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Characterizing prevalence and ecological impact of non-native terrestrial isopods (Isopoda, Oniscidea) in tallgrass prairie

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1 CHARACTERIZING PREVALENCE AND ECOLOGICAL IMPACT OF NON-NATIVE
2 TERRESTRIAL ISOPODS (ISOPODA, ONISCIDEA) IN TALLGRASS PRAIRIE.

3

4 BY

5

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ABSTRACT

18 Isopods are terrestrial crustaceans whose role and impact in the tallgrass prairie
19 ecosystem remains little explored despite being rather prevalent non-native inhabitants. To better
20 understand this role, we conducted two related studies. The first was a rapid survey of isopods in
21 experimental treatments at Konza Prairie LTER site to investigate the diversity and relative
22 abundance of isopod species present. Of the four species known in Kansas thus far, all non-
23 native, Armadillidium vulgare was the most abundantly found, accounting for 93% of
24 individuals found. Armadillidium nasatum, Cylisticus convexus, and Porcellionides pruinosus
25 were also found and we report the first record of Porcellio laevis in the State of Kansas. Survey
26 results showed no evidence for a relationship between isopod abundance and fire frequency or
27 grazing treatment.

28 The second experiment was a food preference study to explore granivory in non-native
29 isopods and characterize their seed predator behavior on native plants. Individual isopods were
30 placed in Petri dishes with food options including leaf litter and seeds from one of 15 species;
31 dishes were then incubated for 6-12 days and preference was assessed based on pre- and post-
32 trial weights of the feed and individual isopod. Isopods showed a significant preference for
33 leaves compared to seeds in nine of the 15 seed species evaluated; no evidence for leaf-vs.-seed
34 preference was apparent in the remaining six seed species. However, in all cases, isopods did
35 consume some amount of seeds even when leaf litter was present. Taken together, the relatively
36 low abundance of non-native terrestrial isopods and their lack of apparent preference for native
37 plant seeds suggest that isopods are unlikely to pose considerable threat to tallgrass prairie
38 ecosystems. More extensive research, including a preference study with greater representation of

39 seed species and a quantitative survey throughout the year, would be needed to further
40 characterize the ecological role of isopods in the tallgrass prairie.

41

42

INTRODUCTION

43 Isopods of a broad spectrum of sizes and shapes can be found in both aquatic and
44 terrestrial ecosystems (Brusca & Wilson, 1991). Terrestrial isopods, the focus of our
45 experiments, are very adaptable and can be found in almost any environment provided there is
46 sufficient moisture and food. They typically have minimal food constraints due to their generalist
47 diet and opportunistic feeding (Causey, 1952; Hassall & Rushton, 1982; Saska, 2008), though
48 they do seem to have a preference for microbially colonized decaying organic materials,
49 including plant litter (Paoletti & Hassall, 1999; Ihnen & Zimmer, 2008). Isopods are historically
50 widespread and abundant across North America, despite being non-native fauna, and have been
51 described to aggregate in high densities, reaching as many as thousands per m² (Causey, 1952;
52 Paoletti & Hassall, 1999) . Their plethoric numbers and synanthropic nature (Jass & Klausmeier,
53 2000) suggest that they are adaptable to most environments, with a recognized role in the
54 ecosystem as an accelerator of plant matter decomposition (Hassall et al., 1987; Zimmer, 2002).
55 This is likely achieved by mandibular fragmenting of leaves, which in turn executes chemical
56 decomposition in the environment by stimulating the growth of microbes (Warburg, 1993;
57 Zimmer et al., 2003).

