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Ahmed, A., Nimmakayala, J. and Ramesh, A. (2017) Improved ammonium removal from industrial wastewater through systematic adaptation of wild type *Chlorella pyrenoidosa*. *Water Science & Technology*, 75 (1). pp. 182-188. ISSN 0273-1223.

Link to official URL (if available):

<https://doi.org/10.2166/wst.2016.507>

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1 **Improved Ammonium Removal from Industrial Wastewater through**
2 **Systematic Adaptation of wild type *Chlorella pyrenoidosa***

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8 **Abstract**

9 A single step process for ammonium removal from nitrogenous industrial effluents
10 with a concomitant generation of algal biomass, which can be used for producing
11 biofuels and other value added products is proposed. A microalgal strain found in the
12 effluent treatment plant of a fertilizer industry in Mumbai, India was systematically
13 adapted to remove up to 700 ppm of ammoniacal nitrogen from industrial wastewater,
14 which is nearly four times higher than the ammonium tolerance reported in the
15 literature as well as other algal strains tested in our laboratory. 18S rRNA sequencing
16 revealed the strain to be *Chlorella pyrenoidosa*. Effects of process parameters such as
17 pH, temperature and light intensity on cell growth and ammonium removal by the
18 adapted cells were studied. Optimal conditions were found to be pH of 9, temperature
19 of 30°C and a light intensity of 3500 Lux for the adapted cells.

20 **Keywords**

21 Nitrogenous wastewater treatment, Microalgae, Ammonium removal, *Chlorella*
22 *pyrenoidosa*, Fertilizer industry effluent

23 1. Introduction

24 The fertilizer industry generates large amounts of wastewater containing high
25 amounts of nitrogen in the form of ammonium or nitrate. Other industries related to
26 tannery, explosives and metal finishing also generate nitrogenous wastewater.
27 Discharging nitrogenous effluents into water bodies can cause eutrophication, and
28 can impact health by causing diseases such as methaemoglobinaemia, also known as
29 blue baby syndrome (Vitousek, Aber, et al., 1997). Therefore, it is essential to
30 remove nitrogen before discharging the effluent in the environment.

31 Conventional treatment of ammoniacal nitrogen is a two-step process: nitrification or
32 oxidation followed by biological denitrification or reduction. During nitrification,
33 ammonia is oxidized to nitrate which requires high amount of oxygen. The effluent
34 from this step is then denitrified via an anoxic process wherein nitrate is reduced to
35 nitrogen gas in a series of reactions (Kuba, Van Loosdrecht, et al., 1997; Park,
36 Craggs, et al., 2011; Yoo, Ahn, et al., 1999). The reduction step requires addition of
37 organic carbon source, if not present in the effluent. Therefore, the major factors
38 contributing to the cost of the overall process are (i) energy requirement for aeration
39 in nitrification and (ii) cost of organic carbon source in biological denitrification.
40 Moreover, the denitrification process produces CO₂, which is a greenhouse gas.

41 The use of microalgae to treat nitrogenous wastewater can significantly improve
42 process economics by eliminating the aeration and carbon source costs and by
43 generating useful biomass which can subsequently be converted to biofuels or value
44 added products (Shyam Kumar and Saramma, 2012; Wang and Lan, 2011; Chen,
45 Pan, et al., 2012; Hoa Binh aus Hanoi, 2013; Singh, Nigam, et al., 2011b; Singh,
46 Nigam, et al., 2011a; John, Anisha, et al., 2011; Pittman, Dean, et al., 2011). As
47 microalgae are autotrophs capable of using carbon dioxide as the primary carbon

48 source, flue gases containing CO₂ can also potentially be incorporated into the
49 process(Woertz, Feffer, et al., 2009).

50 Wastewater from the fertilizer industry contains very high concentrations of
51 ammoniacal nitrogen, NH₄⁺-N (around 1500-2000 ppm). Algal species grow at
52 relatively lower concentrations of ammonium (below 100 ppm) (Abeliovich &
53 Azov, 1976; Markou, Vandamme, & Muylaert, 2014). While ammonium is an
54 excellent source of nitrogen, at higher concentrations it can inhibit cell growth by
55 hampering photosynthesis and carbon metabolism. Ammonia uncouples the electron
56 transport in Photosystem II by breaking down the proton gradient required to drive
57 photophosphorylation (Azov & Goldman, 1982). Azov and Goldman reported a 50%
58 reduction in photo-assimilation of ¹⁴C by various freshwater algae at an ammonia
59 concentration as low as 20 ppm. Park et al. reported a 70% inhibition of cell growth
60 of *Scenedesmus* sp. at ammonium concentrations above 100 ppm (Park, Jin, et al.,
61 2010). Markou et al tested the effects of various levels of ammonia on *Arthospira*
62 and *Chlorella* and found that ammonia had multiple effects on the photosynthetic
63 apparatus of both algae including photosystems I and II, electron transport chain as
64 well as the oxygen evolution complexes (Markou, Depraetere, et al., 2016).
65 Experiments with cyanobacterium *Synechocystis* sp treated with varying
66 concentrations of NH₄Cl also indicated a PS II photo-inhibition (Synechocystis, Oa,
67 et al., 2008). Most of the studies using microalgae have used wastewater with
68 relatively low concentrations of ammoniacal nitrogen, in the range of 20-100 ppm
69 (Ruiz-Marin, Mendoza-Espinosa, et al., 2010; Lincoln E.P., Wilke, A.C., French,
70 1996; Ogbonna, Yoshizawa, et al., 2000). Therefore, in order to use microalgae for
71 removing high concentrations of ammoniacal nitrogen, either genetic modification or
72 acclimatization of the cells to high ammonium levels is required (Collos and

73 Harrison, 2014). A recent study with “ammonium-rich” synthetic wastewater was
74 carried out with up to 150 ppm of NH_4Cl . The authors proposed a three-stage
75 process with varying ratios of NH_4^+ -N and organic loads in each stage for effective
76 removal of ammonium using an indigenous algal strain (Wang, Zhou, et al., 2016).

77 In our lab, we have isolated a microalgal species from a water source close to the
78 effluent treatment plant of a fertilizer industry and adapted the cells to high levels of
79 ammonium. These cells showed much higher tolerance to ammoniacal-nitrogen (up
80 to 700 ppm) compared to other species tested in our lab as well as those reported in
81 the literature. We also evaluated three critical process parameters, namely pH,
82 temperature and light intensity for their effect on cell growth as well as ammonium
83 removal. Temperature and pH are known to impact the ammonia-ammonium
84 equilibrium in the wastewater as well as the ammonium metabolism in cells (Chen,
85 Pan, et al., 2012). Effect of light/dark cycles has also been studied on cell growth
86 and nitrogen removal by *Chlorella kessleri* and it was found that continuous
87 illumination resulted in better nitrogen removal compared to when light/dark cycles
88 were used (Lee and Lee, 2001). Furthermore, light intensity was also found to
89 impact the toxicity of ammonia in recent studies (Markou, Depraetere, et al., 2016).
90 This also agrees with our findings as will be discussed later.

91 The work presented here focuses on (1) adaptation of the selected microalgal strain
92 to high levels of ammonium and (2) optimizing the process for cell growth and
93 ammonium removal. A process developed using these cells can be used to treat
94 industrial nitrogenous wastewater and subsequently utilize the algal biomass
95 generated to produce biofuels and value added products.

96 2. Methods

97 2.1 Culture medium and wastewater samples

98 Nitrogenous wastewater effluent was procured from the Rashtriya Chemicals and
99 Fertilizers (RCF), Mumbai, India. This will henceforth be referred to as 'RCF
100 effluent'. The effluent contained approximately 1800 ppm of ammoniacal
101 nitrogen. For each experiment, the RCF effluent was diluted to obtain the desired
102 ammonium content, after which 16.8 g/l NaHCO₃ and 0.5 g/l of K₂HPO₄ were
103 added as carbon, phosphorous and potassium sources. Process optimization
104 studies were carried out using synthetic medium, which was a modified version
105 of Zarrouk's medium (Gami, Naik, et al., 2011), after comparability was
106 established with RCF effluent.

