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3 Temperature drives asymmetric competition between alien and indigenous 4 freshwater snails (Physa acuta vs. Physa fontinalis)

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21 Biological invasion represent one of the major threats to global biodiversity as alien species 22 often displace indigenous species. However, knowledge of the mechanisms behind such 23 displacements and the driving factors of the competitive superiority of the alien species still 24 remain rare. In our study we combined analysis of field data and laboratory experiments 25 examining species interactions, to investigate the impact of temperature in the case of the 26 alien freshwater snail *Physa acuta* that is held responsible for the decline of indigenous snail 27 *Physa fontinalis* in Europe. From field data, we identified higher temperature as the most 28 important difference between sites populated by alien P. acuta and those where indigenous 29 P. fontinalis occurred. Results of the species interaction experiment conducted at 15, 20, and 30 25 °C confirmed the hypothesis that the competitive superiority of P. acuta over P. fontinalis 31 increases at warmer temperatures. In single species treatments, increasing temperature 32 stimulated both species to grow faster and reach greater shell heights. Coexistence treatments 33 revealed an asymmetric competitive interaction between the two snail species. In both 34 species, the density of conspecifics did not affect snail growth; however, density of 35 heterospecifics affected the growth. At 15 °C, the presence of heterospecifics stimulated the 36 growth of both species, while at higher temperatures the presence of heterospecifics 37 stimulated the growth in *P. acuta*, but inhibited in *P. fontinalis*. Our study shows that 38 temperature can be a powerful driver of the outcomes of alien and indigenous species' 39 competition by driving asymmetric interaction. Further our results point up that the 40 environmental context cannot be disregarded when investigating the interaction between alien 41 and indigenous species, and predict alien species success and impact.

42 Introduction

43 Biological invasion is one of the major threats to global biodiversity (Lövei 1997, Vitousek 44 et al. 1997, Dextrase and Mandrak 2006) and invasion rates are particularly high in freshwater 45 (Sala et al. 2000). In Germany alone, to date, about 120 invertebrate species have invaded 46 freshwater systems, the largest share being molluscs and crustaceans (Strayer 2010). Negative 47 effects of alien species on indigenous species (Mack et al. 2000) may arise from a number of 48 processes leading to irreversible changes in ecosystems and to declines of indigenous species. 49 For example, alien species can alter habitat structures (e.g. Schmidlin et al. 2012), introduce 50 diseases (e.g. Bacela-Spychalska et al. 2012), exert predation pressure (e.g. van der Velden 51 et al. 2009), and compete with indigenous species for food (e.g. Morisson and Hay 2011). In 52 this context, Covich (2010) showed that alien species can change competitive dominance 53 relationships among gastropods and cause major losses of indigenous species.

54 Several factors may contribute to the success and competitive superiority of alien versus 55 indigenous species. They often have favorable life history traits such as high growth rate, 56 early maturation, and high fecundity (e.g. Grabowski et al. 2007). Moreover, aliens often have 57 more flexible diets (Boland et al. 2008), a greater ability to procure food resources (Krist and 58 Charles 2012), and to use available resources more efficiently (Morrison & Hay 2011). 59 Finally, alien species often have higher tolerances to pollution (Vermonden et al. 2010). In the 60 latter context, Früh et al. (2012a) showed that degraded freshwater habitats are more easily 61 invaded by alien species, where increases in salinity and temperature favoured invasions. 62 Verbrugge et al. (2012) showed that alien molluscs could withstand warmer temperatures than 63 indigenous molluscs and may consequently be favoured by increasing temperature. Similarly,

Früh et al. (2012b) showed that crustaceans and molluscs are similarly favoured bytemperature increases.

These findings demonstrate that temperature acts as one of the key factors driving the success of alien species. Consequently, increases of temperature due to climate change or other anthropogenic alteration are expected to favour biological invasion. Thus with higher temperatures the pool of potential invaders is enlarged, habitats are more likely to be invaded, the establishment success of invaders is higher, and the outcomes of interspecific interactions are shifted in the invaders favour (Rahel and Olden 2008, Walther et al. 2009). Therefore it is important to analyse how increases in temperature may drive the competitive interactions between alien and indigenous species.

