

Impacts of
anthropogenic and
natural sources on O₃

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This discussion paper is/has been under review for the journal Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics (ACP). Please refer to the corresponding final paper in ACP if available.

Impacts of anthropogenic and natural sources on free tropospheric ozone over the Middle East

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Received: 13 October 2015 – Accepted: 8 December 2015 – Published: 16 December 2015

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Published by Copernicus Publications on behalf of the European Geosciences Union.

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Abstract

Significant progress has been made in identifying the influence of different processes and emissions on the summertime enhancements of free tropospheric ozone (O_3) at northern mid-latitude regions. However, the exact contribution of regional emissions and chemical processing to these summertime enhancements is still not well quantified. Here we focus on quantifying the influence of regional emissions on the summertime O_3 enhancements over the Middle East. We use updated reactive nitrogen (NO_x) emissions from an ensemble Kalman Filter that assimilates satellite observations of nitrogen dioxide (NO_2), O_3 , and carbon monoxide (CO) to provide an improved estimate of O_3 precursor emissions. We then use the adjoint of the GEOS-Chem model with these updated NO_x emissions to show that the global total contribution of lightning NO_x on middle free tropospheric O_3 over the Middle East is about three times larger than that from global anthropogenic sources. The summertime free tropospheric O_3 enhancement is primarily due to Asian NO_x emissions, with approximately equivalent contributions from Asian anthropogenic activities and lightning. In the Middle Eastern lower free troposphere, emissions from European and North American anthropogenic activities and from lightning NO_x are the primary sources of O_3 . This work highlights the critical role of lightning NO_x on northern mid-latitude free tropospheric O_3 and the important effect of the Asian summer monsoon on the export of Asian pollutants.

1 Introduction

O_3 is produced in the troposphere when volatile organic compounds (VOC) and CO are photochemically oxidized in the presence of NO_x . Tropospheric O_3 is an important pollutant and greenhouse gas. It also plays a critical role in determining the oxidizing capacity of the troposphere. The O_3 distribution in the troposphere is strongly influenced by dynamical processes, as well as by the regional chemical sources and sinks of O_3 . Previous studies (e.g., Park et al., 2007; Worden et al., 2009; Vogel et al., 2014)

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have demonstrated that rapid convective transport associated with the Asian monsoon anticyclone can result in significant enhancement of O₃ abundance over Asia, northern Africa and Europe. The stratosphere–troposphere exchange of O₃ also has important effects on the distribution of tropospheric O₃ (e.g., Barth et al., 2013; Neu et al., 2014).

In the northern hemispheric middle latitudes, tropospheric O₃ peaks in the summer (Zanis et al., 2007; Cristofanelli et al., 2014). Liu et al. (2009) and Worden et al. (2009) showed that the summertime maximum in free tropospheric O₃ over the Middle East as observed by the Tropospheric Emission Spectrometer (TES) was consistent with the model predictions of Li et al. (2001). Liu et al. (2009) indicated that the enhancement of free tropospheric O₃ over the Middle East is mainly due to the influence of the Arabian anticyclone in the middle troposphere, which traps O₃ that is produced locally as well as O₃ and its precursors that are transported from rest of Asia. Recent studies (Ricaud et al., 2014; Vogel et al., 2014) demonstrated that the Asian monsoon anticyclone provides an effective pathway to redistribute Asian pollutants globally. An improved understanding about the mechanism of the summertime enhancement of free tropospheric O₃ over the Middle East is thus important as it will provide critical information about the sources and variation of tropospheric O₃ in the Northern Hemisphere.