107 Synthetic medium was prepared by replacing salts containing nitrogen and with
108 ammonium chloride to obtain a final ammonium concentration comparable to
109 that in RCF effluent. The composition of the synthetic medium was: 16.8 g/l
110 NaHCO₃, 0.5 g/l K₂HPO₄, 1 g/l K₂SO₄, 1 g/l NaCl, 0.2 g/l MgSO₄.7H₂O, 0.04 g/l
111 CaCl₂.2H₂O, 0.01 g/l FeSO₄.7H₂O. 1ml of micronutrient solution is added to 1
112 litre of the media. The composition of the Micronutrient stock solution was 286
113 mg/ml H₃BO₃, 18 mg/ml MnCl₂.4H₂O, 22 mg/ml ZnSO₄.7H₂O, 39 mg/ml
114 Na₂MoO₄.2H₂O, and 8 mg/ml CuSO₄.5H₂O.

115 2.2 Microorganisms

116 Two types of cultures were tested for the ability to grow in wastewater
117 containing ammoniacal nitrogen: (1) Pure cultures of *Chlorella vulgaris*,
118 *Botryococcus braunii*, *Scenedesmus acuminatus* and *Arthospira platensis*
119 procured from SAG cultures, Germany and (2) Sample obtained from the

120 effluent treatment plant of RCF, Mumbai, India. This sample was suspended in
121 Zarrouk's medium initially, and once growth was observed visibly, the cells
122 were passaged to RCF effluent.

123 2.3 Identification of Microorganisms obtained from the pond near RCF effluent 124 treatment plant

125 The algal sample from the effluent treatment plant of RCF, Mumbai, India was
126 sent to Chromous Biotech Pvt. Ltd. for identification of the microorganism to its
127 nearest species using the following steps: (i) The isolation of genomic DNA from
128 the sample (ii) Amplification of DNA using high-fidelity PCR Polymerase (iii)
129 Sequencing of the PCR product bi-directionally and (iv) Analysis of sequence
130 data to identify the culture and its closest neighbours. As per the report the
131 sample was found to be closest to the *Chlorella pyrenoidosa* gene for the 18S
132 rRNA partial sequence.

133 2.4 Biomass measurement and growth rate calculation

134 Five independent experiments were carried out to obtain a correlation between
135 Optical Density (OD) of the culture broth at 600nm and dry cell weight. In each
136 experiment, samples of different biomass concentrations were diluted to various
137 values of OD. The OD₆₀₀ was then recorded using a UV-Visible
138 Spectrophotometer (Hitachi, U-2900) and the samples were dried and weighed.
139 The values of OD and dry weight were then plotted to obtain a straight line
140 ($R^2 > 0.97$). The average correlation obtained from all five experiments was $1\text{OD} =$
141 0.47 ± 0.047 g/l. Subsequently, cell growth was measured using OD₆₀₀ daily,
142 keeping the OD values between 0.2 and 0.9 by appropriate dilutions.

143 Maximum growth rate (μ_{\max}) was calculated by plotting $\ln(X/X_0)$ versus time in
144 days and then measuring the slope of the linear portion, where X_0 is the initial
145 biomass concentration, and X is the biomass concentration at different time
146 points.

147 2.5 Ammonium estimation

148 Ammonium estimation in the culture medium was carried out using Nessler's
149 reagent. The protocol used for estimating the ammonium content is applicable to a
150 range of 0-30 ppm of ammonium as per the standard curve obtained. As per the
151 protocol, 0.5 mL of the sample was taken in a test tube after centrifugation to
152 avoid any solid particulate matter. 1mL of freshly prepared 10% sodium potassium
153 tartarate and 0.25 mL of Nessler's reagent were added to the test tube. The test
154 tubes were vortexed vigorously to ensure thorough mixing and then incubated at
155 room temperature for 30 minutes. The OD measurements were then carried out at
156 410 nm for the sample and the concentration of ammonium was correspondingly
157 determined from the standard curve.

158

159 2.6 Evaluation of process parameters

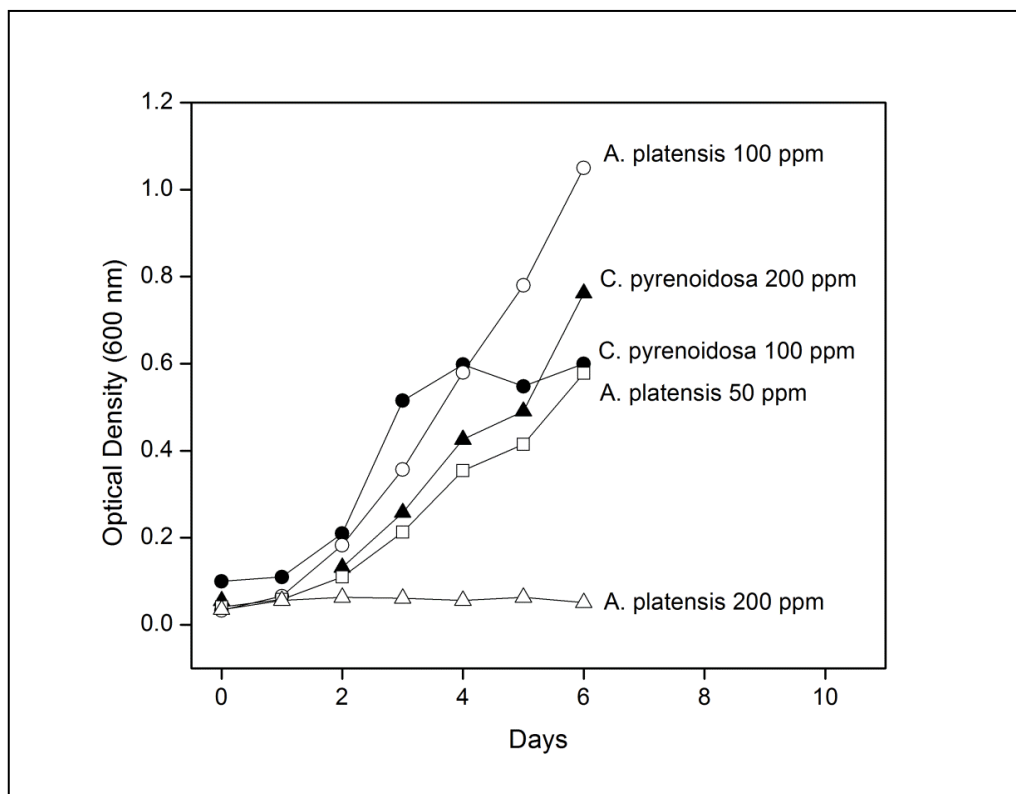
160 All experiments were carried out in 250 ml conical flasks containing 100 ml of
161 medium. Adaptation studies were carried out using RCF effluent initially and
162 once comparability was established between the effluent and the synthetic
163 medium, the latter was used for subsequent studies. Cells from a well-grown flask
164 were centrifuged and suspended into fresh medium at the desired OD value. pH
165 was maintained by sparging with CO₂ every day after measuring the pH. The
166 flasks were sampled daily for measuring cell growth and at regular intervals to
167 measure ammonium using the methods described above. Culture pH was
168 measured using a pH meter (Systronics pH system 362) and light intensity was
169 measured using a Lux meter (HTC). For the temperature studies alone, the flasks
170 were incubated in a water bath while the flasks at room temperature were kept on
171 a tissue culture rack fitted with tube lights.

