

1 **Crystalline and porous CoSe dendrimeric architectures for efficient Oxygen**  
2 **Evolution Reaction**

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25 **Abstract**

26 Development of efficient and economical electrocatalyst for oxygen evolution reaction is the  
27 key challenge to renewable energy technologies. Metal selenides are attractive candidates for  
28 electrocatalytic water oxidation because of suitable surface-active sites they provide for the  
29 reaction. Herein, we report the preparation of less explored hexagonal cobalt selenide (CoSe)  
30 for oxygen evolution reaction through facile and environmentally benign one-step  
31 hydrothermal method. Reaction conditions were precisely tailored for the development of  
32 highly crystalline and porous dendrimeric architectures of CoSe. Owing to its exclusive porous  
33 and the dendrimeric crystalline network and large electrochemical surface area, the superior  
34 CoSe electrocatalyst (that is 16H) showed excellent electrochemical activity with remarkably  
35 low overpotential (250 mV at 10 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>) and very high current density (570 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>) in a  
36 small potential window. The Tafel slope of 16H sample was 56 mV dec<sup>-1</sup> which indicates the  
37 faster kinetics at the catalyst surfaces. Moreover, it also showed excellent stability under harsh  
38 oxidative condition in a 24-hour long stability test experiment.

39 **Keywords**

40 CoSe; electrocatalyst; oxygen evolution reaction; water splitting; renewable energy

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## 50 **1. Introduction**

51 Electrochemical water splitting is one of the most promising approaches of converting  
52 electrical energy into chemical energy in hydrogen fuel<sup>1-3</sup>. Water splitting reaction includes  
53 two half reactions: hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) and oxygen evolution reaction (OER).  
54 However, a major challenging reaction in water splitting is the oxygen evolution reaction  
55 (OER). OER is kinetically sluggish due to multiple-electron transfer in complicated O-H bond  
56 breakings and subsequent O=O bond formations, which require a high overpotential<sup>4-8</sup>. An  
57 efficient electrocatalyst is required for reducing energy barrier and enhancing energy  
58 conversion efficiency<sup>9</sup>. Pioneering studies for the OER have revealed that RuO<sub>2</sub> and IrO<sub>2</sub> are  
59 promising electrocatalysts. However, their high cost and scarcity severely impede their  
60 widespread applications<sup>10-13</sup>. This limitation encouraged researchers to explore efficient and  
61 economic electrocatalysts for the water oxidation reaction. The reported electrocatalysts for  
62 OER include transition metal oxides, hydroxides, selenides, phosphides, nitrides, and  
63 perovskites<sup>14-19</sup>. Among all these transition metal chalcogenides have gained attention owing to  
64 their extraordinary chemical and physical properties, quantum size, luminescence and optical  
65 properties<sup>20</sup>. From the various transition metal selenides and their composites for the OER,  
66 cobalt selenides have received significant attention due to their low cost, earth abundance,  
67 chemical stabilities, and comparable efficiencies to that of IrO<sub>2</sub> and RuO<sub>2</sub><sup>21-37</sup>. Till now, cobalt-  
68 based catalyst, particularly cobalt selenides and oxides have gained attention owing to their  
69 higher catalytic activity and corrosion stability. To enhance the efficiency of Cobalt-based

70 electrocatalyst, synthetic strategies has been varied, doping and composites have also been  
71 synthesized. Although, pure cobalt selenide is found a benign catalyst for oxygen evolution  
72 reaction<sup>38</sup>. The efficient electrocatalytic activity of cobalt selenides is due to suitable surface-  
73 active sites for water splitting. Stoichiometric CoSe<sub>2</sub> is the most reported layered cobalt  
74 selenide for oxygen evolution reaction<sup>21, 39-42</sup>. However, there only a few reports in literature  
75 for OER with other pure phases of cobalt selenides. These include Co<sub>0.85</sub>Se, Co<sub>3</sub>Se<sub>4</sub>, Co<sub>7</sub>Se<sub>8</sub>,  
76 Co<sub>9</sub>Se<sub>8</sub> and CoSe<sup>40, 43-49</sup>. The OER electrocatalytic activities of all these pure cobalt selenide  
77 phases including the current work are given in supplementary table 1. Highly crystalline and  
78 porous architectures of suitable materials are important to expose maximum surface active sites  
79 for reactants and to enhance the electron transfer process during a reaction. Selenium is  
80 sensitive to the applied reaction conditions because it exists in multiple oxidation states.  
81 Physical properties of transition metal dichalcogenides are strongly influenced by metal cations  
82 d-electronic configuration. In CoSe exhibits +2 charge (d<sup>7</sup>) and it is paramagnetic in nature and  
83 this metallic nature enhance the performance of CoSe<sup>50</sup>.  
84 Therefore, in the current study, less explored stoichiometric CoSe architectures are prepared  
85 under varying reaction conditions through environmentally benign facile one-pot hydrothermal  
86 method. The reaction conditions are optimized to produce highly crystalline, and porous CoSe  
87 architectures. Also, their detailed electrochemistry for water oxidation is investigated.

