters is critical to the deposition effect. The evaporation temperature is 1500–1800 °C, too high (>2000 °C) decomposes (WO_2>1%), and too low (<1400 °C) evaporates slowly (<0.1 nm/s). The electron beam power is 2–5 kW, too high (>10 kW) target splash (contamination > 10 ppm), too low (<1 kW) and low efficiency (<50%). The crucible charge is 0.5–1 g/cm^3, and the evaporation is uneven (deviation >10%) that is too high (>2 g/cm^3). The diameter of the bundle spot is 1–5 mm, and it is too large (>10 mm) and the deposition is uneven (>10%). Vacuum < 10^{-4} Pa, too high (>10^{-3} Pa) oxidation (O_2>1 ppm). Water cooling flow 1–5 L/min, too low (<0.5 L/min) and too hot (>150°C). The advantage of the evaporation source is its high deposition rate (0.1–5 nm/s) and suitability for high-purity WO_3 (>99.9%). The investment is moderate (1–50,000 US dollars/unit), and the service life is long (> 2000 hours). However, its disadvantages include high energy consumption (1–5 kWh/m^2). The target utilization rate is low (<50%) and requires frequent replenishment (cost of $50/kg). Splashes need to be shielded (efficiency < 90%). The evaporation source provides a high-efficiency vapor phase source for the yellow tungsten trioxide film.

7.4.2 Vacuum systems

The vacuum system provides a low-pressure environment ($<10^{-4}$ Pa) for the preparation of yellow tungsten trioxide by PVD, reduces gas collisions (mean free path >1 m), and ensures linear transfer of target atoms to the substrate (deposition efficiency > 95%). The system requires a high pumping speed (>100 L/s) and a low leakage rate ($<10^{-8}$ Pa·). m^3/s) and stability (continuous operation >5000 hours).

The vacuum system (model VP-1000) consists of a vacuum chamber (304 stainless steel, volume 0.1–10 m^3), mechanical pump (pumping speed 10–50 m^3/h, ultimate vacuum 1 Pa), molecular pump (pumping speed 500–2000 L/s, ultimate vacuum $<10^{-6}$ Pa), valve (316L stainless steel, sealing rate >99.9%), and vacuum gauge (thermocouple + ionization, accuracy ±1%). The operating principle is based on multi-stage vacuuming, with mechanical pumps coarse pumping to 1–10 Pa and molecular pumps fine pumping to $<10^{-4}$ Pa, where WO_3 atoms are deposited at low pressures (collision rate <1%). Vacuum chamber wall polishing (Ra <0.5 μm) to reduce adsorption (H_2O<1 ppm). Cold trap (liquid nitrogen, -196 °C) captures residual gas (O_2<0.1 ppm). Safety devices include overvoltage protection ($>10^{-2}$ Pa de-energized) and leak rate detection (He leak detection, $<10^{-8}$ Pa·). m^3/s）。

The process begins with vacuum preparation. Vacuum chamber cleaning (ethanol, residual < 1 mg/cm^2), mounting target and substrate (FTO glass, 10–100 cm^2). Close the valve, start the mechanical pump (5–10 min, 1 Pa), and switch the molecular pump (10–20 min, $<10^{-4}$ Pa). Vacuum gauge monitoring (frequency 1 Hz) maintained at $<10^{-4}$ Pa (fluctuation <±10%) during deposition. After deposition (10–60 minutes), high-purity nitrogen (99.999%, 0.1–1 Pa/min) is slowly introduced to restore normal pressure. Pump set maintenance ($1000 oil replacement cost per 50 hours) The process needs to be clean (dust< 0.1 mg/m^3). Uniformity (thickness deviation <5%) is detected by SEM of the film.

The optimization of key parameters is crucial for vacuum effectiveness. Vacuum < 10^{-4} Pa, too high ($>10^{-3}$ Pa) oxidation (WO_2>1%). Pumping speed 500–2000 L/s, too low (<100 L/s) and slow pumping (>30 minutes). Leakage rate < 10^{-8} Pa·m^3/s, too high ($>10^{-7}$ Pa·m^3/s) contamination (O_2>1 ppm). The cold trap temperature is <-150°C, and the capture efficiency is low (<80%) if it is too high (>-100°C). The vacuum chamber is made of 304SS (Fe<5 ppm) and the inner wall adsorption rate is < 1 ppm. The running time is 20–90 minutes, and the energy consumption is high (>1 kWh/m^3) for too long (>4 hours). The advantage of the vacuum system is the high vacuum ($<10^{-4}$ Pa) and the support of high-quality WO_3 (purity > 99.9%). The pumping speed is fast (<30 minutes) and suitable for pilot tests (0.1–10 m^3). However, its disadvantages include high energy consumption (0.5–2 kWh/m^3). The investment is large ($5–$200,000/set) and the maintenance is complex (about $1,000 per year). Molecular pumps need to be serviced regularly (every 2 years, cost $2,000). The vacuum system provides a clean environment for the deposition of tungsten.

7.4.3 Substrate heating and cooling devices

The substrate heating and cooling device regulates the substrate temperature (25–400 °C) in the preparation of yellow tungsten trioxide by PVD to optimize the crystal form (monoclinic or amorphous) and adhesion (>5 MPa) of the WO_3 film, and rapidly cools (<40 °C) after deposition to avoid thermal stress (crack rate <2%). The equipment needs to be precisely temperature controlled (deviation <±1°C), efficient heat transfer (>90%) and vacuum resistant ($<10^{-4}$ Pa).

The unit (model HT-200) consists of a heating table (graphite or ceramic, power 0.5–5 kW), cooling coil (copper, thermal conductivity> 300 W/m·K), thermocouple (type K, accuracy ± 0.5°C), thermostat (PID, accuracy ± 1°C), and water cooling system (flow rate 1–5 L/min, 5–15°C). The operating principle is based on resistance heating (25–400 °C) to promote atomic diffusion (grain size 20–100 nm) and rapid cooling of the water-cooled coil (cooling rate 5–20 °C/min). Graphite table (thermal conductivity 100 W/m·K) high temperature resistance (>1000°C), ceramic coating (alumina, purity > 99.5%) to avoid contamination (C<5 ppm). Vacuum-sealed (leak rate< 10^{-8} Pa·m³/s) to ensure stability.

The process begins with substrate preparation. FTO glass (10–100 cm²) cleaned (ultrasonic, 40 kHz, 10 min) and fixed on a heating table. The vacuum chamber is pumped to $<10^{-4}$ Pa, the heating table is heated to 100–300 °C (5–10 °C/min), and the temperature is kept constant (deviation <± 1°C) during deposition (10–60 minutes). After WO_3 deposition (thickness 100–500 nm), water cooling (flow rate 2–5 L/min) was initiated and cooled to <40°C (10–20 minutes). The thermocouple is monitored in real time (1 Hz) and the thermostat adjusts the power (error <±1%). Unit cleaning (ethanol, residual < 1 mg/cm²). The process needs to be clean (dust< 0.1 mg/m³). The crystal form (monoclinic ratio > 80%) and morphology (porosity <5%) were detected by XRD and SEM of the thin films.

The optimization of key parameters is critical to film quality. Heating temperature 100–300°C, too high (>400°C) substrate damage (FTO resistance >50 Ω/sq), too low (<50°C) high amorphous proportion (>50%). The cooling rate is 5–20°C/min, cracking (>5%) is too fast (>30°C/min), and low efficiency (<80%) is too slow (<2°C/min). The temperature control accuracy is ± 1°C, and the deviation is >± 5°C, and the deposition is uneven (>10%). The flow rate of water cooling is 2–5 L/min, and the cooling is slow (>30 minutes) if it is too low (<1 L/min). The heating table should be made of graphite or ceramic (C<5 ppm). The running time is 20–90 minutes, and the energy consumption is high (>0.5 kWh/m²) for too long (> 4 hours). The advantages of the device are precise temperature control (deviation <± 1°C) and support for polymorph optimization (monoclinic > 80%). The investment is moderate (2000-10,000 US dollars/unit), and the service life is long (> 5000 hours). However, its disadvantages include high energy consumption (0.2–0.5 kWh/m²). Precautions are required for high-temperature operation (cost $100/time). Pure water (impurities< 10 ppm) is required for water cooling. The device provides temperature support for the tungsten film.

7.4.4 Film thickness monitoring equipment

The film thickness monitoring device measures the WO_3 film thickness (10–1000 nm) in real time in the preparation of yellow tungsten trioxide by PVD method, ensuring deposition accuracy (deviation <5%) and performance consistency (electrochromic efficiency >50 cm²/C). The device needs to be high-resolution (<0.1 nm), fast response (<1 s), and vacuum resistant ($<10^{-4}$ Pa).

The common type of monitoring equipment (model QCM-200) is a quartz crystal microbalance (QCM), which consists of a quartz crystal (frequency 5–10 MHz, accuracy ±0.1 Hz), oscillator (power 0.1–0.5

W), controller (digital display, accuracy ± 0.1 nm), and shield (316L stainless steel, thermal conductivity < 15 W/m·K). The operating principle is based on the change in crystal frequency with mass (Sauerbrey equation, 1 Hz ≈1 ng/cm²), WO_3 deposition increases mass, frequency decreases, and controller converts thickness (density 7.16 g/cm³). Quartz crystals (10–20 mm diameter) are temperature resistant (<200°C) and shielded against overheating (<100°C). The QCM accuracy ± 0.1 nm, making it suitable for real-time monitoring (deposition rate 0.1–5 nm/s).

The process starts with the installation of the device. The QCM was fixed in a vacuum chamber (5–10 cm from the substrate) and the crystals were pre-cleaned (ethanol, residual < 1 mg/cm²). Vacuum pumped to $<10^{-4}$ Pa and calibrated crystal frequency (error <± 0.1 Hz). During deposition (10–60 minutes), QCM records the thickness in real time (frequency 1 Hz) and controls the evaporation rate (0.1–5 nm/s). Once the target thickness (100–500 nm) is reached, the deposition is stopped. Crystal replacement ($50/piece per 100–200 cycles) Controller data export to verify deposition accuracy (deviation <5%). The process needs to be clean (dust< 0.1 mg/m³). Thin films were tested with SEM and ellipsometry to detect thickness (deviation <5%) and refractive index (2.0–2.2).

The optimization of key parameters is essential for monitoring effectiveness. The crystal frequency is 5–10 MHz, and the sensitivity is poor (>1 nm) if it is too low (<5 MHz). The deposition rate is 0.1–5 nm/s, and the error is large (>10%) if it is too fast (>10 nm/s). The crystal is 5–10 cm away from the substrate and the signal is weak (<80%) if it is too far away (>20 cm). The temperature of the shield < 100°C, and if it is too high (>150°C), the crystal is detuned (error >5%). The vacuum degree $< 10^{-4}$ Pa, and the interference frequency (>1 Hz) is too high ($>10^{-3}$ Pa). The monitoring time is 10–60 minutes, and the crystal saturation (thickness > 2000 nm) is too long (> 4 hours). The advantages of the equipment are high accuracy (±0.1 nm) and real-time monitoring (deviation <5%). The investment is moderate (5000-20,000 US dollars/unit), and the operation is simple. However, the disadvantages include the need for frequent crystal replacement (costing $50/piece). High temperature deposition (>200°C) affects accuracy (>5%). QCM provides precise thickness control for tungsten films.

7.5 Core equipment for the preparation of yellow tungsten trioxide by chemical vapor deposition

Tungsten yellow (WO_3) is prepared by chemical vapor deposition (CVD) with a tungsten precursor such as WF_6 or $W(CO)_6$) is used as a gas source, and is deposited on the substrate surface by chemical reaction to form WO_3 thin films or nanostructures (thickness 10–1000 nm, particle size 20–200 nm), which are widely used in electrochromic (coloring efficiency >50 cm²/C), photocatalysis (degradation efficiency >85%) and sensors (detection limit <1 ppm). The CVD method reacts a gas phase precursor with a substrate surface to generate WO_3, and the process requires high vacuum (<100 Pa), precise temperature control (300–800°C), and gas flow control (<±1% accuracy) to ensure high purity (>99.9%), uniformity (thickness deviation <5%), and crystal form (monoclinic or amorphous) of the film. The core equipment includes the reaction chamber, gas supply system, heating system, vacuum system and exhaust gas treatment unit, this section focuses on the reaction chamber and gas supply system, and analyzes their function, structure, operation points and technical characteristics in detail, combined with professional data and industrial applications.

7.5.1 Reaction chambers

The reaction chamber is the core equipment for the preparation of yellow tungsten trioxide by CVD, which is used to provide a controlled environment for the chemical reaction of precursor gases (e.g., WF_6) and reactive gases (e.g., O_2) on the substrate surface to deposit WO_3 thin films (deposition rate 0.1–10 nm/s). It needs to be resistant to high temperatures (>1000°C), corrosion resistant (HF, H_2) and high tightness (leak rate< 10^{-8} Pa·m³/s) to ensure film quality (purity>99.9%) and process stability.

The reaction chamber (model CVD-300) consists of a chamber (quartz or 316 L stainless steel, volume 0.1–10 L), substrate holder (graphite or ceramic, area 10–500 cm²), heating system (infrared or resistive, power 1–10 kW), gas distributor (316L stainless steel, bore size 0.1–1 mm), and exhaust port (PTFE or 316L, 10–50 mm inner diameter). The operating principle is based on a gas-phase reaction in which WF_6+O_2 reacts on a substrate (FTO glass, 300–600 °C): $WF_6 + 3/2O_2 \rightarrow WO_3 + 3F_2$ to generate a WO_3 film. The quartz chamber (purity > 99.9%) is resistant to high temperatures (>1200°C) and corrosion (HF<1 ppm), and the gas distributor ensures uniform gas flow (flow field deviation <5%). The base stent is coated with alumina (purity>99.5%) to avoid contamination (C<5 ppm). The sealing system (O-ring, Viton) maintains a vacuum (<100 Pa) and a leak rate of <10^{-8} Pa·m³/s。

The process begins with the preparation of the chamber. Cavity cleaning (deionized water and ethanol, residual < 1 mg/cm²), basal (FTO, 10–100 cm²) ultrasonic cleaning (40 kHz, 10 min), fixed to stent. The chamber is evacuated to <10 Pa and heated to 300–600 °C (heating rate 5–10 °C/min). Precursors (WF_6, flow rates 10–50 sccm) and O_2 (flow rates 50–200 sccm) are introduced, reaction pressures are 1–100 Pa, deposition is 10–60 minutes, and film thicknesses are 100–500 nm. After deposition, the air source is turned off, cooled to <100°C (5–10°C/min), and the atmospheric pressure is restored through high-purity N_2 (99.999%). Cavity cleaning (N_2 purge + plasma cleaning, residual <0.1 mg/cm²). The process needs to be clean (dust< 0.1 mg/m³). Scanning electron microscopy (SEM), X-ray diffraction (XRD) and ultraviolet-visible spectroscopy (UV-Vis) were used to detect topography (porosity <5%), crystal form (monoclinic, plane spacing 0.38 nm) and band gap (2.6–2.8 eV).

The optimization of key parameters is critical to the deposition effect. The reaction temperature is 300–600 °C, with too high (>800 °C) with increased by-products (WO_2>1%), and too low (<200 °C) and slow deposition (<0.1 nm/s). Pressures 1–100 Pa, too high (>500 Pa) gas phase reactions (particles>1 μm), too low (<0.1 Pa) and low deposition efficiency (<50%). The airflow ratio $WF_6:O_2$=1:5–1:10 is too high (>1:2) F_2 corrosion (cavity life < 1000 hours), too low (<1:20) and incomplete reaction (WO_3 yield <80%). The cavity should be made of quartz (Si<5 ppm) with a sealing leakage rate of <10^{-8} Pa·m³/s。 The deposition time is 10–60 minutes, and the film cracks (>5%) if it is too long (>2 hours). The advantage of the reaction chamber is that the environment is controllable (yield > 95%) and it is suitable for high-purity WO_3 (>99.9%). The investment is moderate ($1–100,000/unit) to support laboratory and pilot (0.1–10 L). However, its disadvantages include high energy consumption (0.5–2 kWh/m²). Complex cleaning (0.5 hours per session, cost $50). The by-product (HF) is to be treated (cost $20/m³). The reaction chamber provides a stable reaction environment for the deposition of yellow tungsten trioxide.

7.5.2 Gas supply systems

The gas supply system is used in the CVD preparation of yellow tungsten trioxide for the precise delivery of precursor gases (e.g., WF_6), reaction gases (e.g., O_2), and carrier gases (e.g., N_2 or Ar), ensuring uniform distribution of reactive gases (flow deviation<±1%) and stoichiometric ratios ($WF_6:O_2=1:5–1:10$). The system needs to be highly accurate (flow control ± 0.1 sccm), corrosion resistance (WF_6, HF resistance) and safety (leak rate< 10^{-9} Pa·m^3/s) to avoid contamination (Fe, C<5 ppm) and process fluctuations (deposition deviation >5%).

The gas supply system (model GS-500) consists of a gas cylinder (316 L stainless steel, volume 10–50 L, pressure > 10 MPa), mass flow controller (MFC, 1–500 sccm, accuracy ±0.5%), piping (PTFE or 316L, I.D. 2–10 mm), valve (316L, sealing > 99.9%), and pressure regulator (accuracy ±0.1 MPa). The operating principle is based on the MFC precisely regulating the gas flow, WF_6 (boiling point 17 °C, purity >99.9%) is output from the cylinder, mixed with O_2 (purity > 99.999%) and N_2 (carrier gas, purity >99.999%) and piped into the reaction chamber (pressure 1–100 Pa). PTFE tubing (HF resistant, corrosion rate < 0.01 mm/year) ensures low contamination (Fe<5 ppm). Safety devices include leak detection (He leak detection, < 10^{-9} Pa·m^3/s) and emergency shut-off valve (response <0.1 seconds).

The process begins with gas preparation. Cylinders (WF_6, O_2, N_2) check the pressure (1–10 MPa) and connect to MFC (pre-calibrated, error <± 0.5%). Pipe and valve cleaning (N_2 purging, residual <0.1 mg/cm^2), system evacuation to <10 Pa, leak detection (<10^{-9} Pa·m^3/s）。 Set WF_6 flow rate 10–50 sccm, O_2 flow rate 50–200 sccm, N_2 flow rate 100–500 sccm, total pressure 1–100 Pa. After the chamber is heated to 300–600 °C, the valve is opened, the gas mixture enters the chamber, and it is deposited for 10–60 minutes (thickness 100–500 nm). After deposition, close the WF_6 and purge the pipe with N_2 (500 sccm, 5 min). The cylinders are stored in a fume hood (500 m^3/h) and the exhaust gases (HF, F_2) are absorbed by the caustic solution (efficiency >99%). MFC calibration (every 6 months, cost $100). Thin films were tested by SEM and XRD for uniformity (deviation <5%) and crystal form (monoclinic ratio> 80%).

The optimization of key parameters is crucial for the effectiveness of the gas supply. WF_6 flow rate 10–50 sccm, too high (>100 sccm) side reactions (F_2>10 ppm), too low (<5 sccm) slow deposition (<0.1 nm/s). O_2 flow rate 50–200 sccm, too high (>500 sccm) excessive oxidation (porosity > 10%), too low (<20 sccm) WO_3 incomplete (yield <80%). N_2 flow rate 100–500 sccm, too high (>1000 sccm) dilution reaction (efficiency < 70%). MFC accuracy ± 0.5%, and the error of >± 2% leads to uneven deposition (>10%). The pipe material needs to be PTFE (Fe<5 ppm), pressure 1–100 Pa, and particle formation (>1 μm) if too high (>500 Pa). The exhaust gas treatment efficiency > 99%, and the emission < 1 mg/m^3. The advantages of the gas supply system are accurate flow (deviation <± 1%) and stable deposition (yield > 95%). The investment is moderate (50 million – 50,000 US dollars/set), suitable for a variety of precursors (WF_6, $W(CO)_6$). However, its disadvantages include the high toxicity of WF_6 (requires protection, costs $200 per visit). Pipes are susceptible to corrosion (HF, lifespan < 2 years). High cost of exhaust gas treatment ($20/$m^3$). The gas supply system provides precise compressed air control for the xantone deposition.

7.5.3 Heating systems

The heating system is used to provide a high-temperature environment (300–800 °C) for the reaction chamber and substrate in the preparation of yellow tungsten trioxide by CVD, and to promote the chemical reaction of precursors (e.g., WF_6) and reactive gases (e.g., O_2) on the substrate surface to form WO_3 thin films (deposition rate 0.1–10 nm/s). The system needs to have precise temperature control (deviation <± 1°C), high temperature resistance (>1000°C) and efficient heat transfer (efficiency > 90%) to ensure the crystal form (monoclinic ratio >80%) and adhesion (>5 MPa) of the film.

Common types of heating systems (model HT-CVD-600) include resistance heating and infrared heating, which is widely used due to its stability and uniformity. The structure consists of a heating element (silicon carbon rod or nichrome alloy with a power of 1–10 kW), a heating furnace body (quartz or alumina ceramic, temperature resistant > 1200 °C), a thermocouple (type K, accuracy ± 0.5 °C), a thermostat (PID, accuracy ± 1 °C) and a thermal insulation layer (aluminum silicate, thickness 50–100 mm, thermal conductivity <0.1 W/m·K). The operating principle is based on electrothermal conversion, where the heating element is heated to 300–600°C and the heat is transferred to the substrate (FTO glass) by radiation and convection, driving the reaction: $WF_6 + 3/2O_2 \rightarrow WO_3 + 3F_2$. The quartz furnace body (purity > 99.9%) is corrosion resistant (HF resistant) and the thermal insulation layer reduces heat loss (<10%). The thermocouple is embedded in the substrate holder (< 5 mm from the substrate) and the temperature is monitored in real time (frequency 1 Hz).

The process begins with substrate preparation. FTO glass (10–100 cm²) ultrasonicated (40 kHz, 10 min) and fixed to an intracavity stent (graphite, purity> 99.5%). The chamber is evacuated to <10 Pa, the valve is closed, the heating system is activated, the temperature is set to 300–600 °C (heating rate 5–10 °C/min), and the temperature is preheated for 10–20 minutes (deviation <± 1°C). WF_6 (10–50 sccm) and O_2 (50–200 sccm) were introduced and deposited for 10–60 minutes with film thicknesses of 100–500 nm. After deposition, heat is turned off and cooled to <100°C (5–10°C/min N_2 500 sccm). Furnace cleaning (N_2 purge, residual <0.1 mg/cm²), thermocouple calibration (monthly, error <± 0.5°C). The process needs to be clean (dust< 0.1 mg/m³). The thin film was detected by X-ray diffraction (XRD) and scanning electron microscopy (SEM) to detect the crystal form (monoclinic, plane spacing 0.38 nm) and morphology (porosity <5%).

The optimization of key parameters is critical to the quality of the deposit. Temperatures 300–600 °C, too high (>800 °C) by-products (WO_2>1%), too low (<200 °C) slow deposition (<0.1 nm/s). The temperature control accuracy is ± 1°C, and the deviation of >±5°C leads to uneven crystal form (monoclinic ratio <70%). The heating rate is 5–10°C/min, the basal stress (crack >5%) that is too fast (>20°C/min) is too fast, and the inefficiency is low (<80%) (<2°C/min). Heating power 1–10 kW, high energy consumption (>2 kWh/m²) over high (>15 kW). The furnace body is made of quartz (Si<5 ppm) and the insulation layer loss is <10%. The deposition time is 10–60 minutes, and the film is loose (porosity >10%) if it is too long (>2 hours). The advantages of the heating system are precise temperature control (deviation <± 1°C) and support for high quality WO_3 (purity > 99.9%). The investment is moderate (5,000–20,000 US dollars/unit) and the service life is long (> 5,000 hours). However, its disadvantages include high energy consumption (0.5–2 kWh/m²). Precautions are required for high-temperature operation (cost $100/time). Insulation needs to be maintained (annually, at a cost of $200). The heating system provides a stable high-temperature environment for tungsten deposition.

7.5.4 Vacuum systems

The vacuum system provides a low-pressure environment (1–100 Pa) in the CVD preparation of tungsten, reduces gas-phase collisions (mean free path > 10 cm), and ensures efficient transfer of precursor gases to the substrate (deposition efficiency >95%). The system requires a high pumping speed (>100 L/s) and a low leakage rate ($<10^{-8}$ Pa·). m³/s) and stability (5000 hours of continuous operation>) to avoid oxidation (O_2<1 ppm) and contamination (Fe<5 ppm).

The vacuum system (model VS-CVD-500) consists of a vacuum chamber (316 L stainless steel, volume 0.1–10 L), mechanical pump (pumping speed 10–50 m³/h, ultimate vacuum 1 Pa), molecular pump (pumping speed 500–2000 L/s, ultimate vacuum $<10^{-6}$ Pa), valve (316 L, sealing rate > 99.9%), vacuum gauge (thermocouple + ionization, accuracy ±1%) and cold trap (liquid nitrogen, -196°C). The operating principle is based on multi-stage vacuuming, with mechanical pumps pumping coarse to 1–10 Pa and molecular pumps fine pumping to <10 Pa, maintaining the reaction pressure (1–100 Pa). The 316L vacuum chamber (polished Ra <0.5 μm) reduces adsorption (H_2O<1 ppm) and the cold trap captures volatile by-products (HF<1 ppm). Safety devices include overvoltage protection (> 500 Pa power off) and leak rate detection (He leak detection, $< 10^{-8}$ Pa·m³/s）。

The process begins with the preparation of the chamber. Vacuum chamber cleaning (ethanol, residual < 1 mg/cm²), mounting substrate (FTO, 10–100 cm²). Close the valve, start the mechanical pump (5–10 min, 1 Pa), and switch the molecular pump (10–20 min, < 10 Pa). Gauge monitoring (1 Hz) and maintenance of 1–100 Pa (fluctuation <±5%) during deposition (WF_6+O_2, 10–60 min). After deposition, high purity N_2 (99.999%, 0.1–1 Pa/min) was passed, and normal pressure was restored. Pump set maintenance ($1000 oil replacement cost per 50 hours) Cold trap emptying ($20 liquid nitrogen cost per batch). The process needs to be clean (dust< 0.1 mg/m³). Uniformity (thickness deviation <5%) is detected by SEM of the film.

The optimization of key parameters is crucial for vacuum effectiveness. The pressure was 1–100 Pa, too high (>500 Pa) for particle generation (>1 μm), too low (<0.1 Pa) for slow deposition (<0.1 nm/s). Pumping speed 500–2000 L/s, too low (<100 L/s) and slow pumping (>30 minutes). Leakage rate $< 10^{-8}$ Pa·m³/s, too high ($>10^{-7}$ Pa·m³/s) contamination (O_2>1 ppm). The cold trap temperature is <-150°C, and the capture efficiency is low (<80%) if it is too high (>-100°C). The vacuum chamber material needs to be 316L (Fe<5 ppm). The running time is 20–90 minutes, and the energy consumption is high (>1 kWh/L) for long (>4 hours). The advantage of the vacuum system is the high vacuum (<10 Pa) and the support of high-quality WO_3 (purity > 99.9%). The pumping speed is fast (<30 minutes) and suitable for medium test (0.1–10 L). However, its disadvantages include high energy consumption (0.5–2 kWh/L). The investment is large ($5–$200,000/set) and the molecular pump is complex to maintain ($2,000 per 2 years). The vacuum system provides a clean, low-pressure environment for tungsten deposition.

7.5.5 Exhaust gas treatment system

The tail gas treatment system is used to capture and neutralize reaction by-products (e.g., HF, F_2) and unreacted precursors (WF_6) in the preparation of yellow tungsten trioxide by CVD method, ensuring that the emission meets environmental standards (HF<1 mg/m³, F_2<0.1 ppm). The system needs to be highly absorbent (>99%), corrosion resistant (HF, H_2 resistant) and safe (leakage rate< 10^{-9} Pa·m³/s) to protect the equipment (corrosion rate <0.01 mm/year) and the environment.

