

Review

Recent Advances in Synthesis and Applications of Carbon-Doped TiO₂ Nanomaterials

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Abstract: TiO₂ has been widely used as a photocatalyst and an electrode material toward the photodegradation of organic pollutants and electrochemical applications, respectively. However, the properties of TiO₂ are not enough up to meet practical needs because of its intrinsic disadvantages such as a wide bandgap and low conductivity. Incorporation of carbon into the TiO₂ lattice is a promising tool to overcome these limitations because carbon has metal-like conductivity, high separation efficiency of photogenerated electron/hole pairs, and strong visible-light absorption. This review would describe and discuss a variety of strategies to develop carbon-doped TiO₂ with enhanced photoelectrochemical performances in environmental, energy, and catalytic fields. Emphasis is given to highlight current techniques and recent progress in C-doped TiO₂-based materials. Meanwhile, how to tackle the challenges we are currently facing is also discussed. This understanding will allow the process to continue to evolve and provide facile and feasible techniques for the design and development of carbon-doped TiO₂ materials.

Keywords: carbon doping; TiO₂; pollutant degradation; electrochemical application; review

1. Introduction

Environmental pollution and energy crisis have been the most urgent issues in recent years [1–5]. Photocatalysis is a promising strategy to alleviate, and even work out these problems because it could efficiently decompose organic pollutants or produce chemical energy using semiconductors and renewable solar energy [5–7]. Titanium dioxide (TiO₂), as one kind of nontoxic, high stable, and low-cost materials, has received special interest in environmental, catalysis, and energy areas [8–11]. However, the photocatalytic efficiency of pure TiO₂ is not enough up to meet practical needs because of its wide bandgap (~3.2 eV), and the fast recombination of photoinduced charge pairs, leading to a considerable energy consumption, poor visible-light photocatalytic activity, and low quantum efficiency [9,12,13]. Therefore, how to significantly promote charge separation is of significance in meeting practical needs.

Tremendous efforts have been devoted to varying the morphology, structure, and chemical composition of TiO₂ by doping metal and/or nonmetal elements, surface sensitization, and coupling with narrow band-gap semiconductors [8,12–14]. Among these strategies, metal doped TiO₂ usually suffers from photocorrosion, poor stability, low doping amount, and no noticeable change in the band gap of TiO₂ [8,14–16], while TiO₂ is coupled with other semiconductors, the additional cost and undermined stabilization have also disadvantageous effects on the practical employment of TiO₂ composites [15]. Notably, non-metal doping has attracted much more interest of investigators than metal doping in improving the photoelectronic performances of TiO₂ and in shifting its absorption edge to the long wavelength region [13,14]. Especially, carbon doped TiO₂ manifests promising

advantages beyond other non-metal doping, which may be ascribed to following aspects [12,14,17–20]: (1) carbon holds metallic conductivity; (2) carbon serves as a trapping center and transport channel for photogenerated electrons, promoting separation efficiency of photoinduced electron/hole pairs; and (3) carbon can also act as a sensitizer to sensitize TiO₂ under visible light irradiation, thus aggregating a number of thermal energy, facilitating charge transfer from the bulk of TiO₂ into oxidation reaction sites, and further generating lots of active species. Notably, carbon is always indicated that it can be permeated to the lattice of TiO₂ so as to substitute a lattice O or Ti atom, and then form a Ti–C or C–O–Ti bond, which produces a hybrid orbital just above the valence band of TiO₂ and bestows a significant enhancement in visible-light driven photocatalytic activity. Therefore, coupling TiO₂ with carbon materials including activated carbon [21,22], carbon nanofibers [23,24], carbon nanotubes [25–27], carbon sphere [28,29], carbon dot [30,31], graphene [32–34], and carbon doping [8,9,14,35] have been widely investigated and proved to hold significant potential over other types of modification methods in environmental, energy, and biomedical fields.

Among carbon materials, carbon doping has been attracting special interest because the introduction of carbon atom causes an electron coupling effect between carbon and TiO₂ or introduces a localized occupied state into TiO₂ to narrow the bandgap of TiO₂ [8,9,14]. For example, Zegeye et al. [36] developed hybrid carbon-doped TiO₂/S composite as a positive electrode material for lithium-sulfur batteries, manifesting enhanced cycle stability and rate performance. Our groups designed and constructed several carbon-doped TiO₂-based materials such as C-doped TiO₂ hollow spheres [14], C-doped TiO₂ single-crystal nanorods [8], and hierarchical SiO₂@C-doped TiO₂ hollow spheres [9]. Further investigation found that the as-synthesized carbon-doped TiO₂ materials manifested superior photocatalytic performance toward the degradation of organic pollutants (RhB-, MB, MV, 4-NP, etc.).