## 88 2. Experimental

89 Cobalt chloride hexa-hydrate, Selenium powder, hydrazine hydrate, were purchased from  
90 Sigma Aldrich and were used without further purification. Deionized water obtained from  
91 Milli-Q (EQ-7000) direct water purification system (Merck KGaA, Darmstadt 64297,  
92 Germany), was used for making all the solutions.

## 93 **2.1 Synthesis of Cobalt Selenide Nanoparticles**

94 A series of cobalt selenide nanoparticles were synthesized at different reaction temperatures by  
95 using one pot hydrothermal method. In a typical preparation, cobalt chloride hexa-hydrate  
96 (713.8 mg, 3 mmol) was dissolved in 20 mL of deionized water under continuous stirring.  
97 Selenium powder (236.0 mg, 3 mmol) was then slowly added into the above solution and  
98 stirred for 1 hour at room temperature. Then hydrazine hydrate (8 mL) was added dropwise at  
99 80 °C and the resulting suspension was kept on stirring at room temperature for one hour. The  
100 solution was then transferred into autoclave (100 mL Teflon container inserted in steel jacket)  
101 followed by placing it into an oven at 180 °C for 16 hours. After cooling down the autoclave to  
102 room temperature, the resulting product was thoroughly washed with deionized water and  
103 ethanol followed by centrifugation and vacuum drying at 90 °C. A similar synthetic strategy  
104 was adopted to prepare cobalt selenide nanoparticles at different reaction times i.e. 4H, 8H,  
105 12H and 20H. Schematic illustration of this procedure is shown in Figure S1.

## 106 **2.2 Electrode Fabrication**

107 The electrode fabrication was done by drop-casting method on fluorine tin oxide (FTO) coated  
108 glass. FTO coated glass was initially cleaned by sonicating in ethanol, then in ultrapure water  
109 and finally in acetone for 15 minutes, followed by drying at 80 °C for 30 minutes. The ink was  
110 prepared by ultra-sonicating 1 mg of electrocatalyst, 2 mL of ethanol, and two drops of binder  
111 Nafion at 60°C. FTO coated glass was heated to 100 °C for 10 minutes and drop casting of ink  
112 was made on pre-heated FTO glass using a micropipette to get uniformly coated working  
113 electrode. The functional area was kept 1 cm<sup>2</sup> in each fabrication of the working electrode.  
114 Finally, the coated electrodes were vacuum dried at 50 °C.

