

Trends in rainfall erosivity in NE Spain at annual, seasonal and daily scales, 1955-2006

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Abstract

Rainsplash—the detachment and transport of soil particles by the impact of raindrops on a bare soil—is a major mechanism of soil degradation and erosion on semiarid areas and agricultural lands. Rainfall erosivity refers to the ability of precipitation to erode soil, and depends on characteristics such as total volume, duration, intensity and total energy released by raindrops. Despite the relevance of rainfall erosivity for soil degradation prevention very few studies addressed its spatial and temporal variability. In this study the time variation of rainfall erosivity in the Ebro valley (NE Spain) is assessed for the period 1955–2006. The results show a general decrease in annual and seasonal rainfall erosivity, which is explained by a decrease of very intense rainfall events whilst the frequency of moderate and low events increased. This trend is related to prevailing positive conditions of the main atmospheric teleconnection indices affecting the West Mediterranean, i.e. the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO), the Mediterranean Oscillation (MO) and the Western Mediterranean Oscillation (WeMO).

1 Introduction

Rainfall erosivity can be defined as the potential of a rainfall event to erode soil, and is a consequence of the interaction of several precipitation characteristics at the event scale. Rainfall erosivity models take account of the continuous and discrete characters of precipitation by considering precipitation amounts and intensities together with the energy

1 released by raindrops when they hit the soil surface. Individual raindrop impacts are able to
2 detach the soil aggregates and strike them up into the air—rainsplash—, preparing them for
3 being transported by sheet wash or other processes and causing a diffusive displacement of
4 particles down the slope if the topography is not perfectly flat. Rainsplash is also able to
5 disrupt the soil aggregates, and the redistribution of soil particles blocks the soil pores causing
6 crusting and reduced infiltration. Infiltration and saturation excess overland flow may occur
7 as a consequence of the amount and intensity of precipitation over short time periods, causing
8 sheet and concentrated flow with high potential for detaching and transporting soil particles.

9 The study of rainfall erosivity is thus highly relevant for soil degradation mitigation. Despite
10 its applied relevance, the climatology of rainfall erosivity (i.e. its interannual and seasonal
11 variation, spatial patterns, etc) is surprisingly the topic of very few studies. In the context of
12 climate change, a relevant question is whether or not long-term trends can be detected over
13 the last decades that may help confirming the projections made by global climate models. The
14 Mediterranean basin is one of the areas of the World where current climate projections
15 suggest the highest changes in precipitation (Sauerborn et al., 1999; Kendon et al., 2010;
16 Beaulant et al., 2011; Trambly et al., 2012). It is expected that the annual precipitation will
17 decrease in the Mediterranean, while higher amounts of erosive rainfall can also be expected
18 as a consequence of changes in precipitation variability and precipitation extremes.

19 A number of studies found decreasing annual precipitation in the Iberian Peninsula (IP) since
20 the mid 20th century, with seasonal and spatial differences (Rodríguez-Puebla et al., 1998;
21 Esteban-Parra et al., 1998; Paredes et al., 2006; López-Bustins et al., 2008; González-Hidalgo
22 et al., 2009, 2010; Rodrigo, 2010; López-Moreno et al., 2010). These trends have been
23 related to changes towards dryer conditions due to a northward displacement of the polar
24 fronts, and are consistent with the evolution of major teleconnection patterns affecting
25 precipitation over the IP such as the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO), the Mediterranean
26 Oscillation (MO) and the Western Mediterranean Oscillation (WEMO).

27 Very few studies analyzed trends in rainfall erosivity. Meusbürger et al. (2012) analyzed the
28 spatio-temporal variability of rainfall erosivity in Switzerland and found an increasing trend
29 from May to October. Focusing on the Mediterranean side of the IP, de Luis et al. (2010a)
30 found an overall decrease in annual rainfall and increases in rainfall concentration, while
31 changes in rainfall erosivity varied in space. Their analysis was based on the Modified
32 Fournier Index (MFI, Arnoldus, 1977) with monthly precipitation data. This is an important

1 concern, since rainfall erosivity depends largely on a few number of short but very intense
2 rain episodes that are largely smoothed when data is aggregated at coarser time resolutions.

3 The USLE/RUSLE *R* factor (Wischmeier, 1959; Wischmeier and Smith, 1978; Brown and
4 Foster, 1987; Renard et al., 1997) is probably the most widely used rainfall erosivity index. It
5 is defined as the mean value of the annual cumulative EI₃₀ index. The EI₃₀ index (MJ mm ha⁻¹
6 h⁻¹) is obtained for each rainfall event as the product of the kinetic energy of the rain (*E*) and
7 the maximum intensity recorded in 30 min. Its calculation requires high frequency rainfall
8 data – typically one data every 15 min or less –, or pluviograph records. In addition, reliable
9 values of the *R* factor can only be obtained from long data series spanning over several
10 decades. Such conditions are very often not met, so a number of studies have been devoted to
11 estimating rainfall erosivity from coarser data such as highly available daily rainfall time
12 series (Richardson et al., 1983; Bagarello and D’Asaro, 1994; Petkovsek and Mikos, 2004;
13 Angulo-Martínez and Beguería, 2009; Meusbürger et al., 2012). Such relationships allow
14 undertaking climatological studies of rainfall erosivity with dense and long datasets. In this
15 article we use an estimation of the EI₃₀ index based on daily rainfall intensities for assessing
16 the temporal variation of rainfall erosivity in the NE quadrant of the IP at the annual, monthly
17 and daily time scales.

18

19 **2 Study area and methods**

20 **2.1 Study area**

21 The study area is located at NE of Spain, with an area of about 85,000 km² that corresponds to
22 the Ebro River basin (Fig. 1). The area limits to the north with the Cantabric Sea (Atlantic
23 Ocean), the Cantabrian Range and the Pyrenees. Maximum elevations are above 3000 m a.s.l.
24 At the S and SW the Iberian Range closes the Ebro basin, with maximum elevations in the
25 range of 2000–2300 m a.s.l. Catalan Prelitoral Range, with maximum elevations of
26 1000–1900 m a.s.l. limits the valley to the E, and then continues to the Mediterranean Sea. It
27 is a topographical complex area where mountain areas represent approximately 20% of the
28 study area.

29 Climate is influenced by the Atlantic Ocean and the Mediterranean Sea, determining a NW–
30 SE climatic gradient. The central area has continental climate with semi-arid conditions as a

1 consequence of the isolation from the oceanic influence due to topographical shading (Lana
2 and Burgueño 1998). Precipitation is characterized by alternating wet and dry periods as a
3 consequence of the seasonal displacement of the polar front and its associated pressure
4 systems. Drought situations can be followed by torrential rainfall events. Precipitation
5 variability is the main characteristic, inter and intra annually. These properties increase
6 towards the SE and in the center. The most extreme precipitation events are usually recorded
7 along the Mediterranean seaside (Romero et al. 1998 Peñarrocha et al. 2002).

8 As the rest of climatic variables, rainfall erosivity is characterized by a transition from the
9 NW to the SE (Fig. 2). Three main areas can be recognized: i) the northwest is influenced by
10 the Atlantic Ocean and shows the highest monthly rainfall precipitation with minimum
11 rainfall erosivity, and the highest erosivity is attained coinciding with late spring storms; ii)
12 the central area shows lower precipitation amounts, though erosivity is greater and has two
13 peaks in May–June and August–September; iii) the SE zone has a typical Mediterranean
14 rainfall regime with maxima in spring and autumn, and has the highest erosivities of the study
15 area, especially in autumn.