In this study, we assess the influence of anthropogenic and natural sources of O₃ precursors on free tropospheric O₃ enhancement over the Middle East. During the past decade there have been several studies using data assimilation and inverse modeling approaches to better quantify the emission estimates of O₃ precursors (e.g. Fu et al., 2007; Lamsal et al., 2011; Miyazaki et al., 2012; Jiang et al., 2015a). In order to better represent the emission change in the past decade in our analysis, we adopted the most recent updated NO_x emission estimates from the assimilation study of Miyazaki et al. (2015) for the period of 2005–2012, which employed remote-sensing measurements from OMI (Ozone Monitoring Instrument), MLS (Microwave Limb Sounder), TES and MOPITT (Measurement of Pollution In The Troposphere). Miyazaki et al. (2015) obtained significant bias reductions for O₃ and NO₂, relative to satellite and ozonesonde measurements. Use of their updated NO_x emission estimates

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is, therefore, expected to provide a better simulation of tropospheric O₃ than the Global Emissions Inventory Activity (GEIA) (Benkovitz et al., 1996) used by Liu et al. (2009). In their analysis, Liu et al. (2009) used the tagging capability of the GEOS-Chem model to quantify the regional influence on the Middle East O₃ maximum, based on the linearized O₃ production/loss rate. However, that approach cannot track O₃ sources back to emissions of O₃ precursors and only provides a coarse aggregation of the regional contributions. Here, following Jiang et al. (2015b), we use the adjoint of the GEOS-Chem model to carry out a more detailed sensitivity analysis, which will allow us to better distinguish the contributions of different regions and emission categories to free tropospheric O₃ over the Middle East.

2 GEOS-Chem model with updated surface NO_x emissions

The GEOS-Chem CTM (<http://www.geos-chem.org>) is driven by assimilated meteorological data from the NASA Goddard Earth Observing System (GEOS-5) at the Global Modeling and data Assimilation Office. We used version v34 of the GEOS-Chem adjoint model, which is based on v8-02-01 of GEOS-Chem with relevant updates through v9-01-01. The standard GEOS-Chem chemical mechanism includes 43 tracers, which can simulate detailed tropospheric O₃-NO_x-hydrocarbon chemistry, including the radiative and heterogeneous effects of aerosols. The global anthropogenic emission inventory is EDGAR 3.2FT2000 (Olivier et al., 2001), updated by the following regional emission inventories: the INTEX-B Asia emissions inventory for 2006 (Zhang et al., 2009), the Cooperative Program for Monitoring and Evaluation of the Long-range Transmission of Air Pollutants in Europe (EMEP) inventory for Europe in 2000 (Vestreng et al., 2002), the US Environmental Protection Agency National Emission Inventory (NEI) for 2005 in North America, the Criteria Air Contaminants (CAC) inventory for Canada, and the Big Bend Regional Aerosol and Visibility Observational (BRAVO) Study Emissions Inventory for Mexico (Kuhns et al., 2003). Biomass burning emissions are from the inter-annual GFED3 inventory (van der Werf et al., 2010). The soil NO_x emission scheme is

based on Yienger and Levy (1995) and Wang et al. (1998), as a function of vegetation type, temperature, precipitation history and fertilizer usage. The emissions of biogenic volatile organic compounds (VOCs) are from MEGAN 2.0 (Millet et al., 2008).

We adopted the updated surface NO_x emission estimates from Miyazaki et al. (2015) for the period 2005–2012. Using the combined assimilation of remote-sensing measurements from OMI NO_2 , MLS and TES O_3 , and MOPITT CO, Miyazaki et al. (2015) constrained NO_x emissions as well as lightning NO_x sources and the chemical concentration of various species in the troposphere with the CHASER model (Sudo et al., 2007). The analysis was conducted with a local ensemble transform Kalman filter (LETKF) method, with 30 ensembles and a 450 km horizontal localization scale for surface NO_x emissions. The multispecies data assimilation used in Miyazaki et al. (2015) puts additional constraints on the NO_x emissions through the improvement in atmospheric fields and emission fluxes influencing the NO_x chemistry. In 2005, the assimilation resulted in a 25 % increase in NO_x emissions for Asia, relative to the GEOS-Chem a priori emissions. The adjustments for NO_x emissions from Europe and North America were much smaller. The inversion result was evaluated with independent data from satellite, aircraft, ozonesonde and surface in-situ measurements, which demonstrated large bias reductions after assimilation. For free tropospheric O_3 , the mean model bias relative to ozonesonde measurements was reduced from -2.3 to 0.4 ppb in tropics and -1.4 to 0.9 ppb in the Northern Hemisphere after assimilation, in which the surface NO_x emission optimization played a crucial role in reducing the model bias in the lower and middle troposphere (Miyazaki et al., 2015). It should be noted that we did not use the updated lightning NO_x emissions in this work, because of the larger uncertainties for those emission estimates (e.g., spurious variations were introduced because of the lack of constraints from the TES measurements after 2010). In 2005, the global total lightning NO_x source in the GEOS-Chem simulation is 6.0 Tg N ; the value is within the range of recent best estimates (e.g., $5 \pm 3 \text{ Tg N yr}^{-1}$ in Schumann and Huntrieser, 2007, and $6.3 \pm 1.4 \text{ Tg N yr}^{-1}$ in Miyazaki et al., 2014).

