

Density Functional Analysis of Threshold Voltage Control by Oxide Dipole Layers in Si- and MoS₂-Based FETs

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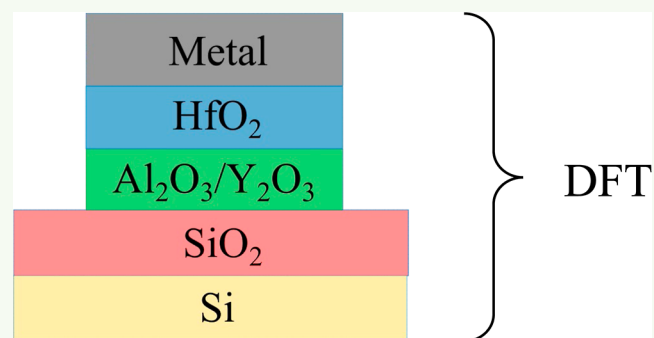
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ABSTRACT: The control of the threshold voltage V_{th} of high-k/metal metal-oxide-semiconductor field-effect transistor (MOSFET) gate stacks for n-type or p-type polarities by oxide dipole layers is analyzed by density functional theory. It is found that oxides such as SrO, Y₂O₃, HfO₂, Nb₂O₅ or amorphous Al₂O₃ could shift V_{th} to give either n- or p-polarities due to the band alignments and charge neutrality levels of the intrinsic virtual gap states of the oxides. This use of oxide layers for V_{th} control can be extended from Si MOSFETs to those using 2D transition metal dichalcogenide (TMD) channels such as MoS₂. The implementation of the dipole layer approach could allow bipolar operation of TMD-based FETs. As the presence of sulfur vacancies in MoS₂ can give their MOSFETs an extrinsic n-type character, we find that this doping effect could be compensated by an Al₂O₃ layer that shifts E_F downward toward midgap.

KEYWORDS: density functional modeling, CMOS gate stacks, equivalent oxide thickness, 2D materials, Si, MoS₂, threshold voltage, charge neutrality level



1. INTRODUCTION

One of the critical features of the operation of MOSFETs is to explain how to control the threshold voltage V_{th} of the n- and p-type devices, the primary parameter that sets their polarity. When SiO₂-based gate stacks on Si were first replaced by high-k dielectrics and metal gates, suitable gates for n- and p-type polarity devices were initially created by using two metals of different work functions.¹ These were then replaced by a single, midgap metal like TiN plus two dipole-shifting oxide layers to produce the n- and p-type MOSFETs,^{2–8} as shown in Figure 1. This would then achieve n- and p-type inversion mode FETs. The use of two oxide “dipole layers” rather than

n- and p-type gate metals was favored because it avoided having reactive n-type metal gates.

The dipole shift provided by such oxide layers was found to vary with the oxygen ion density in the gate dielectric in a semiempirical model proposed by Kita and Toriumi.⁹ A recent *nonempirical* density functional theory (DFT) analysis suggested that the flat-band voltage shift of these oxide “dipole layers” could more fundamentally be based on their relative band alignments.¹⁰ The present paper shows first that the effective electronegativity of the n- and p-gate oxide layers can be best expressed as the charge neutrality level (CNL) energy of the dipole layers, where the CNL represents the Fermi level of the evanescent metal-induced gap states (MIGS) of the oxides.¹¹ We then provide a simplified DFT description of the electronic structure of the entire gate stack and channel and the CNLs, starting with present-day Si channel semiconductors. This covers the industrially relevant SrO, Y₂O₃, HfO₂, Nb₂O₅ and amorphous Al₂O₃ gate dielectrics, to show how the present model using the CNL approach provides a more fundamental description. We then extend this from Si

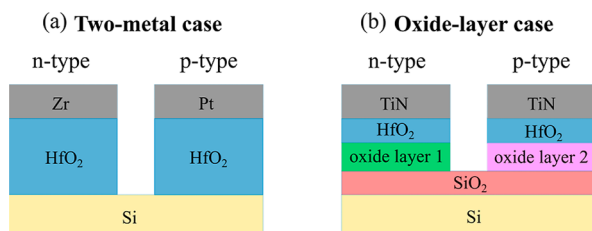


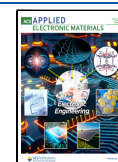
Figure 1. Comparison of different voltage threshold settings in MOS structures (a) two-metal case with n- and p-type metal gates to shift the gate voltage, (b) the oxide layer case with single TiN metal gate and an oxide layer to vary the gate voltage, V_{th} .

