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A facile in situ solvothermal method for two-dimensional layered $g-C_3N_4/SnS_2$ p-n heterojunction composites with efficient visible-light photocatalytic activity

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Abstract To overcome the fast recombination rate of electron-hole pairs of individual SnS2, p-n heterojunction g-C₃N₄/SnS₂ composites were fabricated as high-efficiency visible-light photocatalyst to photodegradate the organic dye MB. The morphologies, structures, compositions, and photocatalytic properties were characterized. The SnS2 shows two-dimensional layer structure with an average thickness of 20 nm and diameter size of about 2 μ m, and the g-C₃N₄ nanoflakes were uniformly deposited on the surface of SnS₂ nanosheets. In comparison with the bare g-C₃N₄ and SnS₂, the composites show improved photocatalytic activity under visible light, which is sensitive to the content of g-C₃N₄. In particular, the 15% g-C₃N₄/SnS₂ composites exhibit the highest photocatalytic activity and outstanding reusability, which can degrade 88.01% MB after only 1 h in the visible light ($\lambda > 420$ nm) range. The g-C₃N₄/SnS₂ heterojunction composites show outstanding reusability after four times cycling experiments. The improved photocatalytic activities of composites are attributed to abundant active species, increased charge separation, and decreased electron-hole pair

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E.-z. Liu Institute of Modern Physics, Northwest University, Xi'an 710069, China recombination, which originated from the large specific surface area and efficient interfacial transport of photo-induced charge carriers between SnS_2 and $g-C_3N_4$. These results suggest that the twodimensional layered $g-C_3N_4/SnS_2$ p-n heterojunction composites are promised to be a high-efficiency visible-light photocatalyst.

Keywords p-n heterojunction \cdot g-C₃N₄/SnS₂ \cdot Synergistic effect \cdot Photocatalyst

Introduction

Environmental problems relating to the organic pollutant in water were becoming an increasingly serious issue for human health in modern society. Prussian blue (MB, Fe_4 [Fe (CN)₆]₃), as a common pigment, has been widely used in the daily life and printing industry. However, the high biotoxicity and nonbiodegradable characteristic make it urgently needed to avoid water pollution (Baghriche et al. 2017). Nowadays, enormous works have been paid to remove the contaminants from water, for example, filtration, physical adsorption, chemical oxidation, biodegradation, and so on (Ganjalinia et al. 2017). Among them, photocatalytic degradation has attracted much attention, due to its efficient and environmental-friendly characteristics (Yuan et al. 2015; Shao et al. 2014). TiO₂ have been widely used as commercial photocatalysts, owing to its low cost, easy fabrication, chemical stability, and nontoxicity (Marien et al. 2016; Ivanova et al. 2016). However,

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the photocatalytic activity of TiO_2 can only perform in the ultraviolet light owing to its wide band gap, greatly limiting its applications (Zhou et al. 2017). Therefore, the exploration of novel visible-light response photocatalysts has drawn ever-increasing interest (Wu et al. 2017).

As a typical n-type semiconductor, tin sulfides (SnS_2) has been considered to be a visible-light-response photocatalysts due to its narrow indirect band gap of ~ 2 eV (Li et al. 2016; Li et al. 2012; Zhang et al. 2017; Zhang et al. 2010). Besides, SnS₂ has a layered hexagonal CdI₂-type crystal structure, which is easily fabricated into two-dimensional (2D) layered nanostructures (Ren et al. 2016). The large specific surface area of 2D layered SnS₂ nanosheets has plentiful active site, leading to superior charge transport ability (Zhang et al. 2015a, b; Bian et al. 2013). However, the electron-hole pair recombination rate of SnS₂ is fast, restricting its photocatalytic abilities. To solve this problem, decorating n-type SnS₂ nanosheets with an appropriate p-type semiconductor, which can generate new interfacial charge channels and facilitate the separation of photoelectrons from vacancies, is believed to be significant to enhance the photocatalytic capability of SnS₂. g-C₃N₄, as a representative p-type semiconductor, has drawn considerable interests owing to the special layer structure, strong visible-light absorption, and optical performances (Liu et al. 2016; Cao et al. 2015; Wang et al. 2012; Miao et al. 2017; Wang et al. 2009; Pu et al. 2017; Ramadan et al. 2013). Several works have reported that the g-C₃N₄/SnS₂ heterojunction shows excellent photocatalytic activity under visible light in the photodegradation of MO, RhB, Cr⁶⁺, and so on (Chen et al. 2016; Deng et al. 2017; Di et al. 2017; Sun et al. 2014; Zhang et al. 2015b). Bin Dong group presents the $2D/2D SnS_2$ and $g-C_3N_4$ nanosheets heterojunction photocatalysts through ultrasonic dispersion method. However, the fabrication method is tedious and takes too much time (Zhang et al. 2015b). Moreover, Jimin Xie team has proposed SnS₂/g-C₃N₄ composite by a wet precipitation method, but the MO degradation over the photocatalyst is only 53.02% after 1 h (Chen et al. 2016). In our best knowledge, no paper has been reported the usage of $g-C_3N_4/SnS_2$ heterojunction to photodegradate MB in visible light. Moreover, uniformly coupling SnS₂ nanosheets with g-C₃N₄ nanoflakes, which can provide sufficient charge channels and active sites, is still a big challenge.

