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Daily distribution of macronutrient intakes of professional soccer players from the English Premier League

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**Daily distribution of macronutrient intakes of professional soccer players from the English Premier League**

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2 **Daily distribution of macronutrient intakes of professional**  
3 **soccer players from the English Premier League**

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37 **Running head:** Distribution of macronutrient intake

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50

**51 Abstract**

52 The daily distribution of macronutrient intake can modulate  
53 aspects of training adaptations, performance and recovery. We  
54 therefore assessed the daily distribution of macronutrient intake  
55 (as assessed using food diaries supported by the remote food  
56 photographic method and 24 h recalls) of professional soccer  
57 players (n=6) of the English Premier League during a 7-day  
58 period consisting of two match days and five training days. On  
59 match days, average carbohydrate (CHO) content of the pre-  
60 match ( $<1.5 \text{ g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$  body mass) and post-match ( $1 \text{ g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$  body  
61 mass) meals (in recovery from an evening kick-off) were  
62 similar ( $P>0.05$ ) though such intakes were lower than  
63 contemporary guidelines considered optimal for pre-match  
64 CHO intake and post-match recovery. On training days, we  
65 observed a skewed and hierarchical approach ( $P<0.05$  for all  
66 comparisons) to protein feeding such that dinner ( $0.8 \text{ g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$ )  
67  $>$ lunch ( $0.6 \text{ g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$ ) $>$ breakfast ( $0.3 \text{ g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$ ) $>$ evening snacks  
68 ( $0.1 \text{ g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$ ). We conclude players may benefit from consuming  
69 greater amounts of CHO in both the pre-match and post-match  
70 meals so as to increase CHO availability and maximize rates of  
71 muscle glycogen re-synthesis, respectively. Furthermore,  
72 attention should also be given to ensuring even daily  
73 distribution of protein intake so as to potentially promote  
74 components of training adaptation.

75 **Keywords:** glycogen, protein, carbohydrate, soccer,

## 76 **Introduction**

77           The elite professional soccer player will typically  
78 compete in two games per week as well as partake in three to  
79 five daily training sessions (Malone et al., 2014; Morgans et al.,  
80 2015; Anderson et al., 2015). As such, the fundamental goal of  
81 the sport nutritionist is to ensure sufficient energy intake in  
82 order to promote match day physical performance and recovery  
83 (Burke et al., 2011). In relation to professional players of the  
84 English Premier League (EPL), we recently observed (in a  
85 companion paper) self reported mean daily carbohydrate  
86 (CHO) intakes of 4.2 and 6.4 g.kg<sup>-1</sup> body mass on training days  
87 and match days, respectively (Anderson et al., 2017). On this  
88 basis, we therefore suggested that elite players potentially  
89 under-consume CHO when compared with those guidelines  
90 that are considered optimal to promote muscle glycogen  
91 storage (Burke et al., 2011).

92           Nonetheless, in order to provide more informative  
93 dietary guidelines (as opposed to total daily energy intake *per*  
94 *se*), there is also the definitive need to quantify the daily  
95 “distribution” of energy and macronutrient intakes. Such a  
96 rationale is well documented for CHO given the relevance of  
97 both timing and absolute CHO intake in relation to promoting  
98 pre-match loading and post-match muscle glycogen re-  
99 synthesis (Ivy et al., 1988a; Ivy et al., 1988b). To the authors’  
100 knowledge, however, the daily distribution of CHO intake on

101 both training and match days in elite level soccer players has  
102 not been reported.

103 In contrast to our previous observations of CHO  
104 periodization between training and match days (Anderson et  
105 al., 2017), we observed consistent daily protein intakes (e.g.  
106 200 g), the magnitude of which was higher than previously  
107 reported in the literature (Maughan, 1997; Bettonviel et al.,  
108 2016; Gillen et al., 2016). Similar to daily CHO intakes,  
109 however, there is also a requirement to quantify daily  
110 distribution of protein intakes (Areta et al., 2013; Mamerow et  
111 al., 2014). Indeed, these latter authors demonstrated that the  
112 timing and even distribution of daily protein doses may have a  
113 more influential role in modulating muscle protein synthesis  
114 when compared with the absolute dose of protein intake *per se*,  
115 an effect that is evident in response to both feeding alone  
116 (Mamerow et al., 2014) and post-exercise feeding (Areta et al.,  
117 2013). Such skewed approaches to protein feeding have been  
118 previously observed in elite youth UK soccer players  
119 (Naughton et al., 2016), adult soccer players of the Dutch  
120 league (Bettonviel et al., 2016) and a mixed sex cohort of  
121 multisport Dutch athletes (Gillen et al. 2016). However, given  
122 that we observed higher absolute daily protein intakes  
123 (Anderson et al., 2017) compared with all of the  
124 aforementioned studies, there is also a need to further

