

1 **Mussel-inspired silver-nanoparticle coating on porous titanium surfaces to**
2 **promote mineralization**

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20 *nanoparticles*

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26

27 **Abstract**

28

29 **Objectives:** *Biomaterials with high porosity for bone ingrowth facilitate the osseointegration*
30 *of implants. However, this porosity structure is also favorable for bacterial colonization and*
31 *biofilm formation, and hampers mineralization on implant surfaces. The objective of the study*
32 *was to establish an antibacterial porous surface on titanium implants.*

33

34 **Material and methods:** *A uniform, 3-dimensional, microporous structure was prepared by*
35 *alkaline treatment on a titanium implant surface. Subsequently, the surface was treated with*
36 *dopamine and silver nanoparticles by dopamine and silver nitrate solutions. Physicochemical*
37 *properties were determined by SEM, EDS, XPS, and water contact angle tests. The*
38 *antibacterial and mineralization properties of the modified titanium were evaluated in vitro.*

39

40 **Results:** *The results confirmed that the surface had been successfully coated with dopamine*
41 *and silver nanoparticles. A mineralized layer formed on the surface after 1 week in a*
42 *calcification solution. Antimicrobial tests showed that the titanium implant with this surface*
43 *structure inhibited the bacterial growth and biofilm formation of Escherichia coli,*
44 *Staphylococcus aureus, and Streptococcus mutans.*

45

46 **Conclusions:** *An antibacterial porous surface was established on a titanium implant. This*
47 *surface structure can enhance mineralization on porous titanium implants. This technique to*
48 *prevent bacterial colonization and promote mineralization has great potential for clinical*
49 *application in implants in orthopedics and dentistry.*

50

51

52 **Introduction**

53 Titanium and its alloys have been used extensively as implants in orthopedic and dental
54 applications because of their specific combination of outstanding properties, such as excellent
55 biocompatibility, high strength, good fatigue resistance and corrosion resistance (Zhao et al.
56 2009). However, bacteria that cause prosthetic joint and dental implant infections grow in
57 highly structured biofilms (i.e., sessile communities of microorganisms adhering to the
58 biomaterial embedded in a matrix of an extracellular polymeric substance that they produced)
59 (Costerton 2005; Paquette et al. 2006). This protective environment enables bacteria to escape
60 the host's defenses and antibiotic attacks. Moreover, the increased competence suggested for
61 biofilm-embedded bacteria—which results in a higher degree of horizontal transfer of genes,
62 including antibiotic resistance markers and the occurrence of persister cells—might further
63 enhance biofilm-related antibiotic resistance (Darouiche 2004; Hetrick & Schoenfisch 2006).
64 As a consequence, antibiotic treatment is often insufficient to eradicate biofilm-related implant
65 infections, leading to potentially life-threatening systemic infections, tissue injury, device
66 malfunction, and ultimately, a need to remove the implant. Biomaterial surfaces that are less
67 prone to bacterial adherence and colonization have helped researchers make serious progress
68 in reducing infection rates over the last few decades (Arciola et al. 2005). Surface modification
69 with antibiotics and antimicrobial agents is an efficient way to reduce the risk of bacterial
70 infection and biofilm formation, such as with gentamicin, vancomycin, and chlorhexidine
71 (Antoci et al. 2008; Popat et al. 2007).

72

73 The use of silver has received increasing attention due to its lasting antibacterial effect
74 against a very broad antimicrobial spectrum of bacterial and fungal species, including
75 antibiotic-resistant strains, which have become a major public health concern (Fullenkamp et
76 al. 2012). Silver had always been thought to be a promising alternative antibacterial agent
77 (Marambio-Jones & Hoek 2010). However, silver can stain dental tissue black due to the
78 oxidation process of ionic silver (Rosenblatt et al. 2009), as can silver diamine fluoride and
79 amalgam, which has hindered its widespread use. Recently, silver nanoparticles (AgNPs) have
80 drawn considerable attention because they have good color stability and large, active surface

