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Review Article

GASTRORENTENTIVE HYDROGELS RESPONSIVE TO EXTERNAL STIMULI FOR NOVEL DRUG DELIVERY

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ABSTRACT

Hydrogels, or water-swollen polymers, are three-dimensional networks of polymeric chains with a high capacity for holding water inside their structure. Because of this special quality, they are helpful in many applications, such as tissue engineering, drug delivery, and wound healing. Tissue engineering, controlled drug release, smart devices, and magnetic fields are all made possible by their sensitivity to temperature, ionic strength variations, electric fields, pH changes, magnetic fields, and ultrasounds. The interesting potential of stimuli-dependent hydrogels for gastroretentive drug delivery in the Gastrointestinal Tract (GIT) is examined in this review article. A new strategy is provided by stimuli-responsive hydrogels, which change their characteristics in response to particular GIT environment triggers like pH, enzymes, or pressure. The article explores a range of stimuli-dependent hydrogels, such as those that react to enzymes, pH, and other stimuli. Hydrogel's latest developments and their use in GIT medication delivery are also examined. Promising research on these innovative drug delivery systems is highlighted in the review. The paper also examines patents about stimuli-dependent hydrogels, offering information about the intellectual property environment surrounding this technology. In summary, hydrogel systems combine the targeted response to GIT stimuli with the controlled release properties of hydrogels to hold immense potential for improved drug delivery and therapeutic efficacy.

Keywords: Hydrogel, Crosslinking, Gastroretentive, Stimuli-responsive, Drug delivery, Recent advancement, Patents

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INTRODUCTION

Hydrogels are classified as 3D cross-linked macromolecular polymers (homopolymer or copolymer) which have a swelling property with water or any aqueous solvent [1, 2]. After coming in contact with the solvent, liquid sorption takes place due to which the dry powder or bead changes to a gel-like substance. When these hydrophilic cross-linked polymers are in smaller dimensions, they are known as "microgels" and when the size of these microgels is further reduced to submicrometer, they are known as "nano gels" remain insoluble due to these cross-linking [3, 4].

They have a soft consistency, are highly filled with water, and have a porosity that can be chemically stable degrade disintegrate, or dissolve [5]. If molecular entanglements and secondary forces like ionic, H-bonding, or hydrophobic forces play the primary role, hydrogels are also known as "reversible" or "physical" gels [4, 6]. Physical gels are always reversible and easily dissolve by altering factors like temperature, solution ionic strength, and pH [7]. By using cross-linking polymers in dry or in solution state, it is possible to create a network of covalent connections that connect various macromolecular chains in "permanent" or "chemical" gels [8]. Depending on the functional groups of their structure, these gels can be classified as charged or non-charged. When the pH of the charged hydrogels varies, they often experience changes in swelling (stimuli effect) [8, 9].

They show swelling behavior due to various factors like types of polymers used (hydrophilic or hydrophobic), method of preparation of hydrogel, and the cross-linking or osmotic pressure difference act as driving force for water sorption [10].

Super porous Hydrogel (SPH) is a hydrophilic polymer network with specific ingredients. Foam stabilizers, initiators, crosslinkers, foaming agents, and foaming aids that are three-dimensional. Because of their enormous size and ability to absorb large fluids in their surroundings, these hydrogels cannot pass through the constrained pylorus and reach the next organ. Instead, their volume increases dramatically in a short amount of time [11, 12]. They can be utilized as gastric retention carriers thanks to their special swelling feature, which provides continuous release over prolonged stomach residence [11, 13]. Upon exposure to the acidity of the stomach, SPHs ought to expand and

function as a gastroretentive apparatus. Cationic (-NH₂,-SO₃H) functional groups on the backbone of polymers can be used to accomplish this. Because of this, the polymers are pH-sensitive to the environment but swell only in acidic environments [14].

Here are some details about the structure of SPHs

 High Porosity: SPHs typically have porosities ranging from 60% to 99%, creating a network of void spaces within the material. This high porosity allows for the absorption and retention of large amounts of water or other solvents, making them suitable for applications such as absorbent materials and drug delivery systems [14].

 Interconnected Pores: The pores within SPHs are interconnected, forming a continuous network throughout the material. This interconnected structure facilitates the rapid diffusion of water or solutes into and out of the hydrogel, enabling fast response times and efficient mass transport [15].

