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41 **QUANTUM CASCADE LASER-ASSISTED TIME-RESOLVED MEASUREMENTS OF**  
42 **CARBON DIOXIDE ABSORPTION DURING COMBUSTION IN DME-HCCI ENGINE**

43

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49

50 **Abstract**

51 We conducted experiments to investigate in-cylinder light absorption by carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>)  
52 during homogeneous charge compression ignition (HCCI) engine combustion. The combustion  
53 was fuelled with dimethyl ether. An in situ laser infrared absorption method was developed. We  
54 used an optical fibre spark plug sensor and the light source was a 4.301 μm quantum cascade  
55 laser (QCL). We applied Lambert–Beer’s law in the case of a single absorption line of CO<sub>2</sub>. We  
56 were able to measure the transient CO<sub>2</sub> formation during the HCCI combustion inside the engine  
57 cylinder. Our experiments showed that the laser light transmissivity level decreased with the  
58 intensity of the infrared (IR) signal. We compared the change in the transmissivity to the  
59 spatially integrated HCCI flame luminosity level and observed significant correlations between  
60 the flame luminosity level, heat release rate and transmissivity. Time-resolved experiments  
61 showed that the CO<sub>2</sub> absorbance increases when the second peak of the rate of heat release  
62 (ROHR) is maximised. After combustion, the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration was approximately 4 vol. %,   
63 which agrees with the amount of CO<sub>2</sub> formed during complete combustion.

64

65 **Keywords:** HCCI; IC engine combustion; dimethyl ether; CO<sub>2</sub> infrared light absorption; heat  
66 release rate; quantum cascade laser

67

68 **1. Introduction**

69 Homogeneous charge compression ignition (HCCI) engines have received much attention due to  
70 their high combustion efficiency and low nitrogen oxide (NO<sub>x</sub>) and particulate matter (PM)  
71 emission rates. Recent studies on HCCI-based combustion engines have focused on four-stroke

72 engines using conventional or alternative fuels, including dimethyl ether (DME) fuel [1-4]. In  
73 HCCI engines, DME fuel exhibits very strong low-temperature kinetic reactions, making it  
74 suitable for compression ignition engines. It is a promising alternative fuel due to the fact that it  
75 will not contribute to the air-pollution problems caused by soot and NO<sub>x</sub> [5], which are emitted  
76 by conventional fuels. To improve understanding of the DME oxidation mechanism in an HCCI  
77 engine, we conducted experimental kinetic studies to characterise the combustion. One effective  
78 way to investigate the DME reaction mechanisms is to use spectral analysis to determine the  
79 major active species, especially CO<sub>2</sub> and CO [6-9]. A number of studies have examined CO<sub>2</sub> and  
80 CO absorption in a constant volume vessel or reactor. However, few studies have examined CO<sub>2</sub>  
81 formation and absorption under normal engine conditions. Schultz et al. [10] investigated the  
82 impact of ultraviolet (UV) absorption by CO<sub>2</sub> in high-pressure combustion applications. They  
83 measured the absorption cross section of CO<sub>2</sub> at combustion temperatures corresponding to  
84 wavelengths of 190 nm and found that the measured absorption cross section had a pronounced  
85 temperature dependence in the case of CO<sub>2</sub>, and that to analyse the absorption by hot combustion  
86 products, significant corrections to the UV combustion measurements must be made. Farooq et  
87 al. [11] performed high-pressure measurements of CO<sub>2</sub> absorption at wavelengths near 2.7 μm.  
88 They concluded that in this wavelength range, as the spectra broaden and blend at high densities,  
89 access to discrete transitions is not possible. This makes it difficult to avoid H<sub>2</sub>O interference.  
90 Hall et al. [12] used broadband infrared radiation from a tungsten halide lamp to analyse the  
91 density of CO<sub>2</sub> in the cylinder of a spark-ignited (SI) engine. The CO<sub>2</sub> was measured by the  
92 attenuation of the infrared radiation, which occurs due to the excitation of the 2,300cm<sup>-1</sup> infrared  
93 vibrational-rotational absorption band. Kawahara et al. [13] used infrared laser absorption to  
94 conduct cycle-resolved residual gas concentration measurements inside a heavy-duty diesel  
95 engine. They were able to quantify the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration in the residual gas and estimate the  
96 internal exhaust gas recirculation (EGR) ratio. Residual gas concentrations, especially CO<sub>2</sub> and  
97 H<sub>2</sub>O, have also been measured in situ using infrared absorption techniques [14, 15].  
98 Francqueville et al. [15] measured the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration across the combustion chamber in a

99 spark-ignited engine. Grosch et al. [16] performed infrared spectroscopic concentration  
100 measurements of CO<sub>2</sub> and gaseous H<sub>2</sub>O in environments that are difficult to measure directly  
101 using a fibre optical sensor. The mixture of CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O was analysed spectrally at a  
102 wavelength of about 3,700cm<sup>-1</sup> for temperatures up to 573 K and pressures up to 1,800 kPa. An  
103 optical absorption sensor was used to make quantitative in-cylinder transmission measurements.

104       Optical absorption-based sensors are used to analyse mixture formation in spark-ignited  
105 engines. Using these sensors, it is possible to access the cylinder without modifications such as  
106 optical windows. As a result, the thermodynamic and mechanical properties of the engine being  
107 studied will not be changed by the apparatus, enabling measurements to be made under realistic  
108 conditions. The in-cylinder mixture was analysed using optical absorption-based sensors in  
109 conjunction with gas sampling probes. Little progress has been made towards the development  
110 of practical absorption-based sensors for CO<sub>2</sub> measurements in high-pressure combustion  
111 environments. Most previous high-pressure CO<sub>2</sub> sensors used robust telecommunications diode  
112 lasers and optical fibre technology in the near-infrared (NIR) 1.3–1.6 μm wavelength region.  
113 These sensors accessed weak vibrational bands of CO<sub>2</sub> by direct absorption [22] and used direct  
114 absorption spectroscopy [17–19], wavelength modulation spectroscopy (WMS) [20, 21], or NIR  
115 hyperspectral sources. To explore the challenges of optical sensor design for high-pressure  
116 applications [23], high-pressure measurements of CO<sub>2</sub> absorption have recently been performed  
117 near 2.0 μm.

118       The work presented in this paper is motivated by the need for an in-situ absorption-based  
119 diagnostic for measuring transient CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in HCCI engine cylinders. Understanding  
120 the transient CO<sub>2</sub> formation process may help resolve problems related to knocking combustion  
121 [24] and exhaust gas formation [25]. This also aids the design of efficient HCCI engines with  
122 precise ignition timing control and a variable valve timing system [26, 27]. The objective of this  
123 study was to measure transient CO<sub>2</sub> formation during DME-HCCI combustion. By combining  
124 spectroscopy and QCLs, we were able to determine the CO<sub>2</sub> light absorption. Our aim was to  
125 characterise the time-resolved spectrum of CO<sub>2</sub> formation. CO<sub>2</sub> formation is a representative

126 indicator of thermal ignition and fuel oxidation during HCCI combustion.

127

## 128 2. Experimental setup and procedure

129 We used an optical compression–expansion test engine with a single cylinder and a  
130 compression ratio of 9.0, as shown in Figure 1 and Table 1, to study DME-fuelled HCCI. The  
131 engine crank was driven externally by a 2,000 W induction motor and rotated at a constant rate  
132 of 600 rpm. The DME was premixed with gas at a ratio of 20% oxygen to 80% argon at molar  
133 proportions equivalent to  $\phi = 0.30$ . Argon was used instead of nitrogen for two reasons: firstly, to  
134 increase the in-cylinder temperature at the end of compression by decreasing the heat capacity of  
135 the in-cylinder gas–fuel mixture; and secondly, to initiate HCCI combustion at a significantly  
136 lower compression ratio than that used in conventional HCCI engines. The DME–O<sub>2</sub>–Ar fuel  
137 mixture was supplied to the mixture tank, where it was heated to the temperature  $T_{in} = 293$  K,  
138 303 K and 310 K and maintained at pressure  $P_{in} = 65$  kPa. While the motor was on, the intake  
139 valve remained open, and the fuel mixture was sucked into the cylinder and pushed back into the  
140 mixture tank. When the thermocouple reading in the mixture tank stabilised, a valve closure  
141 signal was sent to a solenoid that activated the valve stopper. The intake valve was closed at  
142 around bottom dead centre (BDC), and the fuel mixture was compressed, autoignited, and  
143 combusted. Changes in the gas pressure were measured during the compression and expansion  
144 strokes using a KISTLER 6052B pressure transducer. Concurrently, sequential HCCI-DME  
145 combustion images were recorded by a high-speed camera (MEMRECAM GX-8; Nac Image  
146 Technology Inc., Simi Valley, CA, USA) at 10,000 frames per second with a resolution of 640 ×  
147 640 pixels. CO<sub>2</sub> absorption was measured by directing laser light from the QCL to the spark plug  
148 sensor via optical fibres, and then to the infrared (IR) detector. A QCL is a semiconductor laser  
149 that emits light in the mid- to far-infrared portion of the electromagnetic spectrum. Unlike typical  
150 interband semiconductor lasers, which emit electromagnetic radiation through the recombination  
151 of electron–hole pairs across the material band gap, the QCL is unipolar and laser emission is  
152 achieved via intersubband transitions in a repeated stack of semiconductor multiple quantum

