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#### 1 **Title**

Posterior tibial slope is independent of coronal plane knee alignment and needs to
be assessed to determine knee phenotype

4

5 Abstract

### 6 Introduction

7 Personalized total knee arthroplasty (TKA) alignment has gained popularity due to its 8 perceived advantages. Results are usually reported using the Coronal Plane Alignment 9 of the Knee (CPAK) system. However, CPAK takes into account only the coronal plane 10 alignment and ignores posterior tibial slope (PTS), a key determinant of sagittal plane 11 alignment impacting knee biomechanics and clinical outcomes. It is not known if the 12 distribution of PTS is similar across different CPAK types and if there is a variation 13 across ethnicities. This study investigates the relationship between PTS and CPAK 14 classifications. 15 **Materials and Methods** 16 A retrospective analysis was conducted on long-leg anteroposterior and lateral 17 radiographs from 420 patients (747 legs) of Japanese, Chinese, and Indian origin. Coronal alignment was classified using CPAK, and sagittal alignment was assessed via 18 19 PTS. 20 Results 21 Weak or no correlations between CPAK and PTS was identified across all groups, 22 indicating that coronal and sagittal alignments are largely independent. Significant ethnic

23 differences were observed in PTS with Indian patients showing the steepest PTS and

24	Japanese the flattest. Sex differences in PTS were significant only among Chinese
25	patients.
26	Conclusion
27	PTS varies significantly amongst different ethnicities and has no correlation to
28	individual CPAK types. The independence of sagittal and coronal alignments
29	underscores the need for a biplanar approach in knee phenotype assessment and
30	personalized TKA strategies.
31	
32	Keywords:
33	Posterior tibial slope (PTS), Osteoarthritis, Knee Joint, Arthroplasty, Replacement
34	Coronal alignment, sagittal alignment
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#### 48 Introduction

In the total knee arthroplasty (TKA), patient dissatisfaction following an uncomplicated primary procedure is well documented, with an average rate of 10 to 20%(1). To decrease this dissatisfaction, concepts of personalized alignment targets has been developed and implemented in practice(2-4). Indeed only up to 17% of native knees have a neutral mechanical alignment (MA) i.e. a straight leg where the line joining the centre of the femoral head to the centre of the ankle passes through the centre of the intercondylar notch (5, 6).

56 To reproduce the native knee's pre-arthritic alignment, various classification systems have 57 been developed which label each knee's phenotype, thereby providing the surgeon targets 58 to aim for to try and reproduce the native knee anatomy. In 2018, Lin proposed a 59 classification system comprising 27 potential knee phenotypes, of which only five were 60 considered clinically relevant(7). Variations on this framework have since been 61 introduced, including the Functional Knee Phenotype classification(2), the Coronal Plane 62 Alignment of the Knee (CPAK) classification(5), mCPAK classification(8) and the Coronal Extraarticular Deformity Phenotype (CEDP) classification(9). A key limitation 63 64 of these classification systems is that they categorize knees based solely on their coronal 65 plane alignment. In reality, a replaced knee rarely fails due to coronal malalignment alone, 66 and several studies have shown equal or even better implant survival in patients with 67 coronal plane malalignment to those with well-aligned TKA(10, 11).

To date, all classification systems have relied on plain radiographs, which are twodimensional (2D) representations of three-dimensional (3D) anatomical structures. However, these 2D images can be misleading due to observer variability, technical limitations (radiographs are not always perfectly standardized), subtle anatomical

72 differences between individuals, and rotational or projectional variations. Recent reviews 73 have further highlighted the substantial variability in methods used for 3D leg alignment 74 analysis, underscoring the lack of consensus on how to derive axes and joint orientations 75 from 3D bone models(12). This variability prevents the establishment of universal 76 reference values and makes it difficult to compare alignment parameters across 77 studies(13-15). Importantly, to achieve a comprehensive, biplanar assessment of knee 78 alignment, sagittal plane alignment must also be evaluated in addition to coronal plane 79 alignment. However, it remains unclear whether there is any correlation between sagittal 80 and coronal plane alignment in native knees. The primary aim of this research is to 81 investigate whether a correlation exists between coronal and sagittal knee alignment. The 82 secondary aim is to analyse and understand differences in posterior tibial slope (PTS) 83 among various racial groups.

