

Azoospermia factor and male infertility

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1 Review

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4 Azoospermia factor (AZF) and male infertility

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20 Abstract

21 Recently, work has shown that azoospermia factor (AZF) microdeletions result from
22 homologous recombination between almost identical blocks in this gene region. These
23 microdeletions in the Y chromosome are a common molecular genetic cause of
24 spermatogenetic failure leading to male infertility. After completion of the sequencing
25 of the Y chromosome, the classical definition of AZFa, AZFb, and AZFc was modified
26 to five regions, namely AZFa, P5/proximal-P1, P5/distal-P1, P4/distal-P1, and AZFc, as
27 a result of the determination of Y chromosomal structure. Moreover, partial AZFc
28 deletions have also been reported, resulting from recombination in their sub-ampliconic
29 identical pair sequences. These deletions are also implicated in a possible association
30 with Y chromosome haplogroups. In this review, we address Y chromosomal
31 complexity and the modified categories of the AZF deletions. Recognition of the
32 association of Y deletions with male infertility has implications for the diagnosis,
33 treatment, and genetic counseling of infertile men, in particular candidates for
34 intracytoplasmic sperm injection.

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37 Keywords: AZF, intrachromosomal recombination, male infertility, palindrome, Y
38 chromosome

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41 **Introduction**

42 Infertility affects about 10% of couples, and a genetic basis of infertility may exist in
43 many men currently classified as having idiopathic infertility. In fact, in about 15% of
44 cases, an unknown cause of male infertility could be present, including chromosome
45 aberrations and alterations at the gene level. Approximately 7% of infertile men harbor
46 microdeletions of the Y chromosome that are not detectable on routine karyotype
47 analyses [1]. Cytogenetic studies in infertile men have revealed a gene that controls
48 spermatogenesis, designated as azoospermia factor (AZF), localized on the long arm of
49 the Y chromosome [2]. The presence of three spermatogenesis loci in Yq11 was initially
50 proposed, namely AZFa, AZFb, and AZFc [3]. These microdeletions of AZF are now
51 recognized as the second most frequent genetic cause of spermatogenic failure in
52 infertile men after Klinefelter syndrome [4], and deletions in the AZF regions are the
53 most common known molecular genetic cause of human male infertility involving
54 spermatogenic failure [5]. Thus, the molecular diagnosis of Y chromosomal
55 microdeletions is routinely performed worldwide in the workup of male infertility in
56 men with azoospermia or severe oligozoospermia.

57 The complete sequencing of the Y chromosome revealed its structure and
58 organization. In particular, it was shown that most AZF microdeletions result from
59 intrachromosomal homologous recombination between repeated sequence blocks
60 organized into palindromic structures in the long arm of the Y chromosome. The greater
61 understanding of Y chromosome structure led to some reclassification of AZF
62 microdeletions into five categories, and further work has identified a further set of
63 partial deletions in AZFc.

64 In the clinical field, great progress has been made in the last 15 years or so with
65 respect to assisted reproductive techniques. Among these, intracytoplasmic sperm

66 injection (ICSI) is a leading method of treatment for male factor infertility. However,
67 one risk consists in a potential increase in the genetic causes of infertility in the future;
68 thus, identification of genetic factors has become good practice for appropriate
69 management of infertile couples, and genetic testing for infertile men has increased in
70 importance in the reproductive clinic.

71 In this review, we discuss the complexity of the human Y chromosome and the
72 change in how AZF deletions are categorized. Finally, we analyze Y chromosome
73 microdeletions possibly associated with male infertility in a Japanese population.

