

TITLE

Context affects Quiet Eye duration and motor performance independent of cognitive effort

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JOURNAL

Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology

DATE DEPOSITED

9 November 2020

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1 Running Head: CONTEXT, QUIET EYE AND COGNITIVE EFFORT

2 **Context affects Quiet Eye duration and motor performance independent of cognitive**
3 **effort**

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15 **Accepted for publication in *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology* on 06/11/2020**

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Abstract

Extensive literature has shown the effect of 'Quiet Eye' (QE) on motor performance. However, little attention has been paid to the context in which tasks are executed (independent of anxiety) and the mechanisms that underpin the phenomenon. Here, we aimed to investigate the effects of context (independent of anxiety) on QE and performance while examining if the mechanisms underpinning QE are rooted in cognitive effort. In this study, 21 novice participants completed golf putts while pupil dilation, QE duration, and putting accuracy were measured. Results showed putting to win was more accurate compared to the control (no context) condition and QE duration was longer when putting to win or tie a hole compared to control. There was no effect of context on pupil dilation. Results suggest that, while the task was challenging, performance scenarios can enhance representativeness of practice without adding additional load to cognitive resources, even for novice performers.

Key Words: perceptual-cognitive skill; expertise; gaze behaviour, motor control

47 Over the past two decades, researchers have conducted numerous empirical
48 investigations in to the visual control of movement in aiming tasks (Causser et al., 2017;
49 Causser et al., 2011; Miles et al., 2015; Vickers et al., 2017; Vine & Wilson, 2011). A
50 consistent finding is that the final visual fixation (lasting over 100 ms; within one-degree of
51 visual angle) prior to execution of an action is exhibited for longer by higher skilled
52 participants. Longer final fixations are associated with more successful performance
53 outcomes (Lebeau et al., 2016), commonly referred to in the literature as the ‘Quiet Eye’
54 (QE; Vickers, 1992; Vickers, 1996; Vickers & Williams, 2007). Research findings
55 highlighting the performance benefits of QE have been consistently shown in sport (Lebeau
56 et al., 2016), surgery (Causser et al., 2014; Harvey et al., 2014), and coordination disorders
57 (Miles et al., 2015). Researchers have also developed interventions to increase QE duration
58 and reported subsequent performance improvements (Causser, Holmes, & Williams, 2011;
59 Panchuk et al., 2014; Vine et al., 2011; Vine & Wilson, 2011). However, little attention has
60 been paid to how the context in which tasks are executed (independent from anxiety) affects
61 QE, and debate remains on the mechanisms that underpin the QE phenomenon. Here, we
62 aimed to investigate the effects of context on QE and performance while examining if the
63 mechanisms underpinning QE are rooted in cognitive effort.

64 Researchers working in the field of perceptual-motor control have investigated how
65 task constraints affect gaze behaviour, anxiety, and cognitive effort, to glean a broader
66 understanding of the factors affecting performance. To this end, researchers have examined
67 how QE is affected by factors such as physiological arousal (Vickers & Williams, 2007), the
68 presence of opponents (Vickers et al., 2019), and in particular the manipulation of anxiety
69 (Causser et al., 2014; Causser et al., 2011; Moore et al., 2012; Vine et al., 2013; Wood &
70 Wilson, 2011). To manipulate anxiety, previous work has often used competition scenarios.

71 For example, Causer et al. (2011) instructed skilled shotgun shooters to ‘shoot as if they were
72 in a competition’ in an attempt to heighten anxiety and found an increase in self-reported
73 anxiety as well as later QE onset and shorter QE duration alongside reduced shooting
74 accuracy in this condition. From here on, we refer to such manipulations of situational
75 variables as manipulations of ‘context’ where context is defined as referring to ‘the situation
76 within which something exists or happens, and that can help explain it’ (Cambridge English
77 Dictionary, 2020).