The present study examines the effect of temperature on competitive interactions between the acuta bladder snail, *Physa acuta* and the common bladder snail, *Physa fontinalis*. The former species is an alien species able to rapidly spreading to and colonizing new areas, particularly disturbed environments where it can obtain high abundance (Brackenburry and Appleton 1995). This alien species is of global concern because *P. acuta* has been spread worldwide via navigation water ways and /or by the ornamental trade (Winterbourn 1980, Appleton 1995, Kinzelbach 1995, Appleton 2003, Brackenbury et al. 2009). It is considered as one of the most ubiquitous aquatic macroinvertebrates in the world (Dillon et al. 2002).

82 Specimens of *P. acuta* observed in Europe may originate from southeastern Europe (Cope and

83 Winterbourn 2004) or more likely North America (Dillon et al. 2002, Oscoz et al. 2010).

84 Impacts on indigenous species have been reported for example in South Africa, New Zealand

and Australia (Winterbourn 1980, Brackenbury and Appleton 1995, Zukowski and Walker

86 2009). In this context, studies from Italy and France showed that the expansion of *P. acuta*

was related to a decline of the indigenous species P. fontinalis (Manganelli et al. 2000, 87 88 Mouthon and Daufresne 2010). In parts of its distribution range, P. fontinalis has already been 89 included in Red Lists (Frank and Reischütz 1994, Turner et al. 1994, Beran et al. 2005, 90 Jungbluth and von Knorre 2009). However, as is the case in most displacements of indigenous 91 by alien species, knowledge of the interaction mechanisms between *P. acuta* and *P. fontinalis* 92 and factors which influence this interaction is still lacking. 93 Therefore, using a two-step approach consisting of analysis of field data on the occurrence of 94 both species in regard to different physico-chemical variables and subsequent species 95 interaction experiments in the laboratory we tested following hypotheses. 96 (1) Temperature is one of the most important environmental variables determining the 97 occurrence of P. acuta vs. P. fontinalis.

(2) Consequently changes in temperature modify the competitive interaction between *P. acuta* and *P. fontinalis*.

100 (3) Increasing temperature drives the competitive superiority of *P. acuta* against *P. fontianlis*.

101 Methods

102 Field data

To pinpoint the most important environmental variables that determine the occurrence of *P. acuta, P. fontinalis*, and both species in coexistence we analyzed field data on species occurrence in dependence of eight physico-chemical variables, pH, temperature, ammonium, chloride, phosphate, nitrite, total organic carbon (TOC), and oxygen. We derived exclusive occurrence points of *P. acuta* (n = 25) and *P. fontinalis* (n = 51) as well as occurrence points of both species in coexistence (n = 6) from a database (unpublished data from State Agency for Nature, Environment and Consumer protection North Rhine Westphalia). This database contains benthic invertebrate monitoring data from the years 2000 to 2011 in North Rhine Westphalia, Germany, using the German standard multi-habitat benthic invertebrate sampling method developed by Haase et al. (2004). We selected only sites where physico-chemical water measurements existed in the same database. As a minimum requirement, physicochemical measurements had to be conducted at least 10 times at even intervals throughout the year. For the analysis, we used the annual averages of each physico-chemical variable.

116 For statistical analysis of the field data, we categorized species occurrence points as either 117 P. acuta-presence-sites (P. fontinalis-absence-sites), P. fontinalis-presence-sites (P. acuta-118 absence-sites) or coexistence sites. To identify the most predictive physico-chemical variables 119 for occurrence of *P. acuta*, *P. fontinalis*, and coexistence of both species we calculated a 120 canonical correspondence analysis (CCA). Significance of environmental variables was tested 121 using a forward selection and 999 Monte Carlo permutations under full model conditions. We 122 down-weighted rare site-categories, as their number was unequal. In the model, species 123 occurrence data served as dependent variables with physico-chemical variables acting as

- 124 predictor variables. For statistical analysis, we log (x+1)-transformed the measures of
- ammonium, chloride, phosphate, nitrite, TOC, and oxygen. The CCA was calculated with
- 126 Canoco 4.5 (Wageningen UR University & Research centre, Netherland).