In this work, a novel p-n heterojunction $g-C_3N_4/SnS_2$ photocatalyst was prepared via a facile solvothermal route for the photodegradation of MB. The $g-C_3N_4/SnS_2$ photocatalyst have a large surface area and can accelerate the separation of electron-hole pairs, leading to improved photocatalytic performance compared to the bare SnS_2 and $g-C_3N_4$. A possible enhancement mechanism for the p-n heterojunction $g-C_3N_4/SnS_2$ photocatalyst was proposed.

Experimental

Preparation of 2D layered g-C₃N₄/SnS₂ composites

The bulk g-C₃N₄ was fabricated via a thermal polymerization route (Zhao et al. 2014; Ma et al. 2015). Melamine (10 g) was annealed at 550 °C with a heating speed of 5 °C per minute and maintained for 4 h in a muffle furnace and in the air. The obtained yellow products were collected and ground into powders. Then, under ultrasound treatment, an appropriate content of the obtained g-C₃N₄ powders was dispersed into 60 ml ethanol solution containing 0.7 g SnCl₄·5H₂O. After that, 0.75 g of thioacetamide was added and magnetically stirred for 5 h. Finally, the obtained solution was added into a 100ml capacity of autoclave, which was heated at 180 °C for 12 h. By washing with deionized water and ethanol, the products were obtained. The g-C₃N₄/SnS₂ composite containing 5, 10, 15, 20, and 30 wt% of $g-C_3N_4$ was fabricated and named as SSCN-5, SSCN-10, SSCN-15, SSCN-20, SSCN-30, respectively. Besides, pure SnS₂ was fabricated through a similar procedure in the absence of g-C₃N₄.

Characterizations

The products were characterized by X-ray diffraction instrument (XRD, DX-2700, Cu K α radiation, $\lambda = 1.5406$ Å), scanning electron microscope (SEM, JSM-6390A), transmission electron microscope (TEM, FEI Tecnai G² F20), X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS, ESCALAB210), UVvisible spectrophotometer (UV-3600, Shimadzu), N₂ adsorption-desorption isotherms (Quantachrome NOVA 2000e), and elemental analysis (EA, vario MACRO cube).

Photocatalytic experiments

The photocatalytic performance was assessed by photodegradatin of MB dye solution. A 300 W Xe lamp with a cut-off filter of 420 nm was served as the visible light source. Fifty milligrams of samples was added into a 50 ml water solution containing 20 mg/L MB. Three milliliter of solution was collected and centrifuged at defined time intervals, and then the MB content was measured. All the experiments were operated at room temperature in air.

Photocurrent measurements

Photocurrent experiment was performed by an electrochemical workstation (CHI 660E, China), using a standard three-electrode system and 0.5 mol/L of Na_2SO_4 as electrolyte. The photoelectric currents were measured by a 150 W Xe lamp.

