High-Precision Single-Molecule Characterization of the Folding of an HIV RNA Hairpin by Atomic Force Microscopy

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Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: The folding of RNA into a wide range of structures is essential for its diverse biological functions from enzymatic catalysis to ligand binding and gene regulation. The unfolding and refolding of individual RNA molecules can be probed by singlemolecule force spectroscopy (SMFS), enabling detailed characterization of the conformational dynamics of the molecule as well as the free-energy landscape underlying folding. Historically, highprecision SMFS studies of RNA have been limited to custom-built optical traps. Although commercial atomic force microscopes (AFMs) are widely deployed and offer significant advantages in ease-of-use over custom-built optical traps, traditional AFM-based SMFS lacks the sensitivity and stability to characterize individual



RNA molecules precisely. Here, we developed a high-precision SMFS assay to study RNA folding using a commercial AFM and applied it to characterize a small RNA hairpin from HIV that plays a key role in stimulating programmed ribosomal frameshifting. We achieved rapid data acquisition in a dynamic assay, unfolding and then refolding the same individual hairpin more than 1,100 times in 15 min. In comparison to measurements using optical traps, our AFM-based assay featured a stiffer force probe and a less compliant construct, providing a complementary measurement regime that dramatically accelerated equilibrium folding dynamics. Not only did kinetic analysis of equilibrium trajectories of the HIV RNA hairpin yield the traditional parameters used to characterize folding by SMFS (zero-force rate constants and distances to the transition state), but we also reconstructed the full 1D projection of the folding free-energy landscape comparable to state-of-the-art studies using dual-beam optical traps, a first for this RNA hairpin and AFM studies of nucleic acids in general. Looking forward, we anticipate that the ease-of-use of our high-precision assay implemented on a commercial AFM will accelerate studying folding of diverse nucleic acid structures.

KEYWORDS: Single-molecule force spectroscopy, RNA folding, kinetics, free-energy landscape, programmed ribosomal frameshifting

S tructured RNA molecules perform a wide range of vital functions within the cell. For example, ribozymes¹ and riboswitches² are intricately folded noncoding RNAs that respectively perform catalysis and regulate gene expression in response to ligand binding. Structures like pseudoknots and hairpin stem-loops can recode translation by stimulating deliberate shifts in the reading frame of the ribosome, thereby producing different proteins from the same mRNA sequence.^{3,4} This diversity of functions arises from the specific folded configurations of the RNA. As a consequence, RNA folding has been the focus of decades of work using traditional biochemical and biophysical techniques.^{1,2}

Starting in 2001, single-molecule force spectroscopy (SMFS) emerged as a powerful complementary tool for investigating the dynamics and energetics of RNA folding.⁵ The pioneering SMFS studies of RNA folding used optical traps as the force probe,^{5,6} and optical trapping has remained

the dominant measurement platform.^{7–14} Optical-trapping studies of diverse RNA molecules have revealed kinetic rate constants, energetics, intermediate states, folding pathways, and even a full 1D projection of the underlying free-energy landscape,^{15,16} providing key insights into the connection between the biophysical properties of the RNAs and their biological function.^{8,10–12,17,18} Critical to this scientific success is a potent combination of temporal resolution, force precision, and force stability that allows for both dynamic and equilibrium measurements. Moreover, individual molecules can be unfolded and refolded tens to hundreds or even thousands of times.

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Figure 1. High-precision characterization of a small RNA hairpin from HIV that induces programmed ribosomal frameshifting. (a) Cartoon of the single-molecule force spectroscopy assay where a focused-ion-beam-modified cantilever applies force to an RNA hairpin via short double-stranded nucleic acid handles [RNA (red), DNA (blue)]. (b) Substrate schematic showing the hybrid RNA/DNA construct, which is covalently coupled at one end to an azide-functionalized, PEG-coated coverslip via dibenzocyclooctyne (DBCO) and attached reversibly at the other end to a streptavidin-coated AFM tip via biotin. (c) Force–extension curve showing the dynamics of the HIV RNA hairpin stretched at constant velocity (50 nm/s). Data were sampled at 50 kHz (light blue) and smoothed to 2 kHz (dark blue). (d) Force-vs-time trace from a brief segment of the data in (c) shows near-equilibrium fluctuations between the folded and unfolded states. The rupture force was determined from the first unfolding event (green arrow).