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channels to possible future transition metal dichalcogenide (TMD) channel materials. This provides two alternative descriptions of the cause of the voltage shift in Figure 1b, in terms of dipole layers or charge neutrality levels, where the result can be chosen by which description gives the lowest total energy of the gate stack supercell.

Scaling will eventually require the replacement of Si channels by layered TMD semiconductors like MoS₂, as these theoretically outperform 3D semiconductors by retaining their carrier mobility down to very low channel thicknesses.¹² However, the thinness of TMDs makes them more susceptible to poor growth processes, extrinsic defects and electrical contact problems.^{13–15} Nevertheless, optimized MoS₂ shows a direct or near-direct bandgap, a large on-current/off-current ratio ($I_{\text{ON}}/I_{\text{OFF}} > 10^8$), a low subthreshold slope and a reasonably high carrier mobility.¹⁶ Recent advances include large-area few-layer MoS₂ deposited by chemical vapor deposition (CVD) and some progress toward viable manufacturing.^{17–24} Thus, the paper extends our DFT analysis of V_{th} control of high-K gate stacks on Si to MOSFETs with MoS₂ channels. We finally treat MoS₂ channels containing some S vacancy defects which dope the MoS₂ n-type. Amorphous Al₂O₃ dipole layers are shown to be able to compensate the n-type shift of S vacancies, allowing control of n- and p-FETs across the entire MoS₂ gap.

2. METHODS

We study the semiconductor channels and gate stacks by sizable atomic supercell models. Their atomic structures were relaxed by the CASTEP DFT code²⁵ employing ultrasoft pseudopotentials with a plane wave cutoff energy of 380 eV and the Perdew–Burke–Ernzerhof (PBE) version of generalized gradient approximation (GGA)²⁶ for the electronic exchange–correlation function and a $3 \times 3 \times 1$ Monkhorst–Pack k -point grid for structural optimization. The energies are converged to 10^{-5} eV per atom and the forces are converged to 0.02 eV/Å. The electronic structure was then calculated for a denser k -point mesh of $5 \times 5 \times 1$. Periodic images were prevented using a 15 Å thick vacuum layer between each supercell. Hybrid functionals²⁷ are used to correct the band gap in isolated nonmetallic parts of the supercell, but the GGA method is retained for gate stack supercells containing metallic gates otherwise these states will cause divergence. This need for convergence limits the overall supercell sizes. The DFT-D3 scheme Grimme et al.²⁸ was used to describe the weak van der Waals interactions between MoS₂ layers. A deeper description of their use in various situations is covered by Klimeš et al.²⁹

The dipole layers could involve either crystalline or amorphous (a-) oxide phases. The monoclinic θ -Al₂O₃ polytype has a similar density and predominantly 4-fold Al sites^{30,31} of a-Al₂O₃ rather than the more covalent, higher density and 6-fold Al site network of sapphire which has been used to represent atomic layer deposited Al₂O₃. Here though, a thin a-Al₂O₃ network was created by ab initio molecular dynamics (AIMD)³² as follows. First, θ -Al₂O₃ was heated to 2500K for 9 ps with a time step of 3 fs to create a molten structure. After equilibration, the temperature was quenched back to room temperature for 10 ps for a cooling period of 2 fs. The supercell was then relaxed to its lowest-energy structure. For the calculation involving hexagonal MoS₂ we could use the relaxed θ -Al₂O₃ lattice.

The energy relaxation occurs relatively easily for the HfO₂ layers due to the facile diffusion of oxygen ions. However, the more covalent a-Al₂O₃ phase has a rigid network, which can become trapped in local energy minima. In that case, the a-Al₂O₃ layer and its interfaces are subjected to AIMD to surmount these energy barriers to find a global energy minimum. These are noted by comparing the total energies of the supercell (Figure S1 in the Supporting Information). It becomes evident that poorly converged solutions possess a combination of band alignment and dipole voltage shifts due to interfacial point

defects. These eventually converge to a dominance of band alignment over voltage shifts at the global minimum. These simulations nevertheless use relatively thick oxide layers to show these differences, whereas ultrathin high-K oxide layers are needed technologically due to scaling.^{33,34}

The V_{th} shift, E_{F} and band alignments in GGA are displayed by calculating the real-space layer by layer density of states (LDOS) plots using atomic layer slices of each supercell model. We use Ru rather than TiN in the calculations for simplicity as it has a similar work function to TiN.