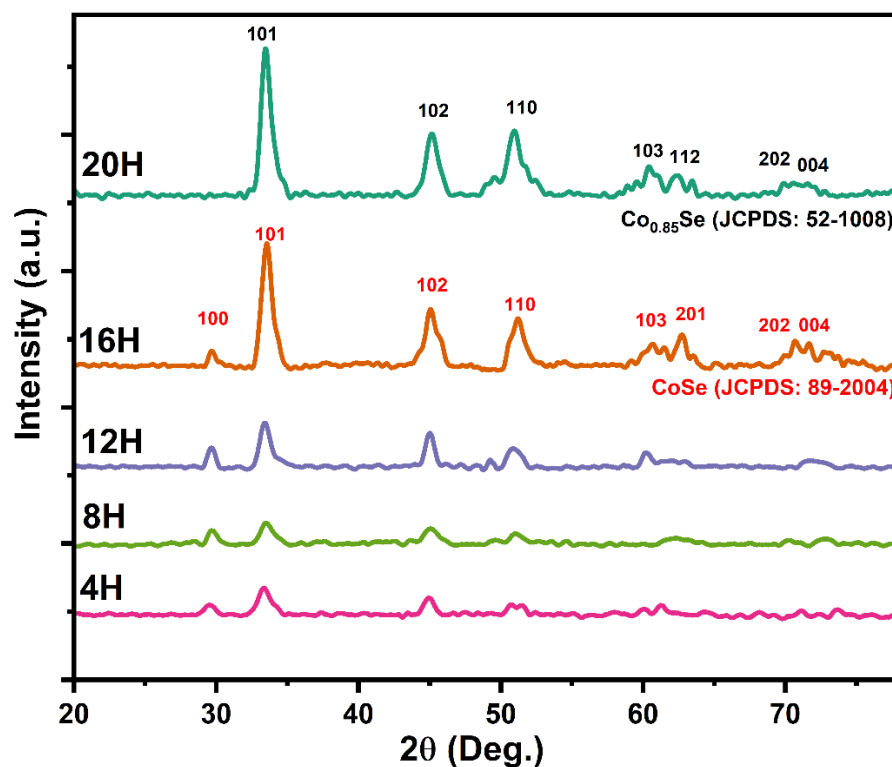
## 115 **3. Characterizations**

116 Powder X-ray diffraction (p-XRD) patterns of all prepared samples were recorded using  
117 Bourevestnik Dron-8 diffractometer (St. Petersburg 190900 , Russia) equipped with Cu-K $\alpha$   
118 radiation ( $\lambda = 1.5406 \text{ \AA}$ ) operated at 20 kV and 40 mA. For morphological and elemental  
119 composition studies, scanning electron microscopy (SEM) imaging, Energy-dispersive X-ray  
120 spectroscopy (EDX) and elemental mapping were performed with a Nova Nano-SEM 450  
121 electrom microscope (Lincoln, NE 68588, United States). Electrochemical studies were  
122 conducted on Gammry Interface 1000 electrochemical work station (Warminster, PA 18974,  
123 United Staes) using conventional three-electrode system. Various electrochemical studies,  
124 including cyclic voltammetry (CV), linear sweep voltammetry (LSV), electrochemical  
125 impedance spectroscopy (EIS), and Chronopotentiometry (CP) were conducted for each  
126 prepared material. These experiments were performed in a specialized electrochemical cell of  
127 capacity 30 mL, and the electrolyte was 1 M KOH.

#### 128 **4. Results and discussions**

129 p-XRD analysis was conducted and the corresponding XRD patterns are shown in Figure 1.  
130 The XRD patterns of 4H, 8H, 12H and 16H samples shows diffraction peaks at (100), (101),  
131 (102), (110), (201), (204)<sup>44</sup>and these peaks were found to match with standard pattern of CoSe  
132 (JCPDS-89-2004), whereas the XRD pattern of 20H sample was found matching with the  
133 standard pattern of Co<sub>0.85</sub>Se (JCPDS-52-1008). From 16H to 20H slight peak shift has been  
134 observed, it is assigned to Co<sub>0.85</sub>Se hexagonal phase<sup>51</sup>.All peaks were assigned to  
135 corresponding crystal planes of both phases, and no extra peaks were detected, which shows  
136 the high purity of products. But the relative intensities of peaks have been increased by  
137 increasing reaction time, due to difference in direction and alignment of planes in sample. It  
138 has been observed that by decreasing reaction time from 20H to 4H size of nanoparticles has

139 been decreased due to which peak broadening has been occurred <sup>52</sup>. The reaction time longer  
140 than 16H generated vacancies in cobalt selenide, resulting in the formation of  
141 nonstoichiometric cobalt selenide,  $\text{Co}_{0.85}\text{Se}$ . The average crystallite sizes of the samples were  
142 calculated using the Debye–Scherrer formula and were found to be 34, 25, 17, 8 and 12 nm for  
143 4H, 8H, 12H, 16H, and 20H samples, respectively. Moreover, the crystallinity index of as-  
144 prepared materials was improved by increasing the reaction time.