153 well heterostructures [28]. A QCL was used as the light source due to its strong absorption, and  
154 because no other gas needs to be introduced to the burned gas or fresh mixture. The  
155 centre-wavelength of the QCL at 4.301  $\mu\text{m}$ , shown in Figure 2, coincides with the absorption  
156 line of  $\text{CO}_2$ . This absorption line is caused by the C–O vibrational-rotational band, estimated  
157 using the HITRAN database to occur at temperature 900K [29]. The temperature of 900 K is  
158 typical in the combustion conditions investigated. Figure 3 shows an optical fibre-embedded  
159 spark plug installed into an engine cylinder head (A). The spark plug includes an electrode and a  
160 metallic mirror for laser beam reflection. A schematic diagram of the optical spark plug is shown  
161 in (B). The light was transmitted through an optical fibre to the spark-plug sensor installed in the  
162 combustion chamber and reflected back from the metal mirror of the sensor, passing through an  
163 optical fibre again, and finally to the IR detector (P4631; Hamamatsu Photonics K.K.,  
164 Hamamatsu, Japan), as shown in Figure 1. A band-pass filter with a centre-wavelength of 4.300  
165  $\mu\text{m}$  and full-width at half-maximum (FWHM) of 160 nm was placed in front of the IR detector.

166 The infrared spectral absorbance was determined by applying the Lambert-Beer law to the  
167 measured spectral transmission. The Lambert-Beer law relates the attenuation of light to the  
168 properties of the material through which the light is traveling. The proportion of the light  
169 absorbed will depend on how many molecules it interacts with.

$$170 \quad A(\lambda) = \log_{10} \left[ \frac{I_0(\lambda)}{I(\lambda)} \right] = \epsilon c L \quad (1)$$

171 where  $A(\lambda)$  is the spectral absorbance,  $I_0(\lambda)$  is the intensity in an air-filled environment,  $I(\lambda)$  is  
172 the intensity in a DME– $\text{O}_2$ –Ar-filled environment, and  $\epsilon$ ,  $c$  and  $L$  are the molar absorption  
173 coefficient, molar concentration, and measurement length, respectively. To use this law, the  
174 molar absorption coefficient of the  $\text{CO}_2$  was determined for different pressures and temperatures  
175 in advance. In our test engine experiments, we simultaneously measured the  $\text{CO}_2$  absorption and  
176 in-cylinder pressure, and made a high speed camera recording of the combustion. The initial  
177 conditions were fixed at  $P_{\text{in}} = 65$  kPa,  $T_{\text{in}} = 293, 303$  and  $310$  K,  $\phi = 0.3$ . Taking into account  
178 cyclic variations in the in-cylinder combustion, the resultant combustion intensities were defined

179 as weak, medium and strong. These combustion intensities were defined as the rate of maximum  
180 pressure rise with respect to the crank angle. Figure 4 shows the distribution of the maximum  
181 pressure rise for different combustion cycles. Weak combustion cycles have a value below 0.05  
182 MPa/dθ. Just above this level, there are a few medium-intensity combustion cycles, followed by  
183 a large distribution of high-intensity combustion cycles. We determined correlations between the  
184 combustion intensity, in-cylinder pressure, ROHR and time-resolved CO<sub>2</sub> absorption.

185

### 186 3. Results and discussion

#### 187 3.1 IR signal and laser light transmissivity

188 To ensure a valid analysis, we must take particular care because the pressure and temperature  
189 inside the engine cylinder change drastically as the piston moves. The purpose of this study was  
190 to quantify the history of the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration inside the combustion chamber; therefore, the  
191 molar absorption coefficient of the CO<sub>2</sub> had to be determined in advance at different pressures  
192 and temperatures. Figure 5 shows an example of the effects of the ambient pressure and  
193 temperature on the molar absorption coefficient of CO<sub>2</sub>. The temperatures varied between 300  
194 and 900 K, while the pressures were between 0.1 and 2.0 MPa. The results were compared with  
195 those obtained from the HITRAN database. HITRAN is a high-resolution transmission  
196 molecular absorption database. It is a compilation of spectroscopic parameters used to predict  
197 and simulate the transmission and emission of light from gaseous substances. The HITRAN  
198 database is recognised by many researchers, and is used in many different applications such as  
199 transmission simulations, fundamental laboratory spectroscopy studies and combustion physics  
200 [29]. Figure 5 shows that the molar absorption coefficient increases as the ambient pressure  
201 increases from 0.1 MPa to 1.0 MPa and changes slightly when the pressure level is above 1.0  
202 MPa. The measured molar absorption coefficients for the different pressures and temperatures  
203 agreed well with the corresponding values in the HITRAN database.

204 The experimental results for the CO<sub>2</sub> absorption in the engine cylinder are shown in Figure 6.  
205 This figure indicates that the HCCI combustion process could be divided into two consecutive

206 parts: a low-temperature reaction (LTR) region, and a high-temperature reaction (HTR) region;  
 207 both parts were visible on the pressure trace and the rate of heat release curve. The LTR region  
 208 was characterised by the low oxidation rate of the DME. We observed that the IR signal strength  
 209 is affected by the in-cylinder pressure. We measured the IR detector voltage using an optical  
 210 chopper to eliminate the effect of background radiation on the raw IR signal. The raw IR signal  
 211 was stable as CO<sub>2</sub> was not absorbed during the compression stroke. CO<sub>2</sub> was formed in the HTR  
 212 region. After the HTR region, the baseline of the IR signal rapidly increased and the  
 213 transmissivity of the laser light decreased, due to the absorption of laser light with a wavelength  
 214 of 4.3 μm by the CO<sub>2</sub> gas. These combined results indicate that the in-cylinder pressure, ROHR,  
 215 IR signal and transmissivity due to CO<sub>2</sub> absorption are correlated.

216

### 217 3.2 Spatially integrated flame luminosity

218 To obtain a qualitative representation of the rate of combustion, we integrated the flame  
 219 luminosity over the cross-sectional area of the engine cylinder. The spatial distribution of the  
 220 flame luminosity was determined using numerical integration. For a continuous surface  $Z =$   
 221  $f(x,y)$ ,  $(x,y) \in \sigma$ , the volume beneath it can be computed with

$$222 \quad \iint_{(\sigma)} f(x, y) dx dy \quad (2)$$

223 Applying the method for numerical integration, this can be written as

$$224 \quad \iint_{(\sigma)} f(x, y) dx dy = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \lim_{\Delta y \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} f(x_i, y_j) \Delta x \Delta y \approx \sum_{i=0}^{M-1} \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} f(x_i, y_j) \Delta x \Delta y \quad (3)$$

225 where M and N are the number of rows and columns of the computational matrix, respectively.

226 In the actual computation,  $(f(x_i, y_j) + f(x_i, y_{j+1}) + f(x_{i+1}, y_j) + f(x_{i+1}, y_{j+1}))/4$  was used  
 227 instead of  $f(x_i, y_j)$ .