In the past several years, many encouraging achievements have been exhibited in the research area of TiO₂-based materials. Especially, carbon-doped TiO₂ composites have attracted an increasing attention in environmental and energy science because they can exhibit sizeable potential superiorities as adsorbent, support, and sensitizer, promoting photogenerated electrons migrating to semiconductors [7,37]. In this review, we systematically summarize the currently available synthesis strategies and applications of carbon-doped TiO₂ materials. Notably, we further highlight recent progress in the design and construction of carbon-doped TiO₂ composites with a multifunctional nature. Finally, challenges and outlooks are outlined and discussed, identifying prospective areas for related research in this field.

2. Characterization Techniques for the Formation of Carbon Doping

2.1. XPS Analysis

Carbon-doped TiO₂ is that carbon element is incorporated into the lattice of TiO₂ by replacing some of the lattice titanium or oxygen atoms, forming Ti–O–C or Ti–C bond, respectively. Therefore, X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) measurement was widely used to obtain the information of Ti–O–C or Ti–C bond because XPS has a perfect match of its probe length (about 10 nm) to the size of particles, and exhibits its ability to probe the chemical identity of the elements present [38]. Therefore, the binding energy of C1s according to XPS analysis is considered as a solid evidence to confirm the formation of carbon doping [8,9,14,39–42], as shown in Table 1. This section focuses on addressing and discussing the difference of two chemical bonds (Ti–O–C or Ti–C band) as an evidence to distinguish whether carbon is incorporated into the lattice of TiO₂, adsorbed on the surface, or the interstitial position of the TiO₂ lattice.

Table 1. The C1s peak and typical synthetic method of C-doped TiO₂ materials.

Catalyst	C1s Peak	Synthesis Methods	Reference
Carbon@TiO ₂ hollow spheres	Ti–O–C bond	Template-directed method	[12]
Carbon-TiO ₂ nanotubes	Ti–O–C bond	Template-directed method	[13]
Carbon-doped TiO ₂ on TiC structure	Ti–O–C bond	TiC calcination	[15]
C-doped TiO ₂	Ti–O–C bond	Sol-microwave	[43]
Carbon-Doped TiO ₂ /MCF-F	Ti–O–C bond	Hydrothermal synthesis	[5]
TiO ₂ /NCQD composites	Ti–O–C bond	TiC calcination	[44]
Fe ₃ O ₄ @C@F-TiO ₂	Ti–O–C bond	Hydrothermal synthesis	[45]
Pd/TiO ₂ -C	Ti–O–C bond	Solvothermal synthesis	[46]
C-doped TiO ₂ nanoparticles	Ti–C bond	Hydrothermal synthesis	[47]
C-doped TiO ₂ @g-C ₃ N ₄ nanospheres	Ti–C bond	Hydrothermal synthesis	[48]
C-TiO ₂ modified g-C ₃ N ₄	Ti–C bond	TiC calcination	[49]
MC-Meso C-doped TiO ₂ /S	Ti–C bond	Hydrothermal synthesis	[36]
N & C doped TiO ₂ supported Pt	Ti–C bond	Hydrothermal synthesis	[50]
C-TiO ₂ /g-C ₃ N ₄ composite	Ti–C bond	TiC calcination	[51]
C–H–TiO ₂	Ti–C bond	TiC calcination	[40]
Carbon-doped TiO ₂ nanorods	Ti–C bond	Template-directed method	[8]
SiO ₂ @C-doped TiO ₂ hollow spheres	Ti–C bond	Template-directed method	[9]
C-doped Hollow TiO ₂	Ti–C bond	Template-directed method	[14]
C-doped porous TiO ₂	Ti–C bond	Template-directed method	[42]

2.1.1. The Existence of Ti–O–C Bond

XPS measurement was usually employed to obtain the chemical state and binding energy of carbon-doped or carbon-decorated TiO₂ composites, ascertaining fundamental information on the interaction between C dopant and TiO₂ [5,8,35,40,41,48,50–53]. When carbon is doped into the TiO₂ lattice by replacing the lattice titanium, the Ti–O–C bond can be observed in the C1s spectra, as shown in Figure 1. Therefore, many investigators believe that the existence of the Ti–O–C bond can be effective evidence for ascertaining carbon doping in their as-synthesized TiO₂-based materials [16,36,37]. For example, Qi et al. [5] prepared carbon-doped TiO₂/MCF-F composite according to the observation of Ti–O–C bonds in XPS spectra of C1s. Li et al. [54] reported a novel method for the preparation of carbon-doped TiO₂ composites according to the formation of the Ti–O–C bond located at 288.4 eV. Similarly, S. Ivanov and coworkers [55] insisted that the existence of the Ti–O–C structure could be used as evidence for confirming the formation of C-doped TiO₂. However, the existence of the Ti–O–C bond is not completely ascribed to the existence of carbon doping. In most cases, surface and/or interstitial amorphous carbonate dopants in the TiO₂ lattice also result in the formation of Ti–O–C [15,40,41] because carboxyl or oxygen-containing carbon in GO sheets exhibits strong covalent binding ability to TiO₂ [12,41,56], narrowing band-gap energy and prompting its visible light absorption. Accordingly, the existence of the Ti–O–C bond is not solid evidence for ascertaining carbon incorporated into TiO₂ lattice, but it might be considered as a result of specifically interstitial carbon doping. Undoubtedly, more convincing evidence is required for confirming the formation of carbon doping in the TiO₂ lattice [39,53].