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146 **Figure 1:** p-XRD patterns of 4H, 8H, 12H, 16H and 20H

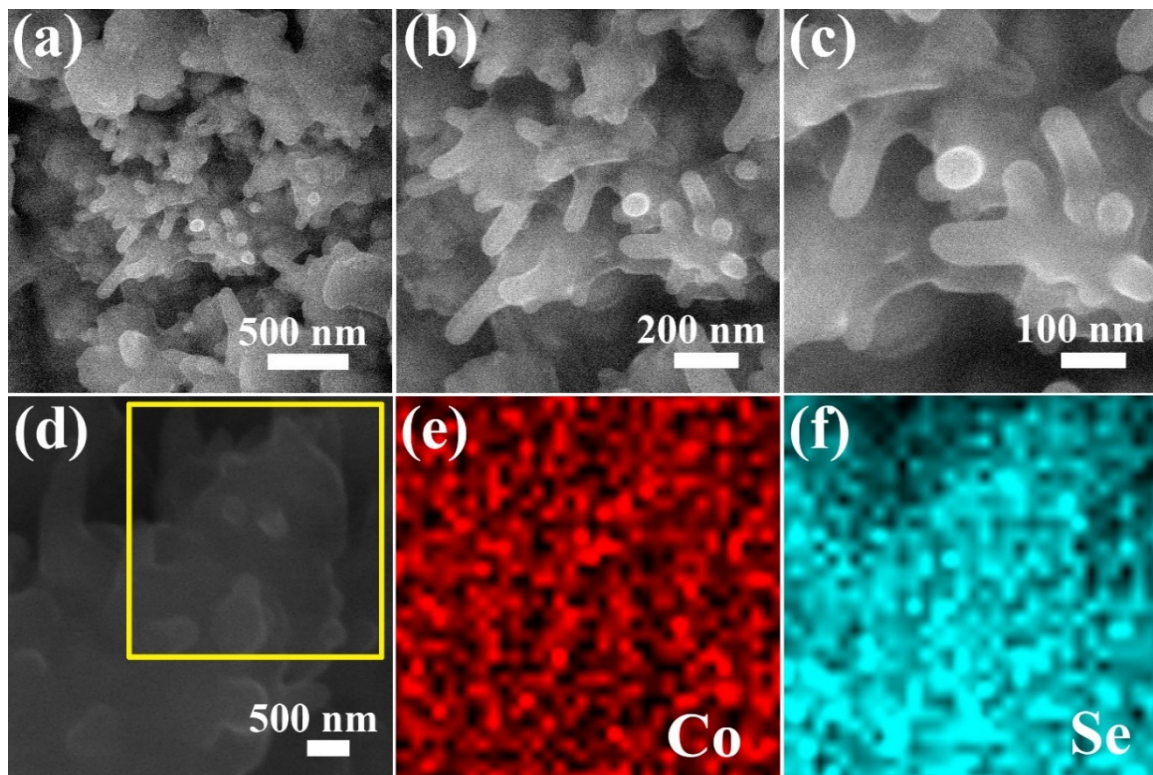
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148 The morphology of as-prepared materials was analysed by scanning electron microscopy  
149 (SEM). As the catalytic reactions takes place on the surface so morphologies of as-synthesized  
150 materials are very important. CoSe nanoparticles exhibit dendrimeric structure and these  
151 dendrimers are expected to facilitate transportation of electron which will promote OER The

152 SEM micrographs of best performing catalyst, 16H, show the dendrimeric structure of 20-30  
153 nanometer diameter, as shown in Figure 2 (a-c). In addition, open channel cavities of several  
154 nanometer size can also be seen which are vital to enhance the mass diffusion process for  
155 efficient kinetics. In case of 20H, fusion of dendrimeric structures into larger particles with a  
156 diameter of 150-200 nm were observed, which reduce the active surface area of the catalyst  
157 (Figure S2 (d-f)). Aggregated micron-level sheet like structures can be seen in the images of  
158 sample 12H (Figure S2 (a-c)). The elemental contents of 16H were determined by energy  
159 dispersive X-ray (EDX) spectrometer, the atomic ratios of Co/Se were highly close to 1:1,  
160 which further validates the stoichiometric formation of CoSe. While in case of 20H, the  
161 contents of cobalt were significantly lower than the selenide (atomic ratio of Co/Se was 0.82:1)  
162 which indicates the presence of Co vacancies in 20H, as observed in its p-XRD pattern. This  
163 ratio is very close to empirical formula of  $\text{Co}_{0.85}\text{Se}$  which further confirm its formation. The  
164 EDX elemental mapping of 16H shows the homogeneous distribution of both Co and Se  
165 throughout the matrix, as shown in Figure 2 .