84

#### 85 Materials and Methods

#### 86 Patient enrollment

87 This study was retrospective analysis of prospectively collected data from three centers. 88 The institutional review board of the ethics committee at the individual institution 89 approved the study. The inclusion criteria included consecutive series of Japanese, Chinese and Indian patients who visited their respective outpatient hospital for knee-90 91 related complaints and underwent weight-bearing anterior to posterior long-leg 92 radiograph (APLLR), either a full-length lateral x-ray or a full-length CT scan as part of 93 their radiological assessment. Accurate assessment of PTS is only possible on a full-94 length radiographic image as demonstrated by Hees and Garra(16, 17). The accuracy and 95 precision of PTS measurements improve as the length of the tibia used to define the

anatomical axis increases. Because when anterior tibial bowing is pronounced, PTS
measured on short knee radiographs tends to be underestimated compared to
measurements taken using the full-length knee radiographs.

For the Chinese and Indian patients, weight-bearing APLLR and long-leg lateral views
including hip, knee, and ankle joints were available. For the Japanese patients, weightbearing APLLR and full lower limb CT were available.

We collected anonymized imaging data at a single centre and measurements were independently performed by two orthopaedic specialists. We excluded patients with incomplete datasets and those with evidence of previous bony trauma or surgery.

105

### 106 Radiograph measurements

### 107 Coronal alignment

108 For coronal alignment, the coronal plane alignment of the knee (CPAK) classification

109 was selected and the angles required for this classification were measured

110 accordingly(5). The mechanical hip-knee-ankle (mHKA) angle was defined as the angle

111 formed by the intersection of the mechanical axes of the femur and tibia. The

112 mechanical lateral distal femoral angle (mLDFA) was defined as the lateral angle

113 between the femoral mechanical axis and the joint line of the distal femur. The

114 mechanical medial proximal tibial angle (mMPTA) was defined as the medial angle

between the tibial mechanical axis and the joint line of the proximal tibia(5). The

arithmetic hip-knee-ankle angle (aHKA), as described by Macdessi(18) is calculated

117 from the mLDFA and the mMPTA. Calculate aHKA and the knee joint line obliquity

118 (JLO) based on formulas; aHKA = mMPTA - mLDFA, and JLO = mMPTA +

119 mLDFA(5).

#### 120 Sagittal alignment

121 The medial proximal tibial joint orientation line was defined as the tangent to the

- 122 deepest point of the medial plateau concavity(19) for the measurement of medial PTS.
- 123 The proximal circle was positioned just distal to the tibial tuberosity, and the distal

124 circle was positioned just proximal to the distal tibial diaphysis (20). The anatomical

125 posterior proximal tibial angle (aPPTA) was measured as the acute angle formed

126 between the perpendicular to the lateral tibial central anatomical axis and the proximal

- 127 tibial joint orientation line. PTS was defined as 90°- aPPTA. (Fig.1)
- 128 Patients were categorized into classifications based on their PTS which were divided
- 129 into intervals of four degrees as follows: Group A: less than 4.0°, Group B: 4.1° to 8.0°,

130 Group C: 8.1° to 12.0°, Group D: 12.1° to 16.0°, Group E: 16.1° to 20.0° and Group F:

131 greater than 20.0°. These intervals were determined arbitrarily as part of the study

132 design, as no established precedent for PTS grouping exists in the current literature.

### 133 Data Analyses

134 Data are presented as mean values with standard deviation (SD). Group differences

135 were evaluated using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Fisher's exact test

136 with Bonferroni post hoc analysis. All statistical analyses were performed using EZR

137 software (<u>http://www.jichi.ac.jp/saitama-sct/SaitamaHP.files/statmed.html</u>) (21).