74

75 **The Y chromosome**

76

77 The completion of the sequencing of the Y chromosome as part of the Human Genome
78 Project revealed a relatively low number of functional genes but a high frequency of
79 repeat elements (Fig. 1)[6,7]. There are two pseudoautosomal regions (PAR) on the
80 short (Yp) and long (Yq) arms of the Y chromosome, respectively, where crossing over
81 occurs in meiosis. However, no other part of the Y chromosome crosses over with the X
82 chromosome in meiotic recombination, thus leaving about 95% of the human Y as non-
83 recombining [8]. The euchromatic and heterochromatic regions lie between the PARs.
84 The euchromatic region contains nucleotides of about 24 Mb, consisting of 8 Mb in the
85 Yp and 15 Mb in the Yq. The heterochromatic region consists of about 1 Mb in the
86 centromere and approximately 40 Mb in the distal portion of the long arm. The
87 euchromatic and heterochromatic regions are independent from the X chromosome and
88 designated as male-specific regions of the Y chromosome (MSY). Therefore, MSY does
89 not recombine with the X chromosome and is transmitted from father to son, and the

90 lack of recombination between X and Y chromosomes was thought to be responsible for
91 the decay of Y-linked genes [9].

92 Depending on the origins of its sequences, the MSY can be classified into three
93 regions, X-transposed, X-degenerate, and ampliconic sequences. X-transposed and X-
94 degenerate regions are characterized by sequences with 99% identity to the X
95 chromosome and with single-copy genes or pseudogene homologues of X-linked genes,
96 respectively. Furthermore, the ampliconic sequences, which are Y-specific sequences
97 and represent 45% of the euchromatic MSY, are arranged in direct and inverted repeats,
98 including eight major palindromes in which sequences having higher than 99.9%
99 homology are present in pairs. These eight palindromes comprise 5.7 Mb, or one-
100 quarter of the MSY euchromatin, and harbor several distinct gene families unique to the
101 Yq. In addition, frequent gene conversion has been thought to prevent the progressive
102 decay of the Y chromosome over time [10].

103

104 **Genes on the Y chromosome**

105

106 The Y chromosome contains over genes and many testis-specific transcripts, and several
107 deletions have been described that remove some of these transcripts, causing
108 spermatogenic failure. The identified genes have been made available online with
109 symbol, aliases, accession ID, and cytogenetic map position [11]. Recent work on the Y
110 chromosome has added even more information, available in another online database
111 [12]. From the MSY, 18 distinct protein or 9 gene families have been identified.
112 Interestingly, the majority of testis-specific genes are present in multiple copies ranging
113 from one (*TGIF2LY*) to two (*VCK*, *XKRY*, *HSFY*, *PRY*) to three (*BPY2*) to four (*CDY*,
114 *DAZ*) to six (*RBMY*) to approximately 35 (*TSPY*) on the Y chromosome. These genes

115 are present in the proximal and distal palindromic complexes encompassing the AZF
116 region [13]. A total of 23 testis-specific transcripts (TTY1–23) have been described; of
117 these, TTY3, 4, 5, 6, 9, 10, 13, and 14 of the palindromic complex have shown deletions
118 in patients with spermatogenic failure [13]. Screening for such deletions in infertile men
119 is now a standard part of the clinical evaluation. Many other Y-chromosome structural
120 variants, some of which affect gene copy number, have also been investigated recently.

121

122 **STS (sequence-tagged sites)-based analysis**

123

124 Studies on the structural organization of the chromosome have advanced our
125 understanding of Y chromosomal microdeletions. Large sets of primers encompassing
126 palindromic complexes can also be used for sequence-tagged sites (STS)-based analysis
127 of the genetic integrity of the Y chromosome [10,13].

128 STS-based markers can be used to screen patient DNA samples to assess the loss
129 or gain of the critical region(s) involved in Y chromosomal microdeletion. Many of
130 these sites have proved to be either repetitive sequences or polymorphic between
131 individuals or races. In general, genomic DNA has a linear and contiguous sequence,
132 and STS is defined as the determination of their unique position within the whole
133 genome. However, after the genomic sequence was fully verified, some of the original
134 STSs were found to have either repetitive or polymorphic sequences. Screening of such
135 a large number of patient DNA samples with a varying spectrum of Y chromosome
136 anomalies is a laborious task [14], but today, reliable STS markers on Y are available
137 online [12].

138

139 **Classical AZF**

140

141 In clinical terms, particular regions of the MSY are consistently deleted, which is
142 attributed to causes of spermatogenic failure. Indeed, the most well-characterized
143 association of the AZF region seems to be its link to male infertility [15-17].