Unfortunately, this set of experimental capabilities typically requires custom-built instruments housed in specialized environments.¹⁹ The construction, operation, and physical infrastructure needed for such advanced optical traps create significant barriers to the broader adoption of SMFS for characterizing RNA. In contrast, commercial atomic force microscopes (AFMs) are widely deployed and easy to use. AFM-based SMFS has had great success in studying mechanically robust proteins^{20,21} and protein–ligand interactions^{22,23} that rupture at high forces when retracting the cantilever at relatively rapid velocities ($\nu = 50-5,000 \text{ nm/s}$). The challenges for AFM-based studies of RNA are the relatively poor force precision and stability of AFM in comparison to optical traps^{24,25} in conjunction with the low forces at which RNA unfolding and refolding occur (typically in the range of $\sim 5-30$ pN).^{5,6} Indeed, studies of the same adenine riboswitch by AFM²⁶ and optical traps¹⁸ show that AFM measurements have been unable to achieve the signal-tonoise levels present in a single optical-trapping record even when averaging dozens of measurements.

We overcame these challenges by developing a new highprecision assay for characterizing RNA folding on a commercial AFM and demonstrated its utility by studying a hairpin from HIV that induces programmed ribosomal frameshifting (Figure 1a). To do so, we integrated a series of recent technical advances in AFM-based \widetilde{SMFS}^{27-29} with a hybrid RNA/DNA construct (Figure 1b). Importantly, each end of the construct was site-specifically anchored,³⁰ a ubiquitous practice in other SMFS assays but still relatively rare in AFM-based ones.^{24,25} When performing the standard dynamic assay where the cantilever is retracted at a constant velocity, we clearly resolved near-equilibrium unfolding and refolding transitions with high signal-to-noise ratio in individual records despite the rapid dynamics of this short hairpin (Figure 1c,d). By improving instrumental automation, we were able to unfold and refold an individual RNA molecule over 1,130 times. Enhanced force stability allowed us to

measure folding dynamics at equilibrium that, in turn, enabled the reconstruction of the full 1D energy landscape for folding, the first such folding landscape reconstruction for a nucleic acid using AFM. Thus, by coupling our high-precision assay with the ease of use of a commercial AFM, we have developed a powerful yet accessible platform for characterizing the dynamics and energetics of diverse RNA molecules.

To demonstrate the capabilities of this platform, we studied a short hairpin from HIV that is of biological interest because it stimulates the ribosome to undergo a programmed -1frameshift during the translation of the viral genome.^{31–33} This hairpin provides a good test of our approach as it is quite small, consisting of an 11-base pair (bp) stem and 4-nucleotide (nt) loop, and is thus technically challenging to measure in comparison to 20 bp or longer hairpin structures often studied by SMFS using optical traps.^{5,34} Moreover, this hairpin has been previously characterized at the single-molecule level,⁹ including with a state-of-the-art dual-beam optical trap.¹⁴ As a result, we have key reference data for assessing the performance of our AFM-based assay.

We first developed a single-molecule construct optimized for efficient measurement of diverse RNA molecules by AFM (Figure 1b). The overall concept is similar to constructs developed previously for optical-trapping-based studies: the target molecule is centered within double-stranded (ds) nucleic acid handles that link the molecule to the force probe while accommodating the geometric constraints of the assay.⁵ Geometric constraints for high-precision optical trapping generally require constructs of 300-1,100 nm.^{5,8} In contrast, we developed a short 68 nm construct consisting of two 70 bp dsDNA handles terminated with 30 nt segments of single-stranded (ss) DNA. The ssDNA segments in each handle were hybridized to complementary 30 nt sequences flanking the target RNA, providing a mechanically robust hybridization of the handles to the RNA. To anchor the construct covalently to the sample substrate, we used DBCO (dibenzocyclooctane), a copper-free click chemistry reagent, at