58 Little is known about terrestrial isopod ecology and distribution in Kansas, especially in
59 the highly fragmented and threatened tallgrass prairie ecosystem (Cully et al., 2003; Reed, 2004).
60 Diversity and distribution of isopod species in Kansas has also received little attention; species
61 known in Kansas prior to this study were Armadillidium nasatum Brandt 1833, Armadillidium
62 vulgare (Latreille 1804), Cylisticus convexus (DeGeer 1778) and Porcellionides pruinosus

63 (Brandt 1833) (Jass & Klausmeier, 2001). These species are often found not only in disturbed
64 areas, but also within relatively undisturbed prairie habitats (e.g., logs, stones, vegetation), so
65 that encounters of isopods with plant seeds are quite plausible (Saska, 2008).

66 Seed predation can have a considerable impact on plant demography, potentially
67 affecting population growth, dispersal and population structure (Saska, 2008). While several
68 species of marine isopods are known to consume seeds (Fishman & Orth, 1996; Holbrook et al.,
69 2000; Orth et al., 2006, 2007), terrestrial species have only recently been established as
70 granivorous in laboratory experiments (Saska, 2008). Seed dispersal and establishment are
71 known to be important events in plant populations (Benson & Hartnett, 2006), with select
72 advantages being movement away from predation near parent plant and suitable germination
73 microsites (Collins & Uno, 1985). Prairie insects can have a detrimental effect on seed dispersal
74 and plant reproductive success (Evans et al., 1989); if terrestrial isopods were found to also act as
75 seed predators, they could plausibly have a similarly detrimental effect on plant reproduction.
76 Therefore, depending on their relative abundance, distribution, and food preference, non-native
77 isopod species present in Kansas could pose a threat to the conservation of native plants in this
78 ecosystem which has already been highly impacted by land-use change. Two studies were
79 undertaken to address the potential conservation implications of terrestrial isopod presence. The
80 specific objectives of the studies were: to investigate the diversity and relative abundance of non-
81 native isopod species in the tallgrass prairie and to characterize their seed predator behavior on
82 native plants. Preliminary sampling during summer 2010 indicated that the most commonly
83 found isopod was Armadillidium vulgare; our objective was to test A. vulgare's preference for
84 leaf litter versus native seed species of Konza Prairie.

85 MATERIAL AND METHODS

86 Site description

87 Konza Prairie Biological Station is a Long Term Ecological Research (LTER) site owned
88 in partnership by The Nature Conservancy and Kansas State University. It is located in the Flint
89 Hills of northeastern Kansas, within the largest area of unplowed tallgrass prairie in North
90 America, retaining much of its native uniqueness. It is used as a field research station by Kansas
91 State University Division of Biology, providing opportunities for study of tallgrass prairie
92 ecosystems (Freeman & Hulbert, 1985). Konza Prairie is divided into watershed-scale treatments
93 including watersheds that are either ungrazed or grazed by ungulates (American bison, Bison
94 bison (Linnaeus 1758)), in combination with burn frequencies of 1-, 2-, 4- and 20-year intervals
95 (Towne, 2002).

96 Survey

97 A rapid survey approach was employed across watersheds within a short period of time.
98 This was primarily done to limit the effects of Kansas' highly variable weather on survey results.
99 Sampling occurred during the week of 6 to 12 March 2011 on a total of 16 watersheds, so that
100 each combination of prescribed fire frequency and grazing treatment was represented by 2
101 watersheds. Three sampling sites were selected a priori in each chosen watershed, thus yielding a
102 total of 48 samples.

103 In order to maximize likelihood of isopod presence, the collectors made an effort to
104 stratify the samples within each watershed by several factors: distance from disturbed areas (e.g.,
105 roads dividing watersheds), type of vegetation, and position on the landscape. Specimen
106 collection was by hand and restricted to an approximate 5m x 5m area and 30 person-minutes
107 (Snyder et al., 2006). Once collected, specimens were placed in a vial with soil and leaves to be
108 taken back to the lab for identification.