144 From an initial observation in 1976 [2], cytogenetic studies in infertile men
145 revealed genes controlling spermatogenesis, localized on the Yq, and the identified
146 region was designated AZF. A number of studies ascertained that microdeletions in the
147 Yq represent the most frequent molecular genetic cause of severe infertility, observed
148 with a prevalence of 5–15% in non-obstructive azoospermia and severe
149 oligozoospermia. Therefore, the AZF region is thought to be essential for
150 spermatogenesis in some part [18,19].

151 In 1998, a large collaborative screening project involved 370 men with idiopathic
152 azoospermia or severe oligozoospermia who were analyzed for deletions of 76 loci in
153 Yq11, including testis biopsies in patients with deletions in different regions of Yq11.
154 The presence of three spermatogenesis loci in Yq11, which the authors designated as
155 AZFa, AZFb, and AZFc, was proposed (Fig. 2a). Histopathologically, the AZFa defect
156 causes Sertoli-cell-only (SCO) syndrome, AZFb deficiency leads to maturation arrest as
157 observed on the testicular biopsies, and AZFc is responsible for various histopathologic
158 changes [20].

159 Each region is thought to be rich in various functional genes and transcript units.
160 Individuals with microdeletions on the Yq seem to exhibit spermatogenic failure and
161 infertility [15,21-30]. Interestingly, microdeletions occur in 3–15% of not only
162 azoospermic or oligozoospermic men but also in 2% of fertile men [31]. Some studies
163 have indicated no association between spermatogenesis and candidate genes in the
164 AZFc region [32].

165 The most common microdeletions occur in the AZFc region, which carries active
166 copies of the *DAZ* (*deleted in azoospermia*) gene. Much less common are
167 microdeletions of the AZFa carrying the *DFFRY* and *DBY* (*dead box on the Y*) genes
168 and of the AZFb area carrying the *RBM* gene [8]. These latter two deletions are more
169 likely to be associated with azoospermia than is deletion of the AZFc region. However,
170 deletion of any or all of the three azoospermia factors—AZFa, AZFb, or AZFc—
171 disrupts spermatogenesis [33,34].

172

173 **Recent categories of AZF regions and deletions**

174

175 The ampliconic sequences of Y consist of eight major palindromes (P1–P8) in which
176 sequences have higher than 99.9% homology (Fig. 1). These eight palindromes can
177 serve as substrates for structural rearrangements. AZF deletions can result from
178 intrachromosomal recombination events between non-reciprocal homologous sequences,
179 such as palindrome, direct, or inverted sequences in the Yq. Consistent patterns of these
180 rearrangements have led to a reclassification of the AZF microdeletions.

181 Recently, the mechanism of the AZFb deletions was identified as resulting from
182 homologous recombination between the palindromes P5/proximal P1 [13]. The classical
183 complete deletion of AZFc, the most frequent pattern among men with deletions of the
184 Y chromosome, removes 3.5 Mb and originates from a homologous recombination
185 between blue-amplicons b2 and b4 (see below) in palindromes P3 and P1, respectively
186 (Fig. 3). Deletions of both AZFb and AZFc together occur via two major mechanisms
187 involving homologous recombination between P5 and distal P1. Therefore, five main
188 interstitial deletions have been defined, namely the AZFa, P5/proximal P1, P5/distalP1,

189 P4/distalP1, and AZFc deletions (Fig. 2b) [4,13,35]. These five deletions share the same
190 deletion mechanism of non-allelic homologous recombination between palindrome pairs.

191

192 **Mechanism and type of deletions**

193

194 AZFa deletion

195 The proximal and distal regions of the Y chromosome have been found to harbor 10 kb
196 each of the proviral sequences of the HERV15 of endogenous retroviruses that are 94%
197 identical [36,37]. Recombinations between these proviruses have been implicated in
198 most of the AZFa deletions. As noted, these deletions usually lead to SCO syndrome
199 histologically [38-42].

200

201 AZFb deletion

202 The P5/proximal-P1 deletion is the result of homologous recombination between the P5
203 palindrome and the proximal part of the P1 palindrome, which is called a complete
204 AZFb deletion. This recombination removes 6.2 Mb, including 32 genes and transcripts.
205 P5/distal-P1 deletions have breaks in the P5 and P1 palindromes spanning 7.7 Mb,
206 namely the AZFb+c deletion, as classically defined. The P4/distalP1 deletion is also
207 caused by homologous recombination between these palindrome pairs.

