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MARCH-APRIL 1978
VOLUME 27, NUMBER 2

Invited Review

The problem of benzene in our environment: clinical and molecular considerations

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Benzene has found extensive commercial use in many industries including the leather industry, both artificial and natural; the manufacture of artificial rubber; in gilding, bronzing and silvering, varnish, shellac, and paint removing; in the printing industry including rotogravure, lithography, and photography; and in dry cleaning.¹⁻⁶ Benzene is a constituent of high octane gasoline used in airplane and automobile engines.^{4,6} In addition, benzene has been used in the manufacture of explosives, pesticides, plastics, synthetic detergents, conditioners, antioxidants, and medicinals.⁸ Benzene is also used as a solvent for rubber gums, resins, celluloid, and alkaloids.^{1,6}

Although the toxicity of benzene was noted as early as 1897 by Santesson and much work was performed by Selling in 1910-1916,⁷ only recently have the toxic effects of benzene gained national attention.⁹ This was due to an emergency governmental order reducing the permissible levels of benzene exposure to one part per million in the working atmosphere per eight-hour day from the previous levels of ten parts per million.⁹ For most of this century, however, the acceptable levels have been considerably higher.¹⁰

Clinical Toxicity of Benzene

Benzene toxicity has been classified as two distinct phenomena, either acute or chronic. The symptoms of acute toxicity have generally been related to the central nervous system. The manifestations include muscle tremors, convulsions, salivation, nystagmus, and phenomena of very intense asphyxiation due to paralysis of the medullary respiratory center.^{11,12} Chronic benzene toxicity, on the

other hand, is predominantly a disorder of the hematopoietic system, although effects on the central nervous system,¹³ thyroid gland,¹⁴ and gastrointestinal¹⁵ effects have been suggested. The most frequently reported findings on history and physical examination include loss of weight, weakness, fatigue, epistaxis, dryness of mucosa, flatulence and/or pyrosis, nausea and/or vomiting, colic, palpitations, dyspnea, headache, dizziness, insomnia, lethargy, irritability, and rash.¹

The primary means of entrance of benzene into the body is via inhalation. A study of humans exposed to benzene revealed that it rapidly reaches equilibrium with the alveolar air, and that saturation could be achieved within minutes.¹⁶ In experiments carried out in rats, the concentrations of benzene in the blood were demonstrated to be parallel to the concentration in the inspired air.¹⁷ The human experiments also showed that benzene is retained in the body for many hours after the exposure has been terminated and that elimination of benzene via the lungs accounted for only 12% of the excretion during the first six hours after exposure. The high lipid solubility would lead one to propose that benzene is being stored within the fat deposits of the body. Indeed, it has been suggested that overweight exposed individuals have a higher incidence of hematological changes than those who are normal or below normal weight.^{18,19} The high lipid content of the nervous system might be significant in the acute phase of benzene toxicity.

Exposure to benzene can also be by direct contact, although benzene absorption through the skin is not very great.^{20,21} When

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Portions of this review were submitted as a thesis in partial fulfillment of the requirements for a M.S. degree in the Department of Biochemistry, NYU School of Dentistry.

Work by the authors discussed in this review was sponsored by NIH Grant #AM 13532 and Grant #ES 00260. Michael L. Freedman is a recipient of a Research Career Development Award from the National Institute of Arthritis, Metabolism and Digestive Diseases.

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direct contact is achieved, the significant toxicity is usually due to inhalation rather than skin absorption.

The principal metabolites of benzene are the phenols, formed by enzymatic hydroxylation.^{21,24} The phenols are then further processed by sulfation or glucuronization to give the conjugated end products.^{21,24} It has also been proposed that quinones may be produced by oxidation of the phenols.¹

Based on animal studies it appears that it is a metabolite of benzene that is responsible for hematopoietic toxicity. This subject has been reviewed by Snyder.¹²

The primary effect observed in chronic benzene toxicity is on the bone marrow. Benzene has long been implicated as having many different toxic manifestations including pancytopenia and aplastic anemia, acute myeloblastic leukemia, myeloid metaplasia, and hemolytic anemia. The most common finding is pancytopenia. One problem concerning the relation of benzene to human hematotoxicity is that exposure usually occurs to a mixture of volatile compounds, rather than just to benzene alone. Despite this, the overwhelming evidence points to an association of hematopoietic disease with benzene exposure. The evidence includes the apparent lack of such association with other known volatile agents, epidemiological studies showing outbreaks of hematotoxicity temporally related to the introduction of benzene to an industry which respond to replacement of benzene with other solvents, and the ability to produce bone marrow toxicity in various animal species exposed only to benzene.²² Much more information is needed, however, concerning the effects of other solvents on hematopoietic tissue and particularly the effects of combined exposures.