81 areas, apart from broad spectrum antibacterial activity and the small possibility of resistant
82 strains developing (Cao et al. 2011; Furuzono et al. 2013; Santos et al. 2014; Zheng et al. 2012).
83 Biomaterials that contain AgNPs have been exhaustively investigated for the development of
84 catheters, dental materials, orthopedic implants, and wound and burn dressings (Necula et al.
85 2012). To obtain satisfactory surfaces containing AgNPs, many methods have been performed
86 to introduce silver on surfaces, such as plasma immersion ion implantation (Zhang et al. 2008),
87 pulsed filtered cathodic vacuum arc deposition (Ewald et al. 2006), physical vapor deposition
88 (Antad et al. 2014), and so on. Nevertheless, the major drawbacks to the methods mentioned
89 above are their poor AgNP/material adhesion and the difficulty in controlling AgNPs' size
90 (Esfandiari et al. 2014; Wang et al. 2015; Xie et al. 2014). Additionally, the special equipment
91 required, the large amounts of energy consumed, and/or the complicated multistep procedures
92 involved also have limited further applications. Given these problems, a meaningful approach
93 would be to develop a simple and versatile strategy for surface modification with AgNPs.
94 Smaller AgNPs with large surface areas can exhibit better antimicrobial activity than larger
95 AgNPs, but the agglomeration of the AgNPs with small sizes is an important consideration and
96 could result in a quick loss of antibacterial activity (Baker et al. 2005; Panáček et al. 2006).
97 Many researchers have proposed that the aggregation state of immobilized nanoparticles on a
98 rough surface could degrade (Mohammad et al. 2008).

99

100 Dopamine, a mussel-inspired biomolecule, contains unusually high concentrations of
101 catechol and amine groups. The catechol side chain of dopamine readily oxidizes to form
102 reactive species that can further undergo Michael-type additions or Schiff-base formations with
103 nucleophiles and radical coupling with other catechols or amines (Waite 1987). Thus, dopamine
104 offers a simple method of coating various organic and inorganic substrates (Chen et al. 2015;
105 Fullenkamp et al. 2012; GhavamiNejad et al. 2015). Another interesting feature is that
106 dopamine, as a reducing and stabilizing agent, can reduce Au(III) or Ag(I) metal ions to form
107 noble metal nanoparticles via catechol oxidation without the need for any toxic components,
108 leading to in situ formation of AgNPs on the dopamine-modified surface (Fei et al. 2014; Luo
109 et al. 2015). In addition, dopamine could promote cell adhesion, exhibit good biocompatibility
110 (Hu et al. 2010), and induce mineralization (Zhou et al. 2012), which are of particular interest

111 in dental and orthopedic implantology for engineering surfaces with the ability to improve
112 osseointegration.

113

114 Porous Ti structures or coatings are of special interest because they enable bone
115 ingrowth into the porous structure, thus establishing a biological anchorage for the implant in
116 the host bone. Osseointegration is strongly dependent on the structural characteristics of the
117 surface, such as total open porosity and pore size. Porous structures with high porosity allow
118 more bone ingrowth to support improved anchorage with the surrounding bone (Ryan et al.
119 2006), but the resulting large surface area renders the implant extremely susceptible to bacterial
120 colonization and subsequent biofilm formation. Therefore, there is particular interest in dental
121 and orthopedic implantology in designing surfaces that combine both the ability to improve
122 osseointegration and simultaneously reduce infection risk.

123

124 The aim of the present study is to build a porous titanium surface carrying dopamine
125 and uniformly distributed small AgNPs and then to evaluate whether this surface is able to
126 exhibit antimicrobial activity and enhanced mineralization. For this, the porous titanium
127 surface obtained by alkaline treatment was modified with dopamine using the dip-coating
128 technique; then, AgNPs were coated onto the dopamine-modified surface in situ by reduction
129 reaction between Ag(I) ions and dopamine. Finally, the antibacterial and mineralization
130 properties of the modified titanium were evaluated in vitro. This method could have
131 implications for dental- and orthopedic-related areas, because the efficient antibacterial activity
132 and the high bioactivity of implant surfaces could be constructed by a simple method.