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Figure 1 shows NO_x emissions from anthropogenic activities, lightning, soil and biomass burning emissions in the model. There are strong anthropogenic emissions from eastern Asia, eastern North America and Europe, and the emission strengths are nearly constant between summer and winter. The seasonality of lightning and soil NO_x are similar: more NO_x emission in the summer hemisphere, but the emission strength is lower than that for the anthropogenic sources. The emissions from biomass burning have strong seasonality, generally peaking in the biomass burning seasons.

3 Summertime enhancement of free tropospheric ozone over the Middle East

The TES instrument was launched on NASA's Aura spacecraft on 15 July 2004. The satellite is in a sun-synchronous polar orbit of 705 km and crosses the equator at 01:45 and 13:45 LT. With a footprint of 8 km \times 5 km, TES measures radiances between 3.3–15.4 μm with global coverage of 16 days (Beer et al., 2001) of observations. In the troposphere, TES O_3 profile retrievals have 1–2° of freedom for signal (DOFS). We use data from the “lite” product (<http://tes.jpl.nasa.gov/data/>), which reports volume mixing ratios (VMR) on 26 pressure levels for O_3 . The TES retrievals use a monthly mean profile of the trace gas from the MOZART-4 CTM (chemical transport model), averaged over a 10° latitude \times 60° longitude, as the a priori information. We refer the reader to Jiang et al. (2015b) for more details about the application and evaluation of TES O_3 data.

Figure 2a–d presents the modeled middle free tropospheric (464 hPa) O_3 distribution for March 2005–February 2006. An obvious feature is the low O_3 concentrations over the maritime continent and the Amazon, which is consistent with previous studies using measurements from satellite, ozonesonde and aircraft (Rex et al., 2014; Bela et al., 2015). Over the northern middle latitudes, O_3 concentrations are the highest in summer. The tropospheric O_3 concentrations in the middle troposphere start to increase in spring and then decrease dramatically in fall, which is consistent with seasonal cycle observed at European mountain sites (Zanis et al., 2007; Cristo-

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fanelli et al., 2014). Figure 2e–h shows the modeled middle tropospheric (464 hPa) O₃ smoothed with the TES averaging kernels and a priori. The unsmoothed (Fig. 2a–d) and smoothed (Fig. 2e–h) O₃ distribution are highly consistent, although there is a small difference in the magnitude. Figure 2i–l presents the TES O₃ retrievals at 464 hPa, which demonstrates good agreement globally with respect to the model.

Figure 3 shows the monthly variation of mean O₃ over the Middle East at different levels. In the lower and middle troposphere, the relative difference between the model and data is generally less than 10%, whereas the bias is a little larger in the upper troposphere. Figure 3 shows significant and moderate O₃ enhancement in the middle and lower troposphere, respectively, over the Middle East. On the contrary, O₃ concentrations in the upper troposphere are at a minimum in summer, implying altitude dependent mechanisms for the O₃ variations. Obtaining a better understanding of these mechanisms is important because it provides critical insights about the sources and variations of tropospheric O₃ in the Northern Hemisphere.

4 Impact of anthropogenic and natural sources on the Middle East ozone

Liu et al. (2009) indicated that O₃ production over the Middle East and Asia both contribute about 30% of free tropospheric O₃ over the Middle East in July 2005. However, due to the limitation of the tagging approach that they employed, they are not able to obtain a detailed description of the sensitivity of Middle East O₃ to the precursors emissions. In this section, we will use the adjoint of the full-chemistry GEOS-Chem model (Henze et al., 2007) to quantify O₃ source contributions, similar to previous studies (Lapina et al., 2014; Jiang et al., 2015b). The adjoint model, which includes both chemistry and transport, is run backwards to computationally efficiently provide sensitivities with respect to each of the model's emissions from each species, sector, and grid cell.

