



Integration of $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2/\text{TiO}_2$ and spinel high-entropy oxide: A novel strategy for enhancing lithium-ion battery performance

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ABSTRACT

High entropy oxides (HEOs) exhibit stable thermochemical properties, superior mechanical characteristics, and favorable electrical and optical properties that are particularly significant for application in lithium-ion batteries (LIBs). The chemical composition of HEOs is tunable, enabling an exploration of a wide array of elemental combinations for the development of novel electrode materials. In this study, HEO@ $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2/\text{TiO}_2$ nanofibers (HEO@ $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2/\text{TiO}_2$ NFs) based on a spinel-structured HEO ($(\text{MnCoNiCuZnFe})_3\text{O}_4$) were designed and synthesized via an electrostatic spinning process. The resultant HEO and $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2/\text{TiO}_2$ three-dimensional conductive network exhibited a significant enhancement of the charge transfer efficiency, which plays an important role in the LIB cycling process. *In situ* X-ray diffraction (XRD) analysis has confirmed that the spinel lattice was stable during cycling, which is attributed to an interfacial synergistic effect that facilitates reversible lithium storage.

1. Introduction

Global warming and the overconsumption of fossil fuels have significantly increased the level of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere. The consequent environmental impact and energy issues represent a serious challenge, which has driven the demand for sustainable energy solutions. In this context, the development of efficient energy storage technologies (e.g., lithium-ion batteries (LIBs), supercapacitors, and electrocatalytic systems) is crucial to achieving carbon neutrality [1–3]. Rechargeable LIBs have an important role to play in the development of clean energy networks [4,5]. In order to address the current capacity bottleneck, researchers have focused on silicon-based alloy materials and transition metal oxides (TMOs) [6–11]. Although these materials offer significant theoretical advantages, the marked volume expansion (~300% for Si) during lithiation leads to solid electrolyte interface (SEI) membrane rupture and electrode pulverization, which severely impairs cycling stability. Nanostructured designs are effective in relieving mechanical stress by building an internal buffer space that enhances interfacial stability. Electrostatic spinning technology has emerged as the preferred method for the preparation of high-performance nanofiber electrodes, enabling a precise tuning of morphology (fiber diameter = 10 nm–2 μm), with low environmental impact, and feasible scale-up

[12–15].

High entropy oxides (HEOs), as an emerging multicomponent material system, exhibit an entropy stabilization effect ($\Delta S_{\text{config}} \geq 1.5R$) involving more than five metal elements. The associated single-phase solid solution structure endows the material with high mechanical strength and slow kinetic decay, where the multiple redox active sites contribute to an ultra-high theoretical capacity [16–19]. Shin et al. prepared an HEO using a one-step combustion synthesis strategy with a precisely tuned ratio of fuel to oxidant. Application of the resultant HEO as a LIB anode generated a specific capacity of 791 mAh g^{-1} at a high current density (3 A g^{-1}) [20]. Triolo et al. developed $(\text{Mn}_{0.2}\text{Fe}_{0.2}\text{Co}_{0.2}\text{Ni}_{0.2}\text{Zn}_{0.2})_3\text{O}_4$ nanofibers that retained a capacity of 155 mAh g^{-1} after 550 cycles at 0.5 A g^{-1} [21]. In addition, Wang et al. designed a hollow porous $(\text{NiCoCuFeMg})_3\text{O}_4$ that delivered 100% capacity retention at 2 A g^{-1} for 300 cycles [22]. However, the intrinsic low conductivity and limited active site utilization serve to severely limit HEO multiplicity performance and long cycle life [23–27].

The charge transfer kinetics can be modified by combining HEOs with highly conductive substrates in composite materials. Two-dimensional transition metal carbides (MXene) show significant advantages in this respect due to their unique layered structure, ultra-high conductivity and functionalized surfaces [28–30]. Tian et al. have

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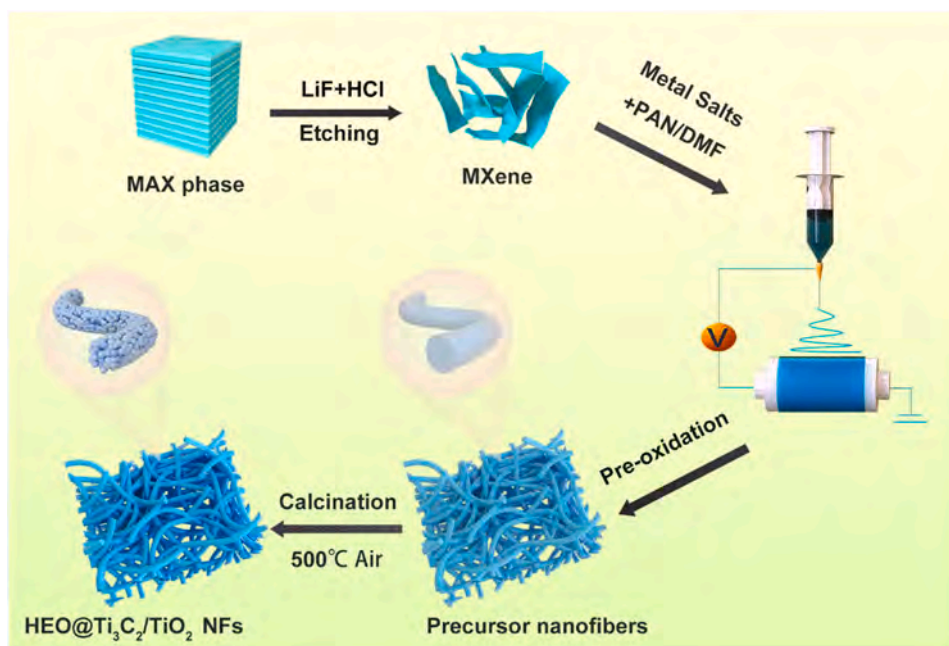


Fig. 1. Schematic representation of the multistep preparation of HEO@Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ nanocomposites.

proposed a novel synergistic strategy involving an *in situ* anchoring of barium titanate ferroelectric nanoparticles on few-layer Ti₃C₂ nanosheets by hydrothermal treatment, where the resulting composites

exhibited superior cycling and multiplicative properties [31]. Moreover, Yang and co-workers have successfully anchored tin-based metal-organic frameworks (Sn-MOFs) in a uniform arrangement on the surface

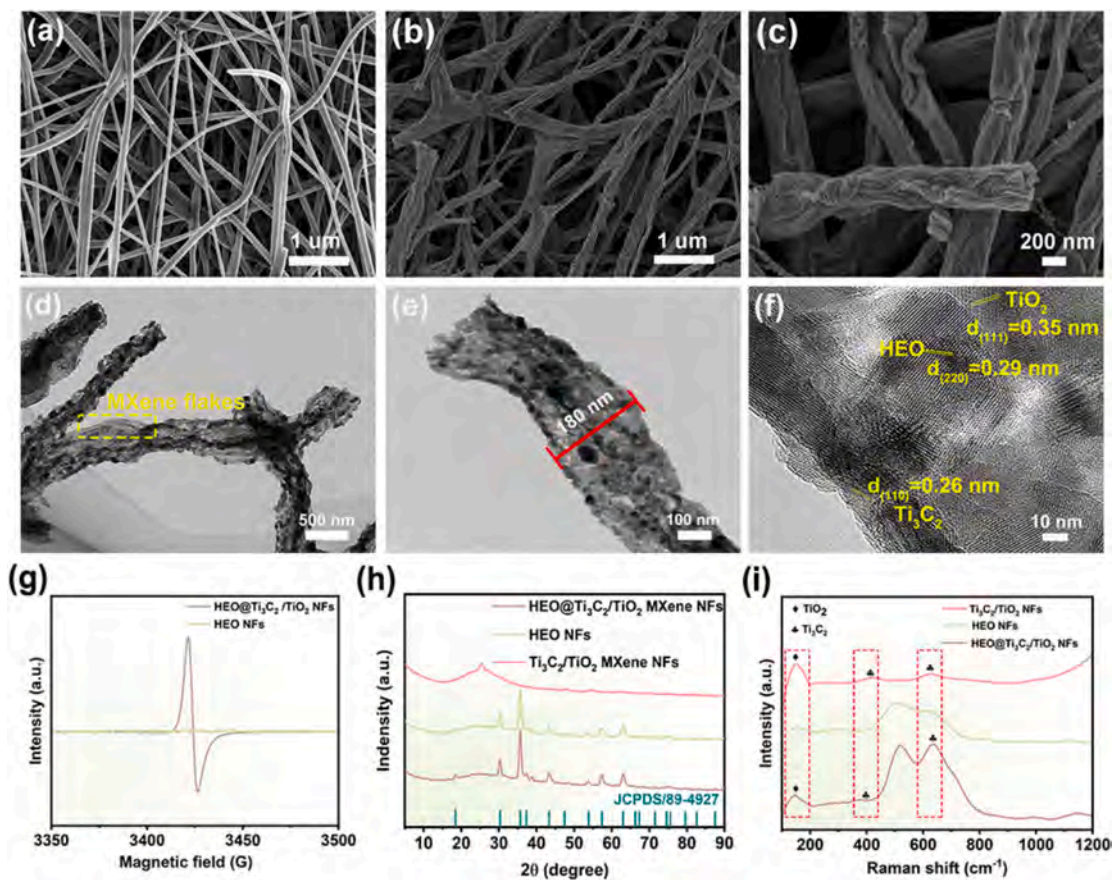


Fig. 2. (a-c) SEM images of HEO@Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs; (d-e) TEM images of HEO@Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs; (f) HR-TEM image of HEO@Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs; (g) EPR spectra of HEO@Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs and HEO NFs; (h) XRD patterns of HEO@Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs, HEO NFs, and Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs; (i) Raman scattering spectra of HEO@Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs, HEO NFs, and Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs.

of MXene nanosheets [32]. A low-temperature *in-situ* growth synthesis was utilized to construct a stable structure for ultrafast Li-ion storage. Based on the literature, a composite of HEO with $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2/\text{TiO}_2$ should enhance the electrochemical performance of HEOs.