The band alignments can also be visualized by a charge density versus energy versus distance plots using QuantumATK software.³⁵ An energy cutoff of 75 hartree and a $5 \times 5 \times 1$ k -point grid was adopted. The Fermi–Dirac occupation was broadened by 1000 K to aid iteration convergence. The conduction band minimum of Al₂O₃ appears at higher than expected energies in the ATK plots because of their low DOS compared to those of the O 2p or metal d bands.

3. RESULTS

3.1. Role of Charge Neutrality Level. The key interface of the gate stack is that between gate electrode and the oxide dielectric layer (treated as a wide-gap semiconductor). The band alignment at this interface depends on any charge transfer at the interface between the metal states and the dielectric in terms of the extent of evanescent interface states into the dielectric layer and their resulting dipole moment.¹¹ The Schottky barrier height (SBH) for electrons ϕ_{n} between a semiconductor S and a metal M is given by^{36,37}

$$\phi_{\text{n}} = S(\Phi_{\text{M}} - \Phi_{\text{S}}) + (\Phi_{\text{S}} - \chi_{\text{S}}) \quad (1)$$

where Φ_{M} is the work function of the metal, Φ_{S} is the energy of the semiconductor interface states, χ_{S} is the semiconductor's electron affinity (EA) and S is the Schottky pinning parameter. S is given by³⁸

$$S = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{e^2 N \delta}{\epsilon \epsilon_0}} \quad (2)$$

where e is the electronic charge, ϵ_0 is the permittivity of free space, N is the areal density of the interface states and δ is their decay length into the dielectric/semiconductor layer. The dimensionless pinning factor S describes if the barrier is “pinned” or not. S varies between the limits $S = 1$ for unpinned Schottky barriers to $S = 0$ for barriers pinned by a high density of gap states. We assume that this interface is dominated by intrinsic metal-induced gap states (MIGS) not defects. Empirically, Mönch^{39,40} found empirically that S varied with ϵ_{∞} as

$$S = \frac{1}{1 + 0.1(\epsilon_{\infty} - 1)^2} \quad (3)$$

here, the dielectric consists of an HfO₂ layer plus the dipole shifting layer gives a combined ϵ_{∞} value in this case. The ϵ_{∞} of the oxides are listed in Table 2, their typical S value is 0.6.

We first studied the band-edge energies for isolated bulk oxide slabs using hybrid functionals, including rock-salt SrO, fluorite HfO₂, hexagonal Y₂O₃, hexagonal La₂O₃ (ref 41), a Nb₂O₅ phase⁴² and monoclinic θ -Al₂O₃.^{31,42,43} These oxides each have a band gap of ~ 6 eV and are chosen for industrial relevance at the time. Each bulk slab has 10 oxide layers terminated by a nonpolar (001) face bounded by 15 Å of vacuum, where the number of layers is defined by the number of cation layers. The surface layer possesses half the oxygen ion density of the bulk to ensure charge neutrality. The band-edge

Table 1. List of the Crystal Structure, Surface Cleavage Plane, and Rotation Angle of Each Material Shown in Figures 3a,b and 4a,b

	Figure 3a	Figure 3b	Figure 4a	Figure 4d
Si	cubic (001) 45°	cubic (001) 45°		
SiO ₂	β -cristobalite (001) 0°	β -cristobalite (001) 0°		
Al ₂ O ₃	monoclinic θ (100) 45°			monoclinic θ (100) 45°
Y ₂ O ₃		cubic (001) 0°		
HfO ₂	fluorite (001) 45°	fluorite (001) 45°	fluorite (111) 0°	fluorite (111) 30°
Ru	cubic (001) 0°	cubic (001) 0°	cubic (111) 0°	cubic (111) 0°
MoS ₂			hexagonal (001) 0°	hexagonal (001) 30°

Table 2. Electronic Component of Dielectric Constant ϵ_{∞} of Various Oxide Layers for Figure 2

material	ϵ_{∞}
HfO ₂	3.61
SrO	3.28
La ₂ O ₃	3.78
Y ₂ O ₃	3.72
Nb ₂ O ₅	5.48
a-Al ₂ O ₃	1.71

energies of each oxide are calculated with respect to the vacuum level of the supercell by HSE to find their electron affinities (EA) and ionization potentials (IP). The band alignments of these oxides are seen in Figure 2a where the energy bands of SrO are seen to lie closest to the vacuum, followed by La₂O₃, Y₂O₃, HfO₂, Nb₂O₅ and last θ -Al₂O₃. Y₂O₃ is preferred to La₂O₃ in supercell calculations because it has a closer lattice matching to other oxide layers. The opposing electronegativity of Y₂O₃ and Al₂O₃ compared to HfO₂ allows this system to define the swing between n- and p-type FET polarities and their effective gate work functions. The CNL of

Y₂O₃ was calculated as normal. However, the conduction band of La₂O₃ unlike Y₂O₃ contains highly localized empty 4d states which barely affect the CNL calculation.⁴¹ Thus, there, we replace the La₂O₃ cell by a Y₂O₃ cell with no 4d states and its lattice constants dilated to that of La₂O₃ for the CNL calculation.