128 Species interaction experiment

We established the cultures of both snail species. Specimens of *P. acuta* were collected in the Fulda River and specimens of *P. fontinalis* in the Eder River, Germany. In the laboratory, we maintained the snails in 12-liter aquaria with aerated tap water in a controlled environmental room (20 °C, 16:8 light:dark cycle). The cultures were fed ad libitum with commercial fish flakes 3 times a week and we renewed the water of the aquariums once a week.

For the experiment, we used neonate snails of both snail species. Neonates were obtained from 10 adults cultured in 500 ml of aerated tap water in 1-liter jars. We also fed these snails ad libitum with commercial fish flakes and renewed the water once a week. We checked these jars every day for egg masses which were removed and incubated in separate jars. Further we checked egg masses daily for neonates. Shell heights of the neonates were measured under the stereomicroscope (Olympus SZX 12; Olympus, Hamburg, Germany) and the neonates were allocated randomly to experimental jars (again, 1-liter jars filled with 500 ml aerated tab water) according to the experimental design (Fig. 1).

This design comprised single-species treatments with different densities as well as
coexistence treatments with different densities of both species. Densities of single-species
treatments were 5, 10, and 20 snails per jar (hereafter called *PA5*, *PA10*, *PA20* for treatments
using *P. acuta* and *PF5*, *PF10*, *PF20* for treatments using *P. fontinalis*). For the coexistence

- treatment two different density combinations were used: 5:5 and 10:10 snails of both species,
- 147 hereafter called Co5 and Co10. Each treatment was replicated 6 times and tested at 3 different
- temperatures, 15, 20, and 25 °C; however 2 replicates of *Co10* at 15°C failed during the
- 149 experiment und were therefore excluded from the analysis.

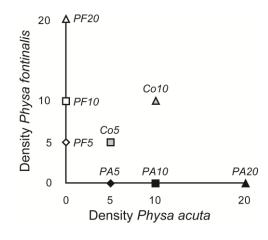


Figure 1 Different density treatments used in the species competition experiment. Single species treatments with only *Physa acuta* or *Physa fontinalis* are marked with *PA* and *PF*, respectively, coexistence treatments are marked with *Co*. All treatments were replicated six times at three temperature levels, 15, 20, and 25 °C.

155 We choose these three temperature regimes to represent the water temperature in the snail's 156 habitats during a cool (15 °C) and a hot (20 °C) summer today and during a hot summer day 157 in the future (25 °C). Temperature in each jar was maintained with heating or chilling rods and temperature was controlled every day using a digital hand thermometer. The maximum 158 159 deviation recorded was ± 1 °C. We conducted the experiment under controlled light 160 conditions (16:8 hours light:dark regime). Throughout the experiment, we measured the shell 161 height weekly under the stereomicroscope and recorded mortality. We replaced dead snails by 162 individuals of the same species, size and age that were marked with nail polish. At the end of 163 the experiment, marked snails were not taken into account within analyses. The experiment 164 was terminated after 5 weeks. The snails in the experiment were fed with a constant food

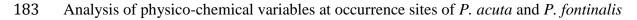
165 concentration of 1 mg commercial fish flakes per snails per day. The water within the166 experimental jars was renewed weekly after measuring the snail's shell heights.