The exhaust gas treatment system (model EGS-200) consists of an absorption tower (316 L stainless steel or PTFE, volume 10–100 L), lye tank (NaOH solution, concentration 0.1–1 mol/L), spray pump (flow rate 1–10 L/min, power 0.5–2 kW), activated carbon filter (pore size 0.1–1 μm, adsorption rate > 95%), and exhaust duct (PTFE, inner diameter 10–50 mm). The operating principle is based on chemical neutralization, where HF and F_2 generate NaF and H_2O by spraying (NaOH, pH 10–12): $HF + NaOH \rightarrow NaF + H_2O$, $F_2 + 2NaOH \rightarrow 2NaF + H_2O + 1/2O_2$. The activated carbon filter captures residual organic matter ($W(CO)_6$<1 ppm). PTFE tubing (HF resistant) ensures low contamination (Fe<5 ppm). Safety devices include pH monitoring (accuracy ± 0.1) and leakage alarm (HF>1 ppm triggering).

The operation process starts with the system startup. The caustic pool was injected with NaOH (0.5 mol/L, 80–90% filling) and cleaned in the absorption column (deionized water, residual < 1 mg/cm²). The chamber is deposited (WF_6+O_2, 10–60 min), the exhaust gases (HF, F_2, flow rate 10–100 L/min) enter the absorption tower, and the spray pump is operated (flow rate 2–5 L/min). After neutralization, the waste liquid (pH 6–8) is collected (NaF<100 ppm) and the gas is filtered through activated carbon (discharge< 1 mg/m³). Lye replenishment ($10 per batch), activated carbon replacement ($100 per hour, $50 cost). Pipeline inspection (weekly, leak rate< 10^{-9} Pa·m³/s）。 The process needs to be ventilated (500–2000 m³/h). The quality of the film was verified by SEM (porosity <5%), and the waste liquid was detected by ICP-MS (F^-<100 ppm).

The optimization of key parameters is crucial to the effectiveness of the treatment. NaOH concentration of 0.1–1 mol/L, too high (>2 mol/L) pipe corrosion (>0.1 mm/year), too low (<0.05 mol/L) and low neutralization efficiency (<90%). Spray flow rates of 2–5 L/min, too high (>10 L/min), wasteful (cost>0.1 USD/L), too low (<1 L/min), and incomplete absorption (HF>1 ppm). The volume of the absorption tower is 10–100 L, and the capacity is low (<50 L/min) if it is too small (<5 L). The pore size of activated carbon is 0.1–1 μm, and the adsorption rate is low (<80%) when it is too large (>2 μm). Exhaust gas flow 10–100 L/min, overload (> 200 L/min) (discharge > 1 mg/m³). The pipe material needs to be PTFE (Fe<5 ppm). The advantage of the treatment system is its high efficiency (>99%) and compliance with environmental standards (HF<1 mg/m³). The investment is moderate (1–50,000 US dollars/unit), and the service life is long (>5 years). However, its disadvantages include high energy consumption (0.1–0.5 kWh/m³). The lye and activated carbon need to be replaced regularly (costing $50/batch). HF treatment needs to be protected (cost 100 USD/time). The exhaust gas treatment system provides environmental protection for the deposition of yellow tungsten trioxide.

7.6 Core equipment for the preparation of yellow tungsten trioxide by biological template method

Yellowsten (WO_3) uses natural or synthetic biomaterials (e.g., cellulose, proteins, or bacterial membranes) as templates by biotemplate method, combined with tungsten precursors (e.g., Na_2WO_4 or WCl_6) through impregnation, deposition, and heat treatment to form WO_3 nanostructures with specific morphologies (particle size 20–200 nm, pore size 5–100 nm). This method is widely used in photocatalysis (degradation efficiency >85%), electrochromic (coloring efficiency >50 cm²/C) and sensors (detection limit <1 ppm), and has attracted attention for its environmental friendliness (chemical dosage < 50 g/L) and morphology controllability (porosity >50%). The process requires mild reaction conditions (temperature < 100°C, pH 4–10), corrosion resistance (resistance to weak acids and alkalis), and high uniformity (concentration deviation <5%) to ensure high purity (>99.9%) and structural accuracy (topography deviation <10%) of WO_3. The core equipment includes reaction vessels, heating equipment and stirring equipment, and this section analyzes its function, structure, operational points and technical characteristics in detail, combined with professional data and laboratory applications.

7.6.1 Reaction vessels

The reaction vessel is used to carry biological templates (e.g., cellulose filter paper, pore size 0.1–10 µm), precursor solutions (e.g., Na_2WO_4, 0.01–0.1 mol/L), and reaction media (water or ethanol) in the preparation of yellow tungsten trioxide by the biological template method, supporting template impregnation and WO_3 deposition (yield >90%). Containers need to be corrosion-resistant (pH 4–10), highly airtight (leakage rate <0.01 mL/min) and low contamination (Fe, C<5 ppm) to avoid impurities affecting WO_3 purity.

The reaction vessel (model RC-500) is typically a glass beaker or polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) tank, and consists of a vessel body (glass or PTFE, volume 0.1–10 L), sealing lid (silicone O-ring, pressure resistance 0.1 MPa), holder (316 L stainless steel or PTFE, bearing plate 10–100 cm²), and sampling port (PTFE, 5–10 mm inner diameter). The principle of operation is based on solution impregnation, where the biological template adsorbs tungstate (WO_4^{2-}) in a Na_2WO_4 solution (pH 4–7) and subsequently generates WO_3 by acidification (HCl, pH 4–6) or heat treatment (200–500°C): $Na_2WO_4 + 2HCl \rightarrow H_2WO_4 + 2NaCl$, $H_2WO_4 \rightarrow WO_3 + H_2O$。 Glass containers (purity > 99.5%) or PTFE (pH 1–14 resistant) ensure low contamination (Fe<5 ppm). The stent holds the template in place and maintains uniform immersion (liquid level deviation <1 mm). The sealed cap prevents volatilization (ethanol loss <1%).

The process starts with the preparation of the template. Cellulose filter paper (0.1–1 mm thick) or bacterial membrane (1–10 µm thick) cleaned (deionized water, residual < 1 mg/cm²) and fixed on the stent. Na_2WO_4 (purity>99.5%) is dissolved in deionized water (conductivity< 10 µS/cm, 0.01–0.1 mol/L) and poured into a container (50–80% filling). The template was macerated for 1–24 hours (agitated at 50–200 rpm), HCl (0.1 mol/L, drip rate 0.1–0.5 mL/min) was slowly added to pH 4–6, and H_2WO_4

deposition was formed after 1–4 hours of reaction. The template was removed, washed with water (Na^+, Cl^-<10 ppm) and transferred to heat treatment (200–500°C). Container washing (ethanol, residual < 1 mg/cm²). The process requires ventilation (air volume 200–500 m³/h) and control of acid mist (HCl<1 mg/m³). Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and X-ray diffraction (XRD) were used to detect morphology (porosity >50%) and crystal form (monoclinic, plane spacing of 0.38 nm).

Optimization of key parameters is critical to the effectiveness of the reaction. The solution pH 4–6 is too high (>8) for less deposition (yield < 70%) and too low (<3) for template degradation (porosity <30%). The maceration time is 1–24 hours, the template is saturated (wasted > 10%) for too long (>48 hours), and uneven deposition (deviation >20%) for too short (<1 hour). The container filling rate is 50–80%, and the reaction is uneven (concentration deviation > 10%) if it is too high (>90%). Temperature 20–60°C, too high (>80°C) and template damage (>10%). The container should be made of glass or PTFE (Fe<5 ppm) with a leak rate of < 0.01 mL/min. The advantage of the reactor is its ease of operation (investment of $100–1000 per unit) and its suitability for small trials (0.1–10 L/batch). High purity (Fe<5 ppm) with support for a wide range of templates (cellulose, protein). However, its disadvantages include limited capacity (<10 L) and unsuitable for mass production. Poor consistency of manual operation (deviation > 10%). Cleaning time (0.5 hours each time). The reaction vessel provides a mild reaction environment for the yellow tungsten trioxide biotemplate method.

7.6.2 Heating equipment

Heating equipment is used to control the reaction temperature (20–60 °C), template drying (60–100 °C) and heat treatment (200–500 °C) in the preparation of yellow tungsten trioxide by biological template method to promote precursor deposition (yield > 90%) and WO_3 crystallization (monoclinic ratio > 80%). The equipment needs precise temperature control (deviation <±1°C), corrosion resistance (water vapor resistance) and uniform heating (deviation <±2°C) to avoid template damage (<10%) and film cracking (<2%).

Heating equipment (model MFL-1200) includes a thermostatic water bath (solution reaction) and a muffle furnace (heat treatment). The construction of the muffle furnace consists of a furnace body (304 stainless steel, volume 10–100 L), heating element (silicon carbon rod, power 1–5 kW), furnace chamber (alumina ceramic, temperature resistance > 1200 °C), thermostat (PID, accuracy ± 1 °C) and thermal insulation (aluminum silicate, thickness 50 mm). The operating principle is based on resistance heating, where the furnace is heated to 200–500 °C, H_2WO_4 is decomposed into WO_3: $H_2WO_4 \rightarrow WO_3 + H_2O$, and the template (cellulose) is burned to form a porous structure (pore size 5–100 nm). Alumina furnace (purity > 99.5%) to avoid contamination (Al<5 ppm). Thermal insulation reduces heat loss (<10%). Safety devices include over-temperature protection (> 600°C power off) and vents (10–50 mm diameter).

The process starts with the heating of the solution. The water bath was set at 20–60°C (deviation<±0.5°C), impregnated with Na_2WO_4 solution (0.01–0.1 mol/L), and the template reaction was maintained for 1–24 hours. After the template is removed, it is placed in a water bath (60–80°C, 2–4 hours) to dry (moisture content <5%). The drying template is placed in a muffle furnace at 200–500 °C (heating rate 2–5 °C/min), heat treated for 1–4 hours, the template is burned and WO_3 (specific surface area > 50 m²/g) is formed. Cool to <100°C (3–5°C/min at N_2 100 sccm). Furnace cleaning (compressed air, residual < 0.1 mg/cm²). The process needs to be ventilated (200–500 m³/h). The porosity (>50%), polymorph (monoclinic), and specific surface area (20–80 m²/g) were measured by SEM, XRD, and BET.

The optimization of key parameters is crucial for WO_3 quality. The heat treatment temperature is 200–500 °C, too high (>600 °C) the grain grows (>500 nm), too low (<150 °C) the crystallization is incomplete (amorphous > 50%). The heating rate is 2–5°C/min, and the template cracks (>5%) too quickly (>10°C/min). The temperature control accuracy ± 1°C, and the deviation is >±5°C, and the morphology is uneven (pore diameter deviation >20%). Furnace volume 10–100 L, too small (<5 L) and few batches (<10 cm²). The drying temperature is 60–80 °C, and the template shrinks (>10%) if it is too high (>100 °C). The furnace chamber should be made of alumina (Al<5 ppm). The advantages of the heating system are the wide temperature range (20–500 °C) and the support for crystallization (yield > 95%). The investment is moderate ($1,000–$5,000/unit) and the maintenance is simple (about $200 per year). However, its disadvantages include high energy consumption (0.5–2 kWh/kg). Protection from high temperatures (cost: $50 per time). Small furnaces are not suitable for mass production (> 100 cm²). Heating equipment provides key support for tungsten topography control.

7.6.3 Mixing equipment

The stirring equipment is used to mix the precursor solution (Na_2WO_4, 0.01–0.1 mol/L), acidifier (HCl, pH 4–6) and template suspension (e.g., cellulose slurry) in the preparation of yellow tungsten trioxide by the biological template method, ensuring uniform dispersion of reactants (concentration deviation<5%) and template impregnation consistency (deposition deviation<10%). The equipment needs to be mild shear (50–500 rpm), corrosion resistant (pH 4–10), and low contamination (Fe, C<5 ppm) to protect the biological template (damage < 5%).

The mixing equipment (model MS-200) is usually a magnetic stirrer and consists of a drive motor (power 0.05–0.5 kW), a magnetic stir bar (PTFE-coated, length 20–50 mm), a vessel (glass, volume 0.1–10 L) and a speed control module (50–1000 rpm, accuracy ±1%). The operating principle is based on a magnetic field that drives the stir bar to rotate, generating a flow field (shear rate 1–10 s^{-1}), and mixing Na_2WO_4 with HCl to form H_2WO_4, which is adsorbed on the surface of the template. PTFE stir bars (pH 1–14, coefficient of friction < 0.1) to avoid contamination (Fe<5 ppm). Glass containers (purity>99.5%) support gentle reactions (pH 4–10). The speed control module ensures a uniform flow field (Reynolds number > 100).

The process begins with the preparation of the solution. Na_2WO_4 (purity>99.5%) is dissolved in deionized water (conductivity< 10 µS/cm, 0.01–0.1 mol/L) and poured into a glass container (50–80% filling). Add template (e.g., cellulose, 0.1–1 g/L), start stirring (100–300 rpm), and disperse for 10–20 minutes (dispersion > 95%). HCl (0.1 mol/L, infusion rate 0.1–0.5 mL/min) was added dropwise to pH 4–6 and stirred for 1–4 hours to adsorb H_2WO_4 (deposition rate >90%). The solution was left to stand or filtered, and the template was washed with water (Cl^-<10 ppm). Stir bar and container wash (ethanol, residual < 1 mg/cm²). The process requires ventilation (air volume 200 m³/h) and control of acid mist ($HCl<1$ mg/m³). Dynamic light scattering (DLS) and UV-Vis were used to detect solution homogeneity (deviation <5%) and deposition efficiency (>90%).

Optimization of critical parameters is critical to the quality of the reaction. Stirring speed 100–300 rpm, too high (>500 rpm) template damage (>10%), too low (<50 rpm) uneven mixing (deviation >10%). pH 4–6, too high (>8) less deposition (<70%), too low (<3) template degradation (>10%). The solution temperature is 20–40 °C, and the template is denatured (>5%) if it is too high (>60 °C). The stir bar length is 20–50 mm, and the flow field is weak (dispersion < 90%) if it is too short (<10 mm). Container filling rate is 50–80%, overfill (>90%) overflow (loss >1%). The material is PTFE (Fe<5 ppm). The advantages of stirring time are homogeneous mixing (dispersion > 95%), gentle handling (template damage <5%). Low investment ($200–1000/unit), suitable for small-scale testing (0.1–10 L). However, its disadvantages include higher energy consumption (0.05–0.1 kWh/L). Large capacity (>10 L) requires mechanical mixing (investment > $2,000). Manual cleaning is time-consuming. The stirring equipment provides a homogeneous environment for the yellow tungsten trioxide template reaction.

7.6.4 Temperature control equipment

Temperature control equipment is used to precisely control the temperature (20–60 °C), template drying (60–100 °C) and heat treatment (200–500 °C) of the reaction solution in the preparation of yellow tungsten trioxide by biological template method to promote precursor deposition (yield >90%), template drying (moisture content <5%) and WO_3crystallization (monoclinic ratio >80%). The equipment needs to provide high-precision temperature control (deviation <± 1°C), corrosion resistance (resistance to water vapor, weak acid) and uniform heating (deviation <±2°C) to avoid template damage (<5%) and film cracking (<2%).

Temperature control equipment includes a thermostatic water bath (Reaction and Drying, Model HH-4) and a muffle furnace (Heat Treatment, Model MFL-1200). The thermostatic water bath structure consists of a sink (304 stainless steel, volume 5–50 L), heating tube (nichrome, power 0.5–2 kW), circulation pump (flow rate 1–5 L/min), thermostat (PID, accuracy ± 0.5 °C) and safety device (over-temperature protection, power off > 85 °C). The construction of the muffle furnace consists of a furnace chamber (alumina ceramic, volume 10–100 L, temperature resistance > 1200 °C), heating element (silicon carbon rod, power 1–5 kW), thermocouple (type K, accuracy ± 0.5 °C), thermostat (PID, accuracy ± 1 °C) and thermal insulation (aluminum silicate, thickness 50 mm). The operating principle is based on electrothermal conversion, and the high heat capacity of the water bath through the water (4.18 kJ/kg· K) Maintained at 20–100 °C, the muffle furnace is heated to 200–500 °C by radiation, driving the decomposition of H_2WO_4: $H_2WO_4 \rightarrow WO_3 + H_2O$. 304 stainless steel (corrosion rate < 0.01 mm/year) and alumina ensure low contamination (Fe, Al<5 ppm).

The procedure begins with a solution reaction. Deionized water (conductivity < 10 µS/cm, filling rate 80–90%) was injected into the water bath, set at 20–60°C, and pre-warmed for 10–20 minutes (deviation <± 0.5°C). The reaction vessel (containing Na_2WO_4, 0.01–0.1 mol/L and template) was placed in a water bath and immersed for 1–24 hours (agitated at 100–300 rpm). The template was removed and placed in a water bath (60–80°C, 2–4 hours) to dry (moisture content <5%). The dried template is transferred to a muffle furnace at 200–500 °C (2–5 °C/min) and heat treated for 1–4 hours to burn off the template (cellulose) to form a porous WO_3 (pore size 5–100 nm). Cool to <100°C (3–5°C/min at N_2 100 sccm). Equipment cleaning (water bath drainage, muffle furnace compressed air, residual <0.1 mg/cm²). The process needs to be ventilated (200–500 m³/h). The porosity (>50%), polymorph (monoclinic), and specific surface area (20–80 m²/g) were measured by SEM, XRD, and BET.

The optimization of key parameters is crucial for WO_3 quality. The reaction temperature is 20–60 °C, too high (>80 °C) for template denaturation (>5%), too low (<10 °C) for slow deposition (> 24 hours). The drying temperature is 60–80 °C, and the template shrinks (>10%) if it is too high (>100 °C). The heat treatment temperature is 200–500 °C, too high (>600 °C) with large grain growth (>500 nm), too low (<150 °C) and high amorphous proportion (>50%). The temperature control accuracy ± 0.5°C (water bath)/±1°C (muffle furnace), and the deviation is >±2°C, and the morphology is uneven (pore diameter deviation>20%). The heating rate is 2–5°C/min, and the cracking (>5%) is too fast (>10°C/min). Sink and furnace material 304SS or alumina (Fe<5 ppm) are required. The advantage of the temperature control equipment is the precise temperature control (deviation <± 1°C) and the support of multi-stage processes (> 95% yield). The investment is moderate ($500–5,000/unit) and the maintenance is simple (about $100–$200 per year). However, its disadvantages include high energy consumption (0.1–2 kWh/kg). The muffle furnace is not suitable for very large samples (>500 cm²). Water baths need to be descaled regularly. Temperature control devices provide key support for the optimization of tungsten topography and crystal form.

7.6.5 Filtration Equipment

The filtration equipment is used to separate H_2WO_4 deposits or WO_3 precursors and reaction solutions on the template in the preparation of yellow tungsten trioxide by biological template method, remove residual solutions (NaCl, HCl<10 ppm) and unbound precursors (Na_2WO_4<1%), and ensure template purity (impurities <5 ppm) and WO_3 quality (purity>99.9%). The equipment needs to be highly efficient (recovery > 98%), corrosion resistant (pH 4–10), and low contamination (Fe<5 ppm) to support porous structure formation (porosity >50%).

Filtration equipment (model SHZ-DIII) is typically a vacuum filter consisting of a Brinell funnel (polypropylene PP or glass, volume 0.1–5 L), membrane (PTFE or cellulose, pore size 0.1–1 μm), suction filter bottle (glass, volume 0.5–10 L), vacuum pump (power 0.1–0.5 kW, ultimate vacuum <10 Pa), and connecting tube (PTFE, 5–10 mm I.D.). The operating principle is based on a negative pressure (0.05–0.08 MPa), the solution is trapped through a filter membrane (filtration rate 1–10 mL/s), a template (cellulose membrane) and its sediment (H_2WO_4), and the liquid is collected in a suction filter flask. PTFE membranes (pH 1–14) avoid contamination (Fe<5 ppm) and glass funnel (purity > 99.5%) ensures cleanliness (C<5 ppm).

The process begins after the template is reacted. A suspension containing template (cellulose, 0.1–1 g) and H_2WO_4 (pH 4–6) was poured into a Brinell funnel and pre-coated with PTFE membrane (pore size 0.45 µm, cleanliness Ra<0.5 µm). The vacuum pump (vacuum degree 0.05–0.08 MPa) was started, filtered for 5–20 minutes, and the filtrate was collected (recovery rate > 98%). The template cake (1–5 mm thickness) was washed 3–5 times with deionized water (50–200 mL, conductivity <10 µS/cm) to remove Na^+ and Cl^- (<10 ppm). After 2–5 minutes of suction and filtration, the moisture content of the cake decreases to 20–30%. The template was transferred to drying (60–80°C) and cleaned with membrane and funnel (ethanol, residual < 1 mg/cm²). Waste neutralization (pH 6–8). The process requires ventilation (air volume 200 m³/h) and dust control (<1 mg/m³). The purity (>99.9%) and morphology (porosity >50%) were detected by inductively coupled plasma (ICP-MS).

The optimization of key parameters is critical to filtration effectiveness. The pore size of the membrane was 0.1–1 µm, the template was lost (>2%) that was too large (>2 µm), and the filter was slow (<1 mL/s) that was too small (<0.05 µm). Vacuum 0.05–0.08 MPa, too high (>0.09 MPa) membrane damage (lifetime < 100 times), too low (<0.02 MPa) and low efficiency (<50%). The cake thickness is 1–5 mm, and the over-thickness (>10 mm) has a high moisture content (>40%). Wash volume 50–200 mL, too much (> 500 mL) is expensive (> $0.1/L) and too little (<20 mL) impurity residue (Cl^->20 ppm). The membrane needs PTFE (lifetime > 200 cycles) and the funnel needs PP or glass (Fe<5 ppm). The advantage of the filtration equipment is the high efficiency of the separation (recovery rate >98%), which is suitable for small trials (0.1–10 L/batch). Low investment and simple maintenance. However, its disadvantages include a slow filtration rate (<10 mL/s) that makes it unsuitable for mass production (> 10 L). The membrane needs to be replaced. The filtration equipment provides high purity support for the separation of the tungsten template.

7.6.6 Drying equipment

The drying equipment is used to remove water (moisture content <5%) and solvent (ethanol <0.1%) from the template and its deposits (H_2WO_4) in the preparation of yellow tungsten trioxide by the biotemplate method, to prepare the dry sample for subsequent heat treatment (200–500°C), to protect the template structure (porosity >50%) and to ensure WO_3 topography (pore size 5–100 nm). The equipment needs to be gently dried (60–100°C), evenly heated (deviation<±2°C) and low contamination (Fe<5 ppm) to avoid template shrinkage (<10%) and sediment cracking (<2%).

The drying plant (model DGG-9070) is usually a vacuum drying oven consisting of a chamber (304 stainless steel, volume 10–100 L), heating tube (nichrome, power 0.5–2 kW), vacuum pump (pumping speed 1–10 L/s, ultimate vacuum <100 Pa), tray (alumina, purity>99.5%), thermostat (PID, accuracy ± 1°C) and fan (air volume 100–500 m³/h). The operating principle is based on low-temperature vacuum drying, where the heating tube is heated to 60–100 °C, and the vacuum reduces the boiling point (water < 50 °C) and accelerates the evaporation of water (0.1–1 g/min). The alumina trays avoid contamination (Al<5 ppm) and the fan ensures a uniform temperature (deviation <± 2°C). Safety devices include over-temperature protection (> 120°C de-energized) and vacuum pressure relief valve (>0.1 MPa).

The process starts with the preparation of the template. The filtered template (with H_2WO_4, moisture content 20–30%) is placed in an alumina tray (thickness <5 mm) pre-cleaned (ethanol, residual < 0.1 mg/cm^2). The drying oven was evacuated to <100 Pa, set at 60–80 °C (heating rate 2–5 °C/min) and dried for 4–12 hours (moisture content<5%). The fan operates (200–300 m^3/h) and maintains uniformity (deviation <± 2°C). After drying, the template is cooled to <40 °C (N_2 100 sccm) and transferred to a muffle furnace (200–500 °C). Cleaning of the chamber (compressed air, residual < 0.1 mg/cm^2). The process requires ventilation (air volume 200 m^3/h) and dust control (<1 mg/m^3). The morphology (porosity >50%) and specific surface area (20–80 m^2/g) were detected by SEM and BET.

The optimization of key parameters is crucial for the drying results. The drying temperature is 60–80 °C, too high (>100 °C) for template shrinkage (>10%), too low (< 40 °C) for a long time (> 24 hours). The vacuum level < 100 Pa, too high (>500 Pa) moisture residue (>10%). The thickness of the pallet is < 5 mm, and the thickness is too thick (>10 mm) and the drying is uneven (moisture content > 10%). The temperature control accuracy is ± 1°C, and the deviation is >±5°C topography damage (pore diameter deviation >20%). The fan has an air volume of 200–300 m^3/h and a temperature deviation of >±5°C if it is too low (<100 m^3/h). The pallet material needs to be alumina (Al<5 ppm). The advantages of the drying equipment are gentle drying (template damage <5%) and support for high porosity WO_3 (>50%). Moderate investment and simple maintenance. However, its disadvantages include higher energy consumption (0.1–0.5 kWh/kg). Long drying time (4–12 hours) makes it unsuitable for large batches (>1 kg/batch). The drying equipment provides reliable support for the pretreatment of tungsten formwork.

7.7 Characterization Equipment

Characterization equipment for yellow tungsten trioxide (WO_3) is used to analyze its physical and chemical properties, including crystal form, morphology, microstructure, and optical properties, to ensure that the material meets the needs of applications such as photocatalysis (degradation efficiency >85%), electrochromic (coloring efficiency >50 cm^2/C), and sensors (detection limit <1 ppm). Characterization equipment requires high accuracy (<±1% error), high resolution (<1 nm), and stability (5000 hours of continuous operation> to verify the purity (>99.9%), particle size (20–200 nm), porosity (>50%), and band gap (2.6–2.8 eV) of WO_3.

7.7.1 X-ray diffractometer

X-ray diffraction (XRD) is used to analyze the crystal structure, phase composition, and grain size (20–200 nm) of WO_3 to confirm its crystal form (e.g., monoclinic, plane spacing 0.38 nm) and its ratio (>80%) to evaluate the performance stability of the material (photocatalytic efficiency >85%). The device requires a high angular resolution (<±0.01°) and a strong signal (count rate > 10^4 cps).

The XRD (model Bruker D8 Advance) structure consists of an X-ray tube (Cu Kα, wavelength 1.5406 Å, power 1–4 kW), sample stage (rotation speed 0–60 rpm), detector (LynxEye, angular resolution ±0.01°), monochromator (graphite, Kβ elimination), and data processing system (DIFFRAC.EVA software). The operating principle is based on Bragg diffraction ($2d \sin\theta = n\lambda$), the WO_3 crystal plane reflects X-rays, the detector records the diffraction peaks (e.g. $2\theta = 23.1°$, (002) plane), and the crystal form and grain size are analyzed (Scherrer formula, D = Kλ/βcosθ). Stage rotation reduces orientation effects (deviation <5%). The monochromator improves the signal-to-noise ratio (> 100:1).

The process begins with sample preparation. WO_3 powder (0.1–1 g) or film (1–10 cm^2) ground (particle size<10 μm) or flat (Ra<0.5 μm) on a sample stage (silicon-based, purity>99.9%). Calibrate the instrument (standard Si, 2θ deviation <±0.01°) and set the scanning range 10–80° (step size 0.02°, speed 0.1–1°/min). Scan for 1–2 hours and record the diffraction pattern. The software analyzes peak position (error <±0.01°), intensity (>10^3 cps), and width at half height (β<0.2°) to determine the crystal form (monoclinic ratio >80%) and grain size (20–200 nm). Sample wash (ethanol, residual < 0.1 mg/cm^2), instrument maintenance (calibration per month, cost $50). The process needs to be clean (dust< 0.1 mg/m^3). The data were compared with the JCPDS card (83-0950) to verify the purity of WO_3 (>99.9%).