The CNL is the branch point of the semiconductor interface states, so it is the integral of the Greens function of the band structure within a certain energy range taken over the Brillouin zone,^{36,37}

$$G(E) = \int_{\text{BZ}} \frac{N(E')dE'}{E - E'} = 0 \quad (4)$$

This can be replaced by summing over bands and special points of the Brillouin zone⁴⁴

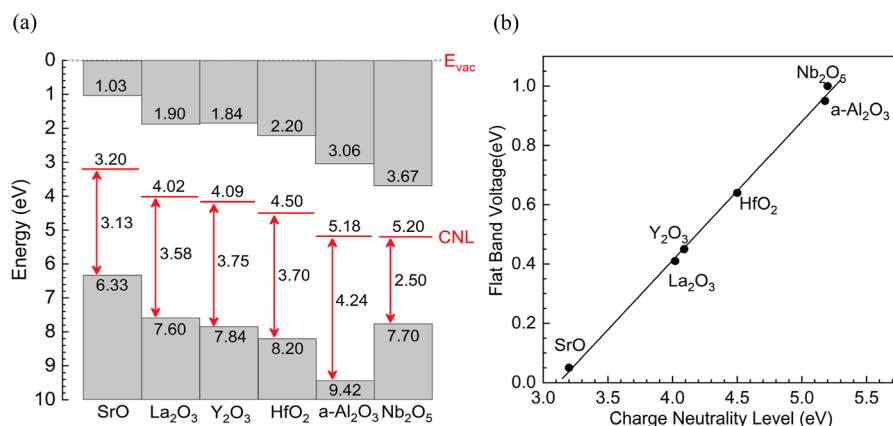
$$G(E) = \sum_i \frac{1}{E - E_i} \quad (5)$$

Given the inverse relationship of G to E_b , large numbers of anion VB states repel the CNL upward and large numbers of CB cation states repel it downward.³⁷ Here, the short expression for E_{CNL} is used, with $E_{\text{CNL}} = (N_1E_2 + N_2E_1)/(N_1 + N_2)$ with $1 = vb$, $2 = cb$. The integral extends in energy from the bottom of the O 2p band to the top of the 4d or 5d states in the conduction band, or to an equivalent number of bands to match the charge transfer in Al₂O₃. States of higher energy are considered to be too delocalized to matter. Some of the CNL values are updated from earlier tabulations.⁴³ The calculated CNL and band extrema energies of the series SrO, La₂O₃, Y₂O₃, HfO₂, amorphous Al₂O₃ and Nb₂O₅ are shown in Figure 2a. The FET gate voltages $E_{\text{n,p}}$ are given as the sum of the Fermi energy of the common gate (E_g), plus the CNL difference between the n or p oxide shifting layers (a,b)

$$E_{\text{n,p}} = E_g + S(E_{\text{CNL},a} - E_{\text{CNL},b}) \quad (6)$$

where S is the Fermi level pinning factor. Figure 2b compares the calculated CNLs to the experimental flat band voltages as found by Kita and Toriumi⁹ and others.^{4,5,7} There is a surprisingly good linear fit. This fit gives S close to $S = 0.47$ using eq 6 and compares with $S = 0.55$ from $\epsilon_{\infty} \sim 3.6$ of Table 2.

A previous analysis in terms of dopant band calculations found that it was difficult to extend dipole layers to more

**Figure 2.** (a) Band alignments and charge neutrality levels of the six oxides considered here. E_{vac} is the vacuum level. (b) Experimental flat band voltage V_{th} vs calculated charge neutrality level (CNL) energy.

