REVIEW PAPER





Recent progress of $W_{18}O_{49}$ nanowires for energy conversion and storage

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Received: 17 October 2022 / Revised: 24 November 2022 / Accepted: 29 November 2022 / Published online: 21 January 2023 © The Nonferrous Metals Society of China 2023

Abstract

 $W_{18}O_{49}$ nanowires ($W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs) with unique one-dimension structures and excellent electron/ions transport properties have attracted increasing attention in academia and industry because of their potential applications in many energy-related devices. In the past decades, many research articles related to $W_{18}O_{49}$ have been published, but there are insufficient review articles focusing on $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs. In this review, we present the crystal structure of $W_{18}O_{49}$ and briefly introduce the synthesis methods and growth mechanism of $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs. Moreover, their applications in energy conversion and storage devices are summarized. Finally, the current challenges and opportunities for applying $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs are provided. We hope this review can promote the development of $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs in energy conversion, storage, and other promising applications.

Keywords $W_{18}O_{49}$ nanowires \cdot Photovoltaic \cdot Rechargeable batteries \cdot Capacitors \cdot Fuel production

1 Introduction

To achieve the goals of carbon peak and carbon neutrality, countries around the world need to deal with the challenge of the large and still growing base of CO_2 emission [1, 2]. The world is actively releasing implementation plans to achieve peak CO_2 emissions in key areas and sectors as well as a series of supporting measures to meet the goal of carbon peak and neutralization [3–5]. Among them, developing and utilizing more renewable energy from natural resources is considered the most effective solution. However, large-scale deployment of natural resources still has many inherent drawbacks, such as the intermittency of solar and wind [6–8]. Fortunately, there are many valuable technologies to overcome the shortage of clean energy from natural resources, such as rechargeable batteries, capacitors, solar

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Sheng Liu shengliu@nankai.edu.cn cells, and fuel cells. As is known to all, the excellent performance of all the above devices is intimately and largely dependent on the remarkable properties of their materials. Thus, developing highly efficient materials to construct highly efficient devices is essential. Although these technologies harness clean energy from natural resources, large-scale clean energy utilization is still a long way to go. Therefore, more intensive investigations to explore new high-performance materials are urgently desired to construct highly efficient devices for using large-scale natural resources.

Non-stoichiometric tungsten oxides (WO_{3-r}) have attracted increasing interest due to their unique properties [9-13]. It is widely known that $W_{18}O_{49}$ is an important material in the family of WO_{3-x} , which has been extensively investigated owing to its earth abundance, highly tuneable composition, and high chemical stability. Especially, $W_{18}O_{49}$ nanowires (W₁₈O₄₉ NWs) are unique and versatile because they inherit all typical features of W18O49 bulk and also display a high aspect ratio, which is a benefit for photogenerated carriers to transfer along the axial direction. Meanwhile, the relatively large specific surface area and chemical stability of W₁₈O₄₉ NWs also make it an ideal building block for assembling various heterostructures, which allow $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs materials applicable in smart windows [14, 15], electrochromic devices [16–18], photothermal therapy [19, 20], gases sensors [21–23], photodetector [24], photocatalysis

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[25–27], and so on. Recently, $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs have been extensively studied in the energy conversion and storage area, including photovoltaic, fuel cells, rechargeable batteries, and capacitors [11]. Therefore, one-dimensional (1D) $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs have been considered a substantially promising target material due to their unique anisotropic morphologies and abundant structure tuning capabilities. Since the pioneering work of preparing $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs with diameters in tens of nanometers was reported, the research works on $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs have achieved fast developments and brought substantial opportunities.

To date, there has been just one review that focuses on $W_{18}O_{49}$ for photocatalytic applications [28]. No review paper has focused on the applications of 1D W18O49 NWs for energy conversion and storage. In this review, we first provided a detailed discussion of the crystal structure of W18O49 and a brief introduction to the synthesis and growth mechanism of W₁₈O₄₉ NWs. Then the applications of W₁₈O₄₉ NWs in energy conversion applications, including photovoltaic, fuel cells, and fuel production, are summarized. Afterward, we reviewed the applications of W18O49 NWs in the electrochemical energy storage field, such as rechargeable batteries, capacitors, and electrochromic energy storage systems. Finally, the main future research directions on $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs and energy-related applications were proposed. We hope this review will inspire more research and stimulate extensive future studies in this rapidly growing research field.

2 Crystal structure and synthesis of W₁₈O₄₉ NWs

2.1 Crystal structure of W₁₈O₄₉

 $W_{18}O_{49}$ is a typical non-stoichiometric tungsten oxide, which can be refined in a pure form as a monoclinic structure type (P2/m) [29–31]. The crystal structure of $W_{18}O_{49}$ has been described in detail in previous literature [29, 30, 32], as shown in Fig. 1a, b. The crystal structure of $W_{18}O_{49}$ contains distorted WO₆ octahedra, which links together by sharing corner. It is well known that the crystal structure of W18O49 has multiple valency tungsten ions and includes a considerable amount of oxygen deficiency [33-35]. To compensate for the oxygen deficiency in the crystal structure of $W_{18}O_{49}$, a part of edge sharing of the WO₆ octahedra occurs in the existing corner sharing [33]. The possibilities of sharing modes between the WO₆ octahedra building blocks are illustrated in Fig. 1c. Owing to the well-ordered corner/edgesharing WO₆ framework, the lattice network forms an open structure consisting of trigonal, quadrangular, and hexagonal tunnels [33]. As shown in Fig. 1d, it is clear that $W_{18}O_{49}$ has a large unit cell containing pore-like tunnels. These innate channels in the W₁₈O₄₉ structure can provide accommodation and diffusion pathways for cations [36, 37]. Specifically, W₁₈O₄₉ has strong anisotropic growth behavior along the [010] direction, which makes $W_{18}O_{49}$ easy to form 1D structure, such as nanofibers, nanowires [38, 39], and nanorods [40, 41]. Anisotropic growth-induced $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs possess

Fig. 1 a Unit cells of $W_{18}O_{49}$. **b** Atomic structural model of monoclinic $W_{18}O_{49}$ showing WO_6 octahedra. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [30]. Copyright 1981. Elsevier. **c** Possibilities of sharing modes between building blocks. **d** The continuous structure of $W_{18}O_{49}$ with hexagonal tunnels. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [33]. Copyright 2021, Springer



a larger surface-to-volume ratio and high aspect ratio than the bulk $W_{18}O_{49}$. Therefore, these unique structural characteristics of the $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs provide advantages in several applications.