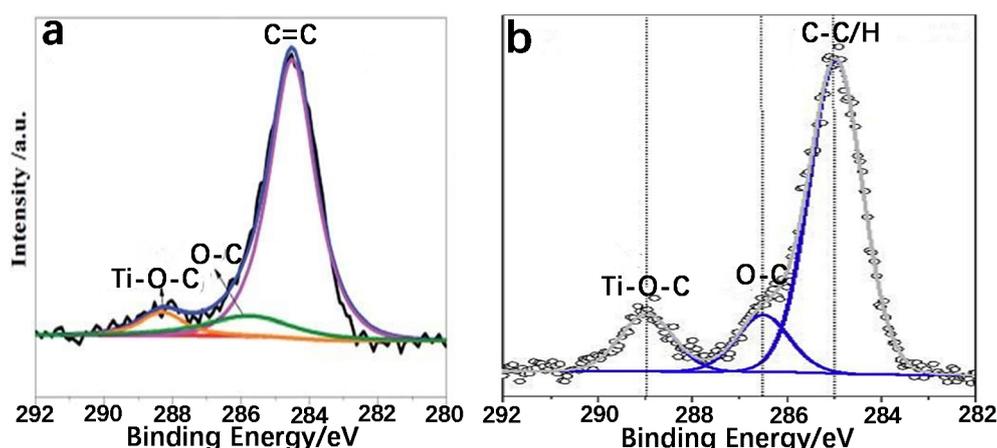


Figure 1. The existence of the Ti–O–C bond in XPS spectra of C1s (a) [54] and (b) [55].

2.1.2. The Existence of Ti–C Bond

When carbon is doped into the TiO₂ lattice by replacing lattice oxygen, Ti–C bond can be seen in the XPS spectra of C1s, as shown in Figure 2. It has been proved that the appearance of the Ti–C bond is considered as a solid evidence for confirming the formation of carbon doping in TiO₂-based materials [35,36,50]. For example, Dhanasekaran P. and coworkers ascertained the formation of carbon doped titanium oxide according to the peak at 282.7 eV (Ti–C bond) [50]. Recently, Wang et al. [35] successfully constructed carbon-doped TiO₂ nanotubes by referring the binding energy of 282.0 eV in the XPS spectra of C1s. Unlike Ti–O–C bond, the existence of Ti–C is the only result of carbon replacing oxygen in the TiO₂ lattice. Clearly, the existence of the Ti–C bond can be used as the most direct evidence for identifying the formation of carbon doping, as introduced in our previous workers [8,9,14,42]. Similarly, the absence of the Ti–C bond is considered as carbon decorated TiO₂ other than carbon doped TiO₂, suggesting that carbon species do not substitute oxygen species and dope into the TiO₂ lattice as reported in many publications [7,12,16,18,57–60].

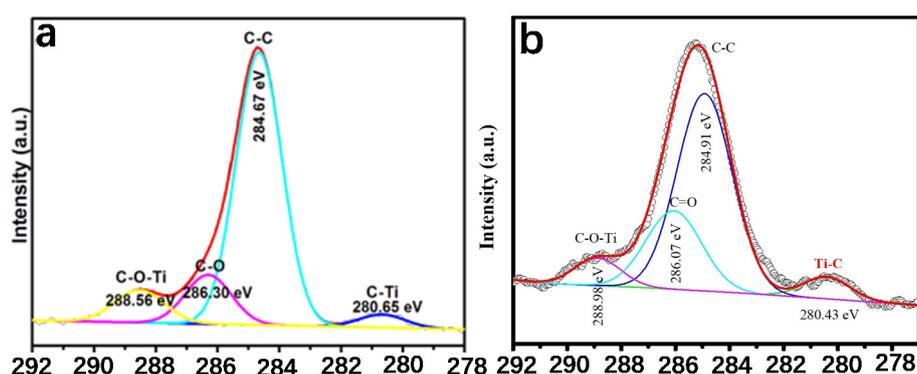


Figure 2. The existence of Ti–C bond in the XPS spectra of C1s (a) [14] and (b) [8].

