

1 **Designing bifunctional catalysts for urea electrolysis: Progresses and**  
2 **perspectives**

3

4

5

## 6 **Abstract**

7 Urea electrolysis becomes an attractive method for sustainable energy-saving hydrogen production  
8 and simultaneous pollutant degradation. To improve urea electrolysis efficiency and simplify the  
9 electrolysis systems, developing efficient bifunctional electrocatalysts arouses great interest.  
10 Recently, great achievements have been made in the design of high-performance bifunctional  
11 catalysts for urea electrolysis. In this review, current progress in bifunctional catalysts for urea  
12 electrolysis is comprehensively analyzed. Urea electrolysis fundamentals and catalyst design  
13 principles are first discussed. Then, the applications of advanced bifunctional catalysts in urea  
14 electrolysis are fully demonstrated, such as single atom catalysts (SACs), metal nanoparticles,  
15 alloys, metal (hydr)oxides, chalcogenides, pnictides, metal-organic frameworks (MOFs),  
16 composites, etc. The structure-performance correlation of catalysts is emphasized, as well as  
17 design strategies. Current catalysts are also benchmarked in terms of their catalytic activities, for  
18 providing insights into the sensible design of high-performance bifunctional electrocatalysts.  
19 Several Key perspectives are outlined to guide further studies on practical urea electrolysis-driven  
20 sustainable hydrogen production and urea-rich wastewater management.

21

22 Please check a similarity report.

23

## 24 **1. Introduction**

25 Urea ( $\text{CO}(\text{NH}_2)_2$ ) is a widely used organic chemical in synthetic chemistry, agriculture, automobile  
26 systems, medicine, etc.<sup>1,2</sup> The widespread usage of urea generates a lot of urea-bearing wastewater.  
27 Also, human/animal excrement contains a high level of urea. The disorderly discharge of such  
28 urea-rich effluents leads to serious environmental pollution issues (e.g., eutrophication,  $\text{NO}_x$   
29 gaseous pollutants) and a waste of nitrogen resources.<sup>3,4</sup> Therefore, making a green use of urea-  
30 rich effluents would alleviate the related environmental problems and accelerate the global  
31 nitrogen cycle.

32 Recently, electrooxidation of urea under mild conditions has gained soaring interest, which can  
33 convert urea into  $\text{CO}_2$ ,  $\text{N}_2$ , and water in an efficient manner. Importantly, urea oxidation reaction  
34 (UOR) is thermodynamically more favorable than oxygen evolution reaction (OER), the anodic  
35 half-reaction of water electrolysis.<sup>5</sup> It is thus sensible to couple hydrogen evolution reaction (HER)  
36 with UOR to accomplish energy-saving hydrogen fuel production. However, the slow kinetics of  
37 both HER and UOR hinders the hydrogen production efficiency via urea electrolysis.<sup>6</sup> For  
38 improving the economic attractiveness of urea electrolysis systems, it is favored to perform both  
39 HER and UOR in a same electrolyte. Therefore, many attempts have been employed to develop  
40 high-performance catalysts/electrodes towards urea electrolysis in alkaline media. To further  
41 simplify the manufacture of electrolyzers and electrodes for HER and UOR, designing bifunctional  
42 catalysts is highly recommended.

43 To date, diverse bifunctional electrocatalysts based on low-priced metals (e.g., Ni, Co, Fe) and  
44 precious metals (e.g., Rh, Pt, Ru) have been developed for urea electrolysis.<sup>7,8</sup> From SACs, metal  
45 nanoparticles, and alloys to metal (hydr)oxides, chalcogenides, and pnictides, catalysts with

46 diverse nanostructures and compositions have exhibited good performance towards urea  
47 electrolysis, as listed in **Table S1** (Supporting information). Current efforts focus on tailoring the  
48 internal and external properties (size, nanostructure, surface chemistry, electronic structure) of  
49 catalysts to meet the multiple requirements of urea electrolysis, and thus a series of catalyst design  
50 strategies have been developed, like heteroatom doping,<sup>9</sup> composite construction,<sup>10</sup> vacancy  
51 engineering,<sup>11</sup> nanostructure control<sup>12</sup>. These achievements significantly promote the development  
52 of bifunctional catalysts for urea electrolysis and take a closer step towards practical urea-rich  
53 wastewater electrolysis for energy-saving hydrogen production. Nevertheless, an inclusive review  
54 summing up advances in bifunctional electrocatalysts for urea electrolysis remains unavailable,  
55 although many reviews have summarized the electrocatalysts for UOR (mainly Ni-based  
56 materials).<sup>2, 13-23</sup>

57 Herein, this review aims at providing a thorough analysis of current developments in the  
58 bifunctional electrocatalysts for the electrolysis of urea solutions. Fundamentals of urea  
59 electrolysis and electrocatalyst design principles are first discussed. The applications of  
60 bifunctional catalysts in urea electrolysis are fully demonstrated, including SACs, metal  
61 nanoparticles, alloys, metal (hydr)oxides, chalcogenides, pnictides, MOFs, composites, etc. For  
62 guiding the future development of high-performance bifunctional catalysts, we have benchmarked  
63 current catalysts in terms of their catalytic activities. At last, several perspectives are put forward  
64 to guiding further studies in the field of urea electrolysis.

## 65 **2. Fundamentals of urea electrolysis**

66 Urea electrolysis, consisting of anodic UOR and cathodic HER, can be used to realize energy-  
67 efficient hydrogen production and simultaneous urea pollutant degradation. Generally, urea

68 electrolysis is performed in 1 M KOH alkaline electrolyte in the presence of urea (in most cases,  
69 0.1-0.5 M). As shown in **Fig. 1a**, urea electrolysis takes a significant smaller theoretical potential  
70 of 0.37 V for hydrogen generation than conventional water splitting (1.23 V), indicating a feasible  
71 route towards sustainable hydrogen production from urea-based wastewater. For bifunctional  
72 catalysts for urea electrolysis, good performance towards both HER and UOR is required.

### 73 **2.1. HER mechanism**

74 Mechanism investigations for the cathodic HER process in alkaline electrolytes gain great interest.  
75 The HER will undergo the Volmer-Heyrovsky pathway or the Volmer-Tafel pathway (**Fig. 1b**),  
76 which is generally determined by the value of calculated Tafel slope derived from linear sweep  
77 voltammetry (LSV) curves. The Tafel slopes of the Tafel, Heyrovsky, and Volmer reactions are  
78 around 30, 40, and 120 mV dec<sup>-1</sup> respectively. Accordingly, when Tafel slopes of catalysts fall with  
79 the range of 40-120 mV dec<sup>-1</sup>, a Volmer-Heyrovsky mechanism is suggested. Of note, different  
80 from HER in acidic media which store rich H<sup>+</sup> ions, alkaline HER starts from the  
81 adsorption/dissociation of H<sub>2</sub>O on catalyst surface. In this context, water adsorption energy, water  
82 dissociation energy, and H\* adsorption-free energy are critical activity indicators in computational  
83 studies.

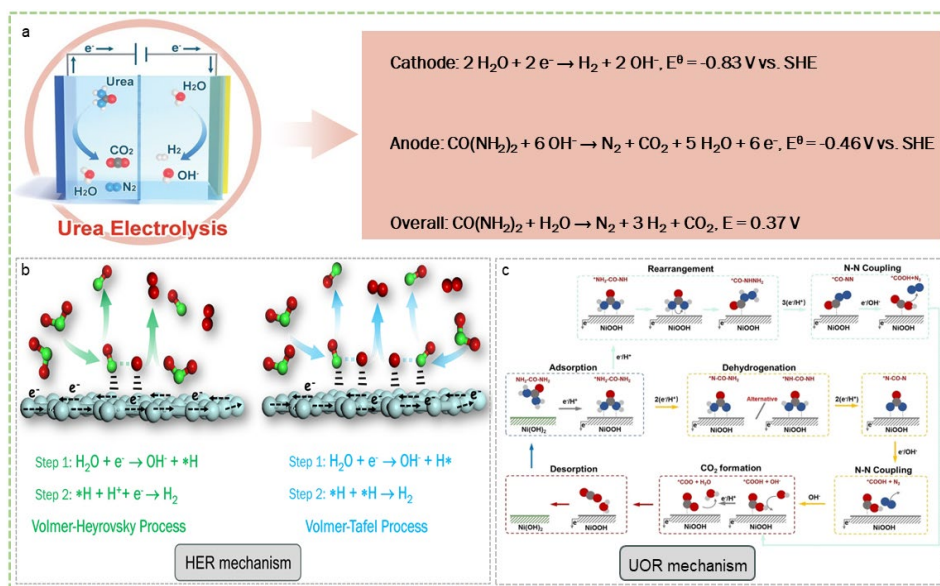
84 Recently, it has been suggested that transition metal-based catalysts would undergo structure  
85 reconstruction during HER with the formation of metal hydroxide phases on catalyst surface. For  
86 instance, chalcogenide anions of metal chalcogenides can be readily replaced by OH<sup>-</sup> in highly  
87 alkaline electrolytes, thereby generating metal hydroxide on the surface of metal chalcogenides.<sup>24</sup>  
88 The metal hydroxide species on the chalcogenide/hydroxide composite has been found to help  
89 dissociate water molecules and elevate catalytic performance.<sup>25</sup>

## 90 2.2. UOR mechanism

91 The electrooxidation of UOR is a complicated process, in terms of the diversity in reaction  
92 conditions, catalysts, and oxidation products.<sup>2, 13, 14</sup> To date, most bifunctional electrocatalysts for  
93 alkaline urea electrolysis are based on transition metals (especially Ni), with main products of CO<sub>2</sub>,  
94 N<sub>2</sub>, and H<sub>2</sub>O. In this part, the UOR process over Ni-based catalysts are discussed, and a  
95 representative mechanism is illustrated in **Fig. 1c**.<sup>13</sup> Firstly, *in situ* generation of NiOOH phase on  
96 catalyst surface under the alkaline and oxidative conditions is suggested, which acts as real UOR  
97 active sites. The generated NiOOH then can react with the urea molecule and provide electroactive  
98 sites for further intermediate adsorption/desorption/rearrangement, new chemical bond formation,  
99 and finally leads to the conversion of urea into CO<sub>2</sub>, N<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O. As depicted in **Fig. 1c**, two N-N  
100 coupling pathways are put forward for possible N<sub>2</sub> formation mechanism, and it remains  
101 challenging to directly determine a clear mechanism for UOR over a typical catalyst.

102 The self-oxidation degree of transition metal catalysts during UOR governs the understanding of  
103 real active sites. For catalysts that undergo complete *in situ* electrooxidation, the parent catalyst  
104 phase will entirely transform into a metal (oxy)hydroxide phase which determines UOR  
105 performance.<sup>26</sup> Differently, partial electrooxidation of original catalysts would lead to an active  
106 core@shell nanostructure for UOR. Thus, it is necessary to thoroughly investigate structure self-  
107 evolution of catalysts during UOR process, and gains insights of real active sites for UOR. Aside  
108 from most Ni<sup>3+</sup>-based NiOOH active phase, a Ni<sup>4+</sup> active site-involved UOR pathway has been  
109 suggested by Zhang et al.,<sup>27</sup> which exhibits better UOR performance than NiOOH-involved  
110 process. Over a β-Ni(OH)<sub>2</sub> catalyst, Chen and co-authors suggested that a spontaneous urea  
111 molecule dehydrogenation mechanism, including six proton-coupled electron transfer processes,  
112 hydration, as well as reactant rearrangement.<sup>28</sup> Recently, Wang et al. developed a Co and Ge, co-

113 doped Ni oxyhydroxide catalyst to convert urea into nitrite, which attained a Faradaic efficiency  
 114 of 84.9% at 1.4 V vs reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE).<sup>29</sup> These interesting results indicate that  
 115 it is too early to get a general conclusion on the UOR mechanism, and more studies are suggested  
 116 to uncover the catalyst-dependent mechanism with detailed experimental and computational tools.



117 **Fig. 1** (a) Scheme of urea electrolysis process and the reaction equations.<sup>15</sup> (b) HER mechanism. (c) A possible UOR  
 118 mechanism.<sup>13</sup>

### 120 3. Design principles of bifunctional electrocatalysts for urea electrolysis

121 Electrocatalysts' activity and stability are critical for their practical application in urea electrolysis  
 122 (**Fig. 2**). In general, the catalytic activity of electrocatalysts is governed by the intrinsic activity of  
 123 per electroactive site and the amount of exposed catalytic electroactive sites. In addition, the HER  
 124 and UOR of urea electrolysis are interfacial reactions in electrolytes, and thus the fast charge

125 transfer/mass transport process at the gas-liquid-solid triphasic interface is essential to improve the  
126 performance. Besides activity, working stability of catalysts is another factor that determines their  
127 feasibility of real application, which is largely affected by the nanostructure and fabrication process  
128 of electrodes.

### 129 **3.1. High intrinsic activity**

130 Fundamentally, the intrinsic activity of electrocatalysts is determined by their electronic properties.  
131 Thus, adjusting the electronic structure of catalysts becomes a powerful tool for enhancing  
132 catalytic performance. Through regulating catalysts' chemical composition, phase structure,  
133 crystallinity, and introducing heteroatom dopants, defects/vacancies, it is sensible to reconstruct  
134 the electronic structure of catalysts. Also, developing heterostructures which contain two or more  
135 active components can lead to the interfacial interaction between different components, which can  
136 also help to regulate electronic properties of host materials. For example, in the  $\text{CoS}_2/\text{MoS}_2$   
137 Schottky heterojunction, spontaneous charge transfer between  $\text{MoS}_2$  and  $\text{CoS}_2$  induces the  
138 generation of separated nucleophilic/electrophilic regions.<sup>30</sup> The modulated surface charge  
139 distribution synergistically promotes the adsorption and break of urea molecules during UOR.  
140 These practical strategies have been well illustrated for effectively boosting the intrinsic activity  
141 of catalysts by reshaping the electronic properties.

142 Another route to boost the intrinsic catalytic activity of materials is introducing additional  
143 electroactive phases, which can be achieved by heterostructure construction. The combination of  
144 multiple active sites would help to boost diverse reaction steps (e.g., water adsorption/dissociation,  
145 urea adsorption, hydrogen evolution, urea splitting,  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{N}_2$  generation and desorption) during  
146 urea electrolysis. Typically, following the modular design principle, it is suggested to integrate a



147 HER active material with a UOR active material into one electrocatalyst, with the aim of realizing  
148 overall urea electrolysis.

### 149 **3.2. High density of active sites**

150 To ensure an efficient catalytic reaction process, it is necessary to provide high density of  
151 electroactive sites on catalyst surface. For particle-shape electrocatalysts, decreasing the  
152 agglomeration of particles is important for exposing more active sites; also, downsizing can  
153 populate the electroactive sites. Both size/agglomeration reduction can be achieved by  
154 nanostructure control, which relates to the detailed investigation of synthetic parameters.  
155 Heteroatom doping, amorphization, and crystal facet engineering are also suggested to increase  
156 the active sites. Typically, amorphous structures with flexible atomic arrangement and rich edge  
157 sites are expected to possess higher density of active sites than the crystalline counterparts.<sup>31</sup>

158 Constructing nanostructures with large specific surface area (SSA) and porosity is a commonly  
159 applied strategy to populate active sites. For example, nanowires, nanospheres, nanotubes,  
160 nanosheets, hollow structures, multi-channel structures, porous structures, core@shell structures,  
161 and hierarchical structures are excellent for their high interconnected active area.

### 162 **3.3. Efficient mass/charge transfer**

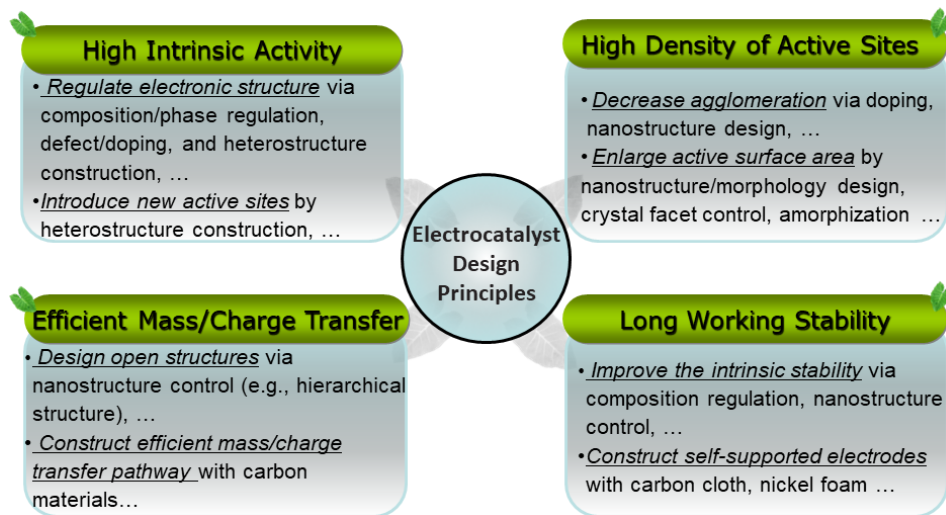
163 As a gas generation process in electrolytes, urea electrolysis needs high mass transport and charge  
164 transfer efficiencies. Designing open structures (e.g., nanoarrays, multi-channel structures,  
165 hierarchical structures) with interconnected active surface is a good option to accelerate the  
166 electrolyte penetration and the diffusion of reactants/intermediates, which also helps the interfacial  
167 charge transfer during electrochemical reactions. The development of self-supported open

168 structures is especially important for large-current density urea electrolysis, because of the  
169 generation of huge number of gaseous products. Additionally, by applying highly conductive  
170 carbon materials (such as carbon nanotubes (CNTs), graphene, N-doped carbon) into catalysts, it  
171 is expected to construct an efficient charge transfer pathway among different components and  
172 thereby accelerate the charge transfer process.

### 173 **3.4. Long working stability**

174 To meet the potential industrial application, robust electrodes with long-term stability are required.  
175 For binder-involved electrodes, the working stability can be regulated by using stable chemical  
176 components and by nanostructure control of catalysts. For example, using a carbon cover on Ni  
177 particles is suggested to enhance the electrode stability by limiting the inactivation and  
178 electrochemical etching of active Ni species.<sup>32</sup> Also, the binder/catalyst ratio and other electrode  
179 fabrication parameters influence the operating performance of electrodes.

