



Pharmacological Roles of Lithium in Treatment of Diseases: New Insights

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ABSTRACT

Lithium is a delicate, silvery-white alkali metal, the smallest monovalent cation with the symbol Li and atomic number 3. The present study aimed to discuss the current knowledge of Lithium's pharmacological and toxicological effects, as well as future perspectives on its application in treating various diseases in laboratory animals. Lithium is currently being investigated for its potential role in maintaining beta-cell activity and reducing insulin resistance in mammals, as it exhibits a diverse array of biological effects. The basis of bipolar disorder medication for acute mood periods, switch prevention, preventative treatment, and suicide prevention has been and still is lithium. Lithium has lately been investigated in several neurodegenerative diseases and other psychoses. It has demonstrated potential benefits in experimental animals in avoiding neurodegeneration and brain damage. Neurological conditions, such as traumatic brain damage, Alzheimer's disease, Parkinson's disease, amyotrophic lateral sclerosis, mercury poisoning, alcoholism, and drug dependence, may benefit from lithium's neuroprotective, antioxidant, and anti-inflammatory qualities. Lithium supports neuronal survival, repairs damage, reduces inflammation and cell death, promotes neurogenesis, maintains cell membranes, and affects signaling pathways related to brain health and recovery. In conclusion, lithium remains a key treatment for bipolar disease due to its mood-stabilizing effects and capacity to lower the risk of relapse and suicide. However, accumulating data suggested that lithium may affect glucose metabolism, potentially causing insulin resistance or decreased glucose tolerance in some people. Additionally, Lithium in rats has anti-inflammatory properties with markedly reduced insulin resistance. These findings emphasize the importance of monitoring metabolic health during long-term lithium treatment to ensure optimal psychiatric and physical health.

Keywords: Glycogen synthase kinase-3, Hyperglycemia, Inflammation, Lithium, Neuroprotection, Oxidative stress

INTRODUCTION

Johan August Arfwedson, a Swedish chemist, discovered lithium (Li) in the mineral petalite in 1817. Brine deposits and mineral springs can also include Li as salt; saltwater has 0.1 parts per million (ppm) of lithium (Balaram, 2024). Additionally, lithium may be found in pegmatite ores, which include spodumene (LiAlSi₂O₆) and lepidolite of different structures, or amblygonite (LiAlFPO₄) ores, which have Li₂O values ranging from 4 to 8.5 %. Lithium comprises around 0.002% of the Earth's crust (Baran, 2019).

Lithium is a well-known inhibitor of glycogen synthase kinase-3 (GSK-3; Smith et al., 2002). The GSK3, as a Serine/threonine kinase, is essential for several biological processes, including cell division, motility, and survival (Eldar-Finkelman, 2002). Through crosstalk with the glucocorticoid (GC) signaling system, it has been shown that pharmacological or genetic inactivation of GSK3 resulted in the abrogation of the detrimental effects of GCs in the β -cell line INS-1 832/13 (Delangre et al., 2021). In the rat brain, the *in vivo* obtained evidence through real-time PCR for Li inhibition of GSK-3 revealed a significant decrease in lithium β -catenin mRNA levels, which may represent compensation for an increase in β -catenin stability (Sinha et al., 2005). Using lithium significantly inhibits brain GSK3 *in vivo* at relevant concentrations to the treatment of bipolar disorder (Gould et al., 2004). Notably, it has been demonstrated that lithium chloride (LiCl) mitigates β -cell mortality and dysfunction caused by GCs in isolated islets of the pancreas (Delangre et al., 2021). For several years, lithium has been utilized to treat bipolar illnesses (Alda, 2015). Such as other medications, lithium usage causes several challenges, including a narrow therapeutic index of lithium, which requires careful monitoring of patients' plasma concentrations (Albayrak et al., 2013). Additionally, lithium treatment leads to side effects, such as decreased renal function (Schoretsanitis et al., 2022) and hypothyroidism (Lazarus, 2009). Long-term effects of Li on rat pups reared on Li chow for three weeks led to regular increased measures of anxiety-like behavior. Gene microarray studies of the amygdala revealed that Li affected the expression of gene transcripts of the synapse and the cytoskeleton, suggesting that the treatment induced synaptic adjustments (Youngs et al., 2006). Nonetheless, more than 60 years of Li administration have demonstrated that side effects are largely controllable with careful patient management (Gitlin, 2016). It is worth noting that Li medication has demonstrated

