

How changing the height of the Antarctic ice sheet affects global climate: A mid-Pliocene case study

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Abstract: Warming-induced topographic changes of the East Antarctic Ice Sheet (EAIS) during the Pliocene warm period could have significant influence on the climate. However, how large changes in the EAIS height could theoretically affect global climate have yet to be studied. Here, the influence of possible height changes of the EAIS on climate over the East Antarctic ice sheet region versus the rest of the globe is investigated through numerical climate modeling, using the Pliocene as a test case. As expected, the investigation reveals that the reduction of ice sheet height leads to a warmer and wetter East Antarctica. However, unintuitively, both the surface air temperature and the sea surface temperature decrease over the rest of the globe. These temperature changes result from the higher air pressure over Antarctica and the corresponding lower air pressure over extra-Antarctic regions with the reduction of EAIS height. This topography effect is further confirmed by energy balance analyses. These findings could provide insights into future climate change caused by warming-induced height reduction of the Antarctic ice sheet.

Keywords: mid-Pliocene warm period; Antarctic ice sheet; height changes; sensitivity experiments

1 Introduction

The Antarctic Ice Sheet (AIS) is the largest component (by volume) of Earth's cryosphere (Gasson and Keisling, 2020). It accounts for almost 70% of the world's freshwater, representing a potential sea-level rise of 56.6 m (Shum et al., 2008). Its evolution has received considerable attention in climate research, as it determines the surface mass balance that has a major impact on both regional and global climate (DeConto et al., 2007; Bintanja et al., 2013; Goldner et al., 2014; Colleoni et al., 2018; Golledge et al., 2019; Tewari et al., 2021a). The size of the present-day AIS is known to impinge substantially on synoptic and planetary scale atmospheric flow (Parish and Bromwich, 2007; Schmittner et al., 2011; Hakuba et al., 2012; Goldner et al., 2013; Grazioli et al., 2017), and the warming-induced topographic changes of the AIS in turn

have significant influence on the climate (Orr et al., 2008; Tewari et al., 2021a, b). However, the effect of the AIS height changes on future predictions of climate is still
50 uncertain. One method of investigating this effect in a warmer-than-modern climate is to look back at past warm periods of Earth history, for example the Pliocene.

The mid-Pliocene warm period (~3.3–3.0 Ma) is the most recent period of relatively warm and stable climate in Earth’s history, during which atmospheric CO₂ concentrations were approximately 400 ppmv (Pagani et al., 2010; Lunt et al., 2012a;
55 Yang et al., 2018; De La Vega et al., 2020; Huang et al., 2021) and models suggested that global mean annual temperature was 1.7–5.2 °C warmer than today (Haywood et al., 2020). This period is similar to today in terms of the continent–ocean configuration and atmospheric CO₂ concentrations (Haywood et al., 2016) and has often been proposed as a climatic analog for the end of this century (Burke et al., 2018). The
60 present atmospheric CO₂ concentration is over 410 ppmv and has reached the Pliocene level. However, due to the large thermal inertia of the oceans (Levitus et al., 2000; Back et al., 2013), the atmosphere-ocean system is still in a nonequilibrium state and the global mean temperature is projected to rise to the level of the Pliocene as early as the 2040s (Zhang, 2012; Ding et al., 2014; Jiang et al., 2016; Burke et al., 2018; Tierney et
65 al., 2020). In this scenario, about 30% of the Antarctic mass loss amounts would occur in coming centuries (Grant et al., 2019). Therefore, we use climate model simulations of the Pliocene to investigate how large, hypothetical changes in East AIS (EAIS) height would affect the climate.

Numerical experiments have emerged as an efficient means of understanding past
70 climates on regional and global scales (Huang et al., 2019). Based on simulations, the dynamic behavior of the AIS and its stability to the climate change have been analyzed (Raymo et al., 2006; Naish et al., 2009; Cook et al., 2013; Patterson et al., 2014; Austermann et al., 2015; Boer et al., 2015; Yamane et al., 2015; Scherer et al., 2016; Dolan et al., 2018). Here we design sensitivity experiments using a coupled climate
75 model to investigate how perturbations in the EAIS height would interact with the atmospheric flow and influence the temperature and precipitation dynamics over the

East Antarctic ice sheet region and the rest of the globe.

2 Methods

80 2.1 Model description

The Hadley Centre coupled climate model version 3 (hereafter referred to as HadCM3) was used for this study. This model has been used extensively for studies of the Pliocene within the Pliocene Model Intercomparison Project experiments (Haywood et al., 2010, 2011; Bragg et al., 2012; Hunter et al., 2019). HadCM3 consists
85 of two main components: an atmospheric component (HadAM3) and an oceanic component (HadOM3) (Gordon et al., 2000; Pope et al., 2000; Valdes et al., 2017). The horizontal resolution of the atmosphere model is 2.5° in latitude by 3.75° in longitude and consists of 19 layers in the vertical. The atmospheric model has a time step of 30 min and includes a radiation scheme that can represent the effects of major and minor
90 trace gases (Edwards and Slingo, 1996). The HadOM3 spatial resolution of the ocean is 1.25° latitude by 1.25° longitude, with 20 vertical layers. The ocean model is a ‘rigid lid’ model, which has a time step of one hour and incorporates a thermodynamic-dynamic sea ice model with primitive (ocean drift) dynamics. The HadCM3 has been shown to well represent the broad-scale features of the Antarctic and Arctic atmospheric
95 and oceanic circulation (Turner et al., 2006; Chapman and Walsh, 2007). The fact that the HadCM3 consistently performs well in tests against other coupled atmosphere–ocean models (Lambert and Boer, 2001; Hegerl et al., 2007; Dolan et al., 2011) increases our confidence in its palaeoclimate simulations.