180 Alternatively, one can directly design binder-free electrodes in which active components are self-  
181 supported by conductive substrates, like nickel foam, nickel/iron foam, and carbon cloth. The  
182 direct construction of active catalysts on substrates shows tight connection between the two  
183 components, and thus enhances the mechanical stability. The self-supported electrodes also can  
184 avoid the general active component shedding issue in binder-based electrodes. In addition, such  
185 integrated electrodes show a simple preparation process and can save the electrode fabrication cost.



186

187 Fig.2 Electrocatalyst design principles for urea electrolysis.

188 **4. Applications of bifunctional electrocatalysts for urea electrolysis**

189 Recently, hundreds of bifunctional electrocatalysts have been developed for urea electrolysis,  
 190 including SACs, metal nanoparticles, alloys, metal (hydr)oxides, chalcogenides, pnictides, MOFs,  
 191 composites, etc. Most of these catalysts are fabricated based on Ni and Co, because of their high  
 192 activity and low price. In this section, currently reported bifunctional catalysts are  
 193 comprehensively analyzed, and the rational design of bifunctional catalysts is emphasized and  
 194 outlined in **Table 1**.

195 **Table 1** Representative bifunctional catalysts for urea electrolysis.

Category	Electrocatalyst	Key design strategy	Electrolyte	$E_{10}^8$ (V)
	Ni@NCDS <sup>32</sup>	Composite construction	1 M KOH + 0.5 M urea	1.47

Metals and alloys	Ni-Mo alloy nanotube array <sup>7</sup>	Nanostructure control	1 M KOH + 0.1 M urea	1.43
	Ni-NiO-MoNi <sup>33</sup>	Composite construction	1 M KOH + 0.5 M urea	1.37
	Rh/NiV-LDH <sup>34</sup>	Single-atom catalyst	1 M KOH + 0.33 M urea	1.47 ( $E_{100}$ )
Metal oxides	CoFe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> nanoneedle <sup>11</sup>	Nanostructure control, vacancy engineering	1 M KOH + 0.33 M urea	1.47
	Ru/P co-doped NiMoO <sub>4</sub> <sup>35</sup>	Dual doping	1 M KOH + 0.5 M urea	1.73 ( $E_{500}$ )
	Ni <sub>3</sub> S <sub>2</sub> -NiMoO <sub>4</sub> <sup>36</sup>	Composite construction, phase engineering	1 M KOH + 0.5 M urea	1.61 ( $E_{500}$ )
	NiMoO <sub>4</sub> /Ni <sub>3</sub> S <sub>4</sub> /MoS <sub>2</sub> <sup>37</sup>	Composite construction, nanostructure control	1 M KOH + 0.5 M urea	1.55 ( $E_{50}$ )
Metal hydroxides	Co-doped Ni(OH) <sub>2</sub> <sup>38</sup>	Doping	1 M KOH + 0.5 M urea	1.42
	CoN/Ni(OH) <sub>2</sub> <sup>39</sup>	Composite construction	1 M KOH + 0.5 M urea	1.43
	P-doped NiCoZn LDH <sup>40</sup>	Doping, nanostructure control	1 M KOH + 0.5 M urea	1.479 ( $E_{100}$ )
Metal chalcogenides	NiCo <sub>2</sub> S <sub>4</sub> nanosheets <sup>41</sup>	Nanostructure control	1 M KOH + 0.33 M urea	1.49
	Fe-doped Ni <sub>3</sub> S <sub>2</sub> <sup>42</sup>	Doping	1 M KOH + 0.33 M urea	1.49
	Se/NiSe <sub>2</sub> <sup>43</sup>	Composite construction (Schottky heterojunction)	1 M KOH + 0.33 M urea	1.59
	Amorphous Ni-S-Se <sup>44</sup>	Phase engineering	1 M KOH + 0.5 M urea	1.47
	Ni <sub>3</sub> S <sub>2</sub> @CoMoS <sub>4</sub> /NiFeOOH <sup>45</sup>	Composite construction	1 M KOH + 0.5 M urea	1.66 ( $E_{100}$ )
Metal pnictides	Ni <sub>3</sub> N nanosheets <sup>46</sup>	Nanostructure control	1 M KOH + 0.5 M urea	1.503 ( $E_{100}$ )
	Hollow NiCoP nanoprisms <sup>47</sup>	Component optimization, nanostructure control	1 M KOH + 0.5 M urea	1.36
	Mo, Fe co-doped Co <sub>2</sub> P <sup>48</sup>	Dual doping	1 M KOH + 0.5 M urea	1.415
	Ni <sub>3</sub> N/Ni <sub>0.2</sub> Mo <sub>0.8</sub> N nanorod arrays <sup>49</sup>	Composite construction, nanostructure control	1 M KOH + 0.5 M urea	1.348

	CoS <sub>x</sub> /Co-MOF <sup>50</sup>	Composite construction, nanostructure control	1 M KOH + 0.5 M urea	1.48
Others	Fe-doped Ni MOF nanosheet arrays <sup>51</sup>	Nanostructure control, doping	1 M KOH + 0.33 M urea	1.431
	Ni-Co-B nanoparticles <sup>52</sup>	Component optimization	1 M KOH + 0.33 M urea	1.34
	NiF <sub>3</sub> /Ni <sub>2</sub> P <sup>53</sup>	Composite construction	1 M KOH + 0.33 M urea	1.54

196 Note: <sup>a</sup> $E_{10}$ : applied potential at a current density of 10 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> for urea electrolysis; <sup>b</sup>LDH: layered double hydroxide

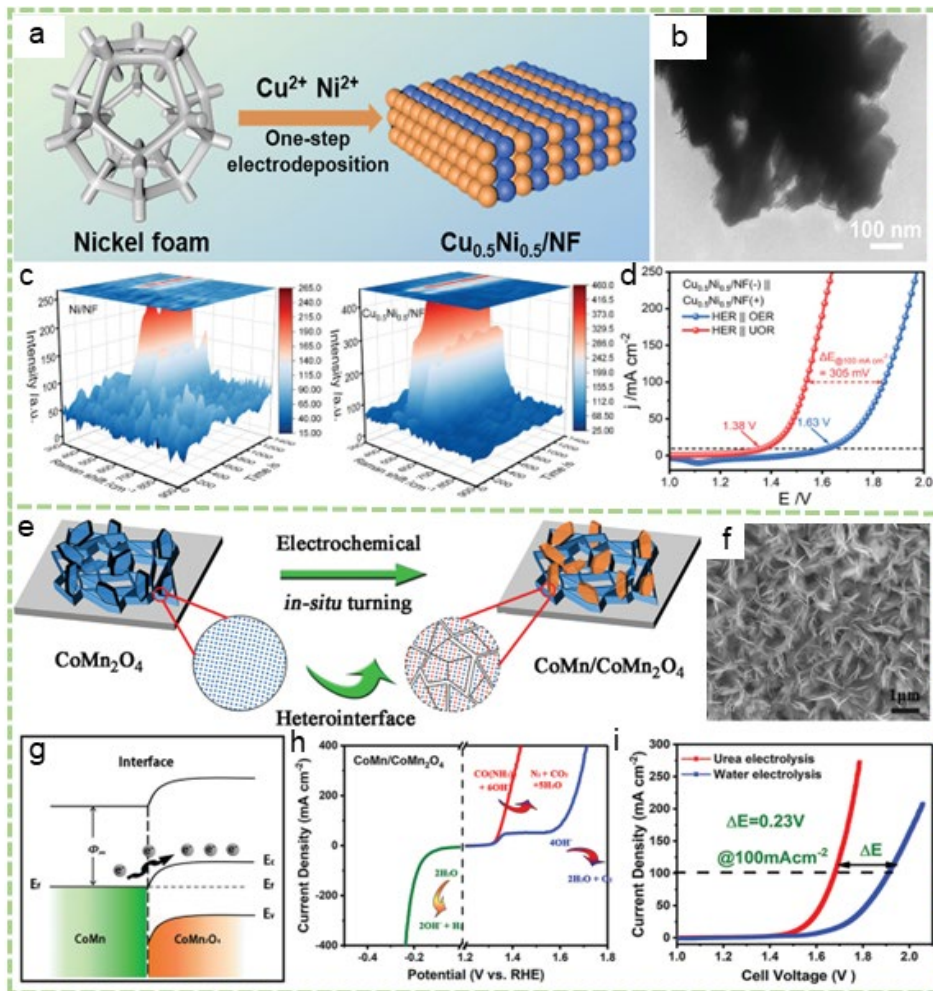
#### 197 4.1. Metal nanoparticles, and alloys

198 Metallic catalysts, with high electronic conductivity, are efficient for diverse electrochemical  
199 reactions. Ni has high intrinsic activity for UOR and HER,<sup>54</sup> while the aggregation of Ni  
200 nanoparticles during the conventional pyrolysis process significantly limits the electroactive area  
201 and leads to low catalytic performance. To address this issue, some studies focus on engineering  
202 Ni-based precursors with isolated Ni ions. Oxygen-based functional groups on carbon materials  
203 can provide rich binding sites for Ni<sup>2+</sup>, and the pyrolysis of Ni<sup>2+</sup>-carbon complexes can lead to  
204 Ni/carbon composite material with highly dispersed Ni nanoparticles.<sup>32</sup> In alkaline electrolytes,  
205 carbon also provides a protective cover for Ni active sites by limiting the leaching and inactivation  
206 of Ni. Another mainstream route to prepare isolated Ni nanoparticles is designing MOF-based  
207 precursors, in which Ni<sup>2+</sup> can be separated by organic ligands. In 2018, Wang et al. developed a  
208 Zn/Ni-BTC (BTC: 1,3,5-trimesic acid) MOF as a precursor of the Ni/C catalyst.<sup>55</sup> After a  
209 calcination process, the obtained Ni/C catalyst shows a high Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET)  
210 specific surface area (SSA, 438 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>) and a high pore volume (0.605 cm<sup>3</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>). Using for urea  
211 electrolysis, the bifunctional Ni/C can attain 10 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> at 1.6 V.

212 Alloying is a powerful strategy to raise metals' intrinsic activity via tuning their electronic  
213 properties. Several bimetallic alloys have exhibited favourable performance towards urea  
214 electrolysis, such as AuRh,<sup>56</sup> Cu<sub>0.5</sub>Ni<sub>0.5</sub>,<sup>57</sup> and Ni-Mo alloy<sup>7</sup>. Although the noble metal-based AuRh  
215 catalyst has an excellent activity for urea electrolysis ( $E_{100} = 1.47$  V),<sup>56</sup> the high price of Au and  
216 Rh would limit its practical applications. Alternatively, Ni-based low-cost alloys attract growing  
217 interest. With a facile electrodeposition process, Zhang and coauthors developed a metastable  
218 Cu<sub>0.5</sub>Ni<sub>0.5</sub> alloy which has a nanoparticle structure (**Fig. 3a-b**).<sup>57</sup> Benefitting from the strong  
219 electronic interaction between Cu and Ni and the metastable feature, Cu<sub>0.5</sub>Ni<sub>0.5</sub> alloy/NF shows  
220 high performance towards both HER and UOR. Especially, the Cu<sub>0.5</sub>Ni<sub>0.5</sub> alloy is more favourable  
221 for the *in situ* structure reconstruction during UOR process and can generate electroactive NiOOH  
222 phase at lower potentials than bare Ni (**Fig. 3c**). The bifunctional Cu<sub>0.5</sub>Ni<sub>0.5</sub> alloy/NF can save 305  
223 mV at 100 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> for urea electrolysis than for water electrolysis (**Fig. 3d**), indicating an energy-  
224 saving hydrogen production process.

225 Designing composite materials include alloy/carbon and alloy/metal compound composites can  
226 enhance the performance of alloys. The intention for constructing alloy/carbon composites is to  
227 improve the dispersion of active alloy particles and improve the conductivity of catalysts. N-doped  
228 carbon<sup>58</sup> and ordered mesoporous carbon<sup>59</sup> are thus developed for supporting Ni-based alloys.  
229 Coupling alloys with another electroactive material can help to improve the intrinsic activity. It is  
230 suggested that low-valence metal species in alloys are highly effective for HER,<sup>60</sup> while high-  
231 valent metal species can facilitate *in situ* evolution of metal oxyhydroxide phases during UOR.<sup>61</sup>  
232 In this context, metal oxides and sulfides have been extensively studied to promote catalytic  
233 activities of alloys. Interestingly, Wang et al. created a CoMn/CoMn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> composite directly from  
234 CoMn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> with a facile electrochemical treatment (**Fig. 3e**), which is composed of nanoflake arrays

235 **(Fig. 3f).**<sup>62</sup> Aside from the generation of multiple active sites, spontaneous charge transfer at the  
236 CoMn/CoMn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> Schottky heterostructure interface promotes reactant absorption and chemical  
237 bonds breaking, thereby initiating the splitting of urea and water **(Fig. 3g)**. The bifunctional  
238 CoMn/CoMn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> catalyst can efficiently catalyze urea electrolysis ( $E_{10} = 1.51$  V), and realizes  
239 energy-saving hydrogen production compared with water electrolysis ( $E_{10} = 1.64$  V) **(Fig. 3h-i)**.  
240 Composites like MoNi<sub>4</sub>/MoO<sub>x</sub>@NF,<sup>63</sup> Ni-NiO-MoNi,<sup>33</sup> MoNiFeS<sub>x</sub>@FeNi<sub>3</sub>,<sup>64</sup> and  
241 NiMo@ZnO/NF<sup>65</sup> also exhibit good performance towards urea electrolysis. In this studies, the  
242 importance of multi-valence of metal species<sup>63</sup> and nanostructure<sup>33, 65</sup> in determining the catalytic  
243 performance has been outlined.



244

245 **Fig. 3.** (a) Scheme of the preparation of  $\text{Cu}_{0.5}\text{Ni}_{0.5}/\text{NF}$  preparation. (b) TEM image of  $\text{Cu}_{0.5}\text{Ni}_{0.5}/\text{NF}$ . (c) *In situ* Raman  
 246 spectra of  $\text{Cu}_{0.5}\text{Ni}_{0.5}/\text{NF}$  and  $\text{Ni}/\text{NF}$  during UOR. (d) LSV curves of  $\text{Cu}_{0.5}\text{Ni}_{0.5}/\text{NF}||\text{Cu}_{0.5}\text{Ni}_{0.5}/\text{NF}$  couple for water  
 247 electrolysis and urea electrolysis.<sup>57</sup> (e) Schematic of the fabrication of  $\text{CoMn}/\text{CoMn}_2\text{O}_4$ . (f) SEM image of  
 248  $\text{CoMn}/\text{CoMn}_2\text{O}_4$ . (g) Energy band profile of  $\text{CoMn}_2\text{O}_4$  and metallic  $\text{CoMn}$  after Schottky contact. (h) LSV curves of  
 249  $\text{CoMn}/\text{CoMn}_2\text{O}_4$  for UOR, OER, and HER. (i) Polarization curves of  $\text{CoMn}/\text{CoMn}_2\text{O}_4||\text{CoMn}/\text{CoMn}_2\text{O}_4$  for water  
 250 electrolysis and urea electrolysis.<sup>62</sup>



251 **4.2. Metal oxides**

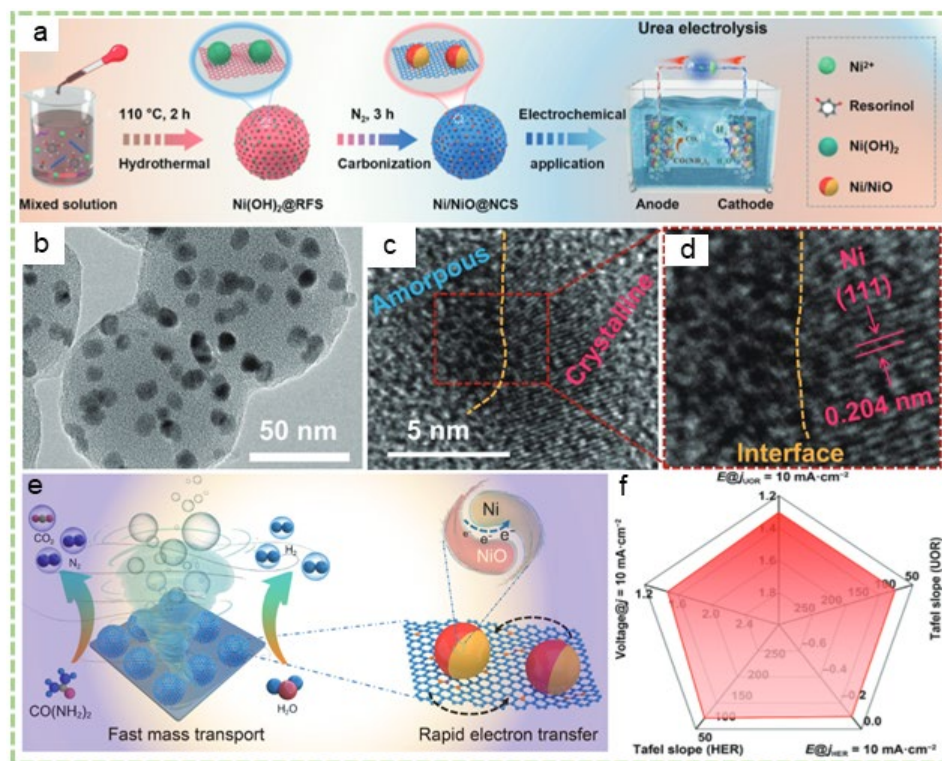
252 Transition metal oxides are widely used in electrocatalysis due to their high activity, eco-  
253 friendliness, facile preparation, and low cost. For urea electrolysis, a series of Ni and Co-based  
254 oxides have been developed. Catalysts-based on Ni(Co)MoO<sub>x</sub> are the most frequently reported  
255 because of dual active sites of Ni/Co and Mo for urea electrolysis.<sup>66</sup> Representatively, in the  
256 Co<sub>2</sub>Mo<sub>3</sub>O<sub>8</sub> catalyst, the high-valence Mo<sup>6+</sup> species and the *in situ* generated Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> phase  
257 contribute to the high UOR.<sup>67</sup> In terms of HER, the Co atom is responsible for breaking H-OH  
258 bond and the Mo site acts as hydrogen evolution center. The combination of Co and Mo in the  
259 oxide thus leads to a synergistic effect for urea electrolysis.