The working electrode was prepared as follows (Mu et al. 2017): first, fluorine-doped tin oxide (FTO) glass substrates with a size of 2.0×1.0 cm were cleaned with acetone, ethanol, and deionized water under ultrasonic treatment for 30 min and dried in a vacuum oven. Second, 5 mg of the as-prepared sample was dissolved in 1 ml of acetone with ultrasonic dispersion for 2 h. After that, the dispersed sample solution was uniformly dropped onto the FTO conductive surface until it dried naturally. Third, the photoelectrode was heated to 200 °C for 2 h at 2 °C/min. Finally, the photoelectrode was cooled to room temperature and then collected for testing.

Results and discussions

Figure 1 shows the XRD patterns of bare SnS_2 , $g-C_3N_4$, and $g-C_3N_4/SnS_2$ heterojunction composites. All the diffraction peaks of pure SnS_2 (Fig. 1a) suggest the formation of SnS_2 with hexagonal phase, which is accordant with the JCPDS card of 23-0677. No other diffraction peaks of impurity were detected. The XRD pattern of bare $g-C_3N_4$ (Fig. 1g) shows two diffraction peaks at 13.02° , 27.87° , which is attributed to the (100) and (002) crystal planes of $g-C_3N_4$ with JCPDS card of 87-1526. All the diffraction peaks of $g-C_3N_4/SnS_2$ heterojunction composite (Fig. 1b–f) are accordant with SnS_2 and $g-C_3N_4$. The elemental analysis results show that the actual weight of $g-C_3N_4$ in SSCN-5, SSCN-10,



Fig. 1 XRD patterns of $SnS_2,\ g\text{-}C_3N_4$ and $g\text{-}C_3N_4/SnS_2$ composites

SSCN-15, SSCN-20, and SSCN-30 are 2.78, 7.64, 11.86, 15.69, and 23.09%, respectively.

Figure 2a shows a representative morphology of SnS₂, which is two-dimensional layer larger sheets structure with average thickness of 20 nm and average diameter size of about 2 µm, and the surfaces were relatively smooth. The g-C₃N₄ (Fig. 2b) exhibits flakelike nanostructure. Figure 2c-g reveals the SEM images of g-C₃N₄/SnS₂ nanocomposites with different g-C₃N₄ contents. Obviously, the SnS₂ in the nanocomposites still remain sheet structure, indicating that the addition of g-C₃N₄ has little influence on the growth of SnS₂ nanosheets. EDS spectrum of g-C₃N₄/SnS₂ catalyst (Fig. 2h) contains Sn, S, C, and N elements. The chemical element distributions of composites were further studied using elemental mapping analysis techniques, as shown in Fig. 2i-l. It is clear that the C and N elements are throughout the SnS2 nanosheets and g-C₃N₄ was successfully combined with SnS₂.

Figure 3a shows a typical TEM image of the pure SnS_2 . The pure SnS_2 shows a flower-like shape, which are assembled by thin nanosheets. HRTEM image of pure SnS_2 (Fig. 3b) shows that the interplanar distance is 0.316 nm, which can be assigned to the (100) crystallographic plane of hexagonal SnS_2 . The selected area electron diffraction (SAED) of a single nanosheet of pure SnS_2 (Fig. 3c) shows several dot lattices, indicating the single crystalline nanostructure of single SnS_2 nanosheets. TEM image of $g-C_3N_4$ (Fig. 3d) reveals a thin and irregular nanoflakes structure. Figure 3e shows TEM images of $g-C_3N_4/SnS_2$ nanocomposites. The magnification images of the local area A and B marked



Fig. 2 SEM images of a SnS_2 , b g-C₃N₄, c SSCN-5, d SSCN-10, e SSCN-15, f SSCN-20, and g SSCN-30. h EDS spectrum of SSCN-15. Elemental mapping images of i Sn, j S, k C, and l N elments

by white box in (e) are shown in Fig. 3f, g. Obviously, the g- C_3N_4 nanoflakes are uniformly decorated on the surface of SnS_2 nanosheets, suggesting the formation of g- C_3N_4/SnS_2 heterojunction structure. Figure 3h shows the HRTEM mages of the area C marked by white circle in (f), and Fig. 3i shows the HRTEM mages of the area D marked by white circle in (g). HRTEM image of SnS_2 in g- C_3N_4/SnS_2 nanocomposites shows an interplanar distance of 0.312 nm, which is accordant with the (100) plane of SnS_2 . While HRTEM image of g- C_3N_4 nanoplates in the nanocomposites does not show obvious lattice.