100 2.2 Pliocene boundary conditions and experimental designs

For this study the required mid-Pliocene boundary conditions were supplied by the U.S. Geological Survey Pliocene Research Interpretations and Synoptic Mapping Group’s (PRISM) dataset, specifically the latest iteration of the reconstruction known as PRISM4 (Dowsett et al., 2016). They include topography and bathymetry, coastlines,
105 land surface properties (i.e., vegetation, soil type, and ice sheet coverage) and

atmospheric composition with respect to pre-industrial conditions. The Greenland Ice Sheet and the West Antarctic Ice Sheet, which currently store ~13 m sea-level equivalent ice (Dolan et al., 2011; Yamane et al., 2015), are thought to have largely melted during the mid-Pliocene warm period (Lunt et al., 2008; Naish et al., 2009).

110 Therefore, our experiments focus on changing the East Antarctic Ice Sheet height (Figure 1) against its reconstructed Pliocene value. It should be noted that the surface type is still ‘snow’ and so there will still be high albedo in this region.

Our control simulation is started from the end of the HadCM3 contribution to PlioMIP2 simulation (Hunter et al., 2019). There is a difference between our control
115 simulation and the PlioMIP2 simulation, namely we use dynamic vegetation while Hunter et al. (2019) uses fixed vegetation from PRISM4. we manipulate the height of the ice sheet for each sensitivity simulation on the basis of the control experiment. To evaluate the regional and global climate sensitivity to the EAIS height changes, five Pliocene modelling experiments are presented in this paper, which were identical except
120 for the height of the EAIS: one mid-Pliocene control run (hereafter MPCControl) and four sensitivity simulations with height reduced by 100% (hereafter -100%EAIS), 75% (hereafter -75%EAIS), 50% (hereafter -50%EAIS), and 25% (hereafter -25%EAIS) of the Pliocene height. All these sensitivity experiments are hypothetical scenarios and are not intended to correspond to projected future scenarios. Instead, they are designed to
125 isolate how changes in the elevation of the EAIS would affect a warmer world.

To provide a more realistic -100%EAIS experiment, we further perform an experiment in which the EAIS is still at -100% but the land topography (away from Antarctica) is reduced by 60 m (hereafter -100%EAIS & -60-m land), to artificially raise the sea level. Locations where the land was below 60 m are set to 0 m to maintain
130 the mid-Pliocene land sea mask, which means that there are no ocean gateway changes that could affect ocean dynamics.

The mid-Pliocene control experiment uses the East Antarctic ice sheet configuration (and all other boundary conditions) specified in the USGS PRISM4 data set. The EAIS volume is smaller during the mid-Pliocene than at the present -day, and

135 the reduced EAIS is equivalent of 15 m sea-level rise (Dowsett et al., 2010). All
experiments (including the ice sheet sensitivity experiments) are started from the end
of the HadCM3 PlioMIP2 simulation and are continued for another 500 model years
allowing the modelled climate to be equilibrated to the boundary conditions. Climate
statistics are based on time averages of the final 30 years for each run. The results are
140 presented as anomalies from the control for the sensitivity experiments.

3 Results

3.1 Surface air temperature changes

Reducing the height of the EAIS experiments results in a dramatic annual mean
145 warming over East Antarctica relative to the MPCControl experiment (Figure 2).
Compared with the MPCControl experiment, the East Antarctic annual mean surface
temperature increases by about 5 °C, 10 °C, 15 °C, and 18 °C with the height reduction
of 25%, 50%, 75%, and 100%, respectively (Figure 2). Based on Figure 1a, the average
height of the EAIS is ~3.2 kilometers, which means that every 25% reduction of the
150 height is ~0.8 kilometer. Clearly, this surface warming occurs at a rate of ~6 °C per
kilometer of EAIS height lost, which is confirmed by the change in temperature due to
changing surface height (Figure S1) and is accompanied by a prominent surface cooling
over western Antarctica and the Southern Ocean.

Contrary to Antarctic warming, reducing the height of the EAIS experiments leads
155 to annual mean surface cooling over the rest of the globe (Figure 3). The inclusion of
the -100%EAIS set of boundary conditions results in a ~1–2 °C mean cooling over the
rest of the globe (Figure 3a). In low and equatorial regions, temperatures decrease by a
minimum of 0.5–1 °C and cooling is at its greatest (~3 °C) over Southern Ocean. For -
75%EAIS and -50%EAIS experiments (Figures 3b, c), annual mean values for surface
160 air temperature decrease by ~0.5 °C and ~1 °C, respectively. Compared with the
MPCControl experiment, the surface air temperature in -25%EAIS experiment changes
little (the mean value near zero; Figure 3d).

3.2 Precipitation changes

165 The numerical simulations show that with the height reduction of the EAIS, the annual precipitation has increased over East Antarctica and decreased over the rest of the southern hemisphere (Figure 4). Precipitation enhancements are greatest in -100%EAIS ($\sim 0.4 \text{ mm day}^{-1}$; Figure 4a) and smallest in -25%EAIS ($\sim 0.1 \text{ mm day}^{-1}$; Figure 4d). Based on Figure 4e, the annual mean precipitation of the MPCControl
170 experiment over the EAIS is $\sim 0.4 \text{ mm day}^{-1}$, which means that the precipitation increases $\sim 25\%$ with every 25% reduction of the height. Clearly, this precipitation enhancement over East Antarctica occurs at a rate of approximately 5% per degree Celsius of temperature, which is accompanied by a precipitation deficit over the western Antarctica and the Southern Ocean. With respect to the MPCControl experiment,
175 precipitation reduces significantly over the western Antarctica and the Southern Ocean ($\sim 0.3\text{--}0.8 \text{ mm day}^{-1}$; Figure 4a) in the -100%EAIS experiments, but decreases slightly over those areas ($\sim 0.1\text{--}0.2 \text{ mm day}^{-1}$; Figure 4d) in the -25%EAIS experiments.