The necessary sample size for inter-observer and intra-observer reliability calculations was based on Zou's method, using an intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) effect size of 0.8, a two-tailed significance level ( $\alpha$ ) of 0.05, and a power ( $\beta$ ) of 0.8(19). Inter- and intra-observer reliability was assessed using a random two-way, single-measure ICC (ICC(2,1)) to evaluate agreement between observations (22). According to Koo and Li's guidelines(22). ICC values above 0.9 indicate excellent reproducibility, values between 0.75 and 0.9 indicate good reproducibility, and values between 0.5 and 0.75 indicate
moderate reproducibility.(22). We confirmed the ICC for the Japanese and Chinese
groups, which had a larger number of cases. The relationship between CPAK and PTS
was evaluated for each ethnicity using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient and
Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient.

149

150 Results

151 We included in 147 Japanese patients (288 legs: 148 men and 140 women), with a mean

age of  $43.9 \pm 19.6$  years, 200 Chinese patients (324 legs: 71 men and 253 women), with

153 a mean age of  $63.8 \pm 10.3$  years and 73 Indian patients (135 legs: 60 men and 75

154 women), with a mean age of  $29.2 \pm 4.0$  years. There were significant differences among

155 the three ethnic groups in terms of PTS: Japanese:  $7.9 \pm 3.6^{\circ}$ , Chinese:  $10.3 \pm 4.9^{\circ}$ ,

156 Indian:  $13.8 \pm 4.1^{\circ}$ . Post hoc analyses further revealed significant differences between 157 each ethnicity (Table.1).

158 One-way ANOVA demonstrated significant differences among the three groups in age,

159 mLDFA, mMPTA, aHKA, JLO and PTS. Post hoc analyses showed no significant

160 differences between Chinese and Indian in mLDFA, mMPTA, aHKA and JLO.

161 Fisher's exact test identified significant differences among the three ethnicities in terms

162 of sex, CPAK, and PTS classification. Post hoc analyses showed significant differences

163 between each pair of countries in CPAK and PTS classification. However, regarding

sex, there was no significant difference between Japanese and Indian groups.

- 165 Inter- and intra-observer reliability for PTS were 0.91(95% Confidence interval (CI):
- 166 0.85 0.93, P<0.001) in PTS of Japanese patients. Inter- and intra-observer reliability

167 for PTS were 0.85(95% CI: 0.50 – 0.96, P<0.001) and 0.76(95% CI: 0.65 – 0.84,

P<0.001), respectively in PTS of Chinese patients. Both ICC values indicated good</li>
reproducibility.

170 We analyzed the distribution of PTS across CPAK types in all three ethnic groups.

171 (Table.2)

172 For all patients combined, the Spearman correlation coefficient between CPAK and

173 PTS was 0.056 (p = 0.114), and the Pearson correlation coefficient was 0.038 (p =

174 0.283) indicating very low and non-significant correlations.

- 175 In Japanese patients, Spearman correlation coefficient was -0.153 (p = 0.076), and the
- 176 Pearson correlation coefficient was -0.176 (p = 0.041). While both indicated a very
- 177 weak negative correlation, only the Pearson correlation reached statistical significance.
- 178 In Chinese patients, Spearman correlation coefficient was -0.086 (p = 0.123), and the
- 179 Pearson correlation coefficient was -0.092 (p = 0.100), both extremely low and not
- 180 statistically significant.
- In Indian patients, Spearman correlation coefficient was -0.153 (p = 0.076), and the

182 Pearson correlation coefficient was -0.176 (p = 0.041). Again, the Spearman result

183 suggested a weak, non-significant negative correlation, whereas the Pearson result

184 showed a weak negative correlation with statistical significance.

- 185 Mean PTS values and PTS classification rates are presented in Table 3, and detailed
- 186 PTS distributions across CPAK categories are shown in Table 4. (Table.3, 4)
- 187

188

### 189 **Discussion**

190 This study demonstrated significant differences in PTS across different ethnicities and 191 found no meaningful correlation between coronal and sagittal plane alignment. These findings suggest that evaluating coronal plane alignment alone as a measure of kneephenotype is insufficient and, in some cases, potentially misleading.

Accurate and reproducible assessment of both coronal and sagittal alignment is essential in TKA, including during preoperative planning, surgical execution, and postoperative avaluation(23).