The goal of achieving a strong coupling of HEO with MXene through controlled interfacial engineering that can promote and synergistically optimize the conductive network while ensuring structural stability represents a major research challenge. Currently, studies dealing with the combination of highly conductive substrates with HEOs are limited. There is a clear demand for in-depth theoretical analysis, comprehensive experimental measurements, and the development of innovative research methods.

In this study, a high entropy design strategy has been employed, where six major elements (Mn, Co, Ni, Cu, Zn and Fe) were selected to maximize the conformational entropy. Inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectroscopy (ICP-OES) (Table S1) and configuration entropy (Eq. (S1)) analyses have confirmed a maximum entropy value of $\Delta S_{\text{config}} = 1.79R$, which contributes to the successful synthesis of spinel structure. As illustrated in Fig. 1, the proposed synthesis protocol integrates an electrostatic spinning process, establishing a novel pathway for fabricating HEO/MXene composites. The preparation of ultrathin Ti_3C_2 MXene flakes has involved a selective etching and delamination of the Ti_3AlC_2 MAX phase precursor. In a *N,N*-dimethylformamide (DMF) solution, the hydroxyl (-OH) and fluorine (-F) functional groups on the MXene surface formed stable complexes with metal salts *via* electrostatic interactions. Hydrogen bonding between MXene and polyacrylonitrile (PAN) polymer chains ensured molecular-level homogenization of the metal salts and MXene in the electrospinning solution. Under an applied electric field, these components synergistically self-assembled into continuous nanofiber precursors. In a pre-oxidation at 250 °C, PAN underwent cyclization and dehydrogenation to form a trapezoidal carbon skeleton, ensuring structural integrity in subsequent high-temperature processing. Calcination at 500 °C promoted the crystallization of metal salts into HEO nanoparticles with concomitant PAN decomposition. Partial surface oxidation of MXene generated TiO_2 , facilitating an *in situ* construction of heterointerfaces where HEO nanoparticles were firmly anchored to MXene *via* robust chemical bonds and were partially embedded in the nanofibers. This configuration establishes a strong interfacial coupling that effectively suppresses nanoparticle agglomeration while enhancing structural stability. The ultrathin $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2/\text{TiO}_2$ layers were intricately interwoven within the nanofiber matrix, forming continuous conductive pathways that, in conjunction with the HEO nanoparticles, markedly reduced charge transfer resistance. The synergistic anchoring and embedding of HEO nanoparticles result in compositional homogeneity, strong interfacial bonding, and overall structural integrity. The fabricated HEO@ $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2/\text{TiO}_2$ NFs electrode delivered superior electrochemical performance, retaining a specific capacity of 305.9 mAh g^{-1} after 1000 cycles at a current density of 2 A g^{-1} .

2. Results and discussion

The field-emission scanning electron microscopy (FE-SEM) image of Ti_3AlC_2 , shown in Fig. S1a, reveals a flake-like morphology. The layered structure of Ti_3C_2 flakes following etching Ti_3AlC_2 with lithium fluoride and hydrofluoric acid is shown in Fig. S1b. The formation of TiO_2 on the Ti_3C_2 flakes after calcination at 500 °C in air is demonstrated in Fig. S1c, where MXene retains a nanosheet structure. The influence of the MXene lamellar structure on the nanofibers was assessed in a systematic investigation directed at optimizing MXene addition to achieve a homogeneous nanofiber morphology. As shown in Fig. S2, the addition of 1 mL Ti_3C_2 resulted in appreciable nanofiber morphological inhomogeneity. Increasing the addition to 3 mL led to extensive fiber aggregation. In repeated synthesis and analyses, a 2 mL Ti_3C_2 addition was determined as optimal, producing HEO@ $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2/\text{TiO}_2$ NFs with the targeted morphological characteristics.

Detailed structural characterization of the HEO@ $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2/\text{TiO}_2$ NFs is presented in Fig. 2. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) was employed to determine the morphology of the as-synthesized precursor fibers and the nanofibers following calcination at 500 °C. The HEO@ $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2/\text{TiO}_2$ NFs precursor exhibits a uniformly smooth surface (Fig. 2a). The morphology of the HEO@ $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2/\text{TiO}_2$ NFs after calcination at 500 °C is shown in Fig. 2b-c. Metal salt crystallization to form HEO accompanied by PAN decomposition resulted in a weight loss of 86.14% (Fig. S3). The partial oxidation of the MXene surface led to an *in-situ* formation of TiO_2 and the generation of a heterojunction interface. In this process, HEO nanoparticles were uniformly anchored on the surface of $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2/\text{TiO}_2$ and partially embedded in the fibers, forming a strong interfacial coupling that effectively inhibited aggregation and enhanced structural stability.

Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) was utilized to further characterize the nanostructure and chemical composition of the HEO@ $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2/\text{TiO}_2$ NFs composite. The TEM image presented in Fig. 2d shows the distribution of HEO nanoparticles and $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2/\text{TiO}_2$ nanosheets. The TEM image given in Fig. 2e reveals the presence of nanofibers with an average diameter of approximately 180 nm, which are rich in HEO nanocrystals. The selected-area electron diffraction (SAED) pattern (Fig. S4) presents diffraction rings that correspond solely to the spinel structure of HEO.

The high-resolution TEM (HRTEM) image in Fig. 2f exhibits clear lattice fringes with spacings of approximately 0.29, 0.35, and 0.26 nm that can be attributed to the (220) plane of HEO, the (111) plane of TiO_2 , and the (110) plane of Ti_3C_2 , respectively. The uniform distribution of metals was confirmed by the corresponding energy-dispersive spectroscopy (EDS) mappings (Fig. S5). Collectively, these characterization measurements have established the effective integration of HEO and $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2/\text{TiO}_2$ nanosheets within the nanofibers. In addition, a detailed structural characterization of pure HEO NFs and $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2/\text{TiO}_2$ NFs was conducted, as shown in Figs. S6 and S7. The pure HEO NFs exhibited fragmented fiber structures and typical spinel lattices. The TEM analysis has revealed that the HEO NFs exhibited an average diameter of approximately 130 nm with evidence of abundant HEO nanoparticles (Fig. S6d). The HRTEM image (Fig. S6e), SAED pattern (Fig. S6f), and EDS mappings (Fig. S6g) confirmed an HEO NFs spinel structure with the homogeneous distribution of multiple major elements. The $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2/\text{TiO}_2$ NFs are characterized by a curved fiber morphology (Fig. S7a), with an average diameter of approximately 250 nm as determined by TEM (Fig. S7b). The HRTEM image (Fig. S7c) showed lattice spacings corresponding to the (111) plane of TiO_2 and the (110) plane of Ti_3C_2 . The corresponding SAED pattern (Fig. S7d) was indexed to the diffraction rings of Ti_3C_2 and TiO_2 . Moreover, EDS mappings (Fig. S7e) confirmed the uniform distribution of multiple major elements associated with $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2/\text{TiO}_2$ NFs.

When compared with the pure HEO NFs, the HEO@ $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2/\text{TiO}_2$ NFs exhibited larger particle sizes and curved morphologies, confirming the successful combination of HEO and $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2/\text{TiO}_2$ nanosheets. Analysis of the N_2 adsorption-desorption isotherms (Fig. S8a) has established a specific surface area of 36.88 $\text{m}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$ for HEO@ $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2/\text{TiO}_2$ NFs, significantly higher than that (25.71 $\text{m}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$, Fig. S8b) recorded for pure HEO NFs. The higher specific surface area of HEO@ $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2/\text{TiO}_2$ NFs serves to enhance the exposure of active sites with improved interfacial reaction kinetics. Electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) spectroscopy was employed to evaluate oxygen vacancy concentrations. The characteristic signal at $g = 2.003$ corresponds to unpaired electrons trapped by oxygen vacancies, where the intensity is positively correlated with oxygen vacancy concentration [23]. As shown in Fig. 2g, the EPR signal intensity of HEO@ $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2/\text{TiO}_2$ NFs was significantly higher than that of HEO NFs, indicating that the introduction of MXene induced the formation of oxygen vacancies, promoting interfacial charge transfer with enhanced charge transfer kinetics.