Annual precipitation decreases consistently over most areas on the globe in all the sensitivity experiments compared to the MPCControl experiments (Figure 5). This is
180 consistent with the decreased air temperatures (Figure 3), which reduce moisture carrying capacity of the air and lead to less precipitation. The experiment showing the greatest sensitivity in terms of precipitation response is -100%EAIS, with the anomaly varying from -2 to 0.8 mm day^{-1} (Figure 5a), while the least is -25%EAIS with a narrow anomalous range of $-0.4\text{--}0.4 \text{ mm day}^{-1}$ (Figure 5d). The spatial patterns (Figures 5a-d)
185 show that the enhanced precipitation focuses over parts of the tropics and the 45th parallel south, while the deficit focuses over northern high latitudes and the Antarctic periphery. The largest precipitation anomaly is found in the tropics that are dominated by the intertropical convergence zone (ITCZ). In general, for most areas except the Southern Ocean, the simulations that display the largest SAT sensitivity to the
190 prescription of EAIS height changes also exhibit the largest precipitation anomaly.

4 Discussion

4.1 Cause of the precipitation changes over Antarctica

195 Earlier studies have shown a clear relationship between the atmospheric circulation and precipitation dynamics, arguing that precipitation over polar regions is mostly due to orographic effects acting upon the circulation pattern passing over the region (Schmittner et al., 2011; Hakuba et al., 2012; Goldner et al., 2013; Tewari et al., 2021a). The mechanical obstruction by the ice sheet prevents the moisture laden winds from penetrating inland (Parish and Bromwich, 2007; Grazioli et al., 2017; Tewari et al., 2021b). The gravity-driven katabatic flow, which carries dense cold air mass out from the polar plateau, impedes a poleward shift of the moisture laden winds (Goldner et al., 2013; Tewari et al., 2021b). Therefore, the weakened katabatic flow, due to the successive topographic reduction, leads to an elevated moisture transport into the continent (Figure 7), thereby increasing precipitation over EAIS (Figure 4).

205 Figure 6 shows the magnitude and direction of the low-level wind at 850 hPa over the Southern Hemisphere and the corresponding changes observed in their strength due to orographic perturbations in individual simulations. In the MPCControl experiment, strong surface westerly winds encircle the East Antarctic continent, extending from $\sim 60^{\circ}\text{S}$ to the continental periphery (Figure 6a), indicating the blocking effect of the EAIS (Tewari et al., 2021b).

215 Upon successive reduction of the EAIS height (Figures 6b–e), the westerly flow becomes weaker between 60°S and 90°S and penetrates gradually into the eastern continent. The EAIS height reductions of 100% and 75% cause a poleward shift in the surface flows (Figures 6b, c), which even circulates around the Southern Pole. In contrast, reductions by 50% and 25% cause little change in the surface winds. In this context, sustained attention needs to be paid to changes in the height of AIS in future warming and their effect on atmospheric circulation and precipitation dynamics over the region.

220 To further investigate the mechanism for the precipitation changes over Antarctica, we analyzed the annual water vapor flux over this region. The results show that in the MPCControl experiment, strong westerly flow encircle the East Antarctic continent,

extending from $\sim 60^{\circ}\text{S}$ to the continental periphery (Figure 7a). In contrast, with the height reduction of the EAIS, the anomalies show easterly flow encircle the East Antarctic continent, extending from $\sim 60^{\circ}\text{S}$ to the continental periphery (Figures 7b-e).
225 These mean that the water vapor flux decrease over the region from $\sim 60^{\circ}\text{S}$ to the continental periphery, which is consistent with the decreased precipitation over this region (Figure 4). Over the East Antarctica, upon successive reduction of the EAIS height, the westerly flow penetrates gradually into the eastern continent and bring more and more water vapor into this region (Figures 7b-e), which is consistent with the
230 increased precipitation over the eastern continent (Figure 4).

4.2 Causes of global temperature changes

In order to identify factors controlling the air temperature changes with the height reduction of the EAIS, energy balance analyses (Heinemann et al., 2009; Lunt et al.,
235 2012b; Hill et al., 2014) between the sensitivity experiments and MPCControl experiment have been completed. This approach has been used in palaeoclimate simulations to understand the simulated temperature changes (Donnadieu et al., 2006; Murakami et al., 2008; Hill et al., 2014; Lunt et al., 2021; Baatsen et al., 2022), and more details about how to conduct this energy balance analysis can be found in Hill et
240 al. (2014). The results show that the heat transport from the rest of the globe, especially from the proximal Southern Ocean, to Antarctica is the primary factor influencing the temperature changes over Antarctica and its contribution rate reaches $\sim 52\%$ (Figure 8). However, over the rest of the globe, the heat transport is the secondary factor influencing the temperature decreasing (Figure 3) and except the -25% EAIS
245 experiment, the contribution in other sensitivity experiments reaches $\sim 25\%$ (Figure 8).

The secondary factor controlling the Antarctic temperature is ‘Topography+GHG’ and its contribution rate reaches $\sim 30\%$ (Figure 8). In contrast, over the rest of the globe, ‘Topography+GHG’ is the primary factor influence the temperature changes and the contribution is $\sim 48\%$. All experiments were forced with the same trace gases, therefore
250 the ‘Topography+GHG’ factor represents both the direct effect of ice sheet height

changes on temperature and some indirect effects via GHG feedbacks.

The direct effect of ice sheet height changes on temperature can be explained by the surface air pressure changes. As shown in Figure 9, the surface air pressure increases over Antarctica and decreases over elsewhere, which is similar to the spatial pattern of the air temperature changes (Figure 3). With the reduction of the EAIS height, the air mass increases over Antarctica, which at the expense of that over the rest of the globe, leading to higher air pressure over Antarctica and lower air pressure over extra-Antarctic regions (Figure 9). According to the ideal gas law (Clapeyron, 1834), lower air pressures correspond with lower air temperatures, which may explain the temperature contrast between Antarctica and extra-Antarctic regions.

The possible indirect effect includes that 1) when the EAIS is reduced, the atmosphere will become thicker in this region, which will lead to more greenhouse gases in the column and hence more warming; 2) the warmer atmosphere will be able to hold more water vapor. Our results are useful for better understanding the effect of the AIS height changes on climate.