 Macroporous Structure: SPHs typically contain macropores with diameters ranging from tens to hundreds of micrometers. These macropores provide pathways for fluid flow and contribute to the high permeability of the hydrogel [14].

 Polymeric Scaffold: The structure of SPHs is often based on a polymeric scaffold that provides mechanical support and stability. Common polymers used in superporous hydrogels include natural polymers like alginate, chitosan, and gelatin, as well as synthetic polymers such as poly(acrylic acid) and poly(vinyl alcohol) [15, 16].

 Crosslinking Networks: Crosslinking is used to stabilize the polymeric scaffold and create the porous structure of SPHs. Crosslinking agents such as chemical crosslinkers, physical crosslinkers (e.g., temperature or pH-responsive interactions), or radiation (e.g., UV or gamma irradiation) are employed to crosslink the polymer chains and form a stable network $[17]$.

 Swelling Behavior: Due to their high porosity and hydrophilic nature, SPHs exhibit significant swelling in the presence of water or aqueous solutions. The extent of swelling can be controlled by adjusting factors such as the polymer composition, crosslinking density, and environmental conditions (e.g., pH, temperature) [11, 18].

 Stimuli-Responsive Properties: SPHs can be designed to exhibit stimuli-responsive behavior, where changes in environmental conditions such as pH, temperature, or ionic strength trigger reversible changes in the hydrogel's structure and properties. This responsiveness makes them suitable for applications such as controlled drug release and tissue engineering [19].

One of the most practicable ways to achieve a longer and more consistent profile of medication delivery in the gastrointestinal system is to regulate the food in the stomach. To achieve gastric retention, the dosage form needs to be strong enough to withstand the forces produced by the stomach's peristaltic waves as well as continuous contractions, grinding, and churning mechanisms [20-22].

Gastroretentive Drug Delivery Systems (GRDDS) are useful for drugs that have short half-lives, are unstable and poorly soluble at alkaline pH, have low absorption in the lower half of the GIT, and have local activity in the upper intestine for H. pylori eradication [23, 24].

Gastro-retentive hydrogel assembly containing a core shell is recommended to release the drug and control the gastro-retentive time. In vivo, the hydrogel assembly can sustain a constant blood drug concentration for more than 80 hours, and in vitro, it can continuously release medication for up to 72 h. The hydrogel assembly may naturally break down in the stomach environment after usage [25].

By increasing the gastric retention, absorption increases. A prolonged release is brought on by gastric floating and mucoadhesion [23, 26]. The capacity to float is dependent upon the stomach fluid that is available for buoyancy, and this is usually lost at night after the stomach is emptied. The pyloric sphincter allows a medication to enter the body as a result of supine sleeping [27].

Classifications of hydrogels

Natural polymers overcome synthetic polymers due to various advantages like high biocompatibility, biodegradability, and excellent tissue and cell response [2, 28]. The different types of hydrogels are explained in fig. 1 as follows.

External stimuli effect

Table 1 shows different types of drug release with their mechanism.

Phase transition results from changes in the external environment in each of these situations, and these changes affect the polymer's ability to absorb water or its swelling behavior. These changes can be attributed to changes in ionic strength, pH, current, ultrasonic velocity, and other variables which are explained in fig. 2.

pH-responsive hydrogels

Variations in pH levels can be found in the vagina, GIT, blood vessels, and other body parts. These pH-sensitive hydrogels are made to specifically target organs and tissues that have particular pH values [37]. These formulations can swell when the pH changes because they contain an acidic or basic group (like an amino group or

carboxyl group) that is easily protonated or hydrolyzed. The drug release from hydrogel after changing pH is shown in fig. 3.

They include hydrogels that are both cationic and anionic. Anionic groups that break down in an alkaline medium, such as -COOH, deprotonate at lower pH and become protonated at higher pH. These hydrogels come upon contact with molecules of water [29]. Because they contain an alkaline group like NH2, cationic hydrogels have an entirely different swelling characteristic.