16 The main land use in terms of surface is agriculture (representing approximately 46% of the
17 area). It is extended around the Ebro valley occupying a broader area close to the
18 Mediterranean coast. Traditionally, agricultural soils remain uncovered in most cases during
19 autumn and early winter, and as a consequence rainfall erosivity is the main cause of soil
20 erosion during that period.

21 **2.2 Daily rainfall erosivity database**

22 For this study two databases were used (Fig. 1): i) 110 rainfall series from the Ebro river basin
23 authority's hydrologic information system (SAIH Ebro), with a time resolution of 15 minutes
24 since 1997 (P_{SAIH}); and ii) 156 daily rainfall series from the Spanish meteorological agency
25 (AEMET) with daily (0600 to 0600 hours) precipitation amounts for the period 1955-2006
26 (P_{AEMET}). Precipitation time series were pre-processed with techniques that included
27 reconstruction, gap filling, quality control and homogeneity testing (Vicente-Serrano et al.
28 2009). The SAIH dataset had the adequate time resolution for computing rainfall erosivity,
29 but only covered eleven years. The AEMET dataset had the adequate length for undertaking
30 climatological studies, but its coarser time resolution did not allow direct computation of the
31 EI_{30} index. Therefore, we used a statistical procedure between the two datasets for obtaining

1 series of daily rainfall erosivity for the period 1955-2006. The process is explained at length
2 in Angulo-Martínez and Beguería (2009), and a summary is provided as online supplementary
3 material to this article.

4 Additionally, time series of three widely known teleconnection indices (the North Atlantic
5 Oscillation, NAO; the Mediterranean Oscillation, MO; and the West Mediterranean
6 Oscillation, WEMO) were used in order to explore atmospheric explanations for the time
7 evolution of rainfall erosivity. Detailed explanation of the elaboration of these time series is
8 provided in Angulo-Martínez and Beguería (2012).

9 **2.3 Trend analysis**

10 Annual and seasonal time series were obtained by adding the daily erosivity values at the
11 appropriate aggregation periods. Natural years (from January 1st to December 31st) were
12 used for the annual series, and the usual convention (winter = December to February, spring =
13 March to May, summer = June to August, autumn = September to November) was used for
14 the seasonal series. In addition, time series of the number of daily erosivity events within the
15 limits of the quintiles of each series (Q1 = below the 20th percentile, Q2 = between the 20th
16 and 40th percentile, Q3 = between the 40th and 60th percentile, Q4 = between the 60th and 80th
17 percentile, Q5 = above the 80th percentile) were computed and aggregated at the annual and
18 seasonal time scales.

19 The Mann-Kendall test for monotonic trends was used for identifying time trends on those
20 series (Mann, 1945). A block bootstrap procedure was used for obtaining improved
21 significance test when working with time series data (Künsch, 1989). The functions *tsboot*
22 from the R *boot* library and *MannKendall* from the R *Kendall* library were used to perform
23 the analyses. Maps showing the location of the significant series were then produced to help
24 identify possible spatial patterns.

25 The per-decade change of the annual and seasonal erosivity and the number of events in the
26 first (Q1) and fifth (Q5) quintiles was also represented in the maps to help visualising the sign
27 and magnitude of erosivity trends. Per-decade change was estimated for each series by means
28 of ordinary least squares (OLS) regression upon time, and surface maps were generated by
29 means of local first grade polynomial interpolation.

1 Relationships between time variation of rainfall erosivity and the three teleconnection indices
2 (NAO, MO and WEMO) were explored by means of the Pearson's correlation test. The
3 number of significantly correlated series was computed for the annual and seasonal erosivity
4 series and for the number of events in the first and fifth quintile. Significance was evaluated at
5 $\alpha=0.05$ confidence level, so on average a number of $n=7.8$ false positives could be expected
6 from the 156 time series sample.

7

8 **3 Results**

9 **3.1 Annual and seasonal rainfall erosivity**

10 The annual rainfall erosivity experienced decreasing trends in most of the study area (Fig. 3).
11 Per decade change was as high as $-200 \text{ MJ mm ha}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1} \text{ y}^{-1}$ in some areas such as in the NE of
12 the study area (eastern Pyrenees), but in most of the area it was lower than $30 \text{ MJ mm ha}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$
13 y^{-1} per decade. When compared to the mean annual rainfall erosivity (Fig. 2), the highest
14 relative changes occurred at the NE of the study area were they represented 60-80% of the
15 average over the whole study period (five decades).

16 Spatial differences were most noticeable when analysed at a seasonal basis (Fig. 4). While in
17 winter and spring trends were negative in most of the study area, with the most negative
18 trends in the NE corner, in summer and autumn there were larger spatial differences. Summer
19 yielded the most heterogeneous results, since in some interior areas slightly positive trends
20 were registered while the NE quadrant and some smaller areas in the N and NW experienced
21 strong negative trends. In autumn negative trends predominated overall and were especially
22 strong in the SE and NW corners, but positive trends were also found in the N along the
23 Pyrenean range. Although negative trends predominated overall at both annual and seasonal
24 basis, these results should be taken with care since significance was achieved only in a small
25 fraction of the stations (Table 1).

26 Variation in the number of events grouped by quintiles allowed assessing trends in the
27 occurrence of rainfall erosivity events across the range of erosivity values (Fig. 5). Since the
28 range of the quintiles were calculated considering the whole study period (1955–2006),
29 negative values indicate a diminishing number of events, while positive values indicate an
30 increasing number of events. The results show that the number of very low and low erosivity

1 events (Q1, below 20%, and Q2, between 20 and 40%) increased in a large number of
2 stations, while the number of medium, high and very high erosivity events (Q3 to Q5)
3 decreased. Spatially, the number of events in the first quintile increased between one and four
4 events per year in most of the study area, and only in the NE corner (eastern Pyrenees) a
5 negative trend was found (Fig. 6). Trends were significant in the majority of stations (55.8%).
6 The number of events in the fifth quintile, on the other hand, decreased between 0.25 and one
7 event per year, with significant trends in 21.8% of the stations.

8 The same pattern (increasing number of Q1 events and decreasing number of Q5 events) was
9 found at the seasonal basis (Fig. 7 and 8), with a few exceptions: i) the number of Q1 events
10 decreased in winter in the NE corner; and ii) the number of Q5 events increased in autumn in
11 a small area in the central and western Pyrenees at the N of the study area. The number and
12 proportion of stations with significant trends are shown in Table 2 and Table 3.

13 The time evolution of the three teleconnection indices is shown in Fig. 9. A tendency towards
14 a prevalence of positive values is clear in the case of the NAO and the MO. Correlations
15 between the time evolution of rainfall erosivity and the teleconnections revealed a high
16 influence of NAO on winter erosivity (43% of the series positively correlated) and autumn
17 (31%), while WEMO and MO had lower influence. With respect to the number of events in
18 the two extreme quintiles, NAO was again the teleconnection with the highest impact, most
19 especially on the evolution of Q5 in winter (44% of positively correlated series).