Pancytopenia has been clearly identified as a consequence of prolonged benzene exposure. However, no figures are available as to the incidence of this disorder. Although human benzene hematotoxicity is often described as an *aplastic anemia*, bone marrow

studies have been variable. Investigators have found the marrow to be hypoplastic,²³⁻²⁵ normocellular,^{23,26} and even hyperplastic.^{27,28}

The effects of benzene on the bone marrow is of particular interest when one considers the preferential distribution of benzene to this organ. It was shown in dogs chronically exposed to benzene (blood levels 1-2 mg/dl) that there was an approximately 50% fold higher level in the marrow.²⁹ As the primary entry of benzene is via the lungs, one would expect it to pass through the marrow before being presented to the liver for possible detoxification. One might postulate that the increase in benzene concentration found in the marrow is associated with the high lipid solubility of the agent and the high proportion of fat cells in this location. In considering the effects of benzene toxicity on the hematopoietic system, most studies have focused on the circulating blood. A marked leukopenia is generally associated with benzene toxicity irrespective of the status of the marrow.^{27,28} In one study benzene was demonstrated to decrease the proliferation of the rabbit myeloid series within the marrow.³⁰ This was found to occur at the myelocyte stage. The peripheral leukopenia might easily be attributed to the short survival time of these cells within the circulation combined with the decreased entry of new cells.

Abnormalities in leukocyte function have also been reported by a number of investigators. Among the granulocyte abnormalities which occur in mild benzene hematotoxicity, and which may actually precede pancytopenia, are a decrease in phagocytic function,²⁹ a decrease in leukocyte alkaline phosphatase activity,^{30,31} an alteration in granulocyte and monocyte osmotic fragility,³² an alteration of the fluorescent characteristics of leukocyte nuclei,³³ and the presence of the Pelger-Huet anomaly.³⁴⁻³⁷

Lymphocytopenia has also been reported to be a common finding in benzene toxicity,³⁸ and Goldwater³⁸ has suggested that this is more common than leukopenia. Other investigators, though, have failed to observe this

and there have even been some reports of lymphocytosis.^{19,40} Animal studies, however, have demonstrated effects of benzene on lymphocytes and lymphoid tissues.^{19,41} Snyder et al⁴² have recently shown that lymphocytopenia was a very early manifestation of toxicity in rats and mice inhaling 100 to 300 ppm benzene. There have also been findings suggesting altered immune function including leukocyte agglutinins,⁴³ altered serum immunoglobulin^{44,45} and complement levels,⁴⁶ and antibodies against leukocytes, platelets, and red cells in patients chronically exposed to benzene.⁴⁷

An effect of benzene on lymphocytes and the immune response raises the possibility that benzene association with leukemia might result from an altered immune function, based on the theoretical concept of the role of immune surveillance in carcinogenesis. In particular, assessment of whether the effect is specific for B or T lymphocytes and evaluation of the possible effect on suppressor lymphocytes which are postulated to play a role in human aplastic anemia^{48,49} should be performed.

Still other leukocyte findings have been reported including an absolute eosinophilia^{50,51} and monocytosis with the presence of immature and abnormal monocytes⁵² in the peripheral blood.