Figure 4a reveals the UV-vis absorption spectra of SnS_2 , $g-C_3N_4$, and $g-C_3N_4/SnS_2$ heterojunction composites. The optics absorption of $g-C_3N_4/SnS_2$ composites slightly move to red range by increasing the amount of $g-C_3N_4$. The band gap energy (E_g) can be obtained by the equation as follows:

$$(\alpha h\nu) = A (h\nu - E_g)^{n/2}$$
(1)

where α is the efficiency of light absorption, A is constant, h is frequency of light, v is photonic energy, E_g is energy of band gap, and n is a constant which is determined by the optical transition types of semiconductor.

As a direct allowed transition semiconductor, the value of n for SnS₂ is 1. While for g-C₃N₄, n is equal to 4, since g-C₃N₄ is a kind of indirect allowed transition semiconductor. The E_g of SnS₂ and g-C₃N₄ have a gap value of about 2.14 and 2.76 eV, respectively. Obviously, the values of E_g for the g-C₃N₄/SnS₂ composites located between SnS₂ and g-C₃N₄, which becomes larger by increasing the amount of g-C₃N₄. The g-C₃N₄/ SnS₂ composites exhibit a broader absorption range, which almost covers the whole visible light range.

XPS is commonly used to evaluate the surface chemical components and elemental valence states of materials. The survey scan XPS spectra of SSCN-15 composites (Fig. 5a) show several characteristic peaks related to the Sn 3d, S 2p, C 1s, and N 1s, confirming the existence of Sn, S, C, and N in the sample. The Sn 3d XPS spectrum of Fig. 5b shows two peaks at about 486.4 and 494.8 eV, corresponding to Sn $3d_{5/2}$ and Sn $3d_{3/2}$, respectively, which indicates that Sn is quadrivalent. No obvious Sn²⁺ peak (binding energy at about 485.8 eV) was detected in the Sn spectrum. High resolution XPS spectrum of S 2p (Fig. 5c) can be calculated into two peaks located at about 161.9 and 163.1 eV, which are associated to S $3p_{3/2}$ and S $3p_{1/2}$, respectively. Interestingly, in comparison with the pure SnS₂, the Fig. 3 a TEM image, b HRTEM image, and c SAED pattern of pure SnS₂. d TEM image of pure $g-C_3N_4$. e TEM image of $g-C_3N_4/$ SnS₂ composite. f TEM images of the area A marked by white square in (e). g TEM images of the area B marked by white square in (e). h HRTEM mages of the area C marked by white circle in (f). i HRTEM mages of the area D marked by white circle in (g)



XPS peaks of Sn 3d and S 2p in g-C₃N₄/SnS₂ composite shift to lower binding energy ranges, which is probably due to the formation of interactions in the interface of g-C₃N₄/SnS₂ heterojunction composite (Mu et al. 2017). High resolution C1s spectrum (Fig. 5d) has two calculated peaks located at 284.5 and 288.5 eV, which is related to the C-C and N-C=N functional groups, respectively. High resolution N 1s spectrum (Fig. 5e) can be fitted by three peaks at 398.8, 399.5 and 401.1 eV, corresponding to the C-N=C, C-N-C and N-H functional groups, respectively (Hou et al. 2013; Ye et al. 2013; Chen et al. 2015).

Since surface area is a crucial factor of photocatalytic reduction rate, the specific surface areas of SnS_2 , g- C_3N_4 and g- C_3N_4/SnS_2 composites were analyzed by nitrogen adsorption-desorption isotherms (BET), as shown in Fig. 6. The corresponding parameters are listed in Table 1. Obviously, the pure SnS_2 and g- C_3N_4 have a surface area of 10.12 and 29.89m²/g, respectively. For the g- C_3N_4/SnS_2 composites, the surface areas are greatly increased by increasing the content of g- C_3N_4 from 5 to 15%, and then decreases by further increasing the g- C_3N_4 content from 15 to 30%. Among all the g- C_3N_4/SnS_2 composites, SSCN-15 has the largest

BET surface area and displays a type-IV isotherm. The larger surface area is beneficial for the catalyst applications.