Figure 4 shows the response of O₃ in the lower free troposphere (700–600 hPa) and middle troposphere (450–350 hPa) over the Middle East (30–60° E, 20–40° N) to O₃

precursor emission perturbation for June–August 2005. The response can be explained as the mean change (unit of ppbv) of regional mean O₃ due to 10 % increase of O₃ precursor emissions in a particular grid assuming unchanged chemical environment. For example, one particular grid with response 0.02 ppb implies mean free tropospheric O₃ over the Middle East will be increased by 0.02 ppb, if the O₃ precursor emission in this grid is increased by 10 % under current chemical regime.

In the middle troposphere, anthropogenic NO_x emissions from Asia, particularly from India, are the primary source of O₃ precursors and subsequent O₃ production (Fig. 4a). In contrast, O₃ and O₃ production in the lower free troposphere depends primarily on NO_x emissions in the Middle East, but with significant contributions from natural and anthropogenic sources elsewhere in the Northern Hemisphere. This distinct difference in source regions for O₃, between the middle and lower free troposphere, highlights the complex transport pathways that bring air from other parts of the world to this region (e.g. Liu et al., 2011; Safieddine et al., 2014). For both the lower and middle free troposphere, the contributions from other source types, primarily NO_x from biofuel and soil emissions, or biomass burning, are not significant in this season. The contributions from anthropogenic CO and biogenic isoprene are small in this season, indicating that O₃ production is primarily NO_x limited, and thus, we will focus on the contributions of NO_x to O₃ in the following discussions.

Table 1 provides the seasonal mean value of the response of Middle Eastern O₃ in the middle troposphere (450–350 hPa) to NO_x perturbations between March 2005–February 2006. The analysis shows a maximum, total global response (1.85 ppb) in summer, corresponding to the summertime O₃ maximum. The total global contribution from lightning NO_x is about three times larger than that from anthropogenic emissions in all seasons, implying that lightning NO_x is the dominant source for free tropospheric O₃ over the Middle East, which is consistent with Liu et al. (2009), who indicated that most free tropospheric O₃ (about 75 %) over the Middle East are produced in free troposphere (700 hPa–tropopause).

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During June–August 2005, the region that makes the largest contributions to O₃ in the middle troposphere over the Middle East is Asia (0.93 ppb), followed by North America and Europe (0.45 ppb). The contribution from Middle Eastern local emissions is much small (0.12 ppb), only representing 13% of Asian contribution. In contrast, Liu et al. (2009) indicated that O₃ production (as opposed to emissions) over the Middle East and Asia has similar contributions on free tropospheric O₃, and the contribution from North America and Europe is negligible. The large discrepancy between these two studies implies that most O₃ produced over the Middle East is due to imported O₃ precursors from long-range transport, which would not be accounted for with the method employed by Liu et al. (2009), underscoring the significant role of long-range transport of O₃ precursors on free tropospheric O₃ production.

There are pronounced discrepancies between the seasonality of the regional contributions. For Asia, the total contribution to O₃ in the Middle Eastern middle troposphere is 0.93 ppb in summer, which is about three times larger than in spring (0.35 ppb) and fall (0.37 ppb). In contrast, the total contribution of North American and European is 0.45 ppb in summer, similar as that in spring (0.45 ppb) and fall (0.41 ppb); the total contribution from the rest of the world is minimum in summer. The discrepancy in the seasonal variations suggests that Asian emissions are the main sources driving the summertime O₃ maximum over the Middle East. Asian anthropogenic and lightning NO_x emissions have similar impacts, 0.40 and 0.53 ppb, respectively, on the Middle Eastern summertime O₃. It should be noted that the influence from stratosphere-troposphere exchange is not assessed in this work, as previous studies (Li et al., 2001; Liu et al., 2009) have demonstrated that the contribution from stratospheric O₃ to the summertime O₃ enhancement is small.