A number of investigators have presented evidence of decreased platelet function associated with benzene toxicity.⁵³⁻⁶¹ This appears to be due to intrinsic platelet abnormalities which magnify the effect of a decrease in absolute platelet count. Morphological abnormalities of both circulating platelets and their megakaryocytic precursors have also been reported.^{14,59,62} In addition, there have been suggestions that abnormalities of coagulation factors might also be present.^{54,58}

The most frequently reported erythrocyte abnormality associated with benzene toxicity is macrocytosis.^{8,14,58,63-66} It is not known whether this macrocytosis reflects an altered stem cell population, an effect on DNA synthesis, or is due to some other red cell

abnormality. Macroerythroblasts have been noted in the bone marrow by Gornini et al⁶⁷ and by Curletto and Ciconali,⁶⁸ who also emphasized the marked polymorphism and occasional giant multinuclear forms of megakaryoblastic erythrocyte bone marrow precursors. "Macrocytosis of red cells has been suggested to be of prognostic importance" and to be an excellent warning signal of benzene-induced hematotoxicity in occupationally exposed individuals.⁷⁰ However, mac-

rocytic red cells have not been noted by all authors who have investigated individuals with benzene-induced hematotoxicity.

Significant hemolysis has been occasionally reported in benzene-exposed individuals,^{71,72} including a few cases of paroxysmal nocturnal hemoglobinuria.^{10,64,80} Although anemia is usually due primarily to a failure of red cell production, there may be a somewhat shortened red cell life span in many if not most cases of benzene hematotoxicity. This point should be investigated further.

Further evidence that red cells are qualitatively abnormal in benzene-exposed individuals include the observation of abnormal erythrocyte incubated osmotic fragility despite normal values using the standard osmotic fragility test.^{38,77} There are also reports of changes in blood and urine porphyrin levels and aminolevulinic acid, possibly reflecting altered heme synthesis.^{73,74} Of note in this regard are the reports of improvement in benzene-poisoned patients with pyridoxine,⁷⁵ an essential cofactor in heme synthesis.

It is generally accepted that benzene exposure results in an increased incidence of acute myelogenous leukemia and related disorders (eg, erythroleukemia, acute myelomonocytic leukemia). The evidence favoring a causal relationship is not simply the more than 100 case reports which, individually, could be fortuitous. Strong support for the causal role of benzene has been obtained in surveys of areas which have historically had substantial numbers of individuals occupationally exposed to high levels of benzene in

poorly regulated circumstances, most notably in France, Italy, and Turkey. The evidence includes the observation by Vigliani and Saita in Italy³⁷ of a perhaps 20 times greater leukemia risk in benzene-exposed workers than in the general population, and the reports by Girard et al in France revealing a significantly greater positive history of benzene exposure in patients with acute leukemia than in a control group.^{31,32} More recently, Turkish investigators have described at least ten cases of acute leukemia,^{39,40} mostly myeloblastic. Recently in the United States, Infante and co-workers⁴¹ performed an epidemiological evaluation of workers exposed to low levels of benzene in two factories. These investigators reported at least a five-fold increased risk of total leukemia and a ten-fold increased risk of acute myeloblastic leukemia (or its variant myelomonocytic leukemia) in these workers. Accordingly, a causal relationship between benzene exposure and acute myeloblastic leukemia appears proven.

The association of other types of leukemia with benzene exposure is unclear. In some of the larger collections of benzene-induced leukemia, including those of Aksoy et al in Turkey³⁹ and Vigliani et al in Italy,³² chronic lymphocytic leukemia has not been reported. In contrast, French investigators^{31,32,41-43} have noted a relatively high incidence of chronic lymphocytic leukemia, often exceeding that of acute myelogenous leukemia. Cases of chronic lymphocytic leukemia associated with exposure have also been reported elsewhere, including three from the Soviet Union.⁴⁴ Similarly, the French have noted a higher incidence of chronic myelogenous leukemia, although not to the extent of chronic lymphocytic leukemia.

The reason for this difference is unclear. It is conceivable that the observed association of chronic lymphocytic leukemia with benzene in France is fortuitous. One possible explanation would be the presence of other solvents specifically in the French workplaces which could possibly alter the expression of benzene

hematotoxicity. The observed differences might also be explainable by a longer lag phase for chronic lymphocytic leukemia and the possibly longer benzene exposure of the French patients in contrast to the apparently more defined and recent exposure populations investigated by the Italian and Turkish investigators. These explanations are, of course, speculative. There is also inconclusive evidence suggesting that benzene may produce other lymphoproliferative disorders, including acute lymphoblastic leukemia and lymphoma.⁴⁴⁻⁴⁶ This would be consistent with an apparent effect of benzene on lymphocyte number and function observed in pancytopenia cases. In addition to chronic myelogenous leukemia, a few cases of myelofibrosis and myeloid metaplasia, another myeloproliferative disorder, have also been reported.^{40,49}