208 Complete deletions of AZFb or AZFb+c lead to azoospermia associated with SCO
209 syndrome or pre-meiotic spermatogenic arrest. Genes in the AZFb region reside in this
210 interval, and most are testis-specific transcripts [43]. In the classical definition of AZFb
211 and AZFc, the proximal end of the AZFc region overlaps with the distal end of AZFb
212 [13].

213

214 AZFc deletion

215 The most frequent AZFc deletion leads to azoospermia or severe oligozoospermia,
216 associated with different spermatogenic phenotypes in the testis. The full AZFc
217 sequence represents 3.5 Mb of the Yq and consists of palindromic repeats (sub-
218 amplicons) that are organized into sequence families (Fig. 3). These sub-ampliconic
219 sequences have levels that are more than 99.9%, making them substrates for structural
220 rearrangements. Five different sub-amplicons (color-coded as blue, green, red, grey, and
221 yellow) map to the reference AZFc sequence, harboring a total of 13 different
222 ampliconic units. Conventional AZFc regions in fact result from recombination between
223 two direct repeats, blue sub-amplicon b2 and b4 (b2/b4) [6].

224

225 **Genes in the AZFc region**

226

227 Active copies of four protein-coding gene families map to the AZFc interval: *PRY2*,
228 *BPY2*, *DAZ*, and *CDY1* [44-47]. These genes localize to the blue, green, red, and
229 yellow-coded amplicons, respectively, with one transcription unit per amplicon copy.

230 AZFc genes are reported to exhibit germline-specific expression [45,46,48-50].

231 The complete AZFc deletion, the b2/b4 deletion, removes eight gene families including
232 all members of the *DAZ* gene family, that represent the foremost candidates for
233 determining the AZFc phenotype [3,6,29,43,51,52]. The complete deletion of *AZFc*
234 mainly influences azoospermia because of removal of genes and transcripts within the
235 whole AZFc region.

236

237 **DAZ genes**

238

239 DAZ belongs to a family of germ-cell-specific RNA-binding proteins that are
240 essential for gametogenesis [51,53]. A two-gene cluster was duplicated, generating a
241 two-cluster/four-gene arrangement (*DAZ1/2*, *DAZ3/4*) 1.6 Mb apart within the AZFc
242 region [54,55]. The gr/gr (gr = green-red) deletion may result in the elimination of
243 *DAZ1/2* or *DAZ3/4* depending on the location of the recombination site within the gr
244 sub-amplicon repeats, with the *DAZ1/2* deletion being the most likely if there are no
245 recombination hot spots [56-58].

246

247 **Partial AZFc deletions**

248

249 AZFc deletions, including all members of the *DAZ* gene family, represent the most
250 frequently identified molecular cause of spermatogenic impairment. Based on the
251 mechanism of deletion, a recombination of the AZFa homologous sequence, it was
252 predicted that the AZFc region was prone to two additional deletions, one resulting from
253 recombination between sub-amplicons b1 and b3 (b1/b3), and one resulting from
254 recombination between the sub-amplicon gr complex. Indeed, both deletions, the b1/b3
255 deletion and the gr/gr deletion, were subsequently identified on the basis of this
256 prediction [13]. These deletions are performed by AZFc-specific STSs, *DAZ*-specific
257 Sequence family variants (SFV), or gene dosage analysis. The gr/gr removes 1.6 Mb,
258 b1/b3 and b2/b3 remove 1.8 Mb, and others are more infrequent. In spite of abundant
259 gene losses from these deletions, partial deletions of the *AZFc* region (i.e., b1/b3, b2/b3,
260 and gr/gr deletions) are still controversial issues in terms of whether these events are
261 associated with infertility or not [59].