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Figure 2. Flow diagram illustrating enhanced data-acquisition protocol. Each measurement starts with a trio of automated routines to search for and identify a candidate molecule, achieve a vertical pulling geometry by centering the assay, and determine the location of the surface and retract the cantilever until a specified extension is achieved. Both dynamic and equilibrium data can then be acquired. After each individual acquisition, the protocol checks for a series of conditions, such as loss of the connection. Other checks include looking for a new molecule, mitigating residual technical issues such as lateral stage drift (every 10 min) or force-drift correction (every 25-100 s), or simply acquiring more data. Typically, an automated data set for a single molecule involves unfolding and refolding the RNA molecule hundreds of times at several different velocities before acquiring a set of equilibrium trajectories at different extensions.

one end of one handle to attach to an azide-functionalized, PEG-coated coverslip.³⁰ We reversibly attached the other end of the construct, functionalized with biotin, to a PEG-coated AFM tip labeled with streptavidin.

To achieve state-of-the-art performance, we integrated several recent technical advances that improve the precision, stability, and accuracy of AFM-based SMFS.²⁷⁻²⁹ We improved force precision and stability without sacrificing temporal resolution by reducing the stiffness and hydrodynamic drag of a commercial cantilever (BioLever Mini, Olympus) using a focused-ion beam (FIB).²⁸ We further improved force stability by removing the gold coating from the cantilever everywhere except for a small region near the free end of the cantilever (Figure 1a)²⁸ because the gold coating is the primary cause of force drift.²⁷ The resulting FIB-modified cantilevers featured a stiffness of \sim 3–4 pN/nm, \sim 40 μ s resolution, and sub-pN force stability over 100 s (Figure S1). Finally, we achieved a 3-fold increase in force accuracy and precision by using a centering algorithm to align the attachment point of the construct to the AFM tip directly above the corresponding attachment point to the coverslip. This algorithm thereby achieved a vertical pulling geometry, avoiding pulling the construct at an angle, a significant issue for AFM constructs like ours with stiff polymeric handles (persistence length \approx 50 nm).²⁹

We complemented these improvements in the measurement of force with increased throughput by developing a

significantly more sophisticated data-acquisition protocol (Figure 2). We initiated the assay in the standard manner, searching for a molecule by pressing the tip into the surface, albeit at a relatively low force (100 pN) to minimize surface adhesion. To detect a molecular attachment in real time, we next retracted the cantilever at a constant velocity (50 nm/s) and stopped the retraction if the force exceeded 20 pN at an extension of >30 nm, minimizing false triggering on tipsubstrate adhesion. After running the centering algorithm,²⁹ the tip was then brought down into gentle contact with the surface to refine the measurement of the vertical surface position. After the completion of these initial steps, two measurement schemes were used: (1) to repeatedly measure unfolding and refolding events from an individual molecule in a dynamic assay, we moved the base of the cantilever (Z_{cant}) at a constant velocity to ramp the force up and down, sampling a range of different pulling speeds; (2) to measure unfolding and folding in an equilibrium assay, we held the base of the cantilever at a fixed position for 5 s while simultaneously measuring tip deflection as the molecule transitioned between folded and unfolded states. Importantly, these different dataacquisition schemes could be applied serially to the same individual molecule; other schemes, such as repeated jumping between a low and high force,^{35,36} are in principle also compatible with this approach.

Using this data-acquisition protocol, we were routinely able to measure the folding of individual hairpins for 15-30 min

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Figure 3. High-throughput characterization of an individual RNA hairpin in a dynamic force spectroscopy assay. (a) Force–extension curve showing the stretching of the RNA hairpin construct (gray) after running the zero-force routine. Next, the construct was alternately stretched (blue) and relaxed (magenta) by moving the cantilever at a given velocity (v = 50 nm/s) between fixed positions. For clarity, only one stretching-relaxation cycle is plotted (lower panel). A more detailed view of the force–extension curve shows near-equilibrium transitions occur while stretching and relaxing the construct. (b) Force-vs-time record (upper panel) showing repeated unfolding/refolding cycles driven by motion of the cantilever base (lower panel). The first unfolding or refolding event within each segment is denoted with a green arrow. (c) Probability distributions for the initial rupture force of the same individual molecule at pulling speeds of 20, 50, and 200 nm/s (N = 250, 332, and 800 rupture events, respectively). These pulling speeds correspond to mean loading rates of 21, 55, and 224 pN/s. Data shown in (a) and (b) were smoothed to 2 kHz.