172 3. Results and Discussion

173 3.1 Screening and selection of algal strain

174 Pure cultures of *B. braunii* and *S. acuminatus* were grown in Bold's Basal
175 Medium (Al-hothaly, Mouradov, et al., 2015) and *C. vulgaris*, *A. platensis* and
176 wild type *C. pyrenoidosa* (from RCF) were grown in Zarrouk's medium initially.
177 Once the cells reached an OD of around 1.0, all the cultures were transferred to
178 RCF effluent diluted to contain 100 ppm of ammonium. Except for *A. platensis*
179 and *C. pyrenoidosa* none of the other strains were able to grow at this
180 concentration of ammonium. Therefore only these two strains were taken forward
181 for subsequent experiments.

182 Figure 1 shows the cell growth profiles of *A. platensis* and *C. pyrenoidosa* at
 183 different ammonium levels. Increasing levels of ammonium resulted in growth
 184 inhibition in both cases although the extent of inhibition was different. Another
 185 experiment was also carried out for *A. platensis* in 50 ppm of ammonium. A 50%
 186 inhibition in cell growth was observed in *A. platensis* between 50 and 100 ppm of
 187 ammonium and the cells could not grow at all in 200 ppm. This is also in line with
 188 the findings of Giorgos et al (Markou, Vandamme, et al., 2014) that *A. platensis*
 189 undergoes inhibition at ammoniacal nitrogen concentrations above 150 ppm.
 190 Belkin and Boussiba (1991) found that *A. platensis* undergoes 50% inhibition in
 191 cell growth at a total ammoniacal nitrogen concentration of 140 ppm (Belkin and
 192 Boussiba, 1991).



193
 194 Figure 1. Effect of ammonium concentration on cell growth of *A. platensis* and *C. pyrenoidosa*.

195

196 In case of *C. pyrenoidosa* the effect of ammonium was not as drastic. Although
197 there was a growth inhibition at 200 ppm compared to 100 ppm, the cells were still
198 able to grow and reached the same OD two days later. The literature reports
199 studies carried out with much lower concentrations (20-30 ppm) of ammonium
200 using *Chlorella sp.* (Kim, Lingaraju, et al., 2010; Woertz, Feffer, et al., 2009).

201 Based on its ability to tolerate much higher concentrations of ammonium
202 compared to what is reported in the literature and the results from our lab, *C.*
203 *pyrenoidosa* was selected as the algal species for the adaptation studies.

204 3.2 Adaptation to ammoniacal nitrogen

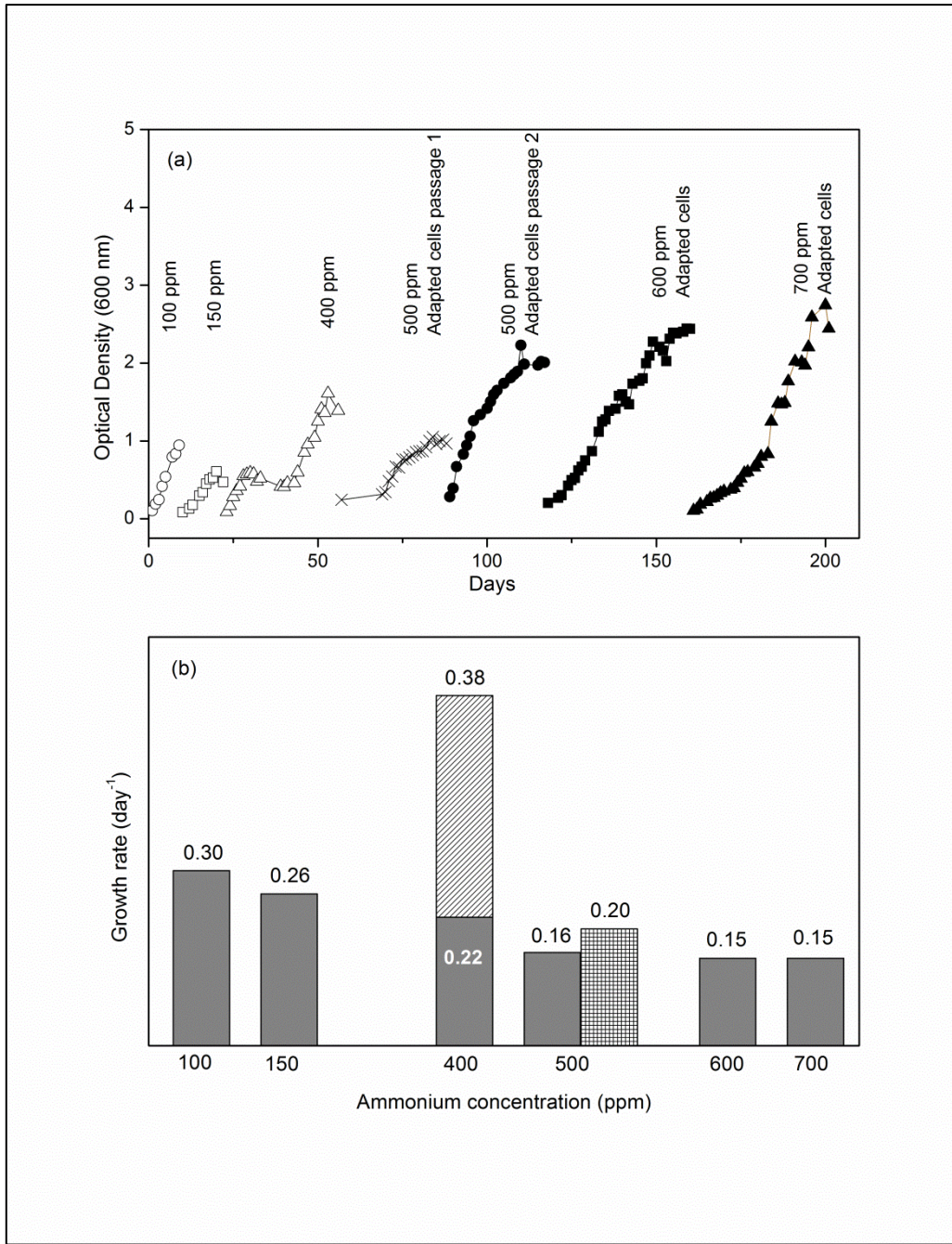
205 Preliminary studies showed that cell growth of *C. pyrenoidosa* was severely
206 inhibited at ammonium concentrations beyond 200 ppm. To overcome this, cells
207 were adapted sequentially to increasing concentrations of ammonium. Cells were
208 initially grown in RCF effluent at 100 ppm of ammonium. As shown in figure 2a,
209 the OD of cells increased from 0.1 to 0.95 over a period of nine days. When these
210 cells were inoculated in RCF effluent containing 150 ppm, cell growth slowed
211 down and the maximum OD achieved was only 0.6. Cells from 150 ppm
212 ammonium concentration were then taken to 400 ppm ammonium and allowed a
213 prolonged exposure at this concentration. While the OD tapered off at about 0.5
214 initially, the cells eventually adapted and began to grow again after 20 days. The
215 final OD reached was about 1.5.

216 These cells were then inoculated into RCF effluent containing 500 ppm of
217 ammonium. In this experiment, much better cell growth was observed and the OD
218 reached about 1.0 in 15 days. These cells were passaged one more time at 500
219 ppm ammonium.

220 The growth profile further improved and an OD of 1.5 was achieved within 13
221 days. However, at even higher concentrations (600 and 700 ppm), growth
222 inhibition was observed resulting in a 7-day delay in reaching an OD of 1.5 with
223 each 100 ppm increase in ammonium concentration. Interestingly, the maximum
224 OD achieved by cells increased with increasing ammonium concentration. This
225 also shows that the cells seem to have adapted to ammonium and have developed
226 increased tolerance and ability to metabolize ammonium.

227 Figure 2b shows the maximum growth rate of cells at different ammonium levels.
228 As expected the growth rate decreased with increasing ammonium concentration.