133

134 **Materials and methods**

135 *Preparation and characterization of a multifunctional coating with dopamine and silver* 136 *nanoparticles*

137 Titanium discs were polished into a reflective, mirror-like surface. The discs were
138 ultrasonically cleaned first in a detergent solution, then in acetone, ethanol and finally
139 deionized water. After soaking in a 5 M NaOH solution at 60 °C for 48 h, the cleaned specimens

140 were soaked in deionized water at 80 °C for 8 h and were then denoted as **TiOH**. The specimens
141 were immersed in a 2 mg/mL solution of dopamine (10 mM Tris buffer, pH 8.5) for about 24
142 h at room temperature in the dark. Then, the samples were sonicated for 10 min in deionized
143 water (3 times) to remove the nonattached dopamine; these samples are denoted as **Ti-O-DA**.
144 Then, 100 mg of silver nitrate (AgNO_3) was dissolved in deionized water (10 ml, adjust pH to
145 10 with NaOH). The dopamine-modified samples were then placed in a 24-well plate and
146 incubated with a 600 μl AgNO_3 solution in an orbital shaker incubator at 80 rpm and 37 °C for
147 24 hours. Then, the samples were rinsed vigorously for 10 min in deionized water and dried in
148 a vacuum for further use; the samples are denoted as **Ti-O-DA-Ag**.

149

150 The surface topography of all of the samples was investigated using scanning electron
151 microscopy (SEM, Hitachi S-4800). Energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) analysis was
152 also performed. The surface composition of the samples was analyzed by X-ray photoelectron
153 spectroscopy (XPS, Thermo ESCALAB 250) with an Al Ka X-ray source (1486.6 eV photons).
154 A wide-scan survey spectrum over a binding energy (BE) range of 0-1400 eV was recorded at
155 a pass energy of 100 eV to estimate the chemical elemental composition and 30 eV for high-
156 resolution detailed scans. The system was calibrated using the C1s peak at 284.8 eV. All spectra
157 were recorded at a takeoff angle of 45 degrees. The maximum information depth of the XPS
158 method was not more than 10 nm.

159

160 Water contact angle analysis was performed with a DSA100 drop-shape analysis
161 system (DSA100, Krüss, Germany) using deionized water at room temperature. Five samples
162 of each group were measured, and two separate measurements were made on each sample. All
163 of the samples were sterilized with UV irradiation for 1 h prior to biological evaluation.

164

165 ***Mineralization of the multifunctional coating with dopamine and silver nanoparticles***

166 The calcification solution was prepared according to the protocol described by Zhou
167 (Zhou et al. 2012). The solution contained 2.58 mM calcium ($\text{CaCl}_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$), 1.55 mM
168 phosphate (KH_2PO_4), and 180 mM NaCl and was buffered by 50 mM of Tris-HCl. The
169 calcification solution's pH was adjusted using 0.1 M HCl and 0.1 M NaOH. The samples were

170 placed in a 24-well tissue-culture plate and incubated with 1.5mL of calcification solution in
171 an orbital shaker incubator at 80 rpm and 37 °C. The calcification solution was replaced every
172 day. The samples were taken out at 7 days, rinsed vigorously for 10 min with deionized water,
173 and gradually dehydrated to a critical drying point prior to characterization.

174

175 ***Antibacterial test***

176 Gram-negative bacteria, *Escherichia coli*, and gram-positive bacteria, *Staphylococcus*
177 *aureus* and *Streptococcus mutans*, were used in the antibacterial tests. The numbers of both
178 live and dead bacteria were used to indicate the antibacterial activity for the different materials.
179 Samples were placed in a 24-well tissue-culture plate and incubated with different bacterial
180 suspensions at a concentration of 10^7 CFU/mL at 37 °C for different periods of time. Then, the
181 samples were taken out and gently washed with phosphate-buffered saline. The viability of the
182 bacteria on the samples was assessed using a combination dye (LIVE/DEAD ® *BacLight*TM
183 Bacterial Viability kit, Molecular Probes, Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA). Viable bacterial cells were
184 stained green, whereas dead cells were stained red.

185

186 The samples' antibacterial effect against the strains of gram-positive and gram-negative
187 microorganisms was tested using zone of inhibition (ZOI) testing (Zhang et al. 2013). The
188 samples were placed with face downward on a solid lysogeny broth medium agar plate surface,
189 which was spread evenly with 20 μ l of the individual test-strain solutions (10^7 CFU/mL). The
190 inhibition zones were photographed after incubation for different times at 37 °C. The formation
191 of a clear zone around the sample indicated antibacterial activity for the obtained surface.