Chitosan, a bio-based polymer, is the most prevalent ionic polymer that exhibits behavior due to changes in pH. Taking alginate orally is safe and biodegradable because it's a copolymer containing polyanions of sugar residue that is mannuronic and guluronic [30, 38]. To stop drug release, it reduces at low pH, such as in the GIT. At pH values below 3, the Alginate chain contains carboxylate groups, which change into-COOH, which limits the hydrogel's ability to expand and form a hydrogen bond with the hydroxyl group in Alg. However, due to their high content of water and restricted mechanical properties, basic hydrogels face problems such as burst drug release. There are a few more varieties of hydrogel drug release in addition to films [38, 39].

Fig. 2: Various stimuli acting on hydrogel [31, 36]

Fig. 3: Drug release by a change in pH resulting in swelling of the hydrogel [29, 37]

Mechano-responsive hydrogels

Mechano-responsive, also known as a mechanically-activated system for drug delivery, uses mechanical force that is either naturally occurring in humans or applied externally to control the spatiotemporal release of medications and active ingredients [40]. It is possible to apply three different mechanical stimulation techniquestension, shear, and compression-to deliver drugs and other therapeutic agents. To optimize the delivery performance of each type of mechanoresponsive DDS for a variety of intended applications, distinct materials in various forms are required for both in vitro as well as in vivo testing. More precisely, Hydrogels or elastomeric matrices that tolerate cyclic compressive stresses in addition to responding to compression forces are commonly used in systems activated by compression. Composites with payload separation capabilities are frequently used in tension-sensitive systems [40, 41].

Mechanoresponsive hydrogel drug delivery systems release drugs in response to mechanical stimuli through various mechanisms. Here are some common mechanisms by which drug release can be triggered in mechanoresponsive hydrogels:

 Pore Size Modulation: Mechanical forces applied to the hydrogel can cause changes in the pore size or network structure of the hydrogel. A decrease in pore size or collapse of the network can lead to the expulsion or diffusion of encapsulated drugs from the hydrogel matrix [42].

 Swelling and Deswelling: Some hydrogels undergo significant swelling or deswelling in response to mechanical forces. Swelling may lead to increased drug release due to enhanced diffusion, while deswelling may result incompression and expulsion of the drug payload [43].

 Fracture-Induced Release: Mechanical stress can induce fracture or rupture of the hydrogel matrix. Fracture-induced release occurs when the fractures expose drug-loaded regions, allowing for rapid release of the encapsulated drugs into the surrounding environment [40].

 Osmotic Pressure: Mechanical compression of the hydrogel can alter the osmotic pressure within the system. Changes in osmotic pressure may drive the diffusion or expulsion of drug molecules from the hydrogel matrix [44].

 External Triggering: In some cases, mechanical stimuli may be used to trigger external mechanisms that, in turn, lead to drug release.

For example, mechanical deformation of the hydrogel may trigger the release of encapsulated drugs through the activation of embedded microspheres containing drug payloads or through changes in the local environment (e.g., pH or temperature) [40, 45].

Applications for mechanoresponsive hydrogel drug delivery systems can be found in wound healing, tissue engineering, regenerative medicine, and drug delivery, among other biomedical domains. By enabling targeted and localized drug delivery, these systems reduce systemic side effects and increase the effectiveness of treatment.

Electric field-responsive hydrogels

Electro-responsive systems, or medication delivery systems that react to electric fields are a rapidly developing field of study. These devices can precisely and flexibly control the time and space in which drugs are delivered. Easy and accurate tools like external electroconductive patches for skin or small, ultrasound-controlled implants that can be inserted deeper into the body to provide the necessary voltage to start the release of the medication [46]. Electroresponsive hydrogels, electro-responsive lBL films, and conducting polymers are the three most prevalent electro-responsive delivery systems that have been documented to date. Drugs are released from hydrogels made of polyelectrolytes by physical changes (bending, shrinking, distorting, or swelling) or general changes in the polymer structure. However, the drawback of using high applied

voltages (2 to 25 V) to initiate drug release must be partially addressed by electro-responsive hydrogel systems [47, 48].

