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Too Big Too Fast? Potential Implications of the Rapid Increase in Emergency Medicine

Residency Positions

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11 ABSTRACT:

12 Emergency medicine has expanded rapidly since its inception in 1979. Workforce projections 13 from current data demonstrate a rapid rise in the number of accredited emergency medicine 14 residency programs and trainee positions. Based on these trends, the specialty may soon reach a 15 point of saturation, particularly in urban areas. This could negatively impact future trainees 16 entering the job market as well as the career plans of medical students. More time and resources should be devoted to obtaining accurate projections, assessing the distribution of emergency 17 physicians in rural versus urban settings, and implementing central workforce planning to protect 18 19 the future of graduating trainees.

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21 INTRODUCTION

22 Emergency medicine (EM) has been undergoing a rapid expansion in the number of residency 23 training spots. The long-term implications are unclear, raising several questions: Is EM growing 24 too big, too fast? What happens when the number of annual residency graduates exceeds the 25 number of available job positions? Will the rapid increase in residency programs harm trainees 26 aiming to secure a position post-residency in what may become a saturated job market? Will 27 concerns about the job market affect medical student specialty selection? What are the 28 implications for the specialty should such a mismatch of supply-and-demand occur? The intent 29 of this paper is to raise awareness of potential challenges for EM as it completes its evolution 30 into a mature specialty.

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32 BACKGROUND

33 An understanding of the historical development of EM helps to illuminate the current state of 34 training in the field. EM emerged in the 1960s, after the need for specialized emergency care was finally recognized in the post-World War II era.¹ The specialty initially struggled to achieve 35 formal recognition.¹ In 1968, The American College of Emergency Physicians (ACEP) was 36 37 founded by several emergency physicians (EPs), with the establishment of the first EM 38 residency-training program quickly following in 1970 at the University of Cincinnati.¹ By 1975, 35 EM residencies had been established.¹ In 1976, The American Board of Emergency Medicine 39 40 (ABEM) was incorporated out of ACEP, and worked with the University Association for 41 Emergency Medicine (UAEM), the early academic EM organization, to develop a certification process for the specialty of EM.¹ EM ultimately achieved formal recognition as the 23rd primary 42 medical specialty by the American Board of Medical Specialties (ABMS) in 1979.¹ In 1978, the 43 44 formation of the American Osteopathic Board of Emergency Medicine (AOBEM) marked the emergence of osteopathic physicians within the field of EM.¹ 45

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47 In 1995, a landmark conference sponsored by the Josiah Macy, Jr., Foundation was held in Williamsburg, Virginia to discuss the role of EM in the future of American medical care.² The 48 proceedings from the conference acknowledged the shortage of board-certified EPs at the time.² 49 50 Several resulting recommendations impacted the expansion of EM. The report recommended that 51 government organizations maintain an adequate number of EM residency positions in the face of a changing healthcare landscape.² The report also recommended that all medical schools 52 establish appropriately staffed and supported academic emergency departments (EDs).² An 53 54 additional recommendation advised that every medical student acquire the knowledge and skills to care for ED patients through experiences supervised by qualified EPs.² At the time of the 55 report, fewer than 20% of U.S. medical schools offered required EM clerkships.² A subsequent 56 57 1997 article evaluating the EM workforce predicted that supply of EPs would not equal demand until 2020, and called for the creation of additional EM residency programs to bridge the gap.³ 58 59

60 Recent declarations of an overall impending physician shortage have also driven the expansion

of EM. The American Association of Medical Colleges (AAMC) has predicted the shortage 61

62 based on an aging physician workforce and rising demand by an aging patient population with

increasing medical needs.⁴ A 2018 study anticipated a shortage of between 42,500 and 121,300 63

physicians in the U.S. by 2030.⁵ Concern over inadequate supply of future physicians has 64

resulted in requests for additional funding to increase the number of trainee positions available
 for all specialties, including EM.⁵

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68 As a result of this milieu, academic EM has expanded rapidly. The number of academic EDs has