2.2 Synthesis and growth mechanism of W₁₈O₄₉ NWs

Substantial previous research results have confirmed that the physical and chemical properties of synthetic nanowire materials can be significantly improved or radically tailored when their sizes are reduced to the nanometer regime due to effects such as a high surface-to-volume ratio and guantum confinement. Therefore, the design and fabrication of high-quality nanowires are critical to exploring $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs-based high-performance energy conversion and storage devices. Since the first synthesis of W₁₈O₄₉ NWs by infrared (IR) irradiation thermal evaporation approach, various methods have been successfully developed to synthesize W₁₈O₄₉ NWs, including solvothermal [42–45], thermal evaporation [46-48], hydrothermal [49-51], chemical vapor deposition [52–54], template-assisted [55] and microwaveassisted method [56], electron beam irradiation [57, 58], and so on. With the unremitting efforts of scientists, significant progress has been achieved in controlling the morphology, size, composition, and doping of W₁₈O₄₉ NWs. Nonetheless, the large-scale synthesis of W18O49 NWs with high quality using more environmentally friendly and low-cost methods remains a great challenge.

Generally speaking, different morphologies would result in different performances [59]. Therefore, it is vital to clarify the growth mechanism of W18O49 NWs for extending the applications. Although several methods have been reported for successfully preparing W18O49 NWs, relatively few articles have focused on the growth mechanism of the $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs. This section will present the progress of the growth mechanisms of W18O49 NWs prepared by the thermal annealing and solvothermal methods. Thermal annealing methods are quick and modest for preparing W18O49 NWs. Currently, three kinds of growth mechanisms of W₁₈O₄₉ NWs using thermal annealing methods were reported, including WO₂ intermediate layer growth mechanism, vapor-solid mechanism (V-S), and solid-state (S-S) growth mechanism. The WO₂ intermediate layer growth mechanism may be divided into three steps, which are illustrated in Fig. 2a [60, 61]. First, the W particle surfaces were first oxidized into the WO₂ layer. Secondly, the W–O–W chains are broken when the water vapor reacts with the surface of the WO₂ layers, and then the W₁₈O₄₉ crystal nuclei form and grow along the [010] direction. Thirdly, as the oxidation reaction progresses, the W particles are exhausted while the long $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs are obtained. The V-S may be divided into four steps, as summarized in Fig. 2b [62-64]: (1) a thin WO_x layer was

formed on the surface of the W film; (2) $WO_x \cdot nH_2O$ was generated on the outer WO_x surface; (3) WO_x $\cdot nH_2O$ starts to decompose when the vapor pressure of volatile $WO_v \cdot nH_2O$ increases owing to the continuous oxidation of the tungsten film, and then the $W_{18}O_{49}$ crystal nuclei form and grow steadily while the WO_x $\cdot nH_2O$ decomposes; (4) as the reaction progresses, the long W₁₈O₄₉ nanowires are obtained. The S-S growth mechanism is illustrated in Fig. 2c [65]. First, H₂O reacts with W to form WO₃ and H₂. Secondly, the WO₃ is reduced by H_2 to form $W_{18}O_{49}$. Thirdly, as the reactions (1) and (2) are repeated, long $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs are obtained. Meanwhile, solvothermal is another widely used method for preparing W18O49 NWs. Although solvothermal methods have been commonly reported in the literature, relatively few studies have explored the mechanism. A possible growth mechanism of W18O49 NWs using the solvothermal method is shown in Fig. 2d [44]. It can be simulated as follows: (1) H_2O between the H_2WO_4 layers is exchanged by alcohol or the intercalation of alcohol; (2) H_2WO_4 reacts with oleylamine to obtain tungstate oleylamine salt; (3) nucleation of W18O49 occurs and grows steadily while the tungstate oleylamine salt starts decomposing; (4) as the reaction progresses, W18O49 NWs with different diameters and lengths are obtained. Although numerous experiments have been conducted to understand the growth mechanism of $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs during the last decade, the details of the growth mechanisms that occur during the synthesis of $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs are still elusive. There is no doubt that more studies are needed to further clarify the underlying mechanism. Moreover, a precise and rapid growth mechanism is urgently desired to guide the large-scale synthesis of $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs with controllable diameters and lengths.

3 W₁₈O₄₉ NWs for energy conversion

3.1 W₁₈O₄₉ NWs for photovoltaic applications

Large-scale utilization of solar energy and technologies is the final solution to address the excess emissions of CO₂. Photovoltaics (PV) or solar cells have been considered the most efficient way to utilize solar energy on a large scale [66–68]. Exploring and investigating new materials and technology is the intrinsic driving force for the gradual progress of PV [69, 70]. Over the past decades, scientists have struggled to search for efficient and low-cost materials to construct high-performance PV [71–74]. Pt is a well-known counter electrode catalyst for redox mediators in dye-sensitized solar cells (DSSCs) [75]. However, its scarcity and high cost limit its practical application [76–78]. Unfortunately, Pt is not always the best catalyst for all redox mediators. For instance, the catalytic effect of Pt catalysts is not very good when redox mediators are organic disulfide and



Fig. 2 Several typical growth mechanisms of $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs. **a** WO_2 intermediate layer growth mechanism, reproduced with permission from Ref. [61]. Copyright 2008. Elsevier. **b** V–S mechanism, reproduced with permission from Ref. [64]. Copyright 2009, American Chemical Society. **c** S-S growth mechanism, reproduced with permis-

alkali metal polysulfide [79–81]. Therefore, developing a low-cost, high-performance electrocatalyst to take the place of Pt is highly desirable in DSSCs.

1D $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs have massive surface oxygen vacancies and high charge carrier density, which make $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs very suitable as catalytic electrodes in DSSCs. Currently, $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs with high surface oxygen vacancy (SOV) content were successfully synthesized and used as the catalyst for electrocatalytic reduction of redox mediators (I^-/I_3^-) in DSSCs [82]. The scanning electron microscope (SEM) images of the $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs before and after the SOV filling treatment are shown in Fig. 3a, b. It was found that there was a significant reduction in photoelectric conversion efficiencies (PCE) as the filling of SOVs time of the $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs increased. It is shown in Fig. 3c that $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs-based DSSCs achieved PCE of 7.8% due to the high SOVs content, which is close to that of Pt-based DSSCs. It was indicated that iodide reduction reaction activity was notably dependent

sion from Ref. [65]. Copyright 2021. The Royal Society of Chemistry. \mathbf{d} W₁₈O₄₉ NWs growth mechanism by solvothermal method. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [44]. Copyright 2014, Wiley-VCH

on the SOVs of W18O49 NWs catalyst, which would serve as critical catalytic sites. The mechanism by which SOVs of W18O49 NWs regulate iodide reduction reactions and maintain the crystal phase and morphology of NWs was identified, as illustrated in Fig. 3d. It was confirmed that these findings would clarify the fundamental features of SOVs on metal oxides and contribute to the rational design of efficient catalysts and supports. Besides, the W18O49 NWs-reduced graphene oxide (rGO) composite was also prepared and applied in DSSCs. The first principles calculations of the adsorption energy between I₃⁻ molecule and W₁₈O₄₉ NWs demonstrated that W18O49 NWs had good catalytic activity. Cyclic voltammetry (CV), electrochemical impedance spectroscopy, and Tafel polarization tests also further confirmed that the W₁₈O₄₉-rGO presented high electrocatalytic activity for reducing I₃⁻ and low interface charge transfer impedance. Owing to the high electrocatalytic activity and low interface charge transfer impedance, the DSSCs based on





 $W_{18}O_{49}$ -rGO achieved a PCE of 7.23%, which was comparable to the PCE of Pt-based DSSC (7.39%)[83]. Meanwhile, the mechanism on SOVs of W18O49 was also successfully verified in the cobalt complex and ferrocenium redox mediators [84]. It was revealed that the catalytic performance of $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs for cobalt complex and ferrocenium redox mediators was also comparable to that of Pt. It was also found that the reduction reaction activity of the cobalt complex decreased slightly, whereas it increased slightly for ferrocenium after SOVs filling. In general, a clear relationship between the surface of electrocatalysts and the catalytic properties of different redox mediators will be helpful to the rational design of efficient catalysts in DSSCs. These works enriched the understanding of heterogeneous catalytic reactions on the surface of transition metal complexes for different redox mediators.