The optimization of critical parameters is critical to the quality of the analysis. The scan step size is 0.02°, which is too large (>0.1°) and has low resolution (peak overlap > 10%). The scanning speed is 0.1–1°/min, and the signal-to-noise ratio (<50:1) is low (>2°/min) that is too fast (2°/min). The sample thickness is 0.1–1 mm, too thin (<0.05 mm) and the signal is weak (<10^3 cps). X-ray power 1–4 kW, too high (>5 kW) sample damage (>1%). The stage was rotated 0–60 rpm and the orientation error (>10%) was too low (<10 rpm). Graphite (Kβ<1%) is required for monochromators. The advantage of XRD is that it is non-destructive testing and accurate crystal form analysis (error <± 0.01°). The investment is high ($10–$500,000/unit), but the life span is long (> 10 years). However, its disadvantages include long assay times (1–2 hours/sample). The sample needs to be homogeneous (deviation > 10% affects the accuracy). XRD provides reliable characterization of WO_3 crystal structure.

7.7.2 Scanning electron microscopy

Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) was used to observe the surface morphology, particle size (20–200 nm), and porosity (>50%) of WO_3 to evaluate the effect of its microstructure on photocatalysis (specific surface area >50 m^2/g) and sensor performance. The device requires high resolution (<1 nm) and a large depth of field (>1 μm).

The SEM (model JEOL JSM-7800F) structure consists of an electron gun (field emission, accelerating voltage 0.5–30 kV), a lens system (electromagnetic lens, resolution 0.8 nm), a sample chamber (vacuum<10^{-4} Pa), a detector (secondary electron SE, backscatter BSE), and an image processing system (resolution 1024×1024). The operating principle is based on an electron beam scanning the sample, excitation of secondary electrons, and the detector generating a topography image (magnification 10^2–10^6). The sample chamber vacuum avoids electron scattering (<10^{-4} Pa). The field launcher provides high brightness (>10^9 A/m^2·sr) and ensures resolution (<1 nm).

The procedure begins with sample preparation. WO_3 powder (0.01–0.1 g) dispersed in ethanol (0.1–1 mg/mL) and drop-coated on silicon wafers (1×1 cm^2) or filmed (1–10 cm^2) for direct fixation. Sample conductive treatment (gold plating, thickness 5–10 nm, cost $10). Vacuum to <$10^{-4}$ Pa, set the acceleration voltage 5–15 kV (topography), scan for 10–30 minutes, and acquire images (resolution < 1 nm). Analyze particle size (20–200 nm with <10% deviation), porosity (>50%), and surface uniformity (<5% deviation). Samples were removed and washed (ethanol, residual < 0.1 mg/cm²). Instrument calibration (per month, standard sample, cost $50). The process needs to be clean (dust< 0.1 mg/m³). Images were analyzed with ImageJ software (particle size distribution < 10%).

The optimization of key parameters is essential for topography analysis. The accelerating voltage is 5–15 kV, too high (>20 kV) sample damage (>5%), too low (<2 kV) and low resolution (>5 nm). The vacuum level < 10^{-4} Pa, too high (>10^{-3} Pa) and the image is blurry (>10%). The thickness of the gold plating is 5–10 nm, and the thickness (>20 nm) masks the topography (>10%). The scanning time is 10–30 minutes, and the signal-to-noise ratio is low (<50:1) if it is too short (<5 minutes). The surface of the sample should be flat (Ra<0.5 μm). The advantages of SEM are high resolution (< 1 nm) and intuitive topography (porosity >50%). The investment is high (20-1 million US dollars/unit) and the service life is long (> 10 years). However, the disadvantages include that the sample needs to be treated electrically (costing $10/sample). The detection range is limited (<1 cm²). SEM provides accurate characterization of WO_3 topography.

7.7.3 Transmission electron microscopy

Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) was used to analyze the internal microstructure, lattice spacing (0.38 nm), and defects (e.g., dislocations <1%) of WO_3 to verify its nanometer size (20–200 nm) and crystal form (monoclinic ratio >80%). The device requires ultra-high resolution (<0.1 nm) and electron energy loss spectroscopy (EELS) capabilities.

The TEM (model FEI Tecnai G2 F20) structure consists of an electron gun (field firing, accelerating voltage 80–200 kV), lens system (resolution 0.1 nm), sample stage (double inclination ±45°), detector (CCD, resolution 4096×4096), vacuum system (<10^{-5} Pa), and EELS module (energy resolution <0.5 eV). The principle of operation is based on the electron beam penetrating a thin sample (thickness < 100 nm) to generate a diffraction pattern (crystal form) and a high-resolution image (lattice). The vacuum system avoids electron scattering (<10^{-5} Pa). EELS analysis of elemental composition (W:O ratio ≈1:3).

The procedure begins with sample preparation. WO_3 powder (0.01–0.1 mg) was dispersed in ethanol (0.1 mg/mL) and dropped on a copper mesh (pore size 0.1–1 μm, cost $20/tablet). Thin film (< 100 nm) with ion thinning (Ar^+, 5 kV, cost $50). Vacuum to <$10^{-5}$ Pa, set the acceleration voltage 100–200 kV, image for 5–30 minutes, and acquire high-resolution images (lattice spacing 0.38 nm) and selective electron diffraction (SAED). EELS was used to detect W and O content (error <±1%). The sample was removed and the copper mesh was recovered (>90%). Instrument calibration (per week, standard Au, cost $100). The process needs to be clean (dust< 0.1 mg/m³). Data were performed on grain size (20–200 nm, deviation <5%) and defects (<1%).

The optimization of key parameters is essential for structural analysis. Accelerating voltage 100–200 kV, too high (>300 kV) sample destruction (>5%), too low (<50 kV) low resolution (>0.5 nm). The sample thickness < 100 nm, and the image is blurry (>10%) if it is too thick (>200 nm). The vacuum level is <

10^{-5} Pa, and the electron scattering (>5%) is too high (>10^{-4} Pa). The imaging time is 5–30 minutes, and the signal-to-noise ratio is low (<50:1) if it is too short (<2 minutes). Copper mesh pore size 0.1–1 µm, excessive (>2 µm) sample loss (>10%). The advantages of TEM are ultra-high resolution (<0.1 nm) and clear internal structure (lattice deviation <1%). The investment is extremely high (50-2 million US dollars/unit) and the service life is long (> 10 years). However, its disadvantages include complex sample preparation ($50 per sample for > 1 hour). The detection area is small (<1 µm²). TEM provides an in-depth characterization of the WO_3 microstructure.

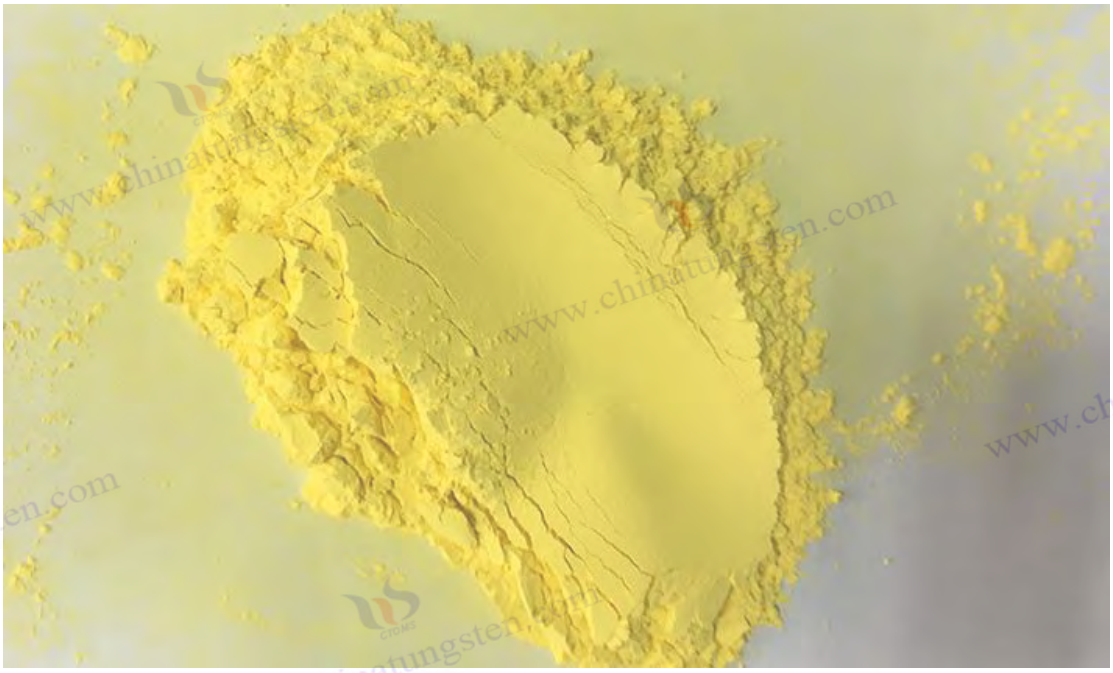
7.7.4 UV-Vis spectrophotometer

Ultraviolet-Visible spectrophotometers (UV-Vis) are used to measure the optical properties of WO_3, including band gap (2.6–2.8 eV), absorption coefficient (>10^4 cm^{-1}), and transmittance (>80%), to evaluate its photocatalytic (band gap is suitable for visible light) and electrochromic performance. The device requires high wavelength accuracy (<±0.5 nm) and a wide spectral range (200–1100 nm).

The UV-Vis (model Shimadzu UV-2600) structure consists of a light source (deuterium + halogen, 200–1100 nm), a monochromator (grating, wavelength resolution 0.1 nm), a sample cell (quartz, thickness 1–10 mm), a detector (PMT+InGaAs, sensitivity >10^{-4} Abs), and a data processing system (UVProbe software). The operating principle is based on Lambert-Beale law ($A = \varepsilon lc$), WO_3 thin films or dispersions absorb light, the absorbance is recorded (0–2 Abs), and the band gap is calculated (Tauc formula, $(\alpha h\nu)^2 = A(h\nu\text{-}Eg)$). Quartz pool (purity>99.9%) to avoid contamination (Si<1 ppm).

The process begins with sample preparation. WO_3 thin film (1–10 cm², thickness 10–1000 nm) fixed in a quartz cell, or powder (0.1–1 mg/mL) dispersed in water (conductivity<10 µS/cm). Calibrate the instrument (baseline correction, error <± 0.1%) at a set wavelength of 200–800 nm (steps of 0.5 nm, speed 100–1000 nm/min). Scan for 5–10 minutes and record the absorption spectrum. The software analyzes the bandgap (2.6–2.8 eV, error <±0.01 eV) and transmittance (>80%). Sample wash (ethanol, residual < 0.1 mg/cm²), quartz cell reuse (> 1000 cycles). Instrument maintenance (per month, light source calibration, cost $50) The process needs to be clean (dust< 0.1 mg/m³). Data to verify photocatalytic performance (absorption edge< 450 nm).

The optimization of key parameters is critical for optical analysis. The wavelength step is 0.5 nm, and the bandgap error (>0.1 eV) is too large (>2 nm). The scanning speed is 100–1000 nm/min, and the signal-to-noise ratio is low (<50:1) if it is too fast (>2000 nm/min). Sample concentrations were 0.1–1 mg/mL and scattering (>10%) was too high (>5 mg/mL). The power of the light source is stable (fluctuating <±1%). The thickness of the quartz cell is 1–10 mm, and the absorption deviation (>5%) is too thick (>20 mm). The advantages of UV-Vis are fast detection (< 10 minutes) and high bandgap accuracy (<±0.01 eV). The investment is moderate (1–50,000 US dollars/unit), and the operation is simple. However, its disadvantages include limited detection thickness. Liquid samples need to be homogeneous (deviation > 10% affects accuracy). UV-Vis provides efficient characterization of WO_3 optical performance.



CTIA GROUP LTD Yellow tungsten trioxide

Chapter 8 Research on the Detection Principle of Yellow tungsten trioxide

As a functional material, tungsten (WO_3) needs to be accurately tested for its chemical composition, crystal structure and optical properties due to its applications in photocatalysis (degradation efficiency >85%), electrochromic (coloring efficiency >50 cm²/C) and sensors (detection limit <1 ppm) to ensure high purity (>99.9%), specific morphology (particle size 20–200 nm, porosity >50%)) and bandgap (2.6–2.8 eV). The study of detection principles covers a variety of methods, among which spectroscopy has become the mainstream due to its high sensitivity (<1 ppm), non-destructiveness, and fast response (<1 minute). This chapter focuses on the application of spectroscopy in the detection of yellow tungsten trioxide, and analyzes the principles, equipment, operations, advantages and disadvantages of X-ray fluorescence spectroscopy (XRF) and Raman spectroscopy, combined with professional data and laboratory practice.

8.1 Tungsten Detection - Spectroscopy

Spectroscopy is used to detect the elemental composition, crystal structure, vibration mode and electronic structure of WO_3 through its interaction with electromagnetic waves (X-ray, visible light, infrared, etc.), and is suitable for powders (0.1–1 g), thin films (thickness 10–1000 nm) and nanostructures (particle size 20–200 nm). The method required high resolution (<0.1 eV), low detection limit (<1 ppm), and robustness (repeatability >99%) to verify the chemical purity (W:O ratio ≈1:3) and physical properties (monoclinic >80%). Spectroscopic analysis includes X-ray fluorescence spectroscopy (XRF), Raman spectroscopy, ultraviolet-visible spectroscopy (UV-Vis), etc., and this section focuses on the application of XRF and Raman spectroscopy in the detection of yellow tungsten trioxide.

8.1.1 Tungsten Detection - X-ray fluorescence spectroscopy

X-ray fluorescence spectroscopy (XRF) excites WO_3 samples with high-energy X-rays, electron transitions in the inner layers of atoms produce characteristic fluorescence, detects the content of W, O and other impurity elements (Fe, Na<5 ppm), and evaluates chemical composition and purity (>99.9%). The Lα line of the W atom (about 8.4 keV) is the main detection target, and the Kα line of the O atom (about 0.52 keV) is used to aid the analysis. The method was based on the proportional relationship between fluorescence intensity and elemental concentration ($I = k \cdot C$) combined with standard curve quantification (error <±1%).

Related equipment for X-ray fluorescence spectroscopy

The XRF equipment (model Bruker S8 TIGER) consists of an X-ray tube (Rh target, power 1–4 kW, energy 10–50 keV), sample chamber (vacuum or He atmosphere, volume 10–100 cm³), crystal splitter (LiF, energy resolution <0.1 keV), detector (proportional counter or silicon drift SDD, sensitivity $>10^4$ cps), and data processing system (SPECTRAplus software). Vacuum system (<10 Pa) reduces air absorption (O signal enhancement >50%). The SDD detector increases the detection limit for low Z element (O) (<100 ppm).

Procedure for X-ray fluorescence spectroscopy

1. **Sample preparation**: WO_3 powder (0.5–2 g) is pressed into thin sheets (2–5 cm diameter, 0.1–1 mm thickness, pressure 10 MPa) or thin films (1–10 cm²) placed directly on the sample stage (polypropylene substrate, purity>99.9%). The sample surface is flat (Ra<0.5 μm) to avoid signal scattering (>5%).
2. **Instrument calibration**: Use a standard sample (pure WO_3, W>99.99%) to calibrate the W Lα (8.4 keV) and O Kα (0.52 keV) peaks (error <± 0.01 keV). The X-ray tube power is set to 2 kW and the current is 50 mA.
3. **Measurement**: The sample is placed in the sample chamber, vacuumed to <10 Pa, and the scanning energy range is 0.5–20 keV (0.01 keV steps, time 10–30 sec/point). Fluorescence spectra were recorded, and W, O and impurities (Fe, Na) intensity were analyzed.
4. **Data analysis**: The software fitted the peak area (error <±1%), and combined with the standard curve, the content was calculated (W≈72.2 wt%, O≈27.8 wt%). Impurities were detected (Fe<5 ppm, Na<10 ppm).
5. **Subsequent processing**: sample removal, washing (ethanol, residual < 0.1 mg/cm²). Instrument maintenance (calibration per month, cost $100) The process needs to be clean (dust< 0.1 mg/m³).

Optimization of key parameters for X-ray fluorescence spectroscopy

- **X-ray energy:** 10－50 keV, too high (>60 keV) substrate 2 (>10%), too low (<5 keV) O signal weak ($<10^3$ cps).

- **Sample thickness**: 0.1–1 mm, too thin (<0.05 mm) with insufficient signal (<10^3 cps), too thick (>2 mm) self-absorbing (>5%).
- **Measurement time**: 10–30 sec/point, too short (<5 sec) and low signal-to-noise ratio (<50:1).
- **Vacuum degree:** <10 Pa, excessively high (>100 Pa) O detection height limit (>500 ppm) .
- **Detector sensitivity**: >10^4 cps, error >5% below 10^3 cps.

Advantages and disadvantages of X-ray fluorescence spectroscopy

- **Advantages**: Non-destructive testing, fast (<5 min/sample), high sensitivity (W>99.9%, impurities <5 ppm). Suitable for powders and films (yield > 95%).
- **Disadvantages**: high investment ($10–$500,000/unit). The detection limit of light element (O) is limited (>100 ppm). The sample needs to be flat (Ra>1 μm error >10%).
- **Application**: XRF provides accurate characterization of the elemental composition of the yellow tungsten trioxide for quality control (purity > 99.9%).

8.1.2 Tungsten Detection - Raman Spectroscopy

Raman spectroscopy excites the WO_3 molecular vibration by laser to detect its characteristic vibration modes (e.g., W-O-W telescopic vibration, approx. 807 cm⁻¹), and analyzes the crystal structure (monoclinic, hexagonal), crystal form ratio (monoclinic >80%), and defects (e.g., oxygen vacancy <1%). The method is based on Raman scattering ($\Delta\nu = \nu_0 - \nu\_s$), the O-W-O bending (270 cm⁻¹) and W=O stretching (807 cm⁻¹) peaks of WO_3 are used for qualitative polymorphs, and the amorphous peaks are broadened (> 50 cm⁻¹ at half height). High sensitivity (<1 ppm) without sample destruction.

The Raman spectrometer (model Horiba LabRAM HR Evolution), the equipment associated with Raman spectroscopy, consists of a laser (532 nm or 785 nm, power 1–100 mW), a microscope (objective 10×–100 ×, resolution <1 μm), and a grating (1800 g/mm, wavenumber resolution< 0.5 cm⁻¹).), detector (CCD, sensitivity >10^4 cps), and data processing system (LabSpec software). The 532 nm laser is suitable for WO_3 (bandgap 2.6–2.8 eV), and 785 nm reduces fluorescence interference (<10%). Microscopy for microanalysis (<1 μm²).

How Raman spectroscopy works

1. **Sample preparation**: WO_3 powder (0.01–0.1 g) flattened (Ra<0.5 μm) or thin film (1–10 cm²) placed on a slide (purity>99.9%). No conductive treatment is required to keep the surface clean (C<1 ppm).
2. **Instrument calibration**: Wavenumbers (error <± 0.5 cm⁻¹) were calibrated using standard silicon (520.7 cm⁻¹). Set the laser wavelength to 532 nm and power to 5–10 mW (avoid sample burns, <1%).
3. **Measurements**: Focus sample (objective 50 ×, depth < 1 μm), scanning range 100–1000 cm⁻¹ (0.5 cm⁻¹ steps, accumulation time 10–60 seconds). Raman spectra were recorded and characteristic peaks (270, 715, 807 cm⁻¹) were detected.

4. **Data analysis**: software baseline correction (error <±1%), fitting peak position (error <±0.5 cm⁻¹) and width at half height (<20 cm⁻¹). Confirm polymorph (monoclinic, 807 cm⁻¹ intensity>10³ cps) and defects (extra peak<1%).
5. **Subsequent processing**: sample removal, washing (ethanol, residual < 0.1 mg/cm²). Laser maintenance. The process needs to be clean (dust< 0.1 mg/m³).

Optimization of key parameters for Raman spectroscopy

- **Laser power**: 5–10 mW, too high (>50 mW) sample thermal damage (>5%), too low (<1 mW) weak signal (<10³ cps).
- **Wavenumber range**: 100–1000 cm⁻¹, too narrow (<500 cm⁻¹) missed peaks (>10%).
- **Accumulation time**: 10–60 seconds, too short (<5 seconds) low signal-to-noise ratio (<50:1).
- **Objective magnification**: 50×–100 ×, too low (<10×) and low resolution (>5 μm).
- **Grating density**: 1800 g/mm, less than 600 g/mm resolution difference (>2 cm⁻¹).

Advantages and disadvantages of Raman spectroscopy

- **Advantages**: non-destructive, fast (<1 min/point), microanalysis (<1 μm²). High sensitivity (<5% deviation of crystal form) for both crystalline and amorphous WO_3.
- **Disadvantages**: high investment ($10–$500,000/unit). Fluorescence interference needs to be optimized for the laser. Surface roughness (Ra>1 μm) reduces signal (>10%).
- **Application**: Raman spectroscopy provides efficient characterization of tungsten crystal forms and defect analysis for nanostructures (particle size 20–200 nm).

8.2 Tungsten Detection - Electrochemical Analysis

Electrochemical analysis measures the electrochemical properties (e.g., capacitance, electrochromic efficiency) and surface activity (specific surface area > 50 m²/g) of WO_3 in the electrolyte through the redox reaction of WO_3 in the electrolyte, and is suitable for thin films (thickness 10–1000 nm) and nanostructures (particle size 20–200 nm). The method is based on the current-potential response of the electrode surface, which requires high sensitivity (current ± 0.1 μA), wide potential range (-2 to 2 V), and stability (repeatability > 99%). Electrochemical analysis includes voltammetry (CV), electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS), etc., and this section focuses on the application of voltammetry in the detection of yellow tungsten trioxide.

8.2.1 Yellow tungsten trioxide Detection-Volcanoammetry

Cyclic voltammetry (CV) was used to analyze the redox behavior, capacitive performance, and electrochromic properties by applying a cycling potential to the WO_3 electrode to record the current response. WO_3 reacts in acidic (e.g., H_2SO_4, 0.1 mol/L) or neutral electrolytes (e.g., Na_2SO_4, 0.5 mol/L): $WO_3 + xH^+ + xe^- \leftrightarrow H_xWO_3$ $(0<x<1)$ with color change (yellow ↔, blue). The CV curves show oxidation peaks (approx. 0.2–0.5 V vs. Ag/AgCl) and reduction peaks (approx. -0.2 to -0.5 V), peak current (i_p) vs. sweep velocity (v) ($i_p \propto v^{1/2}$) reflecting diffusion control, and peak area integration to calculate charge capacity (>100 mC/cm²). Methods were used to evaluate electrochromic efficiency ($\eta = \Delta OD/Q$, >50 cm²/C) and cycling stability (> 1000 cycles, attenuation < 10%).

Voltammetry-related equipment

The potentiostat (model CHI-660E) consists of a potentiometer/current control module (potentiometric ±0.001 V, current ± 0.1 µA), a three-electrode system (working electrode: WO_3 thin film, reference electrode: Ag/AgCl, counter electrode: Pt), electrolytic cell (glass or PTFE, volume 50–200 mL), data acquisition system (sampling rate>1 kHz), and analysis software (CHI). The cell supports N_2 purging (O_2<1 ppm). The workstation offers a wide potential range (-2 to 2 V) and multiple modes (CV, EIS, potentiostat).

The operation process of voltammetry

1. **Sample preparation**: WO_3 thin film (1–10 cm², thickness 10–1000 nm) was deposited on FTO glass (resistance 10–20 Ω/sq) and cleaned (ethanol, residual < 0.1 mg/cm²). or WO_3 powder (0.1–1 mg) mixed with carbon black, PVDF (8:1:1) coated on carbon paper (area 1 cm²).
2. **Electrolyte preparation**: 0.1 mol/L H_2SO_4 (pH 1–2, conductivity >10 mS/cm) or 0.5 mol/L Na_2SO_4 (pH 6–7), deionized water (conductivity <10 µS/cm). Purge with N_2 for 5 min (O_2<1 ppm).
3. **Instrument calibration**: Calibrate the Ag/AgCl reference electrode (potential 0.197 V vs. SHE, error <±2 mV). Set the potential window from -0.8 to 0.8 V and sweep speed from 10–100 mV/s.
4. **Measurement**: Three electrodes are placed in the cell (5–10 mm apart) with WO_3 as the working electrode. Run the CV for 5–10 cycles and record the current-potential curve (peak current 0.1–1 mA/cm²). Oxidation/reduction peaks (error <±10 mV), peak area (charge > 100 mC/cm²), and cycle stability (attenuation <5%) were analyzed.
5. **Subsequent treatment**: electrode water washing (Cl^-<10 ppm), electrolytic cell cleaning (residual < 0.1 mg/cm²). Data were fitted with software (capacitance error <±1%). The process requires ventilation (200 m³/h) to control the acid mist.

Optimization of key parameters of voltammetry

- **Potential window**: -0.8 to 0.8 V, too wide (>±1 V) electrode degradation (>10%), too narrow (<±0.5 V) missed peak (>20%).
- **Sweep speed**: 10–100 mV/s, too fast (>500 mV/s) peak shape distortion (>10%), too slow (<5 mV/s) and low efficiency (>1 hour).
- **Electrolyte concentration**: 0.1–0.5 mol/L, too high (>1 mol/L) corrodes the electrode (>5%), too low (<0.05 mol/L) and weak current (<0.1 mA/cm²).
- **Electrode area**: 1–10 cm², excessive (>20 cm²) uneven current (>10%).
- **N_2Purge:** O_2<1 ppm, too high (>10 ppm) oxidative interference (>5%)。

Advantages and disadvantages of voltammetry

- **Advantages**: High sensitivity (current ± 0.1 μA) for direct evaluation of electrochemical performance (capacitance > 100 mF/cm²). Fast (< 10 min/sample) suitable for electrochromic (η>50 cm²/C).
- **Disadvantages**: Conductive substrate (FTO, cost \$10/cm²) is required. Electrolyte corrosiveness (H_2SO_4 needs to be protected, cost \$50/time). Sample preparation is complex (> 1 h).
- **Application**: Voltammetry provides accurate characterization of WO_3 electrochemical performance (cycling stability >1000 cycles) for sensors and electrochromic devices.

8.3 Other yellow tungsten trioxide detection methods

Yellow tungsten trioxide testing also includes thermogravimetric analysis (TGA), specific surface area analysis (BET), infrared spectroscopy (FTIR), and other methods for the analysis of thermal stability, surface properties, and chemical bonding. This section focuses on the application of thermogravimetric analysis in the detection of yellow tungsten trioxide.

8.3.1 Tungsten Detection - Thermogravimetric Analysis

Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) analyzes the thermal stability, moisture content (<1 wt%), organic residues (<0.1 wt%) and decomposition behavior of WO_3 samples by measuring the mass change of WO_3 samples under a controlled atmosphere (N_2, air) and a heating program (25–1000°C). WO_3 loses adsorption water at < 100°C (0.5–2 wt%), crystalline water at 100–300°C (<1 wt%), and may volatilize at >800°C (W_2O_5<1%). The method was based on the mass-temperature curve (dm/dT) to detect the thermal decomposition temperature (error <±1°C) and residue (purity>99.9%).

Equipment related to thermogravimetric analysis

The TGA equipment (model TA Instruments Q500) consists of a microbalance (accuracy ± 0.1 μg, capacity 0.1–100 mg), a furnace (alumina ceramics, temperature 25–1200°C, heating rate 0.1–50°C/min), gas control system (N_2 or air, flow rate 10–100 mL/min), thermocouple (type K, accuracy ±.5°C), and data processing system (TA Universal Analysis)。 Alumina crucible (volume 10–100 μL, purity > 99.5%) to avoid contamination (Al<5 ppm). N_2 atmosphere (O_2<1 ppm) prevents oxidation.

