

Pedotransfer functions for estimating saturated hydraulic conductivity of selected benchmark soils in Ghana

ABSTRACT

Aims: Direct methods of measuring saturated hydraulic conductivity (K_s), either in situ or in the laboratory, are time consuming and very expensive. Several Pedotransfer functions (PTFs) are available for estimating K_s , with each having its own limitations. In this study, the performances of four popular PTFs were evaluated on different soil classes. The PTFs considered herein were Puckett et al. (1985), Campbell and Shiozawa (1994), Dane and Puckett (1994), and Ferrer-Julià et al. (2004). In addition, five local data derived PTFs were used to study the possibility of using local datasets to validate PTF accuracy.

Materials and methods: A total of 450 undisturbed soil cores were collected from the 0 – 15 cm depth from a Stagni-Dystric Gleysol, Plinthi Ferric Acrisol and Plinthic Acrisol. The K_s of samples were measured by falling-head permeameter method in the laboratory. Sand, silt and clay fractions, bulk density, organic matter content, and exchangeable calcium and sodium were measured and used as input parameters for the derived PTFs. Accuracy and reliability of the predictions were evaluated by the root mean square error (RMSE), coefficient of correlation (r), index of agreement (d), and the Nash-Sutcliffe efficiency (NSE) between the measured and predicted values. The relative improvement (RI) of the derived PTFs from this study over the existing ones were also evaluated.

Results: The derived PTFs in this study had good prediction accuracy with r , d , RMSE and NSE ranging from 0.80 – 0.99, 0.79 – 0.94, 0.14 – 1.74 and 0.84 – 0.98, respectively, compared with 0.32 – 0.45, 0.27 – 0.50, 4.00 – 4.90 and 0.41 – 0.47 for the tested PTFs. The relative improvement of the derived over the tested PTFs ranged from 56.50 – 95.71% in the Stagni-Dystric Gleysol, 70.73 – 96.89% in the Plinthi Ferric Acrisol, and 65.37 – 95.81% in the Plinthic Acrisol. Generally, RI was observed to be highest for Model 1 in the Stagni-Dystric Gleysol, and Model 4 in both Plinthic Ferric Acrisol and Plinthic Acrisol, and lowest for Model 5 in all three soils. It was observed that the inclusion of exchangeable calcium and sodium as predictors increased the predictability of the derived PTFs.

Keywords: Clay, Pedotransfer function, Saturated hydraulic conductivity, Sand

1. INTRODUCTION

Hydraulic conductivity is a major parameter in all hydrological models, spanning from physically-based, fully-distributed small-catchment models to land surface parameterizing schemes of general circulation or global climate models [1, 2]. Hydraulic conductivity in saturated soils, referred to as the saturated hydraulic conductivity (K_s) is very crucial in soil and water management with regard to ecology, agriculture and the environment [3, 4]. In addition, it is a very significant parameter in the study of processes such as infiltration, irrigation and drainage, runoff and erosion, and heat and mass transport in top soils, and solute transport in soils [5 – 7]. However, direct determination of K_s under both field and laboratory conditions can be very tedious, time constraining, and cost inefficient, especially over large scales [8], and may often result in unreliable data due to soil heterogeneity and experimental errors. As a result, indirect methods often adopted estimate K_s from other soil

25 properties. These are categorized into three, namely, pore-size distribution models, inverse
26 methods, and pedotransfer functions [1, 9].