228 Raw two-dimensional images of the flame intensity in the HTR region are shown on the  
 229 left-hand-side of Figures 7–9. These were obtained with a high-speed camera at a fixed  
 230 equivalence ratio of 0.3, intake pressure 65 kPa and intake temperatures of 293 K, 303 K and



231 310 K. Combustion appeared as a blue flame; a luminescent flame from soot was not observed.  
232 The images on the right-hand-side of Figures 7–9 show the effects of post-processing. The post  
233 processing took into account the distribution of flame intensity. The image intensity before the  
234 start of mixture autoignition was subtracted from the image intensity during combustion. This  
235 eliminated the background light so that only the magnitude of the light emitted from the flame  
236 was plotted. There were marked differences between the flame intensities for weak (293 K),  
237 medium (303 K) and strong (310 K) combustion cycles. These differences arise from differences  
238 in the IR signal strength and the amount of light transmitted due to CO<sub>2</sub> absorption. Figure 7,  
239 which corresponds to graph (A) on Figure 6, shows very weak flame intensity. Figures 8 and 9,  
240 which respectively correspond to graphs (B) and (C) on Figure 6, show that the distributed  
241 reactions appeared to progress inhomogeneously. The inhomogeneity was due to temperature  
242 and concentration fluctuations. These observations are in agreement with previous results.  
243 Hultqvist et al. [7] used chemiluminescence images and spectra to investigate HCCI combustion  
244 processes fuelled using blends of n-heptane and isooctane. They observed that during high  
245 temperature heat release, the fuel/air mixture begins to autoignite at arbitrary points throughout  
246 the visible area. Dec et al. [30, 31] investigated HCCI isooctane chemiluminescence images  
247 obtained from a single-cylinder optical engine and a high-speed intensified camera. High-speed  
248 chemiluminescence images show that the HCCI combustion is a progressive process from the  
249 hot region to the cold region, even when the fuel and air are fully premixed before intake occurs.  
250 This indicates that HCCI combustion is not homogeneous. The authors suggested that the  
251 inhomogeneities derive primarily from the natural thermal stratification caused by heat transfer  
252 during compression and turbulent transport in the cylinder.

253

### 254 3.3 Time-resolved CO<sub>2</sub> absorption

255 We found that the laser light transmissivity was correlated with the heat release rate during the  
256 combustion process. Figure 10 shows that, for a number of experiments, the minimum light  
257 transmissivity gradually decreases as the maximum rate of heat release increases.  $R^2$ , the

258 coefficient of determination, has a value 0.82494. This is a statistical measure indicating how  
259 well the regression line approximates the real data points. This trend shows the relationship  
260 between the in-cylinder pressure, the transmitted light and the energy release during the  
261 DME-HCCI combustion process.

262 Using the data for the transmissivity and absorption coefficient, the molar CO<sub>2</sub> concentration  
263 was calculated for different experimental conditions. Figure 11 shows a gradual increase in CO<sub>2</sub>  
264 concentration (B), calculated from absorption data, as the rate of heat release (A) increases  
265 during the in-cylinder DME combustion. The peak heat release rate in the LTR region is only  
266 slightly different to the rate in the HTR region. The similar levels of heat release in the LTR  
267 region occur due to the formation of formaldehyde and the high concentration of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, which is  
268 further consumed. This facilitates the formation of OH radicals before high-temperature  
269 reactions are initiated. Westbrook [32] reported that the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> decrease and the OH increase  
270 occurred almost simultaneously, and that H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> decomposition was the initiator of thermal  
271 ignition. However, Kuwahara and Ando [33] reported that the decrease in H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> started earlier  
272 than the OH increase, and that the rapid OH increase started during the final stages of this  
273 process. Nevertheless, both research groups agreed that the rapid OH increase occurred at the  
274 end of the thermal-ignition preparation region. Taking into account these findings, and the results  
275 of our experiments, we propose that the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration increases only when  
276 high-temperature reactions are initiated.

277 The newly developed CO<sub>2</sub> concentration measurement system, using QCL and optical fibre  
278 sensors, enabled us to measure the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration in situ during HCCI-DME combustion in a  
279 compression-expansion engine. Our results suggest that our CO<sub>2</sub> absorption detection technique  
280 gives rise to results that agree with general trends, where CO<sub>2</sub> formation is a product of  
281 hydrocarbon fuel combustion. We emphasise that categorising the experimental results by  
282 different combustion intensities (weak, medium and strong), as captured by high-speed camera  
283 imaging, allowed us to demonstrate that the CO<sub>2</sub> absorption behaviour was directly correlated  
284 with the transient in-cylinder combustion characteristics such as pressure, ROHR, light

285 transmissivity and IR signal. Our future work will focus on measuring transient CO<sub>2</sub>  
286 concentrations under boosted engine conditions.

#### 287 4. Conclusions

288 A new measurement technique was developed based on QCL and optical fibre sensors. Our  
289 technique enables the in situ measurement of transient CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations during DME-HCCI  
290 combustion. We draw the following conclusions:

291 1. Lambert–Beer’s law was **applied** for the case of a single absorption line of CO<sub>2</sub>. Using a  
292 constant volume vessel, the relationship between the ambient pressure, temperature and the CO<sub>2</sub>  
293 molar absorption coefficient was determined. The coefficient increased as the pressure increased  
294 up to 1.0 MPa, where the rate of increase slowed dramatically.

295 2. The laser light transmissivity was correlated with the heat release rate during the combustion  
296 process. In some experiments, the minimum light transmissivity decreased gradually as the  
297 maximum rate of heat release increased.

298 3. The time-resolved CO<sub>2</sub> absorption profiles during the DME–O<sub>2</sub>–Ar mixture combustion under  
299 a range of conditions indicated that the CO<sub>2</sub> absorbance increases only in the high-temperature  
300 reaction region.

301 4. There were marked differences in the intensity of the emissions in different combustion cycles  
302 with identical initial conditions. The number, intensity, and size of hot spots in those cycles  
303 varied significantly due to combustion cyclic variations, leading to the observation of very  
304 inhomogeneous patterns.

305

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428 Figure 11. Crank angle-resolved ROHR and CO<sub>2</sub> concentration.

Table 1

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Bore	78 mm
Stroke	85 mm
Connecting rod length	153 mm
Displacement volume	406.2 cm <sup>3</sup>
Compression ratio	9.0:1
Combustion chamber	Pancake type
Engine speed	600 rpm
Valve closure time	180 deg. BTDC

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Figure 1  
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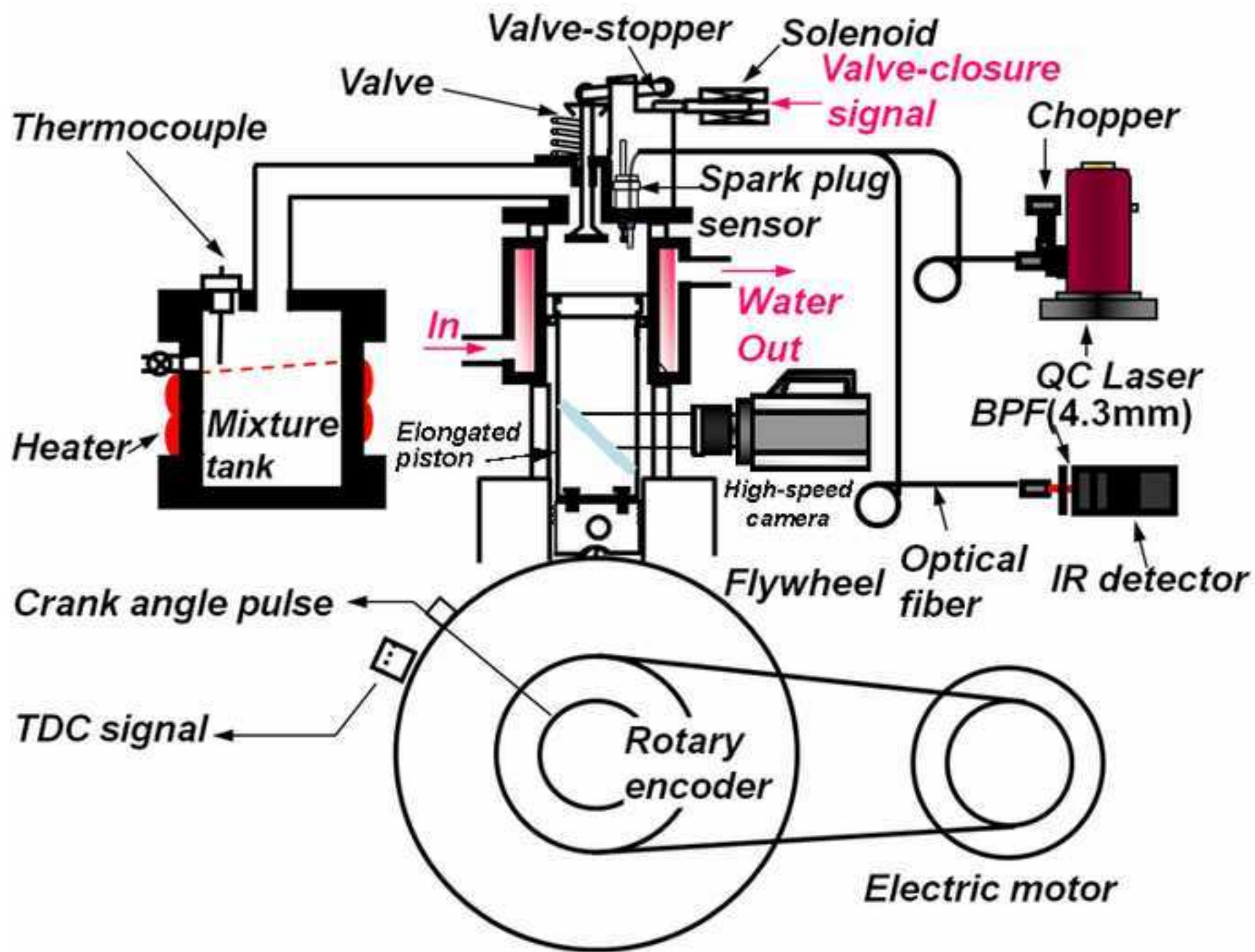