262

263 **The gr/gr deletion**

264

265 Three candidate sub-amplicon recombinations involving g1/g2, r1/r3, or r2/r4 cause the
266 gr/gr deletions (Fig. 3). Analyses thus far have been unable distinguish which deletions
267 occur. Moreover, following gr/gr deletions, there have been subsequent duplications
268 that again are mediated through homologous recombination between amplicons and that
269 seem to restore gene copy number [35,60].

270 Identification of a phenotypic association between the gr/gr deletion and
271 spermatogenic impairment has been variously reported depending on populations and
272 countries [56,59-66]. According to Y chromosome haplogroup analysis, the Db2 type
273 occurs primarily in Japan [67] and consists of only gr/gr-deleted chromosomes. The
274 gr/gr deletion removes 1.6 Mb of the AZFc region but does not remove an entire AZFc
275 gene family; instead, it reduces the copy number of five families. These microdeletions
276 could cause reduced sperm production [68,69].

277 The gr/gr region harbors *CDY1*, the *DAZ* family, and several pairs of genes that
278 are divided into combinations of sub-amplicons that occur as four different gene loss
279 types: *CDY1a* + *DAZ1/2*, *CDY1a* + *DAZ3/4*, *CDY1b* + *DAZ1/2*, and *CDY1b* + *DAZ3/4*
280 [66,70]. The *DAZ* family is expressed in testis. *CDY1* encodes the chromodomain
281 histone acetylase transferase, which occurs exclusively in mature spermatids and
282 spermatozoa and may be required in a later stage of spermatogenesis [44,51,71].
283 The biological function of the *CDY* and *DAZ* families is not yet confirmed, but the
284 expression ranges and patterns seem to be highly involved in spermatogenesis. Much
285 research has focused on the deletion frequency and types of *CDY* and *DAZ* and the
286 relationship with infertility. Phenotypic abnormalities associated with each deletion
287 subtype are currently being investigated in a European population [70].

288

289 **Y chromosome haplogroups**

290

291 Phenotypic diagnosis of the *gr/gr* deletion has been inconsistent across study
292 populations of different geographic origins, which have shown a great deal of variation
293 compared with phenotypes associated with complete deletion of *AZF a, b, and c*. In
294 studies using binary markers on the MSY, the Y polymorphism in diverse populations
295 has provided clues to biogeographical ancestry [72]. A few groups have studied the
296 possible association of Y chromosome haplogroups with Yq microdeletions or with
297 particular phenotypes of infertility.

298 In fact, the correlation of infertility with the frequency and gene loss of the *gr/gr*
299 deletion differs among Y haplogroups. For instance, haplogroup Q1 has been uniformly
300 revealed to have a *gr/gr* deletion, and *DAZ3/4* copies were deleted in haplogroup N, but
301 without any apparent relevance regarding sperm concentration [57,73]. In contrast, the
302 *gr/gr* deletion has been associated with infertile males in an Italian population [66]. In
303 the case of haplogroup D, an almost-fixed *gr/gr* deletion has been identified, for which
304 there is not significant evidence of an association with infertility [63,74]. An absence of
305 a significant association between Y haplogroups and Y microdeletions has been found
306 in a European sample [75] and in a northwestern European sample [76]. Therefore, no
307 conclusions have yet been reached about the role of Y haplogroups in infertility or in
308 association with Y microdeletions.

309

310 **Haplogroup D and a Japanese population**

311

312 One insertion that is particularly useful in population studies is the Y Alu polymorphism
313 (YAP). The Alu sequence exists as half a million copies in a particular region in human

314 males in some populations [77]. Therefore, a comprehensive study of the YAP marker
315 can be useful in the context of population dynamics and delineation of major human
316 populations. A YAP-positive result is classified into haplogroup D, in which the almost-
317 fixed presence of gr/gr has been identified. Haplogroup D was present in Japan ~12,000
318 years ago and today occurs in 34.7% of the Japanese population [78,79]. In contrast, the
319 O lineage started immigrating to Japan only ~2,300 years ago but has spread to include
320 51.8% of the Japanese Y haplogroup [80]. Following their appearance, these two major
321 haplogroups expanded over the past several centuries. Interestingly, as noted,
322 haplogroup D appears to have been highly susceptible to gr/gr deletion. Generally,
323 haplogroup D was distributed sparsely in northeast Asia; however, it was dispersed
324 among the African, Tibetan, and Japanese populations [77,81].