229 Prolonged exposure to higher levels of ammonium seemed to help the cells
230 acclimatize which can be seen by the increased growth rate in the second phase of
231 growth observed at 400 ppm. Similarly, when cells were passaged a second time in
232 500 ppm of ammonium, the growth rate was found to increase slightly. The final
233 growth rate at 700 ppm was about half of that seen at 00 ppm, although the final
234 OD was significantly higher at 700 ppm.



235

236

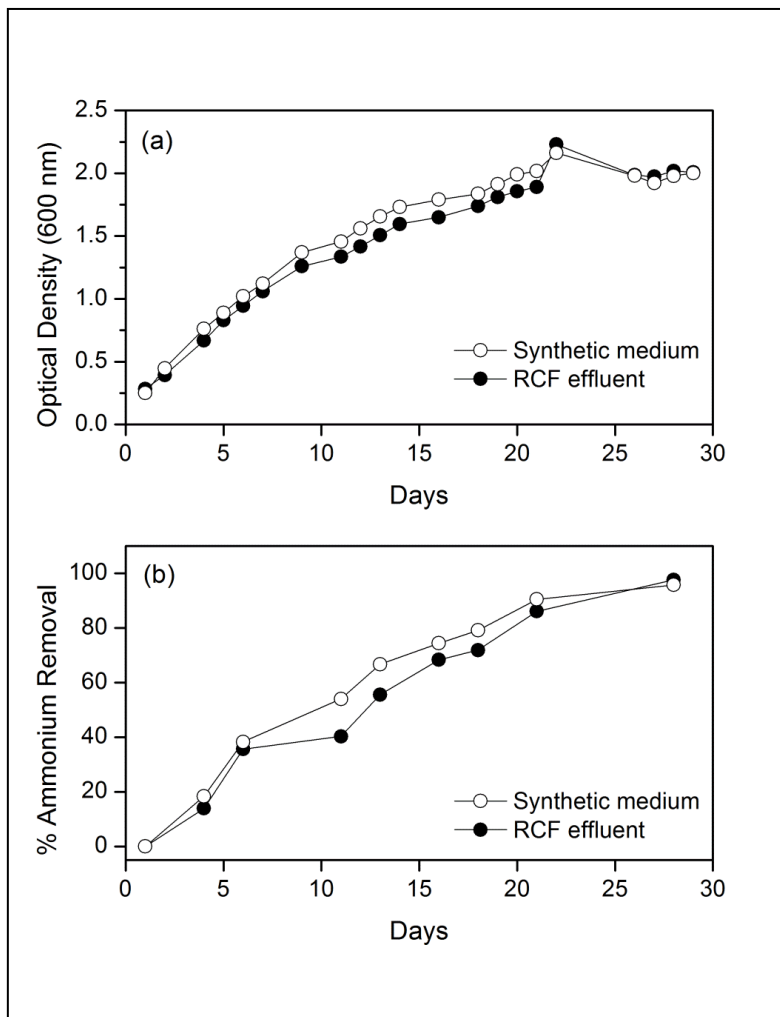
237

238

Figure 2a. Adaptation study: cell growth profiles at increasing concentrations of ammonium.
 Figure 2b. Effect of ammonium concentration and adaptation to ammonium on maximum growth rate of *C. pyrenoidosa*

239 3.3 Comparison between RCF effluent and synthetic medium

240 A comparability study was carried out between RCF effluent and synthetically
241 prepared Zarrouk's medium which was modified to remove the existing nitrogen
242 sources and supplemented with ammonium chloride. Both media contained
243 approximately 600 ppm of ammonium at the beginning of the experiment. Cell
244 growth and ammonium removal were monitored with time and comparable
245 profiles were obtained in both cases as shown in figure 3. Synthetic medium was
246 therefore used for subsequent studies with pH, temperature and light intensity
247 optimization.



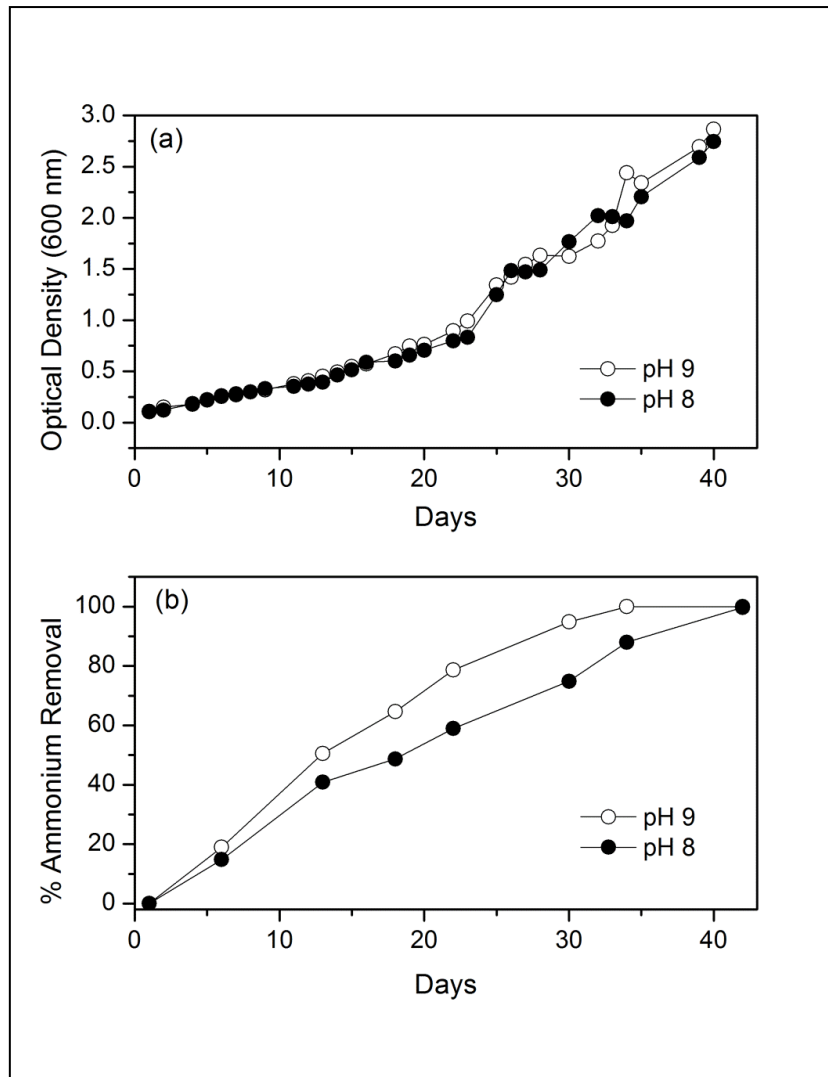
248

249 Figure 3. Cell growth and ammonium removal profiles with synthetic medium and RCF
250 effluent.

251

252 3.4 Effect of pH

253 The culture pH naturally increases with time due to photosynthesis. However, it
254 was seen that allowing the pH to increase inhibited cell growth beyond a pH of
255 9.5. Cells did not grow in the absence of pH control. Cell growth profiles were
256 similar when the pH was controlled at 8 and at 9. However, adjusting the pH to 9
257 increased the ammonium depletion by about 10-20% compared to when pH was
258 adjusted to 8 as seen in figure 4. As a result, there was nearly a 10-day delay in
259 ammonium depletion at pH 8. This is due to the fact that at lower pH, the
260 ammoniacal nitrogen stays in its protonated form (NH_4^+) and does not strip easily
261 from the medium. At higher pH it is in the free NH_3 form which is easily stripped
262 off (Farrell, Frauson, et al., 2016; Park, Jin, et al., 2010). As the cell growth was
263 not impacted by pH, keeping the ammonium removal in mind, a pH of 9 is better
264 than a pH of 8 for the process.