260 The catalytic properties of metal oxides generally can be regulated by oxygen vacancy construction  
261 and heteroatom doping. Oxygen vacancy can be easily introduced by a facile reduction treatment<sup>11</sup>  
262 or chemical etching<sup>68</sup>. The oxygen-deficient oxides can provide better HER and UOR performance  
263 than the pristine one. Zhang et al. suggested that oxygen vacancy in CoFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> can boost the  
264 electrical conductivity of catalyst,<sup>11</sup> while how the oxygen vacancy tune the elemental reaction  
265 steps of urea electrolysis has not been studied. Heteroatom doping also holds great promise for  
266 improving oxides' catalytic activities. Metal dopants like Fe and V have been investigated to  
267 regulate the properties of NiCo<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub><sup>69</sup> and Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub><sup>70</sup>, respectively. Beyond single doping, dual doping  
268 seems to be more effective. Ni, N-codoped NiMoO<sub>4</sub><sup>71</sup> and Ru/P dual-doped NiMoO<sub>4</sub><sup>35</sup> have  
269 exhibited upgraded performance for urea electrolysis than their single-doping counterparts. Guo  
270 found that the Ru, P dual-doping finely modulated the *d*-band center of NiMoO<sub>4</sub>, thereby  
271 optimizing adsorption/desorption behavior of reaction intermediates.<sup>35</sup>

272 Constructing oxide-based composite catalysts is another efficient method. Integrating metal oxides  
273 with metal particles,<sup>72</sup> alloys,<sup>73</sup> oxides,<sup>74</sup> sulfides,<sup>75</sup> phosphides,<sup>76</sup> and carbon materials<sup>77</sup> have been  
274 explored. The introduction of carbon materials can improve the conductivity of catalysts and the  
275 interaction between oxides and carbon ensures long-term stability.<sup>78</sup> In terms of metallic materials,  
276 their combination with oxides can not only raise the conductivity but also provide new active sites.  
277 In the Ni/NiMoO<sub>x</sub> electrocatalyst, the interface between Ni and NiMoO<sub>x</sub> benefits the conductivity  
278 and modulates the surface polarization of the catalyst, thereby enhancing the UOR activity.<sup>72</sup> The  
279 beneficial effect of the coupling interface between metallic sites and metal oxides is also found in  
280 the CoMoO@Co composite,<sup>79</sup> Ni@C-V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>/NF,<sup>80</sup> and FeNi<sub>3</sub>-MoO<sub>2</sub>.<sup>73</sup> Considering the success of  
281 metal oxides/carbon and metal/metal oxides, developing tricomponent metal/metal oxides/carbon  
282 composites becomes a sensible choice. As reported, Xu and coworkers designed a Ni/NiO hybrid  
283 on N-doped carbon spheres (CA-Ni/NiO@NCS) by the two-step hydrothermal process-  
284 carbonization method (**Fig. 4a**).<sup>81</sup> The TEM image shows that the well dispersion of nanosized  
285 Ni/NiO particles on the carbon support (**Fig. 4b**), and an amorphous NiO-crystalline Ni interface  
286 can be observed from the HRTEM images (**Fig. 4c-d**). Noting, the rich amorphous/crystalline  
287 interface is able to adjust the electronic structure of the composite and thus optimize  
288 absorption/desorption behavior of reactants and reaction intermediates. Also, abundant unsaturated  
289 edge sites on the amorphous phase will provide highly active sites and promote the mass/charge  
290 transport during electrochemical reactions (**Fig. 4e**). As such, the composite exhibits good  
291 activities for urea electrolysis, with an  $E_{10}$  of 1.475 V (**Fig. 4f**).

292 Metal oxide/metal X (X = O, S, P) composites hold promise for urea electrolysis. The incorporation  
293 of metal X components can improve metal oxides' performance in multiple ways, in terms of  
294 intrinsic activity, active sites, and stability. For example, Xu et al. suggested that the CrO<sub>x</sub> in

295 Ni/NiO@CrO<sub>x</sub> could accelerate the *in situ* evolution of NiOOH phase and provide a protective  
296 effect to enhance the stability for UOR.<sup>82</sup> In a tricomponent NiMoO<sub>4</sub>/Ni<sub>3</sub>S<sub>4</sub>/MoS<sub>2</sub>, the synergistic  
297 effect between Ni, Mo, and S with diverse valences favors both UOR and HER, and a low potential  
298 of 1.55 V is needed for attaining 50 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>.<sup>37</sup> It is interesting to find that coupling metal oxides  
299 with components having other functions can form novel electrocatalytic systems. Jiang and  
300 coauthors combined sulfur-doped NiMoO<sub>4</sub> with plasmonic MoO<sub>2</sub> (S-NiMo/NF) for solar  
301 thermoelectric self-powered urea electrolysis.<sup>83</sup> The S-NiMo/NF composite has good plasmonic  
302 absorption and photothermal conversion abilities, which offers the opportunity of designing  
303 photothermal-assisted urea electrolysis. When integrated with a solar thermoelectric generator  
304 (STEG), the system can realize self-powered thermoelectric urea electrolysis with a high H<sub>2</sub>  
305 generation rate of over 160 μmol h<sup>-1</sup>. In another Ni-modified WO<sub>3</sub>/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> composite (WO/CN–  
306 Ni@CF), both WO<sub>3</sub> and g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> have well-confirmed photocatalytic performance. Thus, the  
307 bifunctional WO/CN–Ni@CF driven photoelectrochemical urea electrolysis can save energy (0.3  
308 V at *E*<sub>100</sub>) for hydrogen production than the conventional electrochemical process.<sup>84</sup> By developing  
309 external field (e.g., heat, light)-responsive functional composites, such attempts can reduce the  
310 energy cost of urea electrolysis by utilizing solar energy.



311  
 312 Fig. 4. (a) Schematic of the preparation of CA-Ni/NiO@NCS (CA: crystalline/amorphous). (b) TEM and (c, d)  
 313 HTREM images of CA-Ni/NiO@NCS. (e) Scheme of the performance interpretation for CA-Ni/NiO@NCS. (f)  
 314 Comprehensive catalytic activities of CA-Ni/NiO@NCS.<sup>81</sup>

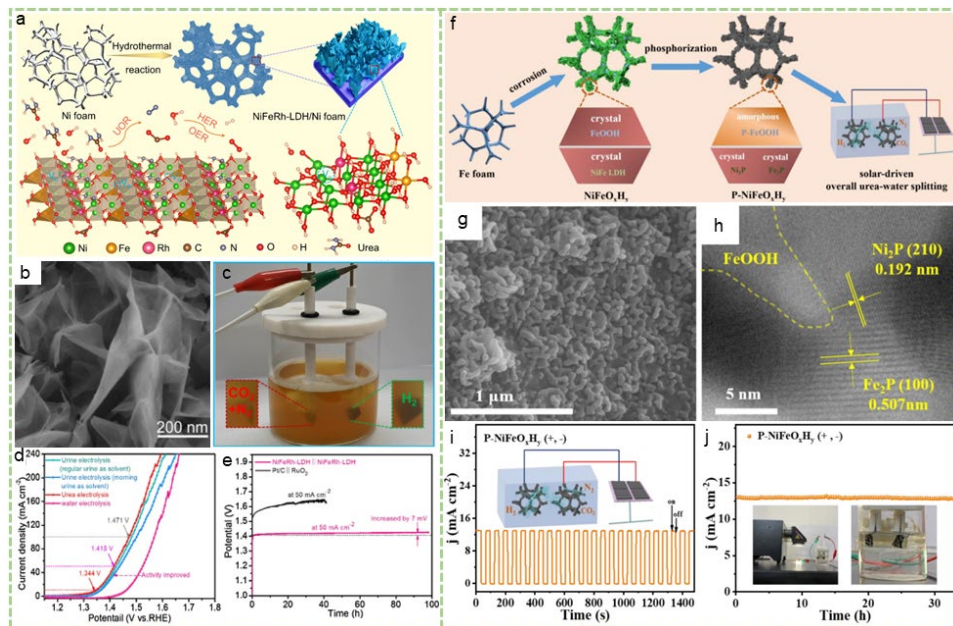
### 315 4.3. Metal hydroxides

316 With a lamellar two-dimensional (2D) structure, metal layered double hydroxides (LDHs) are  
 317 extensively applied in electrocatalysis. Aside from the 2D structure, the merit of facile preparation,  
 318 flexible composition, and low toxicity make LDHs good catalysts for diverse applications.  
 319 However, similar to metal oxides, the low conductivity of LDHs hinders their applications. In  
 320 addition, the limited catalytic edge sites of LDHs are another unfavorable factor as electrocatalysts.

321 Current efforts have focused on addressing these issues by phase regulation, nanostructure control,  
322 vacancy introduction, elemental doping, and composite construction. For instance, the amorphous  
323 NiFeCo LDH/NF can catalyze urea electrolysis at 1.49 V ( $10 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ ), and the amorphous nature  
324 enhances the performance by affording high electrochemically active surface area (ESCA) and  
325 accelerating charge transport.<sup>85</sup> Tian et al. emphasized the importance of hierarchical quaternary  
326 superstructure of NiCo-LDH in urea electrolysis.<sup>86</sup> The three-dimensional (3D) hierarchical  
327 structure can expose rich active sites and accelerate mass/charge transfer.

328 To improve the intrinsic activities of LDHs, building oxygen vacancies and heteroatom doping  
329 gain much attention. The presence of holes on NiFe-LDHs leads to rich oxygen vacancies, which  
330 further help to expose more electroactive sites and regulate catalysts' electronic structure.<sup>87</sup> Via a  
331 plasma treatment, Yao et al. successfully constructed oxygen vacancies on a N-doped Ni-Fe  
332 oxyhydroxide.<sup>88</sup> The oxygen vacancy-doping dual-engineered catalyst can drive  $10 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$  at  
333 1.37 V. Density functional theory (DFT) calculations indicate oxygen vacancy and nitrogen dopant  
334 boost catalytic performance by increasing the conductivity of Ni-Fe oxyhydroxide. In a Ru-doped  
335 NiFe-LDH (NiFeRh-LDH) synthesized via a hydrothermal method (**Fig. 5a**), oxygen vacancies  
336 are also found.<sup>89</sup> The NiFeRh-LDH shows an interconnected nanosheets nanostructure (**Fig. 5b**).  
337 Further analysis suggests that urea molecules favor to adsorb on the oxygen vacancy-rich NiFeRh-  
338 LDH, and an optimized urea adsorption energy can be obtained on the Rh-doped LDH catalyst.  
339 With these advantages, NiFeRh-LDH can attain high activity and stability (**Fig. 5c-e**) for the  
340 electrolysis of pure urea solution and real urine wastewater ( $E_{10} = 1.35 \text{ V}$ ). Besides regulating the  
341 electronic properties of LDHs, metal dopants (e.g., Co) also can accelerate the *in situ* conversion  
342 of  $\alpha\text{-Ni(OH)}_2$  to NiOOH during UOR, thereby enhancing the catalytic performance.<sup>38</sup>

343 Another method to upgrade the catalytic performance of LDHs is constructing heterostructures.  
344 Aiming at improving the conductivity and alleviate the activity of LDHs, carbon, metal  
345 nanoparticles and metal oxides/sulfides/phosphides/nitrides have been introduced.<sup>39, 90-93</sup> Carbon  
346 materials like multiwalled carbon nanotubes (MWCNTs)<sup>91</sup> and fullerene quantum dots<sup>94</sup> can help  
347 to compensate the conductivity of LDHs, and importantly, fullerene quantum dots are suggested  
348 to precisely tune electronic properties of CoNi-LDH and thereby favor reaction intermediate  
349 adsorption during urea electrolysis. The coupling of metal-bearing components with LDHs also  
350 can provide active sites and optimize catalysts' electronic properties. Gao et al. found that the  
351 electron transfer between Ni(OH)<sub>2</sub> and Ni favors urea adsorption,<sup>90</sup> while WO<sub>3</sub> in the  
352 Ni(OH)<sub>2</sub>/NiO-C/WO<sub>3</sub> composite can transform Ni centers into highly active species for both HER  
353 and UOR<sup>95</sup>. In the amorphous P-doped FeOOH/crystalline NiFe phosphide (P-NiFeO<sub>x</sub>H<sub>y</sub>)  
354 composite array structure prepared by a corrosion-phosphorization method (**Fig. 5f-g**), the  
355 crystalline NiFe phosphide is tightly combined with the amorphous FeOOH (**Fig. 5h**).<sup>96</sup> In the  
356 multiphase composite, NiFeP provides abundant active sites and high electronic conductivity,  
357 amorphous P-doped FeOOH enhances the adsorption of oxygen-containing  
358 reactants/intermediates. In addition, the amorphous/crystalline structure together with the  
359 superaerophobic and superhydrophilic surface forms a synergistic effect, leading to rich active  
360 sites and enhanced mass/charge transfer. Combining with the photovoltaic equipment, the  
361 bifunctional P-NiFeO<sub>x</sub>H<sub>y</sub> driven urea electrolysis system can respond speedily and realize stable  
362 hydrogen production without additional voltage input (**Fig. 5i-j**).



363  
 364 **Fig. 5.** (a) Scheme of the synthesis of Ru-doped NiFe-LDH. (b) SEM image of Ru-doped NiFe-LDH. (c) Picture of  
 365 the urea electrolytic reactor. (d) LSV curves of water electrolysis, urine electrolysis, and urea electrolysis. (e) Urea  
 366 electrolysis stability of bifunctional Ru-doped NiFe-LDH and commercial RuO<sub>2</sub>||Pt/C couple.<sup>89</sup> (f) Illustration of the  
 367 preparation of P-NiFeO<sub>x</sub>H<sub>y</sub>. (g) SEM and (h) TEM images of P-NiFeO<sub>x</sub>H<sub>y</sub>. (i) J-t profile under chopped illumination,  
 368 inset shows an illustration of solar-driven urea electrolysis system. (d) Stability test of a solar cell-driven urea  
 369 electrolysis.<sup>96</sup>

#### 370 4.4. Metal chalcogenides

371 Metal chalcogenides (i.e., sulfides, selenides, and tellurides) are a group of promising  
 372 electrocatalysts for urea electrolysis owing to their metallic feature and unique electronic  
 373 structure.<sup>97, 98</sup> To develop high-performance metal chalcogenide catalysts, researchers have made  
 374 efforts for enlarging active surface area by nanostructure control and enhancing intrinsic activity  
 375 by phase regulation, heteroatom doping, and composite construction.

376 Limited active sites are a main issue that hinders the catalytic performance of electrocatalysts,  
377 which can be well alleviated by nanostructure control. Compared with nanoparticles, metal sulfide  
378 arrays developed by hydrothermal process-involved methods gain growing interest. To date, CoS<sub>2</sub>  
379 nanoneedle array,<sup>99</sup> CoNi<sub>2</sub>S<sub>4</sub> nanosheets,<sup>100</sup> porous NiCo<sub>2</sub>S<sub>4</sub> nanosheet array,<sup>41</sup> Ni-Co-S nanosheet  
380 array,<sup>101</sup> Fe-Ni sulfide nanoarray,<sup>102</sup> Ni<sub>3</sub>S<sub>2</sub> nanowires,<sup>103</sup> caterpillar-like NiCo<sub>2</sub>S<sub>4</sub> array,<sup>104</sup> and SnS  
381 nanosheet array<sup>105</sup> have been developed for urea electrolysis. By vertically loading CoNi<sub>2</sub>S<sub>4</sub>  
382 nanosheets on wood cell walls, Jiang and coauthors suggested that the 3D hierarchical porous  
383 wood framework and ultrathin CoNi<sub>2</sub>S<sub>4</sub> nanosheets synergistically provides abundant catalytic  
384 active sites, expedites mass/charge transfer, and accelerates the diffusion of gaseous products  
385 during the electrochemical reactions.<sup>100</sup> Another route to engineer catalysts with high surface area  
386 is using MOF-based precursors. Starting from a hierarchical PBA@MOF-Ni (Ni-Co Prussian blue  
387 analogue on MOF-Ni) hybrid, Xu et al. developed a Co-Ni/Se with a solvothermal method.<sup>106</sup> The  
388 obtained Co-Ni/Se shows a hollow nanocube structure and maintains the flower shape of the  
389 precursor. Working as a bifunctional catalyst, Co-Ni/Se just takes 1.49 V at 10 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>. A cobalt-  
390 based MOF (ZIF67)/Co(OH)<sub>2</sub> nanosheet composite also has been used as a precursor for designing  
391 yolk-shell CoSe<sub>2</sub> nanostructure.<sup>107</sup> These finely tuned nanostructures generally possess large SSA  
392 and well-exposed active sites on the interconnected structure, which could accelerate mass/charge  
393 transfer and reinforce the diffusion of electrolytes and gas bubbles during urea electrolysis, which  
394 is extremely important for the operating situation under high current densities.