Figure 7a displays the photodegradation curves of SnS₂, g-C₃N₄ and g-C₃N₄/SnS₂ composites by degrading 20 mg/L MB solution. The comparison of corresponding photocatalytic degradation efficiencies for different catalysts after 1 h is displayed in Fig. 7b. It is clearly seen that the $g-C_3N_4/SnS_2$ composites show greatly enhanced synergetic photocatalytic activities compared to SnS₂ and g-C₃N₄. Besides, the photocatalytic activities of g-C₃N₄/SnS₂ composites are sensitive to the concentration of g-C₃N₄, which increase first and then decrease by increasing the amount of g-C₃N₄. The 15 wt% g-C₃N₄/SnS₂ (CNSS-15) composites show the highest photocatalytic activity, which can degrade 88.01% of MB after only 1 h under visible-light (λ > 420 nm) irradiation. These results are possibly due to that moderate amount of g-C₃N₄ may induce abundant heterojunction interfaces in the g-C₃N₄/SnS₂ composites, which is fascinating for the separation of photoinduced electrons and holes, resulting in optical photocatalytic capacity. While continuously increasing the amount of g-C₃N₄ may result in the aggregation of g- C_3N_4 on the surface of SnS_2 nanosheets, which may



Fig. 4 a UV-vis absorption spectra of different samples, **b** Plot of $(\alpha h\nu)^2$ versus energy $(h\nu)$ for the band gap of SnS₂ and g-C₃N₄/SnS₂ composites, and the plot of $(\alpha h\nu)^{1/2}$ versus energy $(h\nu)$ for the band gap of pure g-C₃N₄



Fig. 6 BET curves of SnS₂, g-C₃N₄, and g-C₃N₄/SnS₂ composites

reduce the active sites and promote the recombination of electrons and holes.

The reaction kinetics of MB degradation for the catalysts is displayed in Fig. 7c, which are calculated by the pseudo first-order equation function mode (Chen et al. 2015):

$$-\ln(C_t/C_0) = k \cdot t \tag{2}$$

where *k* is the constant of pseudo-first-order rate (min⁻¹) and *t* is the irradiation time. Comparisons of *k* values of different samples are shown in Fig. 7d. Obviously, the optimal g-C₃N₄/SnS₂ composite (SSCN-15) show the highest *k* value of 0.0403 min⁻¹, which is about 3.3 and 7.9 times larger than that of pure SnS₂ (0.0103 min⁻¹) and g-C₃N₄ (0.0054 min⁻¹), respectively.

Recycling experiments of optimal SSCN-15 was further adopted to investigate the photocatalytic stability of $g-C_3N_4/SnS_2$ heterojunction composites, as presented in



Fig. 5 XPS spectra: a survey scan of SnS_2 and $g-C_3N_4/SnS_2$ composites (SSCN-15). b Sn 3d spectrum, c S 2p spectrum, d C 1s spectrum, and e N 1s spectrum

Samples	$S_{BET} (m^2 g^{-1})$	Pore volume $(\text{cm}^3 \text{g}^{-1})$	Pore diameter (nm)	Average pore size (nm)
SnS ₂	10.12	0.04	6.99	12.84
SSCN-5	20.02	0.05	3.79	11.31
SSCN-10	25.47	0.07	3.82	11.59
SSCN-15	25.79	0.07	3.37	11.12
SSCN-20	25.48	0.07	3.80	12.23
SSCN-30	21.74	0.07	3.38	15.10
C_3N_4	29.89	0.08	3.40	12.62

Table 1 Physical properties of pure SnS₂, g-C₃N₄, and g-C₃N₄/SnS₂ composites

Fig. 8a. Obviously, the rate of degradation remains larger than 80% even after four recycles under visiblelight irradiation, which suggests that the catalyst has outstanding reusability. The XRD patterns of SSCN-15 before and after four recycling experiments (Fig. 8b) reveal that the crystal structure is not changed and the peak positions are nearly the same four recycling experiments, revealing that the optimal $g-C_3N_4/SnS_2$ composite has a good stability during the photocatalytic degradation process.