4.3 Modelling methodological limitations

In the present study, the HadCM3 model was used to investigate the influence of the height reduction of the EAIS on temperature, precipitation, atmospheric circulation, surface air pressure, and the energy transport at the regional and global scales. The objective of these simulations was to quantify how the existence of the EAIS would affect the mid-Pliocene climate. It can be concluded from the present findings that reduction in the EAIS height during the mid-Pliocene warm period induces warming and wetting over the East Antarctica, and the cooling over the extra-Antarctica regions. The Antarctic surface warming and coastal cooling due to the height reduction of Antarctic ice sheet were also observed in the modern Antarctic height reduction sensitivity experiments using the CAM5.1 model (Tewari et al., 2021a). It should be noted that the effect of changes in the surface albedo, sea level, and continental margins, which would undoubtedly occur with such orographic variations, have not been explicitly taken into account in the present idealized simulations. Despite these caveats,

280 we expect that the dynamical influence of the EAIS over the Antarctic presented herein will persist even in their presence.

Another modelling limitation is that the water contained in Antarctica did not get redistributed over the ocean when we reduced the EAIS height. This is because the HadCM3 is a ‘rigid lid’ model, which means the sea-level is essentially fixed. The “-100%EAIS & -60-m land” experiment enables us to assess how pressure changes due to the loss of the EAIS will affect the global temperature (Figure 10). The changes between this experiment and the MPCControl experiment show that the surface air temperature and surface air pressure (Figure 10) both show a similar spatial pattern with the changes between the -100%EAIS and MPCControl experiments. However, the results also show that 1) the pressure difference over the land (Figure 10a) is much smaller than that in Figure 9a, but there is still a pressure difference over the ocean; and 2) the temperature over the land away from Antarctica is still colder (Figure 10b), although is not by as much in Figure 3a. Clearly, the cooling away from Antarctica is robust, and would occur even if sea level changes were accounted for. Therefore, global temperature changes are likely to result from changes in the height of the EAIS.

5 Conclusions

The sensitivity of climate to the height changes of East Antarctic ice sheet during the mid-Pliocene warm period has been conducted using the HadCM3 model. The results show that, due to a successive topographic reduction in the East Antarctic ice sheet, i) the surface air temperature over EAIS increases at a rate of approximately 6 °C per kilometer of EAIS height lost; ii) the precipitation over EAIS increases at a rate of approximately 5% per degree Celsius of temperature; iii) the surface air temperature and the sea surface temperature both decrease over the rest of the globe; and iv) the surface air pressure increases over the East Antarctica, while decreasing elsewhere. Energy balance analyses show that the heat transport, which results from the topography changes of Antarctica, is mainly responsible for the temperature changes.

Data availability

310 The data presented in the Figures can be downloaded from the server located at
the School of Earth and Environment of the University of Leeds. Contact Julia Tindall
(j.c.tindall@leeds.ac.uk) for access.

Author contributions

315 Xiaofang Huang contributes to the experiments, data analysis, idea and draft
paper. Shiling Yang provides the funding acquisition, and helps to revise the draft.
Alan Haywood contributes to the experiments design and helps to revise the draft.
Julia Tindall assists to perform the experiments and helps to revise the draft. Dabang
Jiang helps to revise the draft. All authors make contributions to the paper discussion.

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Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest

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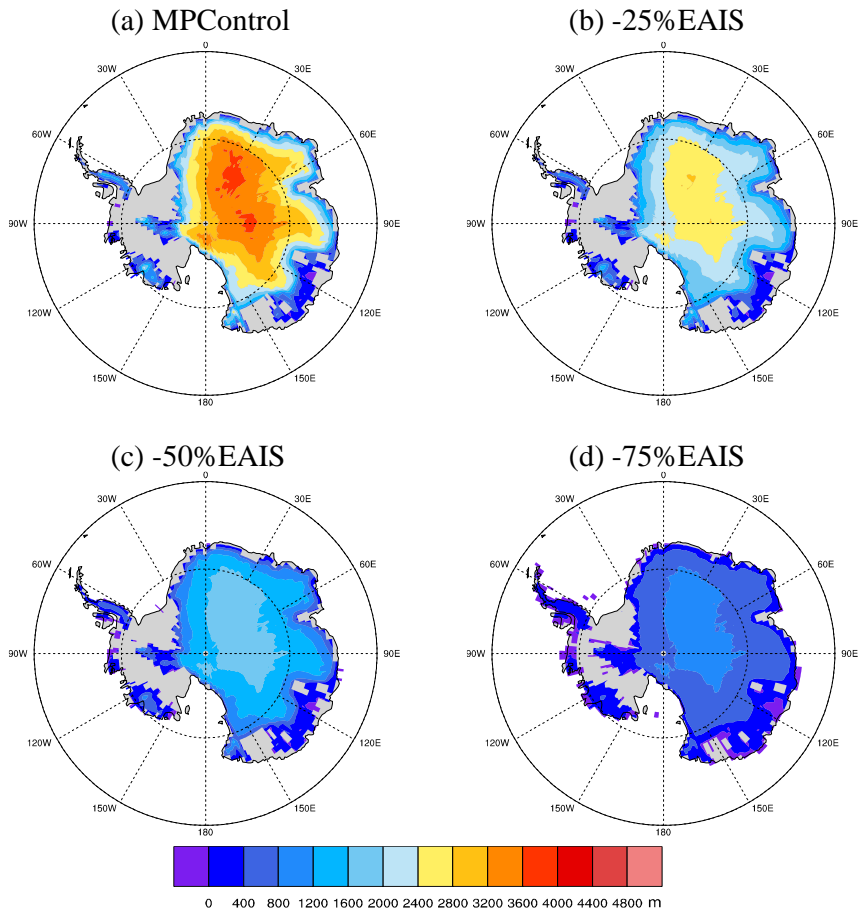
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580 Figure 1. The height of the East Antarctic Ice Sheet for the (a) mid-Pliocene control
 585 experiment, (b) -25%EAIS sensitivity experiment, (c) -50% EAIS sensitivity
 experiment, and (d) -75%EAIS sensitivity experiment. It should be noted that,
 for the -100%EAIS sensitivity experiment, the height of the East Antarctic Ice
 Sheet has been set to be zero while the surface type is still ‘snow’.