Historically, surgical strategies have focused predominantly on coronal alignment, guided by phenotyping classifications such as the CPAK system(5). While CPAK offers a structured framework, its two-dimensional nature limits its ability to capture the complexity of three-dimensional alignment and segmental deformities. Previous reports have highlighted CPAK's limited accuracy in identifying joint line apex(24) and inability to differentiate femoral from tibial deformities(25), raising concerns about its clinical applicability in surgical planning(26).

204 To address these limitations, never systems such as the Functional Knee Phenotype 205 Classification(27) have been developed, incorporating coronal variables like HKA, 206 femoral mechanical angle (FMA), and tibial mechanical angle (TMA). This system 207 allows for up to 125 possible phenotypes(2) and has shown better correlation with 208 anatomical variability across diverse populations, offering greater reproducibility and 209 clinical relevance(28-30). Similarly, the CEDP classification(9) builds upon CPAK by 210 accounting for segmental coronal derformities, emphasizing the importance of individual 211 femoral and tibial alignment in surgical decision making.

Despite these advances, sagittal alignment has received comparatively little attention, and currently, no well-established measurement methods or classification systems exist for sagittal plane assessment. To help address this gap, we employed a standardized measurement method for PTS, ensuring inter- and intra-observer reliability by using fulllength radiographs and normalizing tibial length. Prior work by Garra(17) demostrated
that PTS measurements can vary with tibial length, with the most consistent results
achieved using half-tibial images.

### 219 Ethnic Differences

220 This study revealed significant differences among the three ethnic groups—Japanese, 221 Chinese, and Indian-in both CPAK and PTS classifications. Post hoc analyses showed 222 that these differences were significant between each ethnic pair. Our findings are 223 consistent with a previous systematic review, which reported notable variation in CPAK 224 classification prevalence across geographic regions, including Europe, North America, 225 Asia, and Australia(31). Furthermore, a separate study examining PTS in 250 cadaveric 226 specimens reported that African Americans/Blacks and Asian Americans generally have 227 steeper PTS compared to Whites, with nearly 25% of individuals demonstrating clinically significant slopes outside the commonly referenced  $6^{\circ}-12^{\circ}$  range, regardless of sex or 228 229 age(32). imilarly, our research confirmed marked differences in PTS angles and 230 classifications among Asian countries, with one-way ANOVA showing significant 231 differences in mLDFA, mMPTA, aHKA, JLO, and PTS among the three countries. 232 Notably, however, no significant differences were found between Chinese and Indian 233 patients in mLDFA, mMPTA, aHKA, and JLO.

#### 234 Relationship Between PTS and CPAK

Although a weak negative Pearson correlation between PTS and CPAK was observed in Indian patients, the practical impact appears minimal, and overall, no clinically meaningful correlation between PTS and CPAK was identified in any group. These findings suggest that PTS and CPAK represent independent variables influenced by ethnicity but unrelated to each other in terms of alignment behavior. Importantly, this independence highlights the need to evaluate sagittal plane alignment separately from
coronal plane classifications when characterizing knee phenotypes or planning surgical
interventions.

### 243 Clinical Implications, Limitations, and Future Directions

244 Taken together, these results underscore the importance of incorporating sagittal plane 245 parameters, particularly posterior tibial slope (PTS), into knee phenotyping systems to 246 improve surgical planning and optimise clinical outcomes. As personalised alignment 247 strategies in total knee arthroplasty (TKA) continue to evolve, future research should aim 248 to develop comprehensive classification systems that integrate both coronal and sagittal 249 alignment to more accurately reflect the three-dimensional complexity of the knee. Such 250 integrated systems may ultimately allow for more precise preoperative planning, better 251 restoration of native knee kinematics, and improved patient satisfaction.

252 However, several limitations of this study should be acknowledged. First, this was a 253 retrospective study, which may carry inherent selection bias and limit the ability to 254 establish causal relationships. Second, the study population was restricted to three Asian 255 ethnic groups (Japanese, Chinese, and Indian), which may limit the generalisability of the 256 findings to other racial or geographic populations. Third, although inter- and intra-257 observer reliability was assessed and found to be good, radiographic measurement of PTS 258 can still be influenced by subtle variations in imaging technique, positioning, or 259 anatomical landmarks, which may introduce measurement error. Fourth, the study did not 260 assess the clinical outcomes or functional impact of the observed anatomical variations; 261 thus, the clinical relevance of the differences in PTS and their interaction with CPAK 262 remains speculative. Finally, the cross-sectional design precludes evaluation of temporal 263 changes or longitudinal effects, such as how these alignment patterns might evolve over time or influence the risk of osteoarthritis or implant survival.