Moreover, $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs exhibit excellent interfacial contact and excellent electrical conductivity caused by oxygen vacancies, which make them suitable as functional materials in organic solar cells (OSCs) and perovskite solar cells (PSCs). Specifically, $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs film exhibit obviously improved ambient stability compared to poly(3,4-ethylenedioxythiophene)-poly (styrenesulfonate) (PEDOT:PSS) layer due to the inherently neutral and hydrophobic character of the $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs. For instance, $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs were successfully synthesized and used as an anode buffer layer in OSCs, which was confirmed as an alternative to conventional acidic PEDOT:PSS [85]. It was shown in Fig. 4a, b that the length of the as-prepared W18O49 was up to several micrometers and the diameter was below 30 nm. The energy level diagram of each material and the molecule structures of donors applied in fabricating OSCs are shown in Fig. 4c. When $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs were used as the anode buffer layer in Fig. 4d-f, OSCs based on three typical polymer active layers PTB7:PC71BM, PTB7-Th:PC71BM, and PDBT-T1:PC71BM achieved higher PCEs of 8.23%, and 9.30%, and 9.09%, respectively. As a comparison, OSCs only obtained PCEs of 7.27%, 8.44% when PEDOT: PSS were used as the anode buffer layer. The results suggested that W18O49 NWs film was a promising candidate for organic solar cells' anode buffer layer materials. In addition, W18O49 NWs were also successfully applied in fabricating the hole transport layer for all-inorganic CsPbBr₃ PSCs [86]. It was revealed that $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs with high work function promoted the hole extraction and reduced charge carrier recombination, resulting in a champion efficiency of 9.17% with a high Voc of 1.592 V for CsPbBr₃ PSCs. The profound advantages, good stability, and applicability for potential ease manufacturing processes make W₁₈O₄₉ NWs a good candidate for the hole transport layer in OSCs and PSCs. Meanwhile, there is still a lack of relevant research in the preparation of large-area solar cells using $W_{18}O_{40}$ NWs, which would be the direction for scientists to work on in the future.



Fig.4 SEM images of the $W_{18}O_{49}$ with **a** high magnification and **b** low magnification. **c** Device architecture and energy levels of materials. J–V characteristics of OSCs based on the active layers of **d**

PTB7:PC71BM, e PTB7-Th:PC71BM, f PDBT-T1:PC71BM. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [85]. Copyright 2017, American Chemical Society

3.2 W₁₈O₄₉ NWs for fuel cells

Three-dimensional structure (3D) can provide more reaction sites due to the higher spatial complexity. Thus, the 3D structural design strategy is a practical and versatile approach to improving the performance of materials. Therefore, the proper design of $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs-based 3D electrodes could bring a promising path for fabricating novel oxygen reduction catalysts with high performance, low cost, and high CO tolerance for fuel cells. 3D structure Pt/W₁₈O₄₉ NWs/carbon paper electrodes were successfully designed and investigated as an oxygen reduction catalyst [87, 88]. Experimental results of the linear scan voltammogram showed that $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs-based 3D electrodes presented higher electrocatalytic activity toward the oxygen reduction reaction than conventional Pt/C electrodes. Importantly, $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs-based 3D electrodes also exhibited better CO tolerance. Based on the above catalyst design strategy, Pt/ $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs/carbon paper composite was prepared and successfully applied in proton exchange membrane fuel cells (PEMFCs) [87]. SEM images revealed that $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs covered the carbon microfibers and formed a threedimensional hierarchical electrode structure, as shown in Fig. 5a, b. Transmission electron microscope (TEM) images in Fig. 5c, d show that the $W_{18}O_{49}$ are very straight, with an average length of about 15 µm and diameters of 20–60 nm. As shown in Fig. 5e, the polarization curves revealed that PEMFCs based on Pt/ $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs/carbon paper achieved



Fig. 5 SEM and TEM images of $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs grown on carbon microfibers of carbon paper. **a** Low magnification SEM. **b** High magnification SEM image. **c** Low magnification TEM image of $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs. **d** TEM image of $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs. **e** Polarization curves and power density curves in single-cell PEMFC. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [87]. Copyright 2009, Elsevier

a high current density of $1.04 \text{ A} \cdot \text{cm}^{-2}$. In contrast, PEMFCs based on Pt/C electrode only obtained a low current density of $0.56 \text{ A} \cdot \text{cm}^{-2}$ under the same conditions.

The combination of experimental and theoretical study is a very important approach to exploring new materials. The feasibility study of W18O49 NWs as catalyst supports for fuel cells was investigated in detail by theoretical calculation [89]. The theoretical calculation results revealed that $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs with a 1.2 nm diameter showed potential as an oxygen reduction catalyst owing to their negative adsorption energy. Furthermore, the surface model of cobalt atom adsorbed onto the tungsten atoms on the W₁₈O₄₉ NWs (NWs-Co) surface revealed that it had high adsorption energy toward all molecules. Moreover, NWs-Co also could break the bond of oxygen in oxygen and hydrogen peroxide molecules to produce water as the main product. It was confirmed that the NWs-Co could oxidize carbon monoxide and methanol due to the high adsorption of NWs-Co toward these molecules. However, it can also bring mixed potential and thus reduce the performance of a single cell of direct methanol fuel cell (DMFC) when using it as a cathode catalyst. Fortunately, it was revealed that the adsorption of oxygen and hydrogen peroxide would be improved, and the adsorption of methanol and carbon monoxide would be reduced when the diameter of the W18O49 NWs was increased, or more cobalt atoms were added to the W₁₈O₄₉ NWs. Therefore, it is indicated that NW-Co had the potential to be used as catalyst support in the cathode for DMFC. Subsequently, the results of theoretical research were also proved successful in experiments [90, 91]. For instance, cobalt phthalocyanine-C/W₁₈O₄₀ NWs (CoPc-C/NWs) were prepared and successfully introduced as a non-platinum cathode catalyst for DMFCs [90]. It was revealed that the oxygen reduction reaction mechanism produced water as the main product when CoPc-C/NWs were used as catalysts, which had almost a 3.8-electron transfer number. It was demonstrated that the support of W18O49 NWs on CoPc enhanced the ORR activity. Single-cell DMFCs test showed that the power density was about 9.0 mW·cm⁻² for CoPc-C/NWs. Importantly, CoPc-C/NWs also had excellent oxygen reduction activity in acidic media. Moreover, CoPc-C/NWs also did not react with methanol, which made it suitable as a feasible cathode catalyst for DMFC.