192

193 The growth curve of the bacteria incubation with different samples was assayed to
194 evaluate the samples' antibacterial properties. The samples were placed in a 24-well tissue-
195 culture plate and incubated with 1.5ml of different bacterial suspensions at a concentration of
196 10^7 CFU/mL at 37 °C. 100 μ l of bacterial suspensions were taken out for optical density
197 measurements at 660 nm (OD_{660}) using a UV/Vis spectrophotometer at a different time .A
198 growth control with no samples was employed for each parameter.

199

200 **Statistics**

201 All of the experiments were performed at least 3 independent times. All of the data were
202 compared with one-way ANOVA tests to evaluate their statistical significance using SPSS
203 software. Tukey multiple comparisons tests were performed to find significant differences
204 between the pairs. Probability values less than .05 were considered statistically significant. In
205 the figures, statistically significant differences ($p < .05$) were denoted with an asterisk (*).

206

207 **Results**

208 ***Characterization of multifunctional coating***

209 The SEM images in Figure 1 show the different surfaces of TiOH, Ti-O-DA, and Ti-O-
210 DA-Ag. As shown in Figure 1A and B, the surface of the NaOH-treated titanium was
211 characterized by a uniform 3D microporous and mesh-like morphology. After dopamine
212 functionalization (Figure 1C and D), the surface was no different from the TiOH surface. Some
213 studies showed that the morphology of the samples did not change significantly after being
214 coated with dopamine (Wang et al. 2015). The samples of Ti-O-DA were immersed in silver
215 nitrate solution to obtain silver nanoparticles loaded on the surface as a hybrid. Figure 1E shows
216 that the AgNPs were successfully attached and uniformly dispersed on the surface. The AgNPs
217 were about 30–50 nm in size, and their shape was spherical. The high-magnitude image (Figure
218 1F) revealed that AgNPs were deposited on the top edges and the inner portion of the 3D
219 microporous structures.

220

221 The chemical composition of the surfaces at various stages of surface functionalization
222 was determined using EDS. As shown in Figure 2A, several types of peaks in the EDS spectrum
223 were obtained from TiOH that corresponded to elemental titanium and oxygen. After dopamine
224 functionalization (Figure 2B), the presence of elemental carbon, which was not detected in the
225 surface of TiOH, and the decrease in the atomic percentage of titanium indicated that dopamine
226 was successfully immobilized onto the surface of the titanium. As shown in Figure 2C, the
227 atomic percentage of silver in the Ti-O-DA-Ag was 14.54%, indicating that a large amount of
228 silver interlocked onto the dopamine-modified surface. The atomic percentages of titanium in

229 the TiOH (A), Ti-O-DA (B), and Ti-O-DA-Ag (C) were 73.04%, 51.13%, and 34.04%,
230 respectively, and indirectly indicated that dopamine and AgNPs were successfully immobilized
231 onto the titanium surface step by step.

232

233 The surfaces' chemical composition at various stages of surface functionalization was
234 determined by XPS. The XPS wide-scan spectra and the high-resolution spectra of Ag3d of the
235 TiOH, Ti-O-DA, and Ti-O-DA-Ag are shown in Figure 3. After dopamine functionalization
236 (Ti-O-DA), the presence of N1s peak (~399eV) indicates that dopamine was successfully
237 immobilized onto the surface of titanium due to the large amount of nitrogen in the dopamine.
238 Meanwhile, the Ti2p peak disappeared, indicating that dopamine had completely covered the
239 substrate materials. In addition, only the surface of Ti-O-DA-Ag exhibited two specific peaks,
240 with binding energies of 368.45 eV and 374.45 eV (shown in Figure 3B), which were attributed
241 to the Ag3d_{5/2} and Ag3d_{3/2} electrons of Ag⁰, respectively. The spin energy separation was
242 identified as 6.0 eV, which indicates that the silver on the dopamine-modified surface was
243 metallic Ag⁰ in nature (Luo et al. 2015); in turn, this further supported the conclusion that
244 AgNPs had been successfully loaded onto the surface.