69 increased from 18 in 1989, to at least 115 accounted for in a 2018 AAMC faculty roster of

70 department chairs.^{6,7} As of 2017, the number of U.S. allopathic medical schools requiring EM

71 clerkships had increased to 56%.⁸ Similarly, the number of EM residency programs has

72 increased from 82 in 1990 to 239 in 2018.⁹ One study found that nearly 75% of EM bound

residency program.¹⁰ students come from medical schools with an affiliated EM residency program.¹⁰

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75 The historical factors and trends that have resulted in the rapid expansion of EM have been

76 applauded as addressing the feared physician shortage and improving patient access to

vunanticipated emergency care.^{11,12} However, the potential negative downstream effects of rapidly

increasing the supply of EPs in the setting of potentially changing demand must also be

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81 CURRENT AVAILABLE DATA AND PROJECTIONS

82 Assessing supply

considered.

83 The 2019 National Resident Matching Program (NRMP) Main Residency Match numbers were 84 reviewed, including the number of first-year positions offered by EM and the fill rate. These 85 numbers were compared to previous years to assess the rate of increase in the number of offered 86 positions. Overall, the number of residency programs and trainee positions has rapidly increased 87 for nearly all specialties, making the 2019 NRMP Main Residency Match the largest Match on record.¹³ EM specifically has also undergone a rapid expansion in the number of training 88 89 programs and residency positions available, and now represents 7.7% of available PGY-1 positions [Figures 1 and 2].¹³ Since 2014, the number of EM positions has increased 90 dramatically by 702 (36.6%).¹³ In the 2019 Match, EM offered 2,488 first-year positions, which 91 is 210 more than 2018, which itself was 231 more than 2017.¹³ EM did fill all but 30 positions at 92 15 programs for a fill rate of 98.8%.¹³ The percentage filled by U.S. allopathic seniors, however, 93 continued a downward trend and is now only 65.0%.¹⁴ The merger of the Accreditation Council 94 95 for Graduate Medical Education (ACGME) and American Osteopathic Association (AOA) and 96 the resultant movement of osteopathic students into the NRMP Main Match likely accounts for

some of the decrease in fill rate by U.S. allopathic seniors. However, despite the increase in
residency positions, the number of U.S. Seniors matching into EM has essentially plateaued over
the last three years, raising potential concerns about saturation of the specialty among allopathic
students.¹⁴

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102 As the number of EM trainee positions has increased, so has the number of physicians who 103 trained in an EM residency and subsequently completed board certification (ABEM and 104 AOBEM diplomates). Data was obtained from both ABEM and AOBEM. Commensurate with 105 the development of the specialty, the number of active ABEM diplomates has increased from 2,852 to 36,926 from 1984 to 2019 (email communication, October 10, 2018).¹⁵ Combined with 106 107 the current number of roughly 4,100 AOBEM-certified physicians (email communication, 108 October 20, 2018), this represents approximately 41,026 board-certified EPs, the vast majority of 109 whom can be assumed to be in active clinical practice.

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111 Assessing Demand

112 Projections of demand were assessed from previous reports in the literature. A 2016 article by 113 Reiter et al. evaluating workforce trends projected that there can be enough ABEM/AOBEMcertified or eligible physicians to comprise the entire EP workforce by 2021, when accounting 114 for both board-certified and board-eligible EPs anticipated to become board-certified.¹⁶ This 115 116 projection was based on a 1.7% attrition rate estimated from a 2008 American Medical Association physician Masterfile.¹⁷ The projections from Reiter et al. also correlate with a recent 117 118 Health Resources and Services Administration (HRSA) article which anticipated a discrepancy 119 between demand and supply, with demand for EPs projected to grow at 9% versus supply growing at 18% between 2013 and 2025.¹⁸ Of note, the HRSA data includes self-reported EPs, 120 some of whom may not be residency-trained or board-certified in EM.¹⁸ 121