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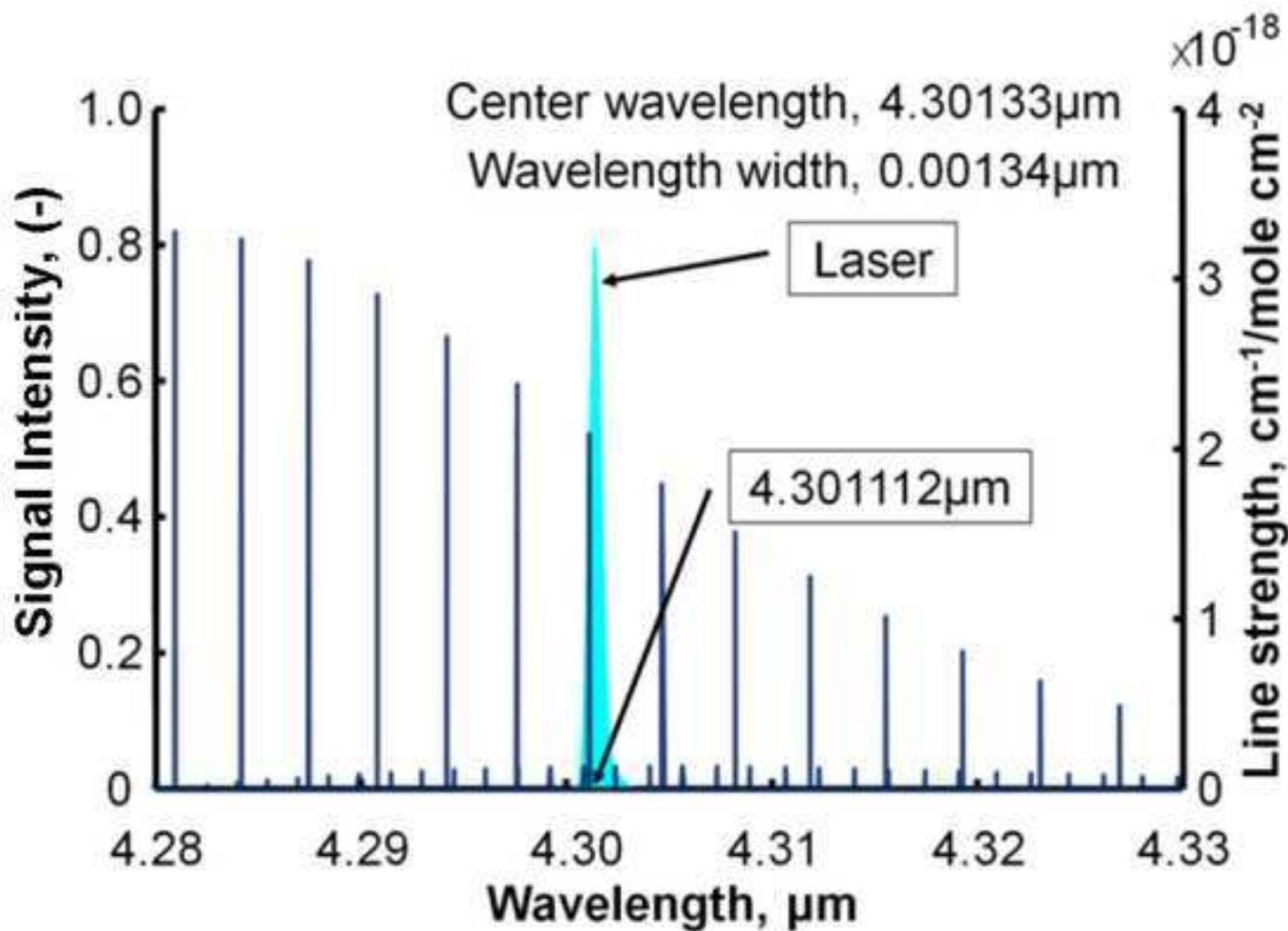
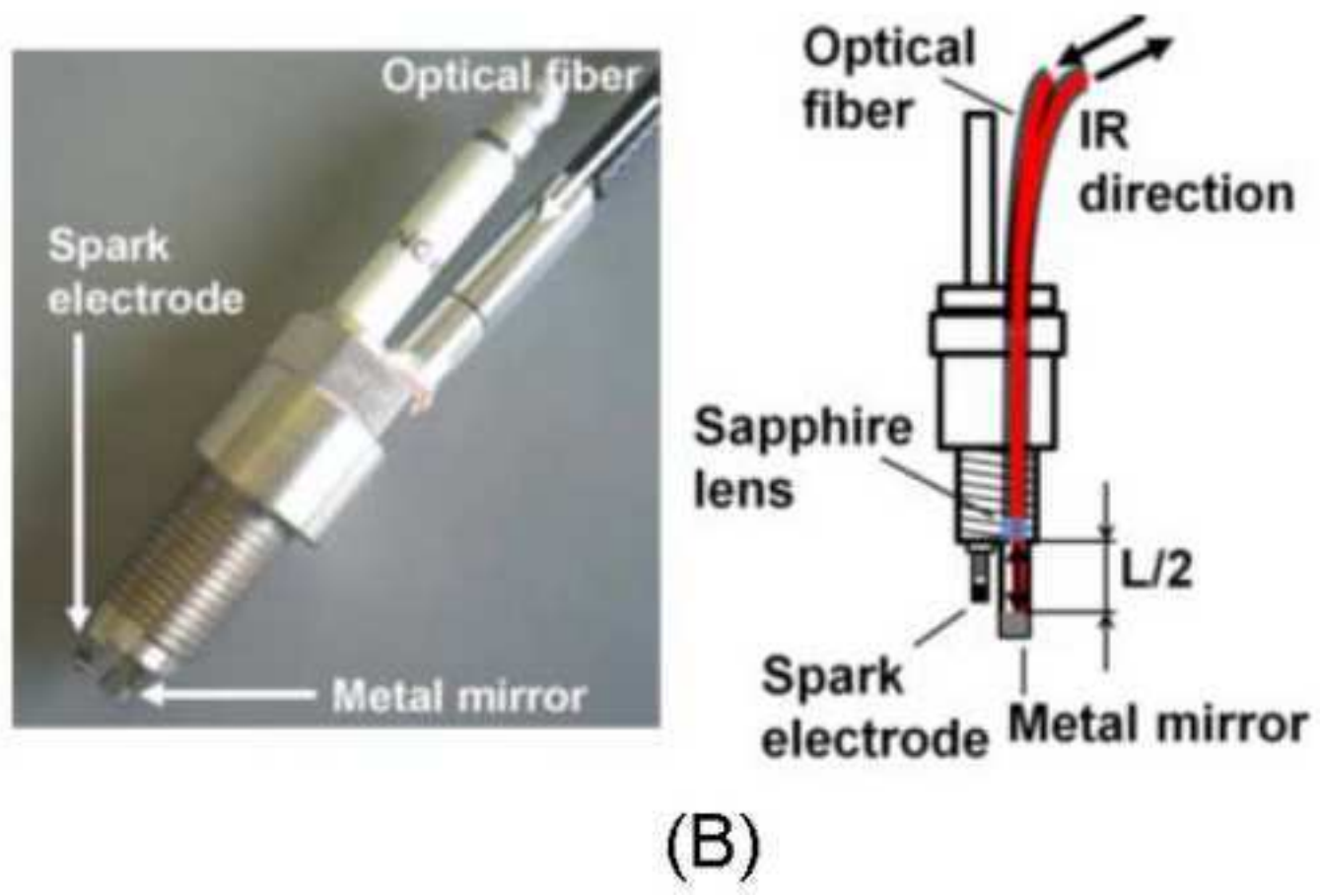
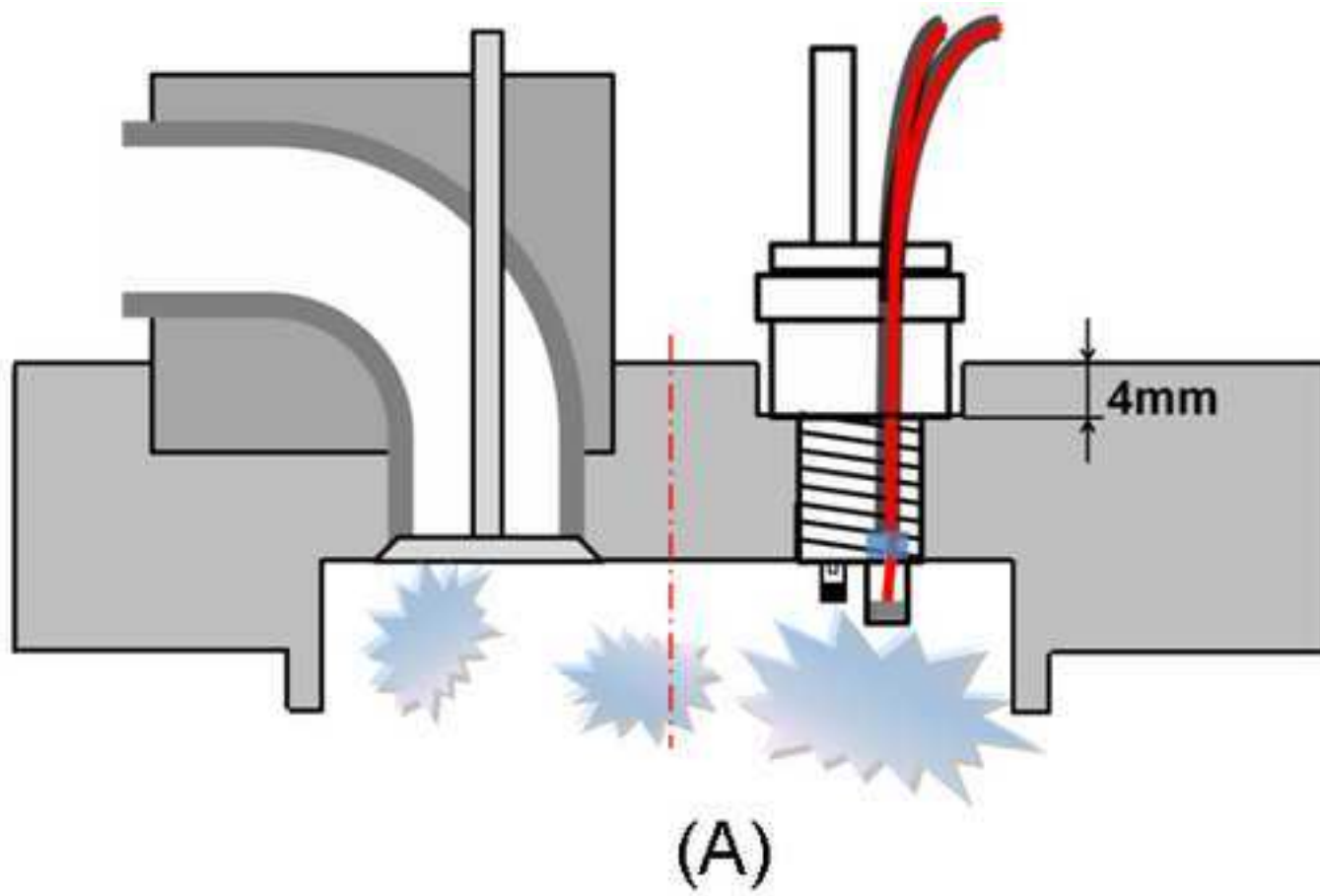