3.3 W₁₈O₄₉ NWs for fuel production

Direct conversion of CO₂ to fuels and value-added chemicals is a promising strategy to achieve the goals of carbon peak and carbon neutrality [92–94]. One of the main challenges associated with CO₂ reduction is exploring efficient catalytic materials for the activation of CO₂ [95, 96]. 1D $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs have massive surface oxygen vacancies and high charge carrier density, which make $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs very suitable as catalytic materials for CO₂ reduction.

 $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs with a 0.9 nm diameter were successfully synthesized and developed as an efficient photochemical catalyst for CO₂ reduction [31]. Photochemical reduction CO₂ experimental results showed that the average formation rate of methane was about 0.029 mmol·L⁻¹ g⁻¹ h⁻¹ under irradiation with visible light. It was indicated from ultraviolet (UV)/visible (Vis) absorption spectroscopy and photoluminescence spectrum that the ultrathin $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs consisted of a large number of oxygen vacancies, which was thought to be responsible for the high reactivity. The contrast test also confirmed that CO₂ reduction activity was notably dependent on $W_{18}O_{49}$ SOVs.

Meanwhile, surface modification engineering was used to improve the photoreduction ability of $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs. $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs decorated with isolated Co atoms were successfully synthesized and applied as an efficient catalyst for CO₂ photoreduction [97]. All experimental results and Density functional theory calculations confirmed that the energy band configuration of $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs was greatly modified after the decoration of Co atoms, which should be fundamentally responsible for improving the redox capability of photoexcited electrons for CO₂ reduction. The photocatalytic CO₂ reduction performance revealed that CO and H₂ generation rates were 21.18 and 6.49 mmol \cdot g⁻¹ h⁻¹ for the first hour when the optimized W18O49@Co hybrid was used as the catalyst. As a comparison, the CO and H₂ generation rates of W₁₈O₄₉ without Co were poor and nearly undetectable. Besides, element doping was employed to design the high-performance catalyst to overcome the shortcomings of fast electron-hole recombination, which would result in low efficiency in photocatalytic CO₂ reduction. Currently, Cu⁺-doped W₁₈O₄₉ NWs were successfully synthesized and applied as an efficient catalyst for CO₂ photoreduction [98]. The morphology, structure and the energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDX) mapping of Cu⁺ doped W₁₈O₄₉ NWs was presented in Fig. 6a-c. The SEM and TEM images showed that the W18O49 presented a wirelike morphology with 25-40 nm diameters. As shown in Fig. 6d-h, Cu, O, and W elements were uniformly distributed in each nanowire in terms of the selected area. It was

revealed that the conduction edge of $W_{18}O_{49}$ changed to a more negative position, and the electron-hole recombination was also effectively inhibited after Cu⁺ doping. Moreover, Cu⁺-doped W₁₈O₄₉ NWs showed relatively poor hydrophilicity, which could reduce the active sites occupied by H₂O molecules. All of these were beneficial for the occurrence of CO₂ photoreduction. As shown in Fig. 6i, the photocatalytic CO₂ reduction performance revealed that the CH₄ generation rates were approximately 0.67 µmol·g⁻¹ h⁻¹ using $W_{18}O_{49}$ nanowires with a Cu⁺ doping amount of 2.5%, while generation rates of 0.16 μ mol·g⁻¹ h⁻¹ were obtained when using pure W₁₈O₄₉ NWs. The best activity Cu⁺ doped $W_{18}O_{49}$ sample was roughly 4.0 times higher than that of pure W₁₈O₄₉ NWs. Therefore, transition metal doping and surface modification engineering strategies would provide an alternative for designing high-performance catalysts to reduce CO₂ into fuels.

Moreover, $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs were used to assemble unique nanostructures for CO₂ reduction. For instance, Au/TiO₂/ $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs plasmonic heterostructure photocatalyst was successfully designed and constructed to overcome



Fig.6 a SEM, **b** TEM, **c** high resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM), **d** scanning transmission electron microscopy images, and **e**–**h** EDX mapping of the Cu– $W_{18}O_{49}$ -0.005 sample. **i** Photoreduction of CO₂ into CH₄ upon $W_{18}O_{49}$ and Cu– $W_{18}O_{49}$ -x (x=0.002, 0.005, 0.01, and 0.02) products. **j** Schematic illustration

of the electronic band structures of $W_{18}O_{49}$ nanowires and the Cu– $W_{18}O_{49}$ -0.005 Sample and illustration of photocatalytic CO₂ reduction over Cu⁺-doped $W_{18}O_{49}$ using H₂O as reducing agent. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [98]. Copyright 2020, Elsevier

the disadvantages of poor efficiency and low selectivity for producing kinetically unfavorable hydrocarbons [99]. Owing to the interesting plasmon coupling between the Au and $W_{18}O_{49}$, the Au/TiO₂/ $W_{18}O_{49}$ can strongly harvest incident light to generate high-energy hot electrons. Meanwhile, the Au/TiO₂/ $W_{18}O_{49}$ can also adsorb intermediate products of CO and protons through the dual-heteroactive sites (Au-O-Ti and W-O-Ti) at their hetero-interface regions during the photocatalytic CO₂ reduction process. The theoretical and experimental results all confirmed that the well-designed Au/TiO₂/W₁₈O₄₉ plasmonic heterostructure could simultaneously confine high-energy hot electrons, protons, and CO during the photocatalytic CO₂ reduction process, which resulted in high photocatalytic activity of 35.55 μ mol·g⁻¹ h⁻¹ and high selectivity of 93.3% for CH₄ production. Specifically, the CO generation rate was only 2.57 μ mol·g⁻¹ h⁻¹. It was confirmed that the plasmonic active "hot spot"-confined photocatalysis strategy opened a new door for designing the new generation of plasmonic photocatalysts for high-efficiently converting CO2 into valuable fuels.

As is known to all, hydrogen is considered a promising substitute for fossil fuels owing to its high energy density and cleanliness [100-103]. W₁₈O₄₉ NWs and their composites were also applied as an efficient photocatalyst for hydrogen generation. For instance, plasmonic W₁₈O₄₉ NWs were successfully used as a photocatalyst to accelerate hydrogen generation from ammonia borane [104]. Under visible light irradiation, H₂ evolution was 79.5 µmol in one hour with W₁₈O₄₉ NWs, compared to 14.8 µmol with commercial WO₃. However, the H₂ evolution efficiency of the single traditional semiconductor photocatalysts is still unsatisfactory. Therefore, the design of an ideal electrocatalyst for H₂ evolution is highly required to provide high energy efficiency. Recently, a significant amount of effort has also been devoted to improving the performance of W₁₈O₄₉ NWs via structure engineering or electron regulating [105–107]. Obviously, structure control has been proven to be an effective method to improve the active area and optimize the performance of W₁₈O₄₉ NWs, such as novel architecture and morphologies [105, 108-110]. Meanwhile, heteroatom doping has emerged as an easy and mild approach to generate active sites and regulate electronic structure to enhance the conductivity or catalytic activity of W₁₈O₄₉. For instance, Mo element doping has been reported to efficiently optimize the electronic structure of $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs and thus significantly boost the hydrogen evolution reaction rate [111]. The above approaches that can fundamentally optimize the properties of materials have been proven to be effective strategies for designing high-performance W₁₈O₄₉ NWs-based catalysts.