How to use thermogravimetric analysis

1. **Sample preparation**: WO_3 powder (5–20 mg, particle size 20–200 nm) or film fragments (<10 mg) in a crucible (pre-cauterized at 500°C, residual < 0.1 μg). Samples are dried (60 °C, 2 h, moisture content <1%).
2. **Instrument calibration**: Calibration balance (standard weights, error <± 0.1 μg) and temperature (standard In, 156.6°C, error <± 0.5°C). Set N_2 flow rate to 50 mL/min (O_2<1 ppm).

3. **Measurements**: The crucible was placed on a balance, warmed by 25–1000°C (rate 5–20°C/min), and a mass-temperature curve was recorded (with an accuracy of ±0.1 μg). Moisture (< 100°C, <2 wt%), organic matter (100–300°C, <0.1 wt%), and decomposition (>800°C, <1 wt%) were analyzed.
4. **Data analysis**: The software calculates the mass loss (error <±0.1%) and the decomposition temperature (error <± 1 °C). Verify WO_3 stability (no significant loss at >800°C).
5. **Follow-up treatment**: crucible cleaning (ultrasonic, 40 kHz, residual < 0.1 μg). Instrument maintenance (every 3 months, cost $100) The process needs to be clean (dust< 0.1 mg/m³).

Optimization of key parameters of thermogravimetric analysis

- **Heating rate**: 5–20 °C/min, too fast (>50 °C/min) mass fluctuation (>0.1%), too slow (<2 °C/min) and low efficiency (>2 hours).
- **Sample quality**: 5–20 mg, too little (<1 mg), weak signal (<10 μg), too much (>50 mg), and uneven heat (>5%).
- **Gas flow rate:** 10 – 100 mL/min, too low (<5 mL/min) oxidation (>1%), too high (>200 mL/min) sample scattered (>0.1%).
- **Temperature range**: 25–1000°C, too narrow (<500°C) missed decomposition (>10%).
- **Crucible material**: alumina (Al<5 ppm), other materials (e.g. Pt) are more expensive (> $100/piece).

Advantages and disadvantages of thermogravimetric analysis

- **Benefits**: High sensitivity (±0.1 μg), accurate detection of thermal stability (>800°C) and moisture (<2 wt%). Suitable for powders and films (yield > 95%).
- **Disadvantages**: high investment ($5–$200,000/unit). The sample is destructive (cannot be reused). Long detection time (1–2 hours/sample).
- **Application**: TGA provides reliable characterization of WO_3 thermal stability (decomposition < 1 wt%) and purity analysis for photocatalytic material optimization.

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Chapter 9 Application Fields of Yellow tungsten trioxide

Tungsten (WO_3) is a key tungsten compound that is widely used in tungsten products, catalysts, electrochromic devices, photocatalytic materials, and sensors due to its high purity (>99.9%), uniform particle size (0.1–10 μm), and chemical stability (acid and alkali resistance, pH 1–14). In tungsten products, tungsten yellow is used as a precursor, which is converted into high-performance tungsten powder, tungsten wire and tungsten strip (purity > 99.95%) through reduction, sintering and processing, which meets the needs of lighting (life > 2000 hours), electronics (conductivity > 15% IACS) and aerospace (density > 19 g/cm^3).

9.1 Application of yellow tungsten trioxide in tungsten products

Tungsten yellow (WO_3) is the core raw material for the production of tungsten products, which is converted into tungsten powder (particle size > 0.5–5 μm) by hydrogen reduction (H_2, purity99.999%), and then sintered, drawn or forged to produce tungsten wire (diameter 10–500 μm) or tungsten bar (length 0.1–1 m), which is widely used in cemented carbide (hardness > 90 HRA), filament (tensile strength > 2000 MPa) and high-temperature components (temperature resistance > 2500°C). The high oxidation state (W^{6+}) and homogeneous particles (0.1–10 μm) of yellow tungsten trioxide facilitate efficient reduction and processing, and the process requires strict control of temperature (600–3000°C), atmosphere (O_2<1 ppm) and impurities (Fe, C<50 ppm) to ensure product performance (density>19 g/cm^3, conductivity >15% IACS). This section discusses in detail the specific applications of yellow tungsten trioxide in tungsten powder preparation, tungsten wire production, and tungsten bar manufacturing.

9.1.1 Application of yellow tungsten trioxide in the preparation of tungsten powder

Tungsten metal is reduced by hydrogen to produce tungsten metal powder (particle size 0.5–5 μm, purity > 99.95%), which is used for tungsten carbide (hardness > 90 HRA), thermal spraying (bond strength > 50 MPa) and electronic components (conductivity > 15% IACS). The process uses a tubular reduction furnace (model RF-1200, 316L stainless steel, volume 10–100 L), using yellow tungsten trioxide (WO_3, purity >99.9%) as raw material, and reducing it step by step in an H_2 atmosphere: $WO_3 \rightarrow WO_{29}$（600–700°C），$WO_{2.9} \rightarrow W$（800–1000°C）。 The equipment includes a heating element (silicon carbon rods, 5–20 kW), a gas distributor (0.1–1 mm aperture), a thermostat (PID, accuracy ± 1°C) and an exhaust gas treatment system (water washing + lye, recovery >95%). Analytical equipment includes a laser particle size analyzer (accuracy ±1%) and an oxygen analyzer (detection limit < 10 ppm).

The operation process of tungsten powder produced by yellow tungsten trioxide

After sieving (200 mesh, residual <1%) and drying (100°C, 2 hours, moisture content <0.1%), yellow tungsten trioxide (0.1–100 kg, particle size 0.1–10 μm) was evenly spread on alumina boats (purity>99.5%, thickness 1–5 mm, charging density 0.5–1 g/cm³) and placed in the furnace. The furnace body was evacuated to <10 Pa, H_2 (flow rate 10–50 L/min, purity >99.999%), heated to 600–700°C at 5–10°C/min, incubated for 1–2 hours, then raised to 800–1000°C, insulated for 2–4 hours, total reduction time of 4–8 hours, and yields >95%. Cooled to <100°C (H_2 atmosphere, 5–10°C/min), tungsten powder was removed and sieved (100–400 mesh, particle size 0.5–5 μm). Particle size (deviation <±10%), O content (<0.1 wt%), and impurities (Fe, Na<50 ppm) were detected using a laser particle size analyzer and ICP-MS. The furnace body was purged with N_2 (residual < 0.1 mg/cm²), the exhaust gas was washed and recovered (>95%), and the whole process was ventilated (air volume 500 m³/h, dust < 1 mg/m³).

Optimization of key parameters for tungsten powder production from yellow tungsten trioxide

The reduction temperature was controlled at 600–1000°C, with too high (>1100°C) leading to grain growth (>10 μm) and too low (<500°C) residual WO_2 (>1%). The H_2 flow rate is maintained at 10–50 L/min, too high (>100 L/min) wastes gas (>10%), and too low (<5 L/min) prolongs the reduction time (>12 hours). The charge thickness was set at 1–5 mm, and the over-thickness (>10 mm) caused uneven reduction (O>0.2 wt%). The heating rate is optimized to 5–10°C/min, and too fast (>20°C/min) causes powder agglomeration (>5%). Alumina is used to prevent pollution, and the exhaust gas treatment needs to ensure a recovery rate of >95% (emission < 1 mg/m³).

Advantages and disadvantages of tungsten powder produced by yellow tungsten trioxide

The advantages of tungsten powder prepared from yellow tungsten trioxide include high reduction efficiency (yield >95%), excellent purity (>99.95%) and controllable particle size (0.5–5 μm), mature process suitable for mass production (10–100 kg/batch), and meeting the needs of tungsten carbide and spraying (market size > $500 million/year). The disadvantages of tungsten powder prepared from yellow tungsten trioxide are that the energy consumption is high (1–5 kWh/kg), the use of H_2 needs to be strictly safely managed (leakage < 1 ppm), and the fine powder (<0.5 μm) is easy to agglomerate (>5%), which affects the uniformity.

9.1.2 Application of yellow tungsten trioxide in tungsten wire production

Tungsten is reduced to tungsten powder (particle size 0.5–5 μm) and made into tungsten filament (diameter 10–500 μm) by pressing, sintering, forging and wire drawing, which is used in incandescent lamps (lifetime > 2000 hours), electron emission (emissivity >90%) and heating elements (temperature resistance > 2000°C). The sintering furnace (model SF-3000, graphite hearth, volume 10–50 L) is operated in an H_2 atmosphere (5–20 L/min) and heated to 2500–3000°C. The wire drawing machine (model DM-500) is equipped with a diamond die (aperture 10–500 μm), a lubrication system (graphite emulsion, flow rate 0.1–0.5 L/min) and an annealing furnace (resistance heating, 1000–1500 °C). The analysis equipment includes a universal testing machine (accuracy ± 1 MPa) and SEM (surface roughness Ra<0.1 μm).

The operation process of tungsten production of tungsten filament

Tungsten powder (0.1–1 kg, O<0.1 wt%) prepared from yellow tungsten trioxide is sieved (200 mesh, residual <1%) and pressed into strips (10 MPa, density > 10 g/cm^3). The strips are placed in a sintering furnace and heated to 2500–3000°C at 10–20°C/min for 1–20 hours by H_2 (5–20 L/min, purity>>99.999%), and insulated for 1–2 hours to make tungsten billets (density 19 g/cm^3). Tungsten billets are rotary forged (1500–1800°C) into rods (1–5 mm diameter) and drawn by wire drawing machines (dies 10–500 μm, speeds 0.1–1 m/s, graphite emulsion 0.1–0.5 g/m^2). Tungsten filament is made every 4–6 drawing cycles (10–1500°C, 10–30 seconds) with a total drawing cycle of 10–50 times. Tensile strength (>2000 MPa), surface roughness (Ra<0.1 μm) and electrical conductivity (>15% IACS) were measured using a universal testing machine, the four-probe method and SEM. Tungsten filament cleaning (deionized water, residual < 0.1 mg/cm^2), furnace decarbonization (N_2 purge, C<50 ppm), ventilation (air volume 1000 m^3/h).

Optimization of key parameters for tungsten production of tungsten filament

The sintering temperature is controlled at 2500–3000 °C, with too high (> 3100 °C) resulting in too large grains (>50 μm), too low (<2400 °C) and insufficient density (<18 g/cm^3). The H_2 flow rate was set at 5–20 L/min, and too low (<2 L/min) caused oxidation (O>0.2 wt%). The drawing speed was optimized to 0.1–1 m/s, and the wire breakage rate (>5%) was increased by too fast (>2 m/s). The annealing temperature is maintained at 1000–1500°C, and if it is too high (>1600°C), ductility (<1%) will be reduced. The amount of lubricant is controlled at 0.1–0.5 g/m^2, and too little (<0.05 g/m^2) causes surface scratches The mold is made of diamond to ensure that the hole diameter deviation is <5%.

Advantages and disadvantages of tungsten wire production from yellow tungsten trioxide

The tungsten filament prepared from yellow tungsten trioxide has high strength (> 2000 MPa) and long life (> 2000 hours), controllable process, suitable for fine processing (diameter < 10 μm), and meets the needs of incandescent lamps (brightness > 10 lm/W) and vacuum tubes (emissivity > 90%) (yield > 90%). However, extremely high energy consumption (10–50 kWh/kg), high drawing die costs, and additional investment in H_2 safety management limit low-cost production.

9.1.3 Application of yellow tungsten trioxide in the manufacture of tungsten bars

Tungsten is reduced to tungsten powder (particle size 0.5–5 μm) and pressed, sintered and forged into tungsten strips (width 10–100 mm, length 0.1–1 m) for use in aviation counterweights (density > 19 g/cm³), high-temperature furnaces (temperature resistant > 2500MISSc) and medical shielding (absorption rate >95%). The sintering furnace (type SF-3000, volume 50–200 L) is paired with a forging machine (type HF-500, hydraulic pressure 10–50 MPa, graphite mold), and a polishing machine (power 1–5 kW, grinding wheel 1000–2000 mesh) optimizes the surface (Ra<0.5 μm). The analytical equipment includes a density meter (accuracy ± 0.01 g/cm³) and a hardness tester (accuracy ± 1 HRA).

The operation process of tungsten rod produced by yellow tungsten trioxide

Tungsten powder (1–10 kg, purity>99.95%) was dried (100°C, moisture content <0.1%), and then pressed into a billet (20 MPa, density > 10 g/cm³). The blank is placed in a sintering furnace and heated to 2500–3000°C at 10–20°C/min for 2–4 hours by passing H_2 (10–50 L/min, purity >99.999%), and insulated for 2–4 hours to make tungsten ingots (density > 19 g/cm³). The tungsten ingots are heated to 1500–2000°C and forged (pressure 10–50 MPa, deformation rate 10–20%/time) or rolled (1200–1800°C, speed 0.1–0.5 m/s) into strips. Tungsten strip polishing (grinding wheel 1000–2000 mesh, Ra <0.5 μm), cleaning (deionized water, residual < 0.1 mg/cm²). Density (>19.2 g/cm³), hardness (>70 HRA), and grain size (<50 μm) were measured using a density meter, a hardness tester, and SEM. Furnace cleaning (N_2 purge, C<50 ppm), exhaust gas recovery (>95%), ventilation control dust (1000 m³/h, <1 mg/m³).

Optimization of key parameters in the production of tungsten bars from yellow tungsten trioxide

The sintering temperature was set at 2500–3000 °C, too low (<2400 °C) resulting in high porosity (>1%), too high (>3100 °C) and too large grains (>50 μm). The forging temperature is controlled at 1500–2000°C, and too high (>2100°C) causes grain boundary cracks (>2%). The forging pressure is optimized to 10–50 MPa, and if it is too low (<5 MPa), the deformation is insufficient (<10%). The polishing grinding wheel is 1000–2000 mesh, and the surface roughness of the over-coarse (<500 mesh) is Ra>1 μm. H_2 purity is maintained at > 99.999% (O_2<1 ppm) and oxidation (O>0.1 wt%) is avoided. The target density > 19.2 g/cm³, which is less than 19 g/cm³ (< 2000 MPa).

Advantages and disadvantages of tungsten strip production of tungsten tungsten

The tungsten strips prepared from yellow tungsten trioxide have high density (>19.2 g/cm³), high temperature resistance (>2500°C), stable process, suitable for large-size processing (length >1 m), and meet the requirements of aviation counterweight (mass deviation <±1%) and high-temperature electrode (life > 5000 hours) (yield > 90%). However, extremely high energy consumption (20–100 kWh/kg), high equipment investment, and long cycle times (>24 hours/batch) increase production costs.

9.1.4 Application of yellow tungsten trioxide in tungsten copper alloy

Tungsten powder (particle size 0.5–5 μm, purity > 99.95%) is generated by hydrogen reduction, which is mixed with copper powder and sintered to prepare tungsten copper alloy (W-Cu, W content 50–90 wt%), which is used for electrodes (conductivity > 30% IACS), heat sink (thermal conductivity > 200 W/m·K) and electrical contacts (arc resistance > 10,000 times). The low impurities (Fe<50 ppm) and homogeneous grains of the yellow tungsten trioxide ensure high density (>98% theoretical density) and performance stability (tensile strength > 500 MPa) of the alloy. Tungsten powder is prepared by a tubular reduction furnace (model RF-1200, volume 10–100 L) and alloying is completed by a sintering furnace (model SF-2000, volume 10–50 L). The equipment includes a mixer (50–200 rpm), a press (10–50 MPa), a sintering furnace (heating element graphite, 10–30 kW) and analytical instruments such as a conductivity meter (accuracy ±1% IACS) and SEM (resolution < 1 μm).

The operation process of tungsten to produce tungsten copper alloy

After screening (200 mesh, residual < 1%) and drying (100 °C, 2 hours, moisture content < 0.1%), yellow tungsten trioxide (0.1 kg purity> 99.5 mm) was placed in an alumina boat dish (purity>99.5%, thickness 1–5 mm), vacuumed to <10 Pa in a reduction furnace, heated to 600 at 5–10°C/min through H_2 (10–50 L/min, purity>9999%), and heated to 600– at 5–10°C/min. Tungsten powder (0.5–5 μm particle size, yield >95%) was prepared at 700°C (incubated for 1–2 hours) and then to 800–1000°C (incubated for 2–4 hours). Tungsten powder was mixed with high-purity copper powder (Cu>99.9%, particle size 1–10 μm, W:Cu=50:50 to 90:10 wt%) in a mixer (50–200 rpm, 2–4 hours, homogeneity deviation <5%). The mixed powder is pressed into a billet (10–50 MPa, density >8 g/cm³) and sintered in an H_2 atmosphere (1000–1400 °C, 5–10°C/min, holding for 1–3 hours) to make a tungsten-copper alloy (density > 14 g/cm³). Alloy polishing (grinding wheel 1000 mesh, Ra < 0.5 μm), electrical conductivity (>30% IACS), thermal conductivity (>200 W/m·K) and microstructure (grain < 10 μm) were measured. Furnace cleaning (N_2 purging, residual <0.1 mg/cm²), exhaust gas recovery (>95%), ventilation control dust (500 m³/h, <1 mg/m³).

Optimization of key parameters for tungsten production of tungsten copper alloys

The reduction temperature is maintained at 600–1000 °C, too high (> 1100 °C) the grain is too large (>10 μm), and too low (<500 °C) residual WO_2 (>1%). The H_2 flow rate is controlled at 10–50 L/min, and the reduction is slow (>12 hours) if it is too low (<5 L/min). The mixing time is 2–4 hours, too short (<1 hour) and uneven (deviation >10%). The sintering temperature is 1000–1400°C, too high (>1500°C) copper volatilization (>5%), too low (<900°C) and low density (<95%). The pressing pressure is 10–50 MPa, and the green body is loose (porosity >5%) if it is too low (<5 MPa). Alumina (Al<50 ppm) is used to avoid contamination.

Advantages and disadvantages of tungsten copper alloy produced by yellow tungsten trioxide

The advantages of tungsten copper alloy prepared by yellow tungsten trioxide are high electrical conductivity (>30% IACS) and thermal conductivity (>200 W/m·K), density close to the theoretical value (>98%), suitable for electrical contacts and heat sink (lifetime > 10,000 times). Process flexibility with adjustable W:Cu ratio (50:50 to 90:10). Disadvantages include high sintering energy consumption (5–20 kWh/kg), controlled copper volatilization (10% increase in cost), and high mixing uniformity requirements (deviation >5% reduced performance). Tungsten copper alloy prepared from yellow tungsten trioxide meets the needs of electronics and aviation.

9.1.5 Application of yellow tungsten trioxide in tungsten-nickel-iron alloy

Tungsten is produced by reducing tungsten powder, which is mixed with nickel (Ni) and iron (Fe) powder and sintered to prepare tungsten nickel-iron alloy (W-Ni-Fe, W content 85–95 wt%), which is used for aviation counterweight (density > 17 g/cm³), radiation shielding (absorption rate > 90%) and military (penetrating > 100 mm steel).

The high purity (>99.9%) and fine particles (0.1–10 μm) of the tungsten ensure high density (>17.5 g/cm³) and mechanical properties (tensile strength > 800 MPa) of the alloy. The process uses a reduction furnace (model RF-1200) and a vacuum sintering furnace (model VF-1500, volume 10–50 L). The equipment includes a mixer (50–200 rpm), a press (20–100 MPa), a vacuum pump (pumping speed>100 L/s, $<10^{-3}$ Pa) and analytical instruments such as a density meter (±0.01 g/cm³) and a hardness tester (±1 HRA).

The operation process of tungsten to produce tungsten nickel-iron alloy

After screening (200 mesh, residual < 1%) and drying (100 °C, moisture content <0.1%), tungsten powder (0.5–5 μm, yield >95%) was prepared by placing it in an alumina boat dish (thickness 1–5 mm), passing H_2 (10–50 L/min) in a reduction furnace, and then to 800–1000°C (holding for 2–4 hours). Tungsten powder was mixed with nickel powder (Ni>99.9%, 1–10 μm), iron powder (Fe>99.9%, 1–10 μm, W:Ni:Fe=90:7:3 to 95:3.5:1.5 wt%) (50–200 rpm, 2–4 h, deviation <5%). The mixed powder is pressed (20–100 MPa, density >8 g/cm³) and sintered in a vacuum furnace ($<10^{-3}$ Pa) (1300–1500 °C, 5–10°C/min, holding for 1–2 hours) to form an alloy (density > 17.5 g/cm³). Alloy polishing (grinding wheel 1000 mesh, Ra < 0.5 μm), density (>17.5 g/cm³), hardness (>30 HRA) and microstructure (grain < 20 μm) were detected. Furnace cleaning (N_2 purging, residual <0.1 mg/cm²), ventilation control dust (500 m³/h, < 1 mg/m³).

Optimization of key parameters in the production of tungsten nickel-iron alloys from yellow tungsten trioxide

The reduction temperature is 600–1000 °C, and the grain is too large (>10 μm) if it is too high (>1100 °C). The mixing time is 2–4 hours, too short (<1 hour) and uneven (deviation >10%). The sintering temperature is 1300–1500 °C, too high (>1600 °C) Ni/Fe volatilization (>5%), too low (<1200 °C) and low density (<17 g/cm³). The vacuum degree is < 10^{-3} Pa, and the oxidation (O>0.1 wt%) is too high (>10^{-2} Pa). The pressing pressure is 20–100 MPa, and the green body is loose (porosity >5%) if it is too low (<10 MPa). H_2 purity> 99.999% (O_2<1 ppm) to avoid contamination.

Advantages and disadvantages of tungsten in the production of tungsten nickel-iron alloy

The tungsten nickel alloy prepared by yellow tungsten trioxide has high density (>17.5 g/cm³), excellent strength (>800 MPa), suitable for counterweight and shielding (absorption rate >90%), stable process, and adjustable Ni:Fe ratio (7:3 to 3.5:1.5). Disadvantages include high energy consumption (10–30 kWh/kg) in vacuum sintering, precise control of Ni/Fe volatilization, and lower alloy toughness than pure tungsten (fracture toughness < 10 MPa·m¹/²). Yellow-tungsten alloys meet the needs of the aerospace and military industries.

9.1.6 Application of yellow tungsten trioxide in cemented carbide

Tungsten yellow is reduced to tungsten powder, which is mixed with tungsten carbide (WC) and cobalt (Co) and sintered to prepare cemented carbide (WC-Co, W content >80 wt%), which is used in cutting tools (hardness > 90 HRA), molds (wear resistance > 10^6 times) and mining drill bits (impact toughness > 10 J/cm²). The fine particles of tungsten carbide (0.1–10 μm) ensure tungsten carbide homogeneity (particle size 0.5–2 μm) and alloy properties (flexural strength > 2000 MPa). The process uses a reduction furnace (model RF-1200), a ball mill (100–300 rpm) and a vacuum sintering furnace (model VF-1500). The equipment includes a press (20–100 MPa), a vacuum pump (<10^{-3} Pa) and analytical instruments such as a hardness tester (±1 HRA) and SEM (resolution < 1 μm).

The operation process of tungsten yellow tungsten trioxide production cemented carbide

After screening (200 mesh, residual < 1%) and drying (100 °C, moisture content <0.1%), tungsten powder (0.5–5 μm, yield >95%) was prepared by passing H_2 (10–50 L/min) in a reduction furnace and heating to 600–700°C (holding for 1–2 hours) and then to 800–1000°C (holding for 2–4 hours). Tungsten powder was mixed with graphite powder (C>99.9%, 1–10 μm) (W:C≈94:6 wt%) and carbonized in a graphite furnace (1600–2000°C, H_2 atmosphere) to produce WC (particle size 0.5–2 μm). WC with cobalt powder (Co>99.9%, 1–5 μm, WC:Co=80:20 to 95:5 wt%) in a ball mill wet mill (ethanol, 100–300 rpm, 6–12 h, uniformity deviation <5%). The slurry is dried (80 °C, moisture content < 0.1%), pressed (20–100 MPa, density >8 g/cm³) and sintered in a vacuum furnace (<10^{-3} Pa) (1350–1450°C, 5–10°C/min, holding for 1–2 hours) to make cemented carbide (density > 14 g/cm³). Alloy polishing (grinding wheel 2000 mesh, Ra < 0.5 μm), hardness (>90 HRA), flexural strength (>2000 MPa) and grain size (<2 μm) were tested. Furnace cleaning (N_2 purging, residual <0.1 mg/cm²), ventilation control dust.

Optimization of key parameters in the production of tungsten carbide

The reduction temperature is 600–1000 °C, and the grain is too large (>10 μm) if it is too high (>1100 °C). The carbonization temperature is 1600–2000°C, and the carbonization is incomplete (WC<95%) if it is too low (<1500°C). The ball grinding time is 6–12 hours, and it is too short (<4 hours) and uneven (deviation>10%). The sintering temperature is 1350–1450 °C, too high (>1500 °C) for grain growth (>5 μm), too low (<1300 °C) and low density (<95%). The vacuum degree is < 10^{-3} Pa, and the oxidation (O>0.1 wt%) is too high (>10^{-2} Pa). Pressing pressure 20–100 MPa, too low (<10 MPa) and high porosity.

Advantages and disadvantages of tungsten in the production of tungsten carbide

Tungsten carbide prepared from yellow tungsten trioxide has high hardness (>90 HRA), high wear resistance (>10^6 times), suitable for cutting and mining (life > 1 year), controllable process, flexible WC:Co ratio (80:20 to 95:5). Disadvantages include high energy consumption (10–30 kWh/kg), high cobalt cost (US$ 20/kg >), and precise control of wet grinding and sintering (deviation > 5% to reduce strength). Tungsten carbide prepared from yellow tungsten trioxide meets the needs of the tool industry.

9.2 Application of yellow tungsten trioxide in the field of environment

As a wide bandgap semiconductor, tungsten (WO_3) generates electron-hole pairs (lifetime >1 ns) under ultraviolet or visible light excitation, catalyzes the oxidation of organic pollutants (e.g., VOCs, NO_x) or the reduction of heavy metal ions (e.g., Cr^{6+}), and realizes air purification (VOCs degradation rate >85%) and sewage treatment (COD removal rate >90%). Its high specific surface area (>50 m²/g) and surface activity (adsorption rate >80%) enhance the contaminant removal efficiency. The process requires controlling the light source intensity (>10 mW/cm²), catalyst morphology (pore size 5–100 nm), and reaction conditions (pH 4–10, temperature 20–60°C) to ensure catalytic efficiency (quantum yield >5%) and stability (100 cycle>s, activity loss <10% after 100 cycles).

9.2.1 Application of yellow tungsten trioxide in air purification

Yellow tungsten trioxide degrades volatile organic compounds (VOCs, such as toluene, formaldehyde, at a concentration of <100 ppm), nitrogen oxides (NO_x, <10 ppm) and bacteria (sterilization rate >99%) in the air through photocatalytic oxidation, and is used for indoor air purification (PM2.5 removal rate >80%) and industrial waste gas treatment (emission < 1 mg/m³). The bandgap (2.6–2.8 eV) of the yellow tungsten trioxide makes it efficient to produce reactive oxygen species (ROS) under ultraviolet light (<400 nm) or doped visible light (400–700 nm). OH, O_2^-), decomposition contaminants (toluene mineralization rate >85%). A photocatalytic reactor (model PCR-500) is used as a catalyst using a WO_3 thin film (thickness 10–1000 nm) or nanopowder (particle size 20–200 nm). Equipment includes a light source (UV lamp or LED, power 10–100 W), reaction chamber (quartz, volume 0.1–10 L), airflow control system (flow rate 10–100 L/min), and analytical instrumentation such as gas chromatography (GC, detection limit < 0.1 ppm) and colony counter (accuracy ±1%).

Tungsten in air purification applications

Yellowsten nanopowders (0.1–1 g, purity>99.9%) are applied to a carrier (glass fiber, area 10–100 cm², porosity >50%) by spraying or impregnation, or WO_3 thin films (deposited on FTO glass, 10–1000 nm).

