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## Making Waves : Collaboration in the time of SARS-CoV-2-rapid development of an international co-operation and wastewater surveillance database to support public health decision-making

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2021-07-01

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Lundy , L , Fatta-Kassinou , D , Slobodnik , J , Karaolia , P , Cirka , L , Kreuzinger , N , Castiglioni , S , Bijlsma , L , Dulio , V , Deviller , G , Lai , F Y , Alygizakis , N , Barneo , M , Baz-Lomba , J A , Been , F , Cichova , M , Conde-Perez , K , Covaci , A , Donner , E , Ficek , A , Hassard , F , Hedström , A , Hernandez , F , Janska , V , Jellison , K , Hofman , J , Hill , K , Hong , P-Y , Kasprzyk-Hordern , B , Kolarevic , S , Krahulec , J , Lambropoulou , D , de Llanos , R , Mackul'ak , T , Martinez-Garcia , L , Martinez , F , Medema , G , Micsinai , A , Myrmel , M , Nasser , M , Niederstätter , H , Nozal , L , Oberacher , H , Ocenaskova , V , Ogorzaly , L , Papadopoulos , D , Peinado , B , Pitkänen , T , Poza , M , Rumbo-Feal , S , Blanca Sanchez , M , Szekely , A J , Soltysova , A , Thomaidis , N S , Vallejo , J , van Nuijs , A , Ware , V & Viklander , M 2021 , ' Making Waves : Collaboration in the time of SARS-CoV-2-rapid development of an international co-operation and wastewater surveillance database to support public health decision-making ' , Water Research , vol. 199 , 117167 . <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.watres.2021.117167>

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<http://hdl.handle.net/10138/357189>

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.watres.2021.117167>

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1 **Making Waves: Collaboration in the time of SARS-CoV-2 - rapid development of an**  
2 **international co-operation and wastewater surveillance database to support public**  
3 **health decision-making**

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#### 74 **Abstract**

75 The presence of SARS-CoV-2 RNA in wastewater was first reported in March 2020. Over the  
76 subsequent months, the potential for wastewater surveillance to contribute to COVID-19  
77 mitigation programmes has been the focus of intense national and international research  
78 activities, gaining the attention of policy makers and the public. As a new application of an  
79 established methodology, focused collaboration between public health practitioners and  
80 wastewater researchers is essential to developing a common understanding on how, when  
81 and where the outputs of this non-invasive community-level approach can deliver actionable  
82 outcomes for public health authorities. Within this context, the NORMAN SCORE “SARS-CoV-  
83 2 in sewage” database provides a platform for rapid, open access data sharing, validated by  
84 the uploading of 276 data sets from nine countries to-date. Through offering direct access to  
85 underpinning meta-data sets (and describing its use in data interpretation), the NORMAN  
86 SCORE database is a resource for the development of recommendations on minimum data  
87 requirements for wastewater pathogen surveillance. It is also a tool to engage public health

88 practitioners in discussions on use of the approach, providing an opportunity to build mutual  
89 understanding of the demand and supply for data and facilitate the translation of this promising  
90 research application into public health practice.

91

92

### 93 **1. Introduction**

94 Research continues apace into many aspects of the use of wastewater surveillance for the  
95 detection of SARS-CoV-2 and how data generated can be utilised within local public health  
96 decision-making. Also known as sewage or environmental surveillance, the approach has an  
97 established literature in terms of monitoring the occurrence and concentration of chemicals  
98 arriving at a wastewater treatment plant (WWTP) (Choi et al., 2018). Determined chemical  
99 concentrations, loads and population normalised loads of illicit (González-Mariño et al., 2020;  
100 Ort et al., 2014) and licit drugs including tobacco, caffeine and alcohol (Castiglioni et al., 2015;  
101 Gracia-Lor et al., 2017; Ryu et al., 2016, Thomaidis et al., 2016) are used to provide  
102 quantitative longitudinal data sets on the use at a catchment level. It is also possible to  
103 evaluate the rates of exposure to environmental or food contaminants using the same  
104 approach (Rousis et al., 2017; Lopardo et al., 2019). Furthermore, wastewater surveillance  
105 can be used to evidence changes overtime in relation to the implementation of new policy  
106 initiatives. The practical utility of chemical wastewater surveillance data sets is demonstrated  
107 by its use within local and national monitoring and public health programmes (EMCDDA, 2020;  
108 Riva et al. 2020; Lai et al., 2018). Prior to 2020, the use of wastewater surveillance for  
109 monitoring pathogens was gaining ground only slowly. Most notably, enterovirus wastewater  
110 surveillance systems have been established in several locations (Sedmak et al., 2003;  
111 Majumdar et al., 2018), with wastewater surveillance identified as playing a key role in polio  
112 eradication schemes in Israel, India and Egypt (WHO, 2020; Ashgar et al., 2014; Holm-  
113 Hansson et al., 2017). The first SARS-CoV-2 wastewater surveillance studies were  
114 undertaken in the Netherlands, with viral RNA material detected in wastewater treatment  
115 influent samples in seven Dutch cities and the international airport (Medema et al., 2020a).