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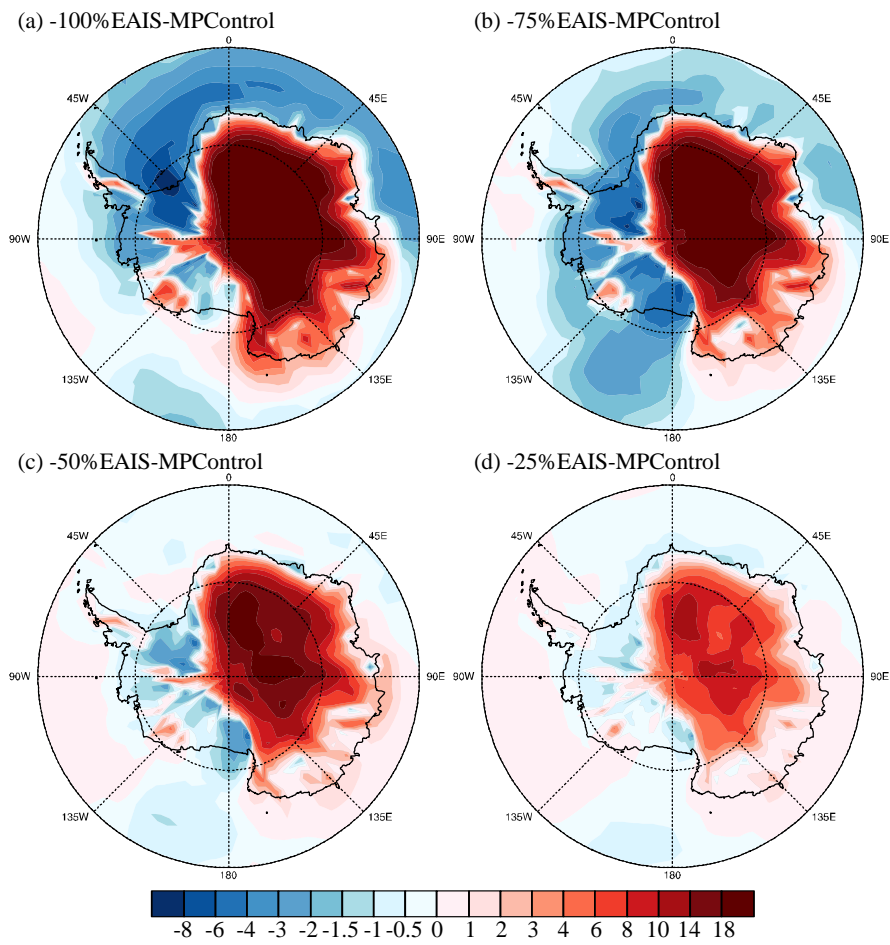


Figure 2. Spatial distribution of the annual mean surface temperature anomalies (units: °C) over Antarctica between sensitivity experiments and MPCControl experiments.