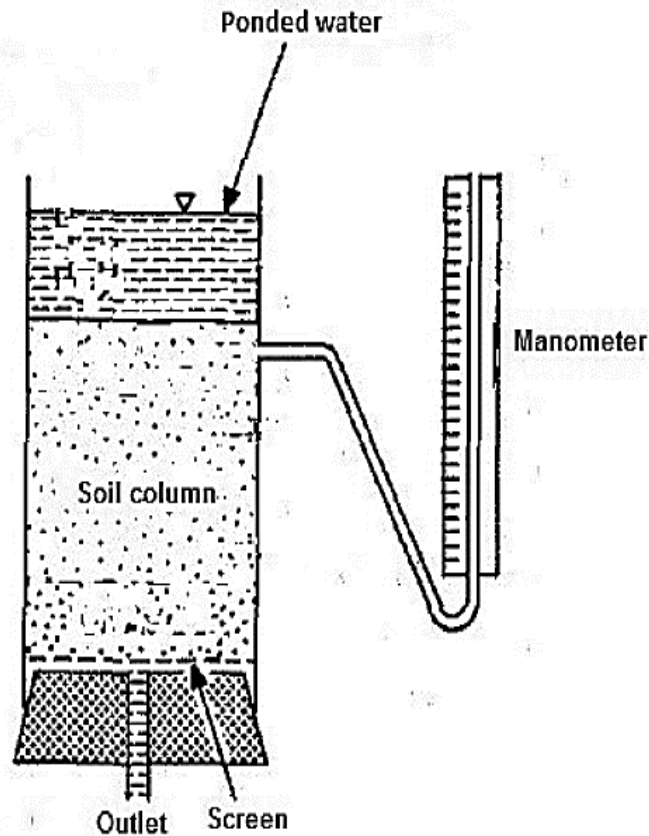
27 Pedotransfer functions are mainly empirical; however, physico-empirical models and fractal
28 theory models are also available [10]. They are generally employed for estimating hydraulic
29 properties from soil properties such as soil texture, bulk density, organic matter content, and
30 water retention [1, 10, 11]. According to Schaap [11] any PTF may belong to one of three
31 main groups, namely, Class PTFs, Continuous PTFs, and Neural network analysis-derived
32 PTFs. The Class PTFs [e.g. 12 – 14] are based on the similar media theory [15], wherein,
33 similar soils are assumed to exhibit similar hydraulic properties. Continuous PTFs, which are
34 mainly derived from linear and nonlinear regression models, show a continuous trend of
35 variations among estimated hydraulic properties for defined textural classes [16]. All PTFs
36 are developed from data obtained from a small number of soil samples, and usually do not
37 account for soil structural heterogeneities, which may result in less accurate or poor
38 predictions when applied to soils different from those from which they were developed [7,
39 17]. This implies that the prediction accuracy of PTFs depends on the similarity between the
40 soils from which they were developed and tested [18]. Inclusion of extra basic soil
41 properties, such as bulk density, porosity, organic matter content, water retention
42 parameters [19 – 22], and exchangeable sodium and calcium may improve the prediction
43 performance of such models. It is therefore, important to evaluate how well PTFs will
44 perform when applied outside the range of the data that were used to derive them, and to
45 make appropriate modifications where necessary. The objectives of the study were to:

- 46 i. Evaluate the general reliability of four most commonly cited PTFs to predict K_s of
47 selected Ghanaian soils, where climatic and geological conditions are different from
48 where they were developed and tested;
- 49 ii. Derive and verify, for selected benchmark soils in Ghana, more accurate PTFs to
50 estimate K_s ;
- 51 iii. Test whether the inclusion of exchangeable Na and Ca as input parameters would
52 improve the accuracy of the derived PTFs.