78 The manipulation of context independent to anxiety has been of particular interest
79 following recent reviews which have identified the need for researchers to further investigate
80 its influence (see Cañal-Bruland & Mann, 2015; Loffing & Cañal-Bruland, 2017; Williams &
81 Jackson, 2019). Such research has reported that the presence of contextual information can
82 improve anticipation accuracy in cricket (Runswick et al., 2019; Runswick et al., 2018a) and
83 tennis (Murphy et al., 2016). McRobert et al. (2011) reported that providing contextual
84 information that did not focus on manipulating anxiety resulted in not only enhanced
85 accuracy in a perceptual-cognitive anticipation task, but also led to a reduction in length of
86 mean fixation duration, which was proposed as being due to a reduction in the time required
87 to process information. This suggests that the provision of contextual information which does
88 not seek to manipulate anxiety may also affect the functional coupling between QE and
89 action execution and may do so differently than reported in previous QE research that has
90 focused on anxiety based manipulations of the situation (Rodrigues et al., 2002).

91 Recent studies that have specifically investigated whether anxiety and context operate
92 through separate mechanisms have provided evidence that is consistent with this proposal.
93 Runswick et al. (2018b) conducted an experiment using an in-situ cricket batting task where
94 context and anxiety were manipulated separately. Anxiety was manipulated using a
95 combination of financial rewards, false feedback, and peer comparison, whereas context was

96 added using neutral game situations involving the placement of fielders and the score of the
97 game that did not affect anxiety. Results showed that when performing in conditions where
98 only anxiety was manipulated there was a reduction in batting performance and processing
99 efficiency, inferred from an increase in visual fixations on irrelevant stimuli. In contrast,
100 when contextual information was provided in the absence of the anxiety manipulations, bat-
101 ball contact was negatively affected but through changes in the execution of motor responses
102 without changes in processing efficiency. A similar study by Broadbent et al. (2018) required
103 expert soccer players to complete an anticipation task in high or low anxiety conditions with
104 and without 'contextual priors' that detailed the opponent's action tendencies. In conditions
105 where anxiety was manipulated (through performance evaluation), anticipation performance
106 was negatively affected and was underpinned by a decrease in processing efficiency
107 measured through self-reported mental effort. However, context enhanced anticipation
108 performance without affecting processing efficiency. Taken together, these findings reported
109 by Runswick et al. (2018b) and Broadbent et al. (2018) suggest that the provision of context
110 and the manipulation of anxiety both affect aspects of perceptual-motor control, including
111 gaze behaviour, cognitive load, and performance execution, but do so through separate
112 mechanisms. There is then a need to consider how the provision of contextual information
113 independent to any manipulation of anxiety affects QE and associated performance.

114 Despite consistent research findings concerning QE and motor performance, there
115 remains some debate over the mechanisms that underpin the phenomenon. In their review,
116 Gonzalez et al. (2017) highlighted a number of mechanisms that have been proposed to
117 underpin the QE effect. Mechanisms included allocation of attention (Klostermann et al.,
118 2014), motor programming (Mann et al., 2011) and response selection and online control
119 (Causer et al., 2017). For example, Vine et al. (2015) used a temporal occlusion paradigm
120 during a golf putting task to show that the latter portion of the QE period was critical when

121 executing the putt, suggesting therefore that QE is not just a motor programming period but
122 also has a role to play in online control. However, evidence has recently emerged which
123 suggests that QE mechanisms may be linked to information processing and increased
124 cognitive effort (Campbell et al., 2019; Klostermann et al., 2014). This suggests that the
125 performance enhancing effects of longer QE periods are due to QE being a proxy for
126 increases in allocation of cognitive resources devoted to the task at hand.

127 Pupil dilation has been used as a measure of cognitive effort, with larger task-invoked
128 pupil dilation reported as being related to increased cognitive effort during harder cognitive
129 tasks (Beatty & Kahneman, 1966; Campbell et al., 2019; Moran et al., 2016; Robinson &
130 Unsworth, 2019). While Vine et al. (2015) have shown the importance of information
131 available late in the QE period in a golf-putting task, Campbell et al. (2019) found that
132 participants' peak pupil dilation occurred at the onset of QE, consistent with the suggestion
133 that this was the most cognitively demanding time in the task and that QE may be related to
134 cognitive effort. Pupil dilation could, therefore, provide a useful window into the mechanistic
135 underpinnings of QE. However, Campbell et al.'s (2019) study represents one of the first to
136 investigate the relationship between QE and pupil dilation and so there is a need to examine
137 this further. Further, there has been no investigation into how experimental manipulations of
138 context which alter the degree of cognitive challenge may affect this relationship. By
139 understanding if context affects QE duration, cognitive effort, and perceptual-motor
140 performance, it is possible to better understand the findings of previous work that has used
141 context to manipulate anxiety. Such investigations can then inform the design of training
142 environments that are as representative as possible (Pinder et al., 2011) without overloading
143 the cognitive resources of the learner (Runswick, et al., 2018a; Van Merriënboer & Sweller,
144 2005).