Although occupational exposure to benzene appears causally related to acute myelogenous leukemia, a number of important questions persist which are directly pertinent to permissible benzene exposure. Of particular importance is whether leukemogenesis occurs only after high-dose benzene exposure leading to significant bone marrow damage, whether it can result from any degree of cytopenic stem cell toxicity, or, less likely, is totally unrelated to the pancytopenic effect of benzene. It is possible that benzene or its toxic metabolites directly act as a carcinogen on bone marrow hematopoietic cells. Alternatively the association with acute leukemia may represent a secondary manifestation of benzene-induced pancytopenia that is expressed through an unrelated bone marrow aberration producing a stem cell that is liable to a further mutagenic event. Such an event might occur many years after discontinuation of exposure. Benzene might therefore act as an initiator or co-carcinogen. Support for these hypotheses, or any other (eg, benzene activates a leukemogenic virus) is conjectural. The lack of an animal model of benzene-induced leukemia hampers study of this issue. One possibly pertinent topic is that of

preleukemia. This relatively poorly defined diagnosis has been frequently made in benzene-exposed individuals. There are a number of case reports of benzene-induced pancytopenia in which morphologically abnormal preneoplastic bone marrow precursor cells progressively developed, eventually, resulting in frank acute leukemia.^{14,40,111,112} Reported morphological abnormalities include bizarre red cell precursors which often have led to the diagnosis of erythroleukemia. The subject of preleukemia, including the effects of benzene, has been reviewed by Pierre.¹¹³

The interrelation of idiopathic aplastic anemia, preleukemia, and acute leukemia has been noted by a number of authors. Of interest is the theoretical discussion of Damashek¹⁰⁴ who added paroxysmal nocturnal hemoglobinuria to this group. This rare paraneoplastic condition, in which there is an abnormal population of circulating red cells derived from a single stem cell, may precede or follow frank aplastic anemia, may end as acute leukemia, or may transiently occur during leukemia states. Its reported occurrence in association with benzene exposure is further suggestive evidence of benzene-induced pancytopenia being linked to acute leukemia.^{108,150}

Molecular Considerations

Investigators have tried to locate a nuclear lesion within the precursor cells of animals and humans exposed to benzene.¹¹⁴⁻¹¹⁷ Chromosome abnormalities associated with benzene exposure in humans include ring chromosomes,¹¹⁸ dicentric or tricentric chromosomes,¹¹⁹ and an erythroleukemic line with a pseudodiploid karyotype where the two E chromosomes were replaced with markers.¹²¹ However, it should be pointed out that even though studies have shown statistically significant increases in chromosomal structural alterations in humans exposed to benzene, most of these people had no detectable clinical abnormalities. When peripheral blood lymphocytes of individuals

exposed to benzene were stimulated by phytohemagglutinin (PHA), chromosome alterations were noted even though there were no detectable changes in the marrow.¹¹⁴ The chromosome aberrations included qualitative changes of both a stable and unstable nature (breaks, gaps) as well as frequently reported quantitative changes (aneuploidy, polyploidy). Individual variation was considerable. In studies by Girard¹¹⁰ and Forni,¹¹¹ the significantly higher average chromosome breakage rates of the exposed groups were attributable to a few individuals. It should be noted that although the chromosome alterations were more evident in those who showed initial clinical evidence of the benzene exposure, the changes had persisted both in the symptomatic and nonsymptomatic groups for many years after exposure.

Recently, the effects of benzene on DNA and RNA synthesis have been studied.^{117,122} "It was shown that in those animals which developed a pancytopenia, there was an associated disturbance of the DNA and RNA synthesis as well as chromosome aberrations." Evaluation of RNA synthesis in rabbits using ³H-cytidine showed a benzene effect on the RNA synthesis of the basophilic normoblast but not the pronormoblast.¹²² This may indicate a maturation arrest between these stages. It was further shown in mice that the hemopoietic stem cell was intact as determined by *in vivo* colony forming assay.¹²³ However, the nuclear integrity of this cell could not be determined by this technique.