167 For statistical analysis, we log(x+1)-transformed the lengths of snails were. To analyze the 168 effect of temperature on species growth rates we used repeated measures analysis of variance 169 (rm-ANOVA) with densities of conspecifics and heterospecifics as additional predictor 170 variables. Rm-AVOVAs were calculated for both species separately. We performed these 171 analyses with STATISTICA 8 (StatSoft, Inc., Tulsa, Oklahoma, USA). To examine the effect of interspecific interaction in relation to temperature, we compared the average final shell heights (day 35) of P. acuta vs. P. fontianlis in single-species (PA10, PF10, PA20, PF20) and coexistance treatments (Co5, Co10) at the three experimental temperatures 15, 20, and 25 °C. To this end, we calculated the differences in the average shell height between P. acuta and *P. fontinalis* for all replicate combinations within each of the corresponding treatment of the two species (PA10 vs. PF10, PA20 vs. PF20, P. acuta of Co5 vs. P. fontinalis of Co5, *P. acuta* of Co10 vs. *P. fontinalis* of Co10, at each of the three temperatures, respectively). 179 From this pairwise comparison of replicates, we further calculated the mean differences and

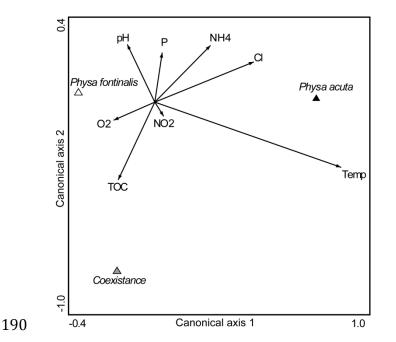
180 standard errors for each of the corresponding treatments.

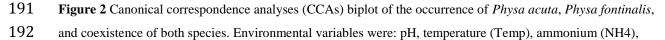
181 Results

182 Field data



- 184 showed that temperature was by far the most important variable differentiating between
- 185 P. acuta, P. fontinalis and coexistance sites (Fig. 2, Table 1,). Sites where P. acuta occurred
- 186 were significantly warmer (annual mean temperature about 14 °C) compared to sites where
- .87 *P. fontinalis* (annual mean temperature about 12.5 °C) were found. Annual mean temperature
 - of coexistance sites were at an intermediate value of about13 °C.





- 193 chloride (Cl), phosphate (P), nitrite (NO2), total organic carbon (TOC), and oxygen (O2).
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- 196 Table 1 Results of canonical correspondence analysis (CCA) and conditional effects in forward selection. The
- 197 eigenvaules of the first two canonical axis (CA) and explained variance by the CAs and the order of the
- 198 environmental variables determining the occurrence of *Physa acuta*, *Physa fontinalis*, and coexistence of both
- species are given. Environmental variables were: pH, temperature (Temp), ammonium (NH₄) chloride (Cl),
- 200 phosphate (P), nitrite (NO₂), total organic carbon (TOC), and oxygen (O₂).

	CA				
	Axis 1		Axis 2		
Eigenvalues	0.259		0.029		
Variance (%)	13.0		14.4		
Variable	λa	р	F		
Temp	0.20	0.001	8.76		
TOC	0.03	0.318	1.24		
Р	0.00	0.630	0.43		
NH_4	0.02	0.629	0.50		
NO_2	0.02	0.349	0.91		
Cl	0.01	0.578	0.56		
pН	0.00	0.821	0.21		
O_2	0.01	0.851	0.17		

Species interaction experiment

The rm-ANOVA showed for both species a significant effect of temperature (Time*Temp) on their shell height (Table 2). Both species were stimulated by increasing temperature, growing faster and reaching bigger shell heights until the end of the experiment (Fig. 3). Depending on density treatment, *P. acuta* reached a mean shell heights of about 2200 - 4000 μ m until the end of the experiment at 15 °C, while at 25 °C the mean shell heights were about 6000 – 7500 μ m (Figs 3 A-F). Compared to *P. acuta*, *P. fontinalis* grew less and final mean shell height was depending on treatment about 1700 to 2600 μ m at 15 °C and 3200 to 4600 μ m at 25 °C (Figs 3 G-L).