245

246 The measurement of the water contact angle (WCA) is well known as a useful technique
247 to investigate surface characteristics. The WCA of the different surfaces is shown in Figure 4.
248 Compared to the original titanium (Ti), the WCA of TiOH decreased significantly. After
249 dopamine functionalization (i.e., Ti-O-DA), the WCA of the surface increased significantly.
250 Relative to the dopamine-modified surface, the WCA of the AgNP-coated surface (i.e., Ti-O-
251 DA-Ag) increased significantly further. These results indirectly indicated that dopamine and
252 AgNPs were successfully immobilized onto the titanium surface.

253

254 ***Mineralization of the multifunctional coating***

255 Because the dopamine could induce accelerated in vitro apatite formation (Kim & Park
256 2010; Zhou et al. 2012), here, the samples were immersed in the calcification solution to assess
257 the material's osteoinductivity. After being soaked in the calcification solution alone for 1 week,
258 the uniform 3D microporous and mesh-like morphology on the TiOH, Ti-O-DA, and Ti-O-DA-

259 Ag was replaced by mineralized crystals. As shown in Figure 5A and B, this mineralized layer
260 of TiOH consisted of loosely packed, needle-shaped crystals with a porous structure. Compared
261 to TiOH, the mineralized layer on Ti-O-DA (Figure 5C and D) and Ti-O-DA-Ag (Figure 5E
262 and F) consisted of a higher packing density of apatite crystals with a rod-like structure, which
263 resembled a natural enamel structure with a high packing density of apatite crystals (Kim &
264 Park 2010). The presence of AgNPs led to the rod-like crystals on the Ti-O-DA-Ag being
265 thinner than on the Ti-O-DA. EDS revealed the presence of calcium ions on the surface of Ti-
266 O-DA-Ag after it was soaked in the calcification solution alone for 1 week (Figure 2D). These
267 results indicated that the surface of Ti-O-DA-Ag could improve mineralization.

268

269 ***Antibacterial activity***

270 The viability of the attached cells was evaluated using a confocal laser scanning
271 micrograph via staining with a combination of dyes. As shown in Figure 6, the surface of the
272 TiOH and Ti-O-DA supported rapid and extensive attachment of *Escherichia coli* (*E. coli*),
273 *Staphylococcus aureus* (*S. aureus*), and *Streptococcus mutans* (*S. mutans*); however,
274 attachment onto the AgNP-coated surface was reduced by more than 95% compared to TiOH
275 or Ti-O-DA over the same time period. Most of the bacterial cells on the surfaces of the TiOH
276 and Ti-O-DA were viable (stained green) throughout the immersion period, while the dead
277 bacterial cells (stained red) observed on these surfaces were mainly attributed to cell death
278 during the bacterial growth process rather than antibacterial activity. For the AgNP-modified
279 surface (Ti-O-DA-Ag), the number of bacterial cells decreased very significantly, and the
280 percentage of dead cells (stained red) was higher than on the TiOH. Even when prolonging the
281 immersion time to 24 h, only a few sparsely distributed, single viable cells were observed,
282 indicative of the high efficiency of AgNP conjugates in destroying the bacteria.

283

284 The antibacterial activity of the different surfaces was investigated by measuring the
285 ability to inhibit *E. coli*, *S. aureus*, and *S. mutans* growth around samples on agar culture plates,
286 as shown in Figure 7. After 24 h of incubation, bacterial colonies were clearly observed in
287 contact with TiOH and Ti-O-DA, while clear transparent rings were obtained around Ti-O-DA-
288 Ag, showing the killing effect on bacteria. The AgNP-modified surface demonstrated excellent

289 antibacterial properties, and its zone of inhibition (ZOI) did not significantly decrease during
290 the first 2 days (data not shown).

291

292 To evaluate the samples' stability in air, all of the samples were stored in air for at least
293 1 week and then used in the experiment below. The bacterial growth in the solution with
294 different samples was monitored by measuring the optical density at 660 nm (OD₆₆₀) to
295 evaluate the antibacterial activity of the AgNP-coated samples on their local environment. The
296 higher the OD, the greater the opacity based on the turbidity of the cell suspension. As shown
297 in Figure 8, the surfaces without AgNPs (i.e., TiOH and Ti-O-DA) did not show noticeable
298 antimicrobial activity against *E. coli*, *S. aureus*, or *S. mutans* growth, as the curve was similar
299 to that of the control bacteria. The growth of the three types of bacteria was completely
300 inhibited when the AgNP-coated samples occurred, suggesting strong inhibition of bacteria
301 proliferation by the AgNPs. Previous research revealed that AgNPs could lose antibacterial
302 activity in air within 5 days (Wang et al. 2012), but our data indicated that antibacterial activity
303 of Ti-O-DA-Ag could be kept in air. It is reasonable to conclude that the surface of Ti-O-DA-
304 Ag possess high and long-term antibacterial activity due to the high stability of AgNPs.