20

21 **4 Discussion**

22 Planning of soil conservation measurements, especially concerning agriculture practices,
23 requires a good knowledge of all factors affecting soil erosion. Among them, rainfall erosivity
24 is one of the least studied, although its spatial and temporal dynamics can be of paramount
25 importance when they are related to other factors such as land use and cropping practices. The
26 development of long time series of daily rainfall erosivity, even subject to uncertainty, can be
27 of great value in assessing the spatial and temporal dynamics of rainfall erosivity. Compared
28 to these, data at coarser temporal resolution such as monthly precipitation may miss the
29 importance of a few, very intense events that account for a large fraction of the annual or
30 seasonal rainfall erosivity amounts. Our results show decreasing rainfall erosivities at the
31 annual and seasonal scales over most of the area. This could be explained in part by negative
32 trends in precipitation over the IP especially during the wet season from October to May

1 (Rodríguez-Puebla et al., 1998; Esteban-Parra et al., 1998; Paredes et al., 2006; López-Bustins
2 et al., 2008; González-Hidalgo et al., 2009, 2010; Rodrigo, 2010; López-Moreno et al., 2010).
3 However, deeper inspection revealed that this trend in the annual erosivity was related to
4 changes in the frequency distribution of erosivity events, since the number of events of low
5 erosivity increased while the number of highly erosive events decreased. Due to the
6 exponential distribution of rainfall erosivity the higher events account for a large part of the
7 total cumulative erosivity, so even a small reduction in the frequency of high events is able to
8 produce a large reduction of the annual or seasonal erosivity. These results are in agreement
9 with previous studies. In their analysis of daily precipitation in the NE of Iberia López-
10 Moreno et al. (2010) found decreasing trends in the number of heavy precipitation events and
11 in the relative contribution of heavy events to the annual rainfall, while the number and
12 relative importance of light and moderate events increased. Similarly, Martínez et al. (2007)
13 described increasing contribution of light and moderate events to total precipitation amounts,
14 and Rodrigo and Trigo (2007) found global decrease in precipitation intensity over the IP.
15 Recent results based on the non-stationary peaks-over-threshold approach to extreme events
16 analysis found evidences of decreasing frequency and magnitude of extreme rainfall events
17 over most of the IP and in particular in its NE quadrant (Beguería et al., 2011; Acero et al.,
18 2012).

19 Based on monthly precipitation data covering the Mediterranean basins of the IP, de Luis et
20 al. (2010a) reported a generalized decrease of the Modified Fourier Index (MFI). In the Ebro
21 basin, coinciding with the study area of this study, they found that decreasing trends of the
22 MFI predominated in general, except at the N of the study area (Pyrenees). They did not
23 perform seasonal analysis, but in another studies the same authors found that annual and
24 monthly precipitation generally decreased in the Ebro basin except in February and October
25 where a slightly increase was found along the Pyrenees (González-Hidalgo et al., 2009, 2010;
26 de Luis et al., 2010b). This coincides with our findings, since the frequency of high erosivity
27 events (Q5) only increased in autumn in the Pyrenees.

28 Our results and those of the cited authors contrast with studies for the whole Mediterranean
29 basin, for which a general increase of precipitation intensity has been described (Brunetti et
30 al., 2001; Norrant and Douguédroit, 2006; Goodess and Jones, 2002). However, correlation
31 analysis revealed links with teleconnection patterns that help explain the negative trend in
32 intense precipitation observed in the instrumental records. As other authors pointed out,

1 strong precipitation events in the study area are significantly related to negative phases of the
2 NAO, MO and WEMO (González-Hidalgo et al., 2009). The generalized decreasing
3 precipitation along the Mediterranean basin of the IP has been related to prevailing positive
4 conditions of NAO and MO. Angulo-Martínez and Beguería (2012) found a significant
5 relationship between rainfall erosivity and these indices, which was largest for MO and
6 WEMO. These authors related the positive trend of these indices with the observed reduction
7 in the occurrence of extreme rainfall events. Similar results were obtained by Vicente-Serrano
8 et al. (2009) with respect to extreme precipitation in NE Spain. Here we found that a high
9 number of rainfall erosivity series were correlated with the time evolution of NAO, most
10 especially in winter and autumn, and that the reduction in the number of erosivity events in
11 the fifth quintile was also related to the NAO.

12

13 **5 Conclusions**

14 Analysis of the temporal evolution of rainfall erosivity revealed generalized decreasing trends
15 at the annual and monthly scales during the period 1955–2006, coinciding with a decrease in
16 the number of highly daily erosive events and increasing number of daily low erosivity
17 events. These trends could be explained by the displacement of the polar fronts northwards
18 revealed by the positive trend of the NAO and MO.

19 This study reveals that rainfall erosivity is characterized by complex patterns in time and
20 space, but their study can be undertaken based on relatively common data (long time series of
21 daily precipitation and shorter time series of high frequency precipitation). This encourages
22 the climatological study of this rainfall property, given the implications for soil erosion and
23 the hydrological behavior on natural and managed landscapes.

24

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25

1 Table 1: Number and proportion of series with significant trends, significance level $\alpha=0.05$.

Time period	N° positive trends (%)	N° negative trends (%)
Annual	1 (0.6%)	23 (14.7%)
Spring	1 (0.6%)	8 (5.1%)
Summer	0	9 (5.8%)
Autumn	1 (0.6%)	3(1.9%)
Winter	0	25 (16.0%)

2

3 Table 2. Number and proportion of series with trends in the number of events in the first
4 quintile (Q1), significance level $\alpha=0.05$.

Time period	N° positive trends (%)	N° negative trends (%)
Annual	72 (46.2%)	15 (9.6%)
Spring	59 (37.8%)	11 (7.1%)
Summer	54 (34.6%)	11 (7.1%)
Autumn	81 (51.9%)	7 (4.5%)
Winter	54 (34.6%)	15 (9.6%)

5

6 Table 3. Number and proportion of series with trends in the number of events in the fifth
7 quintile (Q5), significance level $\alpha=0.05$.

Time period	N° positive trends (%)	N° negative trends (%)
Annual	0	34 (21.8%)
Spring	1 (0.6%)	6 (3.9%)
Summer	0	23 (14.7%)
Autumn	1(0.6%)	9 (5.8%)
Winter	0	28 (21.8%)

8

1 Table 4. Number of significant correlations between atmospheric circulation indices and
 2 rainfall erosivity (Pearson's correlation test, significance level $\alpha=0.05$).

	Annual	DJF	MAM	JJA	SON
Erosivity (EI)					
NAO _i	13 (8.3%)	67 (43%)	0	6 (3.9%)	49 (31.4%)
WEMO _i	8 (5.1%)	20 (12.8%)	3 (1.9%)	1 (0.6%)	10 (6.4%)
MO _i	13 (8.3%)	7 (4.5%)	2 (1.9%)	27 (17.3%)	8 (5.1%)
N° of daily erosivity events in the first quintile (Q1)					
NAO _i	18 (11.5%)	23 (14.7%)	17 (11%)	11 (7.1%)	25 (16%)
WEMO _i	10 (6.4%)	12 (8%)	10 (6.4%)	8 (5.1%)	11 (7.1%)
MO _i	16 (12.2%)	9 (5.8%)	7 (4.5%)	28 (18%)	3 (1.9%)
N° of daily erosivity events in the fifth quintile (Q5)					
NAO _i	2 (1.9%)	68 (44%)	2 (1.9%)	3 (1.9%)	39 (25%)
WEMO _i	19 (12.2%)	20 (12.8%)	3 (1.9%)	4 (2.6%)	11 (7.1%)
MO _i	20 (12.8%)	15 (9.6%)	4 (2.6%)	29 (18.6%)	3 (1.9%)

3

1 Figure 1. Digital Terrain Model of the study area showing the spatial distribution of the
2 rainfall gauges used in the study (UTM coordinates). P_{AEMET} indicates daily rainfall data
3 series for period 1955-2006 provided by the Spanish Meteorological Agency. P_{SAIH} indicates
4 the 15' rainfall data series for period 1997-2006 provided by the Automatic Hydrologic
5 Information System of the Ebro river basin.