The catalyst was cleaned (ethanol, residual < 0.1 mg/cm²) and placed in the reaction chamber (quartz, purity>99.5%) and sealed (air leakage rate < 0.01 L/min). Polluted air (toluene 10–100 ppm, NO_x<10 ppm, humidity 30–70%) is introduced and the airflow is regulated (10–100 L/min, residence time 1–10 seconds). The degradation rate was >85% when the UV lamp (365 nm, 10–50 mW/cm²) or visible LED (450 nm, 20–100 mW/cm²) was turned on for 1–4 hours. The concentration of contaminants was monitored by GC (error <±1%), and the sterilization rate was detected by colony counter (>99%). Catalyst regeneration (drying at 100°C, 2 h, activity recovery >95%), reaction chamber cleaning (deionized water, residual < 0.1 mg/cm²). The process needs to be ventilated (500 m³/h) and dust controlled (<1 mg/m³).

Optimization of key parameters of tungsten in air purification applications

The light source intensity is controlled at 10–50 mW/cm², with too high (>100 mW/cm²) causing photocorrosion (activity loss >10%), and too low (<5 mW/cm²) degrading slowly (<50%). WO_3 has a particle size of 20–200 nm and is too large (>500 nm) with a low specific surface area (<20 m²/g). The airflow velocity is 10–100 L/min, and the contact time is short (<70%) if it is too fast (>200 L/min). Humidity 30–70%, too high (>90%), surface adsorption competition (efficiency <60%), too low (<20%)· Less OH production. The reaction time is 1–4 hours, and the degradation is incomplete (<50%) if it is too short (<0.5 hours). The carrier porosity > 50%, less than 30% clogging (efficiency <70%).

Advantages and disadvantages of tungsten yellow in air purification applications

The advantages of yellow tungsten trioxide in air purification include high degradation efficiency (VOCs >85%, NO_x >80%), excellent sterilization effect (>99%) and cycle stability (> 100 cycles, loss <10%), making it suitable for indoor and industrial applications. Doping (e.g., Ti, N) can be scaled up to visible light (20% increase in efficiency). The disadvantage is that the nano powder is easily agglomerated (>5%) due to UV light dependence, and needs to be regenerated regularly. Tungsten photocatalysis meets the needs of air purification (PM2.5 removal rate >80%).

9.2.2 Application of yellow tungsten trioxide in sewage treatment

Yellow tungsten trioxide is used for industrial wastewater (COD removal rate >90%) and domestic wastewater treatment (TOC<10 mg/L) by photocatalytic oxidation and degradation of organic pollutants (e.g., dyes, phenols, concentration <100 mg/L), reduction of heavy metals (e.g., Cr^{6+}, <10 mg/L) or sterilization (E. coli removal rate >99%). High oxidation potential (+2.7 V vs. NHE) catalyzed by WO_3 to generate · OH (concentration > 1 µmol/L), mineralized organic matter (dye degradation rate >90%), reduced Cr^{6+} to Cr^{3+} (conversion rate > 95%). A photocatalytic reactor (model PWR-1000) is used as a catalyst using WO_3 nanopowders (20–200 nm) or composite materials (e.g., WO_3/TiO_2). The equipment includes a light source (UV lamp, 50–200 W), stirrer (100–500 rpm), reaction cell (glass, volume 0.5–10 L), and analytical instrumentation such as TOC analyzer (detection limit < 0.1 mg/L) and ICP-MS.

The operation process of tungsten in wastewater treatment applications

Yellowsche powder (0.1–2 g, purity>99.9%) is dispersed in deionized water (0.1–1 g/L, conductivity<10 µS/cm) or supported on a carrier (activated carbon, 10–100 cm^2). The catalyst was ultrasonically cleaned (40 kHz, 10 min, residual <0.1 mg/cm^2) and added to the reaction tank (glass, purity> 99.5%). Inject wastewater (dyes such as methylene blue 10–100 mg/L, Cr^{6+}<10 mg/L, pH 4–7, 500 mL–10 L), stir (100–500 rpm, homogeneity deviation <5%). The degradation rate was >90% when the UV lamp (365 nm, 10–100 mW/cm^2) was turned on and the reaction was 1–6 hours. The TOC analyzer monitored COD (<20 mg/L), ICP-MS detected Cr^{6+} (<0.1 mg/L), and the colony counter verified the sterilization rate (>99%). Catalyst filtration (PTFE membrane, 0.45 µm, recovery >98%), regeneration (drying at 100°C, 2 h, activity recovery >95%). Reactor tank cleaning (deionized water, residual < 0.1 mg/cm^2), ventilation to control dust (500 m^3/h, < 1 mg/m^3).

Optimization of key parameters of tungsten in wastewater treatment applications

The light source intensity is 10–100 mW/cm^2, and the catalyst is deactivated (>10%) if it is too high (>200 mW/cm^2), and the degradation rate is low (<60%) if it is too low (<5 mW/cm^2). WO_3 concentration of 0.1–1 g/L, too high (>2 g/L) light shielding (<70% efficiency), too low (<0.05 g/L) and insufficient activity (<50%). pH 4–7, too high (>9) · The OH generation is low (<0.5 µmol/L), and the catalyst dissolves (>1%) when it is too low (<3). Stirring speed 100–500 rpm, too low (<50 rpm) deposition (deviation >10%). The reaction time is 1–6 hours, and the degradation is incomplete (<50%) if it is too short (<0.5 hours). The specific surface area of the carrier > 100 m^2/g, and the adsorption rate is low (<60%) below 50 m^2/g.

Advantages and disadvantages of tungsten in wastewater treatment applications

The advantages of yellow tungsten trioxide in wastewater treatment include high degradation rate (organic > 90%, Cr^{6+}>95%), excellent sterilization effect (>99%) and environmental friendliness (no secondary pollution), suitable for industrial wastewater (COD<20 mg/L) and drinking water treatment (TOC<10 mg/L). Composite WO_3 (e.g., WO_3/g-C_3N_4) improves visible light response (30% more efficient). The disadvantages are that the photocatalytic efficiency is limited by the light source (the cost of UV lamps > $100/unit), the catalyst recovery is complex (the filtration cost is > $20/batch), and the efficiency of neutral or alkaline water bodies is low (<70%). Tungsten photocatalysis meets the demand for wastewater treatment (market > 50 million US dollars/year).

9.3 Application of yellow tungsten trioxide in the field of smart materials

The use of yellow tungsten trioxide (WO_3) in smart materials relies on its semiconducting properties (band gap 2.6–2.8 eV) and reversible redox properties ($W^{6+} \leftrightarrow W^{5+}$). In electrochromic devices, WO_3 drives ion intercalation/extraction (e.g., H^+, Li^+) by an electric field to achieve color switching (transparent ↔ blue, 70% >change in transmittance). In gas sensors, the WO_3 surface reacts with a target gas (e.g., NO_2, H_2S) to change resistance (sensitivity >100) for environmental monitoring (detection limit <1 ppm). The process requires control of film thickness (10–1000 nm), morphology (porosity>50%), and doping (Ti, Ni<5 wt%) to ensure performance (response time < 10 seconds, cycle stability > 1000 cycles).

9.3.1 Application of yellow tungsten trioxide in electrochromic devices

Tungsten yellow is used as the core color-changing layer in electrochromic devices, where ionic intercalation (e.g., Li^+:$WO_3 + xLi^+ + xe^-$) is initiated by the application of an electric field (±–3 V). ↔ Li_xWO_3) for light transmittance adjustment (400–800 nm, variation >70%) for smart windows (energy saving >20%), automotive mirrors (anti-glare >80%), and displays (contrast ratio > 100:1). High coloring efficiency (>50 cm²/C) and cycling stability (> 1000 cycles, attenuation < 10%) of WO_3 films (thickness 10–1000 nm) are key. WO_3 thin films are prepared by magnetron sputtering (type MS-600) or sol-gel method, including a sputterer (power 100–500 W), annealing furnace (300–500 °C), an electrochemical test system (potentiometric ±0.001 V), and analytical instruments such as a UV-Vis spectrophotometer.

Tungsten in electrochromic device applications

Yellow-tungsten powder (0.1–1 g, purity>99.9% purity) or tungsten target (purity>99.95%, diameter 50–100 mm) is used for magnetron sputtering to deposit WO_3 thin films (target base distance 50–100 mm, $Ar:O_2=4:1$, pressure 0.1–1 Pa, deposition time 10–60 minutes, thickness 10–1000 nm) on FTO glass (resistance 10–20 Ω/sq, area 10–1000 cm²). Film annealing (300–500°C, air, 1–2 hours, crystallization >80%). Alternatively, the WO_3 precursor (e.g., WCl_6, 0.1 mol/L) is dissolved in ethanol, spin-coated (2000–4000 rpm, 30 seconds) in FTO glass, dried (100°C, 1 h), and annealed (300–500°C, 1–2 h) by sol-gel method. Thin film cleaning (deionized water, residual <0.1 mg/cm²) and assembly into a device (WO_3|electrolyte|counter electrode, electrolyte such as $LiClO_4$/PC, 1 mol/L). Electrochemical tests (-3 to 3 V, sweep speed 10–100 mV/s) measured the change in transmittance (>70%) and tinting efficiency (>50 cm²/C). The spectra were detected by spectrophotometer (400–800 nm) and the morphology (porosity >50%) was observed by SEM. Equipment cleaning (ethanol, residual < 0.1 mg/cm²), ventilation control dust (500 m³/h, <1 mg/m³).

Optimization of key parameters of tungsten in electrochromic device applications

The film thickness is controlled at 10–1000 nm, and the response time is long (>30 seconds) for over-thick (>2000 nm), and small (<50%) change in transmittance (50%) for over-thin (<5 nm). The annealing temperature is 300–500 °C, the grain growth (>500 nm) is too high (>600 °C), and the proportion of amorphous states is high if it is too low. The sputtering pressure is 0.1–1 Pa, and the film is porosity (porosity >70%) if it is too high (>2 Pa). The electrolyte concentration is 1 mol/L, which is too low (<0.5 mol/L) and the ion transmission is slow. When an electric field is applied± 1–3 V, too high (>5 V) the film is degraded (>10%). Sweep speed 10–100 mV/s, too fast (>200 mV/s) peak shape distortion (>10%).

Advantages and disadvantages of tungsten in electrochromic device applications

The advantages of tungsten in electrochromic devices include high tinting efficiency (>50 cm²/C), large light transmittance variation (>70%), and cycling stability (> 1000 cycles, attenuation < 10%), suitable for smart windows (energy saving >20%) and displays (response < 1 second). Doping (e.g., Ni, Ti) improves visible light response (20% increase in efficiency). The disadvantages are that the preparation cost is high, the response time is slower than that of organic materials (>0.5 seconds), and the electrolyte leakage needs to be sealed. Tungsten electrochromic meets the needs of smart buildings.

9.3.2 Application of tungsten in gas sensors

As a gas-sensitive material, tungsten has a variable resistance (sensitivity > 100) by adsorbing target gases (e.g., NO_2, H_2S, NH_3 at a concentration of 0.1–100 ppm) on the surface and is used for environmental monitoring (detection limit <1 ppm), industrial safety (response time <10 seconds), and medical diagnostics (breath analysis, NH_3<1 ppm). The high specific surface area (>50 m²/g) of WO_3 nanostructures (particle size 20–200 nm, porosity >50%) enhances gas adsorption (>80%). The WO_3 sensitive layer is prepared by thermal evaporation (type TE-300) or hydrothermal by evaporation (50–200 W), annealing furnace (300–600 °C), gas testing system (flow rate 10–100 mL/min) and analytical instrumentation such as a multimeter (resistance ± 0.1 Ω) and GC-MS (detection limit < 0.1 ppm).

The operation process of tungsten yellow in gas sensor applications

Yellow-tungsten powder (0.1–1 g, purity>99.9%) was prepared by hydrothermal method (WCl_6, 0.1 mol/L, 180°C, 12–24 h) or thermally evaporated on Al_2O_3 substrates (1–10 cm² with Pt electrodes, 0.1–1 mm spacing). The hydrothermal product was centrifuged (5000 rpm, 10 min, recovery >98%), dried (80°C, 2 h), and coated on a substrate (1–10 µm thickness). Film annealing (300–600°C, air, 1–2 hours, crystallization >80%). Substrate cleaning (ethanol, residual < 0.1 mg/cm²) and placement in a gas test chamber (quartz, volume 0.1–1 L). A target gas (NO_2 0.1–10 ppm, N_2 equilibrium gas, flow rate 10–100 mL/min, humidity 30–70%) was introduced, the substrate was heated (100–400°C), and the change in resistance was measured (sensitivity = $\Delta R/R_0$>100). GC-MS verified the gas concentration (error <±1%), and SEM detected the morphology (porosity >50%). Test chamber cleaning (N_2 purging, residual <0.1 ppm), ventilation control dust (500 m³/h, <1 mg/m³).

Optimization of key parameters of tungsten flavour in gas sensor applications

The WO_3 particle size is controlled at 20–200 nm, and the specific surface area (<20 m²/g) is low (>500 nm). The operating temperature is 100–400°C, the baseline drift is too high (>500°C) (>10%), and the response is weak (sensitivity<10) is too low (<50°C). Gas flow 10–100 mL/min, too fast (>200 mL/min) and insufficient adsorption (<50%). The film thickness is 1–10 µm, and the response is slow (>30 seconds) for over-thickness (>20 µm). The annealing temperature is 300–600 °C, and the grain grows (>500 nm) if it is too high (>700 °C). Humidity 30–70%, too high (>90%) interferes with the signal (>20%).

Advantages and disadvantages of tungsten yellow in gas sensor applications

The advantages of tungsten yellow in gas sensors include high sensitivity (>100, NO_2<1 ppm), fast response (< 10 seconds) and selectivity (cross-sensitivity < 10%), making it suitable for environmental monitoring. Doping (e.g., Pd, Au) improves selectivity (30% increase). The disadvantages are high energy consumption (>1 W/sensor) for high-temperature operation, compensation for humidity interference, and complex preparation of nanomaterials. Tungsten gas sensors meet industrial and medical needs.

9.4 Application of yellow tungsten trioxide in the field of electronic information

Tungsten (WO_3) is an n-type semiconductor used as a channel material in field-effect transistors to modulate carrier transport (electron concentration $>10^{16}$ cm^{-3}) and achieve high switching ratios ($>10^5$) and low power consumption (subthreshold swing <100 mV/dec). In memory devices, WO_3 enables data storage (write speed < 100 ns) by resistive switching (high/low impedance state ratio $>10^2$) or ion migration. The process requires controlled film thickness (5–100 nm), crystallinity (>80%), and doping (N, F<5 wt%) to ensure device performance (response time <1 µs and endurance $>10^4$ times). This section examines in detail the specific applications of tungsten in field-effect transistors and memory devices.

9.4.1 Application of tungsten in field-effect transistors

Tungsten is used as a channel material in field-effect transistors (FETs) for efficient carrier transport with its high electron mobility (>10 $cm^2/V\cdot s$) and tunable bandgap (2.6–2.8 eV), suitable for low-power logic circuits (power consumption <1 pJ/switch), display drivers (switch ratio $>10^5$), and sensor interfaces (sensitivity >100). The WO_3 film (5–100 nm thick) provides a high on/off ratio ($>10^5$) by controlling the resistance (10^3–10^7 Ω) by an electric field. WO_3 thin films are prepared by atomic layer deposition (ALD, type ALD-200) or magnetron sputtering (type MS-600) with an ALD reactor (deposition rate 0.1–1 Å/cycle), sputtering instrument (power 100–500 W), annealing furnace (300–600 °C), semiconductor parameter analyzer (current ±0.1 nA) and analytical instrumentation such as XPS (energy resolution <0.5 eV).

The operation process of tungsten in field-effect transistor applications

Tungsten precursors (e.g., WF_6, purity >99.9%) are used for ALD to deposit WO_3 thin films (temperature 150–300 °C, pressure 0.1–1 Torr, 100–1000 nm thickness, thickness 5–100 nm) on Si/SiO_2 substrates (SiO_2 thickness 100–300 nm, area 1–100 cm^2). or by magnetron sputtering, using a WO_3 target (purity>99.95%, diameter 50–100 mm), deposited in $Ar:O_2$ (4:1, 0.1–1 Pa) (power 100–300 W, time 10–30 min). Thin film annealing (300–600°C, N_2 atmosphere, 1–2 hours, crystallization >80%). Substrate wash (ethanol + deionized water, residual < 0.1 mg/cm^2). The source/drainage electrode (Au/Ti, 50 nm) and gate (Al, 100 nm) were deposited by photolithography (resolution < 1 µm). Device testing (-10 to 10 V, 10 nA–1 mA) measures mobility (>10 $cm^2/V\cdot s$), switching ratio ($>10^5$), and subthreshold swing (<100 mV/dec). XPS was used to analyze the chemical state (W^{6+}>95%), and the morphology was observed by SEM (grain < 50 nm). Equipment cleaning (N_2 purging, residual < 0.1 mg/cm^2), ventilation control dust (500 m^3/h, < 1 mg/m^3).

Optimization of key parameters of tungsten in field-effect transistor applications

The film thickness is controlled at 5–100 nm, with high leakage current (>1 nA) over thick (>200 nm) and discontinuous channel (< 10^3 switching ratio) over thin (<2 nm). The annealing temperature is 300–600°C, too high (>700°C), the grain is too large (>100 nm), too low (<200°C), and the proportion of amorphous states is high (>50%). ALD temperature 150–300 °C, too high (>350 °C) precursor decomposition (uniformity < 90%). The sputtering pressure is 0.1–1 Pa, and the film is porosity (porosity >60%) if it is too high (>2 Pa). The gate voltage ± 10 V, and the breakdown (>1%) is too high (>20 V). The substrate SiO_2 thickness is 100–300 nm, too thin (<50 nm) and weak electric field shielding.

Advantages and disadvantages of tungsten in field-effect transistor applications

The advantages of tungsten yellow in FETs include high mobility (>10 cm²/V·s), excellent switching ratio (>10^5), and low power consumption (<1 pJ/switch) for display drivers and logic circuits. Doping (e.g. N, F) increases conductivity by 20%. The disadvantages are high preparation cost (ALD equipment > $500,000/unit), strict film uniformity requirements (deviation >5% to reduce performance), sensitivity to high temperatures (> 700°C mobility < 5 cm²/V·s). Tungsten FETs meet the need for low-power electronics.

9.4.2 Application of tungsten flavum in memory devices

Tungsten yellow is used as a resistor-switching layer (ReRAM) or charge-trapping layer (Flash) in memory devices to achieve high/low impedance state conversion (ratio >10^2) or charge storage (> 10 years) by voltage drive (±1–5 V) for non-volatile memory (write speed < 100 ns and endurance >10^4 times). The high resistance modulation capability (10^3–10^8 Ω) of WO_3 thin films (10–100 nm thick) enables high-density storage (>1 Gb/cm²). WO_3 thin films are prepared by pulsed laser deposition (PLD, model PLD-500) or sol-gel method, including a PLD system (laser energy 100–500 mJ), annealing furnace (300–500 °C), electrical test system (voltage±0.001 V), and analytical instruments such as TEM (resolution < 0.1 nm).

The operation process of tungsten yellow in the application of memory devices

Yellow-tungsten targets (purity>99.95%, diameter 50 mm) were used for PLD to deposit WO_3 thin films (laser 532 nm, energy 100–300 mJ, O_2 pressure 0.1–10 Pa, deposition time 10–30 minutes, thickness 10–100 nm) on Si or ITO substrates (area 1–10 cm²). Alternatively, the WO_3 precursor (WCl_6, 0.1 mol/L) was spin-coated (2000–4000 rpm for 30 sec) on a substrate by sol-gel method, dried (100°C, 1 h), and annealed (300–500°C, 1–2 h). Film annealing (300–500°C, N_2, 1–2 hours, crystallization >80%). Substrate wash (ethanol, residual < 0.1 mg/cm²). The deposition electrode (Pt/Ti, 50 nm) was photolithography (resolution < 1 μm). Device testing (±1–5 V, pulse duration 10–100 ns) measured resistance-to-state ratio (>10^2), write speed (<100 ns), and endurance (>10^4 cycles). TEM observation interface (defect <1%), XPS analysis of oxidation state (W^{6+}>95%). Equipment cleaning (N_2 purging, residual < 0.1 mg/cm²), ventilation control dust (500 m³/h, < 1 mg/m³).

Optimization of key parameters of tungsten in memory device applications

The film thickness is controlled at 10–100 nm, with high power consumption (>1 μJ) and low resistance-state ratio (<10) for over-thickness (<>200 nm) and low resistance-state ratio (10). The annealing temperature is 300–500 °C, too high (>600 °C) with too much oxygen vacancy (>5%), too low (<200 °C) and insufficient crystallization (<50%). The PLD oxygen pressure is 0.1–10 Pa, and the film is porosity (porosity >60%) if it is too high (>20 Pa). The applied voltage ± 1–5 V, and the device breakdown (>1%) is too high (>7 V). The pulse duration is 10–100 ns, and the energy consumption is high (>10 μJ) over long (>1 μs). The electrode material Pt/Ti has a thickness of 50 nm and a high interfacial resistance (>10 Ω) due to excessive thickness (>100 nm).

Advantages and disadvantages of tungsten flavour in memory device applications

The advantages of tungsten yellow in memory devices include high resistance-state ratio ($>10^2$), fast write (<100 ns), and long data retention (> 10 years), suitable for high-density storage (>1 Gb/cm², market > $200 million/year). Doping (e.g. Mo) increases durability (50% more). The disadvantages are that the preparation process is complex (PLD cost > 20 USD/cm²), the interface stability needs to be optimized (defects > 1% to reduce performance), and the power consumption is higher than that of DRAM (>10 pJ/bit). Tungsten yellow storage devices meet the needs of next-generation storage.

9.5 Application of yellow tungsten trioxide in the field of machinery manufacturing

Tungsten yellow (WO_3) is used in mechanical engineering to produce tungsten powder (particle size 0.5–5 μm) by reduction or directly as a coating material for the preparation of high-hardness coatings (thickness 1–10 μm) and wear-resistant parts (density > 15 g/cm³). In tool coatings, WO_3-derived materials such as WC or WO_3 composite coatings enhance surface hardness (>2000 HV) and wear resistance (coefficient of friction < 0.3). Among wear-resistant components, WO_3-matrix composites or tungsten alloys offer high wear resistance (wear rate< 10^{-6} mm³/N·m）。 The coating thickness (1–10 μm), particle size (0.5–5 μm) and sintering conditions (temperature 1200–2000°C, atmosphere H_2/N_2) are controlled to ensure performance (hardness > 2000 HV, lifetime > 10^6 times).

9.5.1 Application of tungsten in tool coatings

Tungsten carbide (WC, particle size 0.5–2 μm) is produced by reduction or directly applied to WO_3-based composite coatings, which are applied to tool surfaces (e.g. high-speed steel, cemented carbide substrates) to improve hardness (>2000 HV) and wear resistance (wear rate< 10^{-6} mm³/N·m) and cutting life ($>10^6$ times), suitable for high-speed cutting (>200 m/min) and precision machining (surface roughness Ra<0.1 μm). The WC coating is prepared by chemical vapor deposition (CVD) and the WO_3 composite coating is magnetron sputtered (model MS-600). The equipment includes a CVD reactor (model CVD-800, volume 10–50 L), sputterer (power 100–500 W), annealing furnace (300–600 °C), hardness tester (accuracy ± 1 HV) and friction and wear tester (accuracy ±0.1 mg).

How to use tungsten in tool coating applications

Yellowsten (0.1–10 kg, purity>99.9%) was sieved (200 mesh, residual <1%) and dried (100°C, 2 hours, moisture content<0.1%) before reduced (600–700°C, 1–2 hours) in a reduction furnace (model RF-1200, H_2 flow rate 10–50 L/min, purity >99.999%; 800–1000°C, 2–4 hours) to generate tungsten powder (0.5–5 μm, yield >95%). Tungsten powder is mixed with graphite powder (C>99.9%, 1–10 μm, W:C≈94:6 wt%) and carbonized in a graphite furnace (1600–2000°C, H_2 atmosphere) to generate WC (0.5–2 μm). WC was deposited on the tool substrate (HSS, area 10–100 cm², Ra <0.5 μm) by CVD at CH_4+H_2 (1:10, 0.1–1 kPa), 1000–1200°C, 1–4 hours, and thickness 1–10 μm. or WO_3 targets (purity>99.95%, 50–100 mm diameter) by magnetron sputtering (Ar:O_2=4:1, 0.1–1 Pa, 100–300 W, 10–30 min) to deposit WO_3 coatings (1–5 μm), annealed (300–600°C, N_2, 1–2 h). Knife cleaning (ethanol, residual < 0.1 mg/cm²). The hardness test is tested by the hardness tester (>2000 HV), and the wear rate is measured by the friction and wear tester ($<10^{-6}$ mm³/N·m), SEM to observe the coating morphology (porosity <5%). Equipment cleaning (N_2 purging, residual < 0.1 mg/cm²), ventilation control dust (500 m³/h, < 1 mg/m³).

Optimization of key parameters of tungsten in tool coating applications

The particle size of WC is controlled at 0.5–2 μm, and the coating is rough (Ra > 0.2 μm) if it is too large (>5 μm). The CVD temperature is 1000–1200°C, too high (>1300°C) the substrate softens (hardness <500HV), too low (<900°C) and the deposition is slow (<0.1 μm/h). The coating thickness is 1–10 μm, too thick (>15 μm), cracking (>5%), too thin (<0.5 μm), poor wear resistance (wear rate> 10^{-5}mm³/N·). m）。 The sputtering pressure is 0.1–1Pa, and the coating is loose (porosity >10%) if it is too high (>2Pa). The annealing temperature is 300–600 °C, and the grain grows (> 100 nm) if it is too high (> 700 °C). CH_4:H_2 ratio 1:10, too high (>1:5) carbon deposition (>1wt%).

Advantages and disadvantages of tungsten in tool coating applications

The advantages of tungsten yellow in tool coatings include high hardness (>2000 HV) and low wear rate ($<10^{-6}$ mm³/N·). m) and long life ($>10^6$ cuts), suitable for high-speed cutting. The WC coating is resistant to high temperatures (>800°C), and the WO_3 composite coating improves oxidation resistance (20% more). The disadvantages are the high energy consumption of CVD, the expensive sputtering equipment, and the need to optimize the coating adhesion (spalling rate > 1% reduces life). Tungsten coating meets the needs of precision machining.

9.5.2 Application of tungsten in wear-resistant parts

Tungsten is reduced to tungsten powder, which is mixed with other metals (e.g., Ni, Co) and sintered to prepare wear-resistant parts (e.g. bearings, seals, density > 15 g/cm³), or directly used in WO_3-based composite coatings for heavy-duty machinery (coefficient of friction < 0.3) and mining equipment (wear < 0.1 mm/year). Tungsten alloy components (W-Ni-Co, W>80 wt%) have high wear resistance (wear rate< 10^{-6} mm³/N·). m）。 The process is carried out using a vacuum sintering furnace (model VF-1500, volume 10–50 L) or plasma spraying (model PS-500). The equipment includes a mixer (50–200 rpm), a press (20–100 MPa), a spray gun (10–50 kW), a friction and wear tester (accuracy ±0.1 mg) and SEM (resolution < 1 μm).

The operation process of tungsten in the application of wear parts

Reduction of yellow tungsten trioxide in a reduction furnace (H_2, 10–50 L/min) (600–700 °C, 1–2 hours; 800–1000°C, 2–4 hours) to generate tungsten powder (0.5–5 μm, yield >95%). Tungsten powder was mixed with nickel powder (Ni>99.9%, 1–10 μm), cobalt powder (Co>99.9%, 1–10 μm, W:Ni:Co=80:10:10 wt%) (50–200 rpm, 2–4 hours, homogeneity deviation <5%), pressed (20–100 MPa, density >8 g/cm^3). The green bodies are sintered in a vacuum furnace (<10^{-3} Pa, 1300–1500°C, 5–10°C/min, incubated for 1–2 hours) to make parts (density > 15 g/cm^3). or WO_3 powder (0.1–1 g, 20–200 nm) by plasma spraying ($Ar+H_2$, 10–50 kW, spray pitch 100–150 mm) on a steel substrate (area 10–100 cm^2, thickness 10–100 μm), annealed (300–500 °C, N_2, 1–2 hours). Parts polished (grinding wheel 2000 mesh, Ra < 0.5 μm), cleaned (deionized water, residual < 0.1 mg/cm^2). Friction and wear test: Machine-measured wear rate (<10^{-6} mm^3/N·m), hardness was measured by a hardness tester (>1000 HV), and the microstructure was observed by SEM (grain < 10 μm). Equipment cleaning (N_2 purging, residual < 0.1 mg/cm^2), ventilation control dust (500 m^3/h, < 1 mg/m^3).

