

Coral reef ecology in the Anthropocene

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1 PERSPECTIVE

2	Coral reef ecology in the Anthropocene
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16	
17	Summary
18	1. We are in the Anthropocene – an epoch where humans are the dominant force of planetary
19	change. Ecosystems increasingly reflect rapid human-induced, socioeconomic and cultural
20	selection rather than being a product of their surrounding natural biophysical setting. This
21	poses the intriguing question: to what extent do existing ecological paradigms capture and
22	explain the current ecological patterns and processes we observe?
23	

We argue that, although biophysical drivers still influence ecosystem structure and
 function at particular scales, their ability to offer predictive capacity over coupled social ecological systems is increasingly compromised as we move further into the Anthropocene.

3. Traditionally, the dynamics of coral reefs have been studied in response to their proximate
drivers of change rather than their underlying socioeconomic and cultural drivers. We
hypothesise this is limiting our ability to accurately predict spatial and temporal changes in
coral reef ecosystem structure and function.

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4. We propose 'social-ecological macroecology' as a novel approach to a) identify the
interactive effects of biophysical and socioeconomic and cultural drivers of coral reef
ecosystems across spatial and temporal scales, b) test the robustness of existing coral reef
paradigms, c) explore whether existing paradigms can be adapted to capture the dynamics of
contemporary coral reefs, and d) if they cannot, develop novel coral reef social-ecological
paradigms, where human dynamics are part of the paradigms rather than the drivers of them.

5. Human socioeconomic and cultural processes must become embedded in coral reef
ecological theory and practice as much as biophysical processes are today if we are to predict
and manage these systems successfully in this era of rapid change. This necessary shift in our
approach to coral reef science will be challenging and will require truly interdisciplinary
collaborations between the natural and social sciences.

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Key-words: Anthropocene, coral reef, ecology, macroecology, prediction, scale, socialecological macroecology, social-ecological systems

49 Introduction

50 Natural biophysical gradients such as wave energy, primary production, and seawater temperature drive coral reef ecosystem structure and function across multiple scales and 51 52 trophic levels, from microbes (Kelly et al. 2014) and plankton (Gove et al. 2016), to corals (Gove et al. 2015) and fish assemblages (Heenan et al. 2016). However, human impacts such 53 as fishing (Edwards et al. 2014), nearshore nutrient enrichment (D'Angelo & Wiedenmann 54 55 2014), sedimentation (Wolanski, Martinez & Richmond 2009), and the warming and 56 acidifying of our oceans (Albright et al. 2016; Hughes et al. 2018a) are pushing the 57 environmental boundary conditions defined by natural biophysical drivers on many coral reefs globally. Furthermore, the distal socioeconomic and cultural drivers underlying these 58 59 proximate impacts, such as trade, consumer demands, human migration, and carbon dioxide 60 emissions, are all predicted to increase (Norström et al. 2016; Hughes et al. 2017). This 61 presents a new reality where the majority of coral reefs will increasingly reflect human-62 induced, socioeconomic and cultural drivers rather than being a product of their long-term 63 natural biophysical setting. How we study and describe reef ecology must include this 64 paradigm shift in thinking if we are to predict and manage their dynamics effectively.

65 We propose an approach that will identify how key biophysical, socioeconomic and cultural drivers of reefs interact across scales to drive coral reef ecosystem patterns and 66 67 processes. In doing so, this approach will arm us with the predictive capacity required to 68 manage coral reef dynamics in this era of rapid change. We start by reviewing how natural biophysical drivers influence reefs, from dictating the dominance, behaviour, and trophic 69 70 ecology of individual reef organisms, through to governing the spatial ecology of reef 71 communities across the seascape. We then highlight how human socioeconomic and cultural 72 drivers have become an important structuring force of contemporary coral reefs at particular scales. In doing so, we underline our lack of understanding regarding the degree biophysical, 73

or human socioeconomic and cultural drivers dominate depending on the scale of
observation, suggesting macroecological approaches as a potential solution. Finally, we
question whether traditional coral reef paradigms capture this new interwoven reality and
stress the need for a '*socio-ecological macroecology*' approach to develop paradigms for
coral reefs in the Anthropocene.