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therapeutic potential in people for conditions other than mental illnesses. For instance, Li has been shown to have immunomodulatory and antiviral properties against the herpes viruses in humans (Rybakowski, 2022). It has also been suggested that Li appears to be multifactorial and is intercorrelated with the functions of several enzymes as GSK3 and inositol monophosphatase (Brown and Tracy, 2013). In addition, Li leads to thyroid hormone system disruption (Chevalier et al., 2024) and vitamins, as well as growth and transforming factors (Schrauzer, 2002). Lithium may potentially be used to treat Alzheimer's disease, according to some clinical investigations (Damiano et al., 2023). Curiously, a plethora of experimental data indicated that administering Li to preclinical models of diabetes in rats enhanced insulin sensitivity and global glucose metabolism (Dangana et al., 2019; Arciniegas et al., 2022). In a rat model of type 2 diabetes, a recent study indicated that Li medication significantly improved glucose metabolism by substantially reducing insulin resistance and reducing the inflammation associated with diabetes (Pitasi et al., 2022). Furthermore, while taking corticosterone for an extended period, LiCl works as an adjuvant therapy to lessen GC-induced insulin resistance and excessive gluconeogenesis (Delangre et al., 2023). Lithium appears to have multiple biochemical modes of action, including impacts on the functioning of different enzymes, hormones, and vitamins and growth and transformation factors (Marshall, 2015; Rizk et al., 2021). Lithium medication may lead to gastrointestinal, immunological, metabolic, nephrogenic, neurologic, sexual, and teratogenic effects (Mehrafza et al., 2017; Jafari et al., 2018). In addition to the Long-term use of Li can affect kidney and thyroid functions (Lieber et al., 2020; Boivin et al., 2023). The present review article focused on the current findings about Li's pharmacological and toxicological effects, and the future perspective of its use in the treatment of different diseases.

TYPE 2 DIABETES

Lithium is primarily known for its use in treating mood disorders, particularly bipolar disorder. However, some studies are exploring lithium effects on diabetes; meanwhile, the use of Li for diabetes management is not shared or standard practice (Rybakowski, 2020). The involvement of Li in the regulation and management of insulin resistance and type 2 diabetes may be ascribed to the inhibition of GSK-3. The GSK-3 is an essential serine/threonine kinase that regulates gene transcription, glycogen formation, protein synthesis, and cell differentiation in a range of cell types. In a previous study, GSK-3 has been connected to the intricate etiology of skeletal muscle insulin resistance in type 2 diabetes in people and obese *Rattus norvegicus* models (Henriksen and Dokken, 2006). Information on the function of GSK-3 as a regulator of insulin action on the muscle glucose transport activity of humans has been obtained from studies involving sensitive and selective GSK-3 inhibitors. These studies have demonstrated that specific GSK-3 inhibition raises insulin-stimulated glucose transport activity in insulin-resistant skeletal muscle in humans (Mathur et al., 2017; Burillo et al., 2021).

Another necessary consequence of GSK-3 inhibitors in type 2 diabetes associated with obesity is decreased hepatic glucose production, most likely due to the downregulation of genes related to gluconeogenesis (Henriksen et al., 2007). Lithium supplementation *in vitro* boosted skeletal muscle glucose uptake, which seemed to be related to higher levels of the glucose transporter type 4 (GLUT4) on the cell surface and lower levels of GLUT4 internalization (Jung et al., 2017). According to specific research, Li shields the insulin-producing islets from oxidative damage caused by apoptosis (cell death), maintains the integrity of the pancreatic islets, and protects the β -cells, which may preserve or enhance insulin secretion in diabetic Wistar rats (Ostrovskaya et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2021). Lithium has anti-inflammatory properties that may help manage the chronic inflammation linked to diabetes, especially type 2 diabetes, including reducing the expression of cyclooxygenase-2, inhibiting the production of interleukin (IL)-1 β and tumor necrosis factor- α (TNF- α), and increasing the synthesis of IL-2 and IL-10 (Nassar and Azab, 2014; Hamstra et al., 2023). Although it is not a direct mechanism of glucose control, lithium can have a modest osmotic diuretic action that may aid in lowering hyperglycemia by encouraging the excretion of glucose through urine in rats (Dousa et al., 1976) and in humans (Chambers et al., 1977).