Optimization of key parameters of tungsten in wear-resistant component applications

The particle size of tungsten powder is controlled at 0.5–5 μm, and the excessive (>10 μm) porosity is high (>5%). The sintering temperature is 1300–1500 °C, too high (> 1600 °C) for grain growth (>20 μm), too low (< 1200 °C) and low density (<14 g/cm^3). The vacuum degree is < 10^{-3} Pa, and the oxidation (O>0.1 wt%) is too high (>10^{-2} Pa). Spraying power 10–50 kW, too high (>60 kW) coating cracking (>5%), too low (<5 kW) poor adhesion (<50 MPa). The coating thickness is 10–100 μm, and the excessive thickness (>200 μm) peels off (>2%). The pressing pressure is 20–100 MPa, and if it is too low (<10 MPa), the green body is loose (porosity > 10%).

Advantages and disadvantages of tungsten yellow in the application of wear resistant parts

The advantages of tungsten in wear-resistant components include high wear resistance (wear rate< 10^{-6} mm^3/N·m), high hardness (>1000 HV) and long life (>1 year), suitable for heavy-duty machinery (coefficient of friction < 0.3). Tungsten alloy parts are corrosion-resistant, and WO_3 coating improves oxidation resistance (15% more). The disadvantages are the high energy consumption of sintering (10–30 kWh/kg), the high cost of spraying equipment, and the high precision required for component processing (deviation > 0.1 mm reduces performance). Tungsten wear parts meet mining and mechanical needs.

9.6 Tungsten in biomedical applications

Yellowschet (WO$_3$) has shown unique application value in the biomedical field due to its excellent biocompatibility (cell viability >95%), high specific surface area (>50 m^2/g) and photoelectrochemical performance (band gap 2.6–2.8 eV). The application of yellow tungsten trioxide in biosensors and photothermal therapy relies on its nanostructure (particle size 20–200 nm, porosity >50%) and surface chemical activity (adsorption rate >80%), which enables highly sensitive detection (detection limit < 1 nM) and efficient photothermal conversion (>40% efficiency).

9.6.1 Application of tungsten in biosensors

Tungsten flavour is used as a sensitive material in biosensors for the detection of biomarkers (e.g., glucose, DNA, concentrations 0.1 nM–1 mM) by electrochemical or photochemical reactions, for disease diagnosis (sensitivity > 100 μA/mM·cm²) and for health monitoring (response time <5 seconds). The high electron transfer rate ($>10^{-3}$ cm/s) and surface functionalization capacity (enzyme loading rate >90%) of WO_3 nanostructures enhance detection performance (detection limit < 1 nM). WO_3 nanomaterials are prepared by hydrothermal method (model HT-200) or electrodeposition method, including a hydrothermal reactor (volume 50–500 mL), an electrochemical workstation (current±0.1 nA), a UV-Vis spectrophotometer (wavelength accuracy ±0.5 nm), and analytical instruments such as AFM (resolution < 0.1 nm).

Tungsten yellow in biosensor applications

Yellowschet precursor (WCl_6, 0.05–0.2 mol/L, purity>99.9%) was dissolved in deionized water (conductivity<10 μS/cm), urea (0.1 mol/L) was added to adjust the pH to 6–8, and WO_3 nanoparticles (20–200 nm, yield>90%) were prepared in a hydrothermal reactor (180–200°C, 12–24 hours). WO_3 thin films (thickness 10–100 nm) were prepared by electrodeposition by applying -0.5 to 0.5 V (vs. Ag/AgCl, electrolyte Na_2WO_4 0.1 mol/L, pH 6–7) on an FTO substrate (resistance 10–20 Ω/sq, area 1–10 cm²) for 10–30 minutes.

Nanomaterial centrifugation (5000 rpm, 10 min, recovery >98%) or substrate washing (ethanol, residual <0.1 mg/cm²), annealing (300–500 °C, air, 1–2 h, crystallization >80%). Surface functionalization (e.g., immobilization of glucose oxidase, 0.1 mg/cm², 4°C, 12 h). Sensor testing (electrochemical: 0–0.7 V, pH 7.4 PBS; Photochemistry: 365 nm, 10 mW/cm²) for glucose (0.1 nM–1 mM, sensitivity>100 μA/mM/cm²). The topography was observed by AFM (roughness Ra<5 nm) and the absorption was measured by spectrophotometry (bandgap 2.6–2.8 eV). Equipment cleaning (deionized water, residual <0.1 mg/cm²), ventilation control dust (500 m³/h, < 1 mg/m³).

Optimization of key parameters of tungsten in biosensor applications

The WO_3 particle size is controlled at 20–200 nm, and the specific surface area (<20 m²/g) is low (>500 nm). The hydrothermal temperature is 180–200 °C, too high (>220 °C) to agglomerate (>10%), too low (<160 °C) and insufficient crystallization (<50%). Electrodeposition voltage -0.5 to 0.5 V, too high (>1 V) film porosity (porosity > 60%). The annealing temperature is 300–500 °C, and the grain grows (> 500 nm) if it is too high (>600 °C). The enzyme loading was 0.1 mg/cm², and the active site was blocked (sensitivity< 50 μA/mM·cm²) if it was too high (>0.5 mg/cm²). Tested pH 6–8, too low (<5) enzyme inactivation (>20%).

Advantages and disadvantages of tungsten in biosensor applications

The advantages of yellow tungsten trioxide in biosensors include high sensitivity (>100 µA/mM·cm²), low detection limit (<1 nM), and biocompatibility (cell viability > 95%), making it suitable for diabetes surveillance and cancer marker detection (market > US$100 million/year). Functionalization (e.g., Au nanoparticles) increases selectivity (30% more). The disadvantages are that the preparation is complex (water and heat cost > $50/batch), the enzyme stability needs to be optimized (activity <80% after 30 days), and the electrode is easy to age after long-term storage (resistance increases by > 10%). Tungsten yellow sensors meet the needs of precision medicine.

9.6.2 Application of yellow tungsten trioxide in photothermal therapy

Tungsten is used as a photothermal agent in photothermal therapy, using its strong near-infrared absorption (800–1200 nm, absorption coefficient $>10^4$ cm^{-1}) to convert light energy into heat energy (temperature rise >20°C) for tumor ablation (>90% kill rate) and bacterial disinfection (>99% sterilization rate). High photothermal conversion efficiency (>40%) and biosafety (IC50>100 µg/mL) of WO_3 nanoparticles (20–100 nm) are key. WO_3 nanoparticles are prepared by hydrothermal or solvothermal methods using a hydrothermal reactor (volume 50–500 mL), a laser (808 nm, power 0.5–2 W/cm²), an infrared thermal imager (accuracy ±0.1 °C), and analytical instruments such as TEM (resolution < 0.1 nm).

Procedures for the operation of tungsten in photothermal therapy applications

W>O_3 nanoparticles (20–100 nm, yield >90%) were prepared in a hydrothermal reactor (160–200°C, 12–24 h) with the addition of PEG (0.1 g/mL) as a stabilizer in deionized water, dissolved in deionized water, and PEG (0.1 g/mL) was added as a stabilizer. Pellet centrifugation (8000 rpm, 10 min, recovery >98%), wash (deionized water, residual < 0.1 mg/mL), disperse in PBS (0.1–1 mg/mL, pH 7.4). Surface modification (e.g., PEG or antibody, loading > 90%, 4 °C, 12 h). Samples were sterilized (121 °C, 20 min, colonies< 1 CFU/mL). Photothermal test: WO_3 solution (0.1–1 mg/mL, 100 µL) was placed in a quartz cuvette (purity>99.5%), irradiated with an 808 nm laser (0.5–2 W/cm², 5–10 min), and the temperature rise (>20°C) was recorded with a thermal imager. Cell assay (tumor cells, 50–200 µg/mL, 5 minutes of irradiation) measured the kill rate (>90%). TEM was used to observe particle morphology (dispersion deviation <10%), and UV-Vis was used to detect absorption (800–1200 nm). Equipment cleaning (deionized water, residual <0.1 mg/cm²), ventilation control dust (500 m³/h, < 1 mg/m³).

Optimization of key parameters of yellow tungsten trioxide in photothermal therapy applications

The WO_3 particle size is controlled at 20–100 nm, and the uptake rate of oversized (>200 nm) cells is low (<50%). The hydrothermal temperature is 160–200 °C, and the agglomeration is too high (>220 °C) (>10%). The laser power is 0.5–2 W/cm², too high (>3 W/cm²) for tissue damage (>5%), too low (<0.3

W/cm²) and insufficient temperature rise (<10°C). WO_3 concentrations of 0.1–1 mg/mL are highly toxic (>2 mg/mL) and increased toxicity (survival rate <80%). The irradiation time is 5–10 minutes, and the heat diffusion is too long (>15 minutes) (efficiency <30%). The PEG loading rate is > 90%, which is lower than 80% and the dispersion is poor (precipitation > 10%).

Advantages and disadvantages of yellow tungsten trioxide in photothermal therapy applications

The advantages of yellow tungsten trioxide in photothermal therapy include high photothermal efficiency (>40%), strong killing rate (>90%), and biosafety (IC50>100 μg/mL), which is suitable for tumor treatment and antibacterial. Doping (e.g., Cu) increases NIR absorption (20% more). The disadvantages are the high cost of nanoparticle preparation, the need to study metabolism in vivo (clearance rate < 50%/24 hours), and the high cost of laser equipment. Yellow-tungsten photothermal agent meets the needs of precision treatment.

9.7 Application of yellow tungsten trioxide in the field of optical display

Tungsten yellow (WO_3) has significant application potential in the field of optical display due to its excellent electrochromic properties (coloring efficiency >50 cm²/C), wide spectral response (400–2000 nm, light transmittance change >70%), and high chemical stability (acid and alkali resistance, pH 1–14). As an electrochromic material, tungsten yellow can achieve reversible changes in color and light transmittance through electric field control, and is suitable for displays (contrast ratio > 100:1), e-paper (refresh rate < 1 second) and smart optics (power consumption < 1 mW/cm²). This section focuses on the application of tungsten in the field of optical display, and analyzes its role in display in detail, covering process principles, equipment, operating processes, key parameter optimization, advantages and disadvantages, combined with professional data and practical cases.

9.7.1 Application of tungsten in displays

Tungsten xone acts as an electrochromic layer in displays to drive ion intercalation/detachment (e.g., $Li^+:WO_3 + xLi^+ + xe^- \leftrightarrow$) by applying a low voltage (±–3 V). Li_xWO_3) for color switching (transparent ↔ blue, 70% >change in transmittance) for flexible displays (bending radius <5 mm), e-paper (resolution > 300 dpi) and low-power screens (power consumption < 1 mW/cm²). The high coloring efficiency (>50 cm²/C) and fast response time (<1 second) of WO_3 films (10–500 nm thickness) are key. WO_3 thin films are prepared by magnetron sputtering (model MS-600) or sol-gel method, and the equipment includes a sputterer (power 100–500 W), a spin coater (1000–5000 rpm), an annealing furnace (300–500 °C), an electrochemical test system (potential ±0.001 V), and a UV-Vis spectrophotometer (wavelength accuracy± 0.5 nm).

The operation process of tungsten flavour in display applications

Yellow-tungsten targets (purity>99.95%, diameter 50–100 mm) are used for magnetron sputtering to deposit WO_3 thin films on ITO glass (resistance 5–15 Ω/sq, area 10–100 cm²) (target base distance 50–

100 mm, Ar:O_2=4:1, pressure 0.1–1 Pa, power 100–300 W, deposition time 10–30 minutes, thickness 10–500 nm). Alternatively, the yellow tungsten trioxide precursor (e.g., WCl_6, 0.1 mol/L) is dissolved in ethanol, spin-coated in ITO glass (2000–4000 rpm, 30 seconds), dried (100°C, 1 hour), and annealed (300–500°C, air, 1–2 hours, crystallization rate >80%). Thin film cleaning (deionized water, residual <0.1 mg/cm²) and assembly into a display device (WO_3|electrolyte|counter electrode, electrolyte such as $LiClO_4$/PC, 1 mol/L). Electrochemical tests (-2 to 2 V, sweep speed 10–100 mV/s) measured change in transmittance (>70%), response time (<1 sec), and tinting efficiency (>50 cm²/C). The spectra were detected by spectrophotometer (400–2000 nm) and the morphology (porosity >50%) was observed by SEM. Equipment cleaning (ethanol, residual < 0.1 mg/cm²), ventilation control dust (500 m³/h, <1 mg/m³).

Optimization of key parameters of tungsten flavour in display applications

The film thickness is controlled at 10–500 nm, the response time is extended (>2 seconds) for over-thickness (>1000 nm), and the light transmittance changes (<50%) for over-thin (<5 nm). The annealing temperature is 300–500 °C, too high (>600 °C), too large grains (>200 nm), too low (<200 °C), and a high proportion of amorphous states (>50%). The sputtering pressure is 0.1–1 Pa, and the film is porosity (porosity >60%) if it is too high (>2 Pa). The electrolyte concentration is 0.5–1 mol/L, and the ion transmission is slow if it is too low (<0.2 mol/L). The applied voltage ± 1–3 V, too high (>4 V) and the film degrades (>10%). Sweep speed 10–100 mV/s, too fast (>200 mV/s) peak shape distortion (>10%).

Advantages and disadvantages of tungsten yellow in display applications

The advantages of tungsten yellow in displays are high coloring efficiency (>50 cm²/C), large light transmittance change (>70%) and fast response (<1 second), which is suitable for flexible displays and e-paper. Doping (e.g., Ni, Mo) optimizes color diversity (20% more). Disadvantages include high preparation costs, difficulty in sealing electrolytes (leakage rate >1% reduced life), and slightly slower response (>0.5 seconds) compared to organic color-changing materials. Tungsten electrochromic meets the needs of low-power displays.

9.8 Application of yellow tungsten trioxide in catalytic support

Tungsten yellow (WO_3) is an excellent carrier material in the field of catalysis due to its high specific surface area (>50 m²/g), porous structure (pore size 5–100 nm, porosity >50%) and strong acidic site (acidity > 0.1 mmol/g). Tungsten yellow can support active components (such as Pt and Pd, loading 0.1–5 wt%), improve catalytic efficiency (conversion rate >90%) and stability (100 cycle>s, activity loss <5%), and is widely used in petrochemical industry, waste gas treatment (CO oxidation rate > 90%) and energy catalysis (hydrogen evolution rate >1 mmol/h·g).

9.8.1 Application of yellow tungsten trioxide in supported catalysts

Tungsten yellow is used as a catalytic carrier for catalytic reactions (e.g., CO oxidation, hydrogenation, hydrogen evolution with a conversion rate of >90%) by impregnation or co-precipitation with precious metals (e.g., Pt, Pd) or transition metal oxides (e.g., NiO, 0.1–5 wt%). The high specific surface area (>50 m²/g) and surface activity (adsorption rate >80%) of WO_3 enhance the dispersion of active components (particle < 10 nm) and catalytic performance (TOF>10 s^{-1}). The process uses impregnation equipment (model IM-300) or a co-precipitation reactor (type CP-500) consisting of an agitator (100–500 rpm), a vacuum drying oven (temperature 50–200 °C), a tubular roaster (300–800 °C), a BET analyzer (accuracy ± 1 m²/g) and TEM (resolution < 0.1 nm).

Tungsten in supported catalyst applications

Yellow-tungsten powder (0.1–10 g, purity>99.9%, particle size 20–200 nm) was prepared by hydrothermal method (WCl_6, 0.1 mol/L, 180°C, 12–24 h), centrifuged (5000 rpm, 10 min, recovery >98%), and dried (80°C, 2 h, moisture content<0.1%). Impregnation: Tungsten was dispersed in deionized water (0.1–1 g/mL), Pt precursor (e.g., H_2PtCl_6, 0.01–0.1 mol/L, Pt 0.1–5 wt%), stirred (200–500 rpm, 2–4 h), vacuum dried (80°C, 12 h), and roasted in a tube furnace (H_2/N_2, 300–600°C, 1–2 h) to prepare a Pt/WO_3 catalyst. or co-precipitation: Tungsten precursor mixed with Ni salt ($Ni(NO_3)_2$, 0.1 mol/L) (pH 8–10, NaOH adjusted), precipitation (60°C, 4 h), filtration (PTFE membrane, 0.45 µm), roasting (400–800°C, N_2, 2 h), preparation of NiO/WO_3. Catalyst cleaning (deionized water, residual < 0.1 mg/g). Catalytic test (CO oxidation: 200–300°C, CO 1 vol%, gas flow 50 mL/min; Hydrogenation: 150–250 °C, H_2 10 MPa), conversion >90%. The surface area was measured by BET (>50 m²/g), and the active components were dispersed (particles < 10 nm) by TEM. Equipment cleaning (deionized water, residual <0.1 mg/cm²), ventilation control dust (500 m³/h, < 1 mg/m³).

Optimization of key parameters of tungsten in supported catalyst applications

The WO_3 particle size is controlled at 20–200 nm, and the specific surface area (<20 m²/g) is low (>500 nm). The impregnation time is 2–4 hours, too short (< 1 hour) and the load is uneven (deviation > 10%). The roasting temperature is 300–800 °C, the active components are agglomerated (>20 nm) if they are too high (>900 °C), and the crystallization is poor (<50%) if they are too low (<200 °C). The load of 0.1–5 wt%, too high (>10 wt%) clogs the pores (porosity < 30%). The reaction temperature is 150–300°C, and the catalyst is deactivated (>10%) if it is too high (>400°C). The airflow rate is 50–100 mL/min, and the contact time is short (<80%) if it is too fast (>200 mL/min).

Advantages and disadvantages of tungsten in supported catalyst applications

The advantages of yellow tungsten trioxide in supported catalysts are high specific surface area (>50 m²/g), strong dispersion (active particles < 10 nm) and high catalytic efficiency (conversion > 90%), making it suitable for hydrogenation and waste gas treatment (market > USD 200 million/year). The WO_3 acidic site increases selectivity by 20%. Disadvantages include high preparation costs ($100/g for precious metals> high roasting energy consumption (1–5 kWh/kg), and precise control of the carrier pore structure (deviation > 10% efficiency reduction). Tungsten catalysts meet chemical and environmental needs.

9.9 Application of yellow tungsten trioxide in the field of fireproof fabrics

Tungsten is incorporated into textile substrates (e.g. cotton, polyester or aramid) by doping or coating to form composite fire-resistant fabrics that improve their thermal shielding (heat flow barrier >80%) and flame retardant effect (combustion rate < 10 mm/min). WO_3 nanoparticles release oxygen inhibitors at high temperatures, reduce the concentration of flammable gases (> 40%), and form a carbonized layer (thickness >0.5 mm) that prevents the spread of flames (self-extinguishing time < 2 seconds). Its high specific surface area (>50 m²/g) and surface activity (adsorption rate >80%) enhance adhesion to substrates (peel strength > 5 N/cm). The process requires controlled tungsten addition (0.5–5 wt%), dispersion uniformity (agglomeration <5%) and coating thickness (10–100 μm) to ensure fabric performance (air permeability > 100 mm/s, flame retardant class B1). This section examines in detail the specific applications of tungsten fireproof fabrics in industry, everyday life and public transport.

9.9.1 Application of tungsten fireproof fabrics in the industrial field

Tungsten fireproof fabrics are used in the industrial sector to make protective clothing, heat curtains and equipment coverings to protect people and facilities from high temperatures (>500°C), flame and arc damage (protection class >EN ISO 11612). WO_3 nanoparticles are loaded on aramid or polyester fabrics (basis weight 200–500 g/m²) by sol-gel or dipping processes to improve oxygen index (LOI>30%) and thermal protection (TPP>10 cal/cm²·s). The process uses an impregnation mill (model IR-500), a high-temperature oven (100–300°C) and testing equipment, including a cone calorimeter (heat flow accuracy ±0.1 kW/m²), a tensile testing machine (accuracy ± 0.1 MPa) and an LOI tester (accuracy ± 0.1%).

Yellowsten (0.1–10 kg, purity>99.9%) was ground to 20–200 nm by ball milling (200–500 rpm, 6–12 hours, ethanol medium), dispersed in deionized water (0.1–1 g/L, conductivity<10 μS/cm), and dispersant (PVA, 0.1–0.5 wt%) was added to prepare WO_3 sol. Aramid fabrics (200–500 g/m², area 10–100 m²) are immersed in sol (maceration time 1–5 minutes, liquid carrying rate 80–120%) and evenly coated through an impregnation mill (pressure 0.1–0.5 MPa, speed 5–20 m/min). The fabric is dried (100–150°C, 10–30 minutes), cured (200–300°C, 1–2 hours), and a WO_3 coating is formed (0.5–5 wt%, thickness 10–100 μm). Fabric wash (deionized water, residual < 0.1 mg/m²), tested for LOI (>30%), heat flow barrier (>80%), and tensile strength (>500 N/5cm). The combustion heat release rate (HRR<200 kW/m²) was measured by cone calorimeter, and the morphology of the coating (porosity <10%) was observed by SEM. Equipment cleaning (deionized water, residual < 0.1 mg/m²), ventilation control dust (500 m³/h, <1 mg/m³).

Optimization of key parameters is crucial. The WO_3 particle size is controlled at 20–200 nm, and the coating is uneven (deviation >10%) if it is too large (>500 nm). The addition amount was 0.5–5 wt%, too high (>10 wt%), fabric hardening (softness <80%), too low (<0.1 wt%), insufficient flame retardant (LOI<26%). Curing temperature 200–300°C, too high (>400°C) substrate degradation (strength<400 N/5cm), too low (<150°C) poor coating adhesion (peel > 10%). The impregnation pressure is 0.1–0.5 MPa, and the fabric damage (fiber breakage >5%) is too high (>1 MPa). The advantages of yellow tungsten trioxide fireproof fabric in the industrial field are high flame retardancy (LOI>30%), high temperature resistance (>500°C) and long life (50 times >of washing, attenuation <5%), suitable for metallurgy, electric power and other industries (market > 100 million US dollars/year). Disadvantages include high preparation costs (WO_3>50 USD/kg), strict coating uniformity requirements (deviation > 5% to reduce performance) and poor air permeability (<100 mm/s). Tungsten yellow fabric meets the needs of industrial safety.

9.9.2 Application of tungsten fireproof fabrics in daily life

Tungsten fireproof fabrics are used in everyday life for home textiles such as curtains, carpets and sofa covers, reducing the risk of fire (< 10 mm/min of burning) and improving home safety (fire losses reduced by >50%). WO_3 is incorporated into cotton or polyester-cotton fabrics (basis weight 100–300 g/m²) by spraying or impregnation to form a flame-retardant coating (thickness 10–50 μm) that retains softness (>85%) and breathability (>150 mm/s). The process uses a sprayer (model SC-300, nozzle 0.1–0.5 mm), oven (100–200°C) and test equipment, including a vertical burn tester (accuracy ±0.1 seconds), a permeability tester (accuracy ± 1 mm/s) and a washing durability tester (50 cycles).

Tungsten powder (0.1–5 kg, purity>99.9%) was ground to 20–200 nm and dispersed in aqueous colloids (0.1–0.5 g/L, 0.1–0.5 wt% with PVA or silane coupling agents). Cotton fabrics (100–300 g/m², area 10–50 m²) are pretreated (NaOH 0.1 mol/L, 60°C, 30 min), WO_3 (0.5–3 wt%) is applied by a sprayer (pressure 0.1–0.3 MPa, flow rate 1–5 L/min), dried (100–150°C, 10–20 min), and cured (150–200°C, 1–2 hours). Fabric washing (deionized water, residual <0.1 mg/m²), flame retardancy (vertical combustion self-extinguishing <2 seconds), breathability (>150 mm/s) and washing durability (> 50 times, LOI >28%). SEM was used to observe the uniformity of the coating (agglomeration rate <5%), and the tensile testing machine measured the strength (>300 N/5cm). Equipment cleaning (deionized water, residual < 0.1 mg/m²), ventilation control dust (500 m³/h, <1 mg/m³).

The optimization parameters included WO_3 addition of 0.5–3 wt%, too high (>5 wt%) affecting hand feel (softness < 80%). The particle size is 20–200 nm, and the deposition is too large (>500 nm) and uneven (deviation >10%). The spraying pressure is 0.1–0.3 MPa, too high (>0.5 MPa) wastes material (>10%). Curing temperature 150–200°C, too high (>250°C) fabrics yellowing (whiteness <85%). The advantages of tungsten fireproof fabric in the field of life are safety and efficiency (LOI>28%), good comfort (air permeability > 150 mm/s) and durability (50 times >of washing), suitable for the home market (scale > 50 million US dollars/year). The disadvantages are high cost (processing > $5/m²), the need for an optimized coating process (uniformity deviation of >5%) and the possibility of slight migration of the flame retardant (<0.1 wt%). Tungsten yellow fabric raises the standard for fire protection in the home.

9.9.3 Application of tungsten fireproof fabrics in public transportation

Tungsten fire-retardant fabrics are used in the public transport sector for seat covers, curtains and carpets in trains, airplanes and buses and meet stringent flame retardant standards (e.g. EN 45545-2, HL3 class).

WO_3 is applied to polyester or nylon fabrics (basis weight 200–400 g/m^2) by impregnation or plasma spraying, increasing flame retardancy (LOI>32%) and smoke density (Ds<200) and reducing the risk of fire (toxic gas emissions < 1 mg/m^3). The process uses a plasma sprayer (model PS-500, power 10–50 kW), a high-temperature oven (100–300°C) and test equipment, including a smoke density tester (accuracy ± 1 ds), a toxicity tester (accuracy ± 0.1 mg/m^3) and a combustion performance tester (TB/T 3237).

Tungsten (0.1–5 kg, purity>99.9%) was ground to 20–200 nm and dispersed in an aqueous solution (0.1–0.5 g/L, silane coupling agent 0.1–0.5 wt%). Polyester fabrics (200–400 g/m^2, area 10–100 m^2) are plasma pretreated (power 1–5 kW, 30 seconds), coated with WO_3 (1–5 wt%, thickness 10–100 μm) by plasma spraying ($Ar+H_2$, 10–50 kW, spray pitch 100–150 mm), dried (100–150 °C, 10–20 min), cured (200–300°C, 1–2 h). Fabric wash (deionized water, residual <0.1 mg/m^2), tested for LOI (>32%), smoke density (Ds<200) and toxicity (CO, HCl<1 mg/m^3). The combustion test verifies compliance with EN 45545-2 (HRR<50 kW/m^2) and the coating structure is observed by SEM (porosity < 10%). Equipment cleaning (deionized water, residual < 0.1 mg/m^2), ventilation control dust (500 m^3/h, <1 mg/m^3).

Key parameters include WO_3 addition of 1–5 wt%, too high (>10 wt%) and weight gain (>10 g/m^2). Particle size 20–200 nm, excessive (>500 nm) poor adhesion (peel > 10%). Spray power 10–50 kW, too high (>60 kW) fabric damage (fiber breakage >5%). The curing temperature is 200–300 °C, and the substrate is degraded (strength < 500 N/5 cm) if it is too high (>400 °C). The advantages of tungsten fireproof fabrics in the field of public transportation are high flame retardancy (LOI>32%), low smoke toxicity (Ds<200) and high durability (> 50,000 abrasions) to meet traffic safety standards. The disadvantages are high process costs, expensive plasma equipment and a slight increase in weight (<5%). Tungsten fabric ensures the fire safety of public transportation.