X-ray diffraction (XRD) measurements were conducted on the Ti_3AlC_2 MAX phase and the etched Ti_3C_2 MXene, as illustrated in Fig. S9a. The XRD pattern of Ti_3C_2 MXene exhibits a prominent

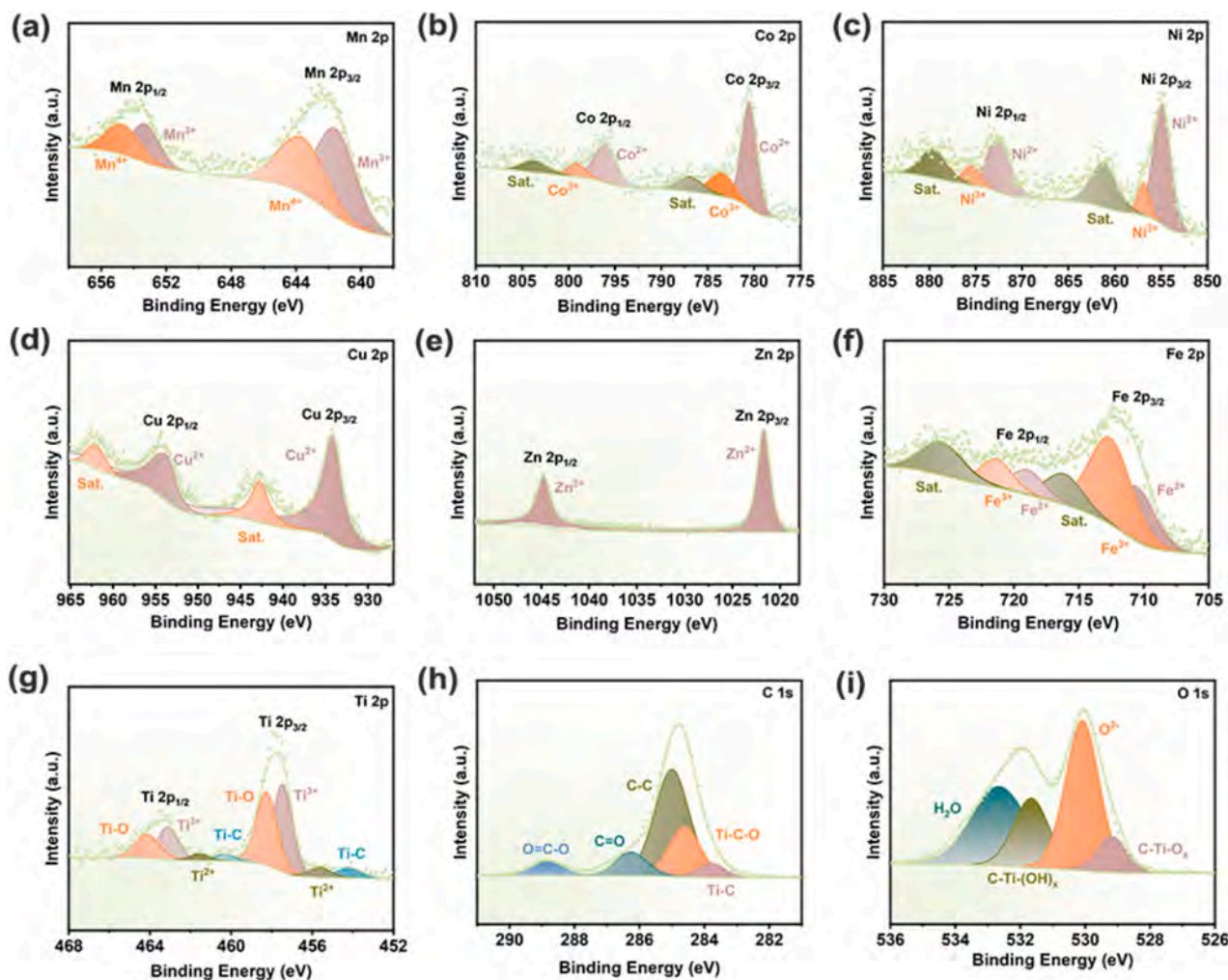


Fig. 3. XPS (a) Mn 2p, (b) Co 2p, (c) Ni 2p, (d) Cu 2p, (e) Zn 2p, (f) Fe 2p, (g) Ti 2p, (h) C 1s, and (i) O 1s spectra of HEO@Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs.

characteristic peak at $2\theta = 6.8^\circ$ corresponding to the (002) crystal plane. This peak originates from the layered structure stabilized by weak interlayer van der Waals forces, confirming the successful synthesis of Ti₃C₂ MXene. Following calcination in air, the appearance of a peak at $2\theta = 25.2^\circ$ is associated with the (101) crystal plane of TiO₂. Concurrently, the intensity of the peak due to the (002) decreased significantly. These results suggest that during calcination, the surface oxidation of Ti₃C₂ leads to the formation of a TiO₂ layer, where the original lamellar structure is maintained. This observation provides valuable insight into the structural evolution of Ti₃C₂ MXene during thermal treatment [33].

The XRD patterns of HEO@Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs, HEO NFs, and Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs are presented in Fig. 2h. All three samples exhibit the presence of minor carbon residues. The XRD patterns of HEO and HEO@Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs are consistent with a NiFe₂O₄ (JCPDS 89-4927) spinel structure. The six constituent (Mn, Co, Ni, Cu, Zn and Fe) ions occupy the spinel lattice (Fd-3m) to form a stable structure. The diffraction peaks at 18.41° , 30.28° , 35.69° , 37.35° , 43.34° , 53.84° , 57.42° , and 63.08° can be indexed to the (111), (220), (311), (222), (400), (422), (511), and (440) planes of the spinel. In the XRD pattern of Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs, only the characteristic peak for TiO₂ at $2\theta = 25.2^\circ$ is detected, and the signal due to the (002) crystal plane of Ti₃C₂ is not observed. As the MXene content is relatively low, following oxidation during calcination, the peak intensity may fall below the detection limit. In addition, coverage of the MXene surface by residual carbon and HEO nanoparticles may interfere with XRD detection of the weak signal associated with the (002) crystal plane. The EDS measurement of Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs (Fig. S9b)

further supports the above analysis in terms of elemental distribution.

In the Raman scattering spectrum (Fig. 2i), the peaks at 415 cm^{-1} and 625 cm^{-1} correspond to the vibrational modes of Ti₃C₂, whereas the peak at 150 cm^{-1} is attributed to TiO₂ [26,34–36]. In the case of HEO NFs, the wavenumbers in the $400\text{--}700\text{ cm}^{-1}$ range converge in a broad peak associated with the lattice asymmetry and cation disorder of the high-entropy spinel [37–40]. The Raman spectrum of HEO@Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs exhibits the vibrational modes of MXene and the HEO phase, confirming the successful fabrication of the composite.

The entries in Fig. S10 reveal the presence of nine elements in the composite. The Mn 2p XPS spectrum (Fig. 3a) exhibits peaks at 641.97 and 653.24 eV corresponding to Mn³⁺ 2p_{3/2} and Mn³⁺ 2p_{1/2}, whereas the peaks at 644.65 and 654.82 eV are associated with Mn⁴⁺ 2p_{3/2} and Mn⁴⁺ 2p_{1/2}, respectively [41,42]. In the Co 2p spectrum (Fig. 3b), peaks due to Co²⁺ 2p_{3/2} (780.52 eV), Co²⁺ 2p_{1/2} (796.12 eV), Co³⁺ 2p_{3/2} (783.48 eV), and Co³⁺ 2p_{1/2} (799.28 eV) are observed in addition to the corresponding satellite peaks at 786.94 and 803.4 eV [43]. The Ni 2p spectrum (Fig. 3c) exhibits peaks attributed to Ni²⁺ 2p_{3/2} (854.87 eV), Ni²⁺ 2p_{1/2} (872.50 eV), Ni³⁺ 2p_{3/2} (856.90 eV), and Ni³⁺ 2p_{1/2} (875.32 eV) in addition to satellite peaks at 861.28 and 879.56 eV [43,44]. The Cu 2p spectrum (Fig. 3d) shows peaks for Cu²⁺ 2p_{3/2} (932.82 eV) and Cu²⁺ 2p_{1/2} (952.64 eV) with satellite peaks at 942.76 and 962.28 eV [45]. In the Zn 2p spectrum (Fig. 3e), the peaks at 1021.48 and 1044.62 eV correspond to Zn²⁺ 2p_{3/2} and Zn²⁺ 2p_{1/2}, respectively. The Fe 2p spectrum (Fig. 3f) shows peaks at 710.52 and 718.95 eV for Fe²⁺ 2p_{3/2} and Fe²⁺ 2p_{1/2}, peaks at 712.62 and 721.35 eV for Fe³⁺ 2p_{3/2} and Fe³⁺