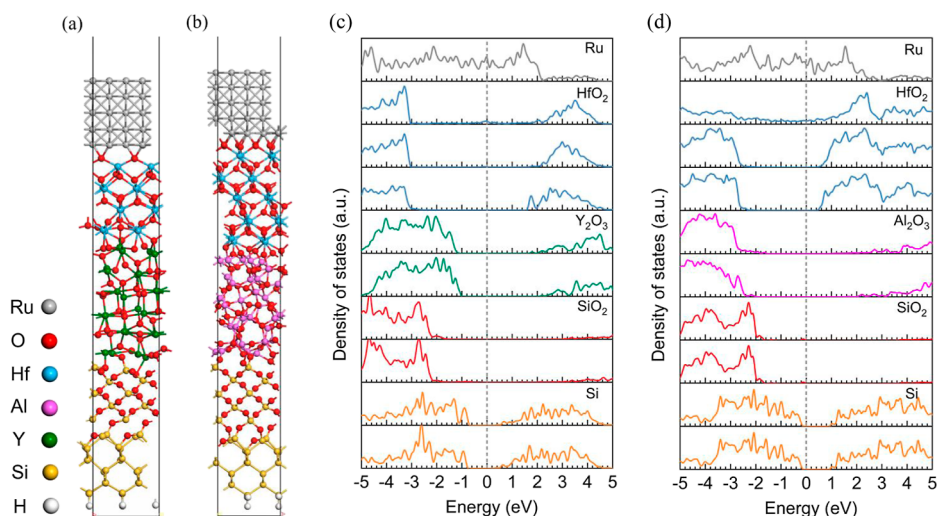


Figure 3. Relaxed structures and the corresponding LDOS of (a,c) Si/SiO₂/Y₂O₃/HfO₂/Ru and (b,d) Si/SiO₂/a-Al₂O₃/HfO₂/Ru gate stack supercells.

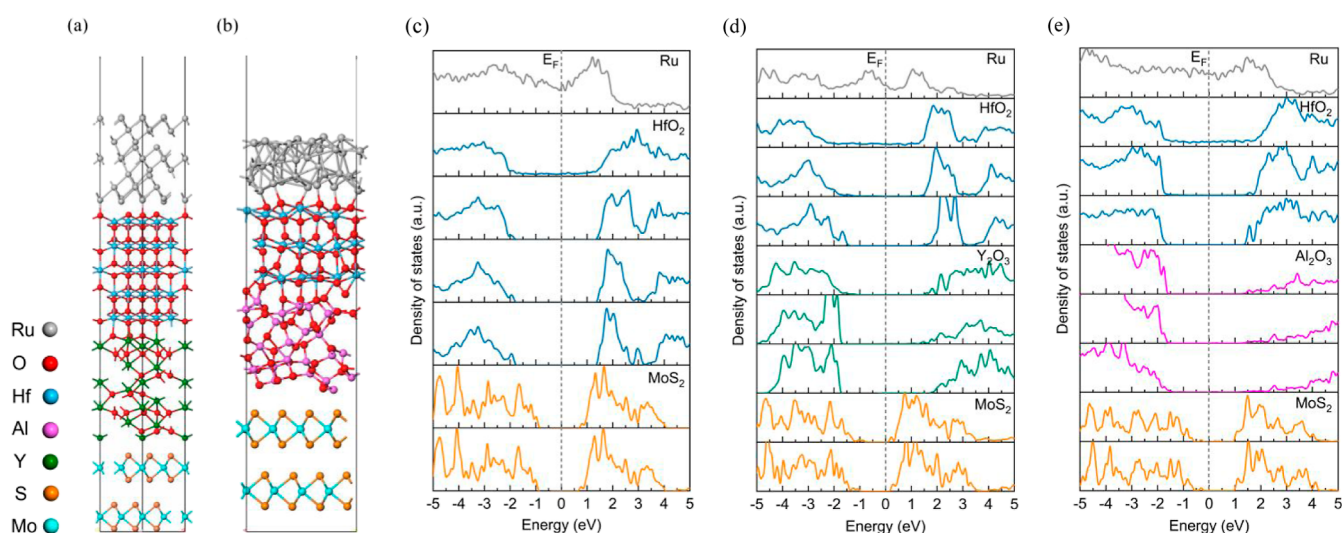


Figure 4. Relaxed structures of (a) MoS₂/Y₂O₃/HfO₂/Ru and (b) MoS₂/a-Al₂O₃/HfO₂/Ru gate stacks and LDOS of (c) MoS₂/HfO₂/Ru, (d) MoS₂/HfO₂/Y₂O₃/Ru and (e) MoS₂/a-Al₂O₃/HfO₂/Ru gate stack supercells, showing the change in offset voltages with respect to E_F in the LDOS (d,e).

electronegative oxides that Al₂O₃. On the other hand, it is clear that the CNL energy of SrO is much more electropositive than La₂O₃ if this biasing method is needed for wider gap channel semiconductors.