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80 Biophysical drivers: setting natural bounds on coral reef ecosystems

81 By studying coral reefs in remote locations with limited direct human influence, we 82 have learnt how coral reefs respond to, and are shaped by gradients in biophysical drivers 83 such as wave energy, primary production, and seawater temperature (Fig. 1). High wave 84 energy environments, for instance, can promote the dominance of low-lying benthic 85 organisms such as turf algae, crustose coralline algae, and encrusting corals that are less 86 vulnerable to physical dislodgement (Geister 1977; Gove et al. 2015). In contrast, lower 87 wave energy environments tend to favour more structurally complex benthic communities, 88 dominated by three-dimensional calcifying corals and upright macroalgae (Williams et al. 89 2013; Aston et al. 2018). Such increases in substrate complexity are often positively related 90 to reef fish density and biomass (Graham & Nash 2012) due to increased refuge from predation (Rogers, Blanchard & Mumby 2014), and as such waves can indirectly mediate 91 92 predator-prey dynamics on reefs. Across the Pacific Ocean, for example, the biomass of 93 grazing herbivorous fishes peaks at islands with moderate wave exposure where the largest 94 edible algal mass for these fishes tends to occur (Heenan *et al.* 2016). Wave energy can also 95 influence reef fish community structure through interactions with fin morphology and 96 swimming performance (Fulton, Bellwood & Wainwright 2005), with high wave energy 97 environments capable of impacting the feeding success of some fishes and thus key 98 ecosystem functions like herbivory (Bejarano et al. 2017).

99 Natural gradients in nutrient concentrations and primary production have predictable effects on coral reef ecosystems (Gove et al. 2016). For example, tropical islands located in 100 more productive regions of the Pacific Ocean support a greater number of microbes with 101 102 nutrient-related metabolisms (e.g., nitrate and nitrite ammonification) (Kelly et al. 2014), an increased cover of calcifying benthic organisms (Williams et al. 2015a), and a greater 103 104 biomass of grazing herbivorous, planktivorous, and top-predatory fishes (Nadon et al. 2012; 105 Williams et al. 2015b; Heenan et al. 2016). Gradients in nutrients and primary production 106 also exist at smaller scales around individual islands. For example, when deep subsurface 107 waves interact with bathymetry around islands they break and can pump water up through the thermocline. These so-called 'internal waves' can raise nutrient concentrations in the 108 109 shallows (Leichter, Stewart & Miller 2003; Wang, Dai & Chen 2007; Aston et al. 2018), 110 which in turn can promote heterotrophic feeding and growth rates in corals (Leichter & 111 Salvatore 2006; Fox et al. 2018; Williams et al. 2018), and ultimately drive broad spatial 112 transitions in benthic functional group dominance around islands (Aston et al. 2018). Coral 113 reefs are also hydrodynamically connected by additional physical processes such as lagoonal 114 outflow and surface downwelling that can move allochthonous nutrient sources between reef 115 habitats (Williams et al. 2018) and, in the absence of confounding local human impacts, enhance reef productivity and function (Graham et al. 2018). 116 117 Seawater temperature is another key determinant of coral reef persistence and

function. Most coral reef ecosystems occur in waters with a seasonal minimum sea-surface temperature of 18°C (Kleypas, McManus & Menez 1999). Marginal reef communities can form in waters below 22°C, and this can be explained by the interacting effect of temperature with light, nutrients, and aragonite saturation (Couce, Ridgwell & Hendy 2012). Bounded within these temperature limits, gradients in seawater temperature influence the dominance and life history of individual reef organisms. For example, hard coral cover

124 decreases at lower temperatures, while macroalgae become more prevalent with latitudinal and cyclical seasonal drops in temperature (Glenn, Smith & Doty 1990; Fulton et al. 2014; 125 Williams et al. 2015a). Browsing herbivorous fishes become more dominant in cooler waters, 126 127 while warmer waters support an increased biomass of detritivorous fishes (Floeter et al. 2005; Hoey, Pratchett & Cvitanovic 2011; Heenan et al. 2016). Fish body size also varies 128 predictably with temperature. Body size is inversely related to temperature due to the 129 130 increased growth rate, earlier maturation, and shorter life span of individuals at higher 131 temperatures (Atkinson 1994; Trip et al. 2008; Taylor, Trip & Choat 2018). 132 These natural constraints on a reef's biophysical and functional form do not act in isolation and appear predictable in the absence of confounding local human impacts 133 (Williams et al. 2015a). However, anthropogenic activities have become a dominant driver of 134 135 coral reef ecosystems across a broad range of socioeconomic and cultural contexts, increasing 136 the complexity of drivers and their interactions that govern ecosystem state (Fig. 2). 137 138 Socioeconomic and cultural drivers: a new reality for coral reefs