125 understand the habitual protein feeding patterns in adult  
126 professional UK soccer players.

127 Accordingly, the aim of the present study was to  
128 therefore quantify the daily distribution of energy and  
129 macronutrient intakes of professional soccer players of the  
130 EPL. Importantly, we provide distribution data related to both  
131 training and match days with practical applications therefore  
132 related to promoting training adaptations and match day  
133 performance. For analysis of total daily energy intake, daily  
134 energy expenditure and training and match load of this cohort,  
135 the reader is directed to a previous companion paper (Anderson  
136 et al., 2017).

137

## 138 **Methods**

### 139 **Participants**

140 Six male professional soccer players from an EPL first  
141 team squad (mean  $\pm$  SD; age  $27 \pm 3$  years, body mass  $80.5 \pm$   
142  $8.7$  kg, height  $180 \pm 7$  cm, body fat  $11.9 \pm 1.2$  %, fat mass  $9.2 \pm$   
143  $1.6$  kg, lean mass  $65.0 \pm 6.7$  kg) volunteered to take part in the  
144 study. Players with different positions on the field took part in  
145 the study and included 1 wide defender, 1 central defender, 2  
146 central midfielders (1 defending and 1 attacking), 1 wide  
147 midfielder and 1 center forward. All six players who took part  
148 in the study have represented their respective countries at  
149 national level. All players remained injury free for the duration

150 of the study. The study was conducted according to the  
151 Declaration of Helsinki and was approved by the University  
152 Ethics Committee of Liverpool John Moores University.

153

#### 154 **Study Design**

155 Data collection was conducted during the EPL 2015-  
156 2016 in-season in the month of November. Players continued  
157 with their normal in-season training that was prescribed by the  
158 club's coaching staff and were available to perform in two  
159 competitive games on days 2 and 5 during data collection.  
160 During data collection, game 1 kicked off at 20:05 hours and  
161 game 2 kicked off at 16:15 hours, both being home fixtures in  
162 European and domestic league competitions, respectively.  
163 Before the study commenced all players underwent a whole  
164 body fan beam Dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry (DXA)  
165 measurement scan (Hologic QDR Series, Discovery A,  
166 Bedford, MA, USA) in order to obtain body composition, in  
167 accordance with the procedures described by Nana et al.  
168 (2015).

169

#### 170 **Dietary Intake**

171 Self reported EI was assessed from 7-day food diaries  
172 for all players and reported in kilocalories (kcal) and  
173 kilocalories per kilogram of lean body mass (kcal/kg LBM).  
174 Macronutrient intakes were also analysed and reported in

175 grams (g) and grams per kilogram of body mass ( $\text{g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$ ). The  
176 period of 7 days is considered to provide reasonably accurate  
177 estimations of habitual energy and nutrient consumptions  
178 whilst reducing variability in coding error (Braakhuis et al.,  
179 2003). On the day prior to data collection, food diaries were  
180 explained to players by the lead researcher and an initial dietary  
181 habits questionnaire (24 h food recall) was also performed.  
182 These questionnaires were used to establish habitual eating  
183 patterns and subsequently allow follow up analysis of food  
184 diaries. Additionally, they helped to retrieve any potential  
185 information that players' may have missed on their food diary  
186 input. In addition, EI was also cross referenced from the  
187 remote food photographic method (RFPM) in order to have a  
188 better understanding of portion size and/ or retrieve any  
189 information that players' may have missed on their food diary  
190 input. This type of method has been shown to accurately  
191 measure the EI of free-living individuals (Martin et al., 2009).  
192 To further enhance reliability, and ensure that players missed  
193 no food or drink consumption, food diaries and RFPM were  
194 reviewed and cross checked using a 24-hour recall by the lead  
195 researcher after one day of entries (Thompson & Subar, 2008).  
196 **As such, the lead researcher used these three sources of energy**  
197 **(i.e. food diaries, 24 h recall and RFPM) intake data in**  
198 **combination to collectively estimate daily energy and**  
199 **macronutrient intake / distribution.** To obtain energy and