3.2. Supercell Calculations. Figure 3a,b shows relaxed atomic supercell models of Si/SiO₂/Y₂O₃/HfO₂/Ru and Si/SiO₂/a-Al₂O₃/HfO₂/Ru gate stacks which have a total cell size of 206 atoms. The supercells are seen to be asymmetric. As there is no overall current flow, there is no net voltage across each cell. The lateral cell size is chosen to minimize the lattice mismatch without costing unnecessary computational time. During this relaxation, we fixed the interfacial in-plane cell size to that of Si, because these various materials are grown on Si substrates, which have a lattice parameter of 5.43 Å after GGA relaxation.

Table 1 shows the details of the crystal structures, surface cleavage plane, and rotation angle of these lattices. The Si and HfO₂ lattices are rotated by 45°, while the SiO₂ and Ru lattices are not rotated. For the Si/SiO₂/Al₂O₃/HfO₂/Ru cell, the θ -

Al₂O₃ lattice is rotated by 45° and then subjected to AIMD, while Y₂O₃ is rotated by 30° and relaxed for the Si/SiO₂/Y₂O₃/HfO₂/Ru supercell.

Figure 3c,d shows the GGA layered DOS (LDOS) with Y₂O₃ and a-Al₂O₃ shifting layers and other layers in the gate stacks on Si. Inserting the Y₂O₃ layer between SiO₂ and HfO₂ causes an effective upward shift of E_F toward the Si CBM, showing weak n-type behavior in this cell. This behavior is also in good agreement with the ATK LDOS diagram to be shown later. Insertion of an Al₂O₃ layer between SiO₂ and HfO₂ in Figure 3d shifts E_F toward the VBM of Si and p-type behavior. The voltage shifts of E_F between n- and p-type dipole layers from the LDOS can be seen from the 0.6 eV E_F shift, using the Ru 4d core levels as reference. This method allows a more precise estimate of E_F shift than the LDOS plots themselves. This shows that the dipole layer method is controlling the E_F polarity. La₂O₃ could provide a slightly larger shift. Note that in this model, the effect of any SiO₂ layer is termed extrinsic and its role is not covered.

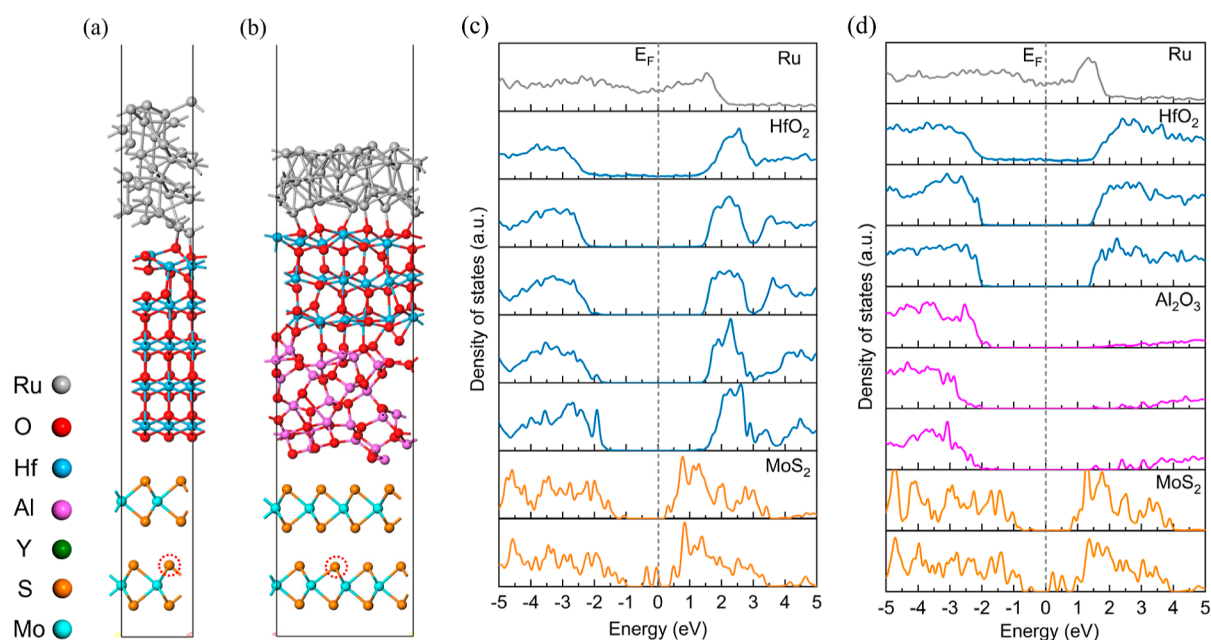


Figure 5. Relaxed structures and LDOSs of (a,c) MoS₂ with S vacancy and (b,d) MoS₂ with S vacancy and Al₂O₃ dipole shifting layers. Note the near midgap states due to S vacancy.