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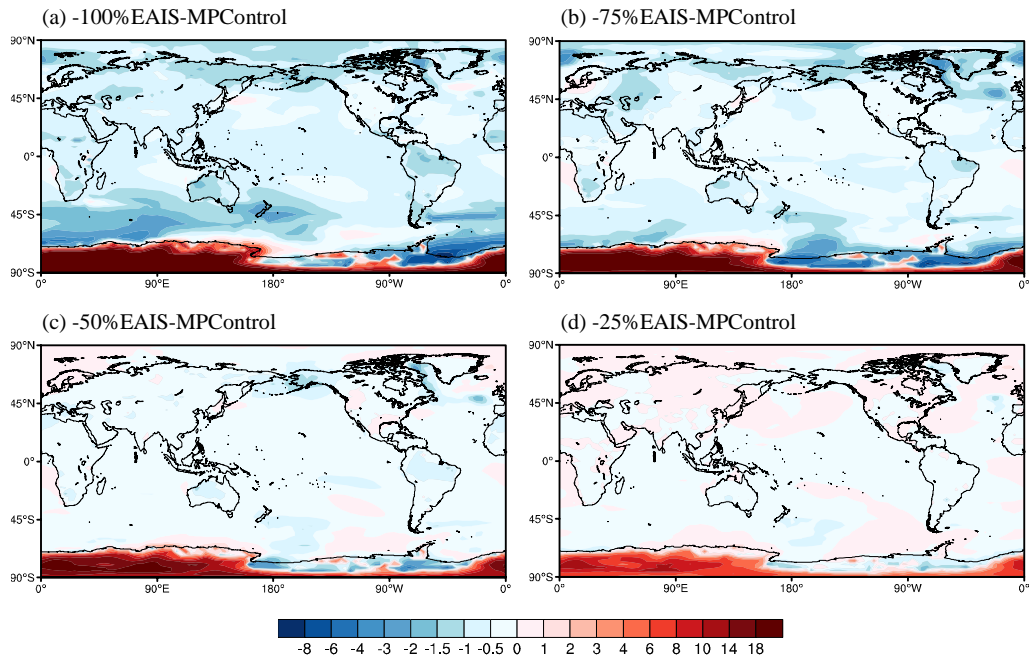
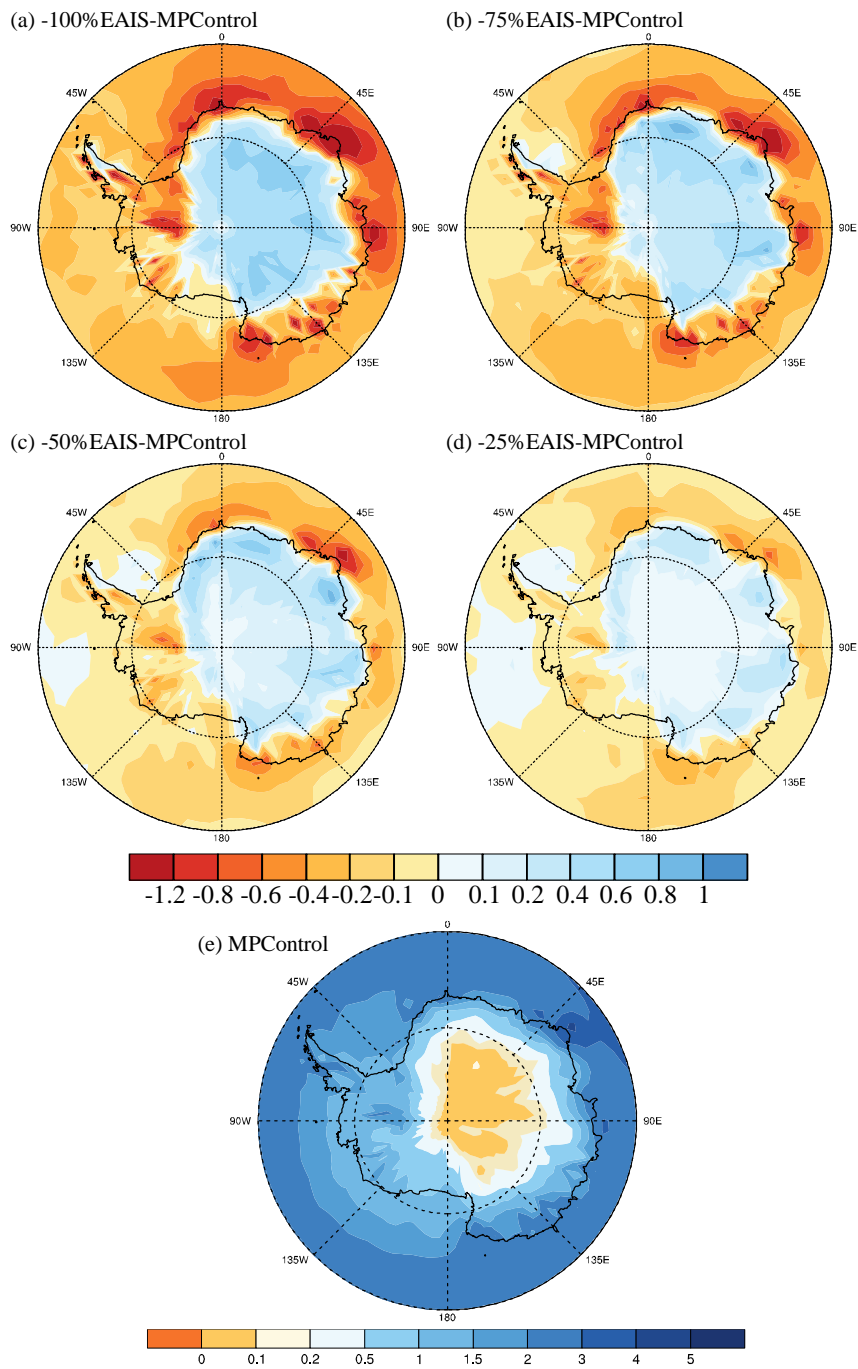
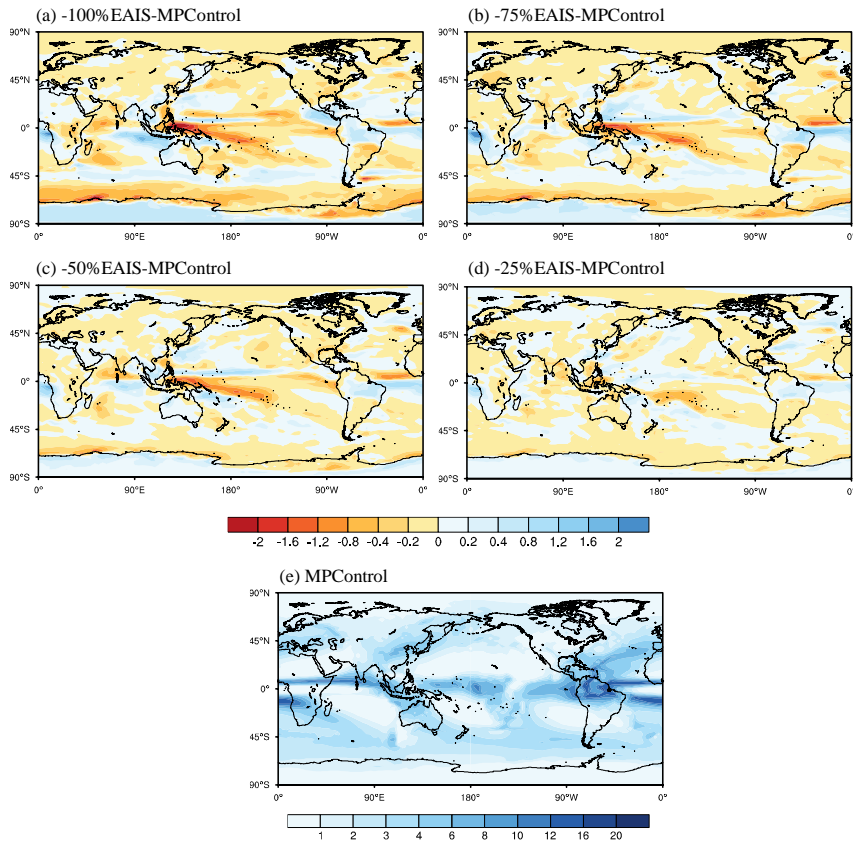


Figure 3. Spatial distribution of the annual mean surface air temperature anomalies (units: °C) over the globe between sensitivity experiments and MPCControl experiments.