2.2. EPR Analysis

Generally, electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) analysis was widely used to evaluate the formation of defect sites in carbon or other dopants doped TiO₂-based materials because EPR can characterize the unpaired electrons or paramagnetic centers [40,61,62]. If carbon doping was formed in the TiO₂ lattice, a stronger EPR signatable 1l at $g = 2.003 \pm 0.001$ was more able to be observed than that of pure TiO₂ or undoped TiO₂, which could be ascribed to the unpaired electron trapped on surface oxygen vacancies, proving that carbon element could be incorporated into the crystal lattice of TiO₂-based materials [40,61].

3. Strategies for the Synthesis of C-Doped TiO₂ Materials

Various strategies including hydrothermal technique, template strategy, thermal oxidation of TiC, and sol-gel process have been introduced to construct carbon-doped TiO₂ materials with enhanced photoelectrochemical performances [16,17], as shown in Table 1. This section would pay attention to the description and discussion of synthetic methods involved in developing C-doped TiO₂-based materials.

3.1. Hydrothermal Method

As a simple and mature method, the hydrothermal technique has been widely used to construct C-doped TiO₂ materials because the morphology and structure of products are easily controlled by changing hydrothermal conditions [36,39,40,63]. In a typical hydrothermal synthesis, TiO₂ precursor and carbon source are dispersed or dissolved in acidic or alkaline solution, and then the mixture is transferred into a Teflon-lined autoclave, sealed, and heated in an electric oven (100–180 °C), forming crystallized C-TiO₂ structure. Finally, C-doped TiO₂ is successfully synthesized by removing organic residues via calcination under an air atmosphere. For example, mesoporous C-doped TiO₂ was able to be prepared via one-pot hydrothermal synthesis using TiCl₄ and sucrose as TiO₂ precursor and carbon source, respectively [36]. Aragaw et al. [53] introduced the preparation of Sn-C codoped single crystal TiO₂, in which SnCl₄ and glucose were used as tin and carbon dopant precursors, respectively. Qi D and coworkers reported C-doped TiO₂/MCF-F photocatalyst using silica mesoporous cellular foam (MCF) as host material and glucose as carbon source. Recently, our group in situ constructed C-doped TiO₂ single-crystal nanorod using CPS@TiO₂ as TiO₂ precursor and carbon dopant source [8], this preparation process and morphology are more clearly illustrated in Figure 3.

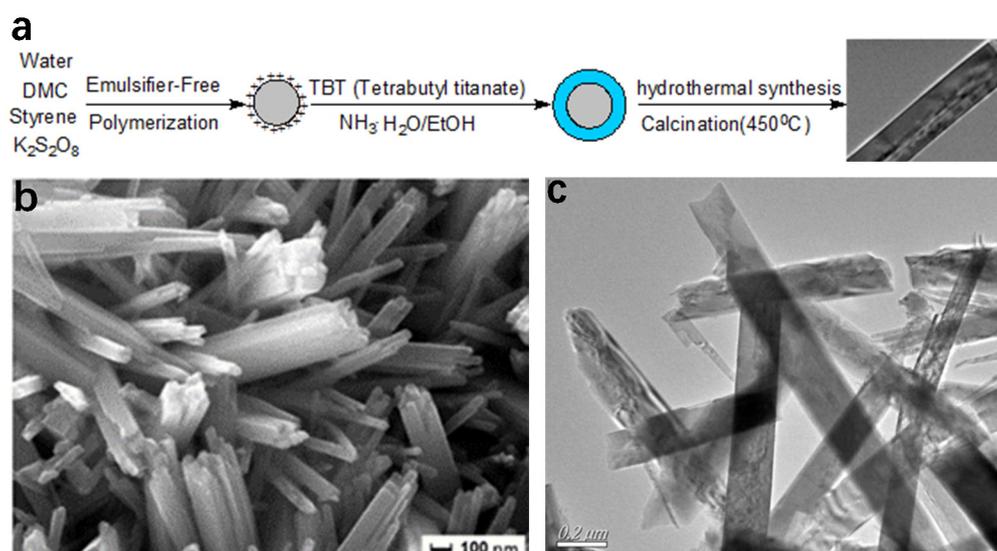


Figure 3. The demonstration (a), SEM (b), and TEM (c) of the C-TiO₂ single crystal nanorod. Reprinted with permission from Ref. [8].

In addition to being a one-pot and mature technique, hydrothermal method is advantageous in tuning the structure, morphology, and physical-chemical performances of final TiO₂ materials by changing TiO₂ precursor and hydrothermal conditions. Especially, hybrid functional TiO₂-based materials can be designed and constructed by adding other required species. Although the whole preparation process seems to be very simple, each step including the selection of the titanium dioxide precursor, hydrothermal condition, washing, and calcination presents a decisive role in tuning the morphology, structure, property, and yield of C-TiO₂ materials [63].