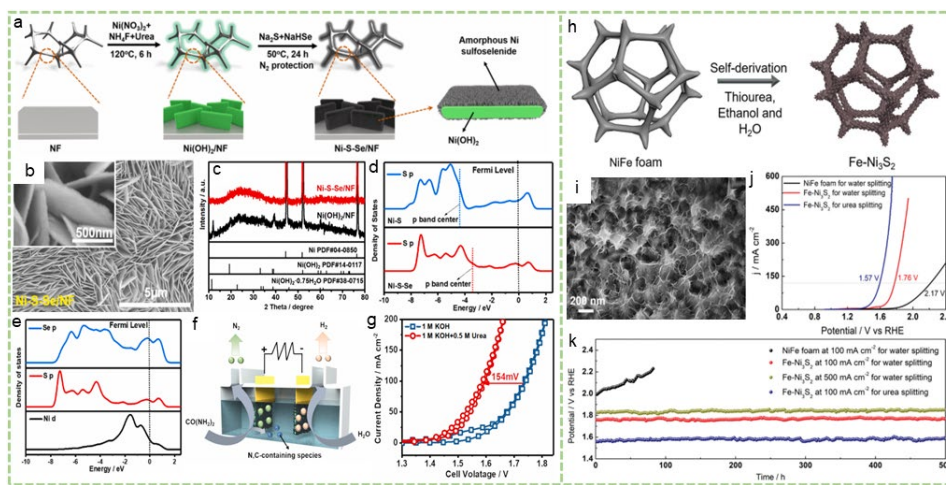
395 Amorphous chalcogenides have rich dangling bonds and unsaturated atoms which are highly  
396 active sites for electrochemical reactions. Generally, the flexible electronic structure of amorphous  
397 materials makes them more active than their crystalline counterpart. Thus, several amorphous  
398 chalcogenides have been designed for urea electrolysis, like electrodeposited amorphous Ni-Mo-



399 S film,<sup>108</sup> porous and amorphous  $\text{CoS}_x(\text{OH})_y$ ,<sup>109</sup> and amorphous Ni-S-Se<sup>44</sup>. Chen and co-authors  
400 recently developed amorphous Ni sulfide (Ni-S), selenide (Ni-Se), and sulfoselenide (Ni-S-Se) via  
401 a two-step process (**Fig. 6a**).<sup>44</sup> The Ni-S-Se catalyst is composed of nanoplate array (**Fig. 6b**), and  
402 the X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns suggest an amorphous state (**Fig. 6c**). Ni-S-Se has a higher  
403  $p$ -band center for S than Ni-S (**Fig. 6d**); thus, S sites in Ni-S-Se have a stronger adsorption strength  
404 of  $\text{H}^*$  intermediate than that in Ni-S. Such electronic property leads to a better HER performance  
405 of Ni-S-Se. In addition, the hybridization of electrons from Se, S, and Ni benefits electron  
406 interaction/transfer between different active sites (**Fig. 6e**), contributing to high activity towards  
407 UOR and HER. The bifunctional Ni-S-Se can drive urea electrolysis to realize an energy efficient  
408 hydrogen production (**Fig. 6f-g**). Although this study has employed DFT calculations to explain  
409 amorphous Ni-S-Se catalyst's high activity, one should keep in mind that building a precise crystal  
410 model for amorphous materials remains a challenge and it is thus important to carefully check the  
411 structure rationality of amorphous catalysts.

412 Heteroatom doping can alter the electronic structure of metal chalcogenides, and thus alleviate the  
413 intrinsic activity for urea electrolysis.<sup>110</sup> Liu et al. found that the doping of Fe into  $\text{Ni}_3\text{S}_2$  could  
414 modify the coordination structure of Ni atoms and further optimize adsorption energies of reaction  
415 intermediates on Ni sites.<sup>42</sup> In another study, the Fe dopant in a hydrothermally synthesized  
416 hierarchical  $\text{Ni}_3\text{S}_2$  electrode (**Fig. 6h-i**) is suggested to limit S dissolution and accelerate catalyst  
417 reconstruction during electrochemical process.<sup>111</sup> Also, Fe dopant help to optimize the adsorption  
418 of intermediates and push the  $d$ -band center to the Fermi level, facilitating catalytic reactions. As  
419 a result, the Fe- $\text{Ni}_3\text{S}_2$  only takes 1.57 V at  $100 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ , and shows high stability over 500 h (**Fig.**  
420 **6j-k**). Aside from tuning electronic properties, doping can also reshape the nanostructure of nickel  
421 sulfides. Compared with  $\text{Ni}_3\text{S}_2$  nanosheets, the Mo-doped  $\text{Ni}_3\text{S}_2$  shows a morphology of branch-

422 like nanorods due to the anisotropic growth of  $\text{MoO}_4^{2-}$  during the hydrothermal process.<sup>112</sup> Thus,  
 423 the Mo-doped  $\text{Ni}_3\text{S}_2$  has more active sites for urea electrolysis. Similarly, Mn dopant exhibits a  
 424 positive effect on the morphology of Ni–Se prepared by electrodeposition, and the Mn-  
 425 incorporated catalyst also benefits from the enhanced electrons transfer from Mn to Ni, thereby  
 426 leading to a better adsorption strength of reactants and intermediates.<sup>113</sup>



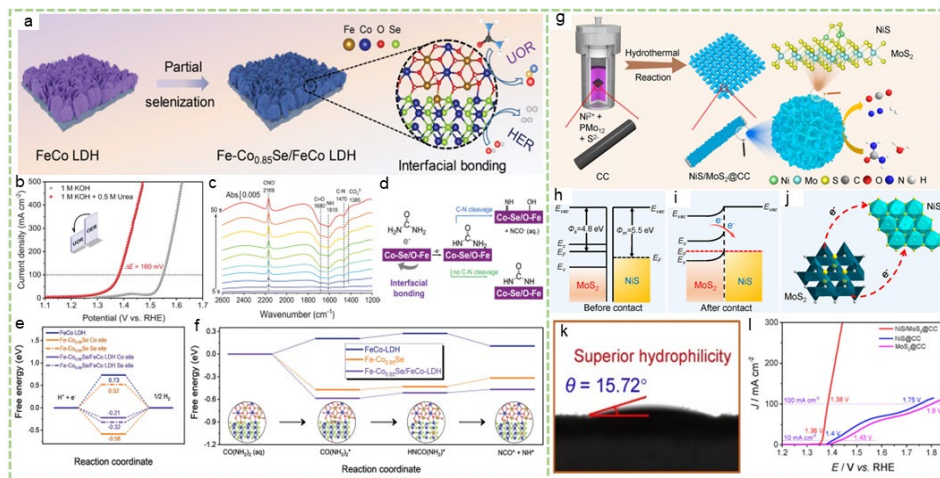
427 **Fig. 6** (a) Schematic of the synthesis of Ni-S-Se. (b) SEM image and (c) XRD patterns of Ni-S-Se. (d) Density of state  
 429 (DOS) of S's p orbital for Ni-S-Se and Ni-S. (e) DOS of Se p, S p, and Ni d orbitals for Ni-S-Se. (f) Scheme of a urea  
 430 electrolyzer. (g) Polarization curves of bifunctional Ni-S-Se/NF for urea electrolysis and water electrolysis.<sup>44</sup> (h)  
 431 Scheme of the fabrication of Fe-Ni<sub>3</sub>S<sub>2</sub> electrode. (i) SEM image of Fe-Ni<sub>3</sub>S<sub>2</sub>. (j) LSV curves for water electrolysis and  
 432 urea electrolysis using bifunctional Fe-Ni<sub>3</sub>S<sub>2</sub>. (k) Stability curves of Fe-Ni<sub>3</sub>S<sub>2</sub> for water electrolysis and urea  
 433 electrolysis.<sup>111</sup>

434 Integrating the merits of multi-components into one catalyst exhibits high efficiency to upgrade  
 435 the catalytic performance of chalcogenides due to the interfacial synergetic and electronic  
 436 modulation. Chalcogenide/carbon,<sup>114</sup> chalcogenide/metal,<sup>115</sup> chalcogenide/alloy,<sup>116</sup>

437 chalcogenide/(hydr)oxide,<sup>117</sup> chalcogenide/phosphide,<sup>118</sup> and chalcogenide/chalcogenide  
438 hybrids<sup>119, 120</sup> have been designed for urea electrolysis. Carbon materials (e.g., graphene,<sup>121</sup>  
439 MWCNTs,<sup>114</sup> and N-doped carbon<sup>122</sup>) are generally employed to enhance the electronic  
440 conductivity and benefit active sites exposure and electron transport of chalcogenide-based  
441 catalysts. Interestingly, Zhang et al. found that the interfacial interaction between N-doped carbon  
442 and Ni center promotes water dissociation and optimizes H\* adsorption/desorption, with a thermo-  
443 neutral hydrogen adsorption free energy.<sup>122</sup> In terms of chalcogenide/metal compound  
444 heterostructures, most studies focus on the interfacial interaction-regulated electronic properties,  
445 and the introduction of additional catalytic active sites. These two effects are account for  
446 explaining the enhanced intrinsic activities of chalcogenide/metal compound composites. For a  
447 Fe-doped Co<sub>0.85</sub>Se/FeCo LDH composite (Fe-Co<sub>0.85</sub>Se/FeCo LDH) synthesized via a partial  
448 selenization treatment (**Fig. 7a**), the formation of interfacial bonding between Fe-Co<sub>0.85</sub>Se and  
449 FeCo LDH results in electron redistribution and regulated electronic structures.<sup>123</sup> Compared with  
450 the single phase counterparts, the Fe-doped Co<sub>0.85</sub>Se/FeCo LDH composite exhibits better HER  
451 and UOR performance. At 100 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>, the composite can save 0.16 V for UOR than OER (**Fig.**  
452 **7b**), suggesting an boosted anodic reaction. Further *in situ* Fourier transform infrared (FTIR)  
453 spectra indicate an CNO<sup>-</sup> intermediate during UOR (**Fig. 7c-d**). DFT calculations disclose that the  
454 interface bonding facilitates H adsorption/desorption for HER and promotes urea  
455 adsorption/activation/dissociation during UOR (**Fig. 7e-f**).

456 Among diverse composite catalysts, Mott–Schottky heterojunctions that couple a semiconductor  
457 with a metallic component at nanoscale gain great interest. In a Mott–Schottky heterojunction,  
458 electrons spontaneously flow across the heterointerface and form a built-in electric field, which  
459 redistributes electron cloud densities and forms local electrophilic/nucleophilic regions.<sup>124</sup>

460 Recently,  $\text{Se}/\text{NiSe}_2$ ,<sup>43</sup>  $\text{CoS}_2/\text{MoS}_2$ ,<sup>30</sup>  $\text{MoS}_2/\text{Ni}_3\text{S}_2$ ,<sup>125</sup> and  $\text{NiS}/\text{MoS}_2$ <sup>126</sup> Mott–Schottky  
 461 heterojunctions have been fabricated for urea electrolysis. Take the hydrothermally synthesized  
 462  $\text{NiS}/\text{MoS}_2$  as an example (**Fig. 7g**), the spontaneous electron transfer from  $\text{MoS}_2$  to  $\text{NiS}$  leads to a  
 463 built-in electric field (**Fig. 7h-j**).<sup>126</sup> The built-in electric field accelerates charge transfer efficiency  
 464 and modifies adsorption strength for reaction intermediates, ultimately accelerating water and urea  
 465 molecule dissociation. Together with its hierarchical structure and superior hydrophilicity (**Fig.**  
 466 **7k**), the  $\text{NiS}/\text{MoS}_2$  composite significantly outperforms the  $\text{NiS}$  and  $\text{MoS}_2$  analogues for UOR  
 467 (**Fig. 7l**) and HER.



468  
 469 **Fig. 7** (a) Scheme of the fabrication of  $\text{Fe-Co}_{0.85}\text{Se}/\text{FeCo}$  LDH. (b) LSV curves of  $\text{Fe-Co}_{0.85}\text{Se}/\text{FeCo}$  LDH for OER  
 470 and UOR. (c) Time-dependent FTIR profile of  $\text{Fe-Co}_{0.85}\text{Se}/\text{FeCo}$  LDH during UOR at 1.45 V vs. RHE. (d) Illustration  
 471 of possible intermediates in UOR. (e) HER free energy profiles of  $\text{Fe-Co}_{0.85}\text{Se}/\text{FeCo}$  LDH,  $\text{Fe-Co}_{0.85}\text{Se}$ , and  $\text{FeCo}$   
 472 LDH. (f) Simplified UOR free energy profiles of  $\text{Fe-Co}_{0.85}\text{Se}/\text{FeCo}$  LDH,  $\text{Fe-Co}_{0.85}\text{Se}$ , and  $\text{FeCo}$  LDH.<sup>123</sup> (g)  
 473 Illustration of the synthesis of  $\text{NiS}/\text{MoS}_2@\text{CC}$ . (h) and (i) Energy band profiles of  $\text{MoS}_2$  and metallic  $\text{NiS}$  before and  
 474 after contact. (j) Scheme of the charge transfer process between  $\text{NiS}$  and  $\text{MoS}_2$ . (k) contact angle image of  
 475  $\text{NiS}/\text{MoS}_2@\text{CC}$ . (l) LSV curves of  $\text{MoS}_2@\text{CC}$ ,  $\text{NiS}@\text{CC}$ , and  $\text{NiS}/\text{MoS}_2@\text{CC}$  for UOR.<sup>126</sup>

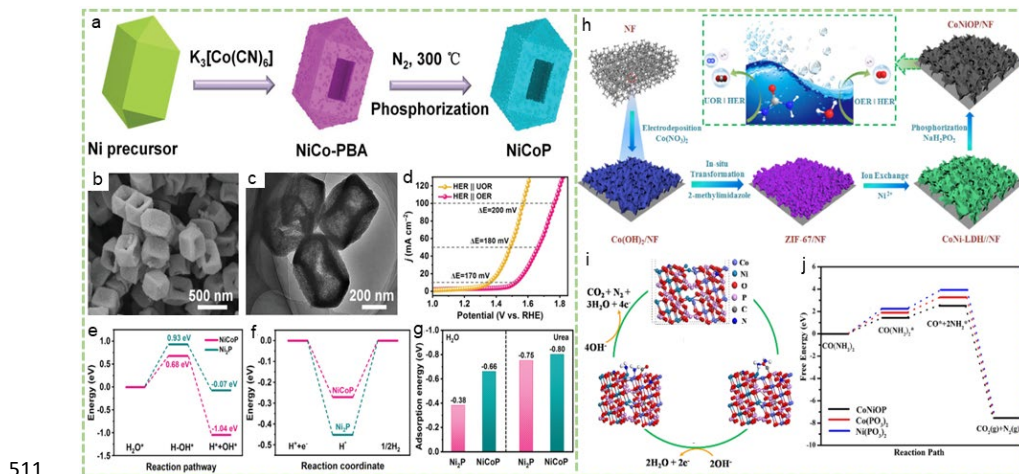
#### 476 4.5. Metal pnictides

477 Transitional metal pnictides, i.e., nitrides and phosphides, are well investigated urea electrolysis  
478 electrocatalysts for their high electrical conductivity, good redox activity, flexible composition and  
479 phase, as well as low cost.<sup>46</sup> Many Ni/Co/Fe-based pnictides exhibit good performance towards  
480 both HER and UOR, and researchers have concentrated on design strategies like nanostructure  
481 control, chemical composition optimization, heteroatom doping, and heterostructure construction.

482 High-performance nitrides and phosphides with diverse nanostructures have been developed.  
483 Generally, nitrides and phosphides synthesized via direct high-temperature processes show a  
484 nanoparticle structure,<sup>127</sup> which bears the drawback of low SSA and thus limited active sites. To  
485 address this issue, it is sensible to use hydrothermally synthesized metal oxides/hydroxides and  
486 MOFs as the precursor for metal nitrides and phosphides.<sup>46, 128, 129</sup> The two-step synthetic route  
487 can obtain nitrides and phosphides with high active area. For example, Liu and coworkers  
488 developed Ni<sub>2</sub>P nanoflake arrays on carbon cloth from the NiO nanoflake arrays via low-  
489 temperature phosphization, and large open spaces between nanoflakes ensure rich active sites are  
490 and accelerate electrolyte/gaseous product diffusion during electrochemical reactions.<sup>129</sup>

491 Compared with binary transition metal pnictides, ternary and quaternary pnictides with two or  
492 more metal components exhibit better electrocatalytic performance. Introducing additional metals  
493 into pnictides can populate active sites, and regulate the electronic properties of catalysts via  
494 intermetallic electron transfer.<sup>130</sup> NiCoP,<sup>131</sup> NiFeP,<sup>132</sup> FeCoP,<sup>133</sup> CoMoN,<sup>130</sup> and NiVMnN<sup>134</sup> are  
495 representative bifunctional ternary and quaternary pnictide catalysts for urea electrolysis. Starting  
496 from a Ni-Co Prussian blue analogue, Ding et al. designed a hollow NiCoP nanoprism catalyst  
497 (Fig. 8a-c).<sup>47</sup> Due to the presence of Co, the NiCoP catalyst outperforms Ni<sub>2</sub>P for both UOR and

498 HER. As a bifunctional catalyst, NiCoP can attain  $100 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$  at 1.57 and 1.77 V for urea
 499 electrolysis and water electrolysis respectively (**Fig. 8d**). Computational results disclose that the
 500 introduction of Co improves the DOS at the Fermi level, boosting water dissociation and hydrogen
 501 evolution steps and enhancing the absorption of water and urea molecules (**Fig. 8e-g**). Similar
 502 enhancement has been found in the CoNi oxyphosphides (CoNiOP) developed with a MOF
 503 precursor (**Fig. 8h**).<sup>135</sup> CoNiOP exhibits better performance than CoOP for urea electrolysis due to
 504 the accelerated *in situ* phase transformation and optimized intermediates adsorption processes
 505 induced by the electrons transfer from bimetal centers to anion at the interface (**Fig. 8i-j**). In the
 506 quaternary NiVMnN, the introduction of  $\text{Mn}^{2+}$  helps to stabilize high-valence  $\text{V}^{5+}$  and  $\text{Ni}^{2+}$  species,
 507 providing stable electroactive sites. The effective electronic transition between Mn and Ni also
 508 contributes to excellent UOR performance.<sup>134</sup> A key issue related to the component regulation is
 509 the rationalization of metal ratios in metal pnictides, which should largely affect the catalytic
 510 performance but little attention has been paid on it.