Meanwhile, the rational construction of heterostructure plasmonic materials has also been proven to be an effective

strategy for designing high-performance W₁₈O₄₉ NWs catalysts with a broad absorption range, long-term stability, high charge-separation efficiency and strong redox ability for high-efficiency H₂ generation. Currently, W₁₈O₄₉ NWs/ TiO₂ branched heterostructure was successfully designed and constructed by the solvothermal method and applied as a model system to investigate the kinetics process and catalytic activity for H₂ generation under IR-light irradiation [112]. Figure 7a shows that the XRD patterns indicated the coexistence of characteristic diffraction peaks of monoclinic $W_{18}O_{49}$ and anatase TiO₂ in the $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs/TiO₂. The SEM, TEM and EDX mapping images revealed that Ti was mainly distributed in the middle of the branched heterostructure and that W was dominant in the side region, which confirmed the structure of a TiO_2 nanofibers (TiO_2) NFs) backbone coated with W₁₈O₄₉ NWs branches, as illustrated in Fig. 7b-f. UV-Vis-IR absorption spectra in Fig. 7g suggested that the plasmonic $W_{18}O_{49}$ branches can strongly concentrate the incident light field with IR frequencies to generate energetic hot electrons surrounding the W₁₈O₄₉ NWs/TiO₂ interface. It was also revealed that the transfer of a plasmon-induced hot electron from the $W_{18}O_{49}$ branches to the TiO₂ backbones was completed within only about 200 fs, which is much faster than their relaxation process from the high-energy surface plasmon to the ground state (7–9 ps) in the $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs. Thus, the generation and separation of a plasmonic hot electron in the $W_{18}O_{49}/TiO_2$ were greatly promoted due to the ultrafast kinetics feature, which led to a remarkably enhanced catalytic activity for H₂ generation compared to the activity of pure W₁₈O₄₉ NWs. As shown in Fig. 7h, the H₂ generation rate was about 0.014 µmol·min⁻¹ when TiO₂ NFs were used as a catalyst. It is indicated that TiO₂ NFs are almost inert for H₂ generation. The H₂ generation rate was about 0.50 μ mol·min⁻¹ when W₁₈O₄₉ NWs were used as a catalyst. The good catalytic activity of the W18O49 NWs is ascribed to their abundant surface-active sites and strong localized surface plasmon resonance (LSPR) absorption in the IR region. More impressively, the H_2 generation rate was about 0.62 μ mol·min⁻¹ when W₁₈O₄₉ NWs were assembled onto TiO₂ NFs. The H₂ generation rate based on $W_{18}O_{49}/TiO_2$ was almost about 1.24-fold compared with that of $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs alone. It was indicated that the TiO₂ NFs could act as a sensitizer to further improve the plasmon-driven catalytic activity of the W₁₈O₄₉ NWs. The mechanism of IR-driven transfer of plasmon-induced hot electron in a nonmetallic heterostructure for enhanced H₂ generation was successfully verified, as illustrated in Fig. 7i. It is confirmed that the rational construction design is an ideal strategy for designing high-performance $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs catalysts. Soon afterward, Yb³⁺/Er³⁺ doped NaYF₄/ W18O49 NWs heterostructures were also successfully synthesized and developed as an efficient photochemical



Fig.7 a XRD patterns of **a** TiO₂ NFs, **b** $W_{18}O_{49}/TiO_2$, **c** $W_{18}O_{49}/W$ NWs. **b**, **c** SEM of TiO₂ NFs and $W_{18}O_{49}/TiO_2$. **d** TEM and the corresponding elemental mapping images of an individual $W_{18}O_{49}/TiO_2$ branched heterostructure. **e** HRTEM image of a $W_{18}O_{49}/W$. **f** Selected area electron diffraction pattern of the $W_{18}O_{49}/TiO_2$. **g** UV–Vis–IR absorption spectra of the as-fabricated samples. **h** Time-

dependent H₂ generation from NH₃BH₃ aqueous solution over different samples upon IR light irradiation (λ > 750 nm). **i** Schematic of the catalytic mechanism for H₂ generation from NH₃BH₃ molecules over the plasmonic W₁₈O₄₉ NWs. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [112]. Copyright 2018, Wiley-VCH

catalyst for H₂ generation [113]. Under 980 nm irradiation, H₂ evolution was 2.11 µmol in 1 h with NaYF₄:Yb–Er@ $W_{18}O_{49}$ heterostructure. As a comparison, H₂ evolution was negligible with NaYF₄:Yb–Er NPs and H₂ evolution was 0.60 µmol in 1 h with $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs, which demonstrates the poor catalytic activity of unexcited plasmonic $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs. As calculated, the NIR-driven catalyst of Yb³⁺/Er³⁺-doped NaYF₄/W₁₈O₄₉ NWs heterostructure achieves a 3.5-fold increase in the catalytic H₂ evolution from ammonia borane based on the process of plasmonic energy transfer, which is higher than that of pure $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs. It was confirmed that the excited LSPR of $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs could greatly enhance the catalytic H₂ evolution, attributed to the plasmonic transfer process of "hot electrons". This work concluded that the upconversion emission of Ln^{3+} -doped NaYF₄ nanoparticles at a suitable wavelength region can improve the LSPR excitation of the W₁₈O₄₉ NWs and boost the catalytic activity for H₂ evolution on the surface of W₁₈O₄₉ NWs. Such work was considered to be the first demonstration of a high-energy hot electron transfer process in a plasmonic semiconductor heterostructure excited by low-energy IR photons, which stands out as one of the notable landmarks in expanding the photoresponse of current semiconductor photocatalysts from the UV (or Vis) to the IR light range for achieving full-spectrum-driven solar-to-fuel conversion.

Currently, the defect-rich structure and remarkable physicochemical properties make $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs a potential

candidate for energy conversion, as illustrated in Table 1. However, the efficiency of the $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs-based catalysts still need to be improved. Obviously, $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs need to couple with other semiconductor materials to construct hybrid materials to enhance the catalytic activity owing to the unsuitable band edge potential levels. Although surface modification engineering, element doping, and heterostructure assembly have been successfully applied to improve the efficiency of the $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs-based catalysts, some heterojunctions of $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs-based catalyst still exist and need to explore well, such as p–n junction, S-scheme, and Schottky barrier.