6

7 Figure 2. Mean annual rainfall erosivity during the period 1955-2006 ($MJ\ mm\ ha^{-1}\ h^{-1}\ y^{-1}$).

8

9 Figure 3. Per decade change of annual rainfall erosivity during the period 1955-2006 ($MJ\ mm$
10 $ha^{-1}\ h^{-1}\ y^{-1}$). Black circles indicate data series for which the trend was significant at the $\alpha=0.05$
11 confidence level.

12

13 Figure 4. Per decade change of seasonal rainfall erosivity during the period 1955-2006 (MJ
14 $mm\ ha^{-1}\ h^{-1}\ y^{-1}$): a) DJF, b) MAM, c) JJA, d) SON. Black circles indicate data series for
15 which the trend was significant at the $\alpha =0.05$ confidence level.

16

17 Figure 5. Boxplots of trends with the number of daily rainfall erosivity events classified by
18 quintiles of daily erosivity over the whole period 1955-2006.

19

20 Figure 6. Per decade change in the number of daily rainfall erosivity events corresponding to
21 a) the first (Q1) and b) fifth (Q5) quintiles at the annual scale for the period 1955-2006. Black
22 circles indicate significant trends at the $\alpha =0.05$ confidence level.

23

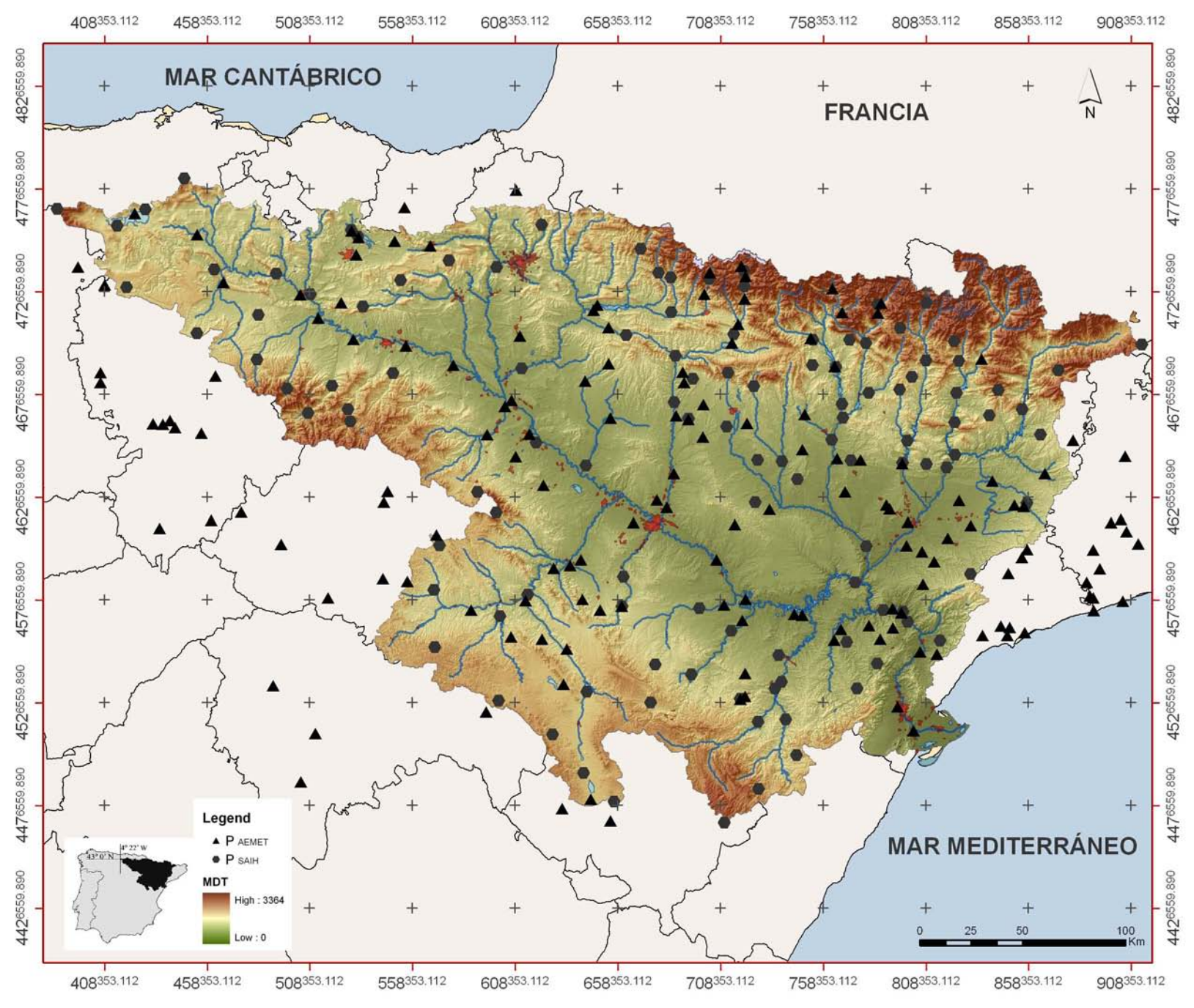
24 Figure 7. Per decade change in the number of daily rainfall erosivity events corresponding to
25 the first (Q1) quintile at the seasonal scale for the period 1955-2006: a) DJF, b) MAM, c) JJA,
26 d) SON. Black circles indicate significant trends at the $\alpha =0.05$ confidence level.