Experiments in rabbits using ³H-thymidine showed a marked inhibition of DNA synthesis with chronic benzene administration.¹²⁴ This was attributed primarily to an arrest of the metaphase sequence at the pronormoblast stage preventing differentiation of the basophilic normoblast. These staging results are in accordance with the information available on RNA synthesis discussed earlier.

Recently, studies in this laboratory have looked to the effect of benzene directly on the translational level. Lee et al¹¹² had shown that the incorporation of radioactive iron into

mouse bone marrow was decreased after a single subcutaneous injection of benzene. This experiment raises the question of whether or not benzene could directly affect heme synthesis. As heme is necessary for initiation of protein synthesis in most, if not all, cells (see below) this could be a site of toxicity to explain what is seen with benzene exposure.

Forte et al.¹¹ have shown that benzene inhibits both human and rabbit reticulocyte protein synthesis *in vitro*. The reticulocyte is an anucleate cell, and there is no transcription occurring in this system. The effect on protein synthesis in reticulocytes, therefore, is due to an inhibition of translation. The minimum concentration of benzene necessary to consistently inhibit protein synthesis in these studies was 4.38 mg/100 ml (0.056 M). Hemin (50 μ M) prevented and reversed this inhibition. This concentration of hemin has previously been shown to maintain protein synthesis in the absence of added iron-transferrin for heme synthesis.¹² Benzene inhibition also occurred when iron-transferrin for maximum endogenous heme synthesis was present. On the basis of these experiments it appears that benzene is interfering with endogenous heme synthesis, at a site other than incorporation of iron into the cell.

The effect of benzene also was associated with a reversible conversion of polyribosomes to smaller aggregates, predominantly monoribosomes. These findings are in agreement with those of Tryfiates^{13,14} who found that rat liver polyribosomes disaggregated after injection of the animals with benzene at a dose of 0.52 to 5.63 mM. The number of ribosomes on messenger RNA is directly proportional to the rate of initiation and inversely proportional to the rate of release of ribosomes from mRNA. Thus, benzene polyribosomal disaggregation is consistent with an inhibition of initiation with normal elongation and release, as occurs with heme deficiency.¹⁵ This conclusion is supported by experiments showing that hemin both prevents and reverses benzene-induced polyribosomal disaggregation, as well as by experiments where benzene

failed to disaggregate polyribosomes when elongation was prevented by cycloheximide.

Direct demonstration of benzene inhibition of heme synthesis was also presented in this study. It was observed that benzene inhibition occurred more rapidly when either hemin was omitted from the incubation medium, or when the cells were made iron deficient with an iron-chelating agent. Possible interpretations of this finding include rapid uptake of benzene into the cells and direct inhibition of an enzyme rather than depletion of endogenous iron. The interpretation that iron was not depleted was supported further by the reversal of polyribosomal disaggregation when benzene was removed and the cells incubated in the absence of either iron-transferrin or hemin.

In order to more definitively determine the site of benzene inhibition of heme synthesis, the following experiments were performed by Freedman et al.¹⁶ Benzene (0.113 M) was added to rabbit reticulocyte incubations and both heme synthesis (L-2-¹⁴C glycine incorporation) and protein synthesis (L-¹⁴C leucine incorporation), were found to be inhibited by approximately 50%. However, when the radioactive precursor used was 4-¹⁴C aminolevulinic acid (ALA), there was no significant inhibition of heme synthesis. Since ALA measures heme synthesis beyond the enzyme ALA-synthetase, it was concluded that benzene is inhibiting heme synthesis at or before this enzymatic step. Similarly, 1 mM ALA both protected against and reversed the benzene inhibition of protein synthesis. This confirmed both the interdependence of heme and globin synthesis as well as the inhibition of the enzyme ALA-synthetase.