4 W₁₈O₄₉ NWs for energy storage

4.1 W₁₈O₄₉ NWs for rechargeable batteries

Tungsten oxide has been regarded as a promising anode material for lithium-ion batteries due to its larger theoretical capacity and high density (693 mA·h·g⁻¹ and 7.16 g·cm⁻³), compared to graphite (372 mA·h·g⁻¹ and 2.26 g·cm⁻³) [114]. Generally speaking, anode materials based on conversion reaction mechanism always suffer from significant structural and volume variation during long-term cycle processes, leading to the electrodes' poor cycling ability [115, 116]. The reduction of particle size and surface modification with the conductive material of electrode materials are effective approaches to overcome these problems. For instance, the preparation of nanowire structures has been proved to be an effective method. This section will present the recent progress of $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs for rechargeable batteries, including anodes, cathodes, and separators.

The carbon layer on the surface of anode materials can act as a protective layer to prevent volume expansion and improve electronic conductivity. Carbon-coated ultrathin $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs web was synthesized and applied as anode material for high-performance lithium-ion batteries [117]. The morphologies of $W_{18}O_{49}$ and $W_{18}O_{49}$ @carbon nanowire are shown in Fig. 8a, b. It was clearly revealed from TEM images that the W18O49 NWs were composed of many individual thinner nanowires. The diameter of the W₁₈O₄₉ NWs was about 0.9 nm. $W_{18}O_{40}/C-1$ exhibit similar nanowire web morphology with W₁₈O₄₉ NWs, and a thin carbon layer with a thickness of about 0.6 nm was coated on the $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs. As shown in Fig. 8c, the electrochemical test indicated that carbon-coated ultrathin W18O49 NWs web presented much better electrochemical performance than pure $W_{18}O_{49}$. It is revealed that the $W_{18}O_{49}$ @carbon nanowire web electrode delivered a high lithium storage capacity of 889 mA \cdot h·g⁻¹ at $200 \text{ mA} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$ after 250 cycles. It was confirmed that excellent electrochemical performance benefited from the incorporation of carbon and the unique ultrathin W₁₈O₄₉ nanowire web architecture. Meanwhile, ultrathin W₁₈O₄₉ NWs were used to improve the electrochemical performance of Si anode [118]. Schematic of the synthesis and the lithiation process of Si/ $W_{18}O_{49}$ electrode is illustrated in Fig. 8d. TEM images showed that W18O49 NWs with a length of 200-400 nm and a diameter of 5-10 nm were homogeneously dispersed on the surface of Si nanoparticles, as shown in Fig. 8e. Based on the advantage of the uniform intertwists of ultrathin W18O49 NWs structure, W18O49 NWs/Si composite exhibited improved reversible capacity and rate capability compared to pure $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs and Si. It is shown in Fig. 8f that the Si/W₁₈O₄₉ NWs-2 with high Si content of 62.5% in the composite presented a higher first capacity of 1379/2228 mÅ·h·g⁻¹ at 400 mA·g⁻¹, and retained a reversible capacity of 844 mA \cdot h·g⁻¹ over 100 cycles. It is confirmed that the uniform intertwists of ultrathin nanowires played an effective role in sustaining large lithiation/delithiation strain. This simple strategy will be helpful to design other Si-based and alloy-type anode materials with improved electrochemical performance.

Owing to the favorable defect structure and the novel properties of mixed valency, $W_{18}O_{49}$ was successfully used as functional material for Li–S batteries [119, 120].

Fuel production types	Component	Main product	Main product rate	References
CO ₂ conversion	W ₁₈ O ₄₉ NWs	CH ₄	$0.029 \text{ mmol} \cdot \text{L}^{-1} \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$	[31]
	W ₁₈ O ₄₉ NWs @Co	CO/H ₂	21.18 mmol $\cdot g^{-1} h^{-1}$ and 6.49 mmol $\cdot g^{-1} h^{-1}$	[97]
	Cu ⁺ -doped W ₁₈ O ₄₉ NWs	CH_4	$0.67 \ \mu mol \ \cdot g^{-1} \ h^{-1}$	[98]
	Au/TiO ₂ /W ₁₈ O ₄₉ NWs	CH_4	35.55 µmol∙ g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹	[<mark>99</mark>]
H ₂ production	W ₁₈ O ₄₉ NWs	H_2	79.5 µmol∙ h ^{−1}	[104]
	W ₁₈ O ₄₉ NWs/g-C ₃ N ₄	H_2	3.69 µmol∙ h ^{−1}	[108]
	Ag/W ₁₈ O ₄₉ NWs	H_2	2.76 µmol∙ h ⁻¹	[109]
	W ₁₈ O ₄₉ NWs/TiO ₂	H_2	$0.62 \ \mu mol \ \cdot min^{-1}$	[112]
	Yb ³⁺ /Er ³⁺ -doped NaYF ₄ / W ₁₈ O ₄₉ NWs	H ₂	2.11 μmol ·h ⁻¹	[113]

Table 1Summary of $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs-based catalyst for fuelproduction



Fig.8 a SEM and TEM images of $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs. **b** SEM and TEM images of $W_{18}O_{49}/C-1$. **c** Cycling stability of $W_{18}O_{49}$, $W_{18}O_{49}/C-1$, $W_{18}O_{49}/C-2$ and $W_{18}O_{49}/C-3$ at a rate of 100 mA·g⁻¹ and long-term cycling performance of $W_{18}O_{49}/C-1$ at a rate of 200 mA·g⁻¹. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [117]. Copyright 2015. The Royal

Society of Chemistry. **d** Schematic illustration of the synthesis and the lithiation process of the Si/W₁₈O₄₉ electrode. **e** TEM images of Si/W₁₈O₄₉. **f** Cycling performances and rate performances of W₁₈O₄₉ and Si/W₁₈O₄₉ electrodes. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [118]. Copyright 2017, Elsevier

Considerable efforts have been devoted to using $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs for the improvement and optimization of electrode materials, whereas scarce studies have reported the use of $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs to improve the electrode structure and cell configuration. Recently, the W18O49 NWs were reported as a barrier layer material to alleviate the undesirable shuttle effect for boosting the specific capacity and cycling stability of Li-S batteries [121]. The commercial sulfur cathode with 70% sulfur loading achieved an initial discharge capacity of 1142 mA·h·g⁻¹ when $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs/Super P was used as a barrier layer and retained the specific capacity at about 809 mA·h·g⁻¹ after 50 cycles, while an initial specific discharge capacity of 935 mA·h·g⁻¹ was obtained when pure Super P was used as the barrier layer. In addition, $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs were also used as electrocatalysts to improve the electrochemical performance of graphite felt (GF) electrodes in vanadium redox flow batteries (VRFBs) [122]. It was revealed that hydrogen-treated W₁₈O₄₉ NWs (H-W₁₈O₄₉ NWs)-based VRFBs exhibit outstanding performance with 9.1 and 12.5% higher energy efficiency than the cells assembled with W₁₈O₄₉ NWs and treated GF, respectively, at a high current density of 80 mA·cm⁻². It was confirmed that the superior performance of the H-W₁₈O₄₉ NWs electrocatalyst electrode could be attributed to the numerous oxygen vacancies, which can act as active sites for the VO_2^+/VO^{2+} redox reaction. Notably, the VRFBs assembled with the as-prepared hydrogen-treated $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs-based electrode had high-capacity retention and excellent stability.