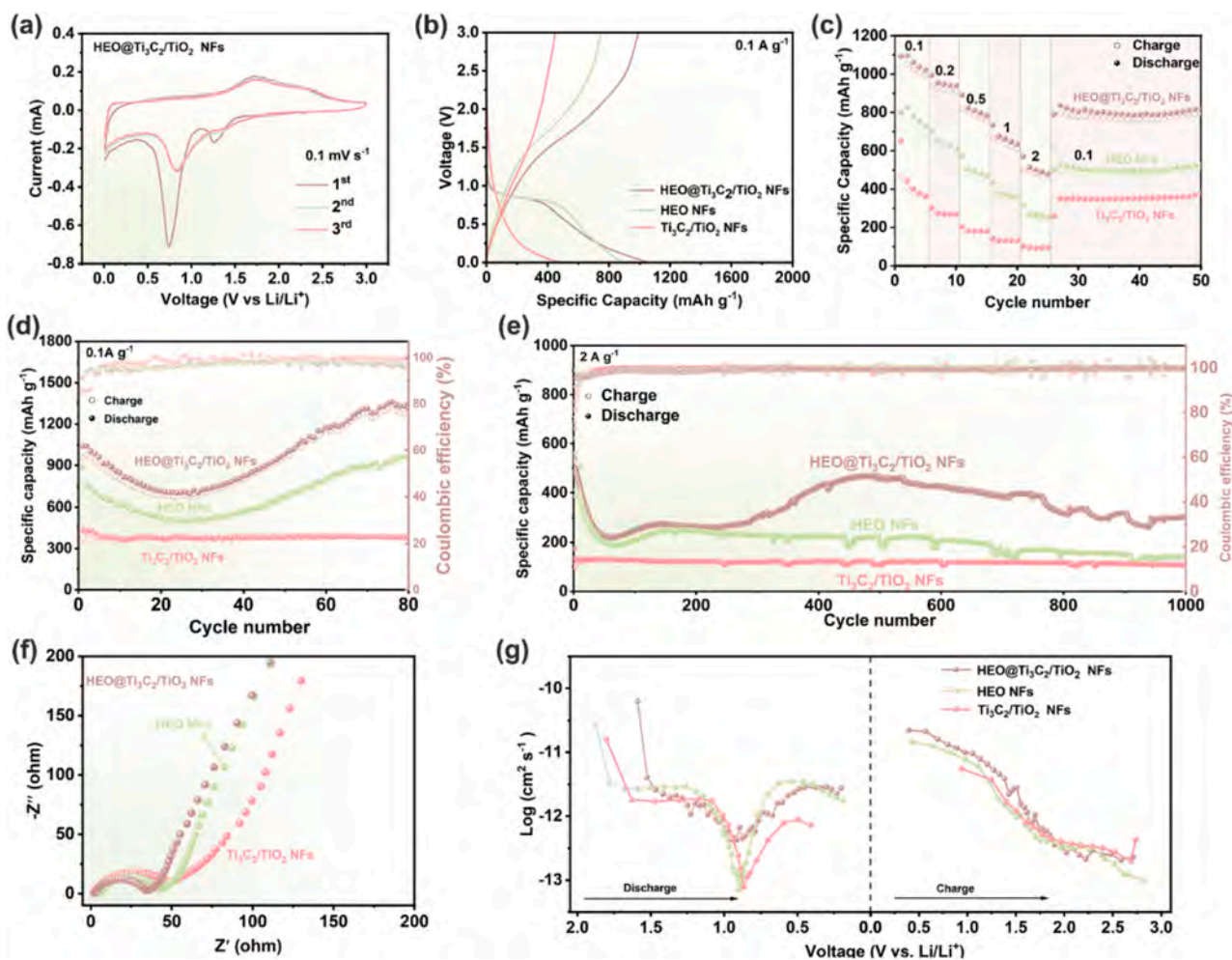


Fig. 4. (a) CVs of HEO@Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs electrodes at 0.1 mV s⁻¹; (b) comparison of HEO@Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs, HEO NFs, and Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs at 0.1 A g⁻¹ with respect to the first constant-current charging/discharging curves; (c) rate performance of HEO@Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs, HEO/NFs, and Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs; cycling performance of HEO@Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs, HEO NFs, and Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs at current densities of (d) 0.1 A g⁻¹ and (e) 2 A g⁻¹; (f) EIS spectra and (g) GITT curves of HEO@Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs, HEO NFs and Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs.

2p_{1/2}, respectively, with satellite peaks at 716.15 and 726.62 eV [46]. The Ti 2p spectrum (Fig. 3g) shows four sets of peaks attributable to Ti–C (454.25 and 460.34 eV), Ti²⁺ (455.62 and 461.64 eV), Ti³⁺ (457.44 and 463.06 eV), and Ti–O (458.32 and 464.23 eV) that correspond to 2p_{3/2} and 2p_{1/2} [47,48]. In the case of the C1s spectrum (Fig. 3h), the peaks at 283.62, 284.41, 284.84, 285.82, and 288.32 eV may be ascribed to C–Ti, Ti = C=O, C–C, C=O, and O=C–O, respectively, for Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ [49]. The O 1s XPS spectrum (Fig. 3i) shows peaks at 529.21 and 531.44 eV associated with C–Ti–O_x and C–Ti–(OH)_x in Ti₃C₂T_x MXene. The peak at 530.02 eV is related to metal–oxygen bonds, and the signal at 532.41 eV is attributed to hydroxyl or surface-adsorbed oxygen [47,50]. The XPS analysis confirms the successful synthesis of the HEO/Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ composite materials by electrospinning.

Application of the composite materials as anode materials in LIBs has been investigated. The three initial cyclic voltammery (CV) curves of HEO@Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs in the 0.01–3 V range and a scanning rate of 0.1 mV s⁻¹ are shown in Fig. 4a. In the first cathodic scan, the peaks at 0.74 and 1.25 V correspond to the reduction of metal ions, formation of lithium oxide (Li₂O), establishment of the solid electrolyte interphase (SEI) layer, and irreversible changes to the crystal structure [46]. The observed response is consistent with an initial capacity drop during cycling. The oxidation peak at 1.78 V corresponds to the oxidation of active elements in high-entropy materials, where the broad peak indicates that oxidation may be a continuous process. In subsequent cycles, the reduction peaks are shifted to higher voltages. The cathodic

(0.84/1.30 V) and anodic (1.78 V) peaks demonstrate good overlap, indicating enhanced structural stability and electrochemical reversibility.

The galvanostatic charge/discharge (GCD) curves of HEO@Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs, HEO NFs, and Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs at a current density of 0.1 A g⁻¹ are shown in Fig. 4b. The HEO system exhibits a distinct voltage plateau at 0.8 V during the discharge process, which is related to the reduction of the metal elements in the HEO system and the formation of the SEI layer. This response is consistent with the results of the cyclic voltammery measurements. It should be noted that the charge/discharge plateau for HEO@Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs was shorter, which can be attributed to the synergistic effect involving MXene and HEO. The latter serves to optimize the overall electrical conductivity, reducing polarization, and increasing the rate of lithium-ion insertion/extraction. The rate performance of the three samples measured at current densities ranging from 0.1 to 2 A g⁻¹ is presented in Fig. 4c. The capacities for all the samples decrease with increasing current density, due to limited diffusion-driven reactions at higher discharge currents. Each sample exhibited good rate stability. The HEO@Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs delivered higher reversible specific capacities than HEO NFs and Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs at current densities of 0.1, 0.2, 0.5, 1.0, and 2.0 A g⁻¹. When the current density returned to 0.1 A g⁻¹, the capacity reached 796 mAh g⁻¹.

The long-term cycling performance of HEO@Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs, pure HEO NFs, and Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs at a current density of 0.1 A g⁻¹ is illustrated in Fig. 4d. The data reveal that the nanofiber electrodes based

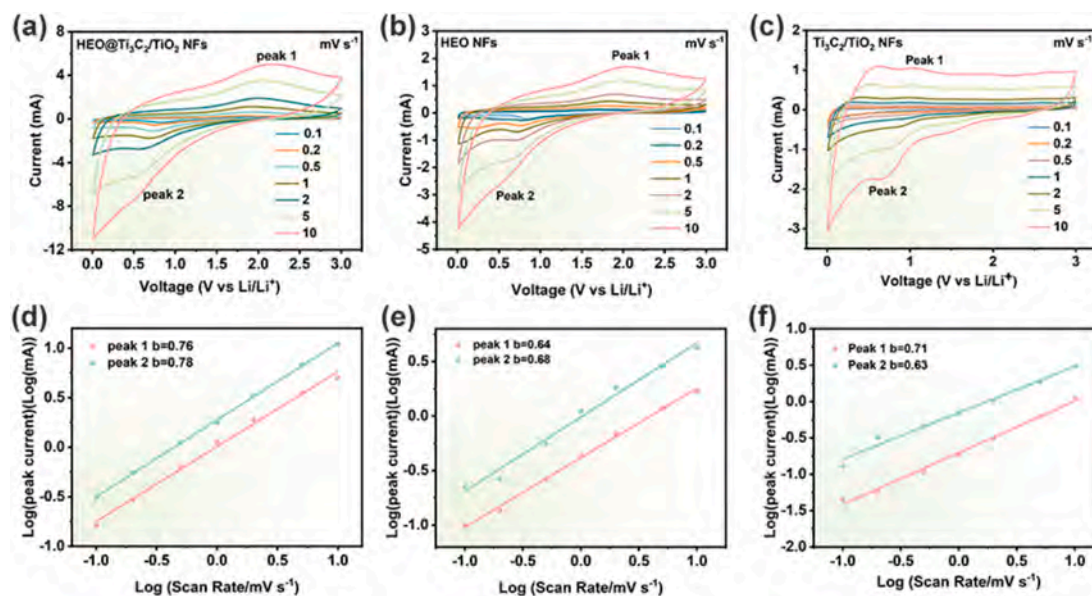


Fig. 5. (a-c) Cyclic voltammograms curves of HEO@Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs, HEO NFs, and Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs electrodes from 0.1 mV s⁻¹ to 10 mV s⁻¹; (d-f) linear fits applied to the dependence of peak current on scanning rates.

on HEO exhibit a unique capacity change pattern, first decreasing and subsequently increasing. In the initial cycle stage, some metallic elements in the HEO are released from the lattice due to reduction reactions, resulting in a decrease in the number of active sites with a consequent decline in capacity. As the cycling process progresses, there is a regeneration of active sites through redistribution and structural reconstruction, causing the capacity to gradually recover. This phenomenon is consistent with the electrochemical behavior of HEO-based materials reported in the literature [51–54]. After 80 cycles, the specific capacity of HEO@Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs reached 1330.7 mAh g⁻¹, significantly higher than that of pure HEO NF (955.9 mAh g⁻¹). At a high current density (2 A g⁻¹), the composite material retains a high specific capacity (305.9 mAh g⁻¹) after 1000 cycles, in contrast to the pure HEO NFs, which exhibits a specific capacity of 139.8 mAh g⁻¹ (Fig. 4e). This result demonstrates that the incorporation of Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ significantly enhances the electrochemical performance of the electrode, outperforming most HEO anodes reported in the literature (Table S2). We have conducted kinetic studies by combining electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) and the galvanostatic intermittent titration technique (GITT). The EIS results (Fig. 4f) have established that the charge transfer resistance (R_{ct}) of HEO@Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs is 33.1 Ω , which is significantly lower than that of pure HEO NFs (41.2 Ω) and pure Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs (50.2 Ω). This is attributed to the continuous conductive network associated with the two-dimensional Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ structure and the strong interfacial coupling effect with HEO that effectively reduces resistance to charge transfer. The GITT curves further confirm that the Li⁺ diffusion coefficient (D_{Li}^+) for this composite material is significantly enhanced (Fig. 4g), indicating that MXene promotes ion transport kinetics.