211 Beside the temperature effect, we found that the growth of both snails species was influenced

by the presence of the other snail species (Term in the rm-ANOVA for *P. acuta: Time*PF*;

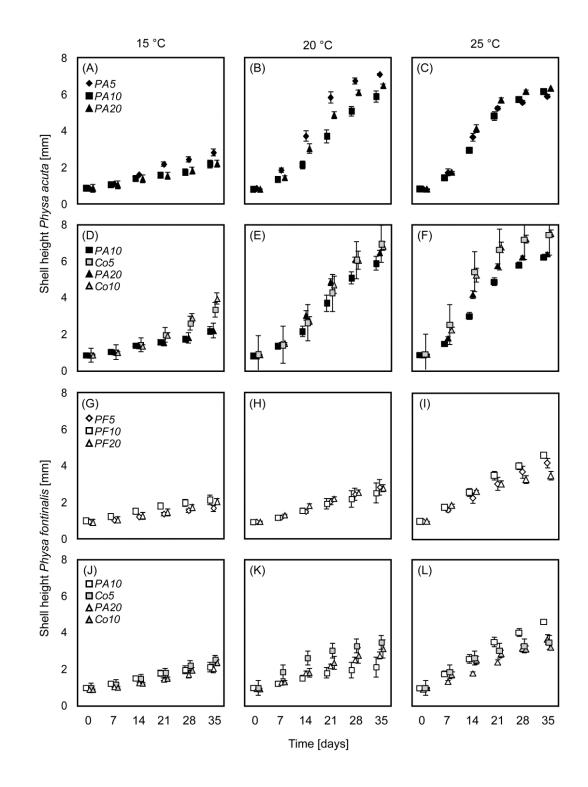
213 for *P. fontinalis*: Time**PA*, Table 2, Fig. 3), while density of conspecifics did not affect

215 Fig. 3).

- 216 Table 2 Results of the repeated measures analysis of variance (rm-ANOVA). Rm-ANOVA was calculated for
- 217 the shell heights of *Physa acuta* (A) and *Physa fontinalis* (B) during the species interaction experiment in
- 218 dependence of species density of *P. acuta* (*PA*) and *P. fontinalis* (*PF*) and temperature (Temp).

Dependent variable	Effect	SS	df	F	р
(A) Shell height	Intercept	33.68	1	916.68	< 0.001
of Physa acuta	Temp	1.25	1	34.08	< 0.001
	PA	0.10	1	2.63	0.108
	PF	0.01	1	0.27	0.603
	Temp*PA	0.07	1	1.96	0.165
	Temp*PF	0.05	1	1.40	0.239
	Error	3.67	100		
	Time	0.03	5	1.28	0.273
	Time*Temp	0.36	5	13.78	< 0.001
	Time*PA	0.05	5	1.96	0.084
	Time*PF	0.31	5	11.80	< 0.001
	Time*Temp*PA	0.05	5	1.75	0.121
	Time*Temp*PF	0.28	5	10.79	< 0.001
	Error	2.63	500		
(B) Shell height	Intercept	31.40	1	810.45	< 0.001
of Physa fontinalis	Temp	1.12	1	28.89	< 0.00
	PA	0.04	1	1.10	0.298
	PF	0.02	1	0.53	0.470
	Temp*PA	0.03	1	0.88	0.350
	Temp* <i>PF</i>	0.03	1	0.88	0.350
	Error	3.87	100		
	Time	0.05	5	3.15	0.008
	Time*Temp	0.29	5	17.10	< 0.001
	Time*PA	0.21	5	12.10	< 0.001
	Time*PF	0.01	5	0.57	0.724
	Time*Temp*PA	0.21	5	12.19	< 0.001
	Time*Temp*PF	0.01	5	0.61	0.685
	Error	1.70	500		

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Figure 3 Mean shell height (± SE) of *Physa acuta* (A-F) and *Physa fontinalis* (G-L) during the species
 interaction experiment. Intraspecific interaction in single-species treatments with 5, 10, and 20 snails of *P. acuta*

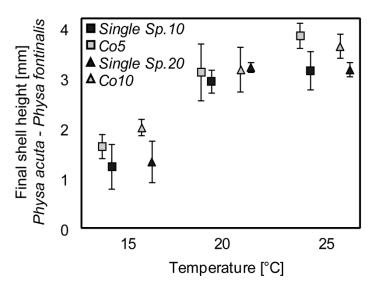
^{225 (}PA5, PA10, PA20; a-c) and P. fontinalis (PF5, PF10, PF20; g-i). Interspecific interaction between P. acuta and