To better understand the transport of Asian emissions to the Middle East, we conducted an analysis using an idealized CO-like tracer. We performed a tagged-CO simulation for the periods March–May and June–August 2005. Only combustion CO emissions (fossil fuel, biofuel and biomass burning) are included over India and southeast Asia, as shown in Fig. 5. The CO emission in March–May 2005 is set as the same

as that in June–August 2005. Following Jiang et al. (2015a), we assume a constant and uniform timescale for loss of 30 days. The simulations were initialized with a uniformly low abundance of 1 pptv for the tracer. In June–August 2005, our analysis shows significant influence from transport of Asian emissions to the upper free troposphere (Fig. 5c), associated with the Tibetan anti-cyclone.

Figure 5d–f shows the difference of CO-like tracer concentrations between June–August and March–May 2005. Because the imposed emissions and sink for the tracer are constant, these differences are completely driven by seasonal variations in transport. Compared to spring, the transport of Asian emissions in summer has a moderate impact in the middle troposphere (Fig. 5e), but a significant influence in the upper troposphere (Fig. 5d). This shows the transport pathway during the Asian summer monsoon season is as follows: pollutants are lifted into upper troposphere through convection (e.g. Park et al., 2007; Worden et al., 2009) and trapped within the Tibetan anti-cyclone (e.g. Li et al., 2001). On the other hand, the enhancement of summertime O₃ over the Middle East is at a maximum in the middle free troposphere (Fig. 3). This altitude discrepancy suggests the existence of other process besides Asian summer monsoon. As mentioned in the Introduction, Liu et al. (2009) indicated that the Arabian anti-cyclone in the middle troposphere plays an important role in trapping the subsided O₃ and its precursors in the Middle East, which is consistent with our results.

Table 2 provides the seasonal mean value of the O₃ response in the Middle Eastern lower free troposphere (700–600 hPa) to regional NO_x emissions. During June–August 2005, the largest contribution (0.63 ppb) to lower tropospheric O₃ over the Middle East is from North American and European emissions, followed by Middle Eastern local emissions (0.37 ppb). The large differences in regional contributions with altitude demonstrate the significant influence of dynamics on the distribution of free tropospheric O₃. The global contribution from lightning NO_x is about 25–75 % larger than that from anthropogenic emissions, implying lightning still plays an important role at these lower altitudes. Note that the lightning NO_x parameterization used in GEOS-Chem may have large uncertainties (e.g., Schumann and Huntrieser, 2007) and have

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European emissions. The middle tropospheric O₃ maximum in summer is driven by enhancement of the Asian contribution, with Asian anthropogenic and lightning NO_x emissions having similar contributions to the enhanced O₃. Dynamics plays a critical role on the buildup of middle free tropospheric O₃ over the Middle East: O₃ and its precursors are lifted into upper troposphere through convection, trapped within the Tibetan anti-cyclone, and descend over the Middle East, getting trapped within the Arabian anti-cyclone. In contrast, O₃ in the lower free troposphere is influenced primarily by O₃ precursor emissions in the Middle East, with significant contributions from natural and anthropogenic sources elsewhere in the Northern Hemisphere. This distinct difference in source regions for O₃ and its precursors, and the altitude variations of the regional influences, highlights the complex transport pathways that bring air from other parts of the world to this region.

Although our conclusions are based on a analysis in 2005, the consistency between our 2005 analysis and an eight-year (2005–2012) climatology suggests that our analysis provides a good representation for the free tropospheric O₃ variations over the Middle East. However, noticeable discrepancies were obtained for some regional contributions; for example, the eight-year mean Asian contribution is 10 % lower than that in 2005. In future studies, we will investigate the influences of changes in emissions and interannual variations in the meteorological conditions on free tropospheric O₃ over the Middle East and across the Northern Hemisphere to provide critical information for enhanced understanding of the processes contributing to variations in tropospheric O₃.