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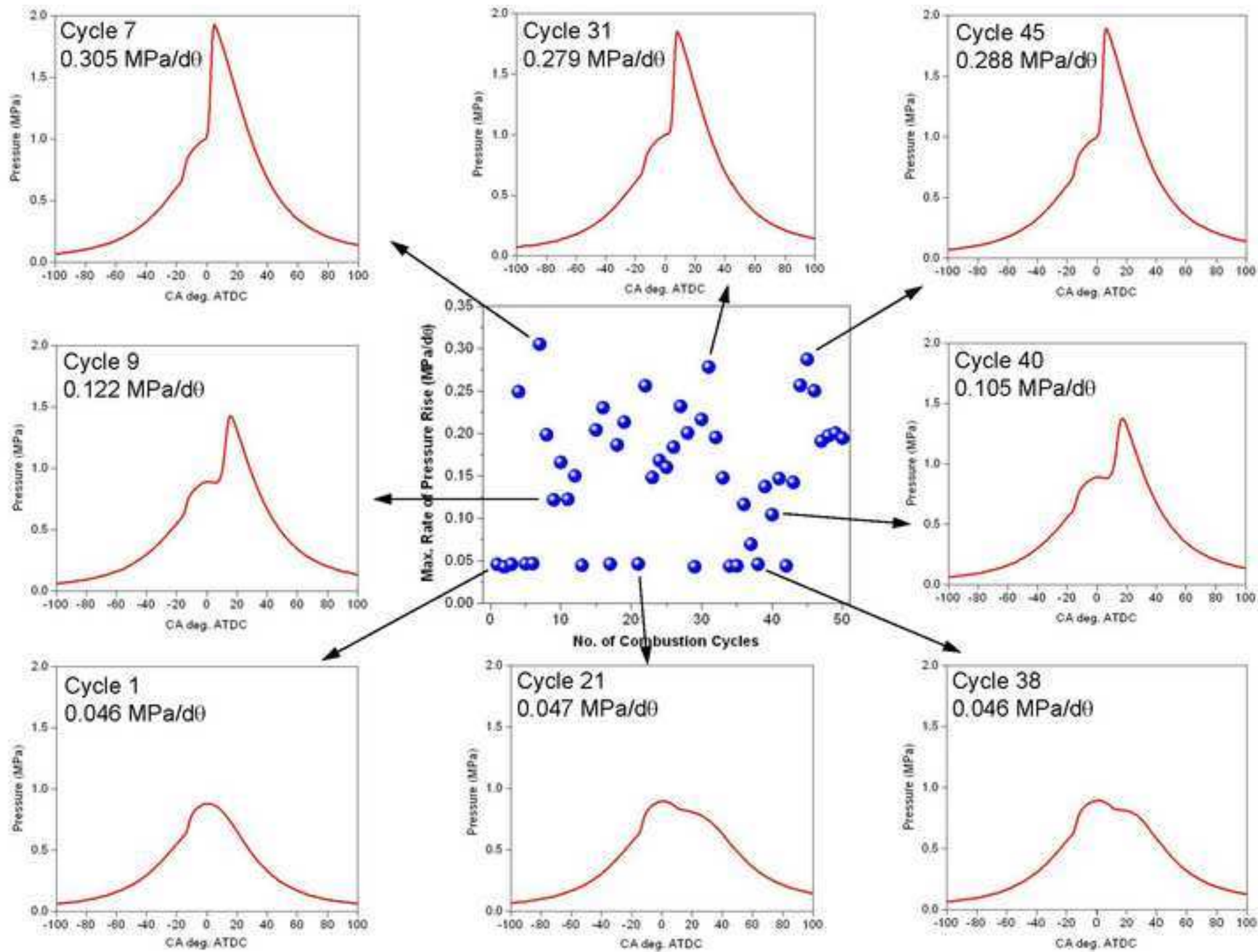