Ultrasound (US)-responsive hydrogels

There are numerous enticing advantages to using ultrasonic response systems (USRs) for drug release. US-triggered platforms are useful, affordable, and discrete. It is important to note that the US has been used in the past to treat various conditions, like thrombosis, osteoporosis, and strokes [49]. Reports state that the US is capable of disassembling hydrogen bonding networks and working with hydrogels. Studies have shown that US stimulus greatly accelerates the release of medications [35]. Usually, carriers are dissolved by ultrasound-responsive devices to start the drug's release some researchers developed a cellulose hydrogel matrixbased ultrasound drug delivery system to activate the liver and release mimosa. The hydrogel system significantly increased the rate of mimosa release. The efficiency of the mimosa release was roughly six times higher than that of the release without US exposure [45, 50].

To achieve ultrasonic responsiveness in hydrogels, ultrasonicsensitive structures or elements are typically integrated into the hydrogel framework, as shown in fig. 4. The hydrogel's structure undergoes reversible modifications upon exposure to ultrasonic waves, which can lead to alterations in its mechanical properties, swelling behavior, or drug release properties [51, 52]. Key considerations for ultrasonic responsive hydrogels include:

Polymer Selection: Selecting polymers with appropriate acoustic characteristics that can change back when exposed to ultrasonic radiation is crucial. Poly(N-isopropyl acrylamide) (PNIPAAm), polyvinyl alcohol (PVA), and polyethylene glycol (PEG) are a few examples of commonly used polymers [51].

Selecting a polymer that is UV-active in a hydrogel involves considering several factors:

 UV-absorbing Monomers: Choose monomers with UV-absorbing properties. Some monomers, such as those containing benzene rings or conjugated double bonds, can absorb UV light effectively. Examples include acrylic-based monomers like benzophenone or anthracene derivatives [53].

 Crosslinking Ability: The polymer should have the ability to form a stable hydrogel network through crosslinking. UV-active crosslinkable groups (e. g., vinyl, acrylate, or methacrylate groups) can be incorporated into the polymer structure [54].

 Biocompatibility: Ensure the polymer and its degradation products are biocompatible for biomedical applications [55].

 Tunable Properties: Consider polymers with tunable properties such as swelling behavior, mechanical strength, and degradation rate to meet specific application requirements [56].

• Synthesis Method: Select a synthesis method compatible with UV polymerization, such as photopolymerization, where UV light initiates the crosslinking reaction [57].

 Application Requirements: Assess the specific requirements of your application, such as the desired hydrogel properties (e.g., porosity, responsiveness to stimuli), and choose a polymer that best fulfills those requirements [55].

 Compatibility with Other Components: Ensure compatibility with other components that may be incorporated into the hydrogel formulation, such as drugs or bioactive molecules [58].

• Research and Testing: Conduct thorough research and experimentation to evaluate the performance of the selected polymer in UV-active hydrogel formulations, considering factors like polymerization kinetics, gelation time, and final hydrogel properties [59].

Crosslinking: One important factor is the hydrogel's degree of crosslinking. In addition to providing structural stability to the hydrogel, crosslinks can be designed to react to ultrasonic stimuli. To achieve the desired responsiveness, crosslinking agents and methodologies must be carefully chosen. Common methods for UVcrosslinking hydrogels include direct UV irradiation, photomaskassisted patterning, and two-photon polymerization (for highresolution patterning) [60].

Incorporation of Responsive Components: Adding responsive components to the hydrogel matrix, like nanoparticles or microbubbles, is frequently necessary to achieve ultrasonic responsiveness. These elements may alter in reaction to ultrasonography, changing the hydrogel's overall characteristics [52].

Magnetic field-responsive hydrogels

A magnetic stimulus is a non-contact force that can be applied to biomedical devices with ease and convenience [61]. This shows the application of low-frequency oscillating magnetic fields (OMF), highfrequency alternating magnetic fields (AMF), and direct current magnetic fields (DMF), among other common external magnetic fields in drug administration. Researchers have documented the effect of an OMF on the release of dextran from collagen magnetic nanocomposites. The OMF's uses depended on the hydrogel's mechanical deformation brought about by the interactions of magnetic particles, which enabled the controlled extrusion of drug molecules [62]. **Fig. 4: Drug release by ultrasound as external stimuli [51, 52]**

Alginate hydrogels, for instance, have been embedded with MNPs (iron oxide) to control the release of drugs and cells both in vivo and in vitro by using an external force field to induce large volume changes and deformation. (above 70%) [63, 64].