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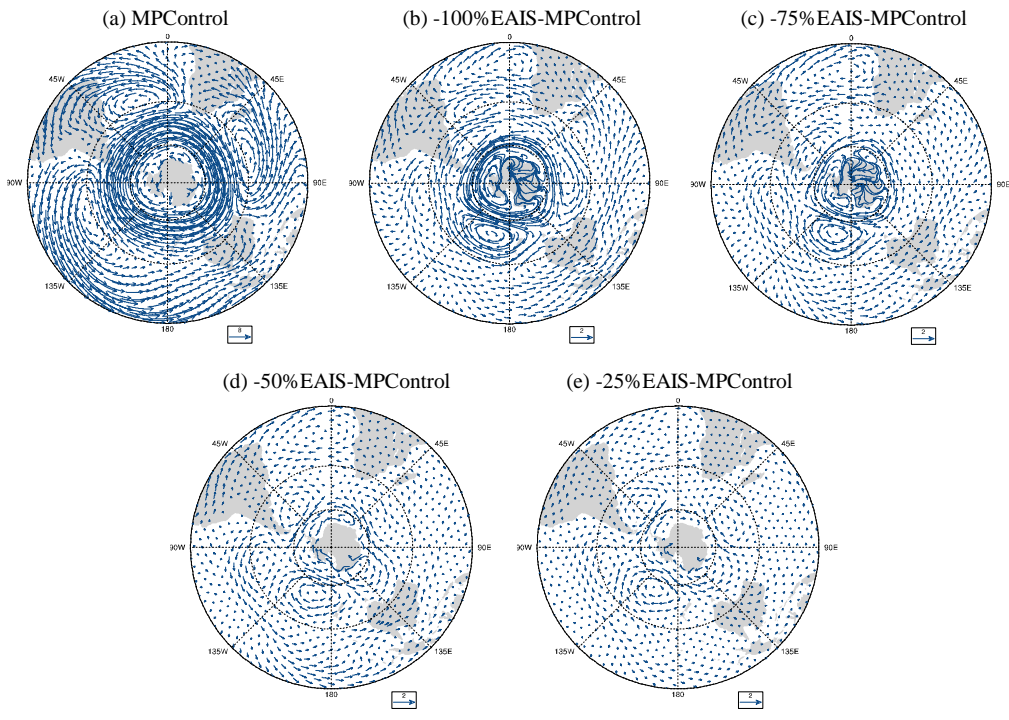


600 Figure 4. Spatial distribution of the annual mean precipitation anomalies (units: mm day^{-1}) over Antarctica between sensitivity experiments and MPControl experiments (a-d), and spatial distribution of the annual mean precipitation over Antarctica for the MPControl experiments (e)



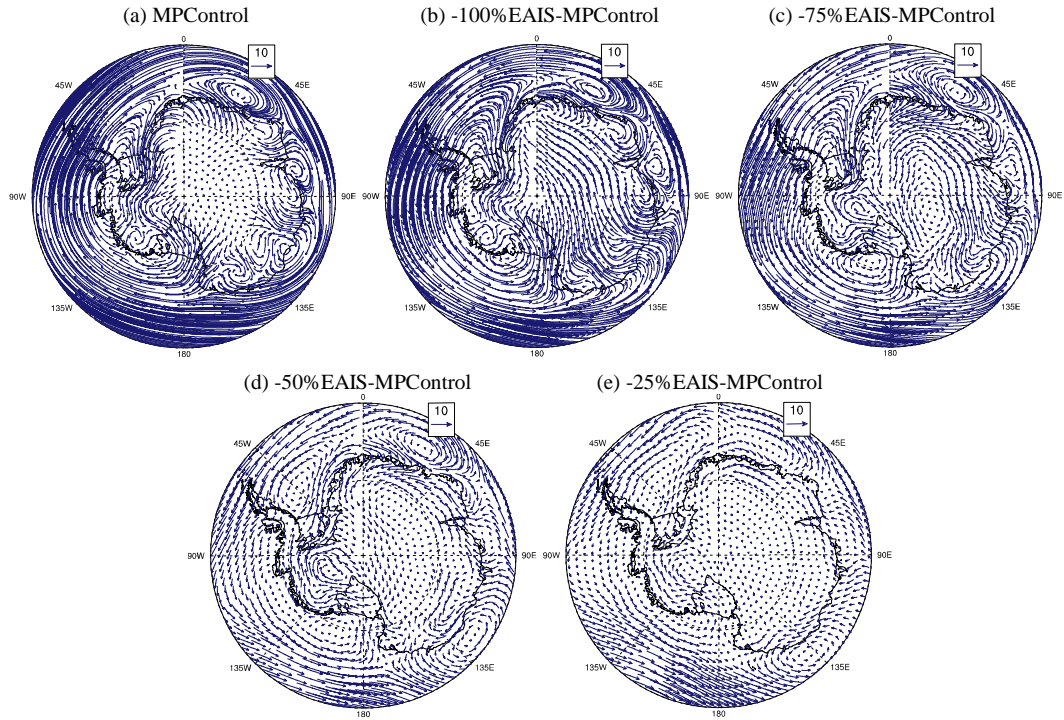
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Figure 5. Spatial distribution of the annual mean precipitation anomalies (units: mm day^{-1}) between sensitivity experiments and MPCControl experiments (a-d), and spatial distribution of the annual mean precipitation for the MPCControl experiments (e).



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Figure 6. Annual mean wind circulation at 850 hPa over the Southern Hemisphere (a; units: m s^{-1}) and its corresponding anomalies in -100%EAIS, -75%EAIS, -50%EAIS, and -25%EAIS, respectively (b-e; units: m s^{-1}).



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Figure 7. Vertically integrated water vapor flux over Antarctica (arrows, units: $\text{kg m}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$) for (a) the MPCControl, and the anomalies (arrows, units: $\text{kg m}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$) for (b) the -100%EAIS relative to the MPCControl, (c) the -75%EAIS relative to the MPCControl, (d) the -50%EAIS relative to the MPCControl, and (e) the -25%EAIS relative to the

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MPCControl.