145 In this study, we used a golf-putting task and manipulated the context under which
146 participants putted to investigate how context affects QE duration and motor performance.
147 Specifically, participants putted under conditions where they were instructed that a successful
148 putt would either ‘win the hole’, would ‘tie the hole’ (traditionally referred to as a half), or to
149 putt as if they were practising (i.e., absence of context). We recorded QE duration (ms) and
150 putting accuracy (error score) to assess how context affected perceptual-motor control, motor
151 performance and recorded pupil dilation (mm) as an indicator of cognitive effort. Based on
152 the literature showing the effects of QE on performance (Lebeau et al., 2016; Mann et al.,
153 2007) and effects of context on cognitive processes (McRobert et al., 2011b), we predicted
154 that the presence of context would improve putting accuracy and this would be mediated by
155 an increase in QE duration. On the basis of Campbell et al.’s (2019) proposals, we expected
156 an increase in QE duration would also be accompanied by an increase in pupil dilation as a
157 proxy of cognitive effort. However, Runswick et al. (2018a; 2018b) reported that context had
158 little effect on cognitive effort, which contrasts with the proposals of Campbell et al. (2019).
159 Runswick et al.’s (2018a; 2018b) findings therefore would inform the hypothesis that the
160 presence of context would affect QE duration and performance but with no change in pupil
161 dilation. Given the relatively novel nature of this part of the study and the limited yet
162 contrasting existing research findings, our aim here was to test these competing hypotheses.

163 **Method**

164 **Participants**

165 We conducted an a-priori power analysis using G*power (Faul et al., 2007). The
166 calculation was based on the main effect size from Runswick et al. (2018b) that represents the
167 only previous study to investigate the effects of context on perceptual-cognitive-motor
168 performance in a sports-based task. We used the within-factor effect size that displayed a
169 significant effect of context on motor performance ($\eta p^2 = 0.46$). We set a moderate

170 correlation ($r = 0.3$) and power at 0.95. The minimum sample size required was $n = 10$. Given
171 the very large effect size in Runswick et al. (2018b), and to account for potential dropout, we
172 recruited 21 participants. The 21 participants (mean age 21.22 ± 1.89 years) who completed
173 the study were all classed as novice golfers, defined as those with no experience playing golf.
174 Due to the nature of the sample, some participants may have had some limited exposure to
175 putting during lab classes or playing 'crazy golf'. Novices were used for this study due to the
176 benefit in investigating the mechanisms underpinning QE where novices are likely to find the
177 addition of context cognitively demanding due to the need to process the information to
178 assess the most appropriate response (Van Merriënboer & Sweller, 2005). The research was
179 conducted in accordance with the ethical guidelines of the lead institution and written
180 informed consent was obtained from all participants at the outset.

181 **Apparatus and task**

182 The experimental task required participants to complete a golf putt without break
183 from a distance of 243cm (8 ft). Testing was conducted using a hole on an indoor putting
184 green in a laboratory. The golf club used was a 'Series Tour' golf putter, and the ball was a
185 regulation golf ball (diameter = 43.67 mm, mass = 45.93 g). Gaze behaviour, QE duration
186 and pupil diameter were recorded using a SensoMotoric Instruments (SMI) mobile eye
187 tracker recording at 60hz. Pupillometry was recorded at a sampling frequency of 30 Hz from
188 both the left and right eye. Putting accuracy was recorded using a standard digital video
189 camera positioned above the hole.