53 **2. MATERIAL AND METHODS**

54 **2.1 Soil sampling, analysis and characterization**

55 A set undisturbed soil samples were collected from the surface 0 – 15 cm depth with a core
56 sampler of 10 cm diameter and 30 cm height. The soils were classified as Stagni-Dystric
57 Gleysol, Plinthi Ferric Acrisol and Plinthic Acrisol. In total, 450 undisturbed cores and two
58 sets of 450 disturbed samples were collected. One set of the disturbed samples was oven-
59 dried and used for the determination of bulk density; the other set was air-dried and sieved
60 through a 2 mm sieve. The disturbed samples were used for the determination of particle
61 size distribution, pH, organic matter content, exchangeable sodium, calcium, magnesium,
62 and potassium, cation exchange capacity, exchangeable sodium percentage and sodium
63 absorption ratio. The undisturbed cores were used for the laboratory measurements of
64 saturated hydraulic conductivity. Soil bulk density was estimated based on the weight of soil
65 core samples after correcting for soil moisture and the mass and volume of roots and stones
66 [23]. Saturated moisture content was assumed to be equal to the total porosity [24, 25].
67 Particle size analysis was determined by the hydrometer method. The saturated hydraulic
68 conductivity was determined on laboratory soil columns with the falling head permeameter
69 (Figure 1) [2, 26]. Measured properties of the soil classes are presented in Table 1. The soil
70 textures were sandy, sandy loam, and loamy sand.



71

72 **Figure 1.** Laboratory setup for the determination of saturated hydraulic conductivity
 73 Source: Tuffour et al. [27]

74 **2.1.1 Collection of soil cores**

75 Soil sampling was done as described by Tuffour [2]. Undisturbed soil cores were collected
 76 from the fields using a 10 cm diameter PVC pressure sewer pipe and a height of 30 cm and
 77 beveled on the outer part of one end to provide a cutting edge to facilitate the insertion of
 78 the core. Soil cores were collected by first digging a circular trench around an intact “pillar”
 79 of undisturbed soil which was taller and had a slightly larger diameter than the core sampler.
 80 The core sampler was then inserted directly into the pillar of soil by striking a wooden plank
 81 positioned across the top of the ring, with a mallet. By this, the edges of the pillar were
 82 allowed to fall away from the core as it was inserted. Following complete insertion, the core
 83 was excavated by hand. A sealant (herein, paraffin wax) was used to ensure good contact
 84 between the soil and core, and thereby minimised any edge flow resulting from an air
 85 annulus created by the inner ring down the core.

86 **Table 1. Soil property ranges of the datasets soil types**

Soil property	SDG	PFA	PA
Sand (%)	87.73	68.45	77.65
Silt (%)	9.30	13.74	12.55
Clay (%)	3.11	17.80	9.79
Texture	Sandy	Sandy loam	Loamy sand
BD (g/cm ³)	1.70	1.40	1.20
K _s (cm/min)	4.14	4.14	4.12
OM (%)	0.98	3.77	2.40

Exch. Na (cmol/kg)	0.04	0.02	0.04
Exch. Ca (cmol/kg)	1.50	4.87	7.34

87 SDG = Stagni-Dystric Gleysol; PFA = Plinthi Ferric Acrisol; PA = Plinthic Acrisol; BD = Bulk
88 density; TP = Total porosity; MC = Moisture content; K_s = Saturated hydraulic conductivity;
89 OM = Organic matter; Figures in parentheses represent standard deviations; Exch. Na and
90 Ca = Exchangeable sodium and calcium

91 2.2 Pedotransfer functions (PTFs)

92 Saturated hydraulic conductivity was predicted by relating it to basic soil properties using
93 PTFs. The commonly cited PTFs evaluated were those developed by Puckett et al. [28],
94 Campbell and Shiozawa [29], Dane and Puckett [30], and Ferrer-Julìà et al. [31] as
95 presented in equations (1 – 4), respectively:

$$96 K_s = 156.96 \exp[-0.1975Cl] \quad (1)$$

$$97 K_s = 54 \exp[-0.07S_a - 0.167Cl] \quad (2)$$

$$98 K_s = 303.84 \exp(-0.144Cl) \quad (3)$$

$$99 K_s = 2.556 \times 10^{-7} \exp(0.0491S_a) \quad (4)$$

100 Additionally, five new PTFs, (Equations 5 – 9), were derived using multiple linear regression
101 (MLR) to relate K_s to particle size distribution, bulk density, exchangeable sodium and
102 cation, and organic matter content. The derived PTFs (Equations 5 – 9) in this study are:

$$103 \text{ Model 1: } K_s = 0.046158S_a + 0.008362S_i + 0.107176Ca - 1.121352Na \quad (5)$$

$$104 \text{ Model 2: } K_s = 0.02256S_i + 0.06784Cl + 0.29335OM + 0.14592Ca + 33.75189Na \quad (6)$$

$$105 \text{ Model 3: } K_s = 0.1832Cl + 40.9297Na \quad (7)$$

$$106 \text{ Model 4: } K_s = 2.743BD + 1.123Na \quad (8)$$

$$107 \text{ Model 5: } K_s = 0.45615Ca + 37.403333Na \quad (9)$$

108 where, K_s = Saturated hydraulic conductivity [L/T]; S_a = Sand content; S_i = Silt content; Cl =
109 Clay content; BD = Bulk density; OM = Organic matter; Na = Exchangeable sodium; Ca =
110 Exchangeable calcium

111 The first model (Model 1) uses sand, silt percentages, and exchangeable calcium and
112 sodium contents. The second model (Model 2) uses silt and clay percentages, organic
113 matter, and exchangeable calcium and sodium contents. The third model (Model 3) uses
114 clay percentage and exchangeable sodium content. The fourth model (Model 4) uses bulk
115 density and exchangeable sodium content. The fifth model (Model 5) uses exchangeable
116 calcium and sodium contents.

117 2.3 Performance evaluation of the PTFs

118 In order to evaluate the performance of the PTFs in predicting K_s , the K_s values estimated
119 from the derived and tested PTFs were compared to the laboratory measured K_s values,
120 and assessed with the root mean square error (RMSE) (Equation 10), index of agreement
121 (d) (Equation 11), correlation coefficient (r) (Equation 12), relative improvement (R)
122 (Equation 13), and Nash–Sutcliffe efficiency (NSE) (Equation 14). The d statistic was used
123 to avoid problems related with coefficient of determination (R^2).

$$RMSE = \left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (d_s - d_o)_i^2 \right]^{1/2} \quad (10)$$

$$d = 1 - \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (d_s - d_o)_i^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n [(d_s - \bar{d}_o)_i + (d_o - \bar{d}_o)_i]^2} \right) \quad (11)$$

124 where, n = Number of observations; d_o = Observed data; d_s = Simulated data

$$r = \sqrt{1 - \frac{SSE}{SST}} \quad (12)$$

125 where, SSE measures the deviations of observations from their predicted values and SST is
126 a measure of the deviations of the observations from their mean.

$$RI = \left(\frac{RMSE_E - RMSE_D}{RMSE_E} \right) \times 100 \quad (13)$$

127 where, $RMSE_E$ = $RMSE$ of the existing models; $RMSE_D$ = $RMSE$ of the derived models

128 The Nash–Sutcliffe efficiency was estimated as:

$$NSE = 1 - \left[\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (d_s - d_o)_i^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (d_s - \bar{d}_o)_i^2} \right] \quad (14)$$

129 where, d_s = Calculated values of K_s ; d_o = Observed values of K_s ; n = Number of
130 observations

131 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

132 Saturated hydraulic conductivity was estimated from the above-mentioned PTFs, and
133 compared to measured K_s of the 45 spots in each study site. The performance of the tested
134 PTFs were assessed based on the quality of the estimations when applied on specific soil
135 data from this study. However, since those PTFs were developed from different soil
136 datasets, their predictability is always expected to be dependent on the set from which they
137 were developed and those on which they are tested [18]. The results of scatter plots of
138 measured versus estimated K_s for the derived and tested PTFs, and their performance
139 statistics are presented in Table 2. The input data required for the PTFs varied upon the
140 parameters used in developing a particular model. This resulted in variations in their
141 performances in the prediction of K_s . In general, the performances of the well-known PTFs
142 were not good as evidenced by the evaluation indices (i.e., r , d , $RMSE$ and NSE) as shown
143 in Table 2. This implies that no particular model amongst the well-known PTFs could be said
144 to have yielded the best quality fit for K_s in this study. However, estimated K_s by from the
145 PTFs showed a positive correlation with measured K_s . Generally, the r values observed in
146 the study were comparable to those reported by Agyare et al. [32], who reported r in the
147 range of 0.29 – 0.41 when NN model, a concept that is very similar to PTF was used to
148 estimate K_s .