139 The footprint of human activity is evident on coral reefs at all trophic levels. Fishing 140 has dramatically reduced overall fish biomass on coral reefs (Williams et al. 2011; MacNeil et al. 2015; Graham et al. 2017), with an emphasised loss of herbivores (Edwards et al. 2014) 141 142 and top predators (Sandin et al. 2008; Valdivia, Cox & Bruno 2017; Cinner et al. 2018) and 143 thus the key ecosystem functions they perform. Fishing can also disrupt the basic physiology 144 and behavior of target species, including the sex change dynamics (Taylor 2014) and flight responses of reef fishes (Januchowski-Hartley et al. 2012), both of which have the potential 145 146 to affect overall reef ecosystem function (Madin et al. 2010).

Land-use change alters sedimentation regimes and nutrient input to reefs (Wolanski,
Martinez & Richmond 2009). In conjunction with fishing (McClanahan *et al.* 2003), these

149 effects can favour the competitive superiority of fleshy algae (Barott *et al.* 2012) to ultimately promote their overall dominance (Smith, Hunter & Smith 2010; Smith et al. 2016). Dredging 150 and plastic pollution are increasing coral disease prevalence on reefs (Pollock et al. 2014; 151 152 Lamb et al. 2018), which in turn contributes to a loss of live coral cover and reduced reef calcification rates. Humans are also re-structuring coral reef microbial communities (Kelly et 153 al. 2014), and promoting the abundance of disease-causing bacteria and viruses (Dinsdale et 154 155 al. 2008). Remarkably, human-introduced invasive rats can lower fish growth rates and levels 156 of herbivory on reefs by predating on seabirds that would otherwise deliver offshore nutrient 157 subsidies to shallow waters bordering the islands (Graham et al. 2018).

158 Globally, human-induced warming of the ocean is resulting in increasingly frequent mass coral bleaching events (Hughes et al. 2018a) that are transforming coral assemblages 159 160 (Hughes et al. 2018b) and in some cases causing regime shifts to fleshy macroalgae (Graham 161 et al. 2015). In combination with human-induced ocean acidification (Albright et al. 2016), these shifts in benthic composition have broader ecosystem effects, from compromising the 162 163 growth of reef structures (Perry et al. 2013; Perry et al. 2018) to changing the diversity, abundance, and behaviour of other reef-associated organisms (Keith et al. 2018; Richardson 164 et al. 2018; Stuart-Smith et al. 2018). Hence, myriad interconnected human drivers are 165 rapidly changing the structure and function of reefs (Pendleton et al. 2016). 166

167 The proximate human impacts to reefs described above are, themselves, ultimately 168 dictated by underlying distal socioeconomic and cultural drivers, such as global trade, 169 markets and finance, as well as the movement and behavioral choices of people and their 170 associated demands on coastal resources (Kittinger *et al.* 2012; Hicks *et al.* 2016a; Norström 171 *et al.* 2016) (**Fig.2**). While the coral reef research community has made significant advances 172 in measuring the response (decline) of coral reef ecosystems to these distal socioeconomic 173 and cultural drivers, we have not done so intentionally in an *a priori* manner. Instead, we

174 have indirectly measured their effect by studying their emergent proximate impacts, such as commercial and recreational fisheries (Fig. 2). We hypothesise this is limiting our ability to 175 accurately predict spatiotemporal changes of contemporary reef ecosystems. We further 176 177 suggest that these human socioeconomic and cultural drivers can combine to become such a dominating structuring force of reef ecosystem state that they overwhelm any influence of a 178 179 reefs' surrounding natural biophysical setting. Williams et al. (2015a) tested this hypothesis 180 by quantifying the relationship between coral reef benthic communities and gradients in 181 biophysical drivers across Pacific islands that spanned a gradient of human density. At 182 island-mean scales, they demonstrated that biophysical drivers were able to strongly predict 183 coral reef ecosystem state when human density was low, but that these relationships were lost 184 or fundamentally altered when human population density increased. We propose that this loss 185 of predictive power over reef ecosystem state will be regained when human socioeconomic 186 and cultural variables are instead fully integrated into analyses and used as predictors in the 187 modeling framework. Further, we argue that implementing a multi-scaled macroecology 188 approach will provide a more nuanced understanding of how biophysical, socioeconomic, 189 and cultural drivers interact across spatial and temporal scales to influence coral reef patterns 190 and processes.