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168 **Figure 2** : (a)-(c) SEM images of dendrimer-like 16H; (d)-(f) Elemental mappings

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170 Electrochemical performance of as-prepared materials for OER was evaluated in a three-  
 171 electrode system, using standard calomel electrode and Pt as reference and counter electrode,  
 172 respectively, with prepared materials coated on FTO as working electrodes. The LSV was  
 173 performed for different catalysts in 1M KOH solution at a scan rate of  $5 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$ , and the  
 174 corresponding recorded curves are shown in Figure 3(a). To obtain the  $10 \text{ mAcm}^{-2}$  electron  
 175 density, the required overpotentials for 4H, 8H,12H, 16H and 20H were 360 mV, 290 mV, 280  
 176 mV, 250 mV, and 290 mV, respectively. All the prepared catalysts were found active for OER,  
 177 and the LSV for 16H sample initiated OER at remarkably low overpotential and reaching very  
 178 high current densities ( $570 \text{ mAcm}^{-2}$ ) for oxygen evolution reaction under a small potential  
 179 window. This high catalytic activity of 16H sample is due to its high crystallinity, porosity and

180 dendrimeric morphology compared to other prepared materials, as evident by p-XRD patterns  
181 and SEM micrographs. The samples with other preparation times (4H and 8H) showed the least  
182 peak electron densities and the highest overpotentials due to their more amorphous nature and  
183 compact sheet-like morphologies. CoSe synthesized at 12 h time interval (that is 12H) and the  
184 sample prepared in 20 h time interval (that is 20H) showed almost similar results for the water  
185 oxidation reaction. The lower catalytic activity of 20H as compared to 16H sample is due to its  
186 phase change and agglomerated morphology despite having better crystallinity than the 16H.  
187 The kinetics of catalyst was examined by Tafel plots, which shows the effect of overpotential  
188 or potential on constant current density. Tafel plots of all prepared CoSe samples were  
189 investigated in the linear regions and fitted into the Tafel equation ( $\eta = b \log J + a$ ) where b is  
190 Tafel slope. The resulting Tafel slopes for all prepared samples are shown in Figure 3(b). The  
191 Tafel slope of 16H sample is 56 mV dec<sup>-1</sup>, smaller than all other prepared samples and  
192 benchmark RuO<sub>2</sub>, implying an enhanced OER kinetics and improved bubble-releasing ability.  
193 These results suggest that high crystallinity, porous structure, dendrimeric morphology, and the  
194 hexagonal CoSe phase improved the mass transfer and boosted the electron transfer process in  
195 water oxidation. These features make 16H a suitable candidate in practical applications with  
196 more rapid OER rate. Linear sweep voltammograms were obtained at different scan rates of 5,  
197 10, 25, 50, 75, 90 and 100 mVs<sup>-1</sup> for 16H sample to investigate the scan rate effect on the  
198 current density and overpotential, as shown in Figure S3. The current density increased by  
199 increasing the scan rate, demonstrating rapid kinetics on the active electrode materials and low  
200 transport resistance between analyte and electrolyte for OER.  
201 Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) was conducted to understand better the kinetics  
202 of the OER process on prepared electrocatalysts. EIS was performed under a constant potential