109

110 Food preference study

111 Experiments were conducted during the summer of 2010 at Kansas State University (trials 1-3)
112 and the fall of 2010 at Arizona State University (trial 4). Seeds and leaf litter were collected from
113 Konza Prairie and Kansas State University campus. Petri dishes (100 x 15mm) were set up so
114 that each contained one isopod, leaf (trials 1-3) or grass (trial 4) litter, and one native plant seed
115 species. Each Petri dish was considered an experimental unit. This resulted in five experimental
116 units per seed species in trials 1-3, and four experimental units per seed species in trial 4. Dishes
117 were misted daily with water. Individual isopods (live biomass), litter, plant seeds and fecal
118 pellets (air-dried) were weighed before and after each trial. Seeds and leaves were provided in
119 standard and relatively large amounts to prevent confounding due to limited food availability,
120 independent of trial duration. As consumption rates were unknown, trial durations were
121 relatively short but varied between trials as we sought the ideal duration.

122 For trials 1-3, individuals of A. vulgare were collected from Konza Prairie during the
123 summer of 2010 and data collection was conducted during 23 June – 27 July 2010. Trials 1 and 2
124 lasted 6 and 12 days respectively, with both using the seeds of five native Kansas plant species:
125 Desmanthus illinoensis (Michaux) MacMillan (Illinois Bundleflower), Psoralidium tenuiflorum
126 (Pursh) Rydb. (Scurfy pea), Helianthus maximiliani Schrader (Maximilian Sunflower), Solidago
127 rigida (Linnaeus) (Rigid Goldenrod) and Sorghastrum nutans (Linnaeus) Nash (Indiangrass). The
128 third trial lasted nine days and used the seeds of five native Kansas plant species: Zigadenus
129 paniculatus (Nutt.) S. Watson (Death Camas), Tripsacum dactyloides (Linnaeus) Linnaeus
130 (Gamagrass), Elymus canadensis Linnaeus (Canada Wildrye), Oenothera macrocarpa Nutt.
131 (Missouri Evening Primrose) and Asclepias viridiflora Raf. (Green Milkweed).

132 Time constraints disallowed for the entire study to be completed during the primary
133 investigator's 10-week Research Experiences of Undergraduates (REU) project during the
134 summer of 2010 at Kansas State University; thus a further trial in the food preference study (trial

135 4) was conducted during fall of 2010 at the primary author's home institution of Arizona State
136 University. For trial 4, materials and specimens were mailed from the original collection site to
137 Arizona State University.

138 Data collection for trial 4 was conducted during 14 October – 10 November 2010.
139 Isopods were collected during a single day from Kansas State University campus, approximately
140 10 km from Konza prairie. A total of 27 individuals of A. vulgare were collected. Grass litter
141 was collected from a mowed fire guard in the Konza Prairie Biological Station headquarters area
142 during the spring of 2010, allowed to air dry, and stored until the initiation of the experiment.
143 Seed decay was attempted for the purpose of enhancing consumption given isopods' well
144 described preference for decaying matter (Paoletti & Hassall, 1999; Ihnen & Zimmer, 2008).
145 Seed decay was initially induced for 4 days for the first three seed species listed below, with the
146 remaining four seed species added after this pre-testing was determined unnecessary, for a total
147 of 20 days for the first three seed species, and 16 for the remaining four (see next paragraph).
148 Seeds of each species were moistened and allowed to sit in a Petri dish in a warm location. This
149 was intended to facilitate decomposition, but appeared ineffective, as no visible evidence of
150 decay could be found.

151 Trial 4 lasted nine days and evaluated seeds from the following seven native Kansas plant
152 species: Zizia aurea (Linnaeus) W.D.J. Koch (Golden Zizia), Desmanthus illinoensis (Illinois
153 Bundleflower), Sporobolus heterolepis (A. Gray) A. Gray (Prairie dropseed), Silphium
154 laciniatum Linnaeus (Compass Plant), Panicum virgatum Linnaeus (Switchgrass), Dalea candida
155 Michx. ex Willd. (White Prairie Clover), and Elymus canadensis (Canada Wildrye).