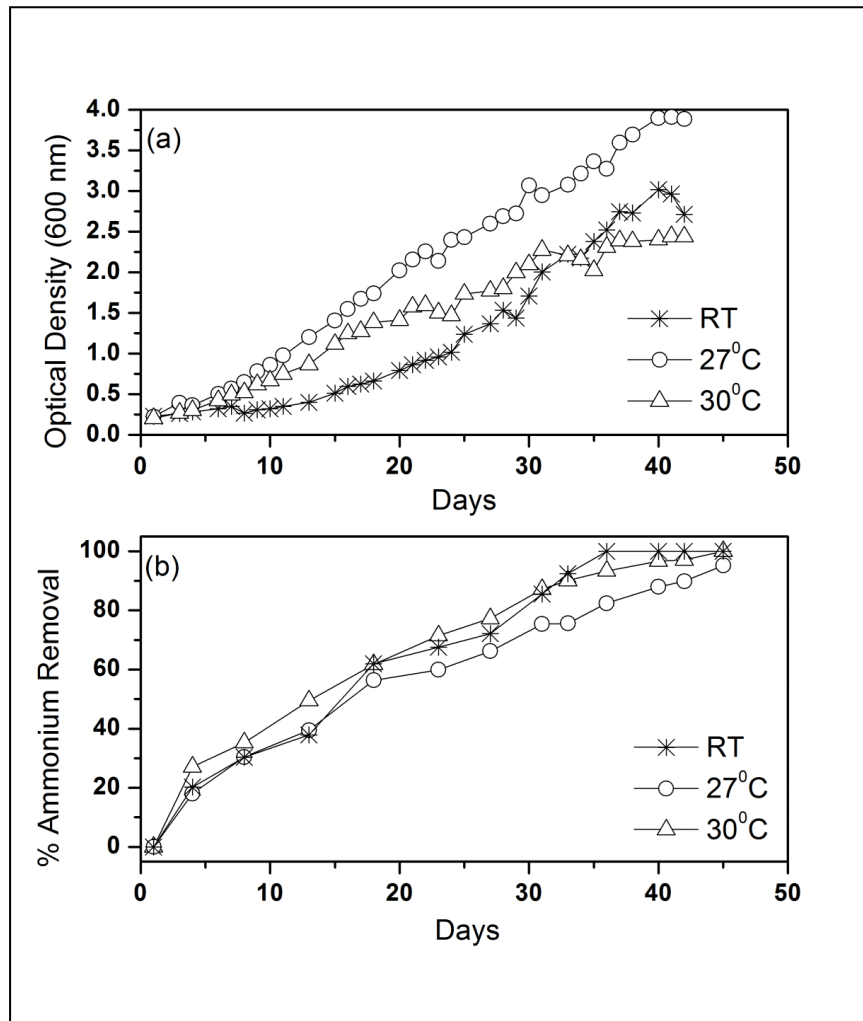
265
 266 Figure 4. Cell growth and ammonium removal profiles at different pH conditions
 267

268 3.5 Effect of temperature

269 Results showed that the optimum temperature for cell growth is 27°C. At 30°C the
 270 initial growth rate was comparable to that at 27°C but the final OD reached was
 271 lower by a factor of around 1.6. Cells grown at room temperature (RT), which
 272 averaged around 25°C had a lower initial growth rate, although the final OD
 273 reached was higher compared to cells grown at 30°C.

274 However ammonium consumption was the highest at room temperature and at
 275 30°C, reaching about 90% by day 33 whereas at 27°C the consumption was only

276 75% as shown in figure 5. The optimum temperature for both growth and
 277 ammonium consumption seems to be 30°C as the end result of the process should
 278 be to remove the ammonium and also obtain a high biomass concentration that can
 279 be utilized for biofuels and value added products.

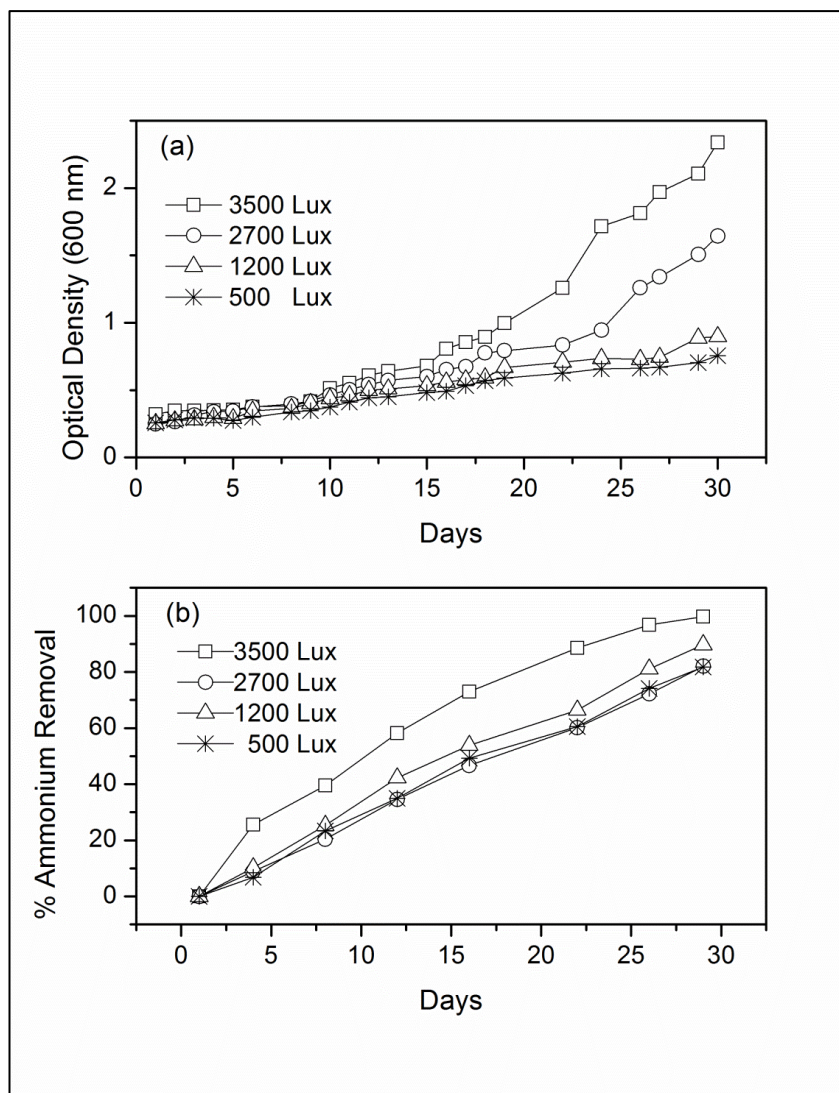


280
 281 Figure 5. Cell growth and ammonium removal profiles at different temperatures

282
 283 3.6 Effect of light intensity

284 Light intensity was varied from 200 to 3500 Lux. Cells did not grow at 200 Lux.
 285 As seen in figure 6, at 500 and 1200 Lux, cell growth was inhibited. Cell growth
 286 was highest at 3500 Lux, followed by 2700 Lux. Ammonium depletion profiles
 287 were similar at 500, 1200 and 2700 Lux. However, at 3500 Lux, ammonium

288 consumption was significantly higher, reaching nearly 100% in about 25 days
289 while the other flasks were still at 70-80% consumption. As expected, increasing
290 the light intensity improved cell growth as well as ammonium consumption. At
291 3500 Lux, it appears that the inhibitory effect of ammonium is reduced and also
292 the assimilation of ammonium seems to be higher as the ammonium depletion was
293 higher from the very beginning, despite the cell growth being similar till day 15 or
294 so in all cases.