116 This landmark study included data on the detection of viral fragments in wastewater in one  
117 city prior to the detection of any clinical cases. This potential to provide an early warning on  
118 the presence of the virus within a community is a proof-of-concept and an evidence base that  
119 could be used by public health teams as a trigger to intensify clinical testing, facilitating the  
120 identification and isolation of positive cases (Thompson et al., 2020; POST, 2020). Hence, the  
121 use of wastewater surveillance for SARS-CoV-2 as a tool to address the COVID19 pandemic  
122 is a new application of an established method in a rapidly moving field.

123

124 SARS-CoV-2 wastewater surveillance studies to date have demonstrated the occurrence of  
125 its RNA genome in a range of compartments, primarily WWTP influents but it has also been  
126 reported in sludge and effluents as well as within receiving waters (Jones et al., 2020;  
127 Randazzo et al., 2020). In terms of infectivity potential of wastewater containing SARS-CoV-  
128 2 RNA, initial studies (Westhaus et al., 2021; Rimoldi et al., 2020; Bivins et al., 2020a) and  
129 expert opinion (WHO, 2020; Jones et al., 2020) indicate that detected RNA materials do not  
130 occur in the form of an infectious viral particle. Further studies also looked to establish a  
131 quantitative relationship between viral load and number of clinical cases reported within a  
132 catchment (Vallejo et al., 2020; Ahmed et al., 2020). However, variations in the load and  
133 duration of viral material shed in faeces by asymptomatic, pre-symptomatic and symptomatic  
134 cases, together with limited understanding of the fate of viral particles within sewer systems  
135 (which vary significantly in design and flow dynamics), and variations in analytical protocols  
136 and their associated extraction efficiencies, generates considerable uncertainty in terms of  
137 directly relating viral loads to numbers of cases. Hence, many open challenges exist within  
138 this research area and use of data by public health teams. Within the field, key research  
139 questions encompass the potential for viral materials to adsorb to biofilm and particles,  
140 degrade in the sewage system and optimising sample collection processes, including  
141 collection location and frequency (WHO, 2020). Moreover, the need to standardise and  
142 optimise analytical protocols has been clearly identified (Michael-Kordatou et al., 2020). In  
143 terms of interpreting data, key issues include data comparability between studies (e.g. use of

144 a common marker for normalisation and how contextual data e.g. flow and other parameters  
145 are included in data interpretation), the identification of a SARS-CoV-2 RNA threshold value  
146 and the actions that exceeding a threshold value should trigger (Medema et al., 2020b).  
147 Variations in the amount of viral RNA excreted per person are a further unknown, and inherent  
148 levels of variability in shedding may make accurate predictions of prevalence impossible.  
149 However, the absence of an absolute understanding of shedding rate behaviour does not  
150 preclude the use of this approach in public health contexts, where relative changes in signal  
151 (as opposed to its absolute value) can provide public health teams with valuable data. Further  
152 open questions remain over ethical aspects related to the use of wastewater surveillance, and  
153 the need to develop a social license to operate if the approach is to be successfully adopted.  
154 Whilst ethical aspects have been largely overlooked during the current health emergency,  
155 developments in near source tracking e.g. analysis of wastewater from aeroplanes, hospitals  
156 and schools (Ahmed et al., 2020; Gonçalvesa et al., 2021; Hassard et al., 2020, Hong et al.,  
157 2021) is rapidly pushing this issue up the research and practice agenda. In this article a  
158 bottom-up, collaborative approach to enabling researchers to systematically and rapidly share  
159 raw data on traditional wastewater parameters, the occurrence of SARS-CoV-2 and clinical  
160 case numbers is presented, as both a resource for researchers and a tool to facilitate  
161 discussion with public health teams.