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Table 1. Response of middle free tropospheric (450–350 hPa) O₃ over Middle East Asia (30–60° E, 20–40° N) to NO_x emission perturbation in the period of March 2005–February 2006. The value can be explained as the mean change (unit of ppbv) of regional mean O₃ due to 10% increase of NO_x emission in a particular region (Asia, North America + Europe, Middle East Asia, and Rest of World) assuming unchanged chemical environment. The last column shows the multi-year mean value for June–August 2005–2012.

Middle Free Troposphere		Jun–Aug	Sep–Nov	Dec–Feb	Mar–May	Jun–Aug 2005–2012
Asia	Anthro	0.40	0.17	0.09	0.13	0.38
	Lightning	0.53	0.21	0.08	0.22	0.47
	Total	0.93	0.37	0.17	0.35	0.85
NA + EU	Anthro	0.11	0.13	0.06	0.14	0.11
	Lightning	0.34	0.28	0.10	0.31	0.35
	Total	0.45	0.41	0.16	0.45	0.46
Middle East	Anthro	0.04	0.03	0.01	0.03	0.07
	Lightning	0.08	0.03	0.01	0.05	0.08
	Total	0.12	0.05	0.02	0.08	0.15
Rest of World	Anthro	0.01	0.04	0.04	0.03	0.02
	Lightning	0.33	0.55	0.46	0.40	0.33
	Total	0.34	0.58	0.51	0.43	0.35
Global	Anthro	0.57	0.36	0.20	0.34	0.58
	Lightning	1.28	1.06	0.65	0.98	1.23
	Total	1.85	1.42	0.85	1.32	1.81
Others		0.36	0.40	0.32	0.35	0.38

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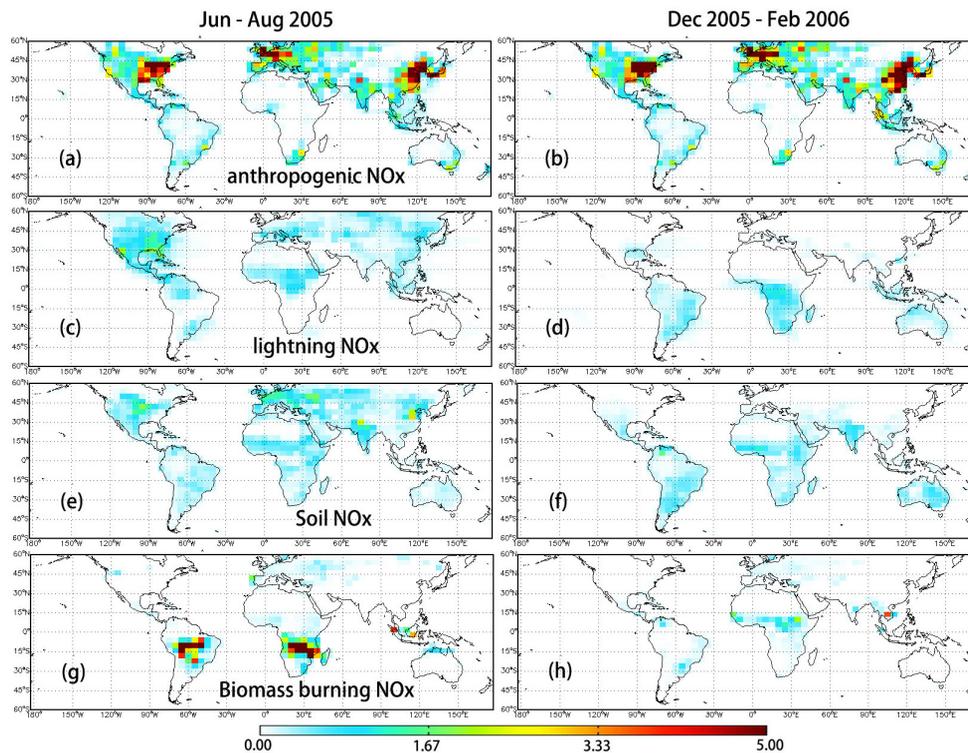


Figure 1. Seasonal mean NO_x emission from anthropogenic, lightning, soil and biomass burning. The unit is $10^{10} \text{ molec cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$.