with some molecules studied continuously for over 1 h. However, to do so, we needed to account for several ongoing technical limitations. First, there was still residual force drift [e.g., 0.5 pN over 100 s for a representative cantilever (Figure S1a)]. Although this level of drift is state-of-the-art by AFM standards,^{24,25} the equilibrium distribution between the folded and unfolded states for a hairpin is sensitive to sub-pN changes in force.⁵ To accommodate this high sensitivity to force, we repeatedly lowered the tip to gently touch the surface every \sim 25–100 s, embedding a series of zero-force data points into the full record to facilitate computational subtraction of residual force drift. We also repeated the centering algorithm every ~ 10 min to avoid changes in force associated with lateral stage drift. Ultimately, the duration of a single set of measurements on an individual molecule was limited by the noncovalent linkages in the assay. Because the tip was kept centered over the tether attachment point, we were often (although not always) able to reattach the molecule to the tip after rupture of either the streptavidin-biotin linkage or the 30 bp RNA/DNA hybridized segment.

To emphasize the utility of this integrated set of advancements, we rapidly acquired a dynamic force spectroscopy data set that contained several orders of magnitude more transitions than prior state-of-the-art for AFM-based studies of RNA folding.²⁶ For example, we characterized an individual hairpin at three different pulling speeds, acquiring 250, 332, and 800 unfolding and refolding curves at 20, 50, and 200 nm/s, respectively, over 15 min (Figure 3). After gently touching the surface to rezero the force, we stretched out the molecule to a

preset extension (Figure 3a, gray). Next, the base of the cantilever was moved up and down at the desired velocity over a preset distance to unfold and refold the hairpin (Figure 3a, blue and magenta). This process was then repeated multiple times (Figure 3b) to obtain a distribution of initial rupture forces for that pulling velocity before repeating the whole procedure at different velocities (Figure 3c). Because of the fast dynamics of this short RNA hairpin coupled with the high temporal resolution of the FIB-modified cantilever ($\sim 40 \ \mu s$), we observed near-equilibrium transitions between the folded and unfolded states (Figure 1c,d; Figure 3a,b) at these low-tomoderate velocities. The histograms of initial rupture forces showed mean values and widths that increased with increasing pulling speed (Figure 3c) as expected^{37,38} despite the relative low rupture forces of RNA hairpins in comparison to the traditional noise floor for AFM (~5-20 pN).^{24,23}

To complement this dynamic assay, we also demonstrated measurements of equilibrium folding and unfolding of an RNA molecule, a new regime for AFM-based studies of nucleic acids. For these measurements, the base of the cantilever was held fixed while recording the cantilever deflection for 5 s. By moving the position of the base of the cantilever in 2.5 Å steps, we shifted the distribution between the folded and unfolded state (Figure S2). As a result, we directly observed equilibrium hairpin dynamics when the folded and unfolded populations were approximately equal (Figure 4a). The unfolding/refolding dynamics of the hairpin were well resolved (Figure 4b) despite being very fast; analysis of the dwell times for the data in Figure 4a showed exponential distribution with an



Figure 4. Equilibrium force spectroscopy of the HIV RNA hairpin. (a) Force-vs-time record showing rapid transitions between two states when the base of the cantilever was held at a constant position. Data were sampled at 50 kHz (light blue) and smoothed to 2 kHz (dark blue). A total of 710 transitions occurred in 5 s. (b) Folded and unfolded states well-resolved in a brief section of the record from (a). (c) Histograms from the first, second, and final third of the record from (a) showing the relative populations of the folded and unfolded states remain quite stable, indicating minimal force drift. (d) Force-dependent kinetic rate constants for folding (magenta) and unfolding (blue) determined from equilibrium measurements at different cantilever positions. Fitting the rates to the Bell model yielded the distance to transition state (Δx^{\ddagger}) and zero-force rate constant (k_0) for each state.

average lifetime of 7.0 and 6.3 ms for the unfolded and folded states, respectively (Figure S3).