162

## 163 **2. The use of wastewater surveillance data within public health decision-making**

164 Wastewater surveillance can be used to non-invasively screen 'hard to test' communities (i.e.  
165 where uptake of testing is low or challenging for resource reasons) at a sewer catchment level  
166 as a new public health tool to understand COVID-19 spread (CDC, 2020; POST, 2020).  
167 Detection of SARS-CoV-2 RNA fragments in wastewater is independent of clinical testing  
168 strategy bias (Thompson et al., 2020), can be used as an early warning of the need for further  
169 testing (e.g. reallocating/increasing local testing resources such as drive-through test facilities)  
170 or the implementation of wastewater surveillance upstream of the WWTP i.e. near-source  
171 tracking to identify location of cases (Hassard et al., 2020). For example, the detection of

172 SARS-CoV-2 RNA concentrations can indicate the (re-)emergence of the virus in a catchment  
173 following a period of no clinical cases and an increase in viral RNA load can indicate the  
174 occurrence of new outbreaks, requiring the urgent tracing of infected individuals and their  
175 subsequent support to isolate (DEFRA, 2020). Likewise decreasing prevalence can indicate  
176 that infected individuals are 'known' and isolation/public health interventions are effective.  
177 Further, an increase in viral load over time against a trend of 'no-change' in daily positive case  
178 numbers could indicate that the clinical testing regime should be intensified (i.e. new cases  
179 are not being detected) (Thompson et al., 2020). Wastewater surveillance data sets can also  
180 be used to evidence the effect of alternative policy actions e.g. curfew vs local lockdown vs  
181 national lockdown at a community level, as well as track progress of vaccination campaigns.

182

183 To deliver these types of actionable outcomes i.e. to enable public health authorities to use  
184 wastewater surveillance data within their community level decision-making processes requires  
185 activities on several fronts. As well as addressing the wastewater surveillance methodological  
186 and analytical challenges identified earlier, data from wastewater needs to be collected  
187 frequently and available rapidly in a format that is useful and useable by public health  
188 practitioners. Further collaboration between wastewater and public health practitioners is  
189 required to ensure that public health teams can access the type of data they require in a  
190 timeframe and format that integrates with current pandemic mitigation measures i.e.  
191 addressing public health data requirements needs to be front and centre of operationalising  
192 this new development in wastewater surveillance. The format and sampling strategies  
193 underpinning wastewater data sets may need to morph in terms of the locations and frequency  
194 of sample collection, quality assurance/quality control processes, scale at which data is  
195 generated and made available and the aspects of primary value from a public health  
196 perspective i.e. absolute values or trends analysis. Delivering this type of integrated data share  
197 'dashboard' is already challenging under usual working conditions; working across disciplines  
198 during a pandemic when public health teams are at (or beyond) full capacity is extremely  
199 challenging. However, collaboration between public health and wastewater researchers –