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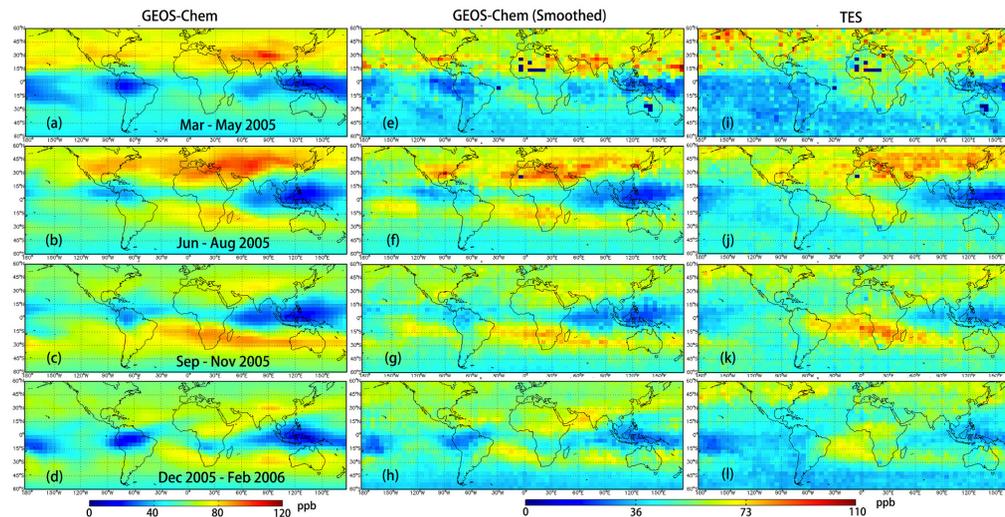


Figure 2. Seasonal mean middle free tropospheric O₃ (464 hPa) in the period of March 2005–February 2006. (a–d) GEOS-Chem simulation. (e–h) GEOS-Chem simulation smoothed with TES averaging kernel and a priori. (i–l) TES O₃ retrievals.

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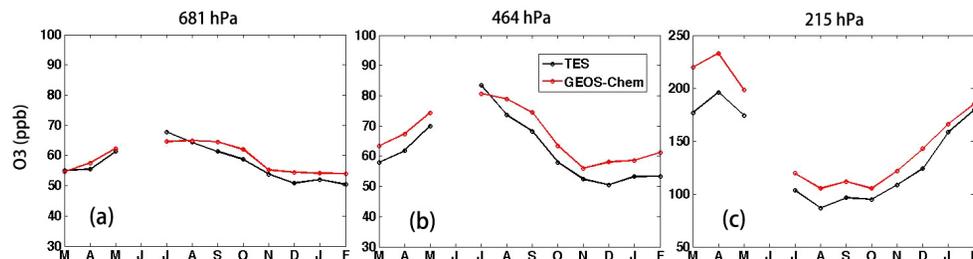


Figure 3. Monthly mean O₃ concentration for lower free troposphere (681 hPa), middle free troposphere (464 hPa) and upper free troposphere (215 hPa) in the period of March 2005–February 2006 over Middle East Asia (blue box in Fig. 4) for TES O₃ retrievals and GEOS-Chem simulation (smoothed with TES averaging kernel and a priori). There is no TES data available in June 2005.