200 macronutrient composition, the Nutritics professional diet  
201 analysis software (Nutritics Ltd, Ireland) was used. Energy and  
202 macronutrient intake was further assessed in relation to timing  
203 of ingestion. Meals on training days were split into breakfast,  
204 morning snack, lunch, afternoon snack, dinner and evening  
205 snack. Time and type of consumption was used to distinguish  
206 between meals; breakfast (main meal consumed between 6-  
207 9.30am), morning snack (foods consumed between the  
208 breakfast main meal and the lunch), lunch (main meal  
209 consumed between 11.30-1.30pm), afternoon snack (foods  
210 consumed between lunch and dinner), dinner (main meal  
211 consumed between 5-8pm), and evening snack (foods  
212 consumed after dinner and prior to sleep).

213 Meals on match days were split into pre-match meal  
214 (PMM), pre-match snack (PMS), during match (DM), post-  
215 match (PM) and post-match recovery meal (PMRM). Timing of  
216 events was used to distinguish between meals on match days;  
217 PMM (main meal consumed 3 hours prior to kick off), PMS  
218 (foods consumed between the PMM and entering the changing  
219 rooms after the cessation of the warm up), DM (foods  
220 consumed from when the players entered the changing rooms  
221 after the warm up until the final whistle or since they were  
222 substituted), PM (foods consumed in the changing rooms after  
223 the match), PMRM (main meal consumed <3 hours after the  
224 end of the match).

225

226 **Inter-Researcher Reliability of the Methods**

227 To assess inter-researcher reliability, author one, author two  
228 and an independent researcher (not included on the authorship)  
229 individually assessed energy intake data for one day of one  
230 player selected at random. No significant difference was  
231 observed (as determined by one-way ANOVA) between  
232 researchers for energy ( $P=0.95$ ), CHO ( $P=0.99$ ), protein  
233 ( $P=0.95$ ) or fat ( $P=0.80$ ) intake. Daily totals for researchers 1,  
234 2 and 3 were as follows: energy intake = 3174, 3044 and 3013  
235 kcal; CHO = 347, 353 and 332 g; protein = 208, 201, and 194  
236 g and fat = 106, 92 and 101 g, respectively.

237

238 **Statistical Analysis**

239 All data are presented as the mean  $\pm$  standard deviation  
240 (SD). Meal distribution data was using linear mixed models  
241 with meal as the fixed factor. A random intercept was set for  
242 each individual player. When there was a significant ( $P < 0.05$ )  
243 effect of the fixed factor, Tukey post-hoc pairwise comparisons  
244 were performed to identify which categories of the factor  
245 differed. This whole analysis was performed separately for  
246 training and match days. In the match day's analysis, a fixed  
247 factor for day was also included to compare energy intake and  
248 distribution of the two different match days. In all the analyses,  
249 statistical significance was set at  $P < 0.05$ . The statistical

250 analysis was carried out with R, version 3.3.1.

251

252

## 253 **Results**

### 254 **Energy and Macronutrient Distribution Across Meals on**

#### 255 **Training Days**

256       There were significant differences in the reported  
257 absolute and relative energy and macronutrient between meals  
258 consumed on training days ( $P<0.01$  for all examined absolute  
259 and relative energy intake variables; see Figure 1).  
260 Specifically, players consumed higher absolute and relative EI  
261 at dinner compared with breakfast, morning, afternoon and  
262 evening snacks ( $P<0.01$  for all comparisons). Additionally,  
263 absolute and relative EI was also greater at lunch compared  
264 with the morning and evening snacks ( $P<0.01$ ). Absolute and  
265 relative CHO intakes were higher at dinner compared with  
266 morning snack (both  $P<0.01$ ), lunch (both  $P<0.05$ ) and evening  
267 snack (both  $P<0.01$ ), with relative CHO intake also being  
268 higher at dinner compared with breakfast ( $P=0.04$ ).