200 where public health practitioners take a lead role in determining dashboard development - is  
201 happening. For example, in Australia, the development of a SARS-CoV-2 wastewater  
202 surveillance dashboard was led by a collaboration between the Victorian state public health  
203 team and Water Research Australia. This has already matured from a research and  
204 development phase to an operational tool for day-to-day use with functional dashboards for  
205 both internal and external communications (Victoria State Government, 2020). Other countries  
206 with established monitoring programs include Canada ([https://cwn-rce.ca/covid-19-](https://cwn-rce.ca/covid-19-wastewater-coalition/)  
207 [wastewater-coalition/](https://cwn-rce.ca/covid-19-wastewater-coalition/)), Finland  
208 ([https://www.thl.fi/episeuranta/jatevesi/jatevesiseuranta\\_viikkoraportti.html](https://www.thl.fi/episeuranta/jatevesi/jatevesiseuranta_viikkoraportti.html)), Luxembourg  
209 (<https://www.list.lu/en/covid-19/>), Greece (<http://trams.chem.uoa.gr/covid-19/>), the  
210 Netherlands (<https://www.rivm.nl/en/covid-19/sewage>), and Spain  
211 ([https://www.miteco.gob.es/es/agua/temas/concesiones-y-autorizaciones/vertidos-de-aguas-](https://www.miteco.gob.es/es/agua/temas/concesiones-y-autorizaciones/vertidos-de-aguas-residuales/alerta-temprana-covid19/default.aspx)  
212 [residuales/alerta-temprana-covid19/default.aspx](https://www.miteco.gob.es/es/agua/temas/concesiones-y-autorizaciones/vertidos-de-aguas-residuales/alerta-temprana-covid19/default.aspx)). In the UK, sharing of data between a  
213 government-led wastewater surveillance project and the national COVID-19 'track and trace'  
214 programme led to the identification of an increase in SARS-CoV-2 RNA in wastewater despite  
215 relatively low numbers of people taking clinical tests (DEFRA, 2020). This data was used to  
216 alert local health professionals to contact people in the area to warn of the increase in cases  
217 and encourage local populations to engage with clinical testing programmes.

218

219 The need for and benefits of collaboration among wastewater researchers has been  
220 recognised and several international and national collaborations rapidly established (e.g.  
221 Bivins et al., 2020b; WRF, 2020; WHO, 2020; JRC, 2020; Réseau Obépine, 2020; WRA, 2020;  
222 UCMERCED, 2020). These have focussed primarily on technical and analytical issues,  
223 facilitating opportunities for rapid discussion on a range of topics from recent publications to  
224 method development, predictive modelling and risk assessment. However, collaboration  
225 activities to-date have yet to address two key issues: firstly, the development of an open-  
226 access data platform to enable and facilitate the rapid sharing and critical evaluation of multiple

227 wastewater meta-data sets to address technical issues (Bivins et al., 2020a). Secondly,  
228 engagement with public health authorities i.e. development of a critical mass of public health  
229 and wastewater researchers to collaboratively identify and deliver an operational SARS-CoV-  
230 2 wastewater surveillance public health system.

231

### 232 **3. Open access data sharing to progress collaboration across disciplines**

233 The NORMAN/SCORE SARS-COV-2 in sewage (SC2S) database is a platform, which can  
234 contribute to meeting both these needs. This open-access database is an output of the  
235 collaboration between two international networks: the NORMAN network ([www.norman-](http://www.norman-network.net/)  
236 [network.net/](http://www.norman-network.net/)) of research organisations supporting the validation and harmonisation of  
237 measurement methods and monitoring tools and SCORE (<https://score-cost.eu>) a network  
238 established to harmonise methodologies for measuring human biomarkers in wastewater to  
239 evaluate lifestyle, health and exposure at the community level. The database is located within  
240 the NORMAN Database System at <https://www.norman-network.com/nds/> as the latest  
241 addition to its 13 database modules within the interlinked database system series for the  
242 collection and evaluation of data / information on emerging substances in the environment  
243 (Dulio et al., 2020). The SC2S database structure follows that of the NORMAN Antibiotic  
244 Resistance Bacteria/Genes database, enabling users to freely access data at a WWTP level  
245 as well as upload new data via a customised data collection template (DCT; downloadable  
246 from the website) which facilitates its automatic uploading to the system. On accessing the  
247 database, users can search via country and/or WWTP or view the entire data set (both within  
248 the database or it can be exported into MS Excel) without any restrictions. Data displayed in  
249 the dashboard includes sampling date, gene copy (number of copies /mL and/or ng of  
250 RNA/mL), cycle threshold (Ct), WWTP and country name, population served and the number  
251 of people reported SARS-CoV-2 positive in the sewer catchment area on the day of sampling.  
252 Table 1 identifies the requested reporting parameters and provides an overview of their role  
253 in interpreting generated data sets. Finally, the full DCT containing all reported data on all  
254 parameters can be downloaded for each dataset. In terms of engaging the attention of public

255 health authorities, as a first step it includes both wastewater and clinical case data. In addition,  
256 and perhaps more importantly, it is a starting point for further discussions with public health  
257 practitioners on what wastewater surveillance is, the types of longitudinal data sets it can  
258 produce (together with process controls), and the potential of this non-invasive approach as a  
259 tool to provide an early warning of new clusters as well as the impact of existing pandemic  
260 mitigation measures.