3.2. Template-Directed Method

Compared with solid/nonporous titanium dioxide nanoparticles, hollow/porous TiO₂ materials are more attractive because of a higher surface area and multiple interparticle scattering [14,64]. Precise control of the particle size, hollow/porous structure, and shell thickness of TiO₂ spheres has been a pursuing object because it is a key factor determining their properties [14]. In general, two main methods are introduced to prepare hollow TiO₂ spheres. One is template-free technique to construct hollow TiO₂ spheres via physical phenomenon [65]. Although the strategy can realize one-pot and large-scale production, a distinguished disadvantage is the concomitant production of TiO₂ spheres with an ill-shaped and fragile structure [13,14]. Another is the template-directed method that effectively tunes the shell and pore size of hollow TiO₂ spheres, overcoming the disadvantage of the template-free technique [14]. For example, Zou et al. [48] prepared C-doped hollow TiO₂ spheres using carbon sphere as a template. Matos and coworkers reported an easy and ecofriendly method to develop pristine anatase phase of C-doped TiO₂ using a biomass-derived molecule as a biotemplate [66]. Ji et al. [13] constructed C-doped TiO₂ nanotubes using surface-sulfonated polystyrene as a template through calcination. Our group introduced an in situ synthetic method for the development of hierarchical SiO₂@C-doped TiO₂ spheres with a uniform hollow structure using cationic polystyrene spheres as templates, as shown in Figure 4 [9], and then the facile strategy was further broadened to prepare various functionalized C-doped TiO₂ materials including C-doped hollow TiO₂ [14], C-doped porous TiO₂ [42], and C-doped TiO₂ single-crystal nanorods [8]. Although the template-directed method can develop various C-doped TiO₂ materials with a regular and tuned morphology at the nano- and/or microscale via controlling the structure of templates [63], its extensive applications may be limited because of the preparation cost and insufficient characterization of templates.

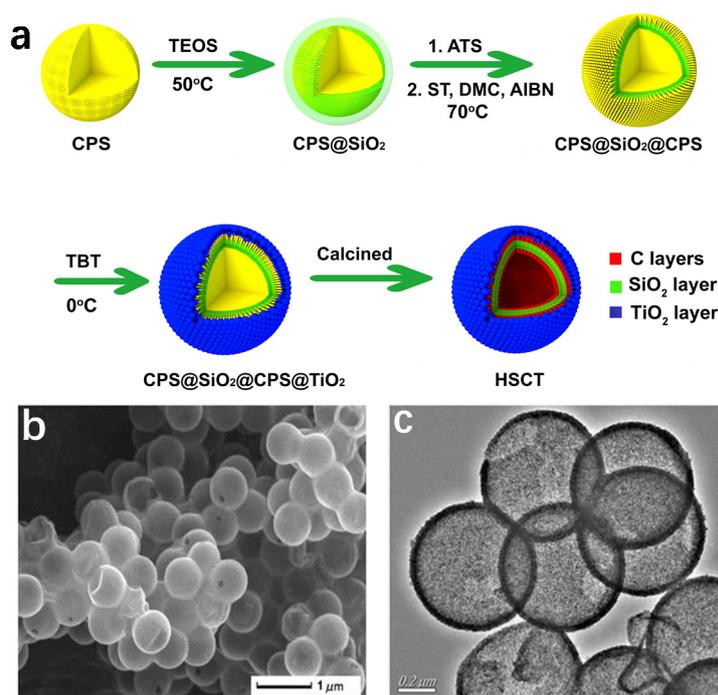


Figure 4. Preparation (a), SEM (b), and TEM (c) of the hierarchical SiO₂@C-doped TiO₂ spheres. Reprinted with permission from Ref. [9].

3.3. TiC Calcination

Titanium carbide (TiC) holds many fascinating properties including fast electron transfer, easy modification, and superior stabilization [15,44], making it more potential for the construction of C-doped TiO₂ materials via simple calcination because of its high visible-light absorption efficiency and

fast charge transfer. Yang et al. [15] prepared a C-doped layer on the TiC nanosphere with efficient visible light-photocatalytic H₂ production through in situ calcination of TiC. Figure 5 clearly demonstrated the preparation process, morphology, and structure of the as-synthesized porous C-doped TiO₂. Li et al. [54] reported C-doped TiO₂ multiple-phase composites exhibiting excellent ionic and electronic conductivity through the calcination of TiC at 600 °C for 10 h. Unfortunately, it is very difficult in preparing functionalized C-doped TiO₂ with controlled morphology, size, and hollow/porous structure via the calcination of TiC nanoparticle. Therefore, it is very necessary to combine other promising strategies for the development of C-doped TiO₂ materials with controllable structure and properties.