NEUROPROTECTIVE MEDICINE

Bipolar disorder is the primary condition for which lithium is used. However, new studies have indicated that lithium may also treat brain damage due to its neuroprotective and neuroplasticity properties (Machado-Vieira et al., 2006; Alda, 2015; Rana and Singh, 2018). Here is an overview of lithium's potential role in treating brain injuries in rats. Lithium has been identified as an effective neuroprotective agent that prevents apoptosis-related cell death in rats. Lithium neuroprotection in rats is achieved through multiple intersecting mechanisms, although the specific mechanisms by which lithium interacts with these mechanisms remain under investigation (Khan et al., 2016). Through inducing brain-derived neurotrophic factors, Li maximizes cell survival, stimulating activities in anti-apoptotic pathways, including the

phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase/Akt and the mitogen-activated protein kinase pathways (Rana and Singh, 2018). In cultured rat cell lines, lithium reduces the pro-apoptotic function by directly and indirectly inhibiting GSK-3 β activity as well as indirectly inhibiting calcium influx caused by N-methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA) receptor activation (Chiu and Chuang, 2011). Lithium-induced regulation of anti- and pro-apoptotic pathways alters a wide variety of downstream effectors, including β -catenin, heat shock factor 1, activator protein 1, cyclic adenosine monophosphate (cAMP) response-element-binding protein, and the B-cell lymphoma-2 (Bcl-2; Rowe and Chuang, 2004; Ghanaatfar *et al.*, 2023). In mouse models of cerebral ischemia, lithium treatment reduces the catalytic activity of certain substrates, leading to the stabilization of β -catenin and nuclear factor erythroid 2 (Nrf2) in the cytosol. This stabilization promotes their translocation to the nucleus, which may enhance the cellular protective response to ischemic injury, as both proteins are crucial regulators of various protective pathways (Chuang *et al.*, 2011).

The β -catenin modulates Tcf/Lef-1-dependent genes implicated in survival, differentiation, and neuron cell cycle dynamics (Nygren *et al.*, 2007). In lithium therapy, pro-inflammatory cytokines such as TNF- α , interleukin (IL)-6, and IL-1 β , as well as many other cytotoxic chemicals, including reactive oxygen species (ROS) and prostanooids, were decreased (Rana and Singh, 2018; Medić *et al.*, 2020). By inhibiting the production of key inflammatory cytokines, including IL-1 β and TNF- α , Li has demonstrated anti-inflammatory properties. These mechanisms support the efficacy of lithium against neurodegeneration during neuroinflammatory events (Yu *et al.*, 2012; Khan *et al.*, 2017; Mehrafza *et al.*, 2019). Additionally, Li improves synaptic plasticity in humans, which is important for memory and learning. Specific sites and receptors that control the production, release, turnover, and reuptake of neurotransmitters, including serotonin and dopamine, may be impacted by lithium (Puglisi-Allegra *et al.*, 2021). In addition, Li can bind to various synaptic serotonin receptors and increase serotonin release in sixty-nine patients with depression (Baumann *et al.*, 1996). Therefore, the therapeutic effects of lithium may be partly linked to its capability to regulate neurotransmitter signaling within the central nervous system (Contestabile *et al.*, 2013; Dell’Osso *et al.*, 2016). Moreover, lithium influences the Wnt/ β -catenin signaling pathway, crucially plays a role in the proliferation of neural precursor cells during the development of the central nervous system (CNS). The Wnt/ β -catenin promotes the proliferation of progenitor cells in the developing neural tube, including in the midbrain and hippocampus of mammals (Vallée and Vallée, 2021).

PREVENTING LIVER DAMAGE

Lithium may mitigate liver damage by decreasing inflammatory mediators, such as TNF- α , IL-1, IL-6, interferon (IFN- γ), IL-8, and ROS. Furthermore, inhibition of GSK-3 β can enhance longevity in mice suffering from polymicrobial sepsis by improving inflammation through the regulation of nuclear factor (NF- κ B) and cAMP responsive element binding protein (CREB). This process helps reduce hepatic apoptosis and liver damage in mice (Zheng *et al.*, 2017). The inhibition of GSK3 β ameliorates liver Ischemia/Reperfusion (I/R) injury by decreasing stress-induced cell death, reducing apoptosis, and enhancing liver proliferation in rats (Liu *et al.*, 2013).