203 of 0.5V and in the presence of 1.0 M KOH as an electrolyte. For each electrocatalytic  
204 experiment, a fresh electrolyte was used to minimize the differences in solution resistance.  
205 Figures 3(c, d) show the respective Nyquist EIS plots and the bar graph for the charge transfer  
206 resistances of all prepared electrocatalytic materials. A equivalent circuit was designed to fit  
207 the EIS data, as shown in the inset of Figure 3(c). The designed circuit comprised of three  
208 resistors R1, R2 and R3 and two other elements Yo5,a5 and Yo7, a7, from this circuit  $R_s$  and  
209  $R_{ct}$  could be calculated. Solution resistance,  $R_s$ , is the resistance of the electrolyte, and  $R_{ct}$  is the  
210 charge transfer resistance which is the interfacial resistance between the electrocatalyst and the  
211 electrolyte<sup>50</sup>. As  $R_{ct}$  controls interfacial charge transfer kinetics which relates with the OER on  
212 the surface of catalyst. So, smaller value of  $R_{ct}$  leads to efficient OER reaction. EIS plot and  
213 bar graph of different prepared materials show that the 16H represents the lowest charge  
214 transfer resistance of just 0.218  $\Omega$  whereas the 4H showed highest charge transfer resistance of  
215 5.07  $\Omega$ . The smallest charge transfer resistance for 16H among all other prepared materials  
216 suggests rapid kinetics and better catalytic activity. This difference in charge transfer  
217 resistances of as-synthesized materials shows that crystallinity, porosity and morphology play  
218 important roles in developing efficient electrocatalysts for water oxidation.

219 Electrochemically active surface area (ECSA) of all prepared materials was calculated using  
220 CV scans in the non-Faradic potential region at varied scanning rates (10  $\text{mV s}^{-1}$ , 20  $\text{mV s}^{-1}$ ,  
221 30  $\text{mV s}^{-1}$ , 40  $\text{mV s}^{-1}$ , 50  $\text{mV s}^{-1}$ ). A linear plot of scan rate versus capacitive current was  
222 derived from recorded CV data, and ther slope of this curve gave a quantitative value of  
223 double-layer capacitance (CdI). For these materials current linearly depends on the scan rate,  
224 which relates with capacittave charging behaviour. The corresponding non-Faradic CV scans  
225 and linear plots for determination of CdI are shown in Figure S4. The magnitude of double-

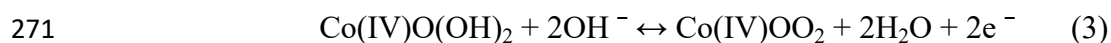
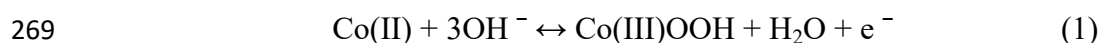
226 layer capacitance is a measure of the ECSA. Abundant surface-active sites were found in 12H,  
227 16H and 20H. The measured CdI values are 26.1, 20.4 and 17.5 mF cm<sup>-2</sup> for 12H, 16H and  
228 20H, respectively. From these values of CdI, ECSA were estimated and are shown in the form  
229 of bar graph in the Figure 3(e). The highest ECSA was observed for 16H followed by the 12H  
230 and then for 20H. This trend indicates that materials' phase, crystallinity, morphology and  
231 porosity are critical in bringing accessible reaction sites for water oxidation. The sample 20H is  
232 highly crystalline and porous, however, it has fewer active sites than 16H and 12H due to  
233 different CoSe phases and fusion of dendrimeric architectures. The results of ECSA suggests  
234 that 16H sample had more exposed Co sites, leading to formation of more Co active species as  
235 compared to other samples. Amorphous nature and micron-level sheet like structures leads to  
236 lowest ECSA for 4H followed by 8H. The ECSA results are in good agreement with other  
237 characterizations and electrochemical evaluations.

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239 Besides fast kinetics and higher catalytic activities, stability of electrocatalyst is another  
240 essential criterion for commercial application. Chronopotentiometry of 16H sample was  
241 performed under constant current densities of 20 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> and 50 mAcm<sup>-2</sup> for over 24 hours. A  
242 rich, continuous stream of oxygen bubbles were seen coming out of electrode surface during  
243 the chronopotentiometric tests. The material 16H showed sustain potential values for OER  
244 throughout the experiment, indicating its excellent stability under harsh oxidative conditions,  
245 as shown in Figure 3(f). The percentage retention of electrocatalyst was above 95 percent, and  
246 negligible increase in the overpotential was observed. A slight increase in voltage was  
247 observed in both potentiometric experiments that could be a result of small removal of  
248 electrocatalyst from the surface of electrode and decrease in contact between catalyst and