Analyses of the EIS (Fig. S11a) and GITT (Fig. S11b) data have revealed the dynamic mechanism of capacity evolution. In the initial cycling (1–50 cycles), the R_{ct} sharply increases from 33.1 Ω to 110.0 Ω , accompanied by a decrease in D_{Li}^+ , which is closely related to the increase in impedance due to the formation of the SEI membrane and interfacial side reactions. In the activation stage (50–150 cycles), the R_{ct} gradually decreases to 47.5 Ω , and D_{Li}^+ first decreases and subsequently increases, indicating that the electrochemical cycling facilitates exposure of active sites with the stabilization of the interfacial passivation layer. Analysis of the CV curves (Fig. S12) supports these conclusions. In going from the pristine electrode to the 2nd cycle and then to the 50th cycle, the intensities of the anodic and cathodic peaks in the CV curves show a

gradual decrease, reflecting the shift of capacity contribution from Faradaic to non-Faradaic reactions. During the stage of capacity increase, the intensities of the anodic and cathodic peaks significantly increase and the peak positions return to the levels observed in the first charge-discharge process. This suggests that the inactive elements in the early stage participate in the electrochemical reactions, and Faradaic capacity governs battery performance. The initial capacity decay is essentially a process of element redistribution and structural reconstruction accompanied by a decrease in Faradaic capacitance, where subsequent capacity increase is the result of continuous activation of Li⁺ storage sites and optimization of reaction kinetics.

In order to assess the electrochemical response associated with the electrode surface and subsurface regions, the CV analysis was conducted at scan rates ranging from 0.1 to 10.0 mV s⁻¹ (Fig. 5a-c). As the scan rate was increased, the peak current gradually increased. The shape of the redox curves is unaffected, demonstrating a high level of electrochemical stability. The relationship between the peak current (i_p) and scanning rate (ν) abides by the formulas as follow [23]:

$$i_p = a\nu^b \quad (1)$$

$$\log(i_p) = b\log(\nu) + \log(a) \quad (2)$$

where a represents a constant and b is the slope. The lithium storage mechanism of the electrode may be inferred from the value of b : $b = 0.5$ indicates a diffusion-controlled process, $b = 1$ represents pseudocapacitive control, and a b value between 0.5 and 1 implies combined diffusion and pseudocapacitance control. As shown in Fig. 5d-f, the b values of the HEO@Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs electrodes are 0.76 (anode) and 0.78 (cathode), which are significantly higher than those obtained for the pure HEO NFs (0.64/0.68) and pure Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs (0.71/0.63). The b values of all electrodes fall within the 0.5–1 interval, confirming that lithium storage was synergistically regulated by diffusion and pseudocapacitance. It should be noted that the b value of the composite materials is higher than pure HEO, indicating that the introduction of Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ significantly enhances the pseudocapacitance contribution. This can be attributed to the synergistic interaction between MXene nanosheets and HEO nanoparticles, where MXene forms a conductive network that facilitates electron transport. The abundant surface functional groups (e.g., $-\text{O}$, $-\text{F}$) generate additional electrically active sites that contribute to a fast Faraday reaction [55].

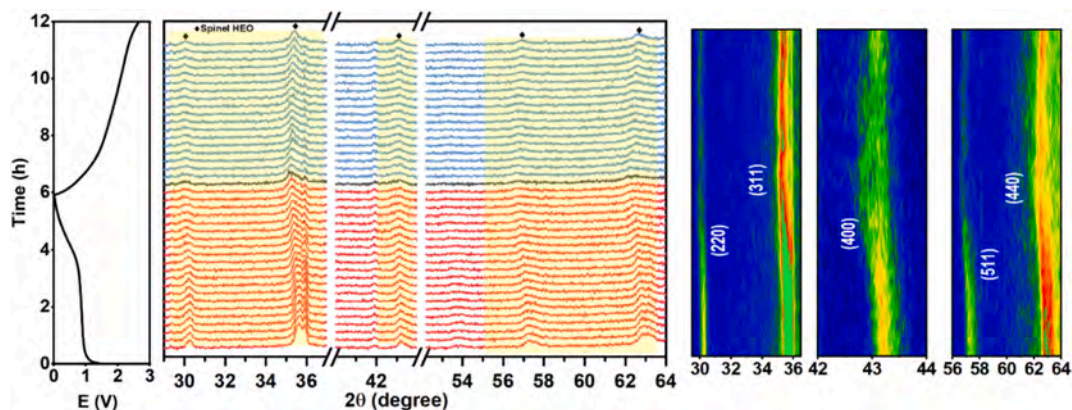


Fig. 6. *In situ* XRD patterns of the HEO@Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs electrode recorded during a discharging-charging cycle.

The phase transformation of the HEO@Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs materials during electrochemical cycling was evaluated by *in situ* X-ray diffraction analysis. The diffraction patterns of the HEO@Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs electrode during the first charging/discharging cycle are shown in Fig. 6. The peaks at 30.28°, 35.69°, 43.34°, 57.42°, and 63.08° correspond to the (220), (311), (400), (511), and (440) planes of the spinel HEO (89-4927), respectively. During the initial discharge, there is a clear shift in the peaks due to the (220), (311), (400), (511), and (440) planes to lower angles, suggesting a lattice expansion associated with lithium insertion. Subsequently, as lithium is extracted, the peaks are shifted back to the original positions. However, an incomplete recovery of peak positions indicates that a component of active materials fails to return to the initial oxidation states following delithiation, leading to a lower Coulombic efficiency [23,52]. During the charging/discharging cycles, the XRD peaks associated with the HEO spinel structure gradually diminish but are still detectable, suggesting that the HEO nanocrystals are retained. This phenomenon may be ascribed to the lower rigidity of the HEO lattice, where certain metal elements play a crucial role in maintaining overall structural stability. This characteristic enables a more flexible rearrangement of atoms during lithiation/delithiation, ultimately resulting in enhanced electrochemical reversibility [56,57].

The HEO@Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs deliver superior electrochemical performance, notably the highest discharging specific capacity, optimal rate capability, and cycling stability. This response can be attributed to several factors:

- (i) Anchoring HEO nanoparticles to the Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ surface generates a strong interfacial coupling, which enhances charge transfer and promotes effective Li⁺ storage.
- (ii) The nanofibers exhibit a high specific surface area and abundant active sites. The synergistic interaction between the HEO and Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ establishes a robust conductive pathway that enhances electrical conductivity.
- (iii) The physicochemical reactions associated with HEO nanoparticles are highly complex. During the rapid extraction and insertion of lithium ions, the spinel lattice, offering stable channels for Li⁺ diffusion and preserving material structural integrity, is consistently present. This feature ensures highly reversible lithium storage.

3. Conclusions

In this work, HEO@Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs composites were successfully synthesized by an electrostatic spinning and stepwise annealing process. The Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ nanosheets were combined with HEO nanofibers through interfacial engineering to construct a three-dimensional conductive network, introducing oxygen vacancies that reduced charge transfer resistance. The Ti₃C₂/TiO₂-based or HEO-based

materials can serve as a new platform for the design of high-performance energy storage electrode materials with potential applications in systems such as sodium-ion and zinc-ion batteries.

CRedit authorship contribution statement

Yingying Lu: Data curation, Writing – original draft. **Yi Zhang:** Data curation. **Hailong Yan:** Methodology. **Jinbing Cheng:** Resources. **Yongsong Luo:** Funding acquisition. **Paul K. Chu:** Writing – review & editing.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cej.2025.165230>.

Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

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Supporting Information

Integration of $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2/\text{TiO}_2$ and spinel high-entropy oxide: A novel strategy for enhancing lithium-ion battery performance

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1. Experimental Section

1.1. Materials

Cu(CH₃COO)₂·H₂O (0.4 mmol), Mn(CH₃COO)₂·4H₂O (0.4 mmol), Ni(CH₃COO)₂·4H₂O (0.4 mmol), Co(CH₃COO)₂ (0.4 mmol), Zn(CH₃COO)₂ (0.4 mmol), Fe(NO₃)₃·9H₂O (0.4 mmol), N, N-dimethylformamide (DMF, 99.5%), polyacrylonitrile (PAN, 250,000).

1.2. Preparation of MXene

The preparation of MXene began with the addition of 1 g of lithium fluoride to 30 ml of 9 mol L⁻¹ hydrochloric acid at room temperature and stirring until the solution became clear. Subsequently, 40% hydrofluoric acid (9 mL) was added and stirred for 10 minutes, and 1 g of Ti₃AlC₂ powder was added gradually during the course of 1 hour. The solution was then stirred at 37 °C for 10 hours to etch aluminum from Ti₃AlC₂ by hydrofluoric acid, centrifuged at 5,500 rpm until reaching a neutral pH, and aspirated with argon for 30 minutes at a temperature not exceeding 25 °C. The resulting Ti₃C₂ MXene solution was transferred to a beaker and sonicated for 1 hour at a low temperature. Additional centrifugation was carried out at 3,500 rpm and 8,000 rpm for 1 hour each to yield the Ti₃C₂ MXene colloid. The Ti₃C₂ MXene colloid was dispersed in dimethylformamide (DMF) and sonicated for 1.5 hours at a low temperature to obtain a homogeneous Ti₃C₂ MXene solution (40 mg mL⁻¹), with careful attention to maintain the temperature to not exceed 25 °C throughout the process.