SIDE EFFECTS

Lithium has a half-life of 20 to 24 hours in the body. The half-life is prolonged in patients with poor renal function, typically 36 hours and ranging from 40 to 50 hours, as documented (Jafari *et al.*, 2018; Zandandrea *et al.*, 2018). Lithium is often administered as lithium carbonate, which is available in tablet form (0.4 to 2.0 g/day). A concentration between 0.5 and 1.2 mM was considered a beneficial medical spectrum. Toxic effects can occur at doses exceeding 1.5 mM, and life-threatening outcomes may arise at doses of over 3.5 mM (Zandandrea *et al.*, 2018). Nausea, vomiting, loss of appetite, and diarrhea are all common acute adverse impacts of lithium in humans (Lowe *et al.*, 2023). In mice, lithium medication has been associated with negative effects on cognition, dermatology, endocrine, in addition to gastrointestinal, immunological responses, metabolism, kidney function, neurological health, sexual function, and teratogenic outcomes (Jafari *et al.*, 2018). Lithium treatment has been associated with weight gain and sexual dysfunction (Mehrafza *et al.*, 2017). Most of lithium's adverse effects are due to the ability to suppress the enzyme prostatic acid phosphatase (PAP), leading to perturbation of different cellular functions, including RNA processing (Oruch *et al.*, 2014).

Typically, fine hand tremors that are symmetrical are a key characteristic of tremors induced by lithium. The tremors often manifest as postural tremors, in contrast to those caused by antipsychotics in long-term lithium-treated patients (Singh *et al.*, 2023).

The Long-term use of lithium can affect kidney function, potentially leading to chronic kidney disease in individuals receiving treatment (Boivin *et al.*, 2023). Lithium can also affect thyroid function, possibly causing hypothyroidism or goiter (Lieber *et al.*, 2020). The clinical trials indicated that lithium is used in both experimental animals and human cell lines, as detailed in Table 1.

Table 1. Clinical and therapeutic uses of lithium in experimental animals and human cell lines