325

326 **The frequency of AZF deletion in the Japanese population**

327

328 We analyzed the frequency of AZF deletions in a Japanese population. Our study
329 involved 952 infertile men visiting the Department of Urology, Kanazawa University
330 Hospital and Center for Reproductive Medicine, Kiba Park clinic. The participants
331 represented 518 cases of azoospermia and 434 of oligozoospermia (sperm count <20
332 million/mL).

333 In that study, we described AZF deletions in 952 infertile men. Of these, 32
334 massive deletions excluding the gr/gr deletion were observed in 518 azoospermic
335 patients. The respective frequencies of the AZFa, P5/proximal-P1, and AZFc (b2/b4)
336 deletions were only 1.2%, 1.2%, and 0.6%. Only 10 AZFc (b2/b4) and nine b2/b3
337 deletions excluding the gr/gr deletion were observed in 434 oligozoospermic patients
338 (Table 1). The frequency of the classical AZF deletion in azoospermia was only 2.7%

339 (14/518). This result indicated that AZF deletions make up a very small proportion in
340 Japan, as expected. According to a previous report, the complete AZFc deletion with a
341 prevalence of 1/4000 in men is responsible for about 10% of azoospermia and 5–7% of
342 severe oligozoospermia [4,82], although complete AZFa and AZFb deletions are less
343 frequent than AZFc deletions.

344

345 **ICSI**

346 Most men with azoospermia or severe oligozoospermia require ICSI (with ejaculated or
347 testicular spermatozoa) to overcome their infertility. Because all spermatozoa from men
348 with Y microdeletions harbor the same microdeletions, ICSI allows the transmission of
349 these genetic changes [83-87]. Male offspring of men with Yq microdeletions will
350 therefore also carry the deletion and will have spermatogenic impairment in adulthood.

351 Transmission of AZF deletions appears not to affect the psychological and
352 physical development of children derived from ICSI [86]. Screening for Y chromosome
353 microdeletions provides crucial information in the counseling of couples seeking
354 infertility treatment.

355

356 **Conclusion**

357 Contrary to expectations, the frequency of AZF deletion in Japanese populations is
358 appear to be relatively small compared with Caucasians. Almost all cause of non-
359 obstructive azoospermia still remains unexplained. However, the importance of
360 examining molecular genetics approach including AZF deletions must be emphasized
361 for these who are considered intracytoplasmic sperm injection, because this genetic
362 defect is transmitted to their sons affecting fertility. Recognition of the association of Y
363 deletions with male infertility has implications for the diagnosis, treatment, and genetic

364 counseling of infertile men. Furthermore, this information avoids unnecessary
365 treatments such as hormonal or surgical therapy.

366

367

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646 Figure legends

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648 Fig.1 Whole Y chromosome structure

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650 Fig.2 Recent model of AZF deletions

651 a. Classical categorization. b. Recent categorization of AZF deletions based on
652 palindrome structure.

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654 Fig. 3 Five sub-amplicons mapped in the AZFc region

655 Sub-amplicons color-coded as blue(b), green(g), red (r), grey (g), and yellow (yel).

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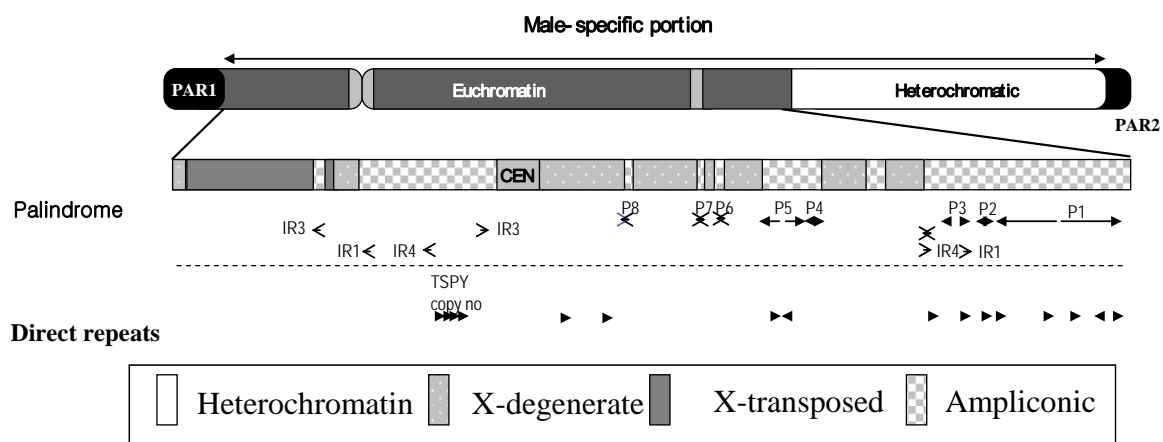