269       Protein and relative protein intakes were greater at  
270 dinner compared with breakfast, morning snacks, afternoon  
271 snacks and evening snacks ( $P<0.01$  for all comparisons). In  
272 addition, absolute and relative protein intakes were greater at  
273 lunch compared with breakfast, morning snacks and evening  
274 snacks ( $P<0.01$  for all comparisons). Both absolute and

275 relative protein intakes were also higher at breakfast compared  
276 with evening snack (both  $P < 0.02$ ) and higher at the afternoon  
277 snack compared with the evening snack (both  $P < 0.01$ ).

278 In relation to fat intake, both absolute and relative  
279 intakes were higher at dinner compared with the morning,  
280 afternoon snacks and evening snacks ( $P < 0.05$  for all  
281 comparisons). Additionally, fat intake was also higher at lunch  
282 compared with the morning snack ( $P < 0.01$  for both absolute  
283 and relative intakes).

284

#### 285 **Energy and Macronutrient Intake Across Meals on Match** 286 **Days**

287 There was no significant difference ( $P > 0.05$  for all  
288 meals; see Figure 2) in absolute and relative energy and  
289 macronutrient intake between meals on the two difference  
290 match days. However, significant differences were observed  
291 between meals consumed on match days for all energy and  
292 macronutrient variables (all  $P < 0.05$ ; see Figure 2). The absolute  
293 and relative energy and protein intake were higher in the PMM  
294 and PM compared with the PMS, DM and PMRM (all  $P < 0.05$ ).  
295 Additionally, the absolute and relative CHO intake were also  
296 higher in the PMM and PM compared with the PMS and DM  
297 (all  $P < 0.05$ ). Fat intake in the PMM and the PM, when  
298 expressed in both absolute and relative terms, were higher than

299 the PMS and DM (all  $P < 0.05$ ), where the PMM was also lower  
300 than the PMRM (both  $P < 0.05$ ).

301

302

### 303 **Discussion**

304 Having previously quantified the daily “total” energy  
305 intake and expenditure of the players studied here (Anderson et  
306 al., 2017), the aim of the present study was to subsequently  
307 quantify the daily distribution of energy and macronutrient  
308 intakes on both training and match days. Importantly, we  
309 observed that players adopt a skewed approach to feeding on  
310 training days such that absolute energy intake, CHO and  
311 protein intake are consumed in a hierarchical manner of  
312 dinner>lunch>breakfast>snacks. Moreover, we also observed  
313 that players tend to under-consume CHO on match days in  
314 relation to pre-match and post-match meals, especially in  
315 recovery from an evening kick-off time. Taken together, our  
316 data highlight the importance of obtaining dietary data related  
317 to distribution (as opposed to total daily energy intake per se,  
318 Anderson et al., 2017) given the implications related to  
319 components of training adaptation, performance and recovery.

320 In our companion paper (Anderson et al., 2017), we  
321 reported that the players studied herein practiced elements of  
322 CHO periodization such that total daily CHO intake was  
323 greater on match days (i.e.  $6.4 \text{ g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1} \text{ BM}$ ) compared with

324 training days (i.e.  $4.2 \text{ g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1} \text{ BM}$ ). Although such CHO  
325 periodization strategies may be in accordance with the principle  
326 of “fuel for the work required” (Impey et al. 2016; Bartlett et  
327 al., 2015; Hawley & Morton, 2015), we suggested that players  
328 were likely under-consuming CHO in terms of maximizing  
329 match day physical performance and recovery. Further  
330 evidence highlighting this potential “sub-optimal CHO intake”  
331 is also provided by the dietary distribution data provided here.  
332 For example, in relation to match day itself, our data suggest  
333 that players did not meet current CHO guidelines for which to  
334 optimize aspects of physical (Burke et al., 2011), technical (Ali  
335 & Williams, 2009) and cognitive (Welsh et al., 2002)  
336 performance. Indeed, both the pre-match meal ( $< 1.5 \text{ g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$   
337 body mass) and CHO feeding during match play ( $\sim 30 \text{ g}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ ;  
338 four players consumed  $< 30 \text{ g}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ , see Anderson et al. 2017)  
339 could be considered sub-optimal in relation to those studies  
340 (Wee et al., 2005; Foskett et al., 2008) demonstrating higher  
341 CHO intakes (e.g.  $2\text{-}3 \text{ g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$  body mass and  $60 \text{ g}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ ,  
342 respectively) induce physiological benefits that are facilitative  
343 of improved high-intensity intermittent performance e.g. high  
344 pre-exercise glycogen stores, maintenance of plasma  
345 glucose/CHO oxidation during exercise and muscle glycogen  
346 sparing.  
347