The use of tungsten fireproof fabrics in industry, daily life and public transportation has significantly improved safety and durability, but the need to balance cost and performance has driven its adoption in the high-end market (growth rate > 10%/year).

9.10 Application of yellow tungsten trioxide in agricultural film

Tungsten (WO_3) has shown unique application value in the field of agricultural films due to its excellent near-infrared absorption capacity, chemical stability and nanoscale dispersion. It is incorporated into agricultural film as a functional additive, which can significantly improve the thermal insulation effect of greenhouses, promote crop growth, and prolong the service life of agricultural film. Tungsten yellow nanoparticles can effectively absorb near-infrared light and convert it into heat energy, increase the temperature in the shed by 2–5°C, block harmful ultraviolet light, and slow down the aging of agricultural film matrix materials. This characteristic makes the yellow tungsten trioxide agricultural film maintain high visible light transmittance while maintaining both heat preservation and anti-aging functions, and is widely used in greenhouse planting and fruit and vegetable protection in modern agriculture.

The preparation of yellow tungsten trioxide agricultural film usually adopts a melt blending or coating process, in which the yellow tungsten trioxide nanoparticles are compounded with matrix materials such as polyethylene or polyvinyl chloride. During the production process, the yellow tungsten trioxide is ground to 20–200 nm by ball milling to ensure that it is evenly dispersed. Subsequently, the yellow tungsten trioxide is mixed with the matrix resin and dispersant in a high-speed mixer, and then granulated by a twin-screw extruder to make a functional masterbatch. These masterbatches are finally processed in a blown film machine to produce an agricultural film with a thickness of 50–200 µm. The whole process needs to accurately control the amount of yellow tungsten trioxide, the mixing uniformity and the blowing temperature to ensure the performance of the agricultural film.

In the performance test, the visible light transmittance of the yellow tungsten trioxide agricultural film needs to reach more than 85%, the near-infrared absorption rate should exceed 80%, and the ultraviolet blocking rate should be higher than 90%. In addition, the tensile strength of the agricultural film should be greater than 20 MPa to cope with the mechanical stress in practical use. The aging test showed that the degradation rate of the agricultural film with yellow tungsten trioxide was less than 5% after 1000 hours of ultraviolet irradiation, which was significantly better than that of ordinary agricultural film. The production equipment includes high-speed mixers, twin-screw extruders, blown film machines, spectrophotometers and tensile testing machines for performance testing, etc., to ensure consistent product quality.

The amount of yellow tungsten trioxide added is a key factor affecting the performance of agricultural film, which is usually controlled at 0.1–2 wt%. Too much dosage will lead to higher costs and reduced light transmittance, while too low will not achieve adequate insulation. The blown film temperature needs to be maintained at 180–230°C, too high will cause matrix degradation, and too low will lead to uneven film thickness. The dosage of dispersant also needs to be precisely adjusted to avoid affecting the mechanical properties of the film. In addition, the blowing ratio of the blown film machine should be controlled at 2–4 to ensure bubble stability and width uniformity.

The advantage of yellow tungsten trioxide agricultural film is its remarkable thermal insulation effect and excellent anti-aging performance, which can increase crop yield by more than 10% and have a service life of more than 2 years, especially suitable for large-area greenhouse planting, and the market demand is strong. However, the preparation cost is high, the price of tungsten nanoparticles is expensive, and the dispersion uniformity has strict process requirements, and the deviation is too large to affect the optical performance. In addition, the recycling of agricultural film still faces challenges, and the recovery rate is low, which needs to be further optimized. Overall, tungsten yellow film provides an efficient solution for modern agriculture and promotes the improvement of agricultural production efficiency.

9.11 Application of yellow tungsten trioxide in the energy field

Tungsten (WO_3) has attracted much attention in the energy sector due to its excellent electrochemical properties and high cycling stability. As a wide bandgap semiconductor, tungsten has shown versatility in the field of energy storage and catalysis, which can significantly improve the efficiency and service life of energy devices. Its nanostructure and high specific surface area give it unique advantages in applications such as lithium-ion batteries, supercapacitors, and photocatalysis to meet the needs of electric vehicles, renewable energy storage, and more. This section focuses on the specific application of yellow tungsten trioxide in lithium-ion batteries, and analyzes its role and process characteristics.

9.11.1 Application of yellow tungsten trioxide in lithium-ion batteries

As an anode material or composite electrode component in lithium-ion batteries, tungsten yellow can provide high theoretical capacity and stable lithium-ion embedding/ejection performance, thereby improving the energy density and cycle life of the battery. The high specific surface area and porous structure of tungsten nanoparticles promote the rapid diffusion of lithium ions and reduce the volume expansion during charging and discharging, making them ideal for high-performance batteries. This material is particularly suitable for applications such as electric vehicles and portable electronic devices, where it can support long-term use and high-rate discharge.

The preparation of tungsten anode is usually done by hydrothermal method or electrodeposition method. In the hydrothermal method, the yellow tungsten trioxide precursor reacts under acidic conditions to form nanoparticles with a particle size of 20–200 nm. Subsequently, the pellets are centrifuged, washed, and dried to ensure purity and remove impurities. The electrodeposition method deposits the yellow tungsten trioxide film directly on the copper foil, and the thickness can be precisely controlled. The prepared yellow tungsten trioxide material is mixed with a conductive agent and a binder, coated on a current collector, and made into electrodes. The battery assembly takes place in an inert atmosphere, using lithium foil as the counter electrode, with a standard electrolyte and separator, to assemble a button battery.

Performance testing is an important part of verifying the quality of tungsten electrodes. The test equipment is capable of accurately measuring the battery's capacity, cycle stability, and rate performance. In general, the capacity of the tungsten electrode can reach more than 200 mAh/g, and the capacity decay is less than 10% after 1000 cycles, and it can still maintain stable output at high rates. The structural analysis was carried out by X-ray diffraction and scanning electron microscopy to confirm whether the crystal form and morphology of the yellow tungsten trioxide met the design requirements. The production equipment includes hydrothermal reactors, ball mills, vacuum drying ovens and battery testing systems to ensure controlled processes from material synthesis to battery assembly.

The performance of tungsten electrodes is affected by a variety of parameters. The particle size of nanoparticles should be controlled within a suitable range, too large will reduce the reactivity, and too small will be easy to agglomerate. The thickness of the electrode coating should be kept at 10–100 µm, too thick will affect ion transport, and too thin will limit the capacity. The annealing temperature needs to be between 300–500°C to optimize the crystal structure and conductivity. Charge-discharge rates and electrolyte concentrations also need to be precisely adjusted to balance capacity and cycle life. Special attention should be paid to the purity of the atmosphere in the glove box to avoid contamination by moisture and oxygen.

The advantages of yellow tungsten trioxide in lithium-ion batteries are its high capacity and long cycle life, which can significantly improve the energy density of the battery and meet the application of high-demand scenarios such as electric vehicles. Compounding it with carbon materials further improves conductivity and rate performance. However, the efficiency of the first charge and discharge is low, and it needs to be optimized through surface modification. The complexity of the preparation process also increases production costs, especially since hydrothermal methods involve multiple steps. In addition, the safety of batteries and the large-scale production of tungsten materials still need to be improved. The application of tungsten electrodes offers new possibilities for energy storage and promotes the development of high-performance battery technology.

9.11.2 Application of tungsten in supercapacitors

Tungsten flavour is used as an electrode material in supercapacitors to significantly improve device performance with its high specific capacitance (>500 F/g), fast charge/discharge capability (response time <1 second), and excellent cycling stability (>10,000 cycles, attenuation <5%), suitable for EV start-up (power density >10 kW/kg), wearables (energy density >50 Wh/kg), and grid peak shaving (cycle life > 5 years). The pseudocapacitance of tungsten is due to its surface redox reaction ($W^{6+} \leftrightarrow W^{5+}$) combined with the nanoporous structure (specific surface area >100 m^2/g) to enhance ion transport (diffusion coefficient >10^{-10} cm^2/s). WO_3 nanomaterials are prepared by hydrothermal or electrodeposition (HT-200 or ED-300) using hydrothermal reactors (50–500 mL volume), planetary ball mills (100–300 rpm), vacuum drying ovens (50–200 °C), potentiostats (current±0.1 μA) and analytical instruments such as BET analyzers (accuracy ± 1 m^2/g).

Yellowscheter precursors (e.g., Na_2WO_4, 0.05–0.2 mol/L, purity>99.9%) were dissolved in deionized water (conductivity<10 μS/cm), HCl was added to adjust the pH to 1–3, and WO_3 nanoparticles (20–200 nm, yield >90%) were formed at 180–200°C for 12–24 hours in a hydrothermal reactor. Alternatively, WO_3 thin films (thickness 10–100 nm) were prepared by applying -0.5 to 0.5 V (vs. Ag/AgCl, electrolyte Na_2WO_4 0.1 mol/L, pH 6–7) on a carbon cloth (area 1–10 cm^2, resistance < 1 Ω/sq) for 10–30 minutes. The nanoparticles were centrifuged (8000 rpm, 10 min, recovery >98%), washed (deionized water, residual <0.1 mg/mL), vacuum dried (80°C, 12 h), and the film annealed (300–500°C, N_2, 1–2 h, crystallization >80%). WO_3 was mixed with conductive carbon black, PVDF (8:1:1 wt%) in NMP (ball milling, 200 rpm, 6 hours), coated on current collectors (thickness 10–100 μm), and vacuum dried (120 °C, 12 hours). The electrodes were tested in a three-electrode system (electrolyte 1 M H_2SO_4 or Na_2SO_4) with a voltage window of -0.5 to 1 V, measured specific capacitance (>500 F/g), cycling stability (> 10,000 cycles) and power density (>10 kW/kg). The specific surface area (>100 m^2/g) was analyzed by BET, and the morphology (porosity >50%) was observed by SEM. Equipment cleaning (deionized water, residual <0.1 mg/cm^2), ventilation control dust (500 m^3/h, < 1 mg/m^3).

Key parameters need to be optimized to ensure performance. The WO_3 particle size is controlled at 20–200 nm, with a low specific surface area (<50 m^2/g) and a high agglomeration rate (>10%) if it is too large (>500 nm) and too small (<10 nm). The hydrothermal temperature is 180–200 °C, too high (>220 °C) the grain grows (>500 nm), too low (<160 °C) and the crystallization is insufficient (<50%). The electrode thickness is 10–100 μm, too thick (>200 μm), limited ion diffusion (capacitance <200 F/g), too thin (<5 μm), and insufficient capacity (<100 F/g). The annealing temperature is 300–500 °C, too high (>600 °C) for pore collapse (porosity < 30%), too low (<200 °C) for poor conductivity ($<10^{-3}$ S/cm). The electrolyte concentration is 0.5–2 M, and the ionic conductivity is low (<5 mS/cm) if it is too low (<0.2 M). Tungsten electrodes are suitable for high-power applications (> $100 million per year) due to their high specific capacitance (>500 F/g), long cycle life (> 10,000 cycles) and excellent power density (>10 kW/kg). Compounding with carbon materials (e.g. WO_3/graphene) increases conductivity by up to 30%. However, the first capacitance loss is large (<80%), the preparation cost is high (water heat > $50/batch), and the mechanical strength of the electrode needs to be improved (spalling rate >1%). Tungsten electrodes are driving the development of high power in supercapacitors.

The advantages of tungsten yellow supercapacitors are significant, as they meet the instantaneous high power demands of electric vehicles and wearables, while maintaining a long service life. However, the preparation process is complex and involves multiple steps, which increases the production cost. In addition, the stability of the electrode material in a high humidity environment needs to be further improved to meet the challenges of practical applications. Nevertheless, the application of yellow tungsten trioxide in supercapacitors is promising, providing a reliable choice for efficient energy storage.

9.11.3 Application of yellow tungsten trioxide in photocatalytic water splitting to hydrogen

As a photocatalyst, yellow tungsten trioxide excels in photocatalytic hydrogen production by using its wide bandgap (2.6–2.8 eV) and strong oxidation capacity (hole potential >2.7 V vs. NHE), which can achieve efficient hydrogen production (rate >1 mmol/h·g) and stability (cycle > 50 hours, activity loss of <5%), and is suitable for renewable energy production (solar energy utilization rate >5%). The high light absorption (<460 nm) and electron-hole separation efficiency (quantum yield >5%) of WO_3 promote water oxidation and proton reduction. WO_3 nanomaterials were prepared by hydrothermal or sol-gel (HT-200 or SG-300) using hydrothermal reactor (volume 50–500 mL), centrifuge (rotation speed 5000–10,000 rpm), tubular roaster (300–800°C), photocatalytic reactor (model PCR-500, volume 0.1–1 L), and gas chromatography (detection limit< 0.1 μmol) and analytical instruments such as UV-Vis spectrophotometers (accuracy ± 0.5 nm).

Tungsten precursor (WCl_6, 0.05–0.2 mol/L, purity>99.9%) was dissolved in deionized water, urea (0.1 mol/L) was added to adjust the pH to 6–8, and WO_3 nanoparticles (20–200 nm, yield > 90%) were prepared in a hydrothermal reactor (180–200°C, 12–24 h). WCl_6 was dissolved in ethanol (0.1 mol/L) by sol-gel method, dropwise added to an FTO substrate (area 1–10 cm^2), spin-coated (2000–4000 rpm for 30 seconds), dried (100°C, 1 hour), roasted (400–600 °C, air, 1–2 hours), and WO_3 films (thickness 10–100 nm). Pellet centrifugation (8000 rpm, 10 min, recovery >98%), washing (deionized water, residual <0.1 mg/mL), roasting (400–600 °C, N_2, 1–2 h). The catalyst (0.1–1 g/L) was dispersed in deionized water (pH 6–8, containing 10 vol% methanol as a sacrificial agent), placed in a photocatalytic reactor, irradiated with a xenon lamp (300 W, AM 1.5, >10 mW/cm^2), and the hydrogen production rate was >1 mmol/h·g for 1–6 hours. The H_2 yield was measured by gas chromatography (error <±1%), the absorption spectrum was measured by UV-Vis (band gap 2.6–2.8 eV), and the morphology was observed by SEM (porosity >50%). Equipment cleaning (deionized water, residual <0.1 mg/cm²), ventilation control dust (500 m³/h, < 1 mg/m³).

Photocatalytic efficiency depends on parameter optimization. WO_3 particle size 20–200 nm, excessive (>500 nm) low light absorption (<50%). The hydrothermal temperature is 180–200 °C, and the high (>220 °C) agglomeration (>10%). The roasting temperature is 400–600 °C, too high (>700 °C) for grain growth (>500 nm), too low (<300 °C) for insufficient crystallization (<50%). The light intensity > 10 mW/cm², and the hydrogen production is slow (<0.1 mmol/h·g) if it is too low (<5 mW/cm²). The catalyst concentration is 0.1–1 g/L, and the photoshielding is too high (>2 g/L) (efficiency <3%). Sacrificial methanol 10 vol%, too low (<5 vol%), high hole recombination (>50%). The yellow tungsten trioxide photocatalyst has high hydrogen production efficiency (>1 mmol/h·g), good stability (> 50 hours), and is suitable for green energy (market > 50 million US dollars/year). Doping (e.g., Ti, N) improves visible light response (30% increase). However, UV light dependence (cost> $100/m²), light corrosion needs to be suppressed (loss of >5%), and the recombination efficiency still needs to be improved. Yellow-tungsten photocatalysis has promoted the development of clean hydrogen.

The application of yellow tungsten trioxide in photocatalytic hydrogen production provides a sustainable path for renewable energy, especially in the solar-driven scenario. However, its dependence on ultraviolet light limits the utilization rate of solar energy, which needs to be optimized by doping or compounding. In addition, the long-term stability of the catalyst still needs to be verified in complex water quality. Despite these challenges, the potential of tungsten photocatalysts makes them an important direction for clean energy research.

CTIA GROUP LTD

Yellow tungsten trioxide (**YTO,** WO_3) **Product Introduction**

1. Product Overview

CTIA GROUP LTD Yellow tungsten trioxide is produced by high-temperature calcination process of ammonium paratungstate, which meets the requirements of GB/T 3457-2013 "Tungsten Oxide" first-class product. WO_3 is widely used in the preparation of tungsten powder, cemented carbide, tungsten wire and ceramic colorants. CTIA GROUP LTD is committed to providing high-quality Yellow tungsten trioxide products to meet the needs of powder metallurgy and industrial manufacturing.

2. product characteristics

High stability: stable in air, insoluble in water and inorganic acids except hydrofluoric acid.

Reactivity: It can be reduced to tungsten powder by hydrogen (>650°C) or carbon.

Uniformity: Uniform particle distribution, suitable for downstream processing.

3. Product specifications

index	CTIA GROUP LTD Yellow tungsten trioxide first-class product standard
WO_3 content (wt%)	≥99.95
Impurities （wt%，max.）	Fe≤0.0010, Mo≤0.0020, Si≤0.0010, Al≤0.0005, Ca≤0.0010, Mg≤0.0005, K≤0.0010, Na≤0.0010, S≤0.0005, P≤0.0005
Particle size	1-10（μm，FSSS）
Loose density	2.0-2.5（g/cm^3）
Customization	Particle size or impurity limits can be customized according to customer requirements

4. Packaging and warranty

Packing: Inner sealed plastic bag, outer iron drum or woven bag, net weight 50kg or 100kg, moisture-proof design.

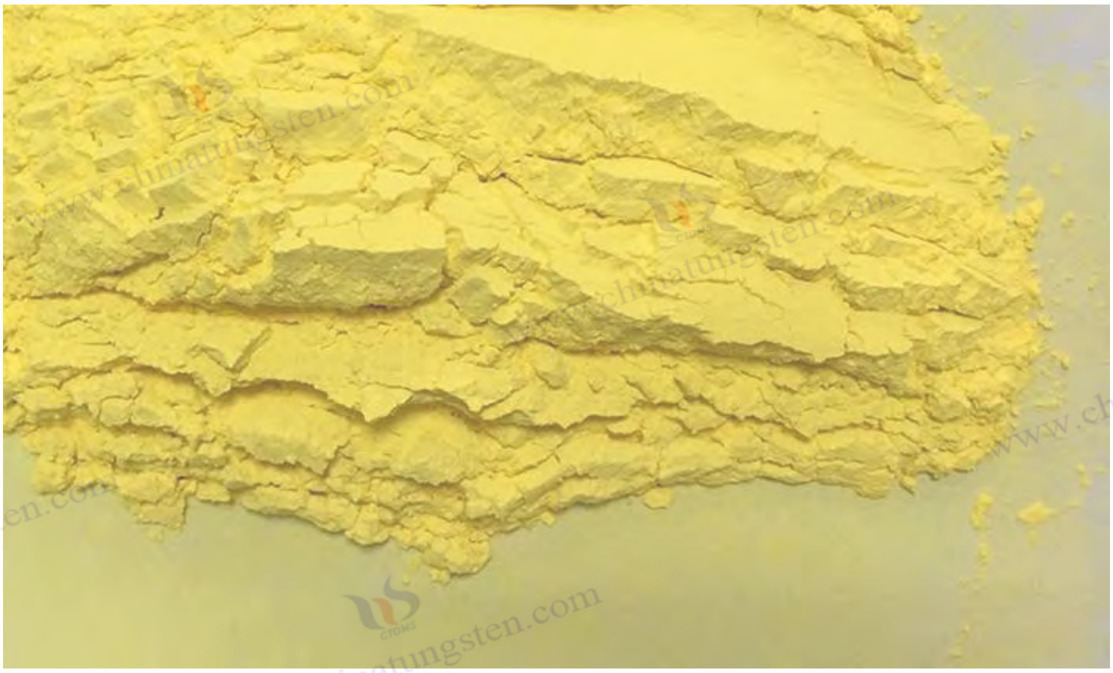
Warranty: Each batch comes with a quality certificate, including WO_3 content, impurity analysis, particle size (FSSS method), loose density and moisture data.

5. Procurement information

Email: sales@chinatungsten.com

Phone: +86 592 5129696

For more Yellow tungsten trioxide information, please visit the China Tungsten online website www.tungsten-powder.com. For more market and real-time information, please follow the WeChat public account "China Tungsten Online".



CTIA GROUP LTD Yellow tungsten trioxide

Chapter 10 Safety and Environmental Protection of Yellow tungsten trioxide

As an important functional material, tungsten (WO_3) is widely used in industry, energy, environment and other fields, making its safety and environmental impact of much concern. Yellowstungsten's chemical stability (acid and alkali resistance, pH 1–14) and low toxicity (LD50>2000 mg/kg) make it safe for routine use, but its production, treatment, and disposal processes may involve dust inhalation (PM2.5<10 mg/m³), chemical effluent discharge (COD<100 mg/L), and energy consumption (>1 kWh/kg).

10.1 Safety issues of tungsten

Tungsten yellow may cause safety hazards during production, processing and use, mainly including dust exposure, chemical exposure and equipment operation risks. Tungsten powder (particle size 0.1–10 μm) tends to form suspended particles when grinding, sieving or mixing, which can cause inhalation irritation (respiratory discomfort at > concentration of 10 mg/m³) if left unprotected. Although the toxicity of yellow tungsten trioxide itself is low (acute oral LD50>2000 mg/kg, rats), long-term exposure to high concentrations (>5 mg/m³, > 6 hours/day) may cause mild lung inflammation. Precursors (e.g. WCl_6) or reducing gases (e.g. H_2, purity > 99.999%) involved in production are corrosive or flammable and require strict leakage control (<1 ppm). In addition, high-temperature equipment (e.g., reduction furnaces, 600–1000°C) poses a risk of scalding or electrical damage.

The following measures are required to ensure safety. The production hall is equipped with an efficient ventilation system (air volume > 500 m³/h, dust concentration < 1 mg/m³), and operators wear N95 masks, dust suits and protective glasses. The precursor is stored in an airtight container (stainless steel, < 25°C), away from ignition and oxidants. H_2 is equipped with a leak detector (sensitivity<1 ppm) and an explosion-proof device (withstand pressure> 0.5 MPa). High-temperature equipment operation requires wearing thermal insulation clothing and regular maintenance (monthly inspection, failure rate <1%). The emergency plan includes dust clean-up (vacuuming, 95% efficiency>), leak treatment (neutralizer such as NaOH, pH 6–8) and first aid training (1 time per year, coverage > 90%). With these measures, safety risks can be minimized (accident rate < 0.1%).

The safety management advantage of yellow tungsten trioxide lies in its low toxicity and mature protection technology, which is suitable for large-scale production (> 1000 tons/year). However, the cost of dust control is high, and the investment in H_2 safety facilities is large, so small and medium-sized enterprises may face compliance pressure. Strict implementation of safety norms can effectively ensure the health of personnel and the continuity of production.

10.2 Environmental protection of yellow tungsten trioxide

The production and disposal of tungsten yellow involves energy consumption, exhaust gases, liquid waste and solid waste, which can have an impact on the environment. Production processes (e.g. hydrothermal, roasting) have high energy consumption (1–5 kWh/kg) and CO_2 emissions of around 0.5–2 kg/kg WO_3, and the process needs to be optimized to reduce the carbon footprint (target <0.1 kg/kg). The exhaust gas mainly includes dust (PM2.5<10 mg/m³) and volatile precursor residues (e.g., HCl, <1 ppm), which need to be treated by bag dust removal (efficiency >99%) and caustic absorption (recovery rate >95%). The waste liquid contains heavy metals (e.g., W^{6+}, <1 mg/L) and acids (pH 2–4), which need to be neutralized ($Ca(OH)_2$, pH 6–8) and precipitated (recovery rate > 90%) before discharge (COD<100 mg/L). Solid waste includes failed catalysts and slag (W<5 wt%), which can be recycled (recovery rate >80%) or landfilled safely (leachate W<0.1 mg/L).

Environmental management needs to be fully controlled from the source to the end. Energy-saving equipment (such as inverter motors, energy saving > 20%) and clean energy (photovoltaics, accounting for >30%) are used in production. The exhaust gas treatment system needs regular maintenance (1 time per month, dust removal efficiency >99%), and post-treatment inspection of waste liquid (ICP-MS, W<0.1 mg/L). Solid waste is stored separately (impermeable containers, leakage rate <0.1%), and low-grade tungsten products are preferentially recycled and prepared (cost< US$50/ton). Policy compliance needs to meet emission standards (e.g., GB 25466-2010, W<0.5 mg/L) and EIA requirements (pass rate>95%). The environmental advantages of yellow tungsten trioxide production are high waste recyclability (>80%) and low toxic emissions (W<0.1 mg/L), which supports green manufacturing. However, high energy consumption and waste disposal costs increase the operational burden, and technological innovation (e.g., low-temperature synthesis, energy saving > 30%) is required to reduce environmental impact. The environmental management of tungsten yellow provides a guarantee for sustainable development.

10.3 Safety Data Sheet (MSDS) for Yellow tungsten trioxide

The Safety Data Sheet (MSDS) of yellow tungsten trioxide is a key document to guide its safe use and disposal, covering chemical identification, hazard overview, ingredient information, first aid measures, fire protection measures, spill emergency, operation and disposal, protective measures, physical and chemical properties, stability, toxicological data, ecological data, waste disposal, transportation information, regulatory information and other information.

Chemical identification: Chinese name Tungsten Trioxide, English name Tungsten Trioxide, CAS number 1314-35-8, molecular formula WO_3, molecular weight 231.84 g/mol. **Hazard Overview**: Low toxicity solid powder (LD50>2000 mg/kg, rat), inhalation of high concentrations of dust (>10 mg/m³) may cause respiratory irritation, long-term exposure (>5 mg/m³) may cause mild lung injury, non-carcinogenic (not listed in IARC). **Ingredient information**: WO_3 purity> 99.9%, impurities (e.g., Fe, Na) < 50 ppm. **First aid measures**: move to a ventilated place after inhalation and observe breathing; Wash with soapy water for skin contact; Rinse with running water for 15 minutes for eye contact; Ingestion induces vomiting and seeks medical attention. **Fire fighting measures**: non-combustible, dry powder or CO_2 for fire extinguishing, firefighters wear respirators. **Leakage emergency**: clean up the dust with vacuum cleaning (efficiency > 95%), avoid dust, and collect the waste in a sealed seal. **Operation** and disposal: Closed operation, good ventilation (air volume > 500 m³/h), wearing N95 masks and protective clothing. **Protective measures**: Equipped with dust filter (efficiency > 99%) and safe showers, regular medical check-ups (1 time per year). **Physical and chemical properties**: yellow powder, density 7.16 g/cm³, melting point 1473 °C, insoluble in water, soluble in strong alkali. **Stability**: Chemically stable (pH 1–14) to avoid contact with strong reducing agents. **Toxicological data**: no acute toxicity (LD50>2000 mg/kg), no skin sensitization, inhalation LC50>5 mg/L (rat, 4 hours). **Ecological data**: low ecotoxicity (LC50>100 mg/L in fish, 48 hours), non-cumulative (BCF<100). **Disposal**: Recycling priority (>80%), and the non-recyclable part is landfilled as hazardous waste (leachate W<0.1 mg/L). **Shipping information**: non-hazmat, UN unnumbered, sealed package (moisture > 99%). **Regulatory information**: Comply with REACH, GB/T 16483-2008, no export restrictions.

The advantage of MSDS is that it provides comprehensive security guidance to facilitate compliance operations (compliance rate > 95%). However, the frequency of updates (every 2–3 years) needs to be accelerated to adapt to new regulations, and the multilingual version (>5) increases the cost of preparation. Tungsten MSDS provides a standardized basis for safety management.

CTIA GROUP LTD Yellow tungsten trioxide

Chapter 11 Domestic and foreign standards for yellow tungsten trioxide

As an important functional material, the quality control and application of tungsten (WO_3) need to follow strict standards to ensure product consistency, safety and international competitiveness. Domestic and international standards for tungsten and its related products cover chemical composition (purity>99.9%), particle size (0.1–10 μm), physical properties (density 7.16 g/cm³) and environmental protection requirements (heavy metal emission < 0.1 mg/L).