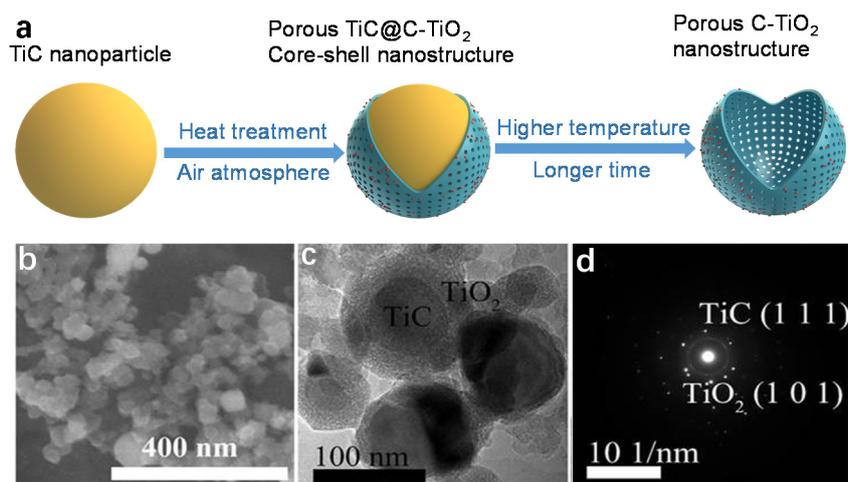


Figure 5. Preparation process (a), SEM (b), TEM (c), and SAED pattern (d) of porous C-TiO₂ nanostructure. Reprinted with permission from Ref. [15].

4. Application of C-Doped TiO₂ Materials

4.1. The Removal of Organic Pollutants

Exploiting effective strategies to remove organic pollutants in wastewater is very necessary according to environmental safety regulations due to increasing concerns about drinking water safety [67,68]. Photocatalysis has been considered as a promising way to remove organic contaminants including refractory organic pollutants by using solar energy because it can mineralize various organic pollutants to produce CO₂, H₂O, and other harmless small molecules. It is well known that pure TiO₂ holds poor visible-light absorption, low quantum yield, and undesired recombination of photogenerated charges. Notably, C-doped TiO₂ not only can effectively promote charge separation, but also can shift the optical response of TiO₂ from UV to visible spectral region, leading to an enhanced photocatalytic performance for the removal of various organic pollutants (Table 2) [8,9,39,69]. For example, Ji et al. [13] reported that C-doped TiO₂ nanotubes demonstrated much better photocatalytic activity toward the degradation of UDMH than bare TiO₂ under UV and visible light, as shown in Figure 6. Figure 6c demonstrated its photodegradation mechanism: under light irradiation, photogenerated electrons transferred more efficiently to conduction band of TiO₂ because carbon in the carbon-TiO₂ nanotubes could act as an electron trap, inhibiting charge recombination [70,71]. Furthermore, carbon also could improve adsorption of pollutant molecules, promoting photocatalytic performance because adsorption was normally the first step in photocatalysis [67,72].

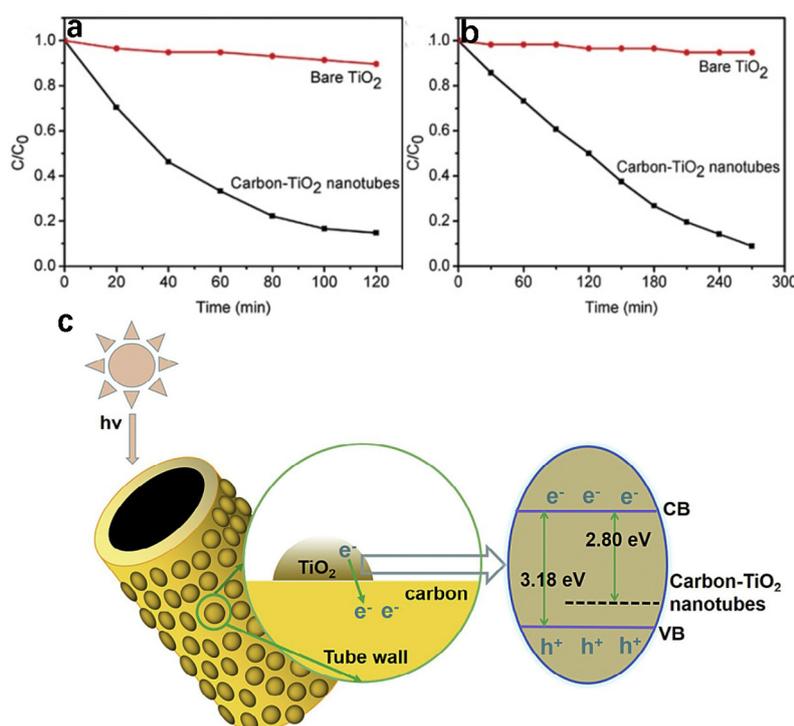


Figure 6. Photocatalytic degradation of UDMH solution by the carbon-TiO₂ nanotubes and bare TiO₂ under UV light (a), visible light (b), and photocatalytic mechanism (c). Reprinted with permission from Ref. [13].