295

296 Figure 6. Cell growth and ammonium removal profiles at different light intensities

297 **4. Conclusion**

298 Wild type *C. pyrenoidosa* was successfully adapted to high ammonium levels and was able
299 to remove 700 ppm of ammonium from wastewater within 25 to 30 days. Effects of pH,
300 temperature and light intensity were evaluated on the adapted cells and optimal values were
301 found to be a temperature of 30°C, pH of 9 and light intensity of 3500 Lux. These cells can
302 be used to remove ammonium from industrial effluents and then harvested to produce
303 biofuels and value added products. Future studies will involve characterization of the algal
304 biomass and subsequent conversion of the biomass to value added products based on the
305 composition.

306 **5. Acknowledgements**

307 This study was funded by BITS Pilani under the Centre of Research Excellence (CORE) in
308 Waste, Water and Energy Management scheme. Wastewater effluent used for the studies
309 was kindly supplied by Rashtriya Chemicals and Fertilizers, Mumbai, India. The authors
310 are thankful to Pradip B. Dhamole for initiating the project and Srikanth Mutnuri for help
311 with the genetic characterization of the algal sample.

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Figure Captions

420 Figure 1. Effect of ammonium concentration on cell growth of *A. platensis* and *C.*
421 *pyrenoidosa*.

422 Figure 2a. Adaptation study: cell growth profiles at increasing concentrations of
423 ammonium. Figure 2b. Effect of ammonium concentration and adaptation to
424 ammonium on maximum growth rate of *C. pyrenoidosa*

425 Figure 3. Cell growth and ammonium removal profiles with synthetic medium and RCF
426 effluent.

427 Figure 4. Cell growth and ammonium removal profiles at different pH conditions

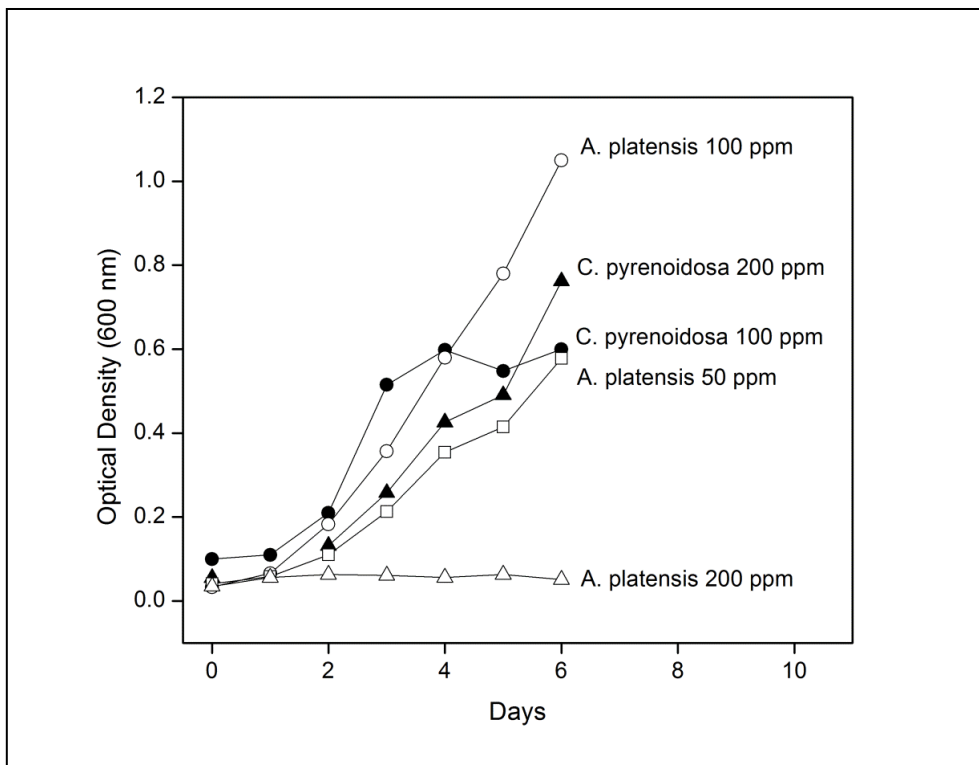
428 Figure 5. Cell growth and ammonium removal profiles at different temperatures

429 Figure 6. Cell growth and ammonium removal profiles at different light intensities

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Figures



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Figure 1. Effect of ammonium concentration on cell growth of *A. platensis* and *C. pyrenoidosa*.