Fig. 1

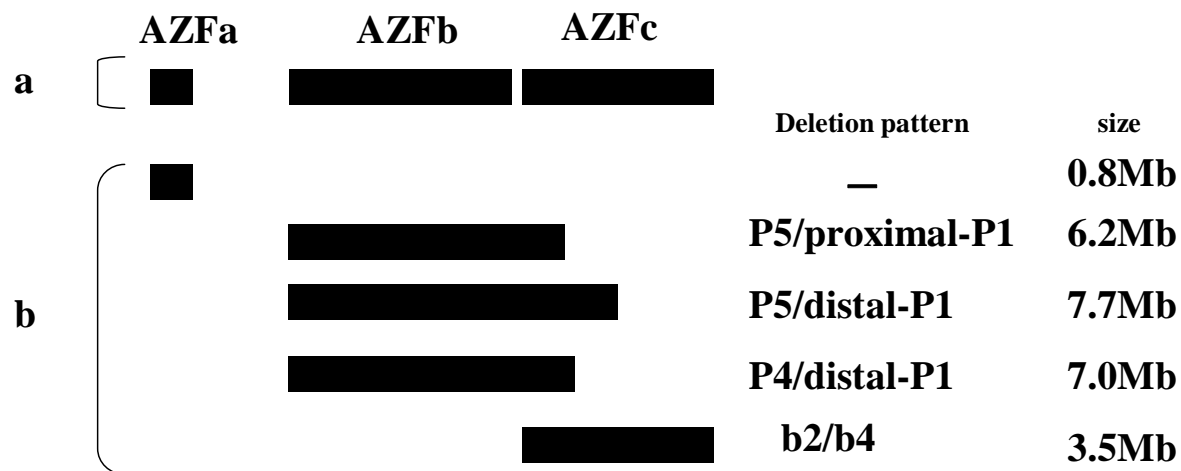


Fig.2

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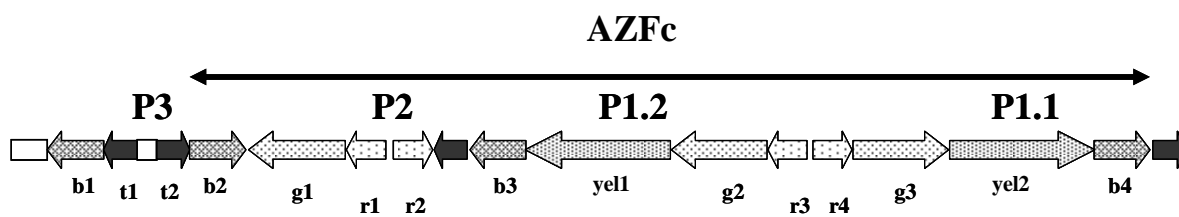


Fig. 3

Table Summary of deletions in Japanese infertility

| Deletion | Frequency % (n) | |
|---------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| | Azoospermia | Oligozoospermia |
| AZFa | 1.2% (6) | |
| P5/proximalP1 | 1.2% (6) | |
| P5/distalP1 | 0.4% (2) | |
| AZFc (b2/b4) | 0.6% (3) | 2.3% (10) |
| gr/gr | 33.2% (172) | 40.8% (177) |
| b1/b3 | 0.6% (3) | |
| b2/b3 | 2.3% (12) | 2.1% (9) |
| Total | 518 | 434 |

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