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123 The demand for EPs will continue to be a complex and dynamic equation, with several evolving 124 variables. For instance, the role of advanced practice providers (APPs) also affects EP supply

variables. For instance, the role of advanced practice providers (APPs) also affects EP supply

and demand. Between 2013 and 2015, physician assistant (PA) supply in EM was projected to

almost double during the same period that demand was expected to grow by only 9%.¹⁸ The

127 interplay of APP supply-and-demand and EP supply-and-demand may impact the EM workforce

128 in ways that are difficult to predict. The phenomena of the commoditization of the profession,

129 whereby tasks previously in the exclusive domain of the physician are now being forced to the 130 lowest provider on the ladder competent to provide the service, will result in the need to redefine 131 the role and utility of the EP relative to other health care professionals.¹⁹ Potential policy 132 changes loosening supervision requirements and increasing independent practice of APPs may 133 also reduce demand for EPs.

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135 Additional factors with the potential to impact EP demand include an aging patient population 136 and changes in physician utilization, health insurance coverage, and availability of primary care. 137 The increase in freestanding emergency departments (FSEDs), which are located physically 138 separate from a hospital, may increase demand as ACEP guidelines advise they be staffed by qualified EPs.²⁰ As of 2017, between 550 and 600 FSEDs were reported, compared to only 80 in 139 2007.^{21,22} FSEDs have been postulated to reduce the burden of crowding on traditional hospital-140 based EDs by drawing in lower-acuity patients and potentially improving access to care in rural 141 areas where financial strain has reduced the number of critical access hospitals.²³ A recent 142 143 analysis of the current state of FSEDs, however, suggests that they may cater to a more affluent 144 patient population rather than address a lack of access to emergency care in underserved areas.²³ The role and impact of FSEDs within the larger system of emergency care thus remains 145 146 uncertain and continues to evolve. Similarly, urgent care centers (UCCs), walk-in clinics focused 147 on the delivery of medical care for minor illnesses and injuries, may also shunt patients with lower-acuity conditions away from traditional hospital-based EDs or FSEDs.²⁴ One study 148 149 estimated that 13,7-27.1% of all ED visits could take place at UCCs and retail clinics with an estimated potential cost savings of approximately \$4.4 billion annually.²⁵ While some UCCs are 150 staffed by EPs, the majority of these facilities are staffed by primary care physicians and APPs.²⁴ 151 152 The increase in UCCs could thus have variable effects on EP demand. Although EM attrition 153 rates have been found to be relatively low and compare favorably to other specialties, changes in 154 retirement age and practice hours per week may also occur as a new generation of EPs emerges, further impacting demand.¹⁷ Furthermore, the evolution of technology and development of new 155 156 health care delivery modes and settings will increase the need for flexibility among physicians, including the ability to develop new skills and transition to new modes of practice.¹⁹ For 157 158 instance, applications of telemedicine, defined as "the delivery of health care services at a distance, using information and communication technology," have rapidly expanded within 159 EM.^{26,27} Telemedicine may impact workforce dynamics by effectively enhancing supply of EP 160

expertise to small and rural hospitals.²⁶ Additionally, the ACGME has questioned whether the 161

traditional dichotomous model of generalist and specialist physicians is still the best way to 162

approach planning for future medical education.¹⁹ The lines between who is competent and 163

available to provide urgent or emergent care may blur, also affecting demand for EPs.¹⁹ More 164

165 detailed explorations of the potential effects of such factors have been previously

published.^{19,28,29} 166

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168 When assessing demand, it is also important to recognize that despite overall ED visits

increasing by 40% over the last two decades, the number of EDs has simultaneously decreased 169 by 11%.³⁰ The demand for additional EPs may be attenuated by the trend toward ED closures at 170 171 small hospitals, as visits from the closed EDs are usually consolidated into larger regional EDs in 172 pursuit of economies of scale.