When pyridoxine (1 mM) was added to the incubation mixture, there was also protection against the benzene inhibition of both heme and protein synthesis.¹⁷ The active form of pyridoxine in cells is pyridoxal phosphate. Therefore, in this system at least a portion of the pyridoxine has to be phosphorylated by the enzyme pyridoxal phosphokinase. Since pyridoxine was added in great excess, this

study did not differentiate between benzene competition with pyridoxal phosphate at the site of ALA-synthetase, or benzene competition with pyridoxine for pyridoxine phosphokinase. Of note in this regard are the uncontrolled observations suggesting that pyridoxine may be of therapeutic value in human benzene hematotoxicity.¹¹

More recently it has been shown that elevated levels of intracellular cyclic AMP also prevent and reverse benzene inhibition of heme synthesis (and secondarily protein synthesis).¹² Cyclic AMP has been shown to exert its protective effect against inhibition of heme synthesis at the level of ALA-synthetase.¹³

On the basis of these studies, Freedman et al.¹⁷ have postulated that the primary toxic effect of benzene might conceivably be inhibition of heme synthesis at or before ALA-synthetase. Intracellular hemin has been shown to control globin synthesis by preventing the formation and/or reversing the activity as a hemin-controlled repressor (HCR) of initiation of globin chain synthesis.^{114,120-132} Hemin has also been shown to be necessary for the synthesis of globin as well as a large variety of nonglobin proteins in many cell types.¹³³⁻¹⁴¹ It appears that hemin is necessary for translation of most, if not all, proteins. The reported effects on DNA and RNA synthesis might then conceivably reflect a decreased production of the enzymes for DNA and RNA synthesis. The effect on marrow precursors other than erythroid cells could then result from a universal requirement for hemin in the initiation of protein synthesis.

In the past few years various investigators have suggested that ALA-synthetase plays a central role in erythropoiesis. Levere and Gidari¹⁴² in a recent review, summarized the data showing that erythropoietin and the 5- β -H steroids stimulate erythropoiesis, heme and globin synthesis in bone marrow cells. These hormones appear to exert a major part of their action by primarily inducing the synthesis of ALA-synthetase. Glass et al.¹⁴³ in a murine

bone marrow erythroid precursor system showed that erythropoietin stimulated ALA-synthetase and heme synthesis before any stimulatory effect on globin synthesis. These investigators also showed that heme synthesis is maximal in the earliest precursor cells and decreases with cell maturity, while globin synthesis increases with cell maturity. These results are compatible with the theory that there must first be sufficient heme synthesis to elevate intracellular hemin concentration. Sufficient intracellular hemin might then reverse preformed HCR which would allow protein synthesis and erythropoiesis to proceed. One possibility to explain this data is that benzene by its action at or before ALA-synthetase, prevents hormonal activation of heme synthesis and derepression of HCR, which in turn is necessary for globin synthesis and erythropoiesis. Furthermore, the hemin requirement in other cell types might explain why there is involvement of the entire marrow.

An inhibition of ALA-synthetase might also explain the apparent differential of benzene toxicity between the sexes. In both animal and human studies, females were shown to be more sensitive to the effects of benzene.^{144,145,146,147} ALA-synthetase is an inducible enzyme whose activity is related to the presence of various steroids.¹⁴² Etiocholanolone, a metabolite of testosterone, in the presence of glucocorticoids, greatly increases the activity of ALA-synthetase.¹⁴²

This theory is also consistent with the view that toxicity with any inhibitor of heme synthesis might not necessarily lead to aplastic anemia. In order to develop aplastic anemia it would be necessary to prevent heme synthesis in very early marrow precursor cells. Since ALA-synthetase is the rate-limiting enzyme, an inhibitor would have to either affect this enzyme or decrease the other enzymes in the pathway below the activity of ALA-synthetase. Benzene is a likely candidate to affect early marrow cells as it is highly lipid soluble with a pronounced affinity for the bone marrow.¹⁷

It should be emphasized, however, that what was investigated in our studies was acute benzene exposure *in vitro* and that most cases of benzene aplastic anemia follow prolonged and continuous exposure. These *in vitro* experiments in reticulocytes must, therefore, still be interpreted with caution before applying this data to clinical situations. Much more work needs to be done to ascertain if indeed it is benzene or a metabolite which is toxic, the dose at which benzene toxicity occurs, the mechanisms of concentration in the marrow, and the mechanism of development of aplastic anemia and other clinical hematological conditions. Furthermore, the interaction with other environmental pollutants, such as lead⁴⁵ and alcohol,⁴⁶ might accelerate the development of benzene toxicity. There are still many questions to be answered concerning benzene toxicity. What we have discussed in this review is a speculative theory that hopefully will stimulate further research in this very important area.

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