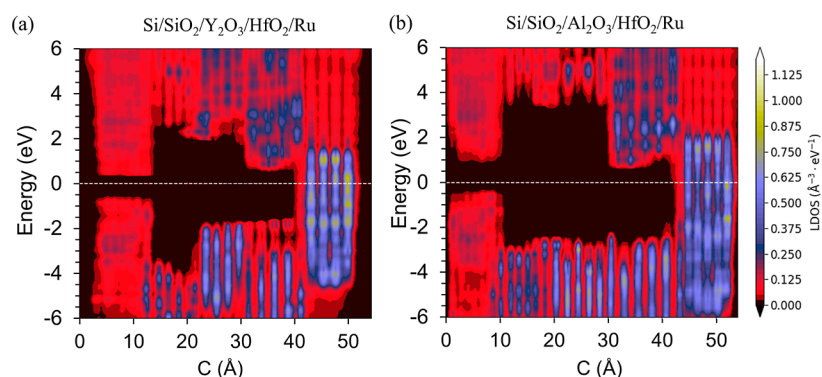


Figure 6. Plot of LDOS band images vs energy scales for (a) Y₂O₃ and (b) a-Al₂O₃ dipole shifting layers for Si high-K gate stack supercells.

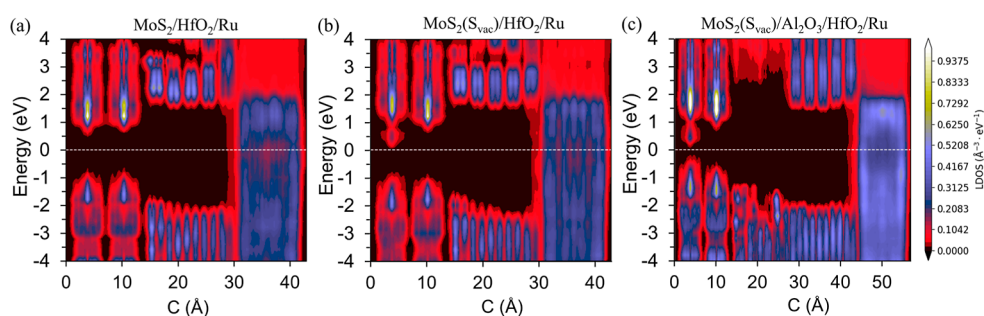


Figure 7. Plot of LDOS images vs energy scales for (a) defect-free MoS₂ and (b) MoS₂ with S vacancy and (c) MoS₂/a-Al₂O₃/HfO₂/Ru with S vacancy.

We can then examine the effect of dipole layers in controlling V_{th} shifts for MoS₂ channel layers. We use Ru/HfO₂/MoS₂ cells with either Y₂O₃ or a-Al₂O₃ layers inserted between the HfO₂ layer and the MoS₂ using the supercells shown in Figure 4a,b. There are no primary bonds between the oxides and the MoS₂. The CNLs of the dipole layers are given in Figure 2. The MoS₂/Y₂O₃/HfO₂/Ru supercell of 273 atoms is constructed by cleaving HfO₂ along (111) and then rotating

it by 30°, while the Y₂O₃ lattice is rotated by 45°. For the MoS₂/Al₂O₃/HfO₂/Ru cell, HfO₂ is cleaved along (111) and then rotated by 30°, while the θ -Al₂O₃ lattice is rotated by 45°. Ru is also cleaved along (111) for both MoS₂-based interface models. Ru is also cleaved along (111) for both MoS₂-based interface models.

To capture the layered characteristics of each model, the layer density of states (LDOS) for the three fully relaxed

MoS₂-related supercells are calculated. Figure 4c–e shows that there are no gap states caused by interfacial defects present at either Ru/HfO₂, HfO₂/MoS₂, HfO₂/Al₂O₃, Y₂O₃/MoS₂ or Al₂O₃/MoS₂ interfaces. Thus, these should not cause potentials that affect the V_{th} . Also, any MIGS from the gate electrode only appear for the early layers of HfO₂ and decay rapidly to zero at the second layer, implying a well-defined structure. The layered density of states in Figures 4 and 5 are in good agreement with the LDOSs in shown later in Figure 7, that the emergence of Al₂O₃ to the insulator causes the downward E_F shift, approaching the VBM of MoS₂. The VBM band edge of Al₂O₃ exhibits a slope, indicating the presence of a small remaining electric field within Al₂O₃. This suggests that dipoles can control the movement of the E_F across the entire band gap, allowing, in principle, a full range of bipolar FET behavior in the wider gap of MoS₂.