512 **Fig. 8** (a) Diagram of the synthesis of NiCoP. (b) SEM and (c) TEM images of NiCoP. (d) LSV curves of bifunctional  
513 NiCoP for water electrolysis and urea electrolysis. Energy profiles for (e) water dissociation, (f) hydrogen evolution,  
514 and (g) urea and water adsorption over NiCoP and Ni<sub>2</sub>P.<sup>47</sup> (h) Scheme of the preparation of CoNiOP. (i) DFT  
515 calculation models of UOR reactions over CoNiOP. (j) Free energy diagrams of UOR over of CoNiOP.<sup>135</sup>

516 Doping metal pnictides with metals or nonmetals allows to regulate the electronic properties of  
517 catalysts, thereby enhancing the catalytic performance. For example, introducing Co into the Ni-  
518 P-O catalyst decreases the conversion potential of Ni<sup>2+</sup>/Ni<sup>3+</sup> and the UOR onset potential; for HER,  
519 the Co dopant enhances the water dissociation ability of Ni(OH)<sub>2</sub> and the hydrogen desorption  
520 process of NiP.<sup>136</sup> For the V-doped Ni<sub>3</sub>N,<sup>137</sup> Ru-doped Ni<sub>3</sub>N,<sup>138</sup> and Mo, Fe co-doped Co<sub>2</sub>P<sup>48</sup>,  
521 dopants have been evidenced to regulate the adsorption of reaction intermediates and lead to near  
522 zero Gibbs free energy. Aside from most metal-doped pnictides, oxygen-incorporated NiMoP  
523 developed by Jiang et al. shows upgraded performance for urea electrolysis.<sup>139</sup> Although oxygen  
524 does not act as the active site, the presence of oxygen modulates the electronic environment of Ni  
525 site, facilitates water dissociation for HER, and optimizes intermediate adsorption/desorption for  
526 UOR.

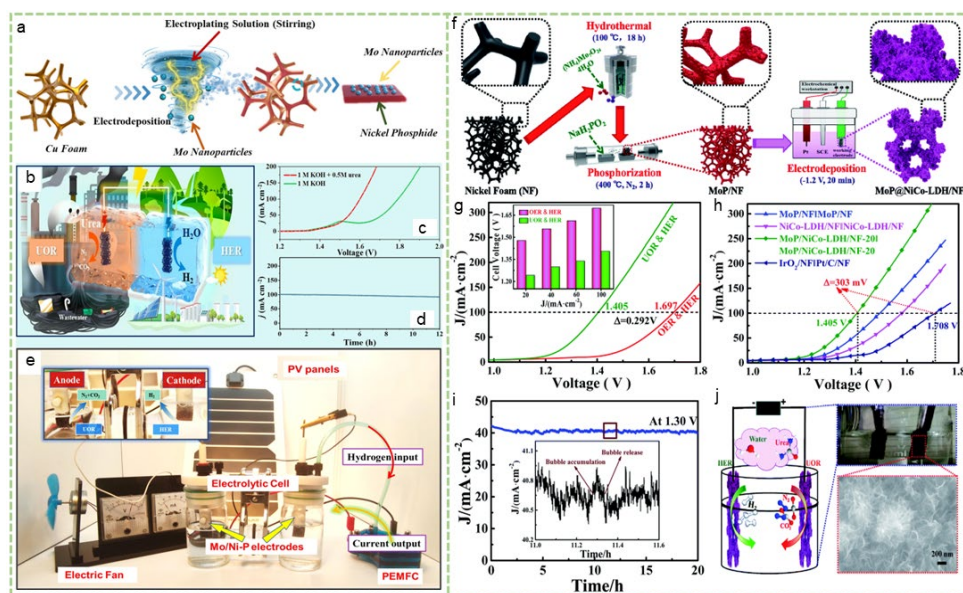
527 Metal pnictide/carbon composites are developed to enhance the performance of catalysts.  
528 Incorporating 2D graphene is suggested to improve the conductivity of pnictide catalysts.<sup>140-142</sup>  
529 Differently, carbon materials may also contribute to the intrinsic activity and stability of catalysts.  
530 For the carbon coated NiCoP with a sea urchin-like nanostructure, the carbon layer promotes the  
531 charge transfer efficiency and structural stability of catalyst.<sup>143</sup> Xiao et al. suggested that the N-  
532 doped carbon layer on Ni<sub>2</sub>P nanoparticles not only boosted the electrical conductivity and long-  
533 term stability but also improved electrolyte/gaseous transport by maintaining a peapod-like  
534 nanostructure.<sup>144</sup> In the 2D CoP/carbon particle composite, the inserted carbon particles increase

535 the catalytic performance by exposing more electroactive sites, improving contact area between  
536 electrolyte and catalyst active surface, and accelerating the mass/electron transfer efficiency in  
537 urea electrolysis.<sup>145</sup>

538 Hybridizing metal pnictides with other electroactive components is effective in attaining high-  
539 performance catalysts. Metals,<sup>146</sup> oxides,<sup>147</sup> hydroxides,<sup>148</sup> sulfides<sup>149, 150</sup> and pnictides<sup>151, 152</sup> have  
540 been employed to regulate the properties of metal pnictides. These metal pnictide-based  
541 heterostructures share the common feature of enlarged active surface area and enhanced intrinsic  
542 activities due to the interface interaction between pnictides and the other active components. For  
543 instance, the Mo particles/Ni-P matrix (Mo/Ni-P) synthesized by electrodeposition (**Fig. 9a**)  
544 combines the merits of both multi-valence Mo and NiP species for efficient urea electrolysis.<sup>153</sup> At  
545 1.55 V, the bifunctional Mo/Ni-P can attain 50 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>, with a high stability for 12 h at 100 mA  
546 cm<sup>-2</sup> (**Fig. 9b-d**). Furthermore, the Mo/Ni-P involved urea electrolysis process successfully works  
547 in a solar-H<sub>2</sub>-electricity conversion system, and the electric fan is driven by the solar-hydrogen  
548 conversion device (**Fig. 9e**). In another Ni/W<sub>5</sub>N<sub>4</sub> Mott-Schottky heterojunction, the charge transfer  
549 at the interface is considered a main reason for explaining its high catalytic performance towards  
550 urea electrolysis ( $E_{10} = 1.33$  V).<sup>146</sup> For some Ni/Co-free pnictides which has good HER  
551 performance, it is necessary to introduce a Ni/Co-based components to enhance their UOR  
552 activities. Wang and co-authors developed a MoP@NiCo-LDH composite via a hydrothermal  
553 process-phosphorization-electrodeposition method (**Fig. 9f**).<sup>154</sup> Compared with MoP and NiCo-  
554 LDH, the composite exhibits better performance for both HER and UOR. It is found that the NiCo  
555 hydroxide can effectively adsorb OH groups and accelerate water dissociation for HER, and the in  
556 situ generated NiCo oxyhydroxide phase boosts the UOR performance. For overall urea  
557 electrolysis, a lower potential (~1.4 V) is required for MoP@NiCo-LDH to achieve 100 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>



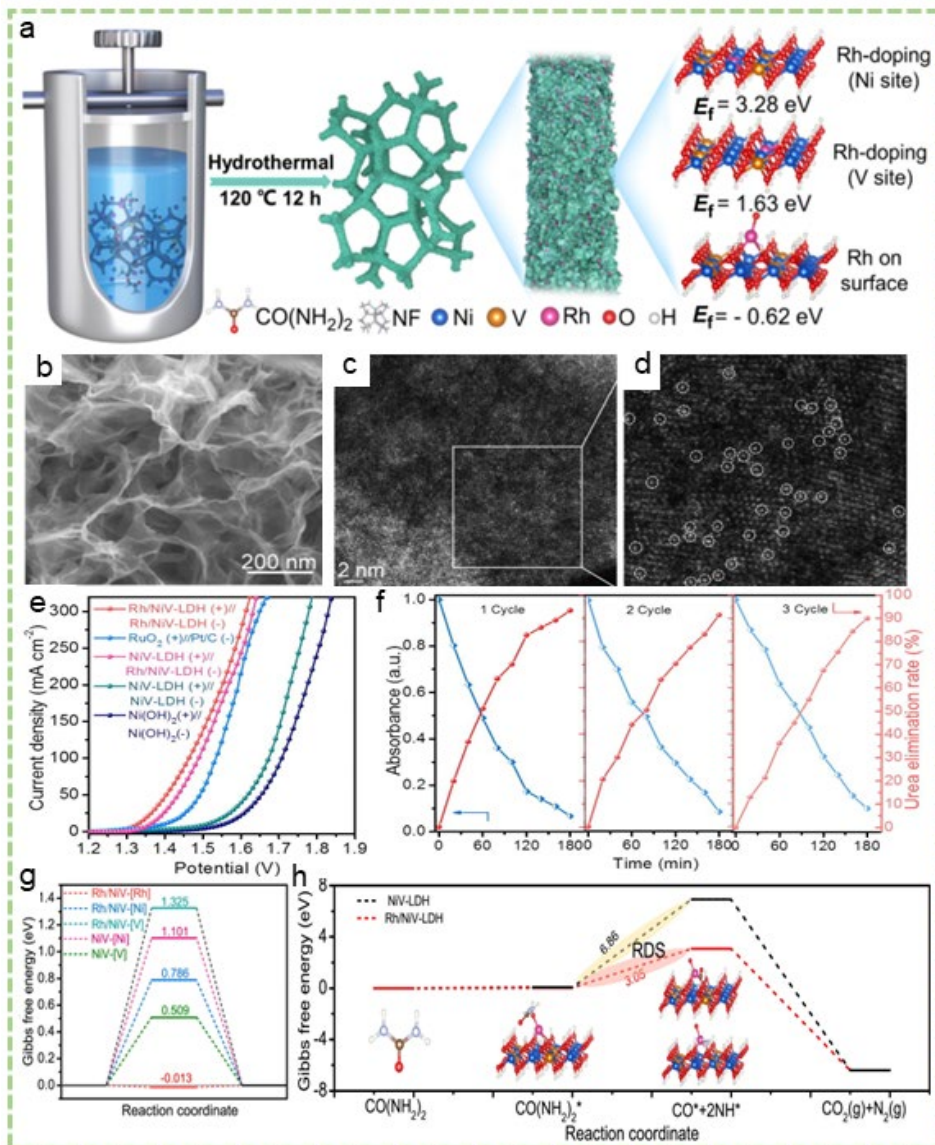
558 than its counterparts (**Fig. 9g-h**). The out-layer LDH also benefits the stability of catalyst, and a  
 559 stable current density is recorded for 20 h; also, the composite has good structural stability (**Fig.**  
 560 **9i-j**). Following such a modular design principle,  $\text{NiP}_2/\text{ZnP}_4$ <sup>155</sup> and  $\text{Ni}_3\text{N}/\text{Mo}_2\text{N}$ <sup>151</sup> have also been  
 561 innovated for urea electrolysis.



562 **Fig. 9** (a) Scheme of the synthesis of Mo/Ni-P. (b) Illustration of the urea electrolysis system. (c) LSV curves of  
 563 bifunctional Mo/Ni-P for urea electrolysis and water electrolysis. (d) Stability curve of Mo/Ni-P for urea electrolysis.  
 564 (e) Image of the solar-H<sub>2</sub>-electricity energy conversion device.<sup>153</sup> (f) Illustration of the preparation of MoP@NiCo-  
 565 LDH. (g) LSV curves of bifunctional MoP@NiCo-LDH for water electrolysis and urea electrolysis. (h) LSV curves  
 566 of bifunctional MoP@NiCo-LDH, MoP, NiCo-LDH, and IrO<sub>2</sub>||Pt/C couple for urea electrolysis. (i) I-t curve of  
 567 MoP@NiCo-LDH at 1.30 V for urea electrolysis. (j) Image of MoP@NiCo-LDH/NF as electrodes for urea electrolysis  
 568 and SEM image of MoP@NiCo-LDH/NF after 20 h stability test.<sup>154</sup>

570 **4.6. SACs, MOFs, and others**

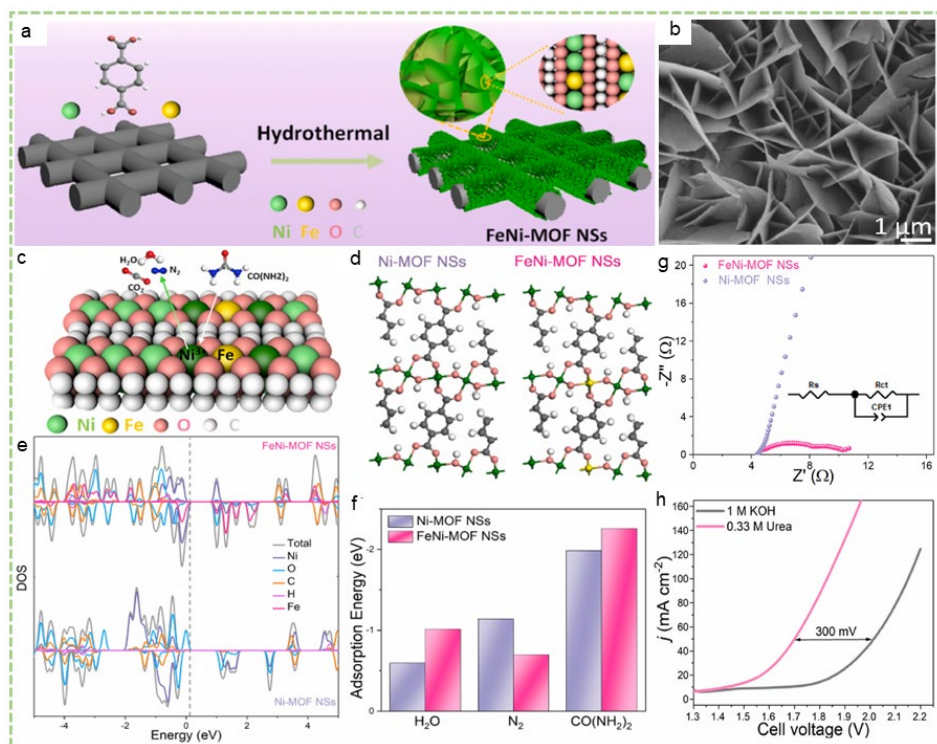
571 SACs emerge as effective catalysts for diverse applications, due to their ultrahigh atomic  
572 utilization efficiency. In SACs, highly isolated metal-atoms (in most cases) are anchored on  
573 substrates with a large SSA. The coordination environment of SACs governs the catalytic  
574 performance, and thus it is important to design suitable substrates for the central single metal atoms.  
575 For example, loading Pt single atoms onto defective NiCo LDH (Pt/D-NiCo LDH) is proved to be  
576 an efficient method to develop a bifunctional catalyst for urea electrolysis.<sup>156</sup> With a hierarchical  
577 architecture, rich single Pt atomic sites, and abundant edge sites, the Pt/D-NiCo LDH catalyst can  
578 catalyze urea electrolysis at 1.32 V for 10 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>. Similarly, NiV LDH has been used to support  
579 Rh SACs (Rh/NiV-LDH) by a hydrothermal method (**Fig. 10a**).<sup>34</sup> The Rh/NiV-LDH catalyst  
580 composes of densely interconnected nanosheets (**Fig. 10b**), which can provide rich ECSA and  
581 accelerate mass/charge transfer during electrochemical reactions. In addition, the aberration-  
582 corrected high-angle annular dark-field scanning TEM (AC-HAADF-STEM) images display rich  
583 and highly dispersed Rh dots with significant contrast on the LDH support (**Fig. 10c-d**). Compared  
584 with Ni(OH)<sub>2</sub> and NiV LDH, the Rh/NiV-LDH exhibits much better performance towards urea  
585 electrolysis ( $E_{100} = 1.47$  V, **Fig. 10e**), and the urea electrolysis significantly realizes urea removal  
586 with high stability for 3 cycles (**Fig. 10f**). Mechanism study reveals that Rh/NiV-LDH possesses a  
587 higher *d*-band center than NiV-LDH (-3.432 vs. -3.685 eV), thereby higher interactions with  
588 reaction intermediates. The hydrogen adsorption free energy ( $\Delta G_{H^*}$ ) and UOR energy profiles  
589 further emphasize the critical role of Rh sites in the adsorption/activation of HER and UOR  
590 intermediates (**Fig. 10g-h**). Both reported Pt and Rh-based SACs show good performance but  
591 utilize noble metals, and further work may develop Ni or other low-cost metals-based SACs for  
592 urea electrolysis.



593  
 594 **Fig. 10** (a) Schematic of the fabrication of Rh/NiV-LDH. (b) SEM image of Rh/NiV-LDH. (c, d) Aberration-corrected  
 595 STEM images of Rh/NiV-LDH. (e) LSV curves of Rh/NiV-LDH and its counterparts for urea electrolysis. (f) Urea

596 elimination efficiency and recyclability performance. (g) Calculated  $\Delta G_{H^+}$  on possible sites over Rh/NiV-LDH and  
597 NiV-LDH. (h) UOR free energy diagram over Rh/NiV-LDH and NiV-LDH.<sup>34</sup>

598 Besides being used as precursors for designing metal-based catalysts, MOFs can be directly used  
599 as electrocatalysts for urea electrolysis owing to their highly porous feature and flexible  
600 composition. For example, the nickel terephthalate nanosheets self-assembled 3D aggregates, with  
601 rich unsaturated coordination nickel sites, take 1.52 V at 10 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> for urea electrolysis.<sup>12</sup> The  
602 performance of single metal-based MOFs can be enhanced by introducing a second metal. With a  
603 hydrothermal method, Zhang et al. developed a Fe-doped Ni-MOF catalyst which is composed of  
604 interconnected vertical nanosheets (**Fig. 11a-b**).<sup>51</sup> Compared with bare Ni-MOF, the introduction  
605 of Fe generates some new electronic states near the Fermi level and thus activates the Ni active  
606 sites (**Fig. 11c-e**). As evidenced by the adsorption energies of H<sub>2</sub>O, N<sub>2</sub>, and urea molecules, the  
607 Fe-doped Ni-MOF favours the adsorption of H<sub>2</sub>O and urea molecules and the desorption of N<sub>2</sub>  
608 (**Fig. 11f**), contributing to enhanced UOR performance. Also, Fe-doped Ni-MOF shows a  
609 significantly lower charge transfer resistance than Ni-MOF, indicating an efficient charge transport  
610 process (**Fig. 11g**). For urea electrolysis, Fe-doped Ni-MOF can save 0.3 V at 50 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> than  
611 for water electrolysis (**Fig. 11h**). Besides heteroatom doping, combining MOFs with other active  
612 and conductive components has also been investigated. Benefiting from the multicomponent  
613 synergistic effect, urchin-like CoS<sub>x</sub>/Co-MOF,<sup>50</sup> Ni<sub>2</sub>P@Ni-MOF,<sup>157</sup> NiCoP<sub>x</sub>@NiFeCo-MOF,<sup>158</sup> and  
614 Ru-modified NiFe MOF<sup>159</sup> possess high-performance for urea electrolysis. In these composites,  
615 the hierarchical MOF framework can host the additional active species and lead to rich active sites  
616 and regulated electronic properties for enhanced performance.