1.3. Preparation of HEO@Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs

First, 2 mL of Ti₃C₂ MXene dispersion and the above six metal salts were added to 8 mL of DMF and stirred for 10 min, followed by sonication in ice water for 10 min, and this operation was repeated three times to obtain a homogeneous dispersion. Subsequently, 1 g PAN was added and stirred for 8 h to prepare the precursor solution. Electrospinning was performed to obtain pristine carbon nanofibers at a solution flow rate of 0.5 mL h⁻¹ with a distance of 13 cm between the collecting and receiving rollers and a voltage of 24.0 kV. The collected nanofibers were dried at 60 °C for 8 h and then pre-oxidized in air at 250 °C (2 °C min⁻¹) for 30 min to stabilize the structure of the nanofibers. The nanofibers were calcined in air at 500 °C for 30 min (10 °C min⁻¹) to obtain high entropy HEO@Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs.

1.4. Synthesis of HEO NFs and Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs

As a control, HEO NFs and Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs were prepared. Control samples of HEO NFs were prepared in the same manner as the HEO NFs but without the addition of Ti₃C₂ MXene. Similarly, Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs were prepared without the addition of metal salts.

2. Material characterization

The crystal structure was determined by X-ray diffraction instrument (XRD, Rigaku D/texultra 250) with Cu K_α radiation in the 2θ angle range of 5° to 80° at a rate of 10°·min⁻¹ and step size of 0.02°. The Raman spectra were recorded on the Raman

microprobe (Renishaw instrument) with a 532 nm laser and 50x objective lens. The morphology and grain size of the precursor fibers and fibers after calcination were observed by field-emission scanning electron microscopy (FE-SEM, Sigma 500, German) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM, JEOL JEM F200, Japan), respectively. The elemental distribution was determined by energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS, Thermo Scientific K-Alpha, USA). The element content was measured by an inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectrometry (ICP-OES, Agilent 5110) with 1.2 kW RF power. Thermogravimetric curves were recorded by a thermal analyzer (STA 449C, Netzsch) in flowing air. The relative content of oxygen vacancies was detected by an EPR spectrometer (Germany, EMXplus-6/1). N₂ adsorption/desorption isotherms were obtained by a surface area and porosity analyzer (ASAP 2460, Micromeritics, USA).

3. Battery assembly and electrochemical assessment

The properties of HEO@Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs as the negative electrode in the LIB were determined using CR2032 button cells. The active materials (calcined HEO@Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs), acetylene black, and polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) were mixed with a mass ratio of 7:2:1 and stirred continuously with N-methyl-2-pyrrolidone (NMP, Innochem) for 12 hours. The slurry was evenly coated onto a copper foil using a doctor blade device and dried for 6 hours at 80 °C. The electrode was cut into disks with a diameter of approximately 12 mm, with each disc containing an active material loading of 1-1.2 mg cm⁻². The half-button cells were assembled in an Ar-filled glove

box, with a lithium metal foil as the reference electrode. The electrolyte was 1 M LiPF₆ in an EC/DMC/DEC (1:1:1, V/V/V), and 100 uL of the electrolyte was carefully added to each cell. The microporous polyethylene Celgard 2400 film was the separator. The constant current charging-discharging, cycling, and rate properties were determined on the multi-channel battery tester (LANDIAN CT 3001 A) at room temperature. Cyclic voltammetry (CV) and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) were performed on an electrochemical workstation (CHI660E) in the voltage window of 0.01~3.0 V.

Table S1. ICP-OES results of the as-prepared HEO NFs.

Element	Mn	Co	Ni	Cu	Zn	Fe
Concentration (mg/kg)	110983.72	95378.24	122711.16	125772.66	105784.38	118105.23
Atomic (%)	16.36	14.04	18.07	18.52	15.59	16.75

Equation S1:

$$\Delta S_{config} = -R \left[\left(\sum_{i=1}^N x_i \ln x_i \right)_{cation\ site} + \left(\sum_{j=1}^N x_j \ln x_j \right)_{anion\ site} \right]$$

where x_i is the mole fractions of ions in cation site, the mole fractions of ions in the anion site are represented via x_j , and R represent the gas constant.

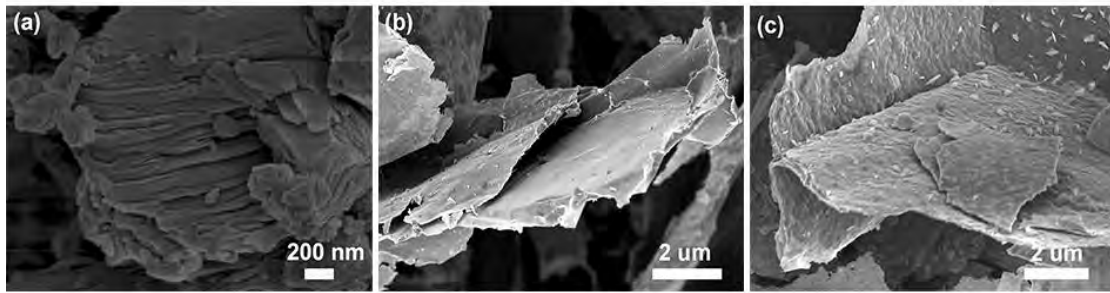


Fig. S1. SEM images of (a) Ti_3AlC_2 , (b) Ti_3C_2 nanosheets, and (c) $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2/\text{TiO}_2$ nanosheets.

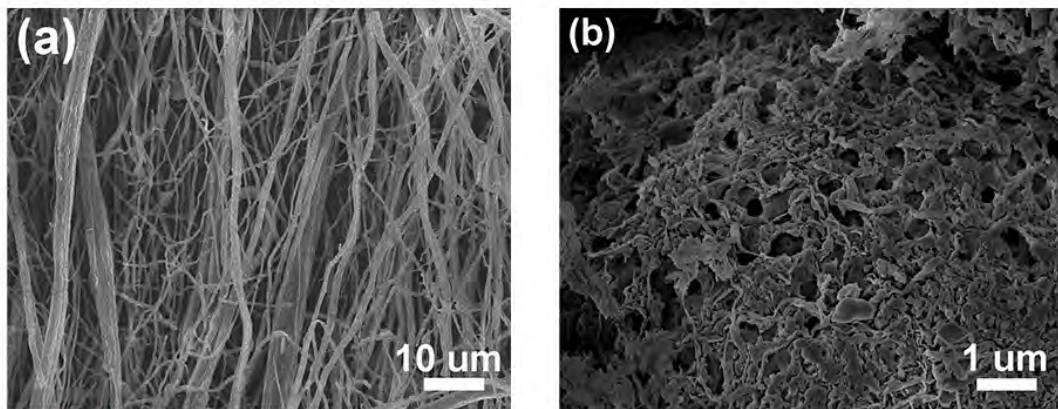


Fig. S2. SEM images of Ti₃C₂ dispersion added at (a) 1 mL and (b) 3 mL.

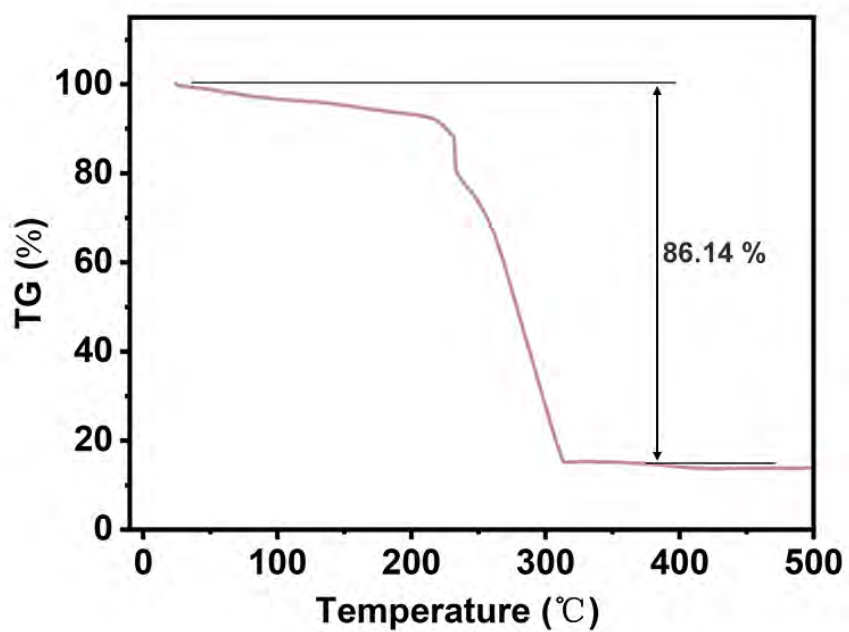


Fig. S3. TG curve of precursor (in flowing air).