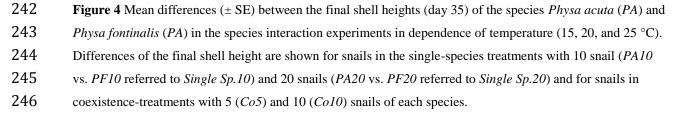
P. fontinalis in coexistence treatments under density combinations *CO5* and *CO10* compared to the single-

²²⁷ species-treatments PA10, PA20 (d-f) and PF10, PF20 (j-l), respectively. All treatments were conducted at three

 $[\]label{eq:228} \text{temperatures, 15, 20, and 25 °C.}$

An asymmetric competitive interaction between the two species was observed influenced by temperature (Term in the rm-ANOVA for *P. acuta*: Time*Temp**PF*; for *P. fontinalis*: Time*Temp**PA*, Table 2, Fig. 3). At all temperatures, alien *P. acuta* was stimulated by the presence of indigenous *P. fontinalis*. At 15 °C and 20 °C, the indigenous snail *P. fontinalis* was also stimulated by the presence of alien *P. acuta*. However, these effects switched at 25 °C. Here the growth of *P. fontinalis* was inhibited in the coexistence-treatments. Especially at 25 °C specimens of *P. acuta* in the coexistent-treatments (*CO5, CO10*) grew significantly faster and were up to 1500 μ m longer compared to the snails in single-species-treatments (*PA5, PA10, PA20*). In contrast, *P. fontinalis* were up to 1400 μ m smaller in the coexistenttreatments (*CO5, CO10*) at 25 °C compared to the single-species-treatments (PF5, *PF10*, PF20). As a result, in the coexistence treatments, the differences in final shell heights between both species increased with increasing temperatures (Fig. 4).





247 Discussion

Knowledge on the mechanism behind displacements of indigenous species by alien species and the driving factors of the competitive superiority of the alien species is still rare. Even though it is often assumed that temperature may be a driving factor in this context, concrete demonstrations of this hypothesis and the underlying mechanism are few. However linking interspecific interaction between alien and indigenous species with environmental conditions as potential driving factors of invasion success is important to predict invasions and the impact of alien on indigenous species assemblage. Therefore in our study we chose a two-step approach combining analysis of field data and species interaction experiments on the species pair *P. acuta* and *P. fontinalis*.

Using field data we identified temperature as most important differences between the sites where the alien snail P. acuta occurred compared to sites where the indigenous snail 259 P. fontinalis occurred. Sampling sites where P. acuta was found were warmer compared to 260 sites where the indigenous snail P. fontinalis was found and coexistence sites where 261 intermediate, slightly shifted to *P. fontinalis* sites. This pattern reflects the high tolerance of 262 *P. acuta* to increased temperature (Zukowski and Walker 2009, Höckendorff et al. accepted). 263 Furthermore, our findings corroborates the results of previous studies suggesting that 264 temperature is one of the best predictors of the sensitivity of freshwater habitats to alien 265 invertebrate species (Früh et al. 2012a, 2012b, Verbrugge et al. 2012). This leads to the 266 assumption that changes in temperature modify the competitive interaction between P. acuta 267 and *P. fontinalis* and that *P. acuta* may be able to outcompete indigenous snail species, in this 268 case *P. fontinalis*, especially at warmer temperatures. This assumption is supported by the 269 findings of our species interaction experiment.

270 *P. acuta* showed higher growth gains as a result of higher temperatures. Furthermore, we demonstrated that the competitive interaction between the two species is asymmetric. Especially at high temperatures, heterospecifics had a stimulating effect on growth of P. acuta, while contrary heterospecifics had an inhibitory effect on growth of P. fontinalis. This asymmetric competitive interaction between the two model species may be caused by several, potentially overlapping mechanisms. The effect of the presence of heterospecifics might be mediated through chemical cues as suggested by Kawata and Ishigami (1992), working on P. acuta and Lymnaea columella. Furthermore, direct interaction with heterospecifics may change an organism's behavior, resulting in a decrease in foraging and feeding, as for example Brenneis et al. (2010) showed for the snail Potamopyrgus antipodarum and the isopod Gnorimosphaeroma insulare. Also a higher efficiency to use and convert resources of alien compared to indigenous snails (e.g. Byers 2000a, Nunez 2010, Morrison and Hay 2011) may cause asymmetric interactions; however, in our case no resource limitation was intended in the experiment, as all snails were fed with food aliquots equivalent to the total snail density in the treatment.