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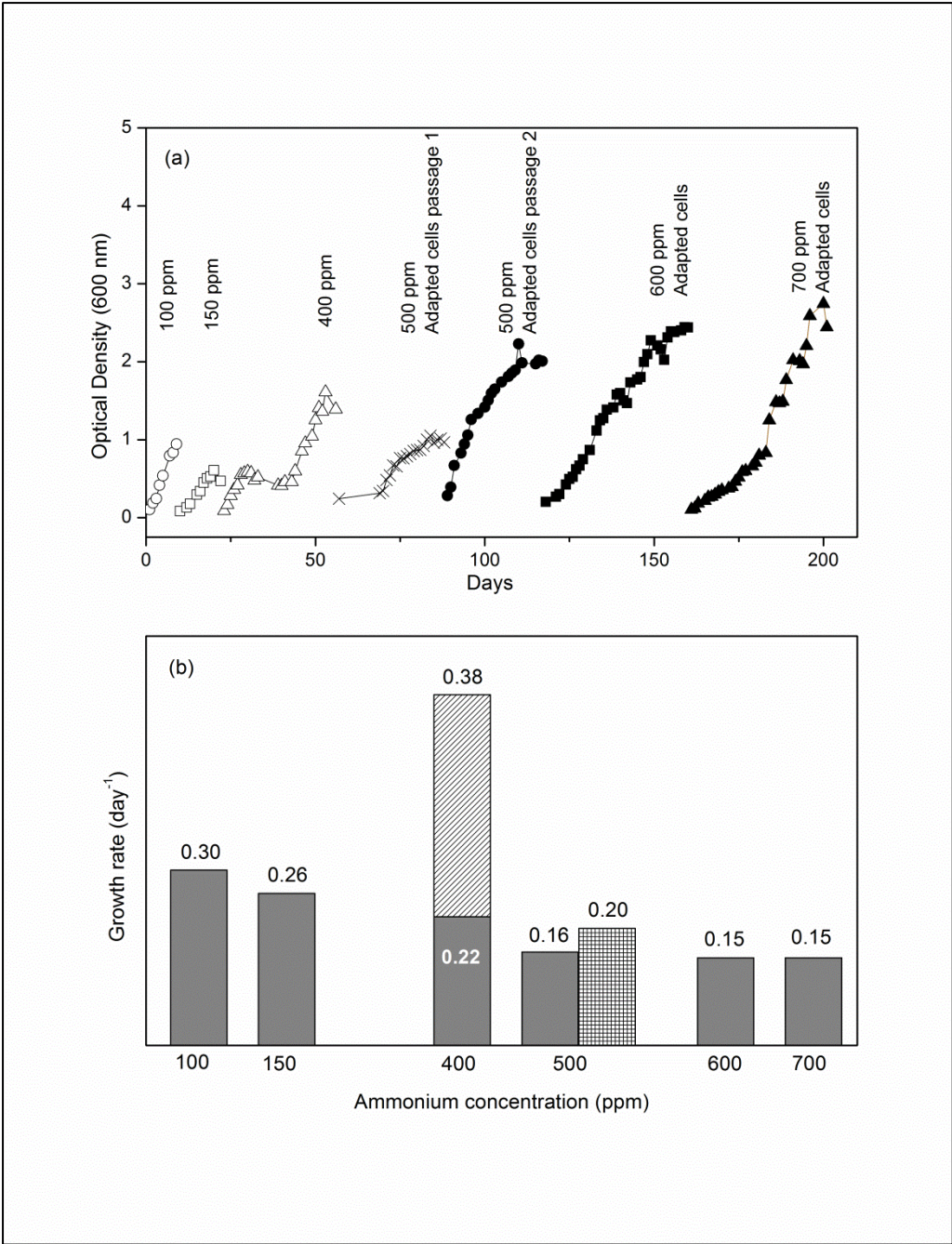
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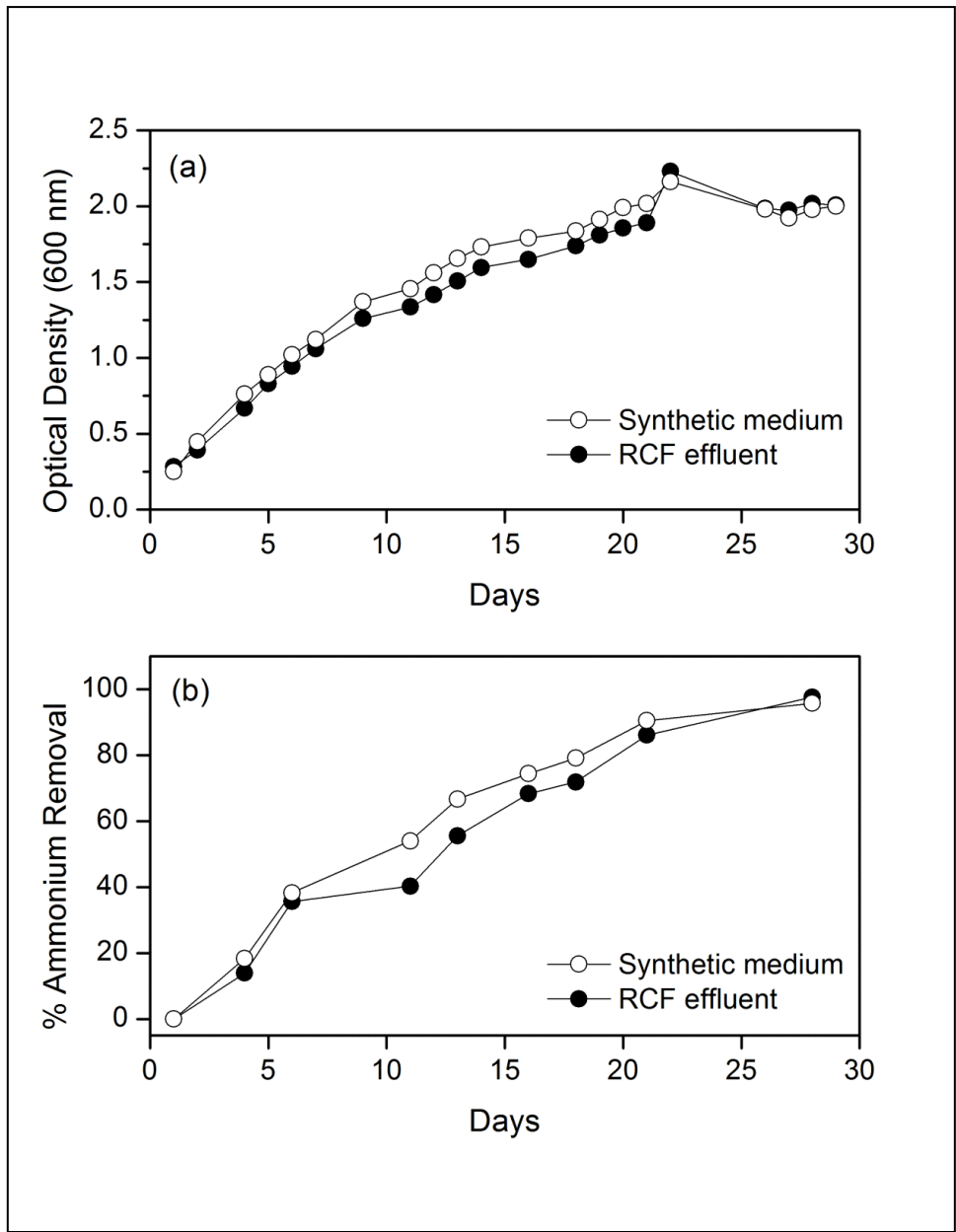
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445 Figure 2a. Adaptation study: cell growth profiles at increasing concentrations of
 446 ammonium

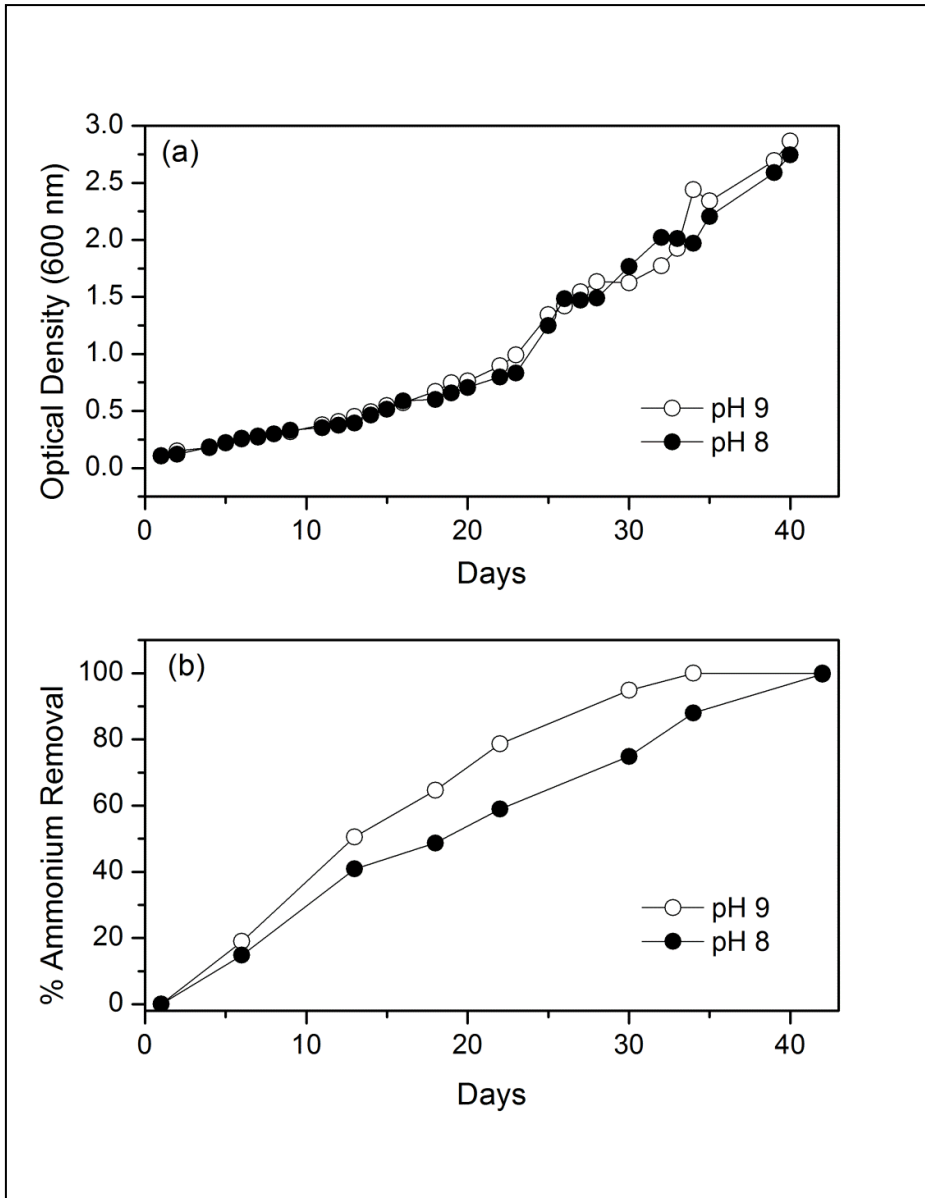
447 Figure 2b. Effect of ammonium concentration and adaptation to ammonium on
 448 maximum growth rate of *C. pyrenoidosa*



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450 Figure 3. Cell growth and ammonium removal profiles for cells growth in synthetic medium
 451 and RCF effluent.