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IMPLICATIONS OF WORKFORCE PROJECTIONS 174

175 EM residencies in the U.S. are currently able to produce nearly 2,500 graduates per year with 176 additional proposed residency programs in the pipeline for approval. The data cited above raises 177 concerns that the EM workforce has the potential to soon reach a point of saturation. To better 178 align the supply of EPs with future demand, the specialty must turn its attention to central 179 workforce planning. Failing to do so could result in negative consequences on the EM workforce 180 as have occurred in other parts of the world. For example, Australia has witnessed a similar 181 explosion in popularity of EM in the absence of a central workforce planning system to provide feedback about supply and demand forces or to limit the number of trainees accepted into EM.³¹ 182 The rapid growth in the number of EPs has even outstripped the rising number of ED visits.³¹ 183 184 This has negatively impacted the workforce through the phenomenon of "exit block," where 185 graduating trainees are unable to find jobs, as well as "zero-hours" contracts, where employed EPs are not guaranteed regular shifts.³¹ Several additional concerns have been raised, including 186 dilution of training experiences and the graduation of trainees not well-suited for EM.³¹ 187

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189 National planning for the EP workforce is required to provide a stable environment where

190 medical students will be confident that they can find a job when they complete residency

191 training. Grover et al. noted that a distinguishing feature of the physician workforce is that it

192 relies partly on the collective result of individual physician's personal choices, including where

and what to study, and where to train and practice.³² Such factors can affect the workforce more
 profoundly than any government initiative.³²

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196 The specialty of anesthesiology offers a cautionary tale of how projections of oversupply can 197 influence the career choices of medical students and physicians and massively impact the 198 workforce. In the late 1980's and early 1990's, anesthesiology residency programs and positions greatly expanded, with the number of graduates quadrupling between 1984 and 1993.³³ In 1994, 199 the American Society of Anesthesiologists commissioned a study which projected a major 200 oversupply of anesthesiologists in the coming decades.^{33,34} Simultaneously, the Council on 201 202 Graduate Medical Education (COGME) advocated for efforts to increase the number of primary care physicians and limit the number of U.S. specialty physician trainees.³³ A Wall Street Journal 203 204 article and other media accounts highlighted difficulties experienced by graduating anesthesiology seeking jobs.³⁵ In response to these factors, medical students rapidly moved away 205 206 from anesthesiology as a specialty choice, with the number of U.S. medical school applicants to anesthesiology plummeting by 56% from 1995 to 2000 (from 1,784 to 787).³⁴ Although the drop 207 208 in applicants choosing anesthesiology was somewhat tempered by a large increase in 209 international medical graduates matching into the specialty and growing numbers of certified nurse anesthetists, the resultant shortage of anesthesiologists persists today.^{33,34} Medical students' 210 211 perceptions regarding job opportunities, income, and lifestyle factors are key drivers in their specialty selection.³⁶ As the anesthesiology experience has shown, if those perceptions turn 212 213 negative, the consequences can be rapid and enduring.

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215 The rapid rise in the number of EM training positions has been more prevalent in certain areas of 216 the country. For example, the state of Florida has demonstrated a particularly dramatic increase 217 in the number of EM training positions, many offered by for-profit hospitals and large, corporate medical groups (CMGs).^{37–39} Since 2013, the number of EM residency slots in Florida has 218 219 increased by more than 200%, compared to an only 20% increase in residency positions in all specialties between 2013-2017.⁴⁰⁻⁴² In 2018, an additional 3 EM residencies were approved by 220 the RRC-EM in Florida.^{43,44} A 2019 article in the Florida College of Emergency Physicians 221 222 (FCEP) newsletter EM Pulse argued that there is little evidence to support that a critical shortage of EPs ever existed in Florida to justify this rapid expansion of EM training spots.⁴⁴ The authors 223 224 concluded that resources would be better shunted toward increasing access to primary care and

that EM should not have been added to the list of "critical shortage specialties" on the 2013
Florida state legislative bill SB 1500.⁴⁴