190 **Procedure**

191 Participants were required to attend one testing session. Upon arrival at the laboratory,
192 all participants provided written informed consent. Participants then put on the SMI eye-
193 tracker, which was calibrated using the 3-point calibration system with participants looking
194 at golf balls on the ground from a putting stance to represent the viewing angle to be used

195 during testing. Participants were informed that they would be asked to perform 18 golf putts,
196 representing an 18-hole match and were instructed to perform the putt in the way they
197 deemed most appropriate for the scenario they were given. Prior to each putt, the lead
198 investigator provided the participant with contextual information. This consisted of
199 participants being informed that the subsequent putt was to either win the hole, tie the hole, or
200 the putt was simply a practice putt. The order of putts was counterbalanced across
201 participants. As participants were all considered novice golfers, in ‘win’ and ‘tie’ scenarios
202 the researcher also outlined the possible outcome of each putt to ensure the participant
203 understood the context but did not direct them on how to behave. For example, “This putt is
204 to win the hole. If you hole the putt you will win, if you miss you will have a second putt to
205 tie (draw) the hole”; “This putt is to tie (draw) the hole. If you hole the putt you will tie
206 (draw), if you miss the putt you will lose the hole”; “The hole is over and you are taking a
207 practice putt”.

208 **Dependent Measures**

209 *Putting Accuracy*

210 Putting accuracy was recorded as a measure of putting performance. Ten concentric
211 circles surrounded the hole that progressively increased in radius from 10cm to 100cm at
212 10cm intervals. Error was scored out of 10 (putt finishes in the hole) with the score
213 decreasing by 1 for every ring further from the hole. Any putt that finished outside the 100cm
214 radius ring (the furthest ring from the hole) was scored as zero.

215 *Quiet Eye Duration*

216 Consistent with previous literature (e.g., Causer et al., 2017; Vickers, 2007), QE was
217 defined as the initiation of the final fixation on the ball that occurred prior to the start of the
218 backswing. QE duration was recorded using the eye tracker and defined as the length of the
219 fixation (ms) starting from onset, the first frame when the final fixation on the ball began, to

220 offset, when gaze deviated by more than 1 degree of visual angle from the ball for more than
221 100 ms (Vickers, 2007).

222 *Pupillometry*

223 Campbell et al. (2019) reported that pupil dilation would peak at the onset of QE.
224 However, in this study pupil dilation peaked after the onset of QE in 74% of all trials. We
225 therefore recorded pupil dilation in three ways. Firstly, the pupil dilation (mm) at the onset of
226 QE (as per Campbell et al., 2019). Secondly, the peak task-evoked pupillary response that
227 occurred during the QE period, and finally the mean pupil dilation across the period of the
228 QE. The dilation of the right eye was used for all analyses (Kahya et al., 2018; Moran et al.,
229 2016; Porter et al., 2007). Full QE and pupillometry data were available for 19 out of 21
230 participants due to technical issues with the eye tracker for the remaining two participants.