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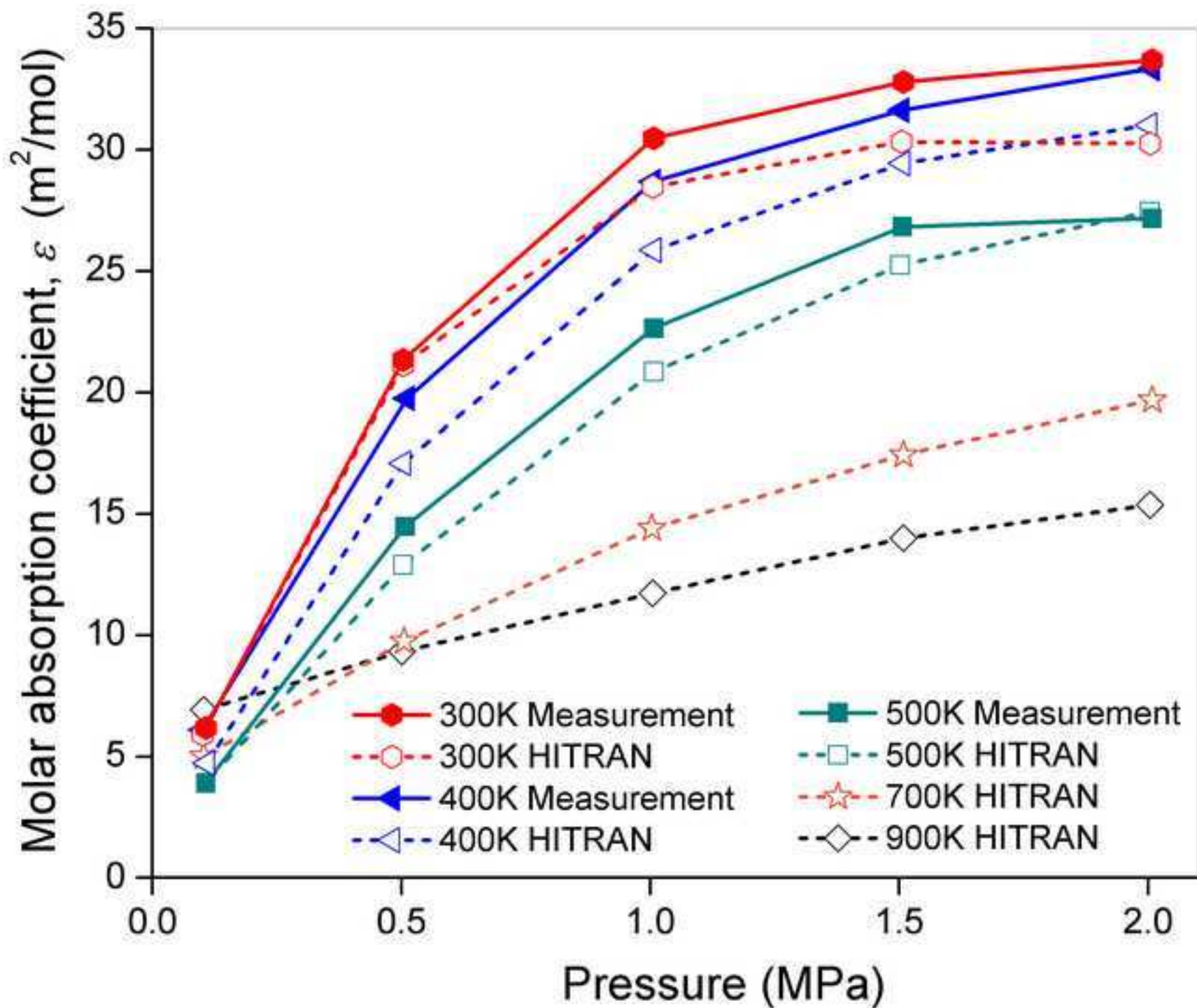




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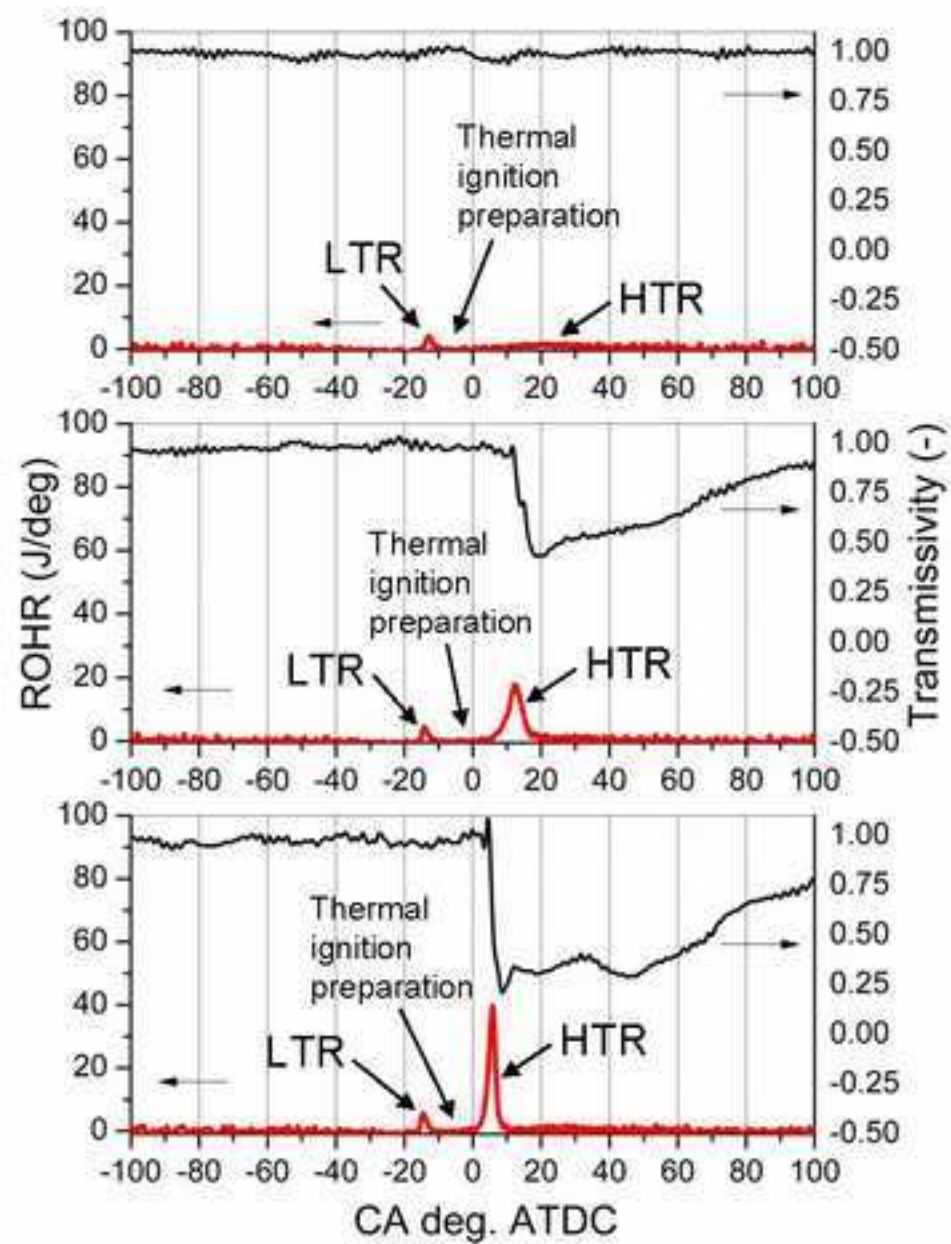
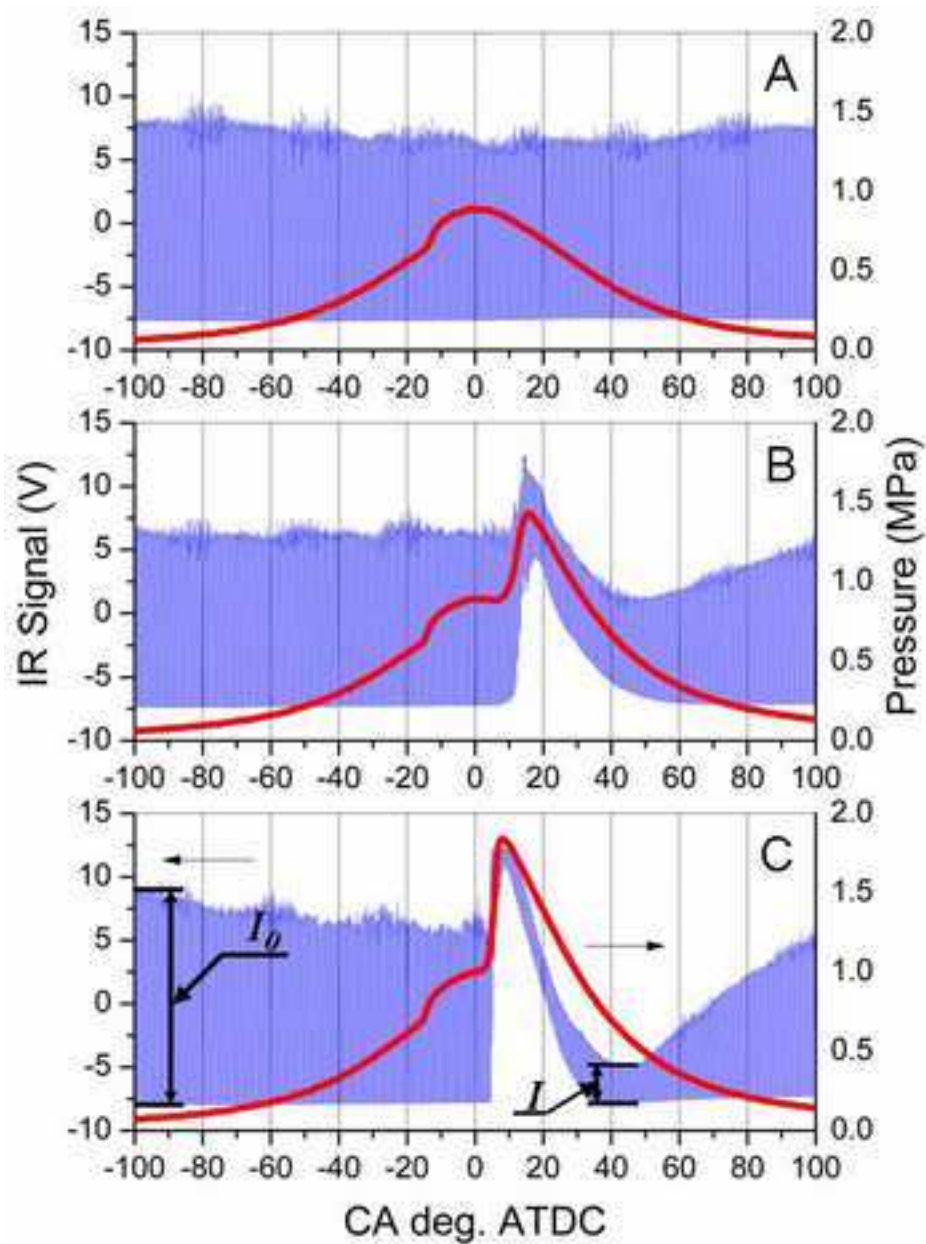
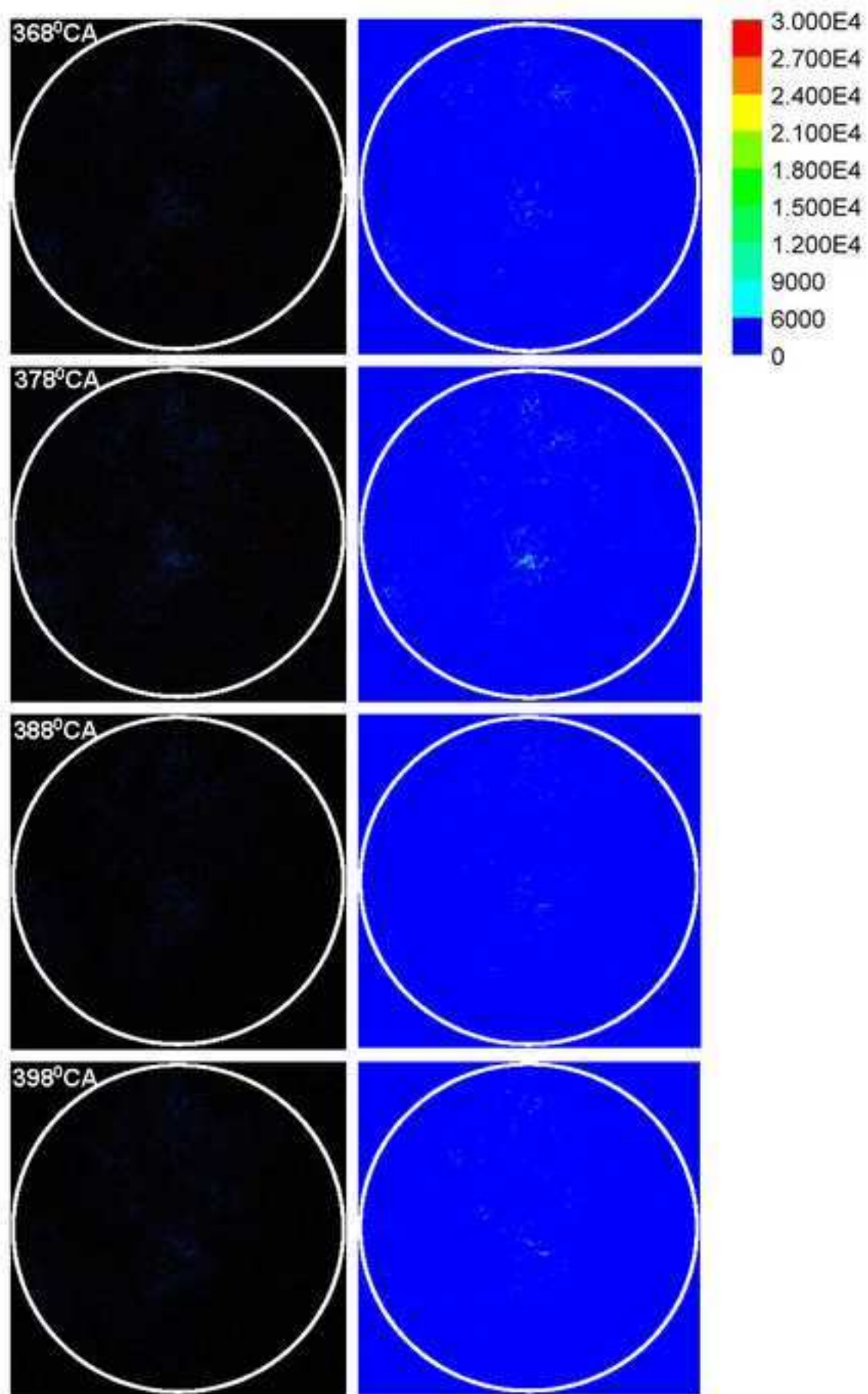