249 electrolyte due to continuous generation of oxygen gas. On the other hand, RuO<sub>2</sub> exhibit poor  
250 stability with continuous attenuation of current density and chronoamperometric response of  
251 RuO<sub>2</sub> was only 75 percent, as compared to initial current density under alkaline conditions.  
252 These results predicted that dendrimeric cobalt selenide is outstanding catalyst for OER.  
253 After the stability test, LSV of 16H was again conducted and compared with the LSV curve of  
254 fresh 16H. Negligible changes in the current density and overpotential were observed in both  
255 LSV curves, as shown in the Figure S5. EIS of fresh 16H and after chronopotentiometric  
256 stability test was also conducted. As shown in the Figure S6 and S7, a small increase in  
257 resistance of 16H was observed after 24 hours stability test. These slight changes in current  
258 density and resistance of 16H after stability experiment could be due to poisoning of very few  
259 active sites under highly oxidative conditions. In addition, powder XRD was also performed  
260 before and after stability experiment and the resultant XRD patterns are shown in Figure S8.  
261 These patterns indicate that 16H ultimately retained its structure and the crystalline changes  
262 were imperceptible, further confirming its excellent stability.  
263 The performance of reported cobalt selenides has been illustrated in table S1 which shows that  
264 present work exhibits best results. The excellent catalytic activity of as-synthesized catalyst  
265 could be attributed to following factor: (i) dendrimeric structure which facilitated electron  
266 transport (ii) increased Co active sites  
267 Possible mechanism of OER in alkaline conditions has been described below <sup>53</sup>:-

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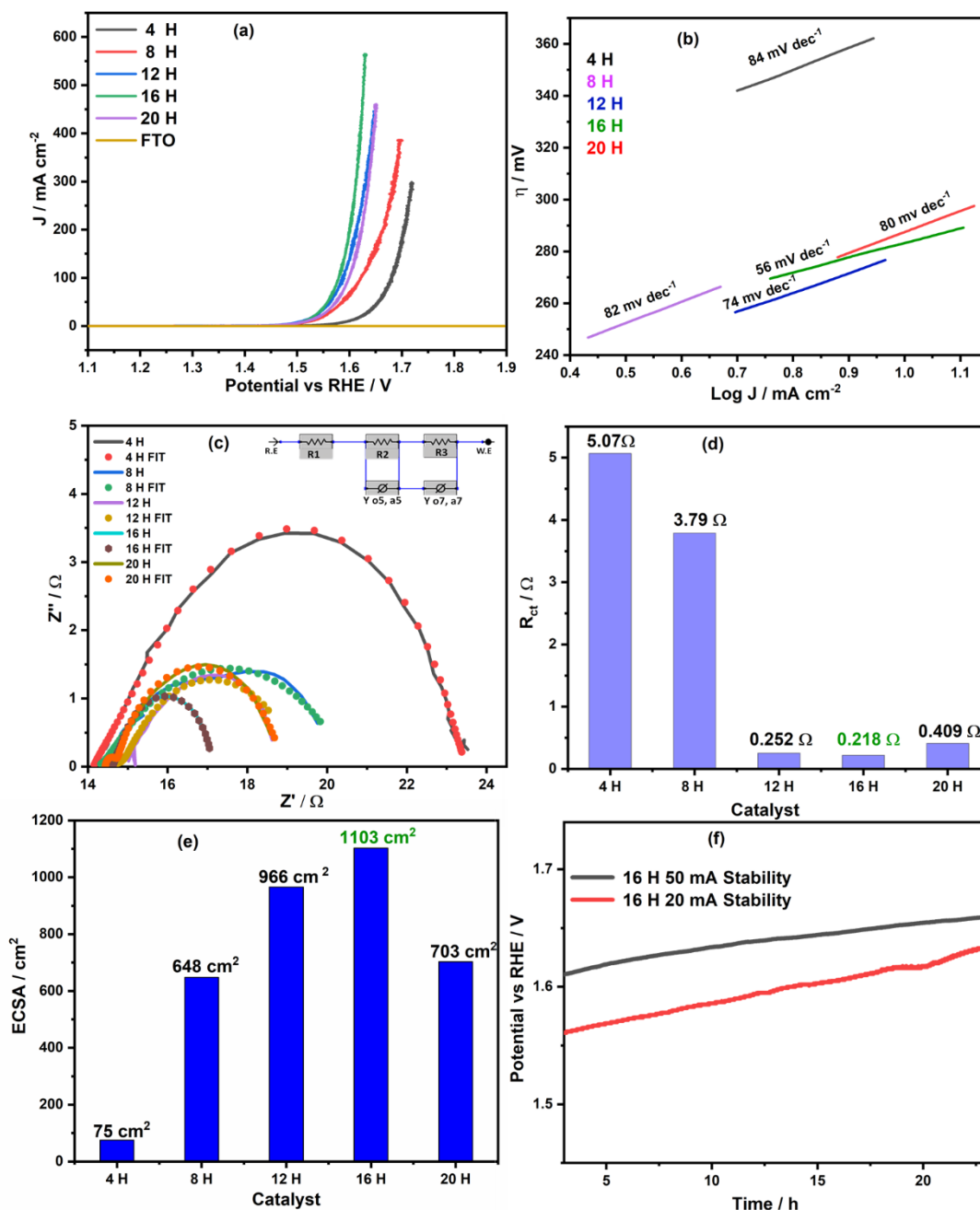