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228 Although the current data presented in this article do not support an impending overall shortage of EPs, rural areas do continue to see a shortage of EPs when compared to urban and suburban 229 settings.⁴⁵ A 2014 study evaluating Medicare data found that EPs comprise 63.9% of the 230 231 emergency clinician workforce in urban counties, versus only 44.8% of the workforce in rural counties where a greater proportion of nonemergency physicians and APPs practice.⁴⁶ The study 232 233 identified several factors driving this disparity, including location of residency programs, which tend to be more concentrated in urban areas.⁴⁶ Additional factors reported by EM residency 234 235 graduates as strongly influencing the decision to practice in urban versus rural environments include lifestyle, access to amenities/recreation, ED volume/acuity, and family/spouse.⁴⁷ Many 236 237 of these factors are not easily amenable to change. Concomitant with the relative shortage of EPs 238 in rural areas is a relative increase in ED visits to rural EDs demonstrated by a recent crosssectional study of National Hospital Ambulatory Medical Care Survey data.⁴⁸ While rural ED 239 240 visits increased by more than 50% from 36.5 to 64.5 per 100 persons, urban ED visits stayed relatively stable, increasing from only 40.2 to 42.8 visits per 100 persons from 2005 to 2016.⁴⁸ 241 242 This suggests that there may not be a need to train additional EPs who are most likely to pursue 243 jobs in urban ED environments, but rather a need to direct trainees toward rural ED settings. 244 Rural training opportunities have the potential to significantly impact selection of rural practice 245 settings as has been demonstrated in family medicine residents, including for those raised in urban areas.^{49,50} Although the shortage of rural training opportunities may be due to the 246 247 perception that patient volume in rural EDs is inadequate for Residency Review Committee for 248 Emergency Medicine (RRC-EM) requirements, at least one study has found that patient volumes per physician were similar in rural and urban settings.⁵¹ An article by Handel et al. provides 249 250 valuable recommendations for shunting trainees to rural areas, including creating financial 251 incentives for residents to enter a rural EM practice through assistance with educational debt via 252 government and/or hospital support, adjusting the RRC-EM guidelines to permit training 253 experiences that offer a rural EM component, and supporting innovative delivery of rural emergency care under supervision by EPs at academic medical centers via telemedicine.⁵² 254 255 Leaders within EM will need to discuss and arrive at a consensus over whether educational 256 initiatives will follow the recommendations set forth by Handel et al. to address the relative

shortage of rural EPs or accept the greater proportion of nonemergency physicians and APPsfilling the void in these areas.

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260 In addition to affecting the ability of EM residency graduates to secure jobs upon the completion 261 of training, an overabundance of EM residency positions could have wider-ranging implications 262 for population health. The AAMC has projected a primary care (including family medicine, 263 general internal medicine, general pediatrics and geriatric medicine) physician shortage of 21,100 to 55,200 physicians by 2032.⁵³ Additionally, the AAMC continues to project especially 264 significant shortages in surgical specialties and other specialties, such as psychiatry.⁵³ One study 265 266 evaluating influences on medical students' choice of EM found that internal medicine, general 267 surgery, anesthesiology, family medicine, and pediatrics were in the top five most common specialties considered as either a student's first or second alternative.¹⁰ Individuals who may 268 269 have otherwise chosen a specialty in need of additional manpower will have devoted time and 270 resources to training in one that is already oversupplied. Additionally, educational debt continues 271 to be a primary factor deterring college students from pursuing a career in medicine, particularly for underserved minorities.⁵⁴ The AAMC estimated that the class of 2018 graduated with a 272 median debt of \$200,000, up 4% from the previous year.⁵⁵ EM residency graduates unable to 273 274 find a suitable job due to oversupply will face increased difficulty paying off student loans. 275 Witnessing this phenomenon could further discourage young, bright minds of diverse 276 backgrounds with the potential to advance medicine from applying to medical school.