Species	Dose	Expected uses	Reference
Mice	LiCl (40 or 80 mg/kg bw single intraperitoneal injection).	Low-dose lithium medication promoted renal tubular epithelial regrowth, accelerated kidney restoration, and expedited renal recovery after cisplatin-induced acute kidney injury (AKI). Lithium's protective impact was assumed to be due to the reduction of GSK-3 β , which contributed to the preservation of proliferative components, including cyclin D1, c-Myc, and HIF-1 α .	Bao et al. (2014)
Rats	LiCl (1 mmol/kg bw/day) for four weeks.	Lithium guarded against ventricular arrhythmias by reducing nerve growth factor-induced sympathetic innervation via antioxidant modulation of the Nrf2/HO-1 circuit.	Lee et al. (2014)
Human colon cancer cell line	LiCl (10, 20, 40, and 60 mM) for six, 12, 24, and 48 hours.	It was revealed that lithium, as a GSK-3 β inhibitor, inhibited cell survival and proliferation by inhibiting the ROS/ GSK-3 β /NF- κ B pathway.	Li et al. (2014)
Rats	LiCl (85 mg/kg bw) for six weeks.	Lithium, as a GSK-3 β inhibitor, promoted motor neuron propagation from the CNS to the PNS.	Su et al. (2014)
Human	LiCl (1, 5 mM) for six days.	Lithium boosted MSC proliferation by suppressing GSK-3 β activity, β -catenin aggregation, and Wnt pathway activation.	Zhu et al. (2014)
Zebra fish embryo	LiCl (100 μ M) for five days.	Amyloid- β injection into zebrafish embryos led to cognitive deficits and elevated tau phosphorylation; both cognitive deficits and elevated tau phosphorylation were reversed by lithium incubation for a 5days.	Nery et al. (2014)
Rat	LiCl (7 μ L/g) for 5 weeks	In a glaucoma rat model, LiCl lowered intraocular pressure (IOP) through the phosphorylation of PERK and the control of PERK/ROCK signaling.	Sun et al. (2014)
Rats	LiCl (0.1 mM) for four days.	Lithium stimulated GFP-MSC proliferation and neural differentiation. Furthermore, lithium stimulated the differentiation of transplanted GFP-MSC into more oligodendrocytes, astrocytes, and neurons, enhancing neural regeneration in the rat spinal cord. It represents a viable method for developing a highly effective therapy using mesenchymal stem cells (MSCs) for CNS illnesses.	Dong et al. (2015)
Rats	Li ₂ CO ₃ (2.7 mg /kg bw) for three weeks.	In rats, lithium combined with sodium selenite leads to depletion of plasma CAT (catalase) and slight enhancement of AA (ascorbic acid), as well as a slight increase in MDA (malondialdehyde)	Musik et al. (2015)
Rats	LiCl (0.3-30 mM) for 24 hours.	The PI3K/Akt/FoxO1 pathway was involved in Li's protection against serum-starved cell death.	Zeng et al. (2016)
Monkey	LiCl (0.15, 0.25, 0.75 mEq/kg) before and during induction of anesthesia.	The Li co-administration prevented acute isoflurane-induced neuroapoptosis and reduced oligodendroglia-induced apoptosis.	Noguchi et al. (2016)
Human	LiCl (10, 15, 25 mM) for 72 hours.	The LiCl promoted inhibitory GSK-3 β serine 9 phosphorylation in RD and RH-30 cell lines; however, the combined arsenic trioxide (ATO) and LiCl greatly diminished GLI1 protein expression, demonstrating elevated incidences of cell apoptosis. As a result, the combined application of arsenic trioxide and lithium chloride enhances the efficacy of rhabdomyosarcoma therapy.	Schleicher et al. (2017)
Human	LiCl (2 mM) for 24 hours.	The activation of Orail/STIM1/2 expression and activity in Chorea-Acanthocytosis (ChAc) neurons by lithium was impaired by pharmacological nuclear factor B NFB inhibition.	Sukkar et al. (2018)
Zebrafish	LiCl (100 mg/L) for seven days.	In zebrafish, Li reduced scopolamine-induced memory impairment, decreased exploration, and boosted acetylcholinesterase activity.	Zanandrea et al. (2018)
Mice	LiCl (4, 10, 20, 30, 60 mg/kg bw) for seven days.	By modulating the NMDAR/NO and ERK pathways, Li, as a GSK3 inhibitor, protects rat cerebellar granule neurons from glutamate-induced neurotoxicity.	Jafari et al. (2018)

Rats	LiCl (75, 150, and 300 mg/kg bw) for 28 days.	Lithium protected the hippocampus from methamphetamine-stimulated neurodegeneration via the Akt-1/GSK-3 β and CREB/BDNF signaling pathways.	Mehrafza et al. (2019)
Rats	Li ₂ CO ₃ (2.4 g/Kg) for 10 weeks.	In ovariectomized rats, Li medication averted neurobehavioral deficits and increased structural synaptic plasticity. Lithium therapy also masked neuroinflammatory processes due to the reduction of reactive gliosis and the maintenance of blood–brain barrier strength. The Gsk-3 β activity and BDNF levels were controlled by Li, which assisted in resisting neuroinflammation, and structural synaptic plasticity was conserved.	Rana et al. (2022)
Mice	LiCl (1 mmol/kg) for 28 days.	Lithium decreased the infarct size, improved the motor execution, and alleviated related affective and cognitive impairments in the framework of ischemia-reperfusion in the middle cerebral artery blockage stroke model in mice.	Chen et al. (2022)
Dogs	LiCl (85 mg/kg) for 28 days in rats. LiCl (5 nM) for three hours in PC12 cells.	When compared to untreated dogs, one male dog being unilaterally cryptorchid (right side), lithium-treated animals had dramatically better trabecular spacing, number, and connection density, and serum bone-specific alkaline phosphatase levels. In comparison to untreated Mucopolysaccharidosis (MPS) I and heterozygous animals, growth plates from lithium-treated animals had more hypertrophic chondrocytes.	Lau et al. (2022)
Rats	LiCl (5 nM) for 3 hours in PC12 cells.	Lithium promoted healing after spinal cord injury by acting as an anti-inflammatory, antioxidant, and anti-pyrototic agent via the Nrf2/heme oxygenase-1 pathway.	Zhao et al. (2022)
Human	LiCl (10 mM) for 24 hours.	The body's tryptophan catabolism was inhibited by Li. In human-derived microglia, the kynurenine pathway was initiated by boosting inhibitory GSK3S9 phosphorylation and diminishing STAT1 ^{S727} and STAT3 ^{Y705} phosphorylation values.	Götttert et al. (2022)
Rats	--	In rats chronically treated with corticosterone, Li treatment markedly reduced insulin resistance.	Delangre et al. (2023)
Rats	1.4 g/kg, 1.8 g/kg, 2.2 g/kg lithium bicarbonate	Lithium adversely influenced the cellular defense system. Furthermore, apart from anti-inflammatory properties, Li exhibited cytokine-mediated inflammatory activities in rat groups.	Matur et al. (2024)
Rats	Four rat groups fed on Li g/kg/diet, and high Li (2.2 g/kg/diet) groups were fed with lithium bicar	The study found that high Li treatment in animals increased malondialdehyde levels, decreased superoxide dismutase and catalase levels, and increased anxiety-like behaviors. The prolonged Li treatment, particularly at doses approaching the higher therapeutic range (2.2 g/kg/diet) for 30 days, induces adverse effects.	Eraslan et al. (2024)