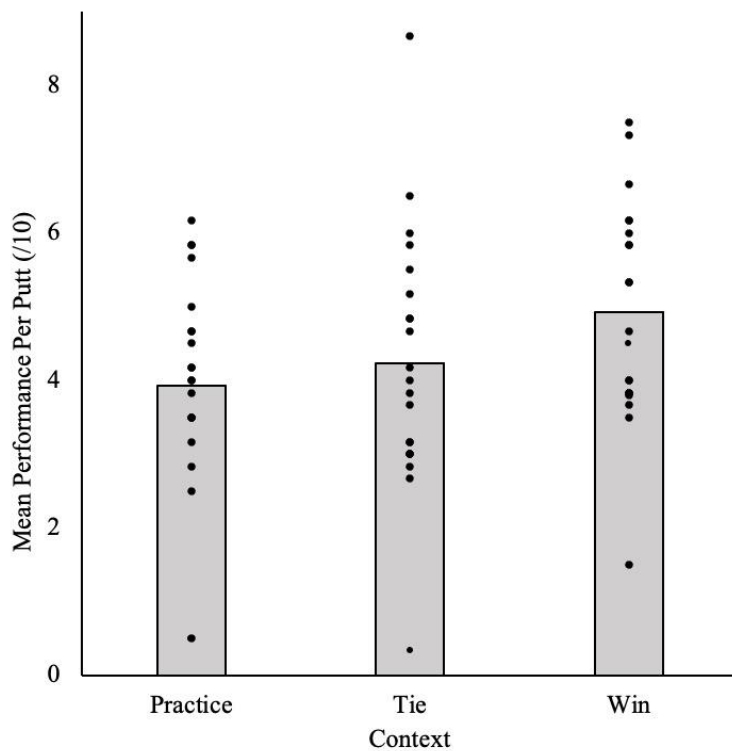
231 **Data Analysis**

232 Separate one-way repeated measures ANOVA were used to establish the effect of
233 context (win vs tie vs practice conditions) on each dependent variable (putting accuracy,
234 Quiet Eye duration, and onset, mean, and peak pupil dilation). Any violations of sphericity
235 were corrected for by adjusting the degrees of freedom using the Greenhouse Geisser
236 correction when epsilon was less than 0.75 and the Huynh-Feldt correction when greater than
237 0.75 (Girden, 1992). The alpha level (p) for statistical significance was set at 0.05. A
238 Bonferroni adjustment was employed for multiple comparisons in order to lower the
239 significance threshold and avoid Type I errors (McLaughlin & Sainani, 2014). Partial eta
240 squared (η^2) was used as a measure of effect size for all ANOVA analyses and Cohen's d
241 for post-hoc comparisons.

242 **Results**

243 **Performance**

244 **Putting accuracy.** There was a main effect of context on putting accuracy ($F(2,40) =$
245 $3.696, p < 0.034, \eta^2 = 0.156$, Figure 1). Post hoc tests using Bonferroni correction revealed a
246 higher performance score (more accurate putting) in the *Win* (4.92 ± 1.48) compared to
247 *Practice* (3.93 ± 1.51) condition ($p = 0.026, d = 0.66$). There was no difference in putting
248 accuracy between the *Tie* (4.23 ± 1.74) and *Practice* ($p = 1.0, d = 0.18$) or *Tie* and *Win* ($p =$
249 $0.42, d = 0.43$) conditions.

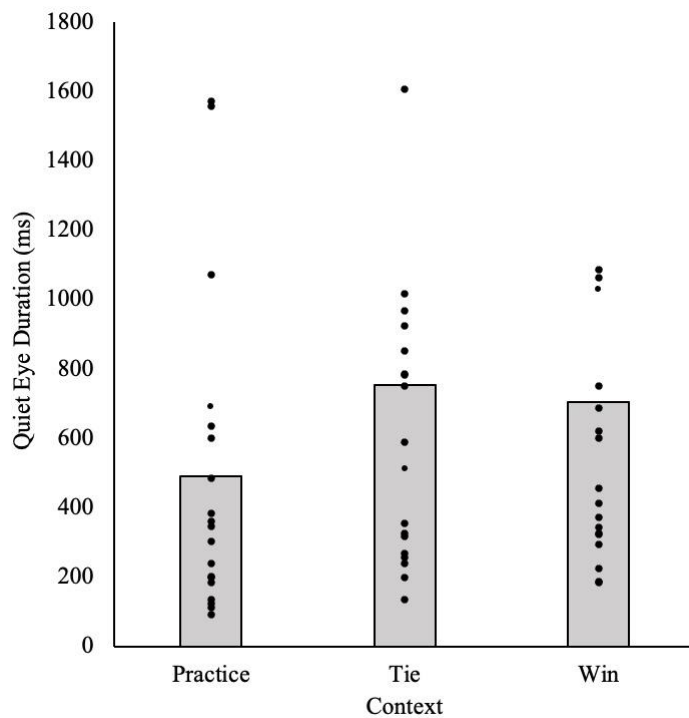


250
251 **Figure 1.** Mean performance score per putt with individual participant data points for each
252 condition.

253
254 **Quiet Eye Duration**

255 There was a main effect of context on QE duration ($F(1.520, 27.361) = 5.250, p < 0.02, \eta^2$
256 $= 0.226$, Figure 2). Post hoc tests using Bonferroni correction revealed shorter QE duration in
257 the *Practice* (489.23 ± 453.19 ms), compared to *Tie* (752.82 ± 747.76 ms, $p = .05, d = 0.43$)

258 and *Win* (704.80 ± 607.48 ms, $p = .005$, $d = 0.40$) conditions. There was no difference in QE
259 duration between *Tie* and *Win* conditions ($p = 1.0$, $d = 0.07$).



260

261 **Figure 2.** Mean Quiet Eye duration with individual participant data points for each condition.