Methods for creating magnetic hydrogels: The typical components of magnetic hydrogels are a polymer matrix and a magnetic component embedded in the matrix. The properties of magnetic hydrogels, such as their magnetic response, are dependent on the kind of hydrogel and MNP utilized, their concentrations, and the size and distribution of the MNPs within the hydrogels. Numerous techniques, such as blending, in situ precipitation, and grafting-onto, have been developed to create magnetic hydrogels [65, 66].

Glucose-sensitive hydrogels

Known by other names, such as "smart" or "responsive" hydrogels, glucose-sensitive hydrogels are hydrogels made primarily of a polymer matrix that reacts to variations in glucose concentration by changing either physically or chemically, as shown in fig. 5.

Hydrogels that are sensitive to changes in glucose concentration are materials known as glucose-sensitive hydrogels. These materials may find application in the biomedical and diagnostics industries, among other fields. These hydrogels play an important role in the management of diabetes, where real-time blood sugar monitoring is essential [67, 68].

Fig. 5: Insulin release in the presence of glucose as external stimuli resulting in lower glucose levels in the body [67, 68]

Specialized elements, frequently glucose-binding molecules or enzymes, are incorporated into these hydrogels by carefully placing them within their matrix. These responsive elements experience particular structural or conformational changes in response to variations in glucose levels. As a result, the hydrogel undergoes reversible swelling or deswelling, which is directly correlated with changes in the concentration of glucose. Applications such as drug delivery systems, where the hydrogel can release encapsulated substances, like insulin, in a glucose-dependent manner, are made possible by this dynamic behavior. The complex interaction between glucose and the hydrogel produces a responsive system with great potential for novel biomedical applications, especially

in the field of diabetes treatment. Researchers are continuously improving their composition and design to maximize these hydrogels sensitivity, accuracy, and general performance for medical and diagnostic applications [69].

Ion-sensitive hydrogels

When specific ions are present, polymers can transition into a different phase. Ion-sensitive polysaccharides are a subclass of polysaccharides. I-carrageenan primarily forms elastic gels in Ca2+ presence, whereas k-carrageenan reacts to trace amounts of K+ by forming rigid, brittle gels. An anionic polymer, gellan gum (also called gelrite) solidifies when it comes into contact with divalent and monovalent cations like Mg2+, Ca2+, Na+, and K+[70, 71]. It has been demonstrated that the presence of divalent cations, specifically Ca2+, causes low-methoxy pectins to partially gel. Alginic acid gels under these circumstances as well because divalent or polyvalent cations, such as Ca2+, interact with guluronic acid blocks in alginate chains. light-sensitive hydrogel [70, 72].

These hydrogels are designed to undergo structural changes or exhibit specific behaviors in response to variations in ion concentrations, particularly hydrogen ions (pH), metal ions, or other specific ions.

The responsiveness is often achieved through the incorporation of ion-sensitive components, such as ionizable groups or molecules, within the hydrogel matrix.

Ion-sensitive hydrogels continue to be a subject of active research, with ongoing efforts to enhance their sensitivity, specificity, and overall performance for various applications across various scientific and technological domains [73].

Hydrogels that are sensitive to metal ions represent an additional notable category. These hydrogels are designed, frequently by adding chelating ligands or ion-binding groups, to react selectively to particular metal ions. These hydrogels are essential for identifying and measuring heavy metal ion concentrations in water sources in environmental monitoring [74]. Ion-sensitive hydrogels are important instruments for guaranteeing water quality and safety because of their capacity to detect and react to environmental pollutants [75].

Light-responsive hydrogels

Light-responsive hydrogels, also known as photo-responsive or photoreactive hydrogels, constitute a class of intelligent materials that experience reversible alterations in their characteristics when exposed to light signals. Due to these hydrogels' versatility and utility, they are attracting a lot of interest. across diverse domains, encompassing tissue engineering, drug delivery, biomedical devices, and soft robotics [76].

Apart from the ones mentioned above, the categories of DDSs, this system is also a desirable drug delivery system because of the advantage of the spatiotemporal regulation of drug release. Lightswitchable devices can precisely control the light's intensity, wavelength, irradiation period, and area to achieve "on-demand" or pulsatile drug delivery. Additionally, light irradiation can be precisely targeted to initiate the on-demand release at specific sites, which could enhance the effectiveness of treatment [77, 78].