265 Addressing these limitations in future research, including prospective, multi-ethnic, and

266 longitudinal studies with functional outcome measures, will be crucial to refining knee

- 267 phenotyping systems and advancing personalised approaches in TKA.

## **Conclusions**

PTS and CPAK exhibit variations across different races in Asia; however, no significant
correlation was identified between these two parameters. To validate these findings and

- 272 further explore potential racial differences, a larger study involving data from additional
- 273 racial groups is necessary.

- ....

	Japanese	Chinese	Indian	р
Man / Waman	148 140	72 249	60 75	< 0.01**
Man / Woman	(51.4%) (48.6%)	(22.4%) (77.6%)	(44.4%) (55.6%)	< 0.01***
Age	$43.9 \pm 19.6$	$63.8 \pm 10.3$	$29.2 \pm 4.0$	< 0.001*
mLDFA (°)	86.1 ± 2.8	87.7 ± 3.7	$87.5 \pm 2.2$	< 0.001*
mMPTA (°)	$84.2 \pm 3.0$	$86.9 \pm 2.9$	87.2 ± 2.6	< 0.001*
aHKA (°)	$-1.8 \pm 4.5$	$-0.8 \pm 5.6$	$-0.3 \pm 3.2$	0.003*
JLO (°)	$170.3 \pm 3.7$	$174.6 \pm 3.7$	$174.7 \pm 3.6$	< 0.001*
CPAK				
Ι	136 (47.2%)	74 (23.1%)	26 (19.3%)	
II	112 (38.9%)	77 (24.0%)	51 (37.8%)	
III	34 (11.8%)	94 (29.3%)	21 (15.6%)	
IV	1 (0.3%)	40 (12.5%)	14 (10.4%)	< 0.001**
V	1 (0.3%)	20 (6.2%)	17 (12.6%)	
VI	4 (1.4%)	15 (4.7%)	6 (4.4%)	
VII	0	1 (0.3%)	0	
PTS (°)	$7.9 \pm 3.6$	$10.3 \pm 4.9$	$13.8 \pm 4.1$	< 0.001*
А	36 (12.5)	31 (9.7)	1 (0.7)	
В	119 (41.3)	71 (22.1)	9 (6.7)	
С	96 (33.3)	118 (36.8)	36 (26.7)	< 0.001*
D	32 (11.1)	67 (20.9)	45 (33.3)	<b>NU.UUI</b>
E	2 (0.7)	24 (7.5)	40 (29.6)	
F	3 (1.0)	10 (3.1)	4 (3.0)	

## 288 **Table.1 demographic data in three ethnicities**

289 mLDFA: mechanical lateral distal femoral angle

- 290 mMPTA: mechanical medial proximal tibial angle
- aHKA: arithmetic hip-knee-ankle angle
- 292 JLO: joint line obliquity
- 293 CPAK: coronal plane alignment of the knee
- 294 PTS: posterior tibial slope
- 295 \* One-way ANOVA
- 296 \*\* Fisher's exact test

# 297 Table.2 The distribution of PTS across CPAK types

298 A)

The distribution of PTS across CPAK types was analyzed in patients from three
ethnicities

301

			СРАК							
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	total	
	A (~ 4.0°)	3.15	2.90	1.77	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.00	9.40	
	B (4.1~8.0°)							0.25	27.36	
DEC	C (8.1~12.0°)	10.84	11.73	6.43	2.52	1.09	0.88	0.13	33.62	
PTS	(8.1~12.0°) D (12.1~16.0°)	5.42	5.80	4.54	1.00	1.51	0.76	0.00	19.03	
	E (16.1~20.0°)	2.90	1.64	1.64	1.39	0.50	0.25	0.00	8.32	
	F (20.1° ~)		0.63		0.50	0.00	0.00	0.00	2.27	
	Total (%)	33.53	31.40	18.92	7.55	4.99	3.15	0.38	100.00	