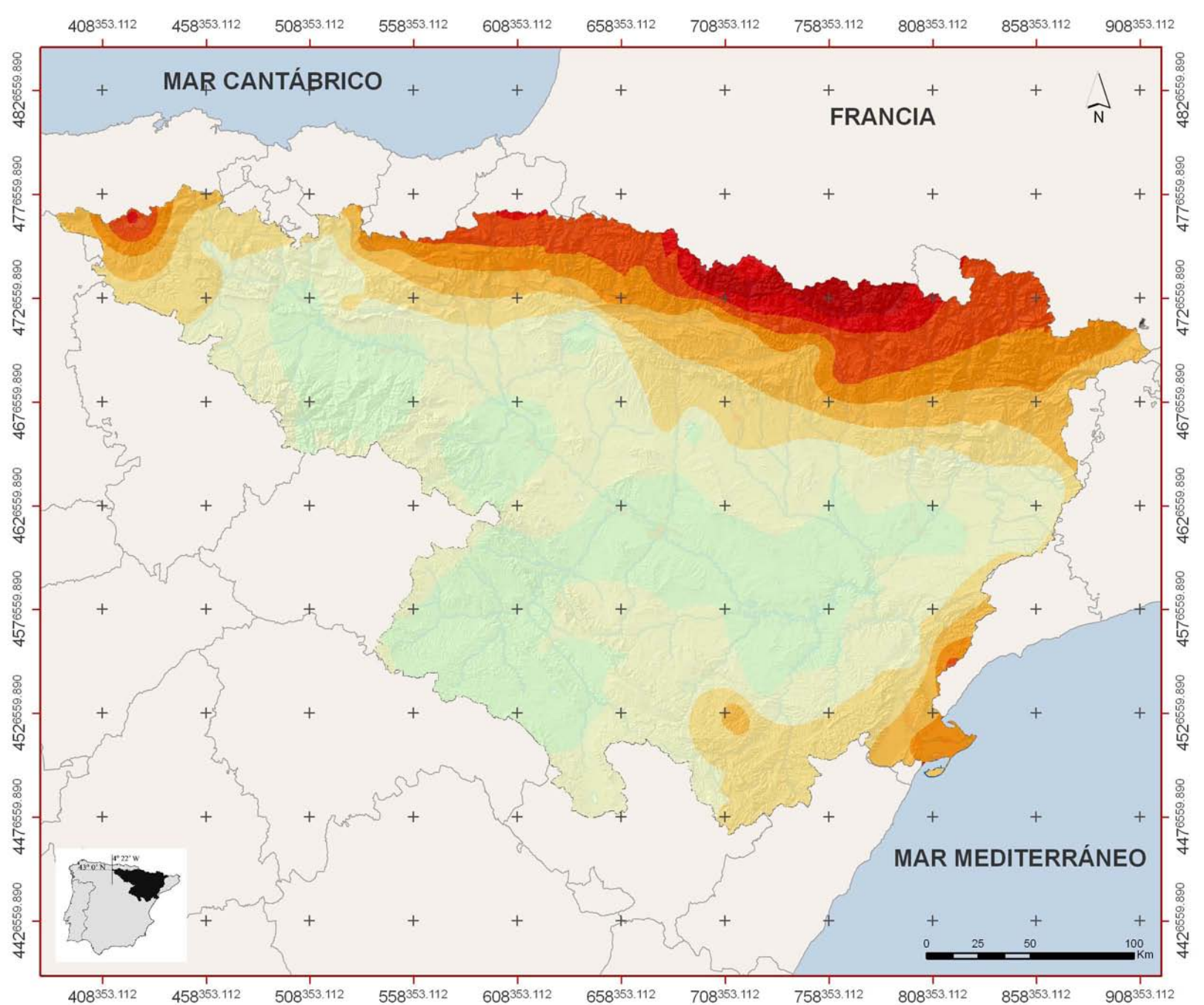
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1 Figure 8. Per decade change in the number of daily rainfall erosivity events corresponding to
2 the fifth (Q5) quintile at the seasonal scale for the period 1955-2006: a) DJF, b) MAM, c)
3 JJA, d) SON. Black circles indicate significant trends at the $\alpha = 0.05$ confidence level.

4

5 Figure 9. Temporal evolution of October to March NAO, WeMO and MO indices obtained
6 from average daily indices (thin black line) and 5-years running average (thick grey line).