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278 History also demonstrates the cyclical nature of workforce projections, with the last century 279 providing several examples of conflicting opinions on whether or not a shortage or oversupply is projected.³² The difficulty in formulating accurate projections is in part due to the many 280 281 assumptions required to calculate them. As previously mentioned, our goal is to highlight 282 potential challenges for the EM workforce and call for additional study to assess the implications 283 of the rapid expansion of EM training programs as well as societal needs. A comprehensive, 284 detailed workforce projection is beyond the scope of this work and excellent examples are available through the resources referenced above.^{16,18} Despite the inherent difficulty in making 285 286 accurate workforce projections, they should not be ignored. Workforce projections continue to 287 have the potential to significantly influence public policy and medical student specialty selection, 288 which can in turn affect workforce dynamics. Additional resources and efforts should target

289 research that allows for increased accuracy of projections, as well as more effective workforce 290 monitoring and planning.

291

292 Several potential next steps exist to further explore and address the possible saturation of the EM 293 workforce. National EM organizations must devote attention to this issue, examine workforce 294 dynamics and consider regulating the expansion of EM residency positions. The American 295 Academy of Emergency Medicine (AAEM) recently released a position statement expressing concern that the rapid growth of the EM workforce may result in saturation of the job market.⁵⁶ 296 297 National organizations should also convene an EM workforce summit involving representatives 298 from the ACGME and the RRC-EM to discuss current issues and develop recommendations. 299 Such decision-making will require broad-based involvement from multiple specialty 300 organizations representing the spectrum of stakeholders including leaders of departments and 301 training programs, trainees and students, and regulatory organizations. A consensus-style 302 conference hosted by one or more of the national societies could represent an opportunity for key 303 stakeholders to develop a research and policy plan around EM workforce dynamics.

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305 Additionally, no one particular organization currently assumes responsibility for monitoring EM 306 workforce dynamics, and legal considerations may complicate strict formal regulation of such. A 307 consensus-style conference could provide an opportunity to determine if and how a particular 308 organization should regulate the number of existing EM residency programs. A natural candidate 309 to consider for this role would be the ACGME, given its significant impact on the supply of EPs 310 through the approval new programs. Up to this point, its mission has centered around 311 determining whether a program meets quality standards for accreditation, and not on whether the 312 need for new programs exists. However, an oversupply of trainee positions could compromise 313 the quality of training through competition for required experiences, and therefore the workforce 314 dynamics of a specialty may need to be considered prior to the ACGME's approval of new 315 programs as part of the mission to ensure high-quality training experiences.

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317 EM granting agencies such as the Emergency Medicine Foundation (EMF) and Society for

318 Academic Emergency Medicine Foundation (SAEMF) should also consider developing specific

319 grants to study the EM workforce. Beyond EM-specific organizations, collaboration with the AAMC's Workforce Studies Center to examine the EM workforce in detail would also represent
 a critical step, as the AAMC has continued to project shortages in a variety of specialties.⁵⁷

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323 CONCLUSION

324 The numbers and trends in the EM workforce demonstrate the continued robust growth of the 325 specialty. Organizations and leaders in the field have applauded and encouraged this growth, but 326 the data suggest that it is time to call for coordination and increased awareness to proactively 327 maintain the vibrancy and health of EM workforce dynamics. The issue of workforce projections 328 should be brought to the forefront of the agenda of national EM organizations. Central workforce 329 planning may require regulating the number of residencies and expansion of programs to match 330 future demand rather than risk exceeding it. Additionally, attention to enhancing rural EM 331 opportunities and experiences for trainees may help redistribute EPs to areas of existing shortage. 332 Future studies are needed to better understand the factors that shape the EM workforce, and to 333 develop models that accurately and reliably predict the future workforce.

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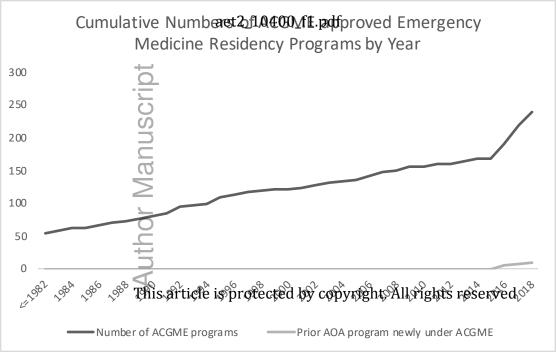
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