156 Statistical Analysis

157 For survey data, a generalized linear mixed model was fitted to count of isopods recorded
158 on each survey sample. The response was fitted using a Poisson distribution with a log link

159 function. The linear predictor included the fixed effects of grazing and prescribed fire frequency
160 treatments. The interaction between grazing and prescribed fire frequency was evaluated as a
161 fixed effect but was excluded from the final model based on evidence for model
162 overspecification. The random effect of watershed nested within grazing and prescribed fire
163 frequency treatment was also specified to recognize technical replication in the design and to
164 appropriately recognize experimental units.

165 The experimental setup for food preference Trials 1, 2 and 3 was similar; thus, we
166 analyzed their data in a joint analysis. A general linear mixed model was fitted to the response
167 variable "Feed consumption" defined as the difference between weight of initial feed offered and
168 weight of refuse feed (measured in grams) for Trials 1, 2 and 3. The linear predictor of the model
169 used for analysis included the fixed effects of feed source (seed or leaf), seed species and their 2-
170 way interaction, along with the covariates initial feed weight and initial isopod bodyweight.
171 Additional interactions were evaluated but were not included in the final model based on non-
172 significant P-values, maximum-likelihood-based model fit criteria and an attempt to prevent
173 model overparameterization. A random effect of isopod nested within seed species for each trial
174 was fitted to the model to recognize the appropriate experimental unit for seed species and the
175 blocking factor for feed source. A random effect of trial was evaluated as a potential blocking
176 factor. However, the corresponding variance component converged to zero and thus the random
177 trial effect was dropped from the model. Heterogeneous residual variances as a function of trial
178 were fitted in the model, as granted by improved model fit assessed using Bayesian Information
179 Criteria.

180 The experimental design and conditions for Trial 4 differed considerably from Trials 1-3,
181 and thus was analyzed separately. A general linear mixed model was fitted to the response

182 variable "Feed consumption" as described previously for data from trials 1-3. We note that only
183 7 seed species were evaluated in this trial.

184 Statistical models were fitted to the survey and food preference data using the GLIMMIX
185 and MIXED procedures of SAS (Version 9.2, SAS Institute, Cary, NC), respectively. For general
186 linear models, studentized residual plots were evaluated and model assumptions were considered
187 to be appropriately met. Estimated standard errors were bias corrected using Kenward Roger's or
188 Morel's Sandwich estimator, as implemented by SAS for general and generalized linear mixed
189 models. Also, degrees of freedom were estimated using Kenward Roger's approximation.
190 Results are presented as estimated least square means and corresponding standard errors.
191 Pairwise comparisons of interest were conducted using Tukey-Kramer's or Bonferroni's
192 adjustment, as appropriate, to avoid inflation of Type I error rate.

193

194 RESULTS

195 Isopod diversity, relative abundance and distribution at Konza Prairie

196 Our survey of Konza Prairie found only 15 individuals of two species, Armadillidium
197 vulgare and Cylisticus convexus. Armadillidium vulgare was much more common, comprising
198 14 of 15 specimens (93%), and was found under shrubs, in leaf litter, moist soil, ungulate fecal
199 matter and under rocks.

200 Isopod specimens were collected from 6 out of the 16 watersheds (table I). Most notably,
201 no isopods were recovered from watersheds with 20-year fire frequency intervals and only 1 and
202 2 individuals were collected in 2- and 4-year fire frequency treatments, respectively. However,
203 we found no evidence of significant differences between grazing treatments ($P = 0.90$) or
204 prescribed fire frequencies ($P = 0.25$) in the count of isopod specimens.

205 Additional collections in the headquarters area of Konza Prairie Biological Station and
206 the Kansas State University campus yielded Armadillidium nasatum, Porcellionides pruinosus
207 and Porcellio laevis Latreille 1804. Our identification of Porcellio laevis constitutes a new state
208 record for Kansas and was found at Konza Prairie, within watershed N1B under aged bison fecal
209 matter.