We now consider the effect of extrinsic defects in MoS₂. The presence of sulfur vacancies S_{vac} in MoS₂ causes it to become extrinsic n-type.³³ The vacancy is not chemically passivated by hydrogen,^{45–47} unlike P_b centers in Si, owing to the absence of 2-electron bonds in the MoS₂ lattice. Lien et al.⁴⁸ were able to restore the photoluminescence (PL) signal of MoS₂ by electrically quenching its photoexcited trions, yet the underlying defect states remained chemically unpassivated. Thus, Pop et al.^{21,33,34,49,50} noted that these TMD devices had not yet achieved true inversion-mode FETs, primarily due to the unpassivated defect states of S_{vac} . Thus, incorporating a V_{th} shifting layer might allow full inversion of these FETs.

We therefore constructed a S_{vac} defect at the MoS₂ layer away from the HfO₂ layer in the supercell shown in Figure 5a. The LDOS in Figure 5b shows the appearance of vacancy defect states near the CBM of the first layer of MoS₂, shifting E_F upward, giving the system n-type conductivity. We then introduced an a-Al₂O₃ layer between MoS₂ and HfO₂. We see in Figure 5d that the Al₂O₃ layer lowers E_F toward the VBM, giving p-type behavior. This result confirms that dipole layer can control the threshold voltage.

It is also useful to extend this GGA supercell analysis to display the results using local orbital QuantumATK imaging, as in Figure 6 and 7. This displays the partial density of states of each layer of the supercell as a color-coded map of the LDOS showing the band edges vs the energy axis vs the layers across the supercell so that the effects of field gradients can be seen. Note that the conduction band minimum of Al₂O₃ appears at higher than expected energies in the ATK plots (Figures 6, 7) because of their low density of states compared to the O 2p or metal d bands.

Figure 6a,b compares the supercell with the n-type Y₂O₃ dipole-shifting layer to the p-type a-Al₂O₃ shifting layer acting on a gate stack with a Si channel. E_F at the Ru metal has a fixed energy. The high CBM of the Y₂O₃ layer is clearly seen in Figure 6a,b shows the E_F lying at lower energies near the VBM in the p-type case. The supercell has mainly band alignment shifts and only small electric fields within the layers, except for the SiO₂ layer. The Al₂O₃ oxide layer has a smaller CB density of states due to its s-like character, much lower than the O 2p character of the upper VB band, so its CBM is not fully displayed in the LDOS plots. There is a field across the HfO₂ layer in this case.

The effect of the S vacancy and its passivation is displayed in Figure 7. Figure 7a shows the color plot of the density of states and the energy level of undoped gate stack with MoS₂ channel with HfO₂ gate stack/Ru. Figure 7b shows this with a S

vacancy in one of the MoS₂ channel sites, with E_F moving closer to the CBM. Figure 7c shows the effect of the Al₂O₃ dipole-shifting layer. The defect level in the MoS₂ channel has been passivated, in that the S vacancy is now positively charged and its states are now unoccupied. E_F now lies near midgap again, consistent with Figure 5.

We have introduced a fully density functional model of gate stacks. In order to distinguish between dipole layer model and one involving band offsets to the component oxides it was necessary to use thick oxide layers. In practice ultrathin oxide must now be used in order to keep up with dimensional scaling, as found for example in recent work of Pop et al.^{34,49,50}

4. CONCLUSIONS

We develop a theory of bipolar gate stacks consisting of a single midgap metal with two different oxides to set each gate polarities. The oxide electronegativity is shown to be given by the oxide charge neutrality level energies, a measurable quantity rather than empirically related to the oxide ion areal density, so the overall gate voltage shift depends on the CNL energy difference of the oxides. This is found to describe well the experimentally observed flat band voltage shift of the gate stacks. In general, dipole voltage shifts and CNL energy differences both contribute to flat band voltage differences, but the CNL band alignments tend to have the lowest total energy. This model is then supported by a more detailed density functional theory analysis of the overall flat band voltage shifts in oxide gate stacks. This allows further development in terms of the addition of extrinsic defect centers and to much lower effective oxide thickness.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Data Availability Statement

The data supporting this study's findings are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acsaelm.4c01790>.

Showing the optimization of the total energy of the MoS₂ with S vacancy supercell and its passivation (PDF)

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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