617  
 618 **Fig. 11** (a) Scheme of the synthesis of FeNi-MOF nanosheet arrays (NSs). (b) SEM image of FeNi-MOF NSs. (c)  
 619 Illustration of the UOR process over FeNi-MOF NSs. (d) Optimized (101) surface models of Ni-MOF NSs and FeNi-  
 620 MOF NSs. (e) DOS for (101) surfaces of Ni-MOF NSs and FeNi-MOF NSs. (f) Adsorption free energy of N<sub>2</sub>,  
 621 CO(NH<sub>2</sub>)<sub>2</sub>, and H<sub>2</sub>O on the (101) surfaces of Ni-MOF NSs and FeNi-MOF NSs. (g) LSV curves of FeNi-MOF NSs  
 622 for OER, UOR, and HER. (h) LSV curves of bifunctional FeNi-MOF NSs for urea electrolysis and water electrolysis.<sup>51</sup>

623 A small group of other metal-based catalysts, like carbides,<sup>160, 161</sup> fluoride,<sup>53, 162</sup> and borides<sup>52</sup> have  
 624 been investigated for urea electrolysis. A main feature of these catalysts is their high conductivity  
 625 and activity. The development of these types of catalysts for urea electrolysis is still poorly  
 626 explored, and some key points need to be considered. For carbides usually fabricated via high-  
 627 temperature processes, it is necessary to introduce a conductive substrate (e.g., graphene, CNTs,

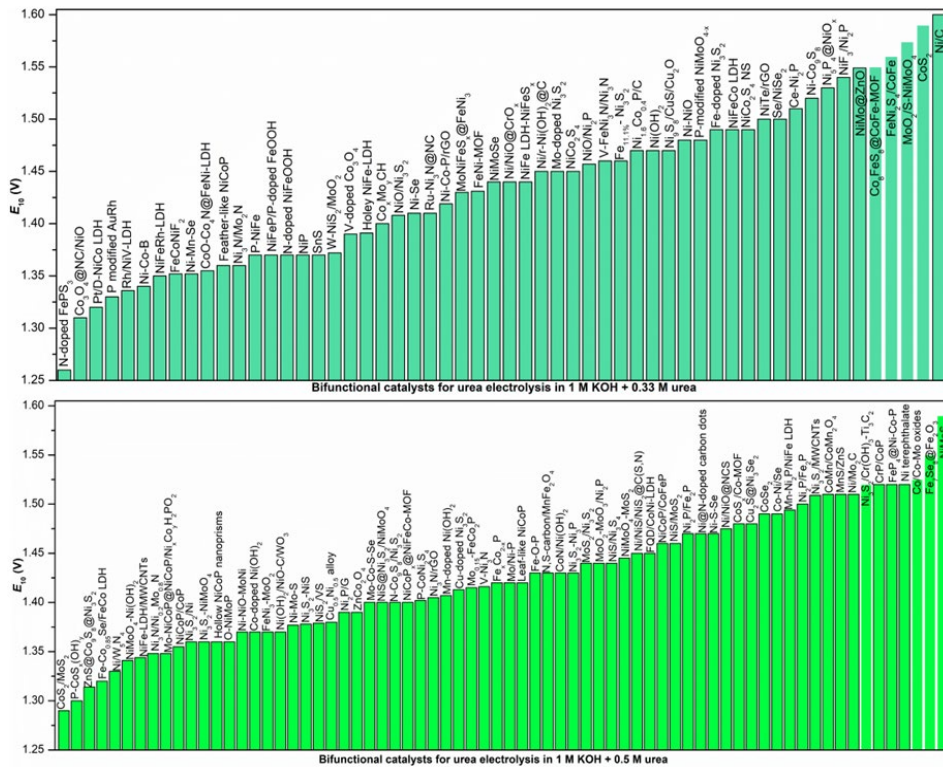
628 N-doped carbon) with large SSA to attain rich active sites. The design, synthesis, and application  
629 of metal fluorides should take the negative environmental effect of F element into consideration.  
630 In terms of borides which can be simply prepared by electroless deposition, it is crucial to enhance  
631 their performance via chemical composition optimization and composite construction.

## 632 **5. Benchmarking bifunctional electrocatalysts for practical applications**

633 In the past few years, great progress has been achieved in bifunctional catalysts for urea electrolysis.  
634 Catalysts with different compositions and nanostructures are showcased in the last section. To  
635 further guide the design of high-performance catalysts, it is important to evaluate the catalytic  
636 performance of current catalysts in an accurate and objective manner. Currently,  $E_{10}$  is the most  
637 widely used indicator of bifunctional catalysts' activity, with a group of studies applied  $E_{20}$ ,  $E_{50}$ ,  
638  $E_{100}$ , or  $E_{500}$  (**Table S1**, Supporting Information). Another issue related to the performance  
639 evaluation is the property of electrolytes, and electrolytes with diverse urea concentrations lead to  
640 distinct performance for one catalyst.<sup>89, 163</sup> 1 M KOH with 0.33 M urea or 0.5 M urea is the most  
641 widely used electrolyte, and several studies also employed 0.1 M, 0.2 M, 0.3 M or 0.4 M urea. In  
642 this context, the  $E_{10}$  values of catalysts measured in 1 M KOH + 0.33 M urea (56 studies, 1 M  
643 KOH + 0.3 M urea is included) or 1 M KOH + 0.5 M urea (70 studies) are compared separately.  
644 As depicted in **Fig. 12**,  $E_{10}$  values mainly range from 1.3 to 1.6 V, in both electrolyte conditions.  
645 The best value (1.26 V) tested in 1 M KOH + 0.33 M urea is obtained by N-doped FePS<sub>3</sub>, while  
646 the CoS<sub>2</sub>/MoS<sub>2</sub> composite shows the best performance ( $E_{10} = 1.29$  V) in 1 M KOH + 0.5 M urea.  
647 In the 1 M KOH + 0.33 M urea system, 37.5% of all catalysts show  $E_{10}$  values less than 1.4 V,  
648 which is similar to this percentage (40%) in the 1 M KOH + 0.5 M urea electrolyte. It should be  
649 noted that deviations of electrochemical measurements (e.g., testing temperature, catalyst loading

650 amount, LSV scanning rate, and electrode fabrication method) would affect the recorded activity.  
651 Hence, the comparison made here may not be accurate enough, and we suggest potential readers  
652 be fully aware of this.

653 The urea electrolysis performance of five novel metal-involved catalysts has been tested in 1 M  
654 KOH + 0.33 M urea, including Pt/D-NiCo LDH (1.32 V),<sup>156</sup> P modified AuRh (1.33 V),<sup>56</sup> Rh/NiV-  
655 LDH (1.336 V),<sup>34</sup> NiFeRh-LDH (1.35 V),<sup>89</sup> and Ru-Ni<sub>3</sub>N@NC (1.41 V)<sup>138</sup>. In these catalysts, the  
656 presence of noble metals can enhance the catalytic performance. Especially, using noble metals as  
657 dopants and SACs can improve their utilization efficiency and limit the fabrication cost of catalysts.  
658 Compared with earth-abundant transition metal-based catalysts, there is no clear advantage in the  
659 performance of noble metal-based catalysts, and thus most studies focus on low-cost transition  
660 metals, especially Ni.



661

662 **Fig. 12** A comparison of bifunctional catalysts for urea electrolysis in different electrolytes.

663 Further identify high-performance catalysts,  $E_{10}$  of ten most promising electrocatalysts in both  
 664 electrolyte systems are analyzed (**Table 2**). It can be seen that most of the listed high-performance  
 665 catalysts possess open architectures with large SSA, which can not only promote electrolyte  
 666 diffusion/penetration/infiltration but also and facilitate charge transfer and mass (ions, reaction  
 667 intermediates, gaseous products) transport. In terms of the chemical composition, transition metal-  
 668 based LDHs with typical 2D nanosheet structure attract great interest, and a series of LDH-based  
 669 composites exhibit excellent catalytic activities for urea electrolysis. Other transition metal-based  
 670 highly conductive heterostructures are highly promising catalysts, such as sulfides, phosphides,



671 and nitrides. Several heteroatom doped catalysts also show high activities, indicating the feasibility  
 672 of heteroatom doping in regulating the intrinsic activity of catalysts. These results imply that  
 673 efficient catalysts for urea electrolysis should meet the multiple requirements of high intrinsic  
 674 activity, large active area, and efficient mass/charge transfer.

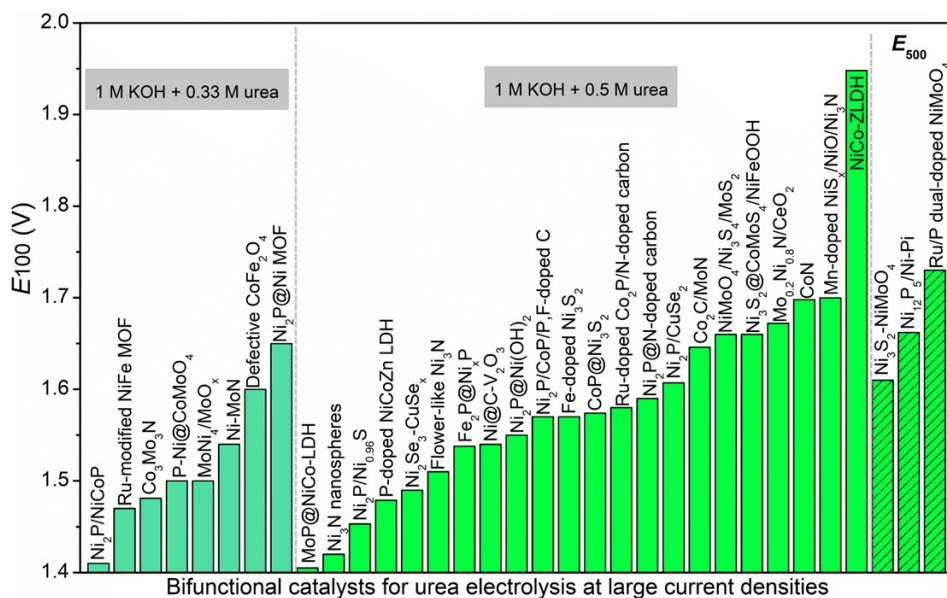
675 **Table 2.** List of representative bifunctional electrocatalysts in their ascending values, in both 1 M KOH + 0.33 M urea  
 676 and 1 M KOH + 0.5 M urea systems.

Catalyst	Electrolyte	$E_{10}$	Key features
N-doped FePS <sub>3</sub> <sup>110</sup>	1 M KOH +0.33 M urea	1.26	2D nanosheet structure, N dopant activates intrinsic activity
Co <sub>3</sub> O <sub>4</sub> @NC/NiO <sup>77</sup>	1 M KOH +0.3 M urea	1.31	MOF-derived hierarchical composite, synergistic effect between the metal oxide–NC–metal oxide
Pt/D-NiCo LDH <sup>156</sup>	1 M KOH +0.33 M urea	1.32	Noble metal SAC on defective LDH nanosheets
P modified AuRh <sup>56</sup>	1 M KOH +0.33 M urea	1.33	Mesoporous noble metal alloy film, surface chemical modification
Rh/NiV-LDH <sup>34</sup>	1 M KOH +0.33 M urea	1.336	Noble metal SAC on ultrathin LDH nanosheets
Ni-Co-B <sup>52</sup>	1 M KOH +0.33 M urea	1.34	Porous and amorphous metallic structure
NiFeRh-LDH <sup>89</sup>	1 M KOH +0.33 M urea	1.35	Noble metal-doped ultrathin LDH interconnected nanosheets
FeCoNiF <sub>2</sub> <sup>162</sup>	1 M KOH +0.33 M urea	1.352	Hollow nanoflake arrays, electron-deficient metal centers
Ni-Mn-Se <sup>113</sup>	1 M KOH +0.33 M urea	1.352	Nano-micro hollow spheres, porous structure
CoO-Co <sub>4</sub> N@NiFe-LDH <sup>148</sup>	1 M KOH +0.33 M urea	1.355	Hierarchical heterostructure, LDH/oxide/nitride composite

CoS <sub>2</sub> /MoS <sub>2</sub> <sup>30</sup>	1 M KOH +0.5 M urea	1.29	Schottky heterojunction, spatially interconnected nanoplates
P-CoS <sub>x</sub> (OH) <sub>y</sub> <sup>109</sup>	1 M KOH +0.5 M urea	1.3	Porous and amorphous core-shell nanoneedles, surface chemical modification
ZnS@Co <sub>9</sub> S <sub>8</sub> @Ni <sub>3</sub> S <sub>2</sub> <sup>164</sup>	1 M KOH +0.5 M urea	1.314	MOF-derived hollow nanosword arrays, tricomponent sulfide composite
Fe-Co <sub>0.85</sub> Se/FeCo LDH <sup>123</sup>	1 M KOH +0.5 M urea	1.32	hierarchical arrays, LDH/selenide composite
Ni/W <sub>3</sub> N <sub>4</sub> <sup>146</sup>	1 M KOH +0.5 M urea	1.33	Schottky heterojunction, nano-microspheres
NiMoO <sub>4</sub> -Ni(OH) <sub>2</sub> <sup>10</sup>	1 M KOH +0.5 M urea	1.341	3D interconnected pore-like structure, LDH/oxide composite
NiFe-LDH/MWCNTs <sup>91</sup>	1 M KOH +0.5 M urea	1.344	Gracile nanosheet arrays, LDH/carbon composite
Ni <sub>3</sub> N/Ni <sub>0.2</sub> Mo <sub>0.8</sub> N <sup>49</sup>	1 M KOH +0.5 M urea	1.348	Hierarchical nanorod arrays, nitride/nitride composite
Mo-NiCoP@NiCoP/Ni <sub>x</sub> Co <sub>y</sub> H <sub>2</sub> PO <sub>2</sub> <sup>165</sup>	1 M KOH +0.5 M urea	1.348	3D branched core/shell nanorod heterostructure, phosphide/phosphate composite, metal-doping
NiCoP/CoP <sup>152</sup>	1 M KOH +0.5 M urea	1.355	Hierarchical heterostructure, phosphide/phosphate composite

677 To meet the potential industrial application of catalysts for urea electrolysis, it is necessary to  
678 record the activity at high current densities. To date, 30 studies have provided  $E_{100}$  values of  
679 catalysts and two studies further test  $E_{500}$  values, as shown in **Fig. 13**.  $E_{100}$  values mainly range  
680 from 1.4 to 1.7 V, and most of the catalysts (oxides, phosphides, sulfides, nitrides, LDH, etc.) are  
681 fabricated from low-cost elements, with two noble metal-doped materials (Ru-modified NiFe  
682 MOF,<sup>159</sup> Ru-doped Co<sub>2</sub>P/N-doped carbon<sup>166</sup>). In addition, the  $E_{500}$  values of Ni<sub>3</sub>S<sub>2</sub>-NiMoO<sub>4</sub>,

683  $\text{Ni}_{12}\text{P}_5/\text{Ni-Pi}$ , and Ru/P dual-doped  $\text{NiMoO}_4$  are 1.61, 1.662 and 1.73 V, respectively. These reports  
 684 indicate the promising application of cost-effective catalysts in industrial urea electrolyzers.



685 Bifunctional catalysts for urea electrolysis at large current densities  
 686 Fig. 13 A comparison of bifunctional catalysts for urea electrolysis at large current densities.

## 687 6. Conclusion and perspectives

688 In this review, recent progresses and achievements in the design of bifunctional catalysts for urea  
 689 electrolysis are comprehensively analyzed. Transition metal (mainly Ni, Co, Fe)-based materials  
 690 with diverse compositions and nanostructures have exhibited good performance towards both HER  
 691 and UOR, showing good potential for future industrial applications. For achieving high-  
 692 performance bifunctional catalysts, powerful strategies have been rationally applied, such as  
 693 heteroatom doping, composition optimization, heterostructure construction, nanostructure control,

694 defect/vacancy introduction, and phase regulation. Notwithstanding astonishing advances in  
695 bifunctional catalysts design, there are some critical issues that require further investigation.

696 1) *Qualitative and quantitative analysis of urea oxidation products.* In most cases, researchers  
697 only take CO<sub>2</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>, and H<sub>2</sub>O as urea oxidation products. However, recent studies have shown  
698 that other nitrogen-based components are generated during UOR, such as NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>.<sup>9</sup>  
699 The formation of such NO<sub>x</sub><sup>-</sup> would lead to secondary pollutants in water bodies. In this context,  
700 it is highly urgent to obtain qualitative and quantitative results of urea oxidation products,  
701 which can help to uncover the UOR mechanism. Since the urea oxidation pathway is highly  
702 sensitive to the applied electrocatalysts, it is possible to selectively limit the production of  
703 hazardous NO<sub>x</sub><sup>-</sup> and make the urea electrolysis process more eco-friendly.

704 2) *Electrolysis mechanism understanding with advanced tools.* Many studies mainly focus on the  
705 performance of catalysts, while the urea electrolysis mechanism is still far from fully  
706 understood. Apart from the quantitative analysis of urea oxidation products, it is needed to  
707 figure out the structure-performance relationship of catalysts with advanced techniques, like  
708 ion chromatography, gas chromatography, *in situ* Raman spectra, *in situ* XAS spectra, *in situ*  
709 FTIR spectra. The related *in situ* tools are highly recommended to capture the reaction  
710 intermediates during the complex UOR process. Another key issue is the self-reconstruction  
711 of catalysts during HER and UOR. The self-reconstruction process leads to the formation of  
712 real active phases and can be determined by *in situ* Raman spectra. When conducting DFT  
713 calculations, it is suggested to take the catalyst self-reconstruction into account for reaction  
714 model construction.