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Table 2. Goodness-of-fit indicators for the well-known PTFs

Soil	Equation	<i>r</i>	RMSE	<i>d</i>	NSE
Stagni-Dystric Gleysol	P	0.40	4.00	0.45	0.42
	CS	0.35	4.10	0.44	0.41
	DP	0.35	4.90	0.44	0.46
	FJ	0.35	4.30	0.40	0.43
Plinthi Ferric Acrisol	P	0.45	4.10	0.50	0.47
	CS	0.40	4.30	0.39	0.44
	DP	0.43	4.20	0.40	0.44
	FJ	0.41	4.50	0.27	0.46
Plinthic Acrisol	P	0.38	4.10	0.32	0.40
	CS	0.32	4.30	0.36	0.45
	DP	0.32	4.20	0.45	0.42
	FJ	0.32	4.10	0.37	0.44

153 *r* = Correlation coefficient; RMSE = Root mean square error; *d* = Index of agreement; P =
 154 Puckett et al. [28]; CS = Campbell and Shiozawa [29]; DP = Dane and Puckett [30]; FJ =
 155 Ferrer-Julia et al. [31]; NSE = Nash–Sutcliffe efficiency
 156

157 Since the ultimate goal of this study was to find a suitable PTF to include in soil water
 158 management scheduling, it was imperative to also develop PTFs upon the failure of the
 159 tested ones (Table 2) to predict the saturated hydraulic conductivity. A key aspect of this
 160 study, therefore, dealt with the identification of additional soil information that could improve
 161 the accuracy of the PTFs, besides the traditional PTF predictors, viz., sand, silt, and clay
 162 contents, bulk density, and OM content. This implies that PTF development should be site-
 163 specific [33, 34]. From the set of derived PTFs, OM was only applicable in Model 2, even
 164 though it was listed among the essential input parameters to build PTFs in this study. A
 165 possible reason, according to Tomasella et al. [35] is that not only the quantity, but the
 166 quality of organic matter significantly affects soil hydraulic properties. In addition, OM is
 167 reported to be an important variable for estimating unsaturated soil hydraulic properties; it
 168 has less effect in saturated soils, since OM mainly affects retention forces (matric potential),
 169 which are *ca* zero in saturated soils [36, 37]. Also, the exchangeable Na and Ca contents,
 170 and bulk density made the use of OM unnecessary. Thus, the use of bulk density [35, 38],
 171 and exchangeable Na and Ca were effective substitutes for OM in the development of PTFs
 172 in this study.
 173

174 Table 3 presents the performance indices of the derived PTFs. While the performances of
 175 all the well-known PTFs were generally poor, those of the derived PTFs (Models 1 – 5) were
 176 highly accurate, as revealed by the very high *r*, *d*, NSE, and very low RMSE values.
 177 Contrary to the tested the PTFs, Models 1 – 5 would allow for the assessment of changes in
 178 OM, bulk density [39], and exchangeable Na and Ca on saturated hydraulic conductivity.
 179 Compared to the best predictor amongst the well-known PTFs, herein, Puckett et al. [28]
 180 model with RMSE between 4.00 and 4.10, the derived PTFs provided high accuracy, with
 181 RMSE not exceeding 1.741. In addition, the NSE values of the derived PTFs ranged
 182 between 0.844 – 0.950 in the Stagni-Dystric Gleysol, 0.854 – 0.982 in the Plinthi Ferric
 183 Acrisol, and 0.892 – 0.972 in the Plinthi Acrisol. This implies that the PTFs developed from
 184 the local datasets had a superior performance over the well-known ones. The relatively poor
 185 prediction of the well-known PTFs may be explained by the selection of inappropriate soil
 186 properties as predictors [40]. This corroborates the reports by several studies [e.g. 5, 41 –
 187 43] that the performance of PTFs is highly affected by factors such as geographical source
 188 of data used for its derivation, and differences in methods of measurement. Additionally,
 189 according to Tuffour [2], most theories in soil hydrology, including these well-known PTFs
 190 have been developed for standard, clay-rich and organic-rich, and fertile temperate soils.
 191 This implies that these models are generally successful for moist environments, but do not
 192 always carry over meaningfully over arid and semi-arid regions as in the present study. The