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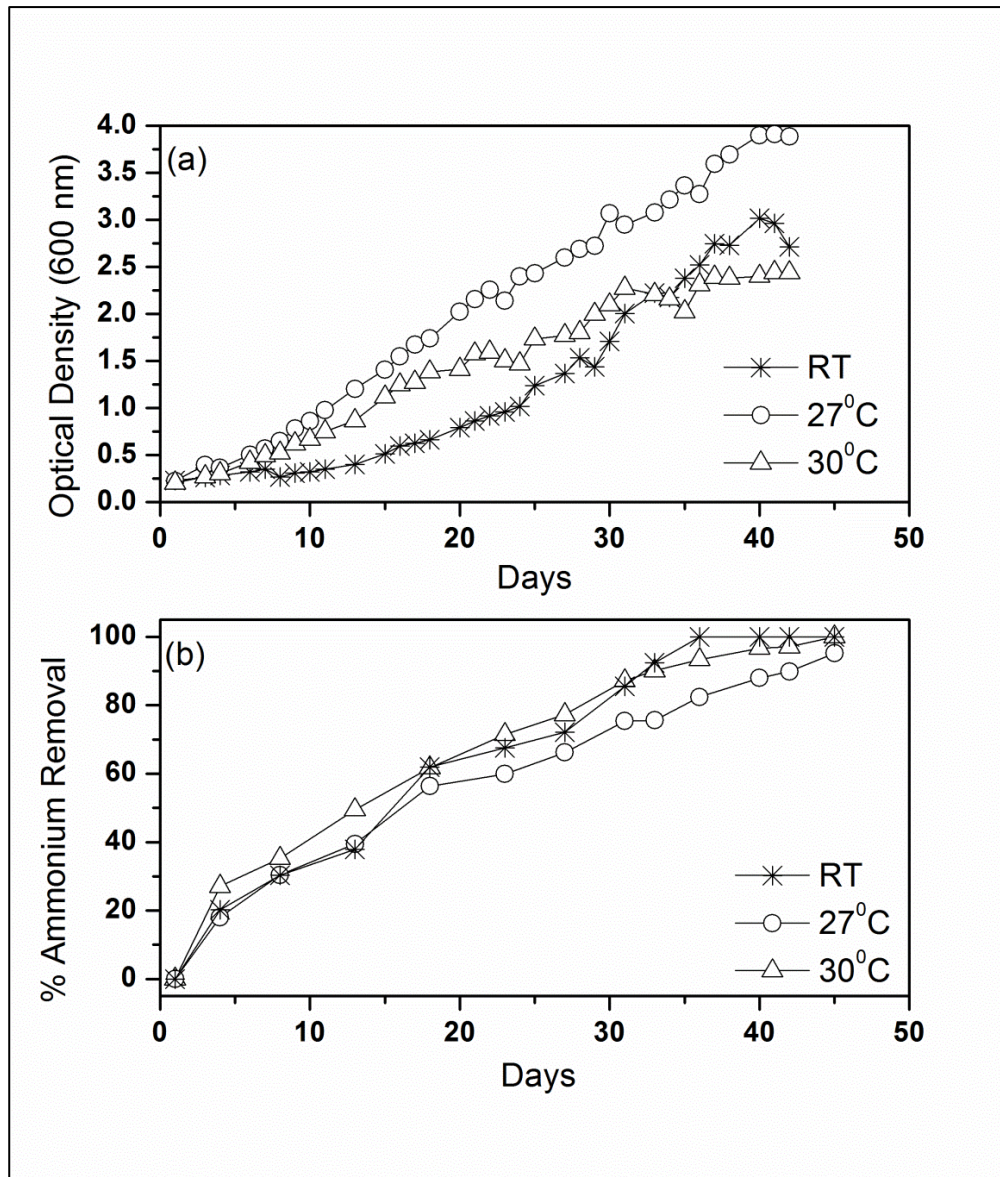
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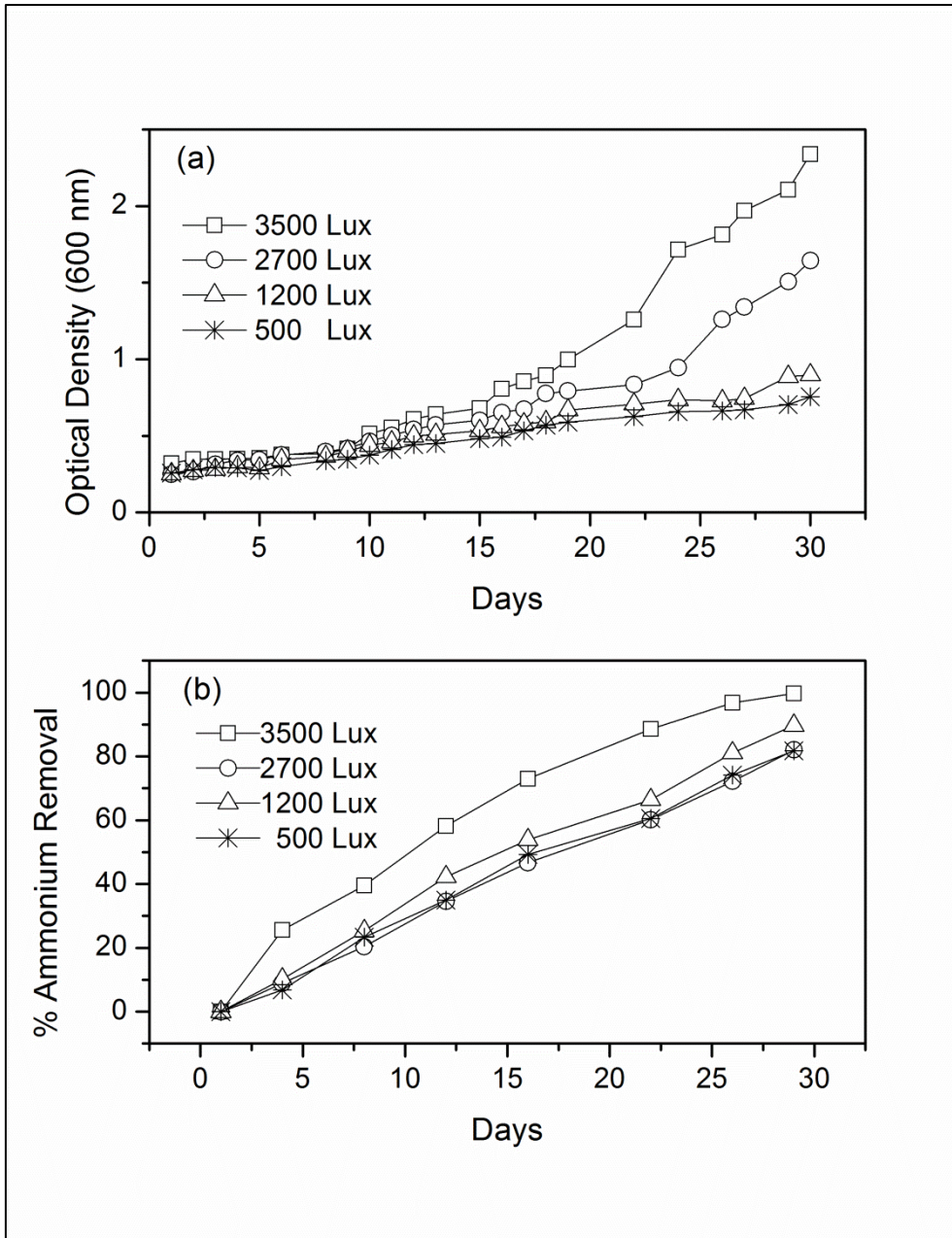
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464 Figure 5. Cell growth and ammonium removal profiles at different temperatures

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469 Figure 6. Cell growth and ammonium removal profiles at different light
 470 intensities

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