305

306 Discussion

307 It is well known that titanium, with its porous structure, has the merits of high
308 bioactivity and lower elastic modulus (Chen et al. 2009; Crawford et al. 2007). Also, a 3D
309 porous structure, which is a characteristic feature of native bone tissue, could increase the
310 specific surface area to improve the osteointegration of orthopedic implants (Soumya et al.
311 2012). Dopamine could induce mineralization, which also can improve osteointegration (Zhou
312 et al. 2012). Here, the surfaces containing dopamine (Ti-O-DA and Ti-O-DA-Ag) had
313 mineralized within 1 week (Figure 5). Although AgNPs on the surface led to the crystals with a
314 rod-like structure being thinner than those on the Ti-O-DA in the mineralization process (Figure
315 5), these results indicated that dopamine on the Ti-O-DA-Ag could enhance mineralization.

316

317 All 3D porous structures with high porosity allow more bone ingrowth and therefore

318 support improved anchorage with the surrounding bone (Ryan et al. 2006), but such structures
319 render the implant extremely susceptible to bacterial colonization and subsequent biofilm
320 formation. Bacterial infections have always been an issue for metal implants, since they
321 introduce a foreign material inside the human body (Darouiche 2004; Hetrick & Schoenfish
322 2006). Silver nanoparticles were introduced to endow the 3D porous surface with antibacterial
323 activity. To load AgNPs onto the surface, dopamine was used on the Ti-O-DA to reduce the
324 Ag^+ in the silver nitrate solution to AgNPs, due to the catechol groups in the dopamine (Shi et
325 al. 2015). After reduction, the AgNPs were tightly bound to the dopamine-modified surface
326 without aggregation (Figure 1F). Compared to other reduction processes (Sharma et al. 2014),
327 no additional reductant or heating is needed. Thus, this strategy of obtaining the AgNP-
328 modified surface is simple, facile, and environmentally friendly. Compared to TiO_2 nanotubes
329 (3D structure) (Guo et al. 2014), such a porous structure could permit more AgNPs to be
330 uniformly deposited not only on the top edges but also the inner porous structures, leading to
331 a large number of AgNPs being carried on the surface, as shown in the EDS result (Figure 2C).
332 Good distribution and high-cover density of AgNPs on the substrate are important for surface-
333 based applications (Li et al. 2013), so this strategy endows surfaces with excellent antibacterial
334 activity, not only by inhibiting bacterial colonization on Ti-O-DA-Ag (Figure 6) but also by
335 inhibiting the growth of a wide antimicrobial spectrum containing gram-negative bacterium
336 and gram-positive bacteria around Ti-O-DA-Ag (Figure 7 and 8). Dopamine, as a reducing and
337 stabilizing agent (Fei et al. 2014; Luo et al. 2015), could hinder the oxidation and/or
338 aggregation of AgNPs in air, leading to a significant reduction of antibacterial activity (Lv et
339 al. 2010). Thus, AgNPs on Ti-O-DA-Ag could sustain their high antibacterial activity after
340 exposure to air for at least 1 week (Figure 8).

341

342 **Conclusion**

343 Silver nanoparticles were successfully synthesized and uniformly dispersed onto a 3D
344 porous titanium surface by alkaline treatment and immersion in a dopamine solution, followed
345 by immersion in a silver nitrate solution. The results showed that such surfaces could enhance
346 mineralization and inhibit bacterial colonization and subsequent biofilm formation. Therefore,

347 the AgNP-coated surface with 3D porous structure may not only facilitate osteointegration but
348 also reduce the risk of infection of titanium implants. This simple, facile, and environmentally
349 friendly technique is therefore believed to have great potential for clinical application.

350

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355

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