Figure 7

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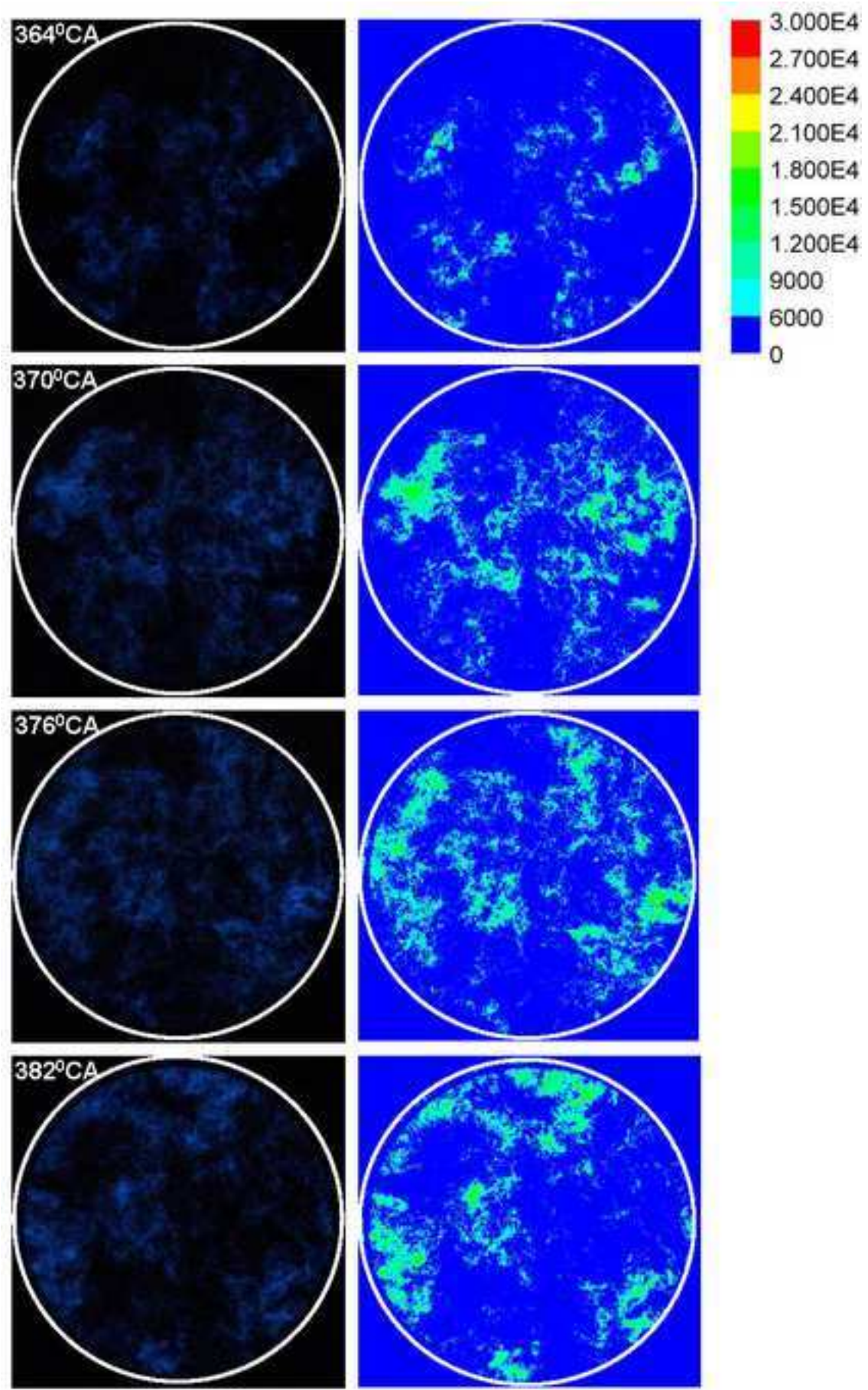