Overall, $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs have been investigated as electrode materials for rechargeable batteries, which show good electrochemical performance. However, it is still a challenge to apply them as anodes for Li-ion batteries because of their large irreversible capacity, low rate capacity, low Coulombic efficiency, and bulky volume expansions during repeated charge intercalation/deintercalation processes. In addition, tungsten is a rare metal. It is not an element abundant on Earth, as required for energy storage applications. Therefore, it is suitable to use $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs as a functional material for batteries, such as additives and catalysts.

4.2 W₁₈O₄₉ NWs for supercapacitors

Supercapacitors have attracted much attention due to their significant advantages, such as high power density and ultralong cycle life [123, 124]. Thus, supercapacitors have been considered one of the most effective solutions for the uninterrupted energy supply chain. Recently, many efforts have been devoted to achieving excellent comprehensive performance for supercapacitors, such as exploring new materials and introducing new reaction mechanisms [125–127]. Currently, monoclinic $W_{18}O_{49}$ was discovered as the emerging electrode material for capacitors [128, 129]. $W_{18}O_{49}$ possesses many tunnels in the crystal structure, including hexagonal tunnels, trigonal tunnels, and quadrilateral tunnels, which are helpful for ion intercalation. Moreover, the high oxygen vacancies content in $W_{18}O_{49}$ structure also can enhance the electrical conductivity by accelerating electron diffusion [34]. With a large surface-to-volume ratio in the 1D structure, massive exposed SOVs on the surface could provide abundant active sites, thus showing the great potential in applications of supercapacitors.

The W₁₈O₄₉ NWs/carbon felt (CF) was prepared by a facile solvothermal method and used for supercapacitor applications [130]. Owing to the three-dimensional porous nanostructure and sufficient oxygen deficiencies, the $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs/CF exhibits a reduction in the resistance and fast reaction kinetics than WO₃ NWs /CF. Therefore, W₁₈O₄₉ NWs/ CF achieved a high capacity of 588.33 $F \cdot g^{-1}$ at 1 $A \cdot g^{-1}$. Particularly, W₁₈O₄₉ NWs/CF presented an excellent cycle performance that can maintain about 88% of its capacitance after 5000 cycles. W18O49 NWs/carbon cloth (CC) was synthesized by a simple solvothermal reaction and used as a positive electrode to construct flexible asymmetric supercapacitors [131]. The NWs/CC electrode showed good electrochemical performance with specific capacitance reaching up to 398 $F \cdot g^{-1}$ at 2 $A \cdot g^{-1}$. Moreover, the NWs/CC electrode presented a specific capacitance of 325 $F \cdot g^{-1}$ even at a much higher current density of $6 \text{ A} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$. After 3000 cycles, the NWs/CC electrode can keep 92% of the initial specific capacitance. The as-fabricated flexible asymmetric supercapacitors (FASCs) based on NWs/CC obtained a high energy density of 28 Wh·kg⁻¹ and 13 Wh·kg⁻¹ at a power density of 745 W·kg⁻¹ and 22.5 kW·kg⁻¹, respectively. Specifically, the FASCs presented excellent cycle stability and achieved 81% of the specific capacitance after 10,000 cycles.

In addition to the above monovalent cation-based supercapacitors, $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs were also successfully applied to design trivalent Al^{3+} ion intercalation supercapacitors [132]. As illustrated in Fig. 9a, b, a freestanding composite electrode consisting of uniformly distributed W₁₈O₄₉ NWs and single-walled carbon nanotubes (SCNTs) was successfully prepared and applied in Al³⁺ ion intercalation supercapacitors. It is shown in Fig. 9c that the freestanding SCNTs/ $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs-composite film electrode exhibits extremely high areal capacitances of 216 $F \cdot g^{-1}$ at 2 mA·cm⁻² due to the highly efficient Al^{3+} ion intercalation into $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs. To further evaluate the practical potential of composite film for supercapacitors, an Al-ion-based, flexible, asymmetric electrochemical capacitor was constructed. The capacitor presented a high volumetric energy density of 19.0 mWh \cdot cm⁻³ at a high power density of 295 $mW \cdot cm^{-3}$. Impressively, the asymmetric supercapacitor exhibits excellent cycling stability, which retains 95.9% of its initial capacitance after 6000 cycles. Moreover, the asprepared supercapacitor was successfully applied to power a flexible poly(3-hexylthiophene)-based electrochromic device (P-ECD), as shown in Fig. 9d, e. The results revealed that the P-ECDs could be switched using a fully charged supercapacitor at a high charge rate of 22 mA·cm⁻², which present a promising capability as a power source for flexible electronic devices. Besides, $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs–rGO was also used to fabricate an Al³⁺ ion asymmetric supercapacitor [133]. The as-fabricated supercapacitor delivered a high specific capacitance of 365.5 F·g⁻¹ at 1 A·g⁻¹ and exhibited excellent cycling stability with 96.7% capacitance retention at 12,000 cycles. More impressively, it demonstrates a high energy density of 28.5 Wh·kg⁻¹ and a high power density of 751 W·kg⁻¹.

4.3 W₁₈O₄₉ NWs for electrochromic energy storage systems

Electrochromic energy storage system is a new type of energy conversion and storage system [134, 135]. The system can demonstrate color alteration and the energy can also be stored directly inside the system. In general, an electrochromic energy storage system consists of two electrodes and an electrolyte. In recent years, two types of electrochromic energy storage systems have been reported, such as electrochromic batteries and electrochromic capacitors [136–138]. Currently, various materials have been developed to fabricate high-performance electrochromic energy storage systems, such as inorganic and conducting polymers [139–142]. To demonstrate color alteration and store energy directly inside the system, the selection of materials is highly important for fabricating a high-performance electrochromic energy storage system [143, 144].

W₁₈O₄₉ NWs were successfully applied to design smart supercapacitor, which possesses the capacity to sense changes in the level of stored energy by changing color with variations [145]. As illustrated in Fig. 10a, $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs and polyaniline (PANI) were successfully employed as components to fabricate electrochromic supercapacitors. The W₁₈O₄₉ NWs exhibited high areal capacitances of 440, 360, 333, 315, and 302 $F \cdot g^{-1}$ at current densities of 2, 4, 6, 8, and 10 $A \cdot g^{-1}$, respectively. It was also indicated from the near-linear charge and discharge slopes that the hybrid electrochromic supercapacitor electrode presented excellent reversibility during the charge-discharge processes. It was revealed that the hybrid supercapacitor obtained an areal capacitance of 10 mF·cm⁻². More impressively, it is illustrated in Fig. 10b that the smart supercapacitor can work in a widened window of 1.3 V while displaying variations in color schemes depending on the level of energy storage, which was distinguished from the conventional capacitor.