Yu et al. [39] found that C-doped TiO₂ encapsulated with nano-sized graphene manifested superior visible-light performance for phenol degradation than those of anatase TiO₂, P25, and bare C-doped TiO₂. Zhang et al. [5] confirmed that C-doped TiO₂/MCFF exhibited good adsorptive ability and visible-light photocatalytic performance for degrading methyl orange. Our previous works also ascertained that C-doped TiO₂-based materials manifested stronger visible-light performances toward the removal of various contaminants including rhodamine B (RhB), methylene blue (MB), and p-nitrophenol [8,9,14]. The enhanced photocatalytic performance may be attributed to the synergistic effect between C-doping and TiO₂, in which carbon can generate electrons under visible light illumination, and then photoelectrons would be transferred to the conduction band of TiO₂, improving its efficient light harvesting and photocatalytic activity [17,73,74]. It should be pointed out that the porous/hollow structure of photocatalysts is very beneficial to increase the surface area of photocatalyst and promote the contact probability of catalyst and substrate by decreasing diffusion limitation [9,14,75], which leads to better photocatalytic degradation of organic pollutants.

Table 2. The photocatalytic performance of C-doped TiO₂ materials toward the degradation of organic pollutants.

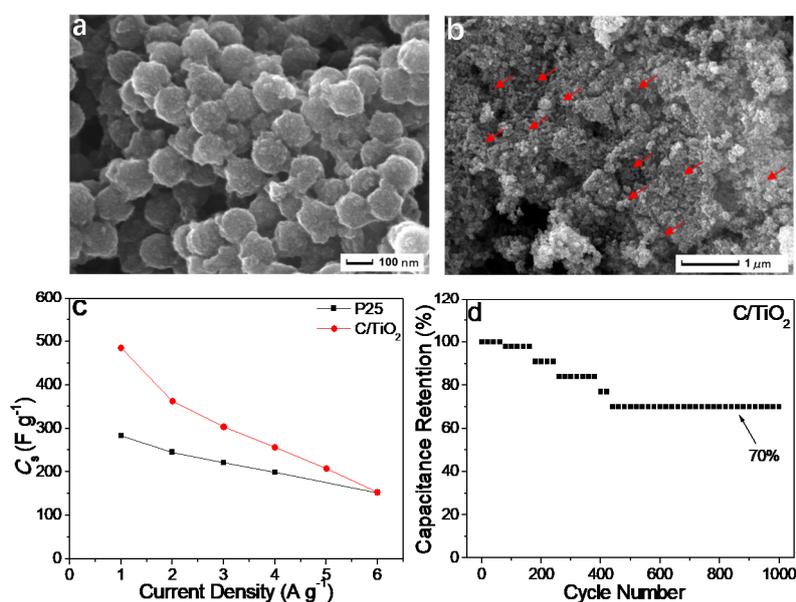
Catalyst	Pollutants	Degradation Rate	Enhanced Performance	Reference
Carbon-TiO ₂ nanotubes	Unsymmetrical dimethylhydrazine	90%	10% for bare TiO ₂	[13]
Mesoporous C-TiO ₂	Methylthionine chloride	100%	Improve 10 times than P25	[75]
C-doped anatase TiO ₂	Methylene blue	90%	3.7 times higher than TiO ₂	[66]
C-doped ultra-small TiO ₂	Toluene	85%	Less than 60% for bare USTiO ₂	[76]
C-doped TiO ₂ /α-Fe ₂ O ₃ heterojunction	Bisphenol A	79%	2.7 times higher than pristine TiO ₂	[77]
C-doped TiO ₂ /anatase (A)/rutile (R)	Nonylphenol	41%	8% for undoped TiO ₂	[78]
C/N-doped TiO ₂	Microplastics (MPs)	71.77 ± 1.88%	Combined effect of pH and temperature driving the photodegradation of MPs	[79]
C-TiO ₂	Rhodamine B	83.3% (75 min)	Around 15.0% higher than that of P-25	[80]
Carbon doping and coating of TiO ₂	Methylene blue	85%	5 times higher than pristine TiO ₂	[81]
Carbon-doped TiO ₂	Caffeic Acid	92%	High adsorption and degradation	[82]
N/C co-doped TiO ₂	Fluoroquinolone antibiotics (LEV)	95.7%	No visible light activity for Degussa P25	[83]
S, N and C doped mesoporous anatase brookite TiO ₂	Microcystic toxins	100%	12.2% for un-doped TiO ₂	[84]
TiO ₂ @C microspheres	Congo red	94%	2.7 times higher than N-TiO ₂	[16]
Carbon-doped TiO ₂ film	Methyl ethyl ketone	94%	41% for P25	[85]