261

262 To launch the database, invitations to participate were initially shared through both the  
263 NORMAN and SCORE networks, with a request for members to disseminate further through  
264 their own networks. To harmonise activities, participants were provided with a common  
265 protocol covering sample collection, RNA extraction and analysis. The common protocol  
266 (available at [https://www.norman-network.com/nds/sars\\_cov\\_2/](https://www.norman-network.com/nds/sars_cov_2/)) adopts the Medema et al  
267 (2020) methodology with an alternative simplified protocol for SARS-CoV-2 extraction from  
268 wastewater via polyethylene glycol (PEG) precipitation (recognising that many  
269 consumables/equipment currently in short supply). Given the logistical challenges and  
270 urgency to share data quickly, participating laboratories did not undertake an inter- laboratory  
271 validation procedure but were asked to report their laboratory QA/QC procedures in full.  
272 Submission of data using both methods is welcomed, with space on the DCT to identify which  
273 approach was used and the genes targeted. A further step was to establish a 'buddy system'  
274 for research groups who were able to collect wastewater samples but whose laboratories were  
275 under lock-down and/or were not familiar with RNA analysis. As such, the rapid sharing of a  
276 common protocol also had a capacity building effect, enabling many groups to explore  
277 opportunities to undertake wastewater surveillance for pathogens for the first time. Two  
278 scheduled sampling campaigns were held on June 1<sup>st</sup> 2020 and June 15<sup>th</sup> 2020, with data  
279 referring to further identified sampling campaigns now welcomed. To date the SC2S database  
280 contains 276 sets of data from nine different countries (see Figure 1).

281

282 The impact of pandemic mitigation measures on working conditions impacted on the ability to  
283 both collect and manage samples e.g. reduced access to WWTPs and laboratories,  
284 consumables and/or work force. Further, whilst the DCTs were developed to support  
285 systematic data reporting, not all laboratories were able to provide all requested data due to  
286 the on-going challenges experienced by many research groups in terms of access to  
287 laboratories, shortages/delays in shipping consumables and reduced work force.  
288 Nevertheless, all received data sets were uploaded to achieve the aim of rapid data share as  
289 a compliment to ongoing efforts to standardise sampling and analytical protocols.  
290 Downloading the current data set shows that 24-hour composite samples (either volume-  
291 weighted or time-weighted) were collected on several dates on or close to scheduled sampling  
292 dates (from 24<sup>th</sup> May 2020 – 16<sup>th</sup> June 2020) with grab and/or composite samples collected  
293 on further as local conditions permitted. Sample preparation date, date of analysis and storage  
294 conditions were identified, together with the method used for sample preparation, RNA  
295 extraction, analysis and the use of internal standards in the sample preparation phase (61%  
296 of samples) and the RNA extraction step (88% of samples). Reviewing the data set as a whole,  
297 a positive signal for SARS-CoV-2 was quantified in 167 of the 276 samples analysed. Of these  
298 167 samples, the N1 gene was quantified in 18 samples, N2 gene in 8 samples, a combined  
299 measure of N1 and N2 in 133 samples and the E gene in 3 samples. Ct counts ranged from  
300 31.9 - 41.9 (median 35), with the number of gene copies/ml ranging from 0.04 – 148 gene  
301 copies/mL (median: 10.6 gene copies/mL). In terms of quality control, reported analysis  
302 included two to six replicates per sample with the use of a positive control reported in the  
303 analyses of 268 of the 276 samples. The analytical limit of detection was reported on 173  
304 occasions (range: 3 – 5 gene copies/ml for N1 gene; 0.5-5 gene copies/ml for N2 gene; 0.75  
305 gene copies/ml for N1/N2 combined gene measurement; 0.5 - 100 gene copies/mL for E  
306 gene), with a study by Philo et al. (2021) suggesting that the variability in detection between  
307 target genes could be due to variations in the performance of assays or differential rates of  
308 degradation in the target genetic material. No study reported their limit of quantification. In  
309 terms of clinical data, the number of positive cases reported in the local municipality (which

310 may/may not reflect the sewer catchment) on the day of sampling was reported for 260 of the  
311 276 samples analysed (range: 0 – 1701; median = 239 cases). Whilst at sewer catchment  
312 level, ethical issues around participant anonymity and data protection is generally not an issue.  
313 However, as contributing areas reduce to, for example, an individual building level, the need  
314 to systematically and robustly consider the use of generated data at source and further  
315 downstream (i.e. secondary data use) becomes increasingly urgent.