715 3) *Large-scale fabrication of electrocatalysts/electrodes.* For the industrial application of  
716 promising catalysts, it is necessary to develop large-scale catalyst/electrode fabrication

717 techniques. Due to the high activity of Ni for both HER and UOR, many studies directly use  
718 nickel foam as the support to construct active materials. Also, some conductive materials also  
719 have been used as the substrate of active materials, e.g., Fe foam, Cu foam, Ti mesh, carbon  
720 papers and carbon cloth. These self-supported electrodes are generally prepared with a small  
721 geometric area, for laboratory use. The large-scale of such self-supported electrodes needs  
722 large synthetic devices (such as hydrothermal autoclave reactors). For binder-based electrodes,  
723 the large-scale production of powder-like active materials can be achieved by using more facile  
724 methods, like high-energy ball milling.

725 4) *Application of catalysts in real urea wastewater electrolysis.* Instead of pure alkalized urea  
726 solutions, it is suggested to perform urea-rich wastewater (e.g., urine) electrolysis for hydrogen  
727 fuel production and urea degradation. In real wastewater, there will be diverse inorganic and  
728 organic pollutants which may influence the urea electrolysis efficiency. Several studies have  
729 conducted real urine electrolysis, and the experimental results suggest that catalysts work  
730 worse in alkalized urine solution than in pure alkalized urea solution,<sup>37, 167-169</sup> while the reason  
731 remains unclear. As such, future studies are suggested to identify pollutants in real urea-rich  
732 electrolytes and analyze the effect of potential substances on the urea electrolysis. A further  
733 step to lower the energy cost of urea electrolysis can be achieved by integrating solar energy  
734 into the electrolysis system.

### 735 **Author contributions**

736 **Zhijie Chen:** conceptualization, writing-original draft; **Wei Wei:** data analysis, writing-review &  
737 editing; **Bing-Jie Ni:** discussions, writing-review & editing, project acquisition.

### 738 **Conflict of Interest**

739 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

## 740 Acknowledgements

741 This work is supported by the Australian Research Council (ARC) Discovery Project  
742 (DP220101139). Dr. Wei Wei acknowledges the support of the Australian Research Council (ARC)  
743 through Project DE220100530.

## 744 References

- 745 1. X. Zhang, X. Zhu, S. Bo, C. Chen, M. Qiu, X. Wei, N. He, C. Xie, W. Chen, J. Zheng, P. Chen, S.  
746 P. Jiang, Y. Li, Q. Liu and S. Wang, *Nature Communications*, 2022, **13**, 5337.
- 747 2. J. Li, S. Wang, S. Sun, X. Wu, B. Zhang and L. Feng, *Journal of Materials Chemistry A*, 2022, **10**,  
748 9308-9326.
- 749 3. W. Sun, M. Zhang, J. Li and C. Peng, *ChemSusChem*, 2022, **15**, e202201263.
- 750 4. G. Wang, Y. Ling, X. Lu, H. Wang, F. Qian, Y. Tong and Y. Li, *Energy & Environmental Science*,  
751 2012, **5**, 8215-8219.
- 752 5. Q. He, Y. Wan, H. Jiang, Z. Pan, C. Wu, M. Wang, X. Wu, B. Ye, P. M. Ajayan and L. Song, *ACS*  
753 *Energy Letters*, 2018, **3**, 1373-1380.
- 754 6. L. Wang, Y. Zhu, Y. Wen, S. Li, C. Cui, F. Ni, Y. Liu, H. Lin, Y. Li, H. Peng and B. Zhang, *Angew*  
755 *Chem Int Ed Engl*, 2021, **60**, 10577-10582.
- 756 7. J.-Y. Zhang, T. He, M. Wang, R. Qi, Y. Yan, Z. Dong, H. Liu, H. Wang and B. Y. Xia, *Nano Energy*,  
757 2019, **60**, 894-902.
- 758 8. Z. Ji, Y. Song, S. Zhao, Y. Li, J. Liu and W. Hu, *ACS Catalysis*, 2021, DOI:  
759 10.1021/acscatal.1c05190, 569-579.
- 760 9. X. Liu, H. Qin, G. Wang, Q. Li, Q. Huang, Z. Wen and S. Mao, *Journal of Materials Chemistry A*,  
761 2022, **10**, 16825-16833.
- 762 10. S. Hu, H. Wu, C. Feng and Y. Ding, *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*, 2020, **45**, 21040-  
763 21050.
- 764 11. Q. Zhang, M. Sun, J. Zhu, S. Yang, L. Chen, X. Yang, P. Wang, K. Li, F. Xue, Y. Lu, J. Zhang and  
765 P. Zhao, *Chemical Engineering Journal*, 2022, **432**, 134275.
- 766 12. S. Zheng, Y. Zheng, H. Xue and H. Pang, *Chemical Engineering Journal*, 2020, **395**, 125166.
- 767 13. X. Wang, J. P. Li, Y. Duan, J. Li, H. Wang, X. Yang and M. Gong, *ChemCatChem*, 2022, **14**.
- 768 14. Y. Ma, C. Ma, Y. Wang and K. Wang, *Catalysts*, 2022, **12**.
- 769 15. B. Zhu, Z. Liang and R. Zou, *Small*, 2020, **16**, e1906133.
- 770 16. X. Sun and R. Ding, *Catalysis Science & Technology*, 2020, **10**, 1567-1581.
- 771 17. X. Hu, J. Zhu, J. Li and Q. Wu, *ChemElectroChem*, 2020, **7**, 3211-3228.
- 772 18. G. Gnana kumar, A. Farithkhan and A. Manthiram, *Advanced Energy and Sustainability Research*,  
773 2020, **1**.
- 774 19. W. Xu, Z. Wu and S. Tao, *Energy Technology*, 2016, **4**, 1329-1337.
- 775 20. R. K. Singh, K. Rajavelu, M. Montag and A. Schechter, *Energy Technology*, 2021, **9**, 2100017.
- 776 21. W. Ge, L. Lin, S.-Q. Wang, Y. Wang, X. Ma, Q. An and L. Zhao, *Journal of Materials Chemistry*  
777 *A*, 2023.
- 778 22. L. Fei, H. Sun, X. Xu, Y. Li, R. Ran, W. Zhou and Z. Shao, *Chemical Engineering Journal*, 2023,  
779 144660.

Commented [H1]: Please cite more references published in the last two years.

- 780 23. J. Ge, J. Kuang, Y. Xiao, M. Guan and C. Yang, *Surfaces and Interfaces*, 2023, 103230.  
781 24. K. Fan, H. Zou, N. A. Dharanipragada, L. Fan, A. K. Inge, L. Duan, B. Zhang and L. Sun, *Journal*  
782 *of Materials Chemistry A*, 2021, **9**, 11359-11369.  
783 25. S. Anantharaj, S. Noda, V. R. Jothi, S. Yi, M. Driess and P. W. Menezes, *Angewandte Chemie*  
784 *International Edition*, 2021, **60**, 18981-19006.  
785 26. Z. Chen, W. Wei and B.-J. Ni, *Current Opinion in Electrochemistry*, 2021, DOI:  
786 10.1016/j.coelec.2021.100888.  
787 27. L. Zhang, L. Wang, H. Lin, Y. Liu, J. Ye, Y. Wen, A. Chen, L. Wang, F. Ni, Z. Zhou, S. Sun, Y. Li,  
788 B. Zhang and H. Peng, *Angew Chem Int Ed Engl*, 2019, **58**, 16820-16825.  
789 28. S. Wang, W. Chen, L. Xu, X. Zhu, Y. C. Huang, W. Zhou, D. Wang, Y. Zhou, S. Du, Q. Li, C. Xie,  
790 L. Tao, C. L. Dong, J. Liu, Y. Wang, R. Chen, H. Su, C. Chen, Y. Zou, Y. Li and Q. Liu, *Angew*  
791 *Chem Int Ed Engl*, 2020, DOI: 10.1002/anie.202015773.  
792 29. P. Wang, X. Bai, H. Jin, X. Gao, K. Davey, Y. Zheng, Y. Jiao and S.-Z. Qiao, *Advanced Functional*  
793 *Materials*, 2023, **33**, 2300687.  
794 30. C. Li, Y. Liu, Z. Zhuo, H. Ju, D. Li, Y. Guo, X. Wu, H. Li and T. Zhai, *Advanced Energy Materials*,  
795 2018, **8**.  
796 31. Z. Chen, R. Zheng, H. Zou, R. Wang, C. Huang, W. Dai, W. Wei, L. Duan, B.-J. Ni and H. Chen,  
797 *Chemical Engineering Journal*, 2023, 142684.  
798 32. Y. Pan, J. Zhang, Q. Zhang, X. Chen, Q. Wang, C. Li, Z. Liu and Q. Sun, *Materials Chemistry*  
799 *Frontiers*, 2023, DOI: 10.1039/D2QM01290A.  
800 33. Q. Xu, G. Qian, S. Yin, C. Yu, W. Chen, T. Yu, L. Luo, Y. Xia and P. Tsiakaras, *ACS Sustainable*  
801 *Chemistry & Engineering*, 2020, **8**, 7174-7181.  
802 34. H. Sun, L. Li, H.-C. Chen, D. Duan, M. Humayun, Y. Qiu, X. Zhang, X. Ao, Y. Wu, Y. Pang, K.  
803 Huo, C. Wang and Y. Xiong, *Science Bulletin*, 2022, **67**, 1763-1775.  
804 35. L. Guo, J. Chi, J. Zhu, T. Cui, J. Lai and L. Wang, *Applied Catalysis B: Environmental*, 2023, **320**,  
805 121977.  
806 36. X. Zhuo, W. Jiang, T. Yu, G. Qian, J. Chen, H. Yang and S. Yin, *ACS Applied Materials & Interfaces*,  
807 2022, **14**, 46481-46490.  
808 37. D. Wen, W. Peng, W. Zhang, Y. Xia, M. Ye and W. Hu, *Applied Surface Science*, 2023, **608**, 155166.  
809 38. C. B. Sun, M. W. Guo, S. S. Siwal and Q. B. Zhang, *Journal of Catalysis*, 2020, **381**, 454-461.  
810 39. Y. Cheng, F. Liao, H. Dong, H. Wei, H. Geng and M. Shao, *Journal of Power Sources*, 2020, **480**,  
811 229151.  
812 40. Z. Yang, Y. Zhang, C. Feng, H. Wu, Y. Ding and H. Mei, *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*,  
813 2021, **46**, 25321-25331.  
814 41. W. Zhu, M. Ren, N. Hu, W. Zhang, Z. Luo, R. Wang, J. Wang, L. Huang, Y. Suo and J. Wang, *ACS*  
815 *Sustainable Chemistry & Engineering*, 2018, **6**, 5011-5020.  
816 42. C. Liu, F. Li, S. Xue, H. Lin, Y. Sun, J. Cao and S. Chen, *ACS Applied Energy Materials*, 2022, **5**,  
817 1183-1192.  
818 43. S. Khatun and P. Roy, *Journal of Colloid and Interface Science*, 2023, **630**, 844-854.  
819 44. N. Chen, Y.-X. Du, G. Zhang, W.-T. Lu and F.-F. Cao, *Nano Energy*, 2021, **81**.  
820 45. W. Mai, Q. Cui, Z. Zhang, D. Wen, L. Tian and W. Hu, *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*,  
821 2021, **46**, 24078-24093.  
822 46. S. Hu, S. Wang, C. Feng, H. Wu, J. Zhang and H. Mei, *ACS Sustainable Chemistry & Engineering*,  
823 2020, **8**, 7414-7422.  
824 47. X. Ding, L. Pei, Y. Huang, D. Chen and Z. Xie, *Small*, 2022, **18**, 2205547.  
825 48. Y. Wang, X. Li, X. Du and X. Zhang, *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*, 2023, DOI:  
826 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhydene.2023.06.240>.  
827 49. R.-Q. Li, X.-Y. Wan, B.-L. Chen, R.-Y. Cao, Q.-H. Ji, J. Deng, K.-G. Qu, X.-B. Wang and Y.-C.  
828 Zhu, *Chemical Engineering Journal*, 2021, **409**, 128240.  
829 50. H. Xu, K. Ye, K. Zhu, J. Yin, J. Yan, G. Wang and D. Cao, *Inorganic Chemistry Frontiers*, 2020, **7**,  
830 2602-2610.

- 831 51. X. Zhang, X. Fang, K. Zhu, W. Yuan, T. Jiang, H. Xue and J. Tian, *Journal of Power Sources*, 2022,  
832 **520**, 230882.
- 833 52. B. Kim, G. Das, J. Kim, H. H. Yoon and D. H. Lee, *Journal of Colloid and Interface Science*, 2021,  
834 **601**, 317-325.
- 835 53. K. Wang, W. Huang, Q. Cao, Y. Zhao, X. Sun, R. Ding, W. Lin, E. Liu and P. Gao, *Chemical  
836 Engineering Journal*, 2022, **427**, 130865.
- 837 54. Z. Chen, W. Wei, L. Song and B.-J. Ni, *Sustainable Horizons*, 2022, **1**.
- 838 55. L. Wang, L. Ren, X. Wang, X. Feng, J. Zhou and B. Wang, *ACS Applied Materials & Interfaces*,  
839 2018, **10**, 4750-4756.
- 840 56. M. Zhang, Z. Duan, L. Cui, H. Yu, Z. Wang, Y. Xu, X. Li, L. Wang and H. Wang, *Journal of  
841 Materials Chemistry A*, 2022, **10**, 3086-3092.
- 842 57. K. Zhang, S. Wang, X. Li, H. Li and Y. Ni, *Small*, 2023, **19**, 2300959.
- 843 58. J. Zhang, F. Xing, H. Zhang and Y. Huang, *Dalton Transactions*, 2020, **49**, 13962-13969.
- 844 59. N. Muthuchamy, S. Jang, J. C. Park, S. Park and K. H. Park, *ACS Sustainable Chemistry &  
845 Engineering*, 2019, **7**, 15526-15536.
- 846 60. R. Ma, Y. Zhou, Y. Chen, P. Li, Q. Liu and J. Wang, *Angewandte Chemie*, 2015, **127**, 14936-14940.
- 847 61. J. Li, S. Wang, J. Chang and L. Feng, *Advanced Powder Materials*, 2022, **1**, 100030.
- 848 62. C. Wang, H. Lu, Z. Mao, C. Yan, G. Shen and X. Wang, *Advanced Functional Materials*, 2020, **30**.
- 849 63. L. Meng, L. Li, J. Wang, S. Fu, Y. Zhang, J. Li, C. Xue, Y. Wei and G. Li, *Electrochimica Acta*,  
850 2020, **350**, 136382.
- 851 64. Q. Li, W. Zhang, J. Shen, X. Zhang, Z. Liu and J. Liu, *Journal of Alloys and Compounds*, 2022,  
852 **902**, 163670.
- 853 65. J. Cao, H. Li, R. Zhu, L. Ma, K. Zhou, Q. Wei and F. Luo, *Journal of Alloys and Compounds*, 2020,  
854 **844**, 155382.
- 855 66. C. Chen, S. He, K. Dastafkan, Z. Zou, Q. Wang and C. Zhao, *Chinese Journal of Catalysis*, 2022,  
856 **43**, 1267-1276.
- 857 67. K. Zhang, C. Liu, N. Graham, G. Zhang and W. Yu, *Nano Energy*, 2021, **87**.
- 858 68. Y. Qiu, X. Dai, Y. Wang, X. Ji, Z. Ma and S. Liu, *Journal of Colloid and Interface Science*, 2023,  
859 **629**, 297-309.
- 860 69. C. Wang, X. Du and X. Zhang, *Journal of Alloys and Compounds*, 2022, **928**, 167094.
- 861 70. M. S. Amer, P. Arunachalam, A. M. Al-Mayouf, A. A. AlSaleh and Z. A. Almutairi, *Environmental  
862 Research*, 2023, DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envres.2023.116818>, 116818.
- 863 71. T. Wang, H. Wu, C. Feng, Y. Ding and H. Mei, *Electrochimica Acta*, 2021, **391**, 138931.
- 864 72. G. Liu, Z. Sun, D. Liu, Y. Li and W. Zhang, *Journal of Colloid and Interface Science*, 2023, **629**,  
865 1012-1020.
- 866 73. Q. Xu, T. Yu, J. Chen, G. Qian, H. Song, L. Luo, Y. Chen, T. Liu, Y. Wang and S. Yin, *ACS Applied  
867 Materials & Interfaces*, 2021, **13**, 16355-16363.
- 868 74. S. Gopi, A. Gopal Ramu, A. M. Al-Mohaimed, D. Choi and K. Yun, *Materials Letters*, 2022, **308**,  
869 131219.
- 870 75. J. Zhu, W. Lv, Y. Yang, L. Huang, W. Yu, X. Wang, Q. Han and X. Dong, *New Journal of Chemistry*,  
871 2022, **46**, 10280-10288.
- 872 76. X. Xu, S. Ji, H. Wang, X. Wang, V. Linkov and R. Wang, *Journal of Colloid and Interface Science*,  
873 2022, **615**, 163-172.
- 874 77. S. P. Selvam and S. Cho, *Advanced Sustainable Systems*, 2022, **6**, 2200038.
- 875 78. P. Balasubramanian, A. Jansirani, S.-B. He, H.-H. Deng, H.-P. Peng, X.-H. Xia and W. Chen,  
876 *Journal of Power Sources*, 2021, **494**, 229757.
- 877 79. L. Lei, Z. Yin, D. Huang, Y. Chen, S. Chen, M. Cheng, L. Du and Q. Liang, *Journal of Colloid and  
878 Interface Science*, 2022, **612**, 413-423.
- 879 80. G. Qian, J. Chen, L. Luo, H. Zhang, W. Chen, Z. Gao, S. Yin and P. Tsiakaras, *ACS Applied  
880 Materials & Interfaces*, 2020, **12**, 38061-38069.