210 Food preference study

211 For Trials 1-3, the joint analysis showed evidence for a significant interaction between
212 seed species and feed source ($P < 0.0001$) on feed consumption. In particular, the question of
213 interest related to differences in consumption between feed sources (i.e., leaves vs. seeds) within
214 each seed species. Significant differences in feed consumption between sources (fig. 1) were
215 apparent for the following native plant species: Tripsacum dactyloides (Gamagrass), Oenothera
216 macrocarpa (Missouri Evening Primrose), Helianthus maximiliani (Maximilian Sunflower), and
217 Sorghastrum nutans (Indiangrass). For these native plant species, seed consumption was
218 decreased compared to leaf consumption. As a side note, we point out that gamagrass exhibited a
219 negative estimate for consumption due to minimal consumption combined with the growth of
220 fungi and bacteria, resulting in a positive change in mass.

221 Across all plant species evaluated in this study, initial amount of feed offered was
222 positively associated with feed consumption ($P < 0.0001$), whereby every 1 gram increase in feed
223 offered increased feed consumption by an estimated 0.15 ± 0.02 grams for a given isopod. After
224 adjusting for initial feed consumption, there was no evidence for any association between initial
225 isopod bodyweight and feed consumption ($P = 0.84$).

226 For trial 4, data corresponding to native plant species Zizia aurea (Golden Zizia) and
227 Elymus canadensis (Canada Wildrye) were excluded from analysis due to the high isopod
228 mortality rate. In this trial, a main effect of feed source on feed consumption was identified ($P =$

229 0.0112). For the five remaining seed species considered in this experiment, isopods appeared to
230 consume more leaves than seeds (fig. 2). There was no evidence of interaction between seed
231 species and feed source ($P= 0.19$) on feed consumption. Also, there was no evidence for an
232 association between initial isopod bodyweight and feed consumption ($P = 0.62$) nor for any
233 association between initial feed availability and feed consumption ($P = 0.82$).

234

235

DISCUSSION

236 Due to widespread land-use change, the tallgrass prairie ecosystem is threatened and
237 highly fragmented (Cully et al., 2003). Thus the conservation of native plant species is important
238 to the maintenance of this ecosystem's distinctive character and ecosystem functioning. Invasive
239 plant and animal species are a major threat; insects, in particular those known as seed predators,
240 pose a special challenge by limiting seed dispersal (Evans et al., 1989). Due to the realization of
241 a similar niche, isopods may fulfill a comparable role to seed predating insects, potentially by
242 harming reproductive or dispersal abilities of native plant species. Past studies have recognized
243 the role isopods have as decomposers in the tallgrass prairie ecosystem (Hassall et al., 1987;
244 Zimmer, 2002) and have explored food preferences (Dudgeon et al, 1990; Rushton & Hassall,
245 1983). Granivory behavior of isopods has been described (Saska, 2008; Honek et al., 2009;
246 Farmer & Dubugnon, 2009) and determined to be facultative (Koprdoва et al., 2010). Moreover,
247 isopod granivory behavior seems to be driven by seed abundance, nutrition and accessibility
248 (Saska, 2008). If isopods are abundant and widespread seed predators, they could prove to be a
249 threat to native plants of the tallgrass prairie.

250

251 Survey

252 Isopods were found to be widely but unevenly distributed, minimally abundant, and very
253 depauperate at Konza Prairie. It was initially hypothesized that more isopods would be found in
254 less frequently burned watersheds because of the protection and food provided by the higher
255 abundance of plant detritus. We did not find evidence to support this claim; potential
256 explanations include food quality, favorability of drier environments and/or open habitats. These
257 preliminary data suggest that more work is needed to assess the effects of prescribed fire,
258 grazing, and other land use changes on terrestrial isopods. In particular, other survey techniques
259 should be considered, such as pitfall traps to complement manual searches as their combination
260 may enhance effectiveness of the search (Snyder et al., 2006).