#### 316 **4. Conclusions**

317 The current data hosted by the SC2S provides a snapshot of the occurrence of SARS-CoV-2  
318 in wastewater at participating WWTPs and demonstrates the ad-hoc cooperation of the  
319 scientific community on data collection. However, more importantly, the NORMAN/SCORE  
320 initiative:

- 321 • demonstrates that the SC2S database is a workable multi-jurisdictional data-share  
322 platform with potential to facilitate development of an international dataset
- 323 • provides a tool to engage and inform discussions with public health practitioners on  
324 the potential role of wastewater surveillance as an additional approach to integrate  
325 within community public health strategies
- 326 • is open to all (contributors are warmly invited to submit data from any campaigns they  
327 are able to share, using the relevant sections on the DCT to document sample  
328 collection, storage and analytical details together with clinical case numbers)
- 329 • with continued use, this collection of wastewater meta-data will support a retrospective  
330 analysis of the impact of differing sewer/catchment/population variables on the use of  
331 wastewater surveillance as a tool in public health practice
- 332 • facilitated the collection of comparable data sets from an early phase of the pandemic;  
333 continued use will provides an opportunity to maximise operational insights gained  
334 during different phases of the pandemic and support development of robust best  
335 practice in wastewater surveillance.

336

## 337 **Acknowledgments**

338 All authors wish to thank the WWTP operators for providing samples. LL, AH and MV would like to  
339 acknowledge the VINNOVA (Swedish Governmental Agency for Innovation Systems) DRIZZLE –  
340 Centre for Stormwater Management (Grant no. 2016-05176) and the technical expertise provided by  
341 the Stormwater&Sewers network, Nireas-International Water Research Center of the University of  
342 Cyprus would like to thank the Sewerage Board of Limassol-Amathus (SBLA), the Sewerage Board of  
343 Nicosia (SBN) and the Paralimni Sewerage Board (PSB) for the provision of influent samples, for the  
344 purpose of performing this work. MPD wishes to thank COVIDBENS Inv04020 financed by EDAR Bens  
345 S.A, A Coruña, FYL wishes to thank Z Cetecioglu Gurol (KTH) and P Haglund (Umeå University) and  
346 TM would like to acknowledge financial support from APVV-19-0250, PP-COVID-20-0019, ASS8 and  
347 VIR-SCAN. Authors from the Univ Jaume LB, FH, MB and RdL acknowledge the financial support from  
348 Dirección General del Agua, Generalitat Valenciana, to develop the project "Covid\_Wastewater", as  
349 well as the help E. Santateresa and N. Zamorano from FACSA, for the invaluable support in performing  
350 this work. RdL. was funded through a Beatriz Galindo Fellowship of the Ministerio de Educación y  
351 Formación Profesional, Spanish Government (BEAGAL18/00042). TM wishes to thank the generous  
352 support of the Operational Program Integrated Infrastructure for the project "Strategic research in the  
353 field of SMART monitoring, treatment and preventive protection against coronavirus (SARS-CoV-2) ",  
354 Project no. 313011ASS8 (co-financed by the European Regional Development Fund) and the project  
355 VIR-SCAN - Wastewater monitoring data as an early warning tool to alert COVID-19 in the population  
356 (EOSCsecretariat.eu has received funding from the European Union's Horizon Program call H2020-  
357 INFRAEOSC- 05-2018-2019, grant Agreement number 831644). SK (IBISS) acknowledges the financial  
358 support from Ministry of Education, Science and Technological Development of Republic of Serbia  
359 grant No 451-03-9/2021-14/ 200007.

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