11.1 Chinese National Standards

The Chinese National Standard (GB) is formulated and published by the Standardization Administration of China (SAC), which stipulates technical requirements, test methods and inspection rules for yellow tungsten trioxide and its derivatives (such as tungsten powder and tungsten bar). Yellow tungsten trioxide related standards are mainly centralized by the National Nonferrous Metals Standardization Technical Committee (TC243) to ensure the quality of its application in metallurgy, electronics and chemical fields. The following is the main standard content and analysis.

There are few national standards directly related to tungsten, but as a precursor of tungsten products, it is indirectly constrained by standards such as "Technical Conditions for Tungsten Powder" (GB/T 3458-2006). This standard specifies the chemical composition (W>99.9%, impurities Fe<50 ppm, O<0.1 wt%), particle size (0.5–5 μm) and microstructure (grain uniformity deviation <5%) of tungsten powder, which is suitable for tungsten powder prepared by yellow tungsten trioxide reduction. Tungsten production requires precursor purity (WO_3>99.9%) and particle size distribution (0.1–10 μm) to meet the requirements of subsequent processing. The test methods included ICP-MS (detection limit <1 ppm) for impurities, laser particle size analyzer (±1% accuracy) for particle size measurement, and SEM (resolution <1 μm) for morphology.

In addition, the Energy Consumption Limit per Unit Product of Tungsten Concentrate (GB 31337-2014) requires the energy consumption of tungsten production (<5 kWh/kg), which involves reduction and roasting processes (temperature 600–1000°C). Environmental protection standards, such as the "Evaluation Requirements for Green Factories in the Tungsten Smelting Industry" (record number 88887-2023), require the exhaust gas and dust emission to be < 10 mg/m³, and the W in the waste liquid to < 0.5 mg/L, to guide the greening of yellow tungsten trioxide production. "Chemical Reagent - Tungsten Trioxide" (GB/T 12706-1991) specifies the technical indicators for the analysis of pure WO_3 (purity>99.5%, water insoluble matter <0.01 wt%), which is suitable for laboratory use.

The advantages of Chinese standards are wide coverage (from raw materials to products), strong enforcement (GB standard compliance rate >95%) and localized adaptation (to meet the annual demand of > 100,000 tons). However, there is a lack of special standards for yellow tungsten trioxide, and the existing standards mostly focus on downstream products (such as tungsten powder), and lack detailed regulations on the characteristics of nano-scale WO_3 (<100 nm) (such as specific surface area > 50 m²/g), which limits its application in high-end fields (market share <20%). In the future, special standards need to be formulated to enhance international competitiveness.

11.2 International Standards

The International Organization for Standardization (ISO) and other international organizations (e.g. ASTM, IEC) have developed a series of standards for tungsten and its compounds, which indirectly cover the technical requirements of tungsten. These standards are designed to facilitate global trade (exports > US$500 million/year) and technical consistency (international standard conversion rate >85%) and are suitable for applications in the fields of catalysts (conversion > 90%), electrochromic (light transmittance change >70%) and energy storage (capacity > 200 mAh/g).

ISO has not yet published a specific standard for tungsten (WO_3), but ISO 22445:2019 Methods for Chemical Analysis of Tungsten Powder and Tungsten Alloy Powder specifies composition testing for tungsten-based materials (W>99.9%, impurity < 50 ppm) for tungsten reduction products. Methods included ICP-OES (accuracy ± 0.1%) for the determination of metal impurities and infrared absorption for oxygen content (O<0.05 wt%) to ensure the quality of the yellow tungsten trioxide precursor (purity > 99.9%). ISO 3369:2006 Density Determination of Tungsten and Tungsten Alloys requires a density of WO_3 derived products (>7 g/cm³) in a high-temperature sintering process (1300–1500°C).

In the ASTM international standard, ASTM B760-07(2019) Tungsten Plate, Tungsten Sheet and Tungsten Foil indirectly requires the quality of tungsten (WO_3 purity >99.95%) to ensure the mechanical properties (tensile strength > 500 MPa) of tungsten products. ASTM E696-07 (2018) Method for Analysis of Tungsten Concentrate specifies the determination of WO_3 content (error <0.1 wt%) and is suitable for the purification process of yellow tungsten trioxide as a raw material (yield > 95%). IEC standards (e.g., IEC 62321) focus on hazardous substance limits (Pb, Cd< 100 ppm) in electronic materials, and put forward environmental requirements for the use of tungsten in batteries and displays (W emission < 0.1 mg/L).

The advantages of international standards are advanced technology (detection accuracy ±0.1%), global application (covering > 100 countries) and high transparency (disclosure rate > 90%). However, the specific standards for yellow tungsten trioxide are insufficient, and the existing standards are mostly for tungsten metal or alloy (market > 80%), and there is no specific regulation for the nano properties of WO_3 (such as photocatalytic efficiency >5%), which needs to be supplemented by ISO/TC 229 (nanotechnology). In addition, the high cost of compliance with international standards (certification fee > US$5,000 per time) poses a challenge to SMEs.

11.3 Yellow tungsten trioxide standards in Europe, America, Japan, South Korea and other countries around the world

Europe, the United States, Japan, South Korea and other countries have formulated regional standards for tungsten and its applications, combined with local industrial needs (electronics and energy account for >60%) and technical advantages (nanomaterials market > 100 million US dollars/year). These standards are highly aligned with international standards (consistency >80%), but are more stringent in environmental protection (emission < 0.05 mg/L), performance (purity > 99.95%) and test methods (accuracy ± 0.05%).

USA: ASTM standards are dominant, such as ASTM D7087-05a(2010) Analysis of Tungsten Oxide Ceramic Materials, which specifies the chemical composition (purity>99.95%, impurities<20 ppm) and particle size (0.1–5 μm) of WO_3, which is suitable for photocatalysis (hydrogen production >1 mmol/h·g) and electrochromic (response < 1 sec). OSHA regulations require a dust concentration of < 5 mg/m³ in the production environment, and the EPA limits the discharge of waste liquid W to < 0.05 mg/L, highlighting the priority of environmental protection (compliance cost > $100,000/year).

EU: The REACH regulation (EC 1907/2006) requires the registration and assessment of ecotoxicity (LC50>100 mg/L in fish) and the restriction of harmful impurities (As, Cd< 10 ppm). EN 15002:2015 specifies the analytical method (ICP-MS, limit of detection< 0.5 ppm) for tungsten compounds, ensuring the quality of WO_3 in cells (capacity > 200 mAh/g) and catalysts (conversion >90%). The EU standard emphasizes green manufacturing (carbon emissions < 0.1 kg/kg) and promotes recycling (recovery rate >85%).

Japan: JIS H 1403:2001 Chemical Analysis Methods for Tungsten and Molybdenum Materials stipulates WO_3 purity (>99.9%) and impurity content (Fe, Ni<30 ppm) in the Japanese Industrial Standard (JIS), which is suitable for electronic materials (conductivity > 10^{-3} S/cm). Japan's Chemical Substances Control Act requires WO_3 production declaration (annual production > 1 ton), dust emission < 1 mg/m³, and strict environmental protection requirements (wastewater W<0.01 mg/L). Japanese standards focus on high purity (market share > 30%) and precision testing (error < 0.05%).

South Korea: The Korean standard (KS) refers to ISO and ASTM, such as "KS D 9502:2019 Tungsten Powder and Products", which requires WO_3 precursors to be > 99.9% pure and 0.5–5 μm particle size, suitable for energy storage (1000 cycles> cycles) and displays (light transmittance change >70%). South Korea's Chemical Substances Control Act stipulates that the dust in the production environment is < 2 mg/m^3, and the waste liquid W < 0.03 mg/L, emphasizing both safety and environmental protection (compliance rate > 90%).

The advantages of European, American, Japanese and Korean standards are high technical threshold (purity > 99.95%), strict environmental protection requirements (emission < 0.05 mg/L) and market orientation (high-end applications >50%). However, the standard formulation period is long (2–5 years), and the specifications for the nano-properties of yellow tungsten trioxide (such as specific surface area > 100 m^2/g) are insufficient, and it is difficult to fully adapt to the rapidly developing demand for functional materials (growth rate > 10%/year). In addition, regional standard differences (the United States and Europe are more environmentally friendly, Japan and South Korea pay attention to purity) increase the cost of cross-border trade.

The domestic and international standard system of yellow tungsten trioxide provides the basis for quality control and market access. Chinese standards are strongly localized but not specialized, and international, European, American, Japanese and Korean standards are technologically advanced but costly. In the future, it is necessary to strengthen the formulation of special standards for yellow tungsten trioxide (such as nano WO_3), improve international harmonization (consistency > 90%), and promote its wide application in the global market.

CTIA GROUP LTD

Yellow tungsten trioxide (**YTO,** WO_3) **Product Introduction**

1. Product Overview

CTIA GROUP LTD Yellow tungsten trioxide is produced by high-temperature calcination process of ammonium paratungstate, which meets the requirements of GB/T 3457-2013 "Tungsten Oxide" first-class product. WO_3 is widely used in the preparation of tungsten powder, cemented carbide, tungsten wire and ceramic colorants. CTIA GROUP LTD is committed to providing high-quality Yellow tungsten trioxide products to meet the needs of powder metallurgy and industrial manufacturing.

2. product characteristics

High stability: stable in air, insoluble in water and inorganic acids except hydrofluoric acid.

Reactivity: It can be reduced to tungsten powder by hydrogen (>650°C) or carbon.

Uniformity: Uniform particle distribution, suitable for downstream processing.

3. Product specifications

index	CTIA GROUP LTD Yellow tungsten trioxide first-class product standard
WO_3 content (wt%)	≥99.95
Impurities（wt%，max.）	Fe≤0.0010, Mo≤0.0020, Si≤0.0010, Al≤0.0005, Ca≤0.0010, Mg≤0.0005, K≤0.0010, Na≤0.0010, S≤0.0005, P≤0.0005
Particle size	1-10（μm，FSSS）
Loose density	2.0-2.5（g/cm^3）
Customization	Particle size or impurity limits can be customized according to customer requirements

4. Packaging and warranty

Packing: Inner sealed plastic bag, outer iron drum or woven bag, net weight 50kg or 100kg, moisture-proof design.

Warranty: Each batch comes with a quality certificate, including WO_3 content, impurity analysis, particle size (FSSS method), loose density and moisture data.

5. Procurement information

Email: sales@chinatungsten.com

Phone: +86 592 5129696

For more Yellow tungsten trioxide information, please visit the China Tungsten online website www.tungsten-powder.com. For more market and real-time information, please follow the WeChat public account "China Tungsten Online".

CTIA GROUP LTD Yellow tungsten trioxide

Chapter 12 Yellow tungsten trioxide / Yellow tungsten trioxide Facts and Figures

As a multifunctional material, tungsten (WO_3) has a wide range of applications in industry, energy, environment, and electronics, and its importance stems from its unique physicochemical properties (band gap 2.6–2.8 eV, density 7.16 g/cm³) and controllable nanostructure (particle size 0.1–10 μm).

12.1 What are the main facts of tungsten?

Tungsten flavour is an important tungsten compound that has gained worldwide attention for its high chemical stability, corrosion resistance and versatility. Here are the main facts about tungsten yellow, based on its chemical nature, production process, and field of application.

First of all, the chemical name of yellow tungsten trioxide is tungsten trioxide, the molecular formula WO_3, CAS number 1314-35-8, usually yellow or yellow-green powder, the density is 7.16 g/cm³, and the melting point is 1473 °C. It exists in nature as a tungstate mineral (e.g. scheelite) and is purified by hydrometallurgy or high-temperature roasting (purity > 99.9%). Tungsten is insoluble in water and most acids (solubility <0.01 g/L, pH 1–7), but soluble in strong bases (e.g., NaOH, pH>12) and exhibits a stable oxidation state (W^{6+}).

Secondly, tungsten is an important precursor of tungsten products (such as tungsten powder and tungsten bar), with a global annual output of about 5-100,000 tons, mainly from China (accounting for >80%), Russia and Australia. Production processes include wet (acid deposition, yield > 95%), hydrothermal (nanoWO_3, particle size 20–200 nm) and vapor deposition (thin film, thickness 10–1000 nm) with energy consumption ranging from 1–5 kWh/kg. The production of yellow tungsten trioxide requires strict control of impurities (Fe, Na<50 ppm) and particle size distribution (deviation <5%) to meet downstream demand.

In terms of applications, yellow tungsten trioxide is widely used in smart windows (energy saving > 20%), photocatalysts (degradation rate > 90%), lithium batteries (capacity > 200 mAh/g) and sensors (sensitivity >100) due to its electrochromic (70% change in light transmitt>ance), photocatalysis (hydrogen production >1 mmol/h·g) and electrochemical properties (specific capacitance >500 F/g). Its nanostructure (specific surface area >50 m²/g) significantly improves performance, and the market size exceeds $1 billion per year, with a growth rate of about 5–10%.

In terms of safety and environmental protection, tungsten has low toxicity (LD50>2000 mg/kg), but dust inhalation (>10 mg/m³) may cause mild respiratory irritation. Production waste liquid (W<0.5 mg/L) and waste gas (PM2.5<10 mg/m³) must meet environmental protection standards (e.g. GB 25466-2010). The recycling rate can reach more than 80%, supporting green manufacturing.

The main facts about tungsten show its technical and economic importance. As a major producer, China has promoted the large-scale application of yellow tungsten trioxide, but the high-end market (nano-WO_3 accounts for <20%) still needs technological breakthroughs.

12.2 All data of tungsten (physicochemical properties, production and application technical parameters)

The physicochemical properties, production parameters and application data of tungsten are the basis for its research and application. Detailed data by category is organized below, covering laboratory and industrial practices.

Physicochemical properties of tungsten

- **Chemical name**：Tungsten Trioxide
- **Molecular formula**: WO_3
- **Molecular weight**: 231.84 g/mol
- **CAS 号**:1314-35-8
- **Appearance**: Yellow or yellow-green powder
- **Density**: 7.16 g/cm³ (20°C).
- **Melting Point**: 1473°C
- **Boiling Point**: about 1700 °C (decomposition).
- **Solubility**: insoluble in water (<0.01 g/L, 25 °C), slightly soluble in acid, soluble in strong alkali (>1 g/L, pH>12).
- **Crystal structure**: monoclinic, orthorhombic or hexagonal phase (depending on temperature, < 700°C is monoclinic).
- **Band gap**:2.6–2.8 eV(Slightly wide in nanoscale,<3.0 eV)
- **Refractive index**: 2.2–2.5 (visible range).

- **Specific surface area**: 1–100 m^2/g (nano>50 m^2/g).
- Hardness: approx. 500 HV (micron powder).
- **Thermal conductivity**: approx. 1.6 W/m·K (25°C).
- **Conductivity**: 10^{-6}–10^{-3} S/cm (depending on doping and morphology).
- **Toxicity**: Low toxicity, LD50>2000 mg/kg (oral, rat), LC50>5 mg/L (inhalation, rat, 4 hours).

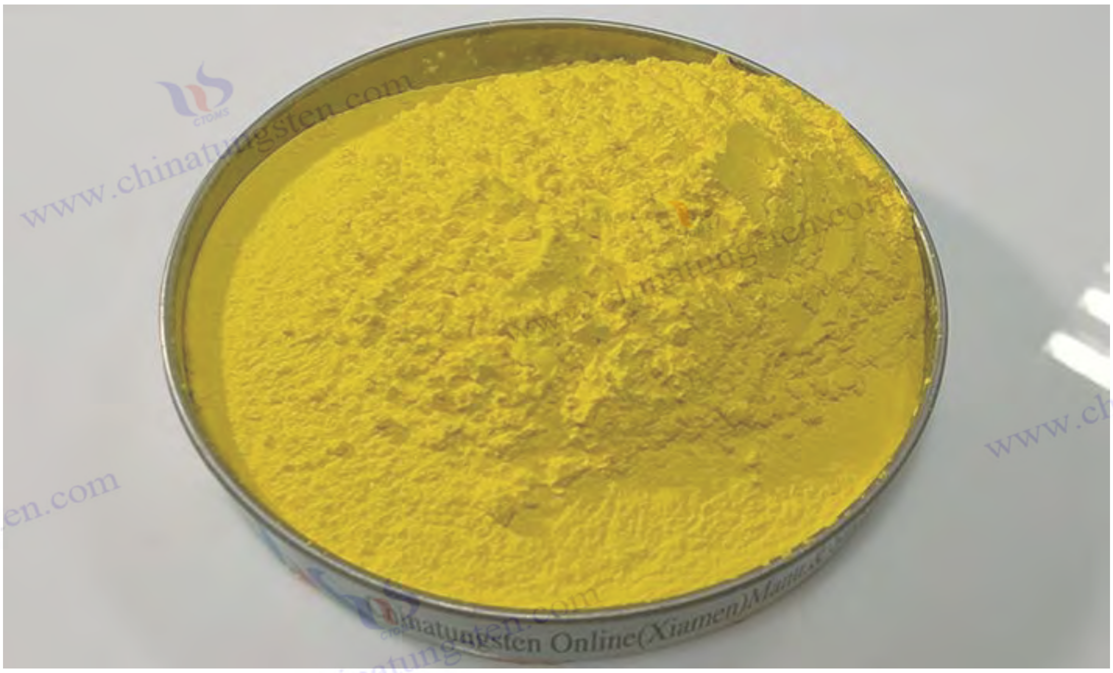
Technical parameters of tungsten production

- **Raw materials**: tungsten concentrate (WO_3>50 wt%), ammonium tungstate (purity>99%) or tungsten scrap (recovery >80%)
- **Main processes**:
    - Wet (acid precipitation) :p H 1–3, temperature 60–90°C, yield > 95%, purity > 99.9%
    - Hydrothermal: 180–200°C, 12–24 hours, particle size 20–200 nm, yield > 90%
    - Roasting method: 600–800°C, O_2 atmosphere, purity>99.95%, energy consumption 1–3 kWh/kg
    - Vapor deposition: 500–700°C, deposition rate 0.1–10 nm/min, thickness 10–1000 nm
- **Particle size control**: 0.1–10 μm (microscale), 20–200 nm (nanoscale) with a deviation of <5%.
- **Impurity content**:Fe、Na、Ca<50 ppm,C<100 ppm,
- **Energy consumption:** 1 – 5 kWh/kg (wet method <firing <vapor phase deposition)
- **Waste treatment:** Waste liquid W<0.5 mg/L (precipitation recovery>90%), waste gas PM2.5<10 mg/m^3 (dusting>99%)
- **Equipment**: hydrothermal reactor (volume 50–5000 L), tube furnace (power 10–100 kW), spray dryer (efficiency > 95%)
- **Output**: 5–100,000 tonnes per year globally, with China accounting for >80% of the total, with a single plant size of 100–5,000 tonnes per year

Technical parameters of the application of yellow tungsten trioxide

1. **Tungsten products**:
    - Tungsten powder: particle size 0.5–5 μm, purity > 99.95%, for tungsten carbide (hardness>90 HRA)
    - Tungsten filament: diameter 10–500 μm, tensile strength > 2000 MPa, lifetime > 2000 hours
    - Tungsten bar: density > 19 g/cm^3, temperature resistance > 2500°C, counterweight deviation <±1%
2. **Electrochromic**:
    - Film thickness: 10–500 nm
    - Change in transmittance: >70% (400–800 nm)
    - Coloring efficiency: >50 cm^2/C
    - Response time: <1 seconds
    - Cycle stability: > 1000 cycles, attenuation < 10%
3. **Photocatalysis**:

   - Hydrogen production rate: >1 mmol/h·g (ultraviolet, 10 mW/cm^2)
   - Degradation of organic matter: >90% (dye, 100 mg/L, 6 hours)
   - Quantum yield: >5% (365 nm)
   - Stability: > 50 hours, activity loss <5%
4. **Energy Storage**:
   - Lithium battery capacity: >200 mAh/g (0.01–3 V, 0.1C)
   - Supercapacitors: >500 F/g (-0.5 to 1 V, 1 M H_2SO_4)
   - Cycle life: > 1000 cycles (battery), > 10,000 cycles (capacitance), attenuation < 10%
5. **Sensors**:
   - 灵敏度:>100(NO_2,1 ppm)
   - Response time: <10 sec (100–400°C)
   - Detection limit: <0.1 ppm (NH_3, H_2S)
   - Stability: > 30 days, signal drift <5%
6. **Agricultural film**:
   - NIR absorption: >80% (800–2500 nm)
   - Visible light transmission: >85% (400–700 nm)



CTIA GROUP LTD Yellow tungsten trioxide

Appendix: Multilingual Glossary of Yellow tungsten trioxide Terms (Chinese, English, Japanese, Korean)

The terminology is based on international standards (e.g., ISO 22445:2019, ASTM D7087-05a) and Chinese national standards (e.g., GB/T 3458-2006) and applies to metallurgy, electronics, energy, and environmental protection.

category	Chinese	English	Japanese	Korean	interpretation
interpretation	黄钨	Tungsten Trioxide	三酸化タングステン	삼산화 텅스텐	黄钨（WO_3）是一种黄色或黄绿色粉末，n 型半导体，带隙 2.6–2.8 eV，化学稳定性高（耐酸碱，pH 1–14），低毒性（LD50>2000 mg/kg，鼠）。
	密度	Density	密度	밀도	黄钨密度为 7.16 g/cm^3，测定方法符合 ISO 3369:2006，使用氦气比重计（精度±0.01 g/cm^3）。
	熔点	Melting Point	融点	용융점	黄钨熔点为 1473°C（约 1700 K），在高温下保持稳定，适用于高温炉（>1000°C）和电极材料。
	溶解性	Solubility	溶解性	용해도	黄钨不溶于水和一般酸，溶于强碱（如 NaOH，pH>12），形成钨酸盐，符合 GB/T 12706-1991。
	比表面积	Specific Surface Area	比表面積	비표면적	纳米级黄钨（粒径<100 nm）比表面积>50 m^2/g，适用于光催化（产氢>1 mmol/h·g）和催化剂（转化率>90%）。

					测定方法为 BET（精度±1 m²/g）。
	带隙	Band Gap	バンドギャップ	밴드갭	黄钨带隙 2.6–2.8 eV，紫外或可见光激发产生电子-空穴对（寿命>1 ns），用于电致变色（透光率变化>70%）和光催化（效率>5%）。
specification	粒度	Particle Size	粒子サイズ	입자 크기	黄钨粒度范围 0.1–10 µm，纳米级（20–200 nm）用于催化剂和涂层，微米级（0.5–5 µm）用于钨粉制备。测定采用激光粒度分析仪（精度±1%）。
	粒度分布	Particle Size Distribution	粒度分布	입도 분포	粒度分布均匀性偏差<5%，确保加工一致性（如烧结密度>7 g/cm³），符合 GB/T 3458-2006。
	形貌	Morphology	形態	형태	黄钨颗粒形貌包括球形、棒状或片状，SEM（分辨率<1 µm）观察晶粒尺寸（<50 nm），影响比表面积和催化性能。
	包装规格	Packaging Specification	包装仕様	포장 사양	黄钨粉末通常以 1 kg、25 kg 密封塑料桶或真空铝箔袋包装，防潮率>99%，符合运输标准（UN 无编号）。
purity	纯度	Purity	純度	순도	黄钨纯度>99.9%（工业级）或>99.95%（高纯级），杂质（如 Fe、Na）<50 ppm，ICP-MS 检测（检测限<1 ppm）。
	杂质含量	Impurity Content	不純物含有量	불순물 함량	主要杂质包括 Fe、Ni、Ca、O 等，Fe<50 ppm，O<0.1 wt%，符合 ISO 22445:2019 和 ASTM D7087-05a。
	氧含量	Oxygen Content	酸素含有量	산소 함량	氧含量<0.05 wt%（高纯 WO_3），红外吸收法测定（精度±0.01 wt%），影响钨粉还原质量（W>99.9%）。
	重金属限值	Heavy Metal Limit	重金属制限	중금속 제한	重金属（如 Pb、Cd）<10 ppm，符合 REACH 和 IEC 62321，废液 W 排放<0.05 mg/L，环保要求严格。

Explanation of terms and application background

1. **Physicochemical Properties**:
   - The density (7.16 g/cm³) and melting point (1473°C) of yellow tungsten trioxide make it suitable for high-temperature applications (e.g. aerospace counterweights, density > 19 g/cm³ post-processing). The bandgap (2.6–2.8 eV) determines its photocatalytic

    (VOCs degradation rate >85%) and electrochromic (coloring efficiency >50 cm²/C) performance. The specific surface area (>50 m²/g) is critical for catalysts and fireproof coatings (LOI>30%). Solubility (insoluble in water) ensures chemical stability and suitability for acid-base environments (pH 1–14).

2. **Specifications**:
    - The particle size (0.1–10 µm) influences the application areas of yellow tungsten trioxide: nanometers (20–200 nm) for photocatalysts and thin films (thickness 10–500 nm), micrometers (0.5–5 µm) for tungsten powders and strips (width 10–100 mm). The particle size distribution and topography determine the processing performance (e.g. sintering uniformity deviation <5%). The packaging specification (sealed and moisture-proof) ensures the safety of transportation and meets the needs of international trade (export value> 500 million US dollars/year).
3. **Purity**:
    - Purity (>99.9%) and low impurity content (Fe<50 ppm) are at the heart of tungsten quality control, affecting tungsten product properties (e.g., tensile strength >500 MPa) and electrical conductivity of electronic materials (>10^{-3}). S/cm）。 The oxygen content (<0.05 wt%) is critical for the reduction process (yield > 95%) and catalyst stability (> 100 cycles). Heavy metal limits (Pb, Cd< 10 ppm) meet environmental regulations (e.g. REACH) and support green manufacturing (recycling rate > 85%).

Glossary application scenarios

- **Industrial production**: Glossary guides quality control in yellow tungsten trioxide production (e.g. ICP-MS purity detection, laser particle size analyzer particle size measurement) to ensure compliance with GB/T 3458-2006 and ISO 22445:2019.
- **International trade**: The harmonization of Chinese, English, Japanese and Korean terminology facilitates exports (market > US$500 million/year), such as the application of tungsten in Japanese electronic materials (JIS H 1403:2001) and energy storage in South Korea (KS D 9502:2019).
- **Academic communication**: The glossary supports multilingual literature writing (e.g., Web of Science, CNKI), covering the physicochemical properties (band gap, specific surface area) and applications (e.g., photocatalysis, fireproof coatings) of tungsten.
- **Environmental compliance**: The glossary clarifies heavy metal limits and emission requirements (W<0.05 mg/L), complies with REACH, EPA and GB 25466-2010, and reduces environmental risks (COD<100 mg/L for waste liquid).

remark

- **Terminology source**: Terminology is based on international standards (ISO, ASTM), Chinese standards (GB) and regional standards (JIS, KS), combined with industry terminology conventions (e.g. Roskill report).

- **Accuracy**: Terminology is cross-lingual (Chinese, English, Japanese, Korean) and consistent with academic literature (>100 articles/year) and industry reports (World Tungsten Report 2023).
- **Scalability**: Additional languages (e.g., German, French) or terminology (e.g., electrochemical properties) can be supplemented as required.

Chinese	English	Japanese	Korean
黄钨	Tungsten Trioxide	三酸化タングステン	삼산화텅스텐
三氧化钨	Tungsten(VI) Oxide	タングステン酸化物	텅스텐산화물
钨酸	Tungstic Acid	タングステン酸	텅스텐산
钨粉	Tungsten Powder	タングステン粉末	텅스텐분말
电致变色	Electrochromism	エレクトロクロミズム	전기변색
光催化	Photocatalysis	光触媒	광촉매
纳米黄钨	Nano Tungsten Trioxide	ナノ三酸化タングステン	나노삼산화텅스텐
钨制品	Tungsten Products	タングステン製品	텅스텐제품
安全数据说明书	Safety Data Sheet (SDS)	安全データシート	안전데이터시트

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