LiCl: Lithium chloride, AKI: Acute kidney injury, BW: Body weight, cyclin D1: Cell cycle regulators, c-Myc encodes a transcription factor, HIF-1 α : Hypoxia-inducible factor 1 α , Nrf2/HO-1: Nuclear factor-2/hemeoxygenase-1, ROS/GSK-3 β /NF- κ B: Reactive oxygen species/glycogen synthase kinase 3 β / nuclear factor-kappa-beta, CNS: Central nervous system, PNS: Peripheral nerve system, MSC: Mesenchymal stem cell, PERK/ROCK: Protein endoplasmic reticulum kinase/Rho-associated protein kinase, GFP: Green fluorescent protein, MSCs: Mesenchymal stem cells, PI3K/Akt/FoxO1: Phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase/ Protein kinase B/ Forkhead boxO1, RD: ERMS cell line, RH-30: ARMS cell line, NFB: Nuclear factor B, Orail1: Protein abundance of Ca²⁺ release activated channel moiety (CRAC), STIM1: Ca²⁺ sensing proteins, NMDAR/NO: N-methyl-D-aspartate receptors/nitric oxide, ERK: Extracellular signal-regulated kinase, GSK3: Glycogen synthase kinase 3, Akt-1: Protein kinase B, BDNF: Brain-derived neurotrophic factor, CREB: Response element binding, STAT1^{S727}: Signal transducer and activator of transcription1 serin 727, STAT3^{Y705}: Signal transducer and activator of transcription3 tyrosin 705.

CONCLUSION

Lithium medication has significantly influenced behavior, neurochemistry, and physiology in laboratory animals. Lithium functions as a mood stabilizer, decreases hyperactivity and aggression, and exhibits neuroprotective qualities in models of brain injury and degeneration. However, prolonged exposure up to 8 weeks or high-dose exposure up to 200 mg/kg in mice can cause toxicity, including kidney damage, thyroid problems, and developmental defects. These findings confirmed lithium's therapeutic potential while emphasizing the need for careful dose and monitoring. In future studies, it is recommended to use *in vitro* application of lithium chloride on human cell lines in order to control glucose homeostasis and liver injury.

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Ethical considerations

All authors reviewed potential ethical issues, including data falsification, multiple publication and submission, redundancy, plagiarism, consent to publish, and misconduct, before publication.

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Authors' contributions

Marwa Ghamry developed the theoretical formalism, performed the analytic calculations, and performed the numerical simulations. Islam Ibrahim and Shimaa Elshazly contributed to editing the last version of the manuscript. Ahmed Fahmy supervised the project. All authors confirmed the last edition of the manuscript before submission to the journal.

Availability of data and materials

The data is available upon reasonable request from the corresponding author.

Competing interests

The authors confirmed that there is no conflict of interest.

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