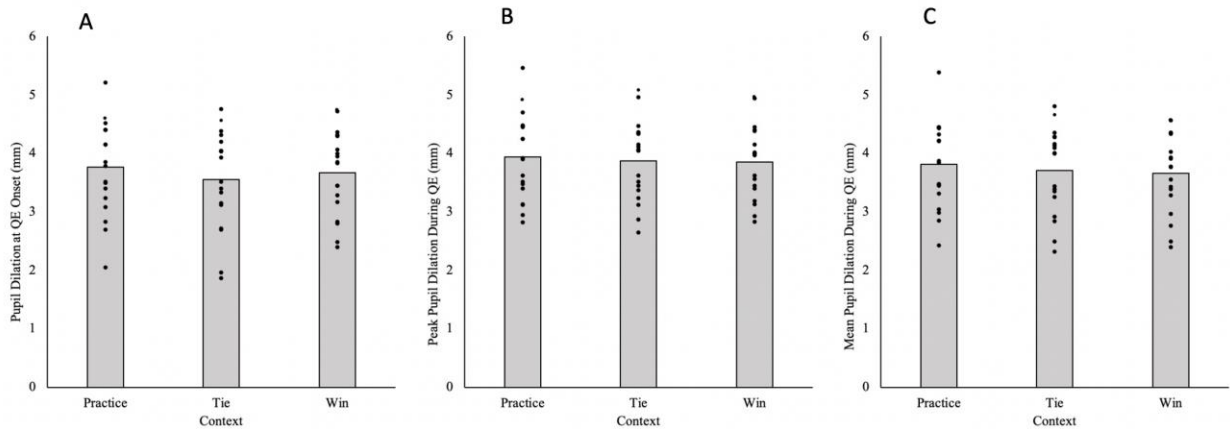
262

263 Pupillometry

264 There was no main effect of context on pupil dilation at the onset of QE (Practice = $3.77 \pm$
265 0.80 ; Tie = 3.56 ± 0.84 ; Win = 3.67 ± 0.72 ; $F(2, 36) = 2.299$, $p = 0.116$, $\eta^2 = 0.119$). There
266 was also no main effect of context on mean pupil dilation (Practice = 3.81 ± 0.72 ; Tie = 3.71
267 ± 0.71 ; Win = 3.66 ± 0.66 ; $F(2, 36) = 2.536$, $p = 0.093$, $\eta^2 = 0.123$). Finally, there was also
268 no main effect of context on peak pupil dilation during the QE period (Practice = 3.94 ± 0.72 ;
269 Tie = 3.88 ± 0.67 ; Win = 3.85 ± 0.62 ; $F(2, 36) = 0.71$, $p = 0.45$, $\eta^2 = 0.04$).

270

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272

273 **Figure 3.** Mean and individual participant data points for each condition for (A) Pupil
 274 dilation at QE onset (B) Peak pupil dilation during the QE period and (C) Mean pupil dilation
 275 during the QE period.

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Discussion

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Our aim in this experiment was to investigate how manipulation of context independent of anxiety affected visual motor control and motor performance. Participants completed a golf-putting task under manipulations of context or in the absence of context. We recorded Quiet Eye duration as a measure of visual motor control, putting accuracy as a measure of motor performance, and pupil dilation as an indicator of cognitive effort. We predicted that context would positively affect performance, and this would be mediated by changes in QE duration. If Campbell et al's (2019) proposals were accurate then we expected that an increase in QE duration would also be accompanied by an increase in pupil dilation as a proxy of cognitive effort. However, the contrasting findings of Runswick et al. (2018a; 2018b) informed the competing hypothesis that context would affect QE duration and performance with no change in pupil dilation as an indicator of cognitive effort.

289 In line with our hypotheses, and consistent with findings from previous empirical
290 investigations, there was a significant main effect of context on performance (see Causer et
291 al., 2011; McRobert et al., 2011; Murphy et al., 2016). Participants putted more accurately
292 when putts were in context ‘to win’ compared to practice putts (no context). These findings
293 are partially consistent with those reported by Runswick et al. (2018b) who found the
294 presence of context affected performance in an interceptive perceptual-cognitive-motor task.
295 However, whilst we observed an *improvement* in putting accuracy, Runswick et al. (2018b)
296 found the presence of context caused a *degradation* in quality of bat-ball contact. When the
297 cricket batters in Runswick’s study were exposed to context (in the form of fielder position
298 and score line information) there was an enhanced likelihood of negative outcomes (i.e., they
299 could lose their wicket, or the fielders could intercept their shots). In this study, however, the
300 context of putting to win meant participants had two attempts to avoid losing the hole,
301 meaning a potential increase in possible positive outcomes. Together, these findings suggest
302 that the type of scenario presented and nature of the task may mediate the effects of context
303 on motor performance.