261 Food preference studies

262 This study showed a preference against consuming seeds relative to plant litter for nine of
263 the 15 seed species present; no evidence for differential source preference was apparent for the
264 other six native plant species. This supports the observations and conclusions of Saska (2008),
265 including granivory in terrestrial isopods despite the presence of litter, which is possibly
266 indicative of non-starvation based granivory, but may also be due to factors such as size, climate,
267 season, and decomposition state of feed source (Hassall & Moss, 2011; Szekeres et al., 2011).
268 This lack of evidence for associations between feed consumption and initial isopod bodyweight
269 further link the two studies. We therefore hypothesize a difference in seed palatability,
270 compatibility, and preference for consumption amongst different seed species.

271 Easily available litter-colonizing microbiota becomes a valuable resource to isopods
272 when population density is driven by food quality (Zimmer & Topp, 2000; White, 1978). Access
273 to highly nitrogenous foods is known to be limited for saprophagous, soil-dwelling animals
274 (Rushton & Hassall, 1983; White, 1978). This available supply of a vital nutrient such as
275 nitrogen may therefore affect feeding preference (Zimmer & Topp, 2000), with consumption due

276 to the nutritional content of the microorganisms residing on the different leaf species, rather than
277 the nutrition of the leaf species themselves (Zimmer & Topp, 1997). Chemical composition of
278 the food source as well as amount of colonization by microbes may both influence their
279 consumption by isopods. Indeed, chemical composition of leaf litter has been addressed when
280 looking at food source utilization by sympatric woodlice species Porcellio scaber Latreille 1804
281 and Oniscus asellus (Linnaeus 1758), with results showing a better performance associated with
282 a lower litter C:N ratio, higher pH levels, and lower levels of tannins and other phenolics
283 (Zimmer & Topp, 1997).

284 Future food preference experiments should take into account the morphology (Pulliam &
285 Brand, 1975) and chemical composition (Zimmer & Topp, 2000) of seeds consumed, offer an
286 assortment of leaf species and shapes (Dudgeon et al., 1990), and test for litter quality through
287 factors such as microbiota colonization, pH levels, and nutrient ratios (Zimmer & Topp, 1997,
288 2000). While this study examined seeds that were accessible during the time frame of the study,
289 there are hundreds of species of vascular plants (Freeman & Hulbert, 1985) on Konza Prairie that
290 could provide food for isopods. Species where seed-based reproduction is important or species
291 whose seeds are used in restoration would be high priority for future studies.

292

293 Conclusions

294 Conservation of native plants is critical for protecting the remaining fragments of North
295 American tallgrass prairie. Large populations of granivorous invertebrates could negatively
296 affect the survival rates of native plants. However, it appears that isopods are at low densities
297 regardless of the fire regimes evaluated herein, namely historical, more frequent (as is used for
298 cattle management across much of the Flint Hills region), and less frequent (fire suppression near
299 urban areas). Also, the most common isopod, A. vulgare, did not seem to exhibit any particular

300 preference for native plant seeds. Taken together, this evidence suggest that isopods may pose
301 little, if any, threat to the native plants of Konza Prairie, as representative of tallgrass prairie
302 systems.