302 CPAK: coronal plane alignment of the knee

303 PTS: posterior tibial slope

304

# **B**)

307 Japanese

			СРАК						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	total
	A (~ 4.0°)	5.56	4.17	1.74	0.00	0.35	0.69	0.00	12.51
	B (4.1~8.0°)	19.79	16.67	4.86	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	41.32
DTC	C (8.1~12.0°)	15.97	12.85	3.47	0.35	0.00	0.69	0.00	33.33
PTS	D (12.1~16.0°)	4.51	5.21	1.39	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	11.11
	E (16.1~20.0°)		0.00			0.00	0.00	0.00	0.70
	F (20.1° ~)	1.03	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.03
	Total (%)	47.21	38.90	11.81	0.35	0.35	1.38	0.00	100.00

308 CPAK: coronal plane alignment of the knee

309 PTS: posterior tibial slope

# 315 C)

316 Chinese

			СРАК							
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	total	
	A (~ 4.0°)	1.88	2.50	2.81	1.25	0.62	0.62	0.00	9.68	
	B (4.1~8.0°)	3.75	5.31	5.62	3.75	1.88	1.56	0.31	22.18	
DEC	C (8.1~12.0°)	7.50	11.88	11.56	3.12	1.25	1.25	0.00	36.56	
PTS	D (12.1~16.0°)	5.94	3.12	6.25	1.88	2.50	1.25	0.00	20.94	
	E (16.1~20.0°)	3.12	0.62	2.50	1.25	0.00	0.00	0.00	7.49	
	F (20.1° ~)	0.97	0.62	0.31	1.25	0.00	0.00	0.00	3.15	
	Total (%)	23.16	24.05	29.05	12.50	6.25	4.68	0.31	100.00	

317 CPAK: coronal plane alignment of the knee

318 PTS: posterior tibial slope

319

320

321

322

## **D**)

325 Indian

			СРАК							
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	total	
	A (~ 4.0°)	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.74	0.00	0.00	0.74	
	B (4.1~8.0°)	0.00	1.48	2.22	0.00	2.22	0.74	0.00	6.66	
DEC	C (8.1~12.0°)	5.19	11.85	1.48	3.70	3.70	0.74	0.00	26.66	
PTS	D (12.1~16.0°)	4.47	14.07	8.89	1.48	2.96	1.48	0.00	33.35	
	E (16.1~20.0°)	8.89	8.15	2.96	5.19	2.96	1.48	0.00	29.63	
	F (20.1° ~)	0.74	2.22	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	2.96	
	Total (%)	19.29	37.77	15.55	10.37	12.58	4.44	0.00	100.00	

326 CPAK: coronal plane alignment of the knee

327 PTS: posterior tibial slope

	Ι	II	Ш	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX
Japanese	47.2	38.9	11.8	0.3	0.3	1.4	0	0	0
Chinese	23.1	24.1	29.1	12.5	6.3	4.7	0.3	0	0
Japanese Chinese Indian	19.3	37.8	15.6	10.4	12.6	4.4	0	0	0

# **Table.3 CPAK classification rate in three ethnicities (%)**

334 CPAK: coronal plane alignment of the knee

# **Table.4 PTS classification rate in three ethnicities (%)**

		·					
		Α	В	С	D	Ε	F
		(~ <b>4.0</b> °)	( <b>4.1~8.0</b> °)	( <b>8.1~12.0</b> °)	( <b>12.1~16.0</b> °)	(16.1~20.0°)	( <b>20.1</b> ° ~)
	Japanese	12.5	41.3	33.3	11.1	0.7	1.0
	Chinese	9.7	22.1	36.8	20.9	7.5	3.1
	Indian	0.7	6.7	26.7	33.3	29.6	3.0
338	PTS: poster	ior tibial s	lope				
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## 351 Figures

# 352 **Fig.1 posterior tibial slope measurement in long limb radiographs**

- 353 Proximal tibial joint orientation line. The cross marks the deepest point of the medial
- 354 plateau concavity. The line is tangent to the curve at the deepest point. Measurements of
- anatomical posterior tibial slope.



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