In addition, $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs-based hybrid film electrode was successfully prepared to fabricate electrochromic



Fig. 9 Field emission SEM image and EDX elemental maps of the SCNTs)/ $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs-composite films, **a** surface and **b** cross section. **c** Areal capacitances of the composite electrodes under different current densities. **d** Schematic illustration of a wearable P-ECD inte-

supercapacitor, which can recognize the level of stored energy with reversible color change [146]. The $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs/rGO hybrid film electrode presented high conductivity, tunable resistances (23–39 Ω ·sq⁻¹), and transmittance (72-84%). Specifically, the W₁₈O₄₉ NWs/rGO electrode can maintain its functionalities after 4000 bending cycles. CV test indicated W18O49 NWs-based electrode clearly presented pseudocapacitive behavior, which would demonstrate considerable high areal capacitance. It was revealed that the as-fabricated film electrode achieved a high areal capacitance of 92 mF·cm⁻² at current densities of 2 mA·cm⁻². Meanwhile, the $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs/rGO film electrode also presented excellent electrochromic performance, with fast switching speeds (8 s for coloration and 8.45 s for bleaching), and high coloration efficiency (46 $cm^2 \cdot C^{-1}$), and remarkable stability (96.41% of the original optical modulation). A symmetric electrochromic supercapacitor based on W18O49 NWs/rGO film electrode delivered a maximum areal capacitance of 48 mF·cm⁻² and

grated with a flexible Al³⁺-based supercapacitor as the power source. **e** Corresponding photographs of the wearable P-ECD at the colored and bleached states, respectively. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [132]. Copyright 2017, Wiley-VCH

an energy density of 5.2 mWh·cm⁻² with 0.391 mW·cm⁻² power density. In particular, the device exhibited excellent mechanical flexibility and stability over 4000 cycles during the charge/discharge process. More impressively, the dual-functional supercapacitor exhibited a rapid and reversible response and high sustainability in optical modulation (96%) even under high current charge/discharge conditions, which is promising for real applications. Moreover, $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs/rGO and PANI electrodes were also used to assemble an electrochromic supercapacitor [147]. W₁₈O₄₉ NWs/ rGO film electrode exhibited a specific capacitance of 15.06 mF·cm⁻² at current densities of 0.2 mA·cm⁻². The PANI electrode presented a high specific capacitance of 62.26 $mF \cdot cm^{-2}$ at a discharge current of 0.2 $mA \cdot cm^{-2}$. As illustrated in Fig. 10c, d, the assembled device exhibited various color changes at the voltage of -0.2 to 1.4 V, such as light green, dark green, light blue, and dark blue. The coloring efficiency reached 76.37 $\text{cm}^{-2} \text{C}^{-1}$. It was believed that these creative supercapacitors equipped with smart functionalities



Fig. 10 a Schematic of the process of fabricating a supercapacitor electrode composed of $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs and a PANI layer. **b** Images of the supercapacitor electrode at several typical states demonstrating the stored energy conveyed through pattern color scheme recognition. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [145]. Copyright 2014,

could effectively meet the needs of humans in providing connectivity and delivering relevant information.

Obviously, $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs have been successfully applied as electrode for supercapacitors and electrochromic supercapacitors, as illustrated in Table 2. However, the specific capacitance and cycle life of the $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs-based supercapacitors still need to be improved. Although the method of using $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs to couple with conductive materials to construct hybrid materials has been successfully applied to improve the capacitance of the $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs-based electrode, other existing methods, such as surface modification engineering, element doping, and heterostructure assembly, still need to be well explored.

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5 Conclusion and perspectives

In conclusion, $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs have demonstrated their enormous potential in the development of highly efficient energy conversion and storage systems due to their unique physicochemical properties and excellent electrochemical performances. Although considerable achievements are made, more efforts are still needed to further promote the fundamental understanding and practical applications of $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs. Moreover, the synthesis of large-scale $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs with high quality using more environmentally friendly and low-cost methods is still challenging,

Table 2 Summary of W18O49 NWs-based materials for supercapacitors

Energy storage types	Component	Preparation method	Specific capacitance	Cycle life	References
Supercapacitors	W ₁₈ O ₄₉ NWs/CF	Solvothermal	588.33 $F \cdot g^{-1}$	5000	[130]
	W ₁₈ O ₄₉ NWs/CC	Solvothermal	$325 \text{ F} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$	3000	[131]
	W18O49 NWS/SCNTs	Solvothermal	$216 \text{ F} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$	6000	[132]
	W ₁₈ O ₄₉ NWs-rGO	Solvothermal	$365.5 \text{ F} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$	12,000	[133]
	W ₁₈ O ₄₉ NWs–PANI	Solvothermal	$440 \ {\rm F} \cdot {\rm g}^{-1}$	_	[145]
	W ₁₈ O ₄₉ NWs/rGO	Solvothermal	$92 \text{ mF} \cdot \text{cm}^{-2}$	4000	[146]
	W ₁₈ O ₄₉ NWs-rGO	Solvothermal	15.06 mF·cm ⁻²	_	[147]

and there is undoubtedly plenty of room for improvement. Meanwhile, there are practical challenges that must be overcome to meet the energy needs of the next-generation power systems, including long-term cycling stability, superior energy and power capabilities, high rate performance, low price, and environmental friendliness. Many important concerns have to be considered, and further improvements must be made in the expansion of future $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs-based materials for energy storage applications. Some prospects for further research of $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs in energy conversion and storage are presented.

Firstly, future research should focus on ultralong $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs. Ultralong $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs with lengths larger than 100 µm and diameters smaller than 10 nm exhibit many superior properties to those of short-length $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs. So developing new, low-cost, and environmentally friendly synthetic methods which are suitable for mass production of ultralong $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs is necessary. The growth mechanisms of $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs need to be further investigated; especially, the details of the growth mechanisms that occur during the synthesis of ultralong $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs are still elusive.

Secondly, the low energy density of $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs-based electrodes cannot meet the requirements of portable electronics. Therefore, further investigations should be aimed at improving their energy density. Besides, although numerous experiments have been conducted to understand the catalytic mechanism of $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs during the last decade, a universally accepted catalytic mechanism is desired to guide the design and applications of $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs.

Thirdly, $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs can be explored for promising multifunctional devices. The successful experiences of $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs applied in rechargeable batteries, capacitors, and electrochromic energy storage systems could be used for reference for fabricating new energy-related devices, such as photo-assisted rechargeable metal batteries and solar rechargeable batteries [148, 149].

Finally, large-scale production of $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs needs to be studied for practical applications. The development of $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs is just in the middle stage. The yield of $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs for scalable fabrication is still insufficient, and producing $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs with various structures is still costly. It is believed that the application of $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs would be further extended from a simple laboratory process to deviceoriented design and control. Therefore, environmentally friendly and low-cost preparative techniques for large-scale $W_{18}O_{49}$ NWs with high quality are urgently needed.

Acknowledgements Financial support from the National Natural Science Foundation (No. 22075151) of China, the Natural Science Foundation of Jiangxi (No. 20161BBE50095) and the project of Jiangxi Academy of Sciences (No. 2022YSBG21019 and No. 2023YJC2018) is gratefully acknowledged.

Data availability The data that support this study are available from the corresponding author, upon reasonable request.

Declarations

Conflict of interest The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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