304 The main effect of context on performance (putting accuracy) was accompanied by a
305 main effect of context on QE duration. However, QE durations reported here are shorter than
306 reported elsewhere previously (e.g., Vine et al., 2011), which may be due to novice
307 participants being used in this experiment whereas much previous research has employed
308 skilled participants. Despite QE duration being comparatively short, both putting conditions
309 where context was provided (i.e., putting ‘to win’ or ‘tie’) were characterised by significantly
310 longer QE durations than when putting in the absence of context (i.e., the ‘practice’
311 condition), which was also the condition in which putting was least accurate. Although not in
312 an aiming task, McRobert et al. (2011) previously reported changes in gaze behaviour during
313 perceptual-cognitive tasks when provided with contextual information relative to when

314 performing the same tasks without contextual information. In the study reported here, the link
315 between an increase in QE duration and enhanced putting accuracy in the ‘putt to win’
316 condition is consistent with much of the literature concerning QE and motor performance,
317 both within golf putting (see Campbell et al., 2019; Causer et al., 2017) and other tasks (see
318 Lebeau et al., 2016). While previous research has shown that QE duration and subsequent
319 motor performance was affected by anxiety manipulated through the addition of context (e.g.,
320 Causer et al., 2011), here we have specifically shown the context in which a task is
321 performed- independent of anxiety- affects QE and performance outcomes. This suggests that
322 to develop measures of optimum gaze applicable to real world settings, non-visual
323 information such as contextual factors should be represented in experimental designs and
324 practice environments.

325 To test recent suggestions that QE may be underpinned by cognitive mechanisms
326 based on greater cognitive effort and information processing (Campbell et al., 2019;
327 Klostermann et al., 2014), we collected pupillometry data in three ways during the QE period.
328 The pupil dilations recorded were large compared to those reported in classical work
329 involving participants completing seven digit memory tasks (see Beatty & Kahneman, 1966),
330 suggesting the putting task was cognitively challenging for a novice. However, despite a
331 significant increase in QE duration in the ‘putt to win’ and ‘putt to tie’ conditions compared
332 to the control ‘practice’ condition, there was no effect of the additional context on onset, peak
333 or mean pupil dilation despite concurrent changes in motor performance. This suggests that
334 context manipulations affect perceptual-motor processes independent from changes in
335 cognitive effort. Our findings therefore challenge the predictions of Campbell et al. (2019)
336 who suggest QE may be mediated by changes in cognitive processes. These findings are,
337 however, in line with those of Runswick et al. (2018a; 2018b) and Broadbent et al. (2018)

338 who reported that changes in context affect perceptual-motor processes independent of
339 cognitive effort and anxiety.

340 The results have practical, theoretical and empirical implications. First, much of the
341 current understanding around QE behaviour, while predicated on a strong base of scientific
342 evidence derived from research studies that have manipulated numerous constraints on the
343 task (e.g Causer et al., 2014; Causer et al., 2011; Moore et al., 2012; Vine et al., 2013; Wood
344 & Wilson, 2011), has not considered contextual information which is present in performance
345 environments independent of anxiety. It is important that researchers seek to ensure that
346 factors present in performance environments are faithfully represented, as much as is
347 possible, when designing experiments (Broadbent et al., 2015; Pinder et al., 2011; Stone et
348 al., 2014). Second, the finding that context influenced perceptual-motor processes
349 independent of cognitive effort suggests that not only should context be included in
350 experimental design, but that it could be incorporated in learning environments without
351 overloading the cognitive resources of even novice learners (c.f. Cognitive Load Theory; van
352 Merriënboer & Sweller, 2005). We did not find evidence for the proposal that QE duration
353 may be an indicator of enhanced information processing. Future research could also include
354 more specific measures to investigate other proposed QE mechanisms alongside pupillometry
355 that focus on cognitive approaches.

356 In this study, we employed a context manipulation in a golf-putting task to investigate
357 the effects of context on QE duration, target aiming motor performance and cognitive effort.
358 Findings showed that the provision of context led to an increase in QE duration and more
359 accurate motor performance, yet these effects occurred without changes in pupil dilation; a
360 proxy for cognitive effort. Findings suggest that context could be included in the design of
361 QE experiments and training environments by using simple hypothetical manipulations.

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