274 First three steps are reversible and explains entire OER process while fourth step is irreversible  
275 and fast.  $\text{Co}^{+2}$  firstly oxidized on the surface of electrode and forms  $\text{CoOOH/CoSe}$ , then it is  
276 oxidized to  $\text{CoOO}_2/\text{CoSe}$ , followed by its electrochemical oxidation and formation of  $\text{O}_2$  and  
277  $\text{CoOOH}$ . Moreover, dendrimeric structure of  $\text{CoSe}$  provides larger surface area and more  
278 active sites and enhance interfacial charge transfer which promotes OER reaction rate. Higher  
279 surface area also increase interface contact between electrolyte and electrode.

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**Figure 3** : Electrochemical studies of 4H, 8H, 12H, 16H and 20H (a) Linear sweep

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voltammograms (b) Tafel plots in the linear regions (c) Nyquist EIS plots (d) charge transfer

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resistances (e) Electrochemically active surface areas (f) chronopotentiometric tests under

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constant current densities of 20 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> and 50 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> for over 24 hours

## 287        **5. Conclusions**

288    In summary, we have synthesized dendrimeric nanoparticles of cobalt selenide at different  
289    temperatures via hydrothermal method. It was observed that CoSe synthesized at 16H exhibits  
290    excellent electrochemical activity with remarkably low overpotential (250 mV at 10 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>)  
291    and very high current density (570 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>) in a small potential window. The Tafel slope of  
292    16H sample was 56 mV dec<sup>-1</sup> which indicates the faster kinetics at the catalyst surfaces.  
293    Moreover, it also showed excellent stability in harsh oxidative condition in a 24-hour long  
294    stability test under alkaline conditions. Benefiting from higher stability, large electrochemically  
295    active surface area, low overpotential and faster rate of electron transformation, cobalt selenide  
296    electrocatalyst performance exceeds from commercial electrocatalysts. To the best of our  
297    knowledge, the activity of as-synthesized catalyst is superior as compared to noble metal  
298    catalysts. The remarkable OER efficiency is attributed to crystallinity, porosity, morphology and  
299    nature of CoSe phase. It is important to note that crystalline and porous hexagonal CoSe is not  
300    only economical but also very stable electrocatalyst and this work paves pathways for  
301    preparation of selenide based, efficient OER catalyst by introducing different transition metals  
302    in it.

### 303    **Credit authorship contribution statement**

304    Muhammad Bilal: Experimental, Data curation, Writing original draft, Rashid: Data curation,  
305    Validation, Amna Altaf: Data curation, Write up, Nadeem Baig: Data curation, Ghayoor Abbas  
306    Chotana: Data curation, Raja Shahid Ashraf: Data curation, Shahid Rasool: Co-supervision,  
307    Editing, Ayman Nafadi: Data curation; Manzar Sohail: Supervision, Conceptulization Writing  
308    rereview & editing.



309 **Declaration of competing interest**

310 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal  
311 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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314 Appendix A. Supplementary data Supplementary data to this article can be found online at .....

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