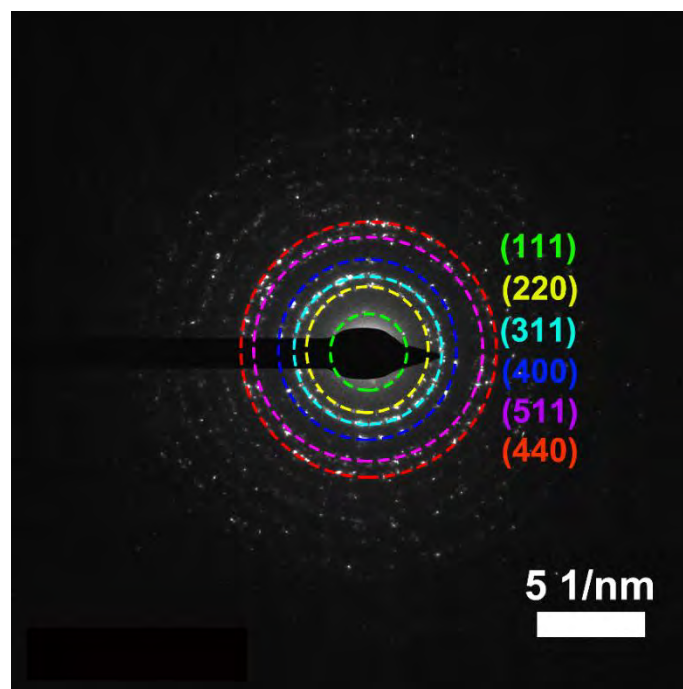


Fig. S4. SAED pattern of the relevant region.

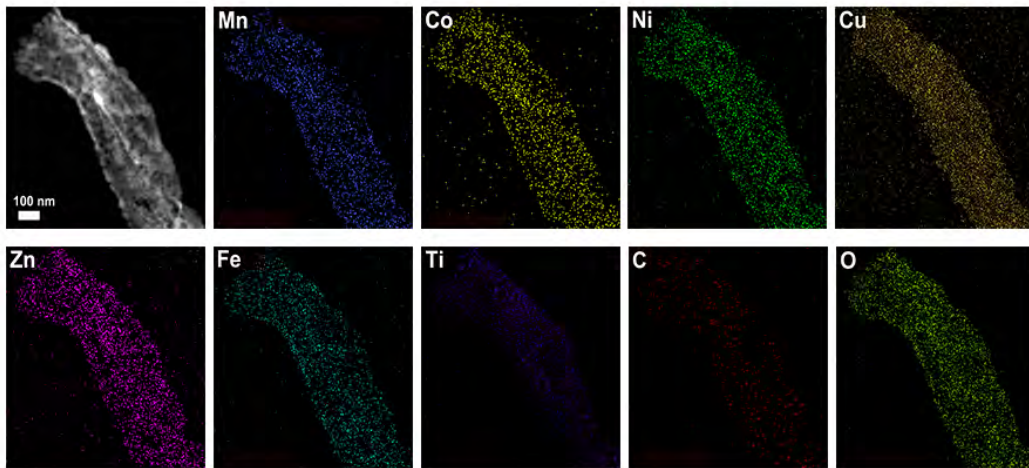


Fig. S5. EDS mappings of HEO@Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs.

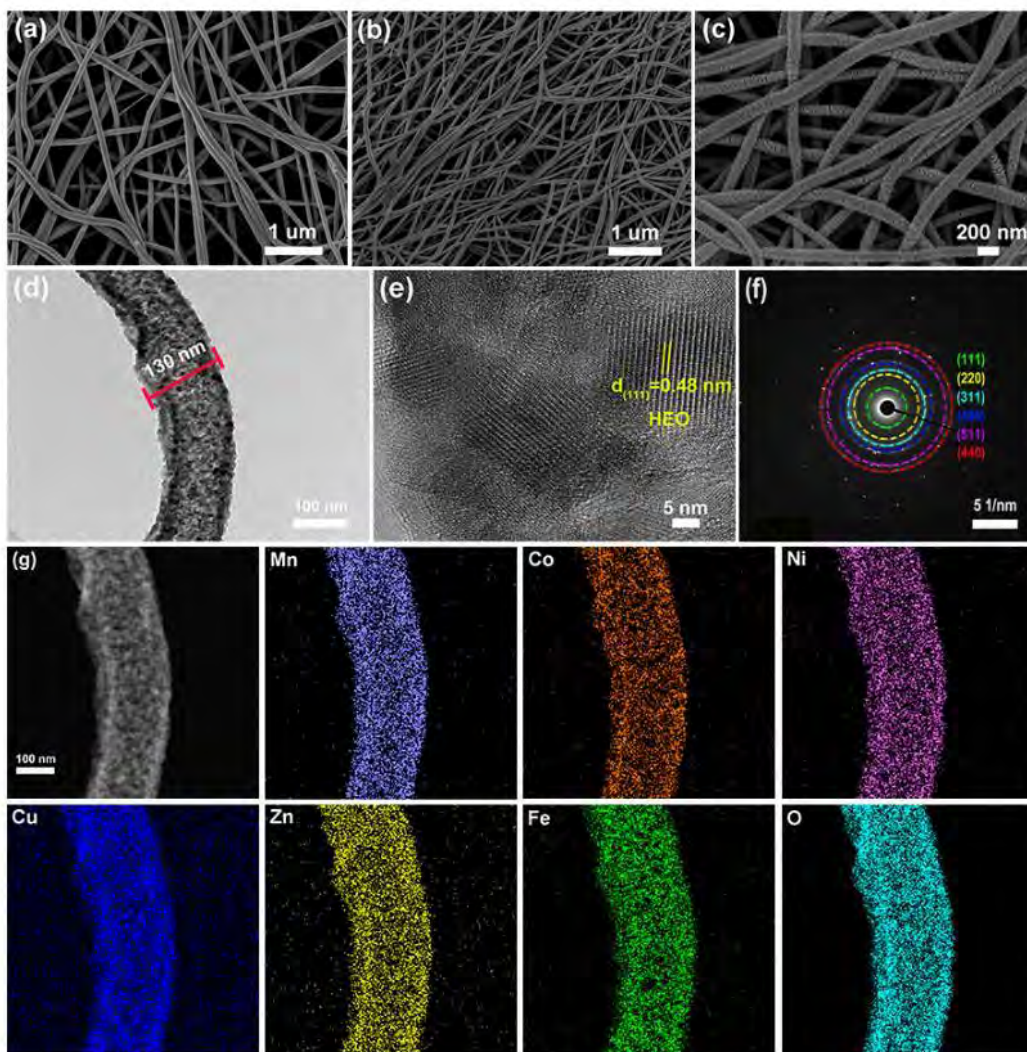


Fig. S6. (a) SEM image of primordial HEO NFs; (b-c) SEM images of HEO NFs; (d) TEM image of HEO NFs; (e) HR-TEM image of HEO NFs; (f) SAED pattern of the HEO NFs relevant region; (g) EDS mappings of HEO NFs.

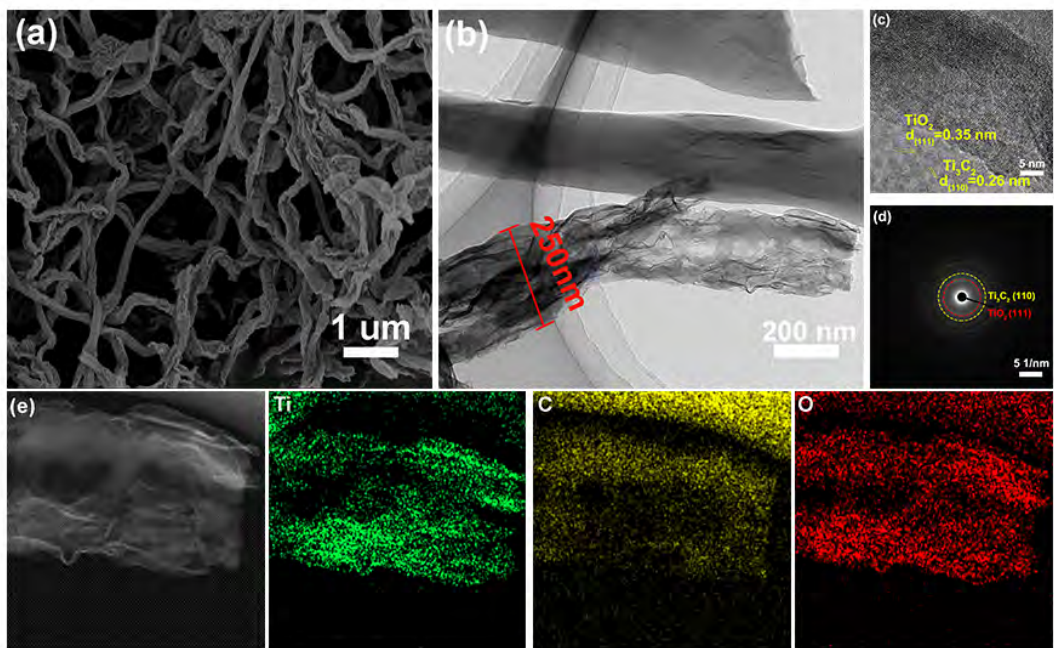


Fig. S7. (a) SEM image of $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2/\text{TiO}_2$ NFs; (b) TEM image of $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2/\text{TiO}_2$ NFs; (c) HR-TEM image of $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2/\text{TiO}_2$ NFs; (d) SAED pattern of the $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2/\text{TiO}_2$ NFs relevant region; (e) EDS mappings of $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2/\text{TiO}_2$ NFs.