Such equilibrium assays are technically challenging to implement because the ratio between the folded and unfolded state population can be extremely sensitive to small changes in the applied force. For instance, pioneering studies of RNA hairpins showed sensitivity to 0.1 pN changes in *F* around $F_{1/2}$ (the force at which the folded and unfolded states are equally populated).⁵ To demonstrate the stability of our assay, we divided the trajectory shown in Figure 4a into thirds and computed histograms of the force to reveal any changes in the folded and unfolded state populations between each section of the record (Figure 4c). The consistency of the populations reflects our 0.15 pN force stability over 5 s, which is state-of-the-art for AFM studies³⁹ (Figure S1a).

Kinetic analysis of a set of such equilibrium trajectories is often used to determine two key parameters used to characterize folding: the zero-force rate constant (k_0) and the distance to the transition state (Δx^{\ddagger}) . To do so, we determined the rate constant k(F) for folding and unfolding at 12 different fixed positions of the cantilever base and therefore different forces (Figure 4d). Fitting to the Bell model,⁴⁰ $k(F) = k_0$ $\exp(\pm F\Delta x^{\ddagger}/k_{\rm B}T)$ (where $k_{\rm B}T$ is the thermal energy, the positive exponent is for unfolding rates, and the negative exponent is for refolding rates), yielded $\log(k_0) [s^{-1}] = -12 \pm 1$, $\Delta x^{\ddagger} = 6 \pm 2$ nm for unfolding and $\log(k_0) [s^{-1}] = 8 \pm 1$, $\Delta x^{\ddagger} = 4 \pm 1$ nm for folding. Hence, this analysis indicates an asymmetric free-energy landscape with the transition state closer to the unfolded state consistent both with the general result for random hairpin sequences³⁴ as well as a prior opticaltrapping study of this particular hairpin.¹⁴

Importantly, equilibrium assays enabled us to go beyond the limited characterization of the free-energy landscape offered by commonly used analyses like the Bell model to determine the full 1D free-energy landscape underlying folding. Such reconstruction was pioneered in optical-trapping studies of DNA hairpins,^{34,41} but to date, it has only been realized in AFM work using high forces (~80-130 pN) in a recent study of membrane-protein dynamics.⁴² In the present work, we analyzed the equilibrium trajectories of the HIV RNA hairpin using the inverse Boltzmann method.³⁴ This conceptually simple method makes use of the fact that, at equilibrium, the probability density at each extension, p(x), is related to the free energy at that extension via $G(x) = -k_{\rm B}T \ln[p(x)]$, as applied in early AFM studies of hydration layers.⁴³ In practice, the compliance of the handles and the cantilever broadens the measured probability density distribution, and this broadening needs to be removed via deconvolution, sharpening the distribution (Figure 5a, red vs blue).^{34,44} Deconvolution requires an accurate measurement of this broadening, the point spread function. We measured the point-spread function for our assay using a reference construct consisting of the two handles bridged by a 60 nt DNA oligonucleotide, rather than the RNA hairpin, over the same range of forces used to characterize the hairpin while using the same particular cantilever (Figure S4). After deconvolution, the resulting free-energy landscape exhibited more confined potential wells and a higher barrier (Figure 5b). The barrier was asymmetric, and the position of the barrier top was consistent with the

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Figure 5. Free-energy landscape of the HIV RNA hairpin reconstructed using the inverse Boltzmann method. (a) Probability density of the compliance-corrected extension derived from the equilibrium trajectory shown in Figure 4a before and after deconvolving the effects of the handles and the cantilever (cyan and red, respectively). (b) Constant-force free-energy landscapes derived from the probability densities with and without deconvolution.

results of the above kinetic analysis. For clarity, the landscape is shown at a constant force (18.0 pN), where the minima of each of the two states are equal and the extension is corrected to account for the compliance of the handles and the cantilever.⁴⁵

How do the SMFS results from our AFM-based study compare with previously reported ensemble- and opticaltrapping-based studies? The primary point of comparison with ensemble measurements is the free-energy change between folded and unfolded states in the hairpin at zero force (ΔG_0). We calculated ΔG_0 from the single-molecule equilibrium trajectories based on the force-dependent occupancies of the folded and unfolded states, including a correction for the energy stored in the handles, cantilever, and unfolded RNA using a previously developed formalism.⁴⁶ The result, $\Delta G_0 =$ $29 \pm 1 k_{\rm B}T$, agreed reasonably well with the ensemble result of $25 \pm 1 k_{\rm B}T$ deduced from thermal melting using UV absorbance,⁴⁷ given ~10–15% uncertainty in the cantilever stiffness and hence the force and energy values.