303

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311

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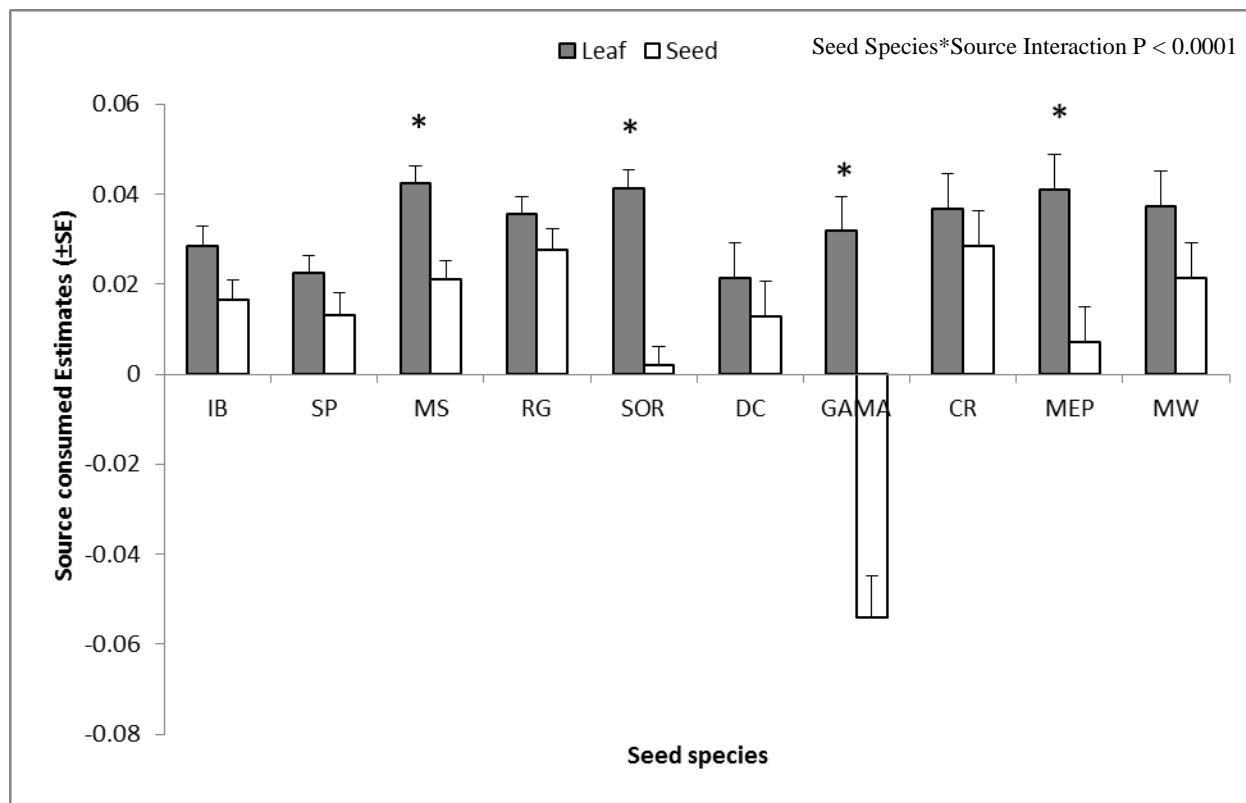
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FIGURE CAPTIONS

Figure 1: Feed consumption in trials 1-3 of the food preference study, presented as least square mean estimates \pm estimated standard errors (SE). Asterisks indicate native plant species for which seed consumption was significantly reduced relative to leaf consumption ($P < 0.05$). IB = Desmanthus illinoensis (Illinois Bundleflower), SP = Psoraleidium tenuiflorum (Scurfy pea), MS = Helianthus maximiliani (Maximilian Sunflower), RG = Solidago rigida (Rigid Goldenrod), SOR = Sorghastrum nutans (Indiangrass), DC = Zigadenus paniculatus (Death Camas), GAMA = Tripsacum dactyloides (Gamagrass), CR = Elymus canadensis (Canada Wildrye), MEP = Oenothera macrocarpa (Missouri Evening Primrose), MW = Asclepias viridiflora (Green Milkweed).

Figure 2: Feed consumption in trial 4 of the food preference study, presented as least square mean estimates \pm estimated standard errors (SE). IB = Desmanthus illinoensis (Illinois Bundleflower), PV = Panicum virgatum (Switchgrass), SH = Sporobolus heterolepis (Prairie dropseed), SL = Silphium laciniatum (Compass Plant), and WPC = Dalea candida (White Prairie Clover). Species Zizia aurea (Golden Zizia) and Elymus canadensis (Canada Wildrye) were excluded.