- 881 81. X. Xu, X. Hou, P. Du, C. Zhang, S. Zhang, H. Wang, A. Toghan and M. Huang, *Nano Research*,  
882 2022, **15**, 7124-7133.
- 883 82. H. Xu, W.-D. Zhang, Y. Yao, J. Yang, J. Liu, Z.-G. Gu and X. Yan, *Journal of Colloid and Interface*  
884 *Science*, 2023, **629**, 501-510.
- 885 83. J. Jiang, H. Jiang, M. Chen, R. Ma, X. Wang, W. Wei and L. Ai, *Applied Surface Science*, 2022,  
886 **600**, 154116.
- 887 84. B. Kim, Y. Jung, B. J. Park, G. Das, H. H. Yoon and Y. S. Yoon, *International Journal of Hydrogen*  
888 *Energy*, 2022, **47**, 5797-5806.
- 889 85. P. Babar, A. Lokhande, V. Karade, B. Pawar, M. G. Gang, S. Pawar and J. H. Kim, *ACS Sustainable*  
890 *Chemistry & Engineering*, 2019, **7**, 10035-10043.
- 891 86. J. Tian, C. Cao, Y. He, M. I. Khan, X.-T. Wu and Q.-L. Zhu, *Green Energy & Environment*, 2022,  
892 DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gee.2022.05.001>.
- 893 87. L. Chen, H. Wang, L. Tan, D. Qiao, X. Liu, Y. Wen, W. Hou and T. Zhan, *Journal of Colloid and*  
894 *Interface Science*, 2022, **618**, 141-148.
- 895 88. M. Yao, J. Ge, B. Sun, J. Hu, S. W. Koh, Y. Zhao, J. Fei, Z. Sun, W. Hong, Z. Chen, W. Hu and H.  
896 Li, *Chemical Engineering Journal*, 2021, **414**, 128753.
- 897 89. H. Sun, W. Zhang, J.-G. Li, Z. Li, X. Ao, K.-H. Xue, K. K. Ostrikov, J. Tang and C. Wang, *Applied*  
898 *Catalysis B: Environmental*, 2021, **284**, 119740.
- 899 90. C. Gao, G. Wei, C. Wang, X. Zhou, X. Zhao, Q. Zhao, S. Wang and F. Kong, *Journal of Alloys and*  
900 *Compounds*, 2023, **959**, 170545.
- 901 91. X. Wen, *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*, 2020, **45**, 14660-14668.
- 902 92. W. Liu, Z. Qin, X. Dai, S. Meng, X. Niu, W. Shi, F. Wu and X. Cao, *Energies*, 2023, **16**, 1092.
- 903 93. K. Li and Y. Tong, *ChemCatChem*, 2022, **14**, e202201047.
- 904 94. Y. Feng, X. Wang, J. Huang, P. Dong, J. Ji, J. Li, L. Cao, L. Feng, P. Jin and C. Wang, *Chemical*  
905 *Engineering Journal*, 2020, **390**, 124525.
- 906 95. J. Zhao, Y. Zhang, H. Guo, J. Ren, H. Zhang, Y. Wu and R. Song, *Chemical Engineering Journal*,  
907 2022, **433**, 134497.
- 908 96. Q. Li, Q. Chen, S. Lei, M. Zhai, G. Lv, M. Cheng, L. Xu, H. Xu, Y. Deng and J. Bao, *Journal of*  
909 *Colloid and Interface Science*, 2023, **631**, 56-65.
- 910 97. X. F. Lu, S. L. Zhang, W. L. Sim, S. Gao and X. W. Lou, *Angewandte Chemie International Edition*,  
911 2021, **60**, 22885-22891.
- 912 98. H. Wang, X. Jiao, W. Zeng, Y. Zhang and Y. Jiao, *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*, 2021,  
913 **46**, 37792-37801.
- 914 99. S. Wei, X. Wang, J. Wang, X. Sun, L. Cui, W. Yang, Y. Zheng and J. Liu, *Electrochimica Acta*, 2017,  
915 **246**, 776-782.
- 916 100. Z. Jiang, L. Zheng, M. Liu, H. Xu, S. Chen, F. Xiong, Y. Liao, Y. Liao, Y. Qing and Y. Wu, *Applied*  
917 *Surface Science*, 2023, **638**, 158058.
- 918 101. W. Liu, L. Dai, Y. Hu, K. Jiang, Q. Li, Y. Deng, J. Yuan, J. Bao and Y. Lei, *Inorganic Chemistry*  
919 *Frontiers*, 2021, **8**, 4528-4535.
- 920 102. W. Zhu, Z. Yue, W. Zhang, N. Hu, Z. Luo, M. Ren, Z. Xu, Z. Wei, Y. Suo and J. Wang, *Journal of*  
921 *Materials Chemistry A*, 2018, **6**, 4346-4353.
- 922 103. M. Liu, Y. Jiao, S. Zhan and H. Wang, *Catalysis Today*, 2020, **355**, 596-601.
- 923 104. W. Song, M. Xu, X. Teng, Y. Niu, S. Gong, X. Liu, X. He and Z. Chen, *Nanoscale*, 2021, **13**, 1680-  
924 1688.
- 925 105. S. A. Patil, H. T. Bui, S. Hussain, I. Rabani, Y. Seo, J. Jung, N. K. Shrestha, H. Kim and H. Im,  
926 *Dalton Transactions*, 2021, **50**, 12723-12729.
- 927 106. H. Xu, K. Ye, K. Zhu, Y. Gao, J. Yin, J. Yan, G. Wang and D. Cao, *Inorganic Chemistry Frontiers*,  
928 2021, **8**, 2788-2797.
- 929 107. H. Xu, K. Ye, J. Yin, K. Zhu, J. Yan, G. Wang and D. Cao, *Journal of Power Sources*, 2021, **491**,  
930 229592.
- 931 108. F. Wang, K. Zhang, Q. Zha and Y. Ni, *Journal of Alloys and Compounds*, 2022, **899**, 163346.

- 932 109. Y. Jiang, S. Gao, G. Xu and X. Song, *Journal of Materials Chemistry A*, 2021, **9**, 5664-5674.
- 933 110. H. Zhang, Y. Qiu, S. Zhang, Q. Liu, J. Luo and X. Liu, *Ionics*, 2022, **28**, 3927-3934.
- 934 111. D. Li, W. Wan, Z. Wang, H. Wu, S. Wu, T. Jiang, G. Cai, C. Jiang and F. Ren, *Advanced Energy Materials*, 2022, **12**, 2201913.
- 935 112. H. Xu, Y. Liao, Z. Gao, Y. Qing, Y. Wu and L. Xia, *Journal of Materials Chemistry A*, 2021, **9**, 3418-3426.
- 937 113. M. Maleki, G. Barati Darband, A. Sabour Rouhaghdam, R. Andaveh and Z. Mohammad Kazemi, *Chemical Communications*, 2022, **58**, 3545-3548.
- 938 114. Z. Zhao, L. Yang, Z. Wang, L. Wang, G. Guo, J. Chen, Y. Li, C. Wang, J. Zhao and Z. Cai, *Journal of The Electrochemical Society*, 2020, **167**, 126514.
- 939 115. X. Zhuo, W. Jiang, G. Qian, J. Chen, T. Yu, L. Luo, L. Lu, Y. Chen and S. Yin, *ACS Applied Materials & Interfaces*, 2021, **13**, 35709-35718.
- 940 116. V. Maheskumar, K. Saravanakumar, Y. Yea, Y. Yoon and C. M. Park, *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*, 2023, **48**, 5080-5094.
- 941 117. S. Ligani Fereja, P. Li, Z. Zhang, J. Guo, Z. Fang, Z. Li, S. He and W. Chen, *Chemical Engineering Journal*, 2022, **432**, 134274.
- 942 118. R. Wang, J. Cao, R. Zhang, Z. Sun, F. Wang and H. Wu, *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*, 2022, **47**, 29593-29603.
- 943 119. N. Chen, X. Du and X. Zhang, *Renewable Energy*, 2022, **193**, 715-724.
- 944 120. Z. Jiang, L. Zheng, C. Sheng, H. Xu, S. Chen, Y. Liao, Y. Qing and Y. Wu, *Journal of Colloid and Interface Science*, 2022, **626**, 848-857.
- 945 121. Z. Wang, P. Guo, M. Liu, C. Guo, H. Liu, S. Wei, J. Zhang and X. Lu, *ACS Applied Energy Materials*, 2019, **2**, 3363-3372.
- 946 122. Y. Zhang, Y. Qiu, Y. Wang, B. Li, Y. Zhang, Z. Ma and S. Liu, *ACS Applied Materials & Interfaces*, 2021, **13**, 3937-3948.
- 947 123. H. Yu, S. Zhu, Y. Hao, Y.-M. Chang, L. Li, J. Ma, H.-Y. Chen, M. Shao and S. Peng, *Advanced Functional Materials*, 2023, **33**, 2212811.
- 948 124. Q. Wen, K. Yang, D. Huang, G. Cheng, X. Ai, Y. Liu, J. Fang, H. Li, L. Yu and T. Zhai, *Advanced Energy Materials*, 2021, **11**, 2102353.
- 949 125. Y. Ren, C. Wang, W. Duan, L. Zhou, X. Pang, D. Wang, Y. Zhen, C. Yang and Z. Gao, *Journal of Colloid and Interface Science*, 2022, **628**, 446-455.
- 950 126. C. Gu, G. Zhou, J. Yang, H. Pang, M. Zhang, Q. Zhao, X. Gu, S. Tian, J. Zhang, L. Xu and Y. Tang, *Chemical Engineering Journal*, 2022, **443**, 136321.
- 951 127. V. T. Veetil, A. U. Vijayakumar, A. Ashdot and D. Zitoun, *ACS Applied Energy Materials*, 2022, **5**, 1397-1402.
- 952 128. Z. Zhao, J. Zhao, H. Wang, X. Li, L. Yang, Z. Zhao, X. Liu, Y. Liu, P. Liu and Z. Cai, *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*, 2020, **45**, 14199-14207.
- 953 129. D. Liu, T. Liu, L. Zhang, F. Qu, G. Du, A. M. Asiri and X. Sun, *Journal of Materials Chemistry A*, 2017, **5**, 3208-3213.
- 954 130. R. Tong, M. Xu, H. Huang, J. Wu, Y. Xiong, M. Shao, Y. Zhao, S. Wang and H. Pan, *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*, 2022, **47**, 11447-11455.
- 955 131. L. Sha, J. Yin, K. Ye, G. Wang, K. Zhu, K. Cheng, J. Yan, G. Wang and D. Cao, *Journal of Materials Chemistry A*, 2019, **7**, 9078-9085.
- 956 132. H. Xu, K. Ye, K. Zhu, Y. Gao, J. Yin, J. Yan, G. Wang and D. Cao, *ACS Sustainable Chemistry & Engineering*, 2020, **8**, 16037-16045.
- 957 133. T. I. Singh, G. Rajeshkhanna, S. B. Singh, T. Kshetri, N. H. Kim and J. H. Lee, *ChemSusChem*, 2019, **12**, 4810-4823.
- 958 134. N. Sinha and P. Roy, *Inorganic Chemistry*, 2023, **62**, 3349-3357.
- 959 135. L. Yang and L. Zhang, *Journal of Colloid and Interface Science*, 2022, **607**, 546-555.
- 960 136. J. Cao, Z. Jiao, R. Zhu, H. Long, Y. Zheng, J. Pan, J. Wang, F. Luo, C. Li and Q. Wei, *Journal of Alloys and Compounds*, 2022, **914**, 165362.

- 983 137. R.-Q. Li, Q. Liu, Y. Zhou, M. Lu, J. Hou, K. Qu, Y. Zhu and O. Fontaine, *Journal of Materials*  
984 *Chemistry A*, 2021, **9**, 4159-4166.
- 985 138. Y. Liu, D. Zheng, Y. Zhao, P. Shen, Y. Du, W. Xiao, Y. Du, Y. Fu, Z. Wu and L. Wang, *International*  
986 *Journal of Hydrogen Energy*, 2022, **47**, 25081-25089.
- 987 139. H. Jiang, M. Sun, S. Wu, B. Huang, C. S. Lee and W. Zhang, *Advanced Functional Materials*, 2021,  
988 DOI: 10.1002/adfm.202104951.
- 989 140. F. Wang, D. Zhao, L. Zhang, L. Fan, X. Zhang and S. Hu, *Nanomaterials*, 2019, **9**, 1583.
- 990 141. M. Zabihinezhad, T. Shahrabi, C. Zheng, T. Shao, G. Barati Darband and J. Li, *Journal of*  
991 *Electroanalytical Chemistry*, 2023, **942**, 117528.
- 992 142. Y. Tong, L. Chen, P. J. Dyson and Z. Fei, *Journal of Materials Science*, 2021, **56**, 17709-17720.
- 993 143. X. Lan, G. Li, R. Jin, X. Li and J. Zheng, *Chemical Engineering Journal*, 2022, **450**, 138225.
- 994 144. J. Xiao, R. Tan, Y. Guo, P. Zhao and X. Luo, *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*, 2022, **47**,  
995 28730-28739.
- 996 145. J. Zheng, K. Wu, C. Lyu, X. Pan, X. Zhang, Y. Zhu, A. Wang, W.-M. Lau and N. Wang, *Applied*  
997 *Surface Science*, 2020, **506**, 144977.
- 998 146. Y. Zhou, B. Chu, Z. Sun, L. Dong, F. Wang, B. Li, M. Fan and Z. Chen, *Applied Catalysis B:*  
999 *Environmental*, 2023, **323**, 122168.
- 1000 147. L. Meng, L. Zhang, S. Liu, F. Wang and H. Wu, *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*, 2023,  
1001 DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhydene.2023.05.143>.
- 1002 148. B. Chen, M. Humayun, Y. Li, H. Zhang, H. Sun, Y. Wu and C. Wang, *ACS Sustainable Chemistry*  
1003 *& Engineering*, 2021, **9**, 14180-14192.
- 1004 149. J. Liu, Y. Wang, Y. Liao, C. Wu, Y. Yan, H. Xie and Y. Chen, *ACS Applied Materials & Interfaces*,  
1005 2021, **13**, 26948-26959.
- 1006 150. P. Yi, Y. Song, C. Li, R. Liu and J. Sun, *Applied Surface Science*, 2023, **619**, 156789.
- 1007 151. T. Wang, L. Miao, S. Zheng, H. Qin, X. Cao, L. Yang and L. Jiao, *ACS Catalysis*, 2023, **13**, 4091-  
1008 4100.
- 1009 152. B. Lu, D. Wang, C. Zhao, K. Zhu, J. Yan, G. Wang, D. Cao and K. Ye, *Materials Chemistry*  
1010 *Frontiers*, 2022, **6**, 1681-1689.
- 1011 153. L. Jiang, Y. Pan, J. Zhang, X. Chen, X. Ye, Z. Li, C. Li and Q. Sun, *Journal of Colloid and Interface*  
1012 *Science*, 2022, **622**, 192-201.
- 1013 154. T. Wang, H. Wu, C. Feng, L. Zhang and J. Zhang, *Journal of Materials Chemistry A*, 2020, **8**,  
1014 18106-18116.
- 1015 155. R. Wang, T. Wnag, C. Feng, H. Wu, Y. Ding and H. Me, *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*,  
1016 2021, **46**, 38247-38257.
- 1017 156. D. Khalafallah, A. A. Farghaly, C. Ouyang, W. Huang and Z. Hong, *Journal of Power Sources*,  
1018 2023, **558**, 232563.
- 1019 157. H. Wang, H. Zou, Y. Liu, Z. Liu, W. Sun, K. A. Lin, T. Li and S. Luo, *Scientific Reports*, 2021, **11**,  
1020 21414.
- 1021 158. C. Chen, L. Jin, L. Hu, T. Zhang, J. He, P. Gu, Q. Xu and J. Lu, *Journal of Colloid and Interface*  
1022 *Science*, 2022, **628**, 1008-1018.
- 1023 159. Y. Wang, C. Wang, H. Shang, M. Yuan, Z. Wu, J. Li and Y. Du, *Journal of Colloid and Interface*  
1024 *Science*, 2022, **605**, 779-789.
- 1025 160. Z. Liu, S. Xue, S. Zhou, J. Li, K. Qu and W. Cai, *Journal of Catalysis*, 2022, **405**, 606-613.
- 1026 161. L. Zhang, Y. Wang, J. Cao, R. Zhang, F. Wang and H. Wu, *International Journal of Hydrogen*  
1027 *Energy*, 2022, **47**, 34715-34726.
- 1028 162. N. T. Nguyen, T. T. N. Tran, T.-K. Truong, J. Yu, T. N.-M. Le, T. B. Phan, T. L. H. Doan, L. H. T.  
1029 Nguyen, T. D. Luong, T.-H. Nguyen and N. Q. Tran, *Inorganic Chemistry*, 2023, **62**, 10298-10306.
- 1030 163. K. Wu, H. Li, C. Lyu, J. Cheng, Y. Yang, X. Zhu, W.-M. Lau and J. Zheng, *Journal of Alloys and*  
1031 *Compounds*, 2023, **945**, 169290.
- 1032 164. X. Du, Y. Ding and X. Zhang, *Green Energy & Environment*, 2023, **8**, 798-811.
- 1033 165. C. Zhang, X. Du and X. Zhang, *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*, 2022, **47**, 10825-10836.

- 1034 166. Y. Xu, T. Ren, K. Ren, S. Yu, M. Liu, Z. Wang, X. Li, L. Wang and H. Wang, *Chemical Engineering*  
1035 *Journal*, 2021, **408**.  
1036 167. H. Liu, D. Wen and B. Zhu, *Journal of Electroanalytical Chemistry*, 2023, **928**, 117082.  
1037 168. K. Xiong, L. Yu, Y. Xiang, H. Zhang, J. Chen and Y. Gao, *Journal of Alloys and Compounds*, 2022,  
1038 **912**, 165234.  
1039 169. A. Nadeema, V. Kashyap, R. Gururaj and S. Kurungot, *ACS Applied Materials & Interfaces*, 2019,  
1040 **11**, 25917-25927.
- 1041