Optical-trapping studies provided another basis for comparison because of the similarity of the measurements. The force at which unfolding and refolding rates were equal $(F_{1/2})$ (Figure 4d) was within the calibration error of the value found by optical trapping¹⁴ (~18 vs ~16 pN). The location of the transition state was also consistent between AFM and optical trapping (6 ± 2 nm from the folded state vs 8.2 ± 0.8 nm) as was the zero-force unfolding rate $(10^{-9.9\pm0.7} \text{ vs } 10^{-12\pm1} \text{ s}^{-1})$, notwithstanding the differences in the way the results were obtained: the AFM values were derived from an equilibrium assay whereas the optical-trapping ones were found from a dynamic one.

However, a noteworthy difference between optical-trapping and AFM equilibrium measurements was the rate at which the transitions occurred in equilibrium. Equilibrium AFM trajectories exhibited substantially faster kinetics due to the large change in force between the folded and unfolded states arising from the use of a much stiffer force probe and less compliant handles. Such acceleration of folding kinetics is beneficial because it increases the number of transitions that can be observed for a given measurement duration, helping to mitigate the detrimental effects of force drift. The degree of acceleration depends on the details of the system under study, but here, the force probe was $\sim 10-20$ -fold stiffer and the DNA handles ~3-fold less compliant than prior opticaltrapping studies of the same hairpin, 9,14 leading to ~100-fold more transitions per unit time than would occur in a constantforce optical-trap assay.⁴⁵ Put differently, in a constant-force assay with equal populations in each state, the rates of unfolding and refolding are necessarily the same. The extrapolation of the data in Figure 4c shows that this occurs at $F_{1/2}$ (18.2 pN), where the two lines intersect. The corresponding rates for each state is $\sim 1 \text{ s}^{-1}$. In contrast, the data in Figure 4a shows the unfolded and folded states occurs at 12 and 22 pN, respectively, where the folding and unfolding rates are $\sim 150 \text{ s}^{-1}$. The population in each state is the same, but the folded state unfolds more quickly than at constant force because it occurs at a force well above $F_{1/2}$. The same is true for the unfolded state, which occurs at a force below $F_{1/2}$. Hence, the unfolded state also folds more quickly relative to a constant-force assay. As a result, the force stability requirements for the AFM assay are relaxed compared to those for optical traps (i.e., the drift of 0.15 pN over a 5 s interval achieved here should be compared to the force stability of optical traps over a 500 s interval). To take advantage of this acceleration, however, one must use cantilevers with sufficient time resolution to resolve short-lived events. In this study, we used cantilevers with $\sim 40 \ \mu s$ resolution, although other FIBmodified cantilevers offer resolution down to $\sim 1-10 \ \mu s$.^{48,49} A potential disadvantage of the stiffness-induced acceleration of rates is that it may yield kinetics that are too fast for AFM to resolve, for example, in molecules that are close to the folding speed limit.⁵⁰

In summary, we have developed an enhanced AFM-based SMFS assay for studying the folding of RNA and, more generally, nucleic acid structures. Combining high precision and temporal resolution with high force stability enabled the first AFM-based equilibrium measurements of a nucleic acid. From such trajectories, we derived not only the traditional SMFS parameters (k_0 and Δx^{\ddagger}) for a short hairpin from HIV but also the full 1D projection of the free-energy landscape. The improved quality and quantity of the data also enables incorporating additional advanced SMFS analyses.⁵¹ For example, recent theory efficiently deduces k(F) by analyzing near-equilibrium transitions between states.⁵² Finally, the easeof-use of our assay implemented on a commercial AFM circumvents the technical barriers involved in high-precision SMFS assays based on custom optical traps and thereby opens the door for a much broader range of applications and users.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

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Materials and methods, Figures S1-4, and Tables S1-S4, which contain oligonucleotide sequences (PDF)

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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