Work has begun to address the crucial data and knowledge gaps linking the structure 191 192 and function of natural ecosystems to the distal socioeconomic and cultural drivers that 193 underpin their proximate drivers of change. Examples include the socioeconomic drivers of biodiversity loss and societal response capacities of hyperdiverse tropical ecosystems 194 195 (Barlow et al. 2018), quantitative data on land grabbing and the international trade of coral 196 reef resources (Norström et al. 2016), and the increasing amount of social science quantitative indicators people can use in social-ecological systems research and sustainability 197 198 science (Hicks et al. 2016b). These types of data can improve our ability to predict the

199 dynamics of natural ecosystems (Hicks et al. 2016a), including coral reefs. For example, 200 distance to markets is a better predictor of the condition of reef fisheries than local human population densities in the vicinity of the reefs (Cinner et al. 2013). Further, combining travel 201 202 times to reefs, as a measure of their accessibility (Maire et al. 2016), with human population sizes within a given distance, produces a metric known as 'gravity', which is a stronger 203 204 predictor of fisheries exploitation on any given reef than human population density alone 205 (Cinner et al. 2016; Cinner et al. 2018). When reef fisheries are quantified as either doing 206 better (bright spots) or worse (dark spots) than expected given their natural biophysical 207 bounds, it is human socioeconomic and cultural data such as customary taboos, marine 208 tenure, and levels of local engagement in management, that are able to better predict the two 209 outcomes (Cinner et al. 2016). We highly advocate these recent approaches and anticipate 210 that unless we start to more routinely monitor, decipher, and account for socioecological links 211 across scales we will become unable to predict spatiotemporal changes to coral reef 212 ecosystem dynamics. We need to move to a point where we are integrating this thinking in to 213 new ecological theories and paradigms that explicitly insert humans in to the equation across 214 scales. As such, we require a new multi-scaled macroecological approach to coral reef 215 ecology that is aligned with our current time, i.e., the Anthropocene.

216

217 Looking to the future: coral reef ecology in the Anthropocene

The past century has seen an evolution in ecological thinking, with theories and frameworks continuously updated and refined based on our ever-increasing understanding of natural systems. Coral reef science is no exception. Early theories and descriptions of the origins, structure, and distribution of coral reefs (Darwin 1842) were extended to encompass a more mechanistic, ecological, and process-based understanding of these diverse ecosystems (Odum & Odum 1955). Concurrently, the broad field of ecology was evolving across

224 multiple terrestrial and aquatic systems. The longstanding Clementsian view of unidirectional 225 ecological succession (Clements 1936) gave way to an appreciation of more complex interacting processes governing ecosystem dynamics and non-equilibrium theory (Odum 226 227 1969; Whittaker 1970). Concepts of ecological resilience then developed (Holling 1973) and were later directly applied to non-equilibrium systems like coral reefs (Connell 1978; 228 229 Nyström, Folke & Moberg 2000). More recently, resilience theory has expanded to embrace 230 a social-ecological systems framework that explicitly treats humans as internal rather than 231 external to the system (Berkes & Folke 1998; Biggs et al. 2012). These works have given rise 232 to a range of ecological paradigms that have formed our views on what defines coral reef 233 ecosystems, what shapes them, and how they function.

234 What is now unequivocal is that human imprints can be observed at all biophysical 235 scales, across all levels of biological organisation, and in the processes upon which ecological 236 theories rest, such as species dispersal, colonisation, invasion, extinction, isolation, tolerance, 237 and competition (Ellis 2015). Acknowledging that humans have emerged as a significant 238 force in nature, "natural" biophysical processes that previously determined the assembly, 239 dynamics, structure and functional ecology of ecological communities, may now be 240 overwhelmed by anthropogenic activities (Fig. 2). This new situation poses an intriguing question: to what extent do traditional ecological paradigms capture and explain the 241 242 ecological patterns and processes we observe in the Anthropocene?