(A)



Figure 8

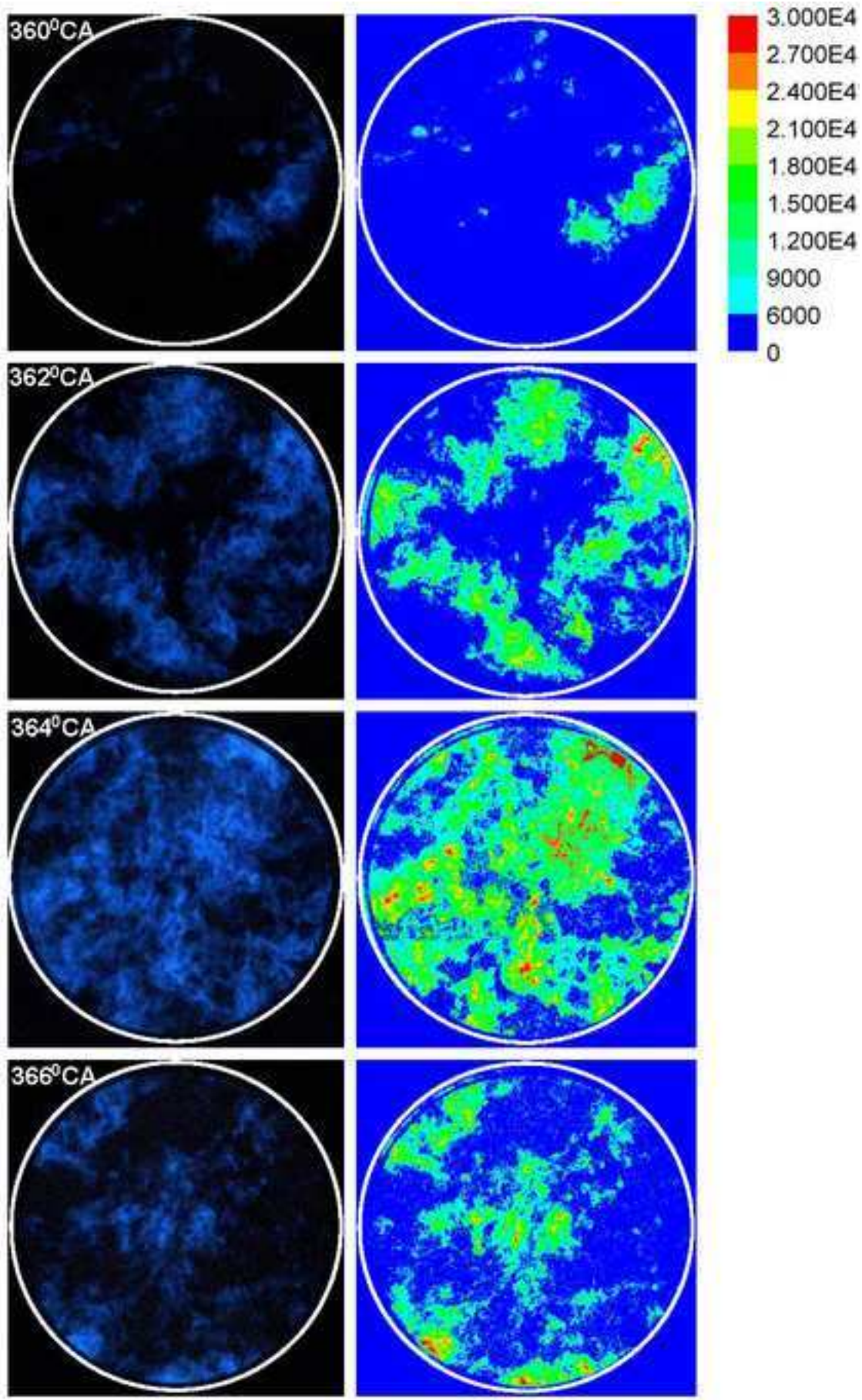
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(B)

Figure 9

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(C)



Figure 10  
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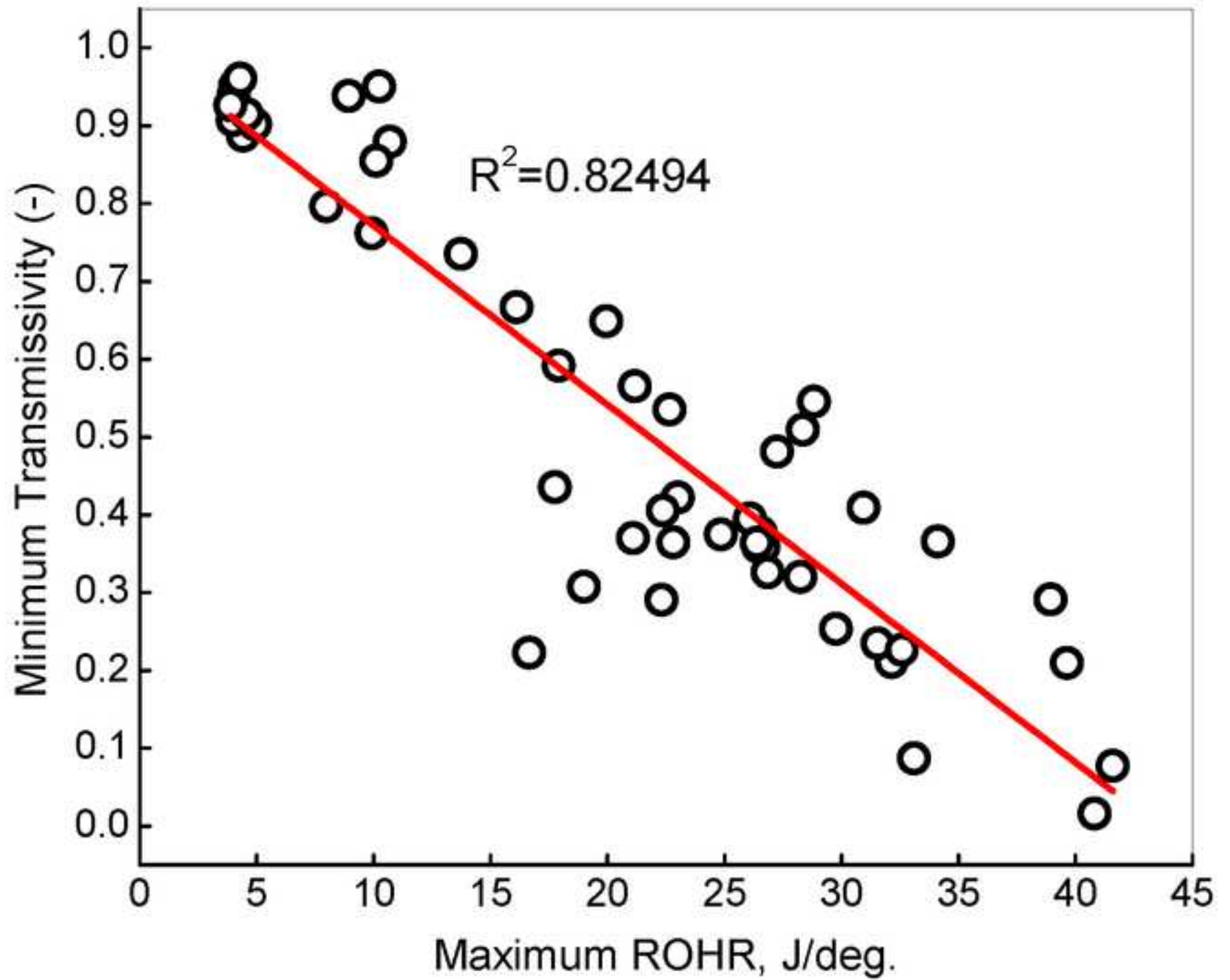


Figure 11

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