285 The superiority in growth of *P. acuta* coexisting with *P. fontinalis* at high temperatures may, 286 in turn, result in an increase in reproduction. It is already known that *P. acuta* not only grows 287 faster but also has a higher reproduction output at warmer water temperatures (Brackenbury 288 and Appleton, 1991). Consequently the superiority of *P. acuta* may not only be due to 289 limitations of the growth of the coexisting species, but also from enhanced feeding, higher 290 conversion efficiencies resulting in increased rates of growth and reproduction. Our findings 291 suggest that P. acuta have an advantage against P. fontinalis, when coexisting especially at 292 relatively warm temperatures. Consequently rising water temperatures induced by

293 anthropogenic action and predicted in the context of climate change may exacerbate the 294 impact of *P. acuta* and consequently the problem of decreasing populations of *P. fontinalis*.

295 Here we focus on the impact of changing environmental conditions on the interaction between alien and indigenous species. This study shows that temperature can be a powerful driver of the outcomes of species competition. We assume that the mechanism we found for our two model species is more broadly applicable to interactions between other alien and indigenous species, since alien species are a non random set of species, overrepresented by mollusks and crustaceans (Karatayev et al. 2009, Strayer 2010). Furthermore, alien species are often characterized by similar life history traits such as early maturation, large brood size, high partial fecundity, and a high number of generations per year (e.g. Grabowski et al. 2007). Beside these traits, different alien species are favored in a similar manner by higher tolerance to structural habitat degradation (Havel et al. 2005, Johnson et al. 2008), chemical degradation (MacNeil et al. 2000, Byers 2000b, Grabowski et al. 2009), and temperature increase (e.g. Wijnhoven et al. 2003, Werner and Rothhaupt 2008, Weitere et al. 2009, Zukowski and Walker 2009, Sargent et al. 2011, Verbrugge et al. 2012). In this context Früh et al. (2012a, b) already showed that freshwater habitats with increased temperature are more prone to invasion, suggesting that alien species are a non random set of species (Strayer 2010), due to 310 similar selection pressure when reaching a new habitat by the same vectors such as within 311 tank ballast water. Based on this findings we assume that further increases in temperature may 312 generally contribute to the superiority of alien species against indigenous species by 313 strengthen the asymmetric interaction between alien and indigenous species. Furthermore the 314 higher tolerance level of many alien species towards a whole array of environmental stressors 315 compared to indigenous species (e.g. Zukowski and Walker 2009, Früh et al. 2012a, Früh 316 et al. 2012b, Verbrugge et al. 2012), will commonly result to competitive superiority of alien

317 species at anthropogenically degraded sites or under the effect of climate change. Thus when 318 investigating the interaction between alien and indigenous species, the environmental context 319 cannot be disregarded (Höckendorff et al. accepted, Stoll et al. 2013). Consequently our 320 results further underline the importance to link biotic interactions and environmental variables 321 when predicting and assessing alien species distribution and success or potential impacts on 322 indigenous systems. Thus for example when predicting further distribution of alien species 323 using tools like species distribution models, beside environmental predictors the impact of 324 biotic interaction have to be take into account. 324 325 326 327 328 328

Acknowledgements

We are grateful to State Agency for Nature, Environment and Consumer protection North Rhine Westphalia for kindly providing the species and physico-chemical data. The present study was funded by the research funding program "LOEWE - Landes-Offensive zur Entwicklung Wissenschaftlich-ökonomischer Exzellenz" of Hesse's Ministry of Higher Education, Research, and the Arts.

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