193 derived PTFs, on the other hand, are a simple and suitable approach for the determination
 194 of K_s in the absence of instrumentation.

195
 196

Table 3. Goodness-of-fit indicators for the derived PTFs

Soil	Equation	r	RMSE	d	NSE
Stagni-Dystric Gleysol	Model 1	0.892	0.213	0.794	0.844
	Model 2	0.994	0.584	0.920	0.932
	Model 3	0.993	1.040	0.911	0.950
	Model 4	0.994	0.283	0.923	0.873
	Model 5	0.991	1.741	0.874	0.931
Plinthi Ferric Acrisol	Model 1	0.990	0.154	0.893	0.982
	Model 2	0.993	0.212	0.941	0.963
	Model 3	0.991	0.714	0.844	0.940
	Model 4	0.994	0.143	0.921	0.903
	Model 5	0.992	1.204	0.873	0.854
Plinthic Acrisol	Model 1	0.971	0.203	0.863	0.892
	Model 2	0.992	0.534	0.922	0.930
	Model 3	0.991	0.670	0.874	0.952
	Model 4	0.993	0.181	0.911	0.894
	Model 5	0.991	1.422	0.912	0.972

197 r = Correlation coefficient; RMSE = Root mean square error; d = Index of agreement; NSE =
 198 Nash–Sutcliffe efficiency

199

200 The observation made in the study is a clear evidence of inter-user variability emanating
 201 from soil surface characteristics, presence of a protective layer, and land use history of the
 202 study site [44] and site specificity of PTFs, which are the key limitations of applying PTFs
 203 developed in one region to other regions [45, 46]. Hence, the prediction of K_s using PTFs
 204 could be well improved by adding input variables such as topographic, vegetation, and land
 205 use and/or by enlarging the datasets [47]. This clearly shows the importance of using local
 206 data in the development of K_s PTFs as corroborated by [46], who assessed the
 207 performances of four PTFs (Jabro, Puckett, Neurotheta, and Rosetta) with a locally derived
 208 PTF (Turkey). They reported the lowest RMSE value of 0.74 for the Turkey against Rosetta,
 209 which performed best among the four well-known PTFs, with RMSE of 1.61. The index of
 210 agreement (d) (Table 3), ranged between 0.79 (for Model 1 in the Stagni-Dystric Gleysol)
 211 and 0.94 (for Model 2 in the Plinthi Ferric Acrisol), which reflects reasonable performance of
 212 the derived PTFs. The d statistic herein reflects the degree to which the observations were
 213 accurately estimated by the predictions [43, 48]. In all, the results indicate very good
 214 performance of the derived PTFs in terms of the four statistics used as evaluation indices.