4.2. Electrochemical Application

A variety of experiments have been proved that TiO₂ is a very promising electrode material for electrochemical applications due to its low cost, ideal capacitive response, and good cyclic stability [42,86–88], however, TiO₂ has many disadvantages including low conductivity, fast charge recombination, and high photochemical stability, leading to a poor electrochemical performance [48,55,89,90]. The introduction of carbon doping is a potential tool to efficiently improve the electrical conductivity of TiO₂-based materials because carbon holds good corrosion resistance, cyclic stability, and a long service lifetime during charge/discharge processes [58,86,87], as shown in Table 3. Shen et al. [86] found that hierarchical carbon-doped TiO₂ beads featured higher electronic conductivity than P25 and anatase TiO₂ beads. Our previous work also demonstrated that C-doped porous TiO₂ electrodes [42] increased ion diffusion channels and accelerated ion transfer, leading to an enhanced electrochemical performance, as shown in Figure 7. Notably, mesoporous/hollow electrode materials can exhibit high accessible area and ionic transport [11,36,42,58], resulting in enhanced electrochemical performances. Besides, the synergistic effect of multicomponent materials is of significance in promoting the electrochemical properties of carbon-doped TiO₂ [50,56,91,92].

Table 3. The photocatalytic performance of C-doped TiO₂ materials toward the degradation of organic pollutants.

Electrode Materials	Application Fields	Advantage	Comparative Performance	Stability	Reference
MC-Meso C-doped TiO ₂ /S	Lithium-sulfur batteries	802 mAh g ⁻¹	530 mAh g ⁻¹ for mesoporous C-doped TiO ₂ /S	97.1% after 140 cycles	[36]
N&C doped TiO ₂ supported Pt	Fuel cells	980 mW cm ⁻²	470 mW cm ⁻² for Pt/TiON-1	Durability test over 50,000 cycles	[50]
Si/TiO ₂ -CC composite	Lithium-ion battery	3.21 mAh cm ⁻²	More excellent areal capacity than other silicon composite anodes	Maintain 94.5% after 100 cycles	[92]
Carbon-Doped TiO ₂ -Bronze Nanowires	Lithium-ion Batteries	345 mAh g ⁻¹	342 mAh g ⁻¹ for TB-NWs	Maintain 89% after 1000 cycles	[93]
TiO ₂ @C nanosheets	Na-ion batteries	264.9 mAh g ⁻¹	170.8 mAh g ⁻¹ for pure carbon	After 100 cycles at 100 mA g ⁻¹	[11]
S/C co-doped anatase	Lithium ion storage	210 mAh g ⁻¹	Better electrochemical performance than non-doped TiO ₂	83% capacity retention for 500 cycles	[56]
C-doped Hollow TiO ₂	Supercapacitor	418 F g ⁻¹	283 F g ⁻¹ for P25	78.1% capacity retention for 10,000 cycles	[94]
C-doped porous TiO ₂	Supercapacitor	485 F g ⁻¹	283 F g ⁻¹ for P25	~70% capacity retention for 1000 cycles	[42]

**Figure 7.** SEM (a,b) images of C-doped porous TiO₂ electrodes, (c) comparative specific capacitances, and (d) cycling performance over 1000 cycles. Reprinted with permission from Ref. [42].

5. Summary and Outlook

Although carbon doping can efficiently enhance photoelectrochemical properties of TiO₂, it is still a very challenging task in obtaining a high doping amount of carbon in the TiO₂ lattice because C-doped TiO₂ is probably more difficult to be prepared than other non-metal doping [16], especially for

single crystal or single-crystal-like TiO₂ due to its high crystallinity [8,91], which hinders its further applications in environmental, energy, and catalytic fields. Co-doping with two or more dopants is a promising way to further enhance the properties of TiO₂ compared to their single doped or undoped TiO₂ counterparts due to a strong synergistic effect between these codopants within the TiO₂ matrix [53,95,96]. Zegeye et al. [36] reported that MC-Meso C-dopedTiO₂/S showed the best cycling stability and enhanced electrochemical property for lithium-sulfur batteries. Zhou et al. [7] found that In₂O₃ and carbon codoped TiO₂ could oxidize Hg⁰ and manifested higher visible-light photoactivity compared with P25. Our previous works showed that C/N-TiO₂ hollow sphere [95] and C/Bi-TiO₂ single crystal nanorod [97] both exhibited an enhanced photocatalytic performance toward the removal of refractory organic pollutants. Unfortunately, it is extremely difficult in figuring out the contribution of carbon doping in codoped TiO₂-based materials. On the other hand, how to obtain uniform dispersion of carbon doping in the TiO₂ lattice also remains a big challenge [86]. Therefore, it is envisioned that future research will provide new insights in optimizing existing strategies and developing new techniques, which better construct C-doped TiO₂ materials with a high doping amount and controlled distribution of carbon.

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