In addition to the DDSs previously discussed, the advantage of spatiotemporal regulation of drug release makes light-responsive systems appealing for drug delivery. light-switchable devices can precisely control the properties of light, such as wavelength, intensity, irradiation period, and area, to achieve pulsatile or "ondemand" drug delivery. Furthermore, the on-demand release can be activated or triggered at particular locations by tightly directed light irradiation, which may enhance the therapeutic efficacy [77, 79].

Lignin-based hydrogels

One renewable polymer that may be utilized as a foundational ingredient for hydrogel applications is lignin. In the past few years, natural polymers have quickly replaced synthetic ones as the most important components in the development of hydrogels. Natural polymer-based hydrogels are of great interest because of their inherent qualities, which include, but are not limited to, biocompatibility, low toxicity, eco-friendliness, susceptibility to enzymatic degradation, and biodegradability [80, 81]. The domains of water purification, healing systems, biomimetic scaffolds, biomedical, and devices for drug delivery are among the various applications of hydrogels based on biopolymers. Lignin is a desirable option for hydrogels among other natural polymers, because of its previous benefits, which make it a versatile material with a wide range of applications. The use of lignin as the backbone polymer in hydrogel applications is the subject of very few research publications [82].

Lignin-based hydrogels are a type of hydrogel that incorporates lignin, a complex organic polymer derived from plant cell walls, as a key component. These hydrogels have gained attention due to the different properties of lignin, including its abundance in nature, biodegradability, and potential for sustainable material development. Lignin-based hydrogels find applications in various fields, including agriculture, environmental science, and biomedicine [83, 84].

Typically, the synthesis of lignin-based hydrogels involves combining lignin with other polymers or crosslinkers to augment structural integrity and responsiveness to stimuli. This enables the customization of hydrogels for specific applications in fields such as biomedicine, agriculture, and environmental remediation [80]. In the realm of biomedicine, lignin-based hydrogels exhibit considerable potential for applications like wound healing, tissue engineering, and drug delivery capitalizing on their biocompatibility and controlled release features. Additionally, in agriculture, they show promise for tasks such as soil conditioning and controlled fertilizer release [83].

In essence, lignin-based hydrogels represent a versatile and sustainable class of materials with wide-ranging applications, playing a crucial role in the advancement of environmentally conscious solutions and the efficient utilization of natural resources.

Recent works on different stimuli

Table 2 defines various polymers used in the recent advancements in hydrogel.

Table 2: Recent advancements in the hydrogel with their mechanism

Table 3: Patents related to hydrogel with their approach

Patents related to hydrogels

Hydrogels are considered to be the most advanced and responsive drug delivery system with many recent advancements. Table 3 outlines several patented formulations, each described accordingly.

CONCLUSION

Gastro-retentive hydrogels have great potential for controlled drug delivery in the gastrointestinal tract because they are sensitive to pH, temperature, swelling, and ultrasonic stimuli. These stimuliresponsive properties enable targeted release, prolonged residence times, and increased therapeutic efficacy. As technology advances, it seems that future developments in gastro-retentive hydrogels will be promising. Gastro-retentive hydrogels have a promising future in terms of innovation and advancement. Emerging technologies like smart polymers, biomimetic materials, and advanced manufacturing processes have the potential to drastically alter the drug delivery strategies used in gastroenterology.

Through the integration of novel stimuli-responsive mechanisms like enzymatic degradation, magnetic guidance, and microbiota modulation, the potential of gastro-retentive hydrogels to deliver personalized therapies that meet the unique needs of individual patients can be further optimized. By making full use of stimuliresponsive hydrogel technology, the delivery of gastro-retentive drugs has the potential to transform the treatment of gastrointestinal disorders and enhance patient quality of life on a global scale.

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Mr. Gaurav Moriya (1st author): Data collection and paper writing, Dr. Rupa Mazumder (Corresponding author): Study the concept and design of the manuscript, Dr. Swarupanjali Padhi (3rd author): Review of literature and data interpretation, Dr. Rakhi Mishra (4th author): planning and conceptualization.

CONFLICTS OF INTERESTS

The author declares no conflict of interest.

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