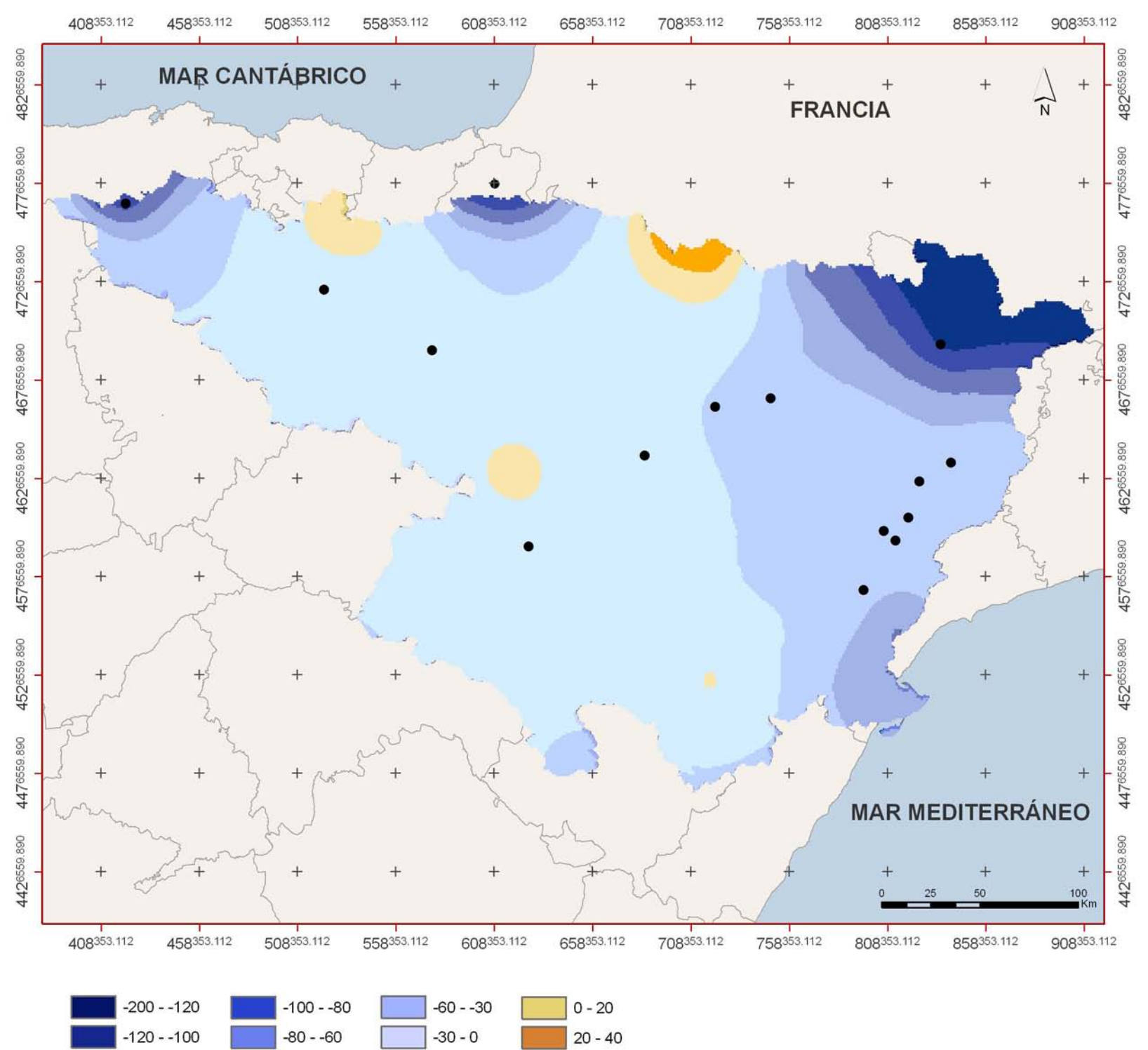


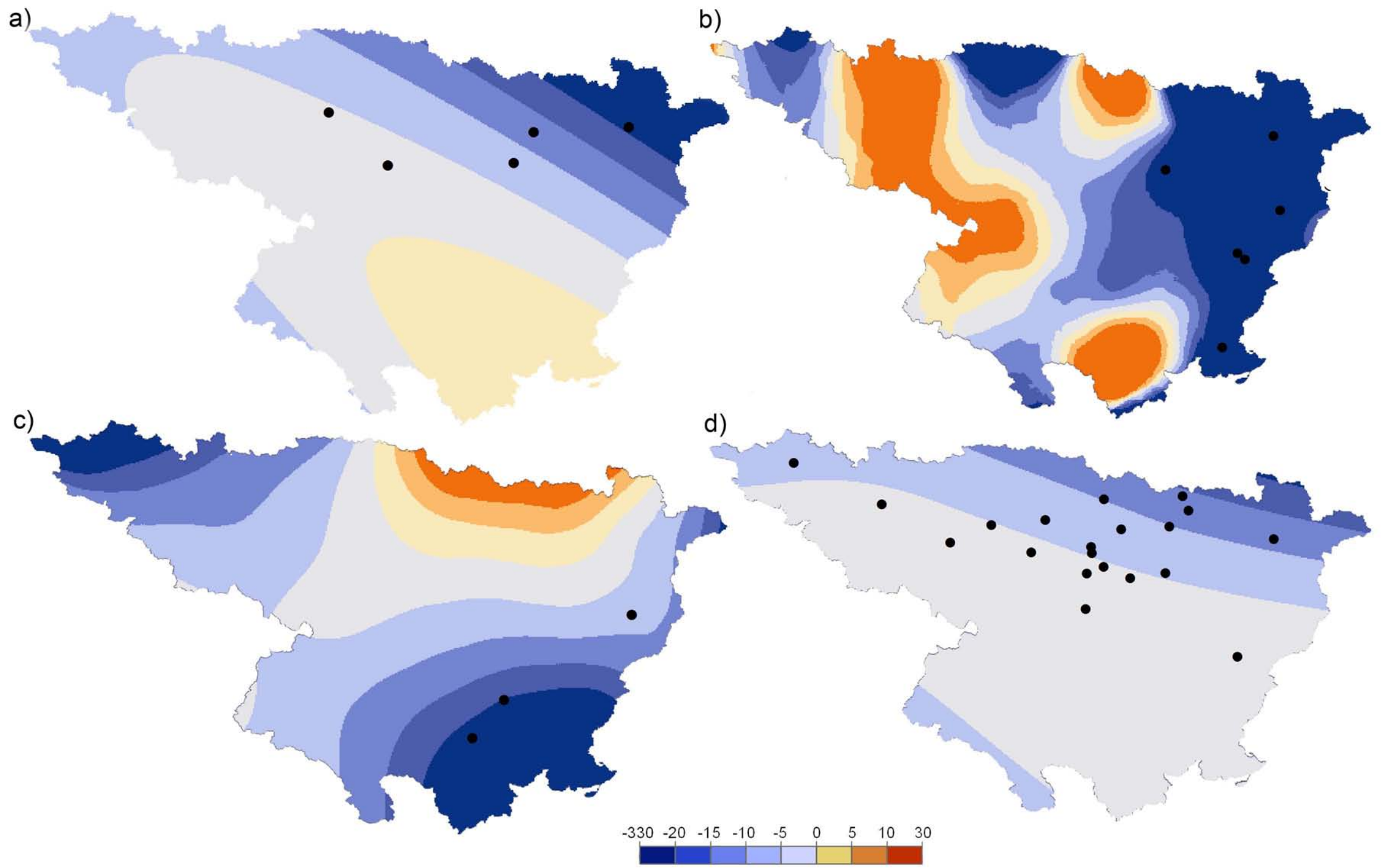


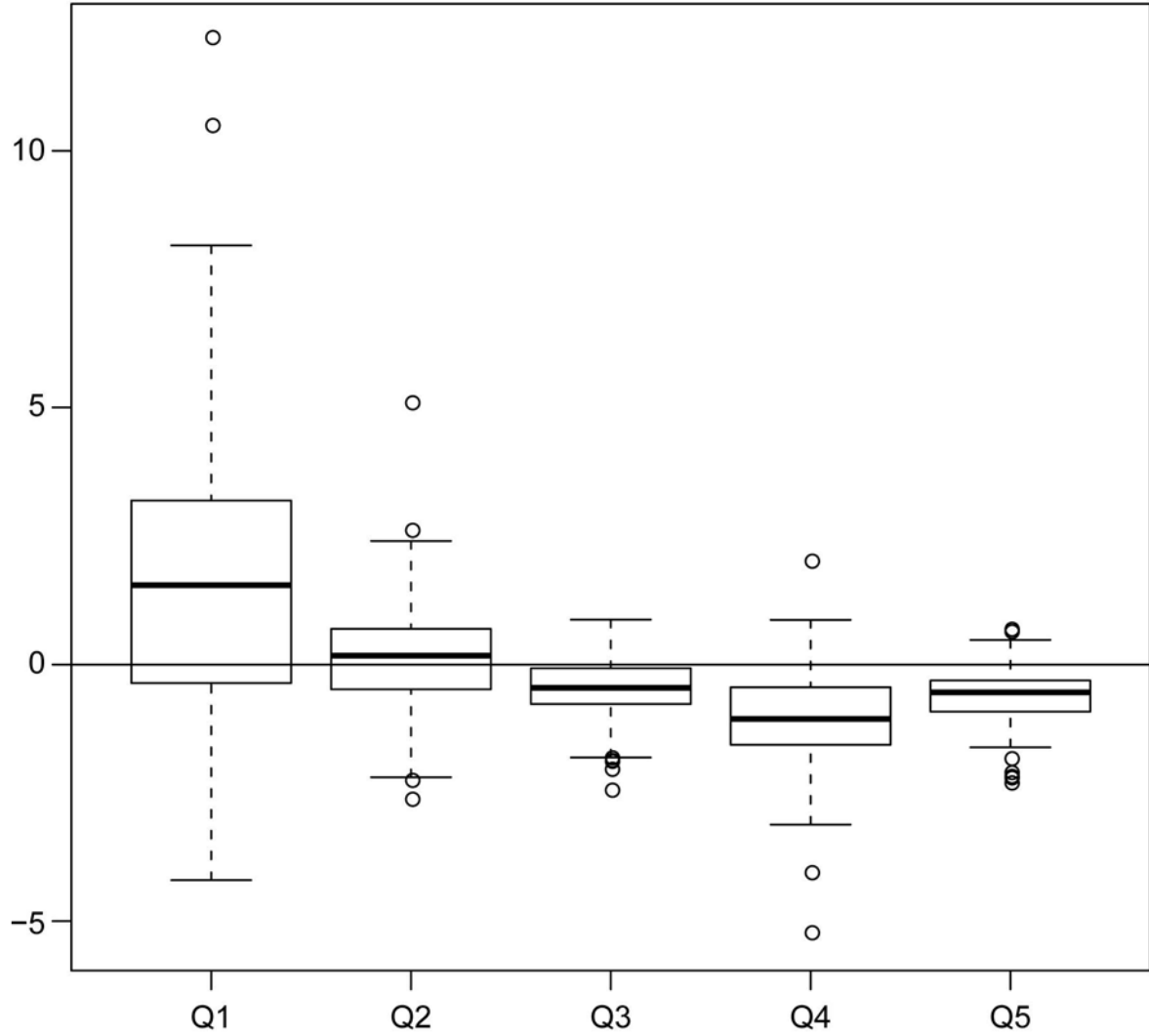
Erosividad media anual

1955-2006; ($\text{MJ mm ha}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1} \text{y}^{-1}$)