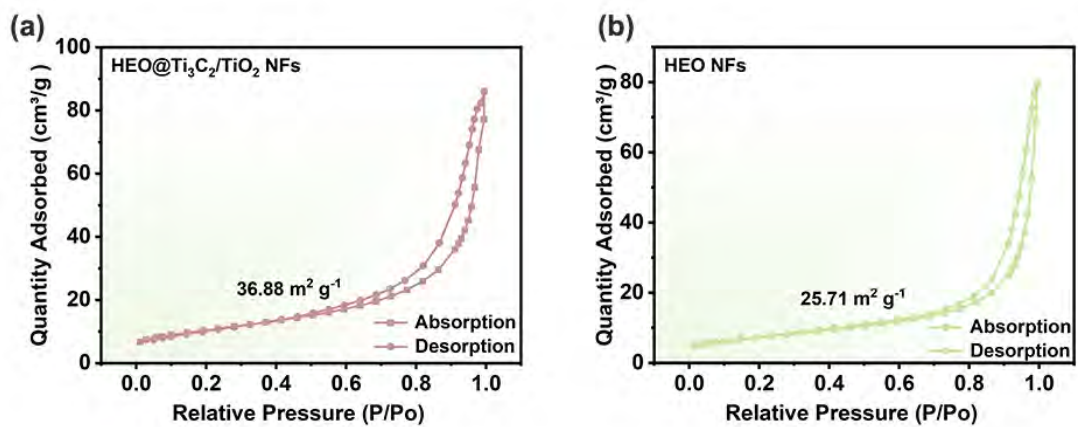


Fig. S8. N₂ adsorption-desorption curves of (a) HEO@Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs and (b) HEO NFs.

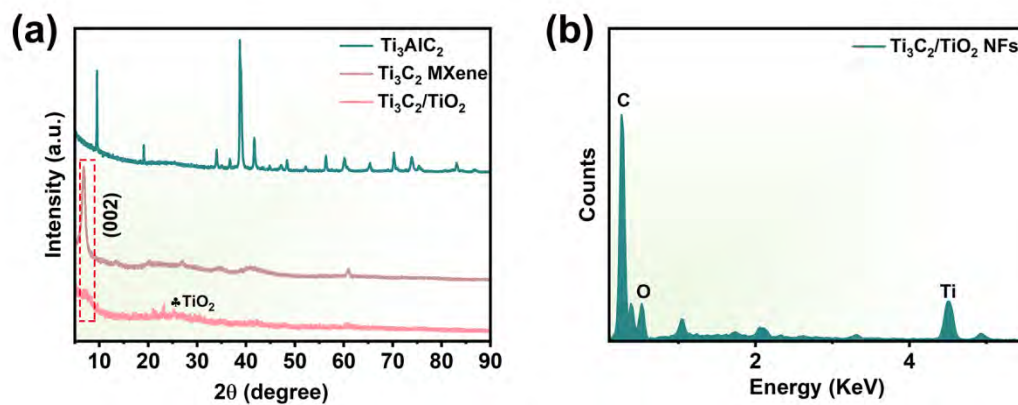


Fig. S9. (a) XRD patterns of Ti_3AlC_2 , Ti_3C_2 and $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2/\text{TiO}_2$; (b) EDS analysis of $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2/\text{TiO}_2$ NFs.

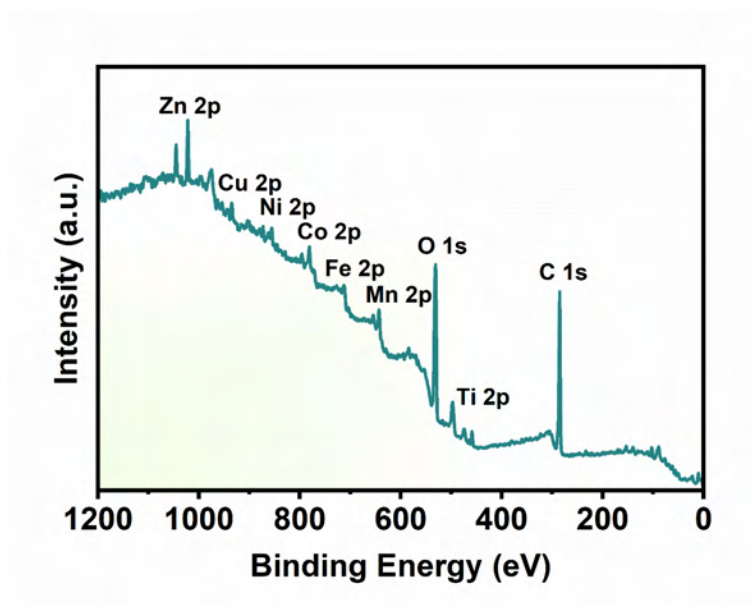


Fig. S10. XPS survey spectrum of HEO@Ti₃C₂/TiO₂ NFs.

Table S2. Recent comparative studies on the performance of HEO in the field of lithium-ion batteries.

HEO structure	Chemical composition	Capacity at 0.1 A g ⁻¹ / mAh g ⁻¹	Cycle performance (cycles)/mAh g ⁻¹	References
Spinel	(FeZnNiCrMn) ₃ O ₄	830	660 (200) at 0.5 A g ⁻¹	Adv. Funct. Mater. 33 (2023) 2300509.
Spinel	Sn _{0.8} (CoMgMnNiZn) _{2.2} O ₄	540	438 (900) at 0.5 A g ⁻¹	Small (2023) 2304585.
Spinel	La(CoCrFeMnNi)O ₃	371	569(500) at 0.2 A g ⁻¹	J. Adv. Ceram. 12 (2023) 1214-1227.
Spinel	(CrNiMnFeCu) ₃ O ₄	760	710(400) at 0.5 A g ⁻¹	Adv. Funct. Mater. 32 (2022) 2110992.
Spinel rock-salt	(CrMnFeCoNiZn) ₃ O ₄	876.5	667.3 (350) at 0.5 A g ⁻¹	Compos. Part B-Eng. (2025) 112175.
Spinel rock-salt	LiF/MgCoNiMnZnO	756.3	552.2 (1000) at 0.5 A g ⁻¹	J. Alloy. Compd. 986 (2024) 174140.
Spinel	((Fe _{0.45} Co _{0.14} Ni _{0.2} Cr _{0.13} Mn _{0.08}) ₃ O ₄)@rGO	794	530 (200) at 0.5A g ⁻¹	J. Energy Storage 80 (2024) 110325.
Rock salt	(LiMgCoNiCuZn)O	714	417 (300) at 1 A g ⁻¹	Small 18 (2022) 2200524.
Rock salt	(MgCoNiCuZn)O	397	390(300) at 0.5 A g ⁻¹	Adv. Funct. Mater. 32 (2022) 2202892.
Rock salt	(CoNiMgZnFe) ₃ O _{3.2}	780	600 (200) at 0.1 A g ⁻¹	Adv. Mater. 35 (2023) 2205751
Spinel	(MnCoNiCuZnFe) ₃ O ₄ @Ti ₃ C ₂ /TiO ₂	955.9	305.9 (1000) at 2 A g ⁻¹	This work

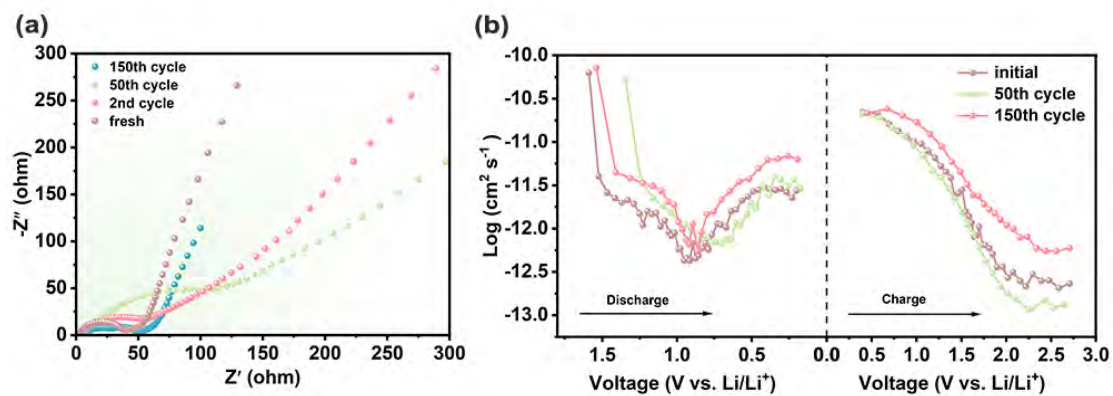


Fig. S11. (a) EIS spectra of different cycles; (b) GITT curves of different cycles.

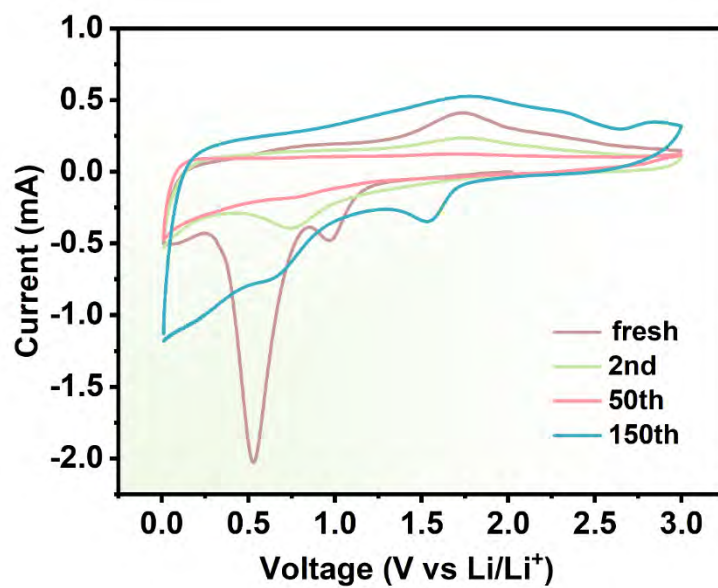


Fig. S12. CV curves of different cycles at 0.5 mV s^{-1} .