415 Figure 1:

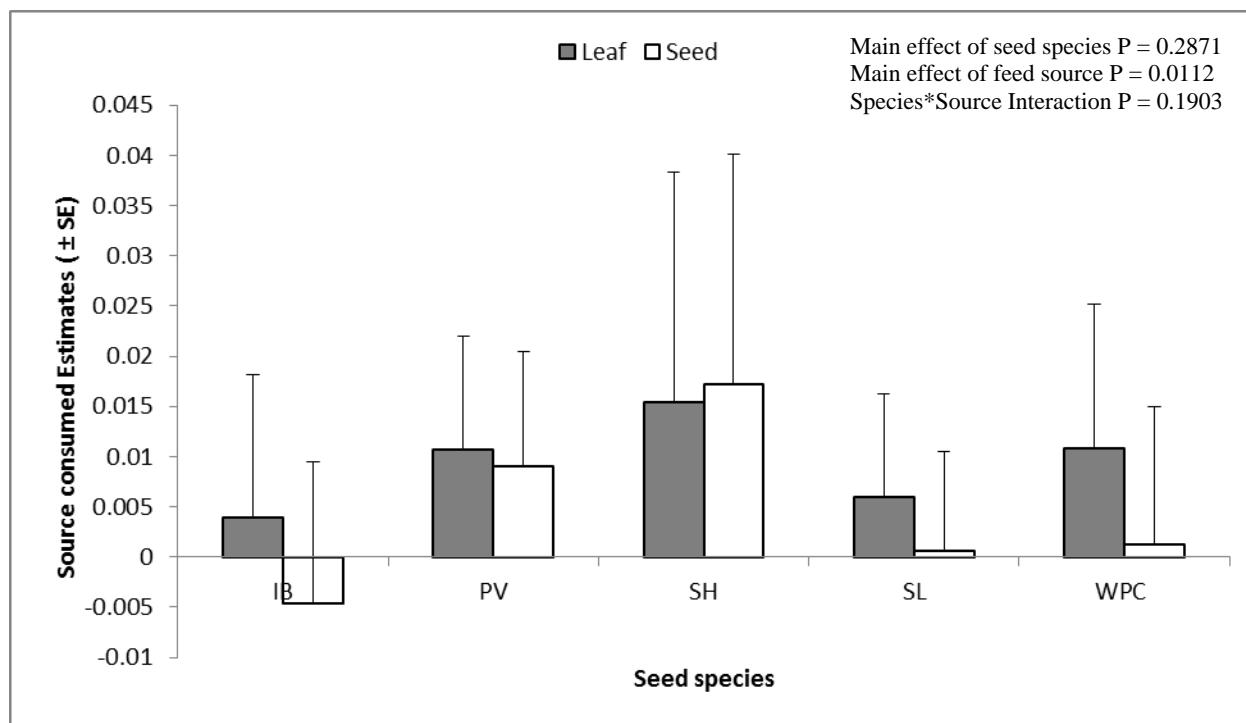


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419 Figure 2:



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423 Table I: Number of isopod individuals and species found in each fire and grazing regime.

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Main effect of grazing treatment P = 0.90 Main effect of fire frequency P = 0.25

Fire Frequency (years)	Grazing Treatment	Individuals Found	Species Found
1	Grazed	5	<u>Armadillidium vulgare</u>
	Ungrazed	7	<u>Armadillidium vulgare</u>
2	Grazed	1	<u>Cylisticus convexus</u>
	Ungrazed	0	--
4	Grazed	1	<u>Armadillidium vulgare</u>
	Ungrazed	1	<u>Armadillidium vulgare</u>
20	Grazed	0	--
	Ungrazed	0	--

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