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216 As presented in Table 4, the addition of Ca and Na as input parameters for the derived
 217 PTFs improved the predictions of K_s between 57.56% and 95.71% in the Stagni-Dystric
 218 Gleysol, 70.73% and 96.89% in the Plinthi Ferric Acrisol, and 65.37% and 95.81% in the
 219 Plinthic Acrisol. Most especially, it was found that K_s was directly affected by exchangeable
 220 Na, which was in fact the most important soil property influencing K_s in the soils in this study.
 221 The performances of the derived PTFs based on their relative improvements over the well-
 222 known ones were in the order of Model 1 > Model 4 > Model 2 > Model 3 > Model 5 for the
 223 Stagni-Dystric Gleysol, and the Plinthi Ferric Acrisol, and Model 4 > Model 1 > Model 2 >
 224 Model 3 > Model 5 for the Plinthic Acrisol. The large improvement may be attributed to the
 225 consideration of additional properties, particularly Na as input parameters. The PTF with OM
 226 as an input variable (Model 2) performed very well in estimating K_s as reported by Wösten
 227 [13] and Vereecken et al. [20]. Similar to fine textured soils as reported by Candemir and
 228 Gülser [49], K_s depends on both soil physical and chemical properties in coarse textured
 229 soils. The differences in the results between estimates from the derived and tested PTFs
 230 may not be exclusively due to the inclusion of OM, exchangeable Ca and Na, but also from
 231 other factors such as database-related uncertainties and the adopted algorithms [9, 44, 50].

Table 4. Relative improvement of the derived over the tested PTFs

Soil	Equation	Relative Improvement (%)			
		P	CS	DP	FJ
Stagni-Dystric Gleysol	Model 1	94.75	94.88	95.71	95.12
	Model 2	85.50	85.85	88.16	86.51
	Model 3	74.00	74.63	78.78	75.81
	Model 4	93.00	93.17	94.29	94.65
	Model 5	56.50	57.56	64.49	59.53
Plinthi Ferric Acrisol	Model 1	96.34	96.51	96.43	96.67
	Model 2	94.88	95.11	95.00	95.33
	Model 3	82.68	83.49	83.10	84.22
	Model 4	96.59	94.74	96.67	96.89
	Model 5	70.73	72.09	71.43	73.33
Plinthic Acrisol	Model 1	95.12	95.35	95.24	95.12
	Model 2	87.07	87.67	87.38	87.07
	Model 3	83.66	84.42	84.05	83.66
	Model 4	95.61	95.81	95.71	95.61
	Model 5	65.37	66.98	66.19	65.37

233 P = Puckett *et al* [28]; CS = Campbell and Shiozawa [29]; DP = Dane and Puckett [30]; FJ =
 234 Ferrer-Julía *et al* [31]
 235

236

4. CONCLUSION

237 This study tested the application of four well-known Pedotransfer Functions (PTFs) in the
 238 literature and local data derived PTFs, to identify the level of accuracy to estimate K_s for
 239 some selected benchmark soils in Ghana. Multilinear regression analysis was used to derive
 240 the best relationships between K_s and some basic soil properties. The derived PTFs
 241 provided more accurate predictions, whereas the well-known PTFs underestimated K_s
 242 values for all three soil types. The derived PTFs in this study are highly advantageous over
 243 the tested ones due to the overall low error levels (i.e., higher r , d and NSE values, and
 244 lower RMSE values) and simplicity to input parameters. Reliability of the developed PTFs
 245 (Models 1 – 5) against the well-known ones demonstrated the ability of the developed PTFs
 246 to accurately predict K_s , and also revealed the shortcomings of the well-known PTFs. The R^2
 247 of the derived over the tested PTFs was observed to be highest for Model 1 in the Stagni-
 248 Dystric Gleysol, and Model 4 in both Plinthic Ferric Acrisol and Plinthic Acrisol, and lowest
 249 for Model 5 in all three soils. It was observed that the inclusion of exchangeable Ca and Na
 250 as predictors increased the predictability of the derived PTFs. Thus, inclusion of additional
 251 soil parameters which influence soil aggregation and structure improved the prediction
 252 accuracy of the derived PTFs. Another alternative could be the development of soil class
 253 specific PTF models.
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COMPETING INTERESTS

393 Authors have declared that no competing interests exist.
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UNDER PEER REVIEW