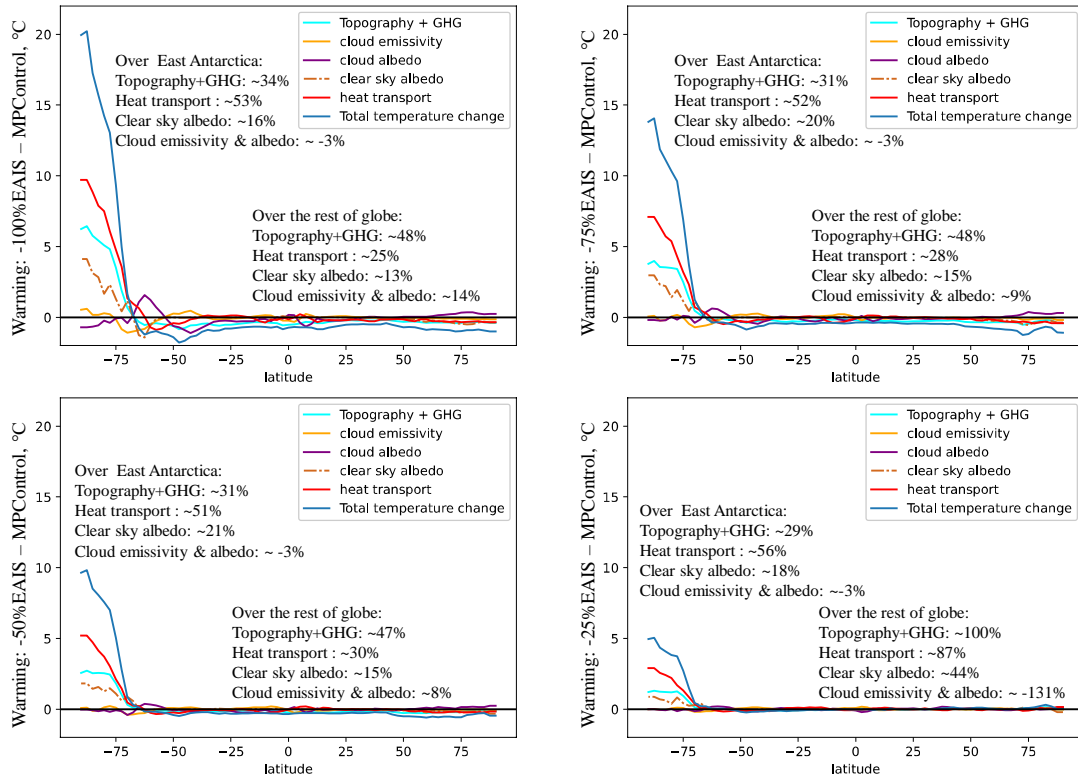
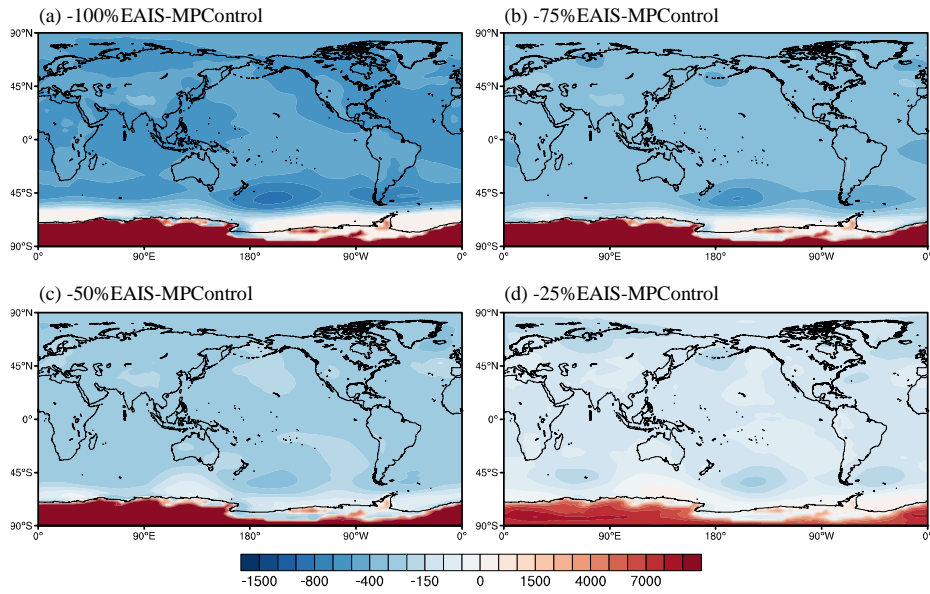
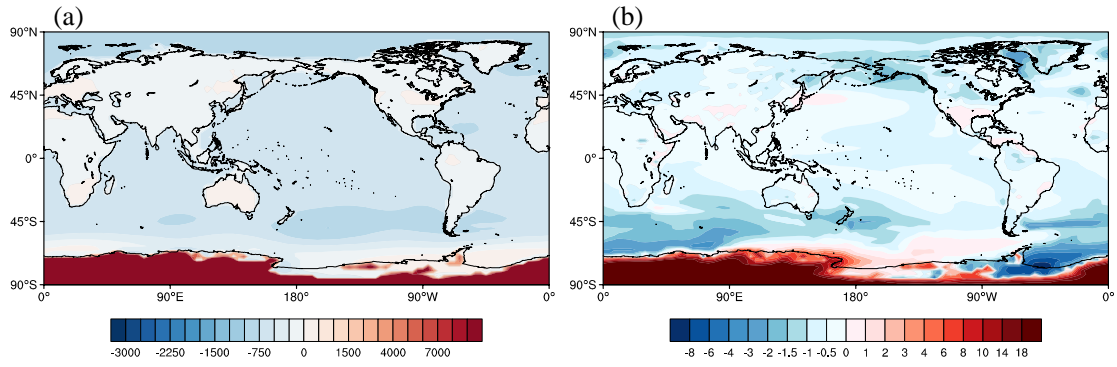


Figure 8. Energy balance analysis between the sensitivity experiments and MPCControl. Plot shows the zonal mean warming/cooling at each latitude, from each of the energy balance components. GHG stands for greenhouse gases. The percentage value represents the contribution of each energy balance component to the temperature changes over the East Antarctica and the rest of globe.



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Figure 9. Spatial distribution of the annual mean surface air pressure anomalies (units: Pa) between sensitivity experiments and MPCControl experiment.



635 Figure 10. Spatial distribution of (a) the annual mean surface air pressure anomalies
 (units: Pa) and (b) the annual mean surface air temperature (units: °C) between the
 new sensitivity experiment and MPCControl experiment. The new sensitivity
 experiment is similar to the -100%EAIS experiment, except artificially raising the sea
 level by reducing the land level (away from Antarctica) by 60m.

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