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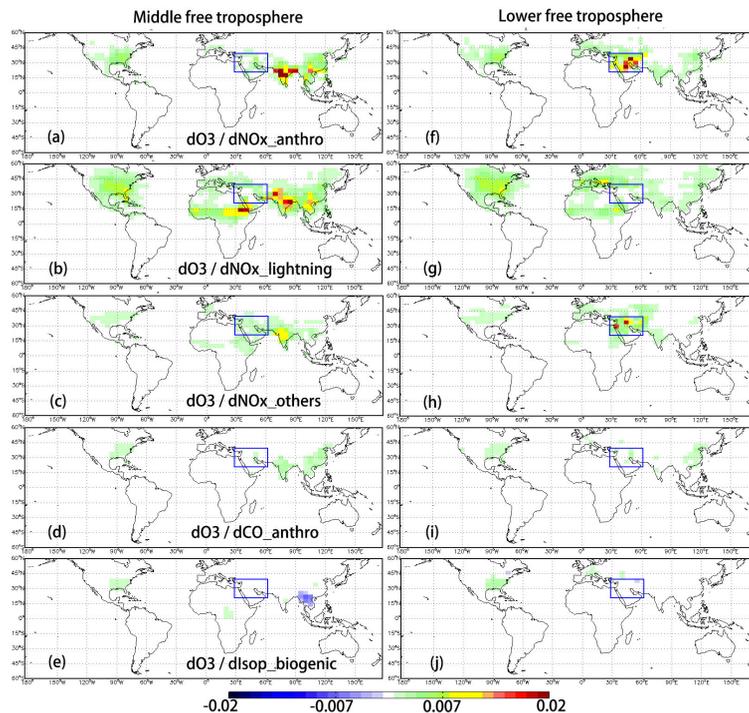


Figure 4. Response of middle free tropospheric (450–350 hPa) and lower free tropospheric (700–600 hPa) O₃ over Middle East Asia (blue box) to precursor emission perturbation from anthropogenic NO_x, lightning NO_x, other NO_x sources (biomass burning, biofuel and soil NO_x), anthropogenic CO and biogenic isoprene, for June–August 2005. The response can be explained as the mean change (unit of ppbv) of regional mean O₃ due to 10% increase of precursor emissions in a particular grid assuming unchanged chemical environment.

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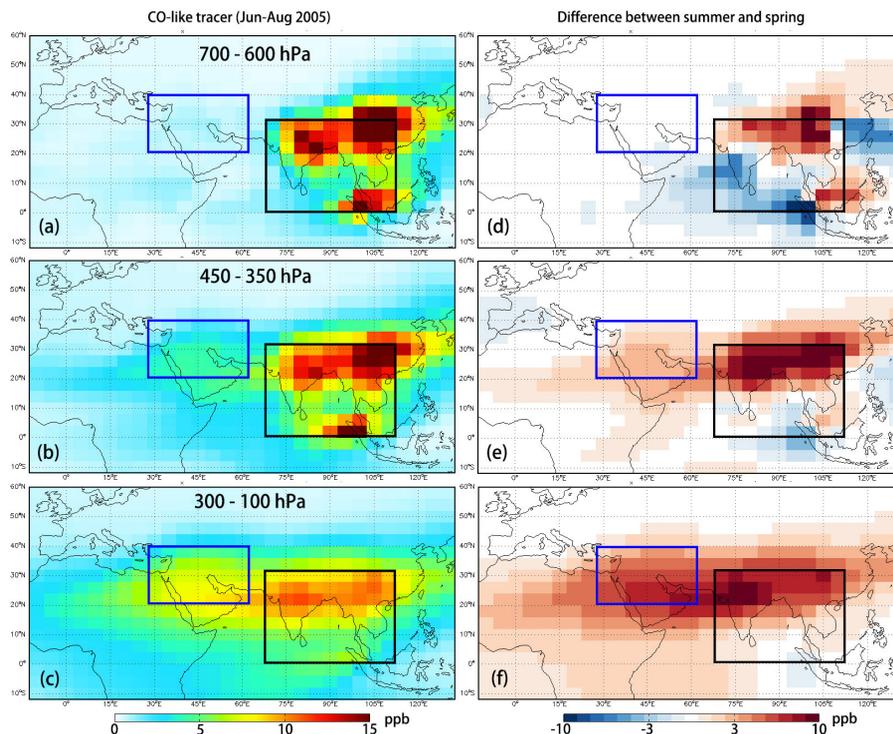


Figure 5. (a–c) Distribution of CO-like tracer in June–August 2005 in lower free troposphere (700–600 hPa), middle free tropospheric (450–350 hPa) and upper free tropospheric (300–100 hPa). The blue box defines the Middle East domain. The black box defines the region where CO was released from combustion sources only (fossil fuel, biofuel and biomass burning). **(d–f)** Difference of CO-like tracer concentration between June–August and March–May 2005. The CO emission in March–May 2005 is set as the same as that in June–August 2005.

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