During the photocatalytic process, the photo-induced electron (e⁻) and holes (h⁺) can be further converted into other species, for example, superoxide radical ($\cdot O_2^-$) and hydroxyl radical ($\cdot OH$). To investigate the effect of reactive species during the photodegradation process, h⁺, $\cdot O_2^-$, and $\cdot OH$ were trapped by ammonium oxalate



Fig. 7 a Photocatalytic degradation curves of MB using SnS_2 , g- C_3N_4 , and g- C_3N_4/SnS_2 composites as the photocatalyts in the visible light range. **b** The comparison of degradation efficiencies

for different catalysts after 1 h. c The kinetic curves of different photocatalyts. d The rate constants of different photocatalyts



Fig. 8 a Cycling performance of $g-C_3N_4/SnS_2$ composites (SSCN-15) for photodegradation of MB. b XRD patterns of SSCN-15 before and after four recycling experiments under visible-light irradiation

(AO), benzoquinone (BQ), and isopropanol (IPA), respectively. The trapping experiments were the same as the MB photocatalytic degradation process. Before the degradation, scavengers were added into the solution. We can see that the degradation efficiency of MB is 88.01% without any scavenger (NS) from Fig. 9. When

Fig. 9 Photodegradation of MB by g-C₃N₄/SnS₂ composites (SSCN-15) with different scavengers



Fig. 10 Transient photocurrent curves of SnS_2 , $g-C_3N_4$, and $g-C_3N_4/SnS_2$ composites (SSCN-15)

the scavengers were added, the degradation rate showed some changes. For instance, when AO was used, the rate of degradation is almost invariant. When IPA and BQ were introduced, the rates of degradation fall to 15.88 and 29.63%, respectively. Obviously, the main active species was OH during the degradation of MB.

Figure 10 reveals the photocurrent-time change curves of SnS_2 , g-C₃N₄, and g-C₃N₄/SnS₂ (SSCN-15) composites. When the light is turned on, the photocurrent density rises quickly. And when the light is switch off, the photocurrent decrease at once. It can be seen that the photocurrent value of SSCN-15 composite is much higher than the pure SnS₂ and g-C₃N₄. This result reveals that the composite has the best separation efficiency and migration of electron-hole. This may explain why SSCN-15 composite exhibited the best photocatalytic activity compare with other samples (see Fig. 7a).

According to the band gap structure of photocatalysts and the effects of scavengers, an enhanced photocatalytic mechanism of the g-C₃N₄/SnS₂ heterojunction was proposed (Fig. 11). Using the irradiation of visible light, SnS₂ and g-C₃N₄ could be excited to generate some electron-hole pairs. When e^- was leaped into the conduction band, it leaved behind h⁺ in the valence band.





Fig. 11 Photocatalytic mechanism of the p-n heterojunction $g-C_3N_4/SnS_2$ photocatalyst for the degradation of MB over

The e⁻ and h⁺ in g-C₃N₄ can inject into SnS₂. At the same time, p-n heterojunction was formed over the p-type g-C₃N₄ and n-type SnS₂ photocatalysts (Sun et al. 2014). The photo-induced electrons move from n-type SnS₂ to p-type g-C₃N₄ while the holes transfer from g-C₃N₄ to SnS₂, until the system got an equilibration of Fermi level. Then, an inner electron field (*E*) was created at the interface between g-C₃N₄ and SnS₂, resulting the effective separation of photo-induced electrons further formed \cdot O₂⁻ and \cdot OH species. Finally, all the active species reacted with MB solution. The p-n heterojunction g-C₃N₄/SnS₂ photocatalysts have exhibited better photocatalytic performance than pure SnS₂ and g-C₃N₄.

Conclusion

In summary, a novel p-n heterojunction $g-C_3N_4/$ SnS₂ photocatalysts were fabricated via an in-situ solvothermal method for photodegradation of MB in the visible light range. The $g-C_3N_4/SnS_2$ heterojunction composites show improved photocatalytic capacities compared to SnS₂ and g-C₃N₄. The optimal composites show a high photodegradation efficiency of 88.01% after only 1 h and good reusability after 4 cycles. Then remarkable improved photocatalytic properties are associated to the abundant active species in the interfaces, sufficient separation of electrons and holes pairs, and improved charge transfer channels between the p-n heterojunction interfaces. This study demonstrated that the p-n g-C₃N₄/SnS₂ heterojunction composites are promised to be a novel synergetic visible-lightresponsive photocatalyst.

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Compliance with ethical standards

Conflict of interest The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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