The unprecedented breakdown of isolation by human migration and trade has caused dramatic changes to the dispersion and diversity of species globally (Meyerson & Mooney 2007; Westphal *et al.* 2008; Banks *et al.* 2014), with both positive and negative impacts to ecosystem services (Charles & Dukes 2007; Pejchar & Mooney 2009; Schlaepfer, Sax & Olden 2011). This loss of isolation is potentially compromising the explanatory and predictive power of traditional ecological models. For example, when Helmus *et al.* (2014)

investigated the species-isolation relationship for anole lizards among Caribbean islands they
found that anole biogeography reflects anthropogenic processes, such as economic isolation
of human populations, rather than geographic processes postulated in traditional island
biogeography theory. Similar perturbations to the effectiveness and relevance of traditional
ecological models and paradigms are likely occurring in the ocean.

254 In the marine environment, humans have influenced species biogeography by the 255 unintentional and intentional introduction of species through transport and trade. Examples 256 include ballast water release from cargo ships, aquaculture, and the aquarium industry 257 (Padilla & Williams 2004). Moreover, we have created artificial 'islands' that are no longer 258 static stepping-stones, but instead, float and move. Human-derived flotsam is providing a 259 dispersal mechanism for tropical Atlantic fishes to cross the deep-water Mid-Atlantic Barrier 260 (Luiz et al. 2012) and is facilitating alien species invasions (Gregory 2009). Floating plastic 261 waste harbours distinct microbial assemblages, the so-called 'Plastisphere' (Zettler, Mincer & 262 Amaral-Zettler 2013), with this unique biotope providing a mechanism by which disease-263 causing pathogens of reef corals spread in the Anthropocene (Lamb et al. 2018). Recent 264 biophysical dispersal models have even offered the provocative suggestion that human 265 infrastructure, such as oil and gas installations across the North Sea, can form a highly interconnected regional network of coral ecosystems capable of supplying larvae to natural 266 267 populations downstream (Henry et al. 2018). In these instances, to fully understand and be 268 able to predict the observed ecological dynamics at play requires a new strategy. The human socioeconomic and cultural processes governing such modifications to species dispersal and 269 270 diversity must become an integral part of ecological theory and practice as much as 271 biological and geophysical processes are today (Ellis 2015; Österblom et al. 2017). The pervasive global influence of humans in governing the spatial dynamics of 272 273 ecological systems requires new theoretical advances to study, define, and sustainably

274 manage them (Herrick & Sarukhán 2007; Mumby & Steneck 2008; Hulme-Beaman et al. 275 2016; Rose et al. 2016; Cadotte et al. 2017). Coral reefs are no exception; they face a new reality with their dynamics governed by cross-scale interacting biophysical and human 276 277 socioeconomic and cultural drivers (Norström et al. 2016; Hughes et al. 2017) (Fig. 2) and we question whether traditional coral reef paradigms accurately capture this complexity. 278 279 Moving forward, humans (and their activities) must become an integral part of coral 280 reefs and their dynamics. For this purpose, we propose 'social-ecological macroecology' as a 281 novel concept for studying coral reefs in the 21st century. This approach embeds 282 macroecology – the study of organism-environment relationships at large spatial and temporal scales (Brown & Maurer 1989; Keith et al. 2012; Heffernan et al. 2014), within a 283 284 social-ecological systems framework. In doing so, social-ecological macroecology explicitly 285 inserts the presence, behaviour, dynamics, and ecology of the human species into the 286 equation, and does so across spatial and temporal scales. We stress the critical role of a 287 macroecology approach – the scale of observation directly influences the ecological 288 finding(s), their interpretation, and their subsequent use in guiding coral reef management. Taking a social-ecological macroecology approach to studying coral reefs will require 289 290 some innovative thinking and we suggest four core pathways to this approach: 291 292 1. Identify the interactive effects of biophysical and human socioeconomic and 293 cultural drivers of coral reef ecosystems across spatial and temporal scales. This 294 will improve our predictive capacity, such that we understand how changing one 295 parameter, either biophysical, socioeconomic or cultural, at any specific scale 296 interacts with other drivers at other scales to alter coral reef ecosystem structure and function. 297