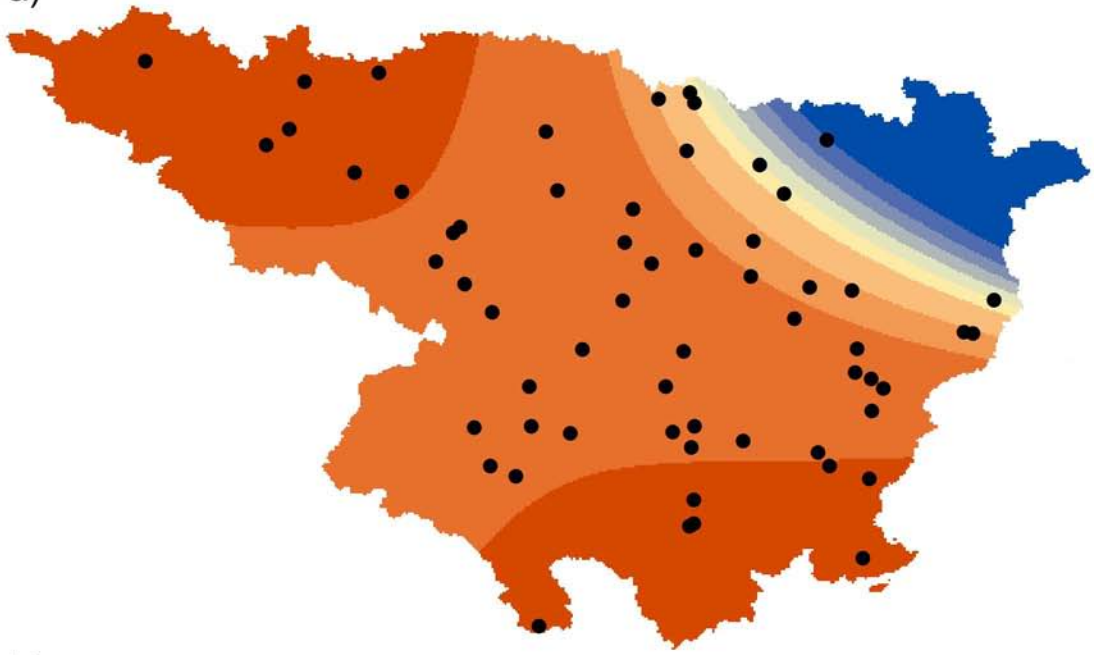




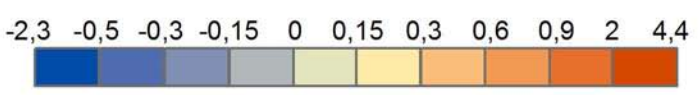
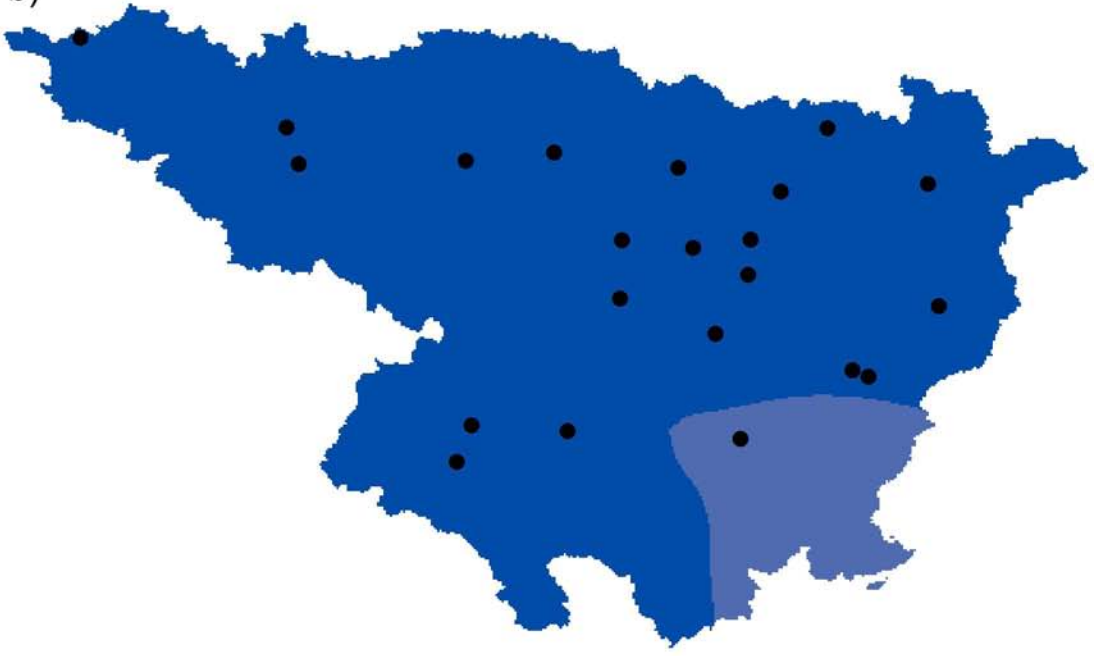