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299	2.	Test the robustness of classic coral reef paradigms. We need to revisit and test
300		whether classic ecological paradigms developed, in many instances, outside of the
301		social-ecological systems framework, are still able to capture the dynamics of
302		Anthropocene reefs accurately.
303		
304	3.	Adapt current coral reef paradigms. If classic paradigms fail to capture the
305		spatiotemporal dynamics of reefs today accurately, we should explore whether
306		adapting these paradigms, by including human dynamics as drivers, substantially
307		improve their predictive capacity.
308		
309	4.	Develop novel coral reef social-ecological paradigms. In some cases, adapting
310		existing coral reef paradigms may not be enough; we will need to develop novel rules
311		and theories to create 'social-ecological paradigms,' where human dynamics are part
312		of the paradigms rather than the external drivers of them.
313		
314	W	e will need to continually re-visit and test the performance of any of the adapted or
315	novel	paradigms developed under this approach due to the unprecedented rate of social and
316	ecolog	gical change in the Anthropocene. In following these guidelines, coral reef ecologists
317	should	be able to identify, at any given spatial or temporal scale of observation, which
318	interac	cting predictors (biophysical, socioeconomic or cultural) offer the best predictive
319	capaci	ty over coral reef ecosystem structure and function.
320		
321	Concl	usions
322		We remain convinced that human social, cultural and economic processes must
323	becom	he an integral part of ecological theory and practice as much as biological, geological

324	and physical processes are today. This warrants a revisiting of traditional coral reef
325	ecological paradigms and theories and either adapting them so that they capture
326	contemporary dynamics of intertwined social-ecological systems, or developing novel social-
327	ecological theories. This will be challenging and will require truly interdisciplinary
328	collaborations between researchers in the natural and social sciences.
329	
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336	
337	Author contributions
338	G.J.W, N.A.J.G, J-B.J, A.V.N, and M.N conceived the research idea and led its development
339	with all the other authors providing input. G.J.W led the writing with all authors contributing
340	to the discussion and editing of the paper.
341	
342	Data accessibility
343	There are no specific data sets used in this Perspective piece.
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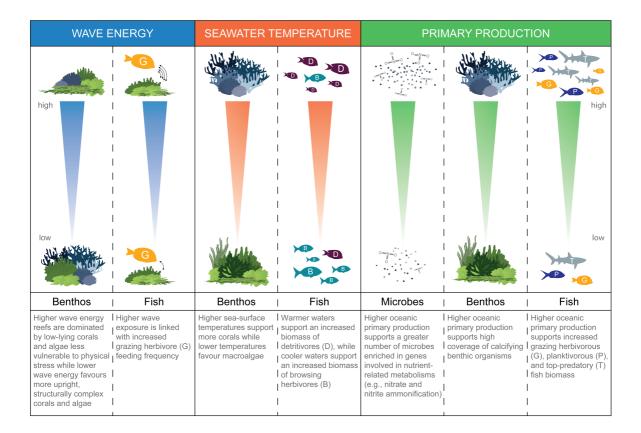
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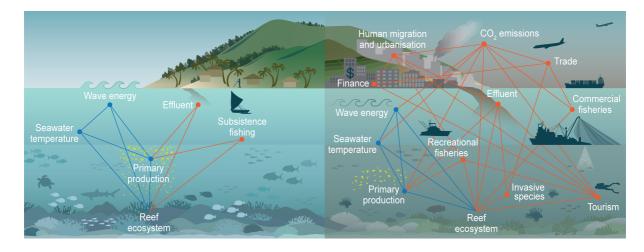
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- **Figure 1.** Examples of the natural bounds set by gradients in biophysical drivers on coral reef
- 678 ecosystem structure and function across trophic levels, from microbes to sharks.



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Figure 2. Drivers of coral reef ecosystems pre- and post- Anthropocene. Before coral reefs 685 entered the Anthropocene, their ecosystem state was heavily governed by natural biophysical 686 687 drivers, even in the presence of small subsistence-based human populations (left). This is still the case for some remote, uninhabited coral reef islands and atolls that are far removed from 688 689 direct human impacts. However, many coral reefs today are impacted by local human drivers, such as commercial and recreational fishing and effluent discharge from land (right). 690 Importantly, these proximate drivers of reef ecosystem state are themselves ultimately dictated 691 692 by a complex network of underlying socioeconomic and cultural drivers (right). The 693 biophysical drivers are still present on Anthropocene reefs, but their relative influence in governing reef ecosystem state is likely greatly reduced. Because of this, we propose the need 694 695 for 'social-ecological macroecology' which embeds macroecology - the study of organismenvironment relationships at large spatial and temporal scales, within a social-ecological 696 systems framework. 697

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