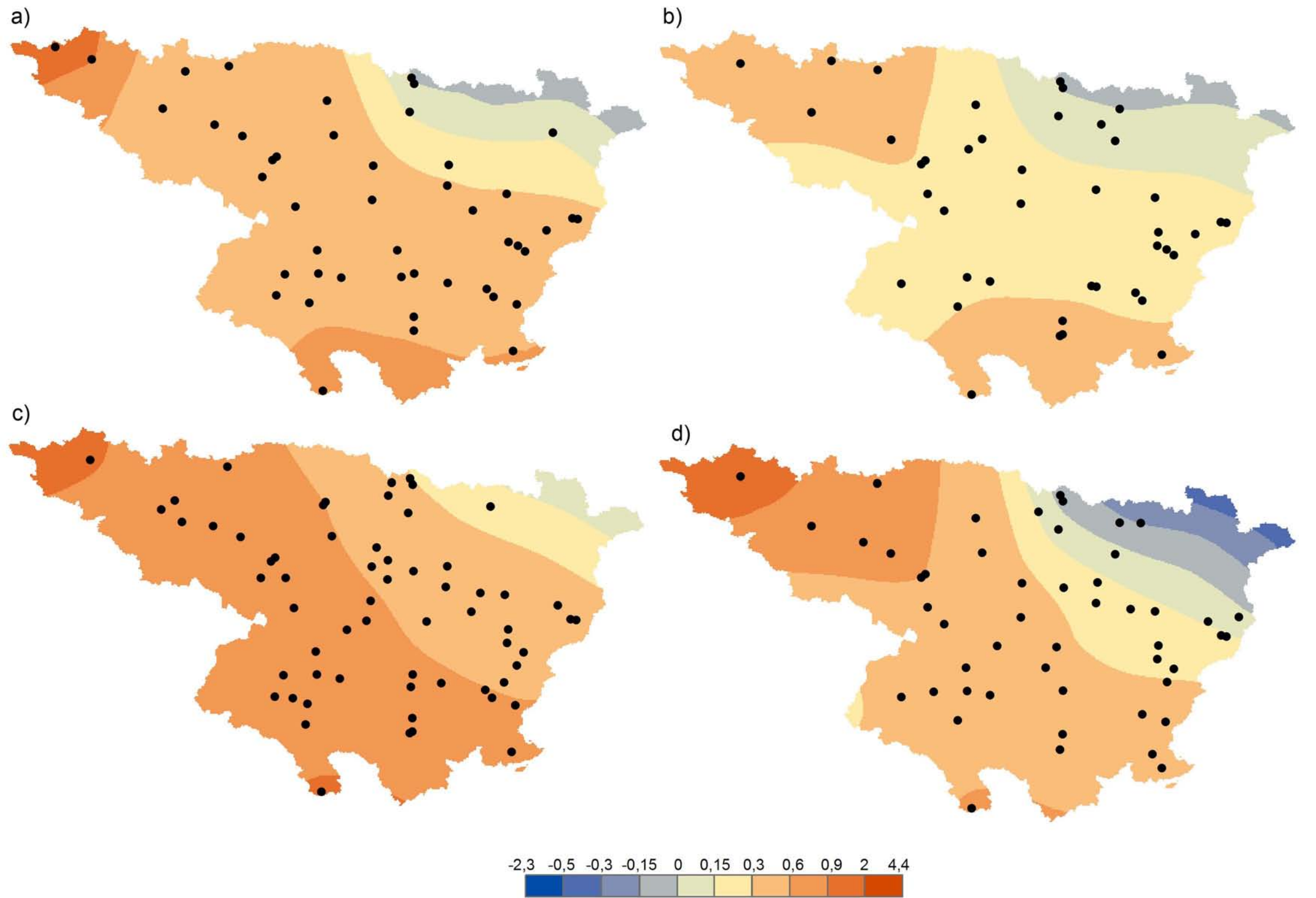


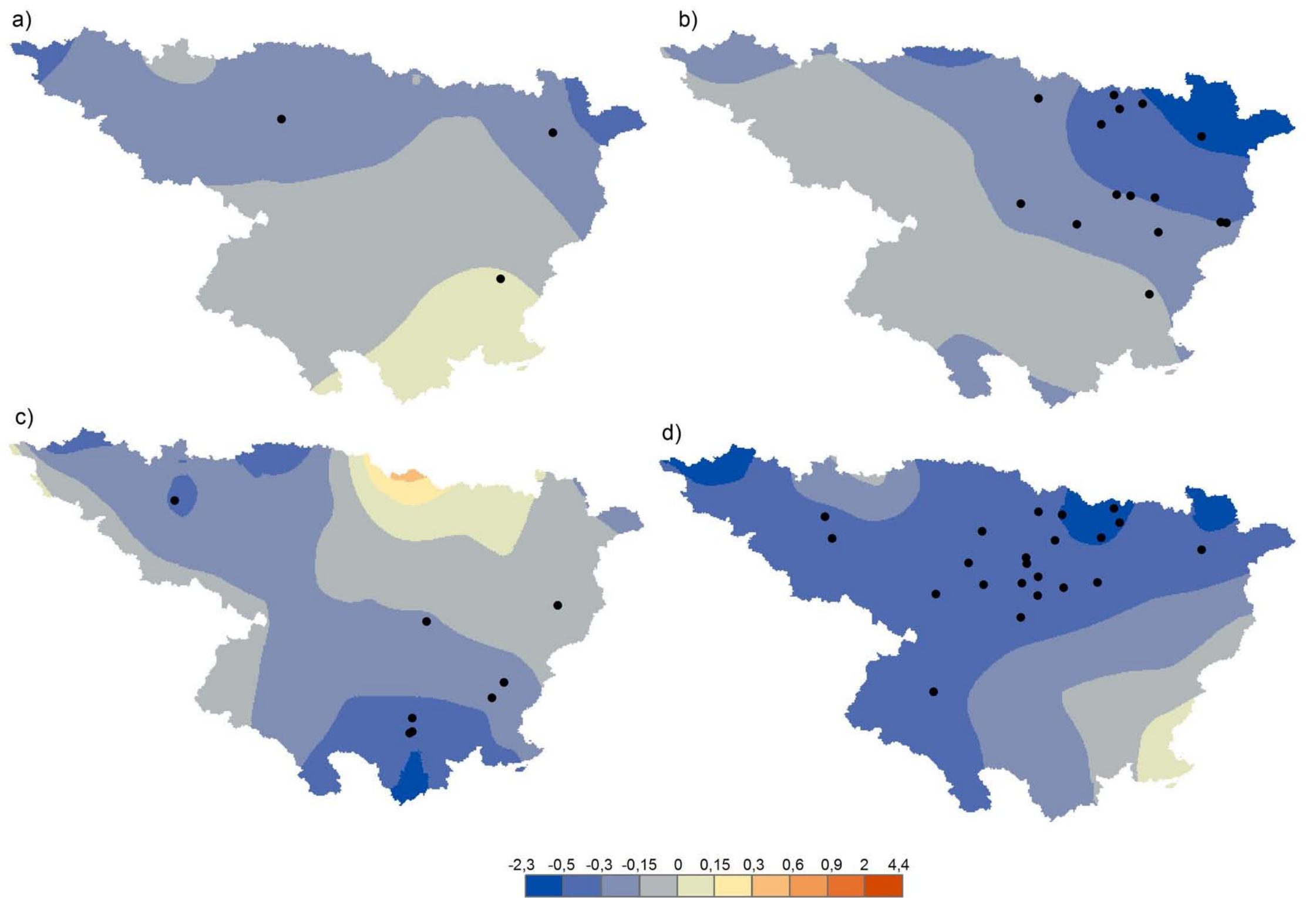
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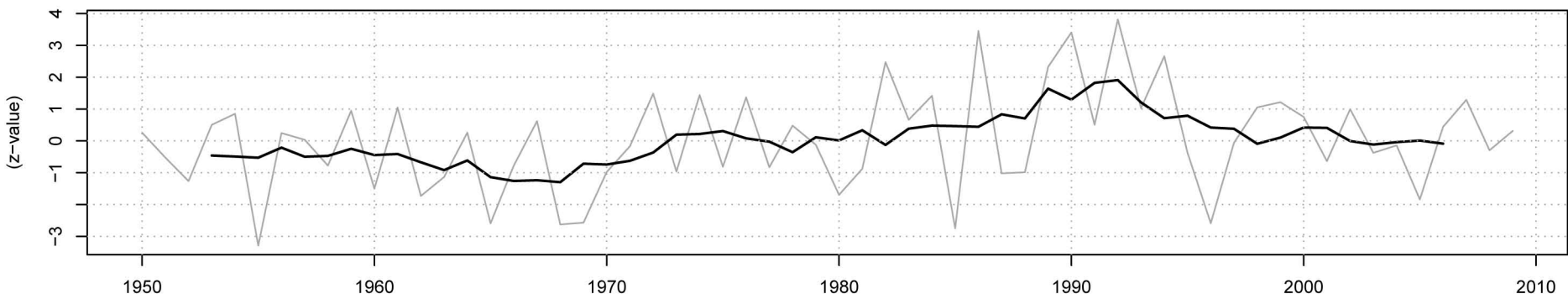
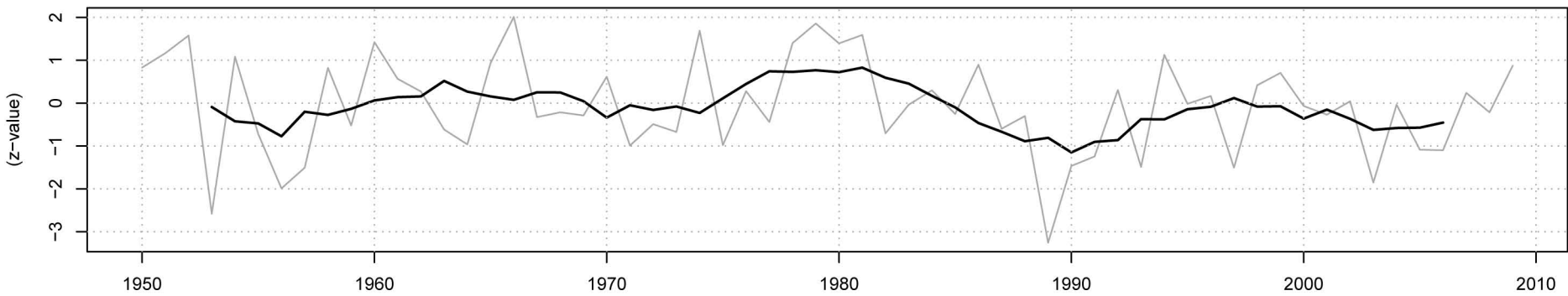


b)







NAOi**WEMOi****MOi**