348           Given that the present study was conducted during a  
349 two game per week schedule, there was the obvious nutritional  
350 requirement to maximize muscle glycogen storage in the 24-48  
351 h after each game (Krustrup et al., 2006; Bassau et al., 2002).  
352 To this end, we also observed CHO intakes that would be  
353 considered sub-optimal in relation to maximizing rates of post-  
354 match muscle glycogen re-synthesis (Jentjens & Jeukendrup,  
355 2003). Indeed, in contrast to the well-accepted guidelines of  
356 1.2 g.kg<sup>-1</sup> body mass for several hours post-exercise, we  
357 observed reported intakes of <1 g.kg<sup>-1</sup> in the immediate period  
358 after match day 1 (i.e. the night-time kick off). Such post-game  
359 intakes coupled with the relatively low absolute daily intake  
360 (i.e. 4 g.kg<sup>-1</sup>) on the subsequent day (see Anderson et al., 2017)  
361 would inevitably ensue that absolute muscle glycogen re-  
362 synthesis was likely compromised, an effect that may be  
363 especially prevalent in type II fibres (Gunnarsson et al., 2013).  
364 It is noteworthy, however, that the high absolute protein intakes  
365 consumed in the post-match period (i.e. >50 g) would likely  
366 potentiate rates of muscle glycogen re-synthesis when  
367 consumed in the presence of sub-optimal CHO availability  
368 (Van Loon et al., 2000).

369           Despite our observation of CHO periodization during  
370 the weekly microcycle, we previously observed (Anderson et  
371 al., 2017) consistent daily protein intakes (approximately 200 g  
372 per day), the magnitude of which was higher than that typically

373 reported (<150 g/day) previously for adult (Maughan, 1997;  
374 Bettonviel et al., 2016) and youth professional male soccer  
375 players (Naughton et al., 2016). Similar to CHO intake,  
376 however, it is also prudent to consider the daily distribution of  
377 protein feeding given that both that skewed and sub-optimal  
378 intakes at specific meal times can reduce rates of muscle  
379 protein synthesis (Areta et al., 2013; Mamerow et al., 2014).  
380 Indeed, recent data suggest that the timing and even  
381 distribution of daily protein doses may have a more influential  
382 role in modulating muscle protein synthesis when compared  
383 with the absolute dose of protein intake, an effect that is  
384 evident in response to both feeding alone (Mamerow et al.,  
385 2014) and post-exercise feeding (Areta et al., 2013). In this  
386 regard, we observed a skewed pattern of daily protein intake in  
387 that absolute protein was consumed in a hierarchical order  
388 where dinner>lunch>breakfast>snacks. This finding also  
389 agrees with our previous observations on the protein feeding  
390 patterns of elite youth soccer players (Naughton et al., 2016) as  
391 well as adult players from the Dutch league (Bettonviel et al.,  
392 2016) and a mixed sex cohort of Dutch athletes (Gillen et al.  
393 2016). Nonetheless, given that we observed higher daily  
394 protein intakes (>200 g/day) compared with the previous  
395 studies (typically <150 g/day), examination of daily  
396 distribution data also allows us to comment on those meals that  
397 led to greater absolute protein intake. In this regard, it appears

398 that an additional absolute intake of approximately 20-25 g at  
399 both lunch and dinner accounted for the greater absolute total  
400 daily intake.

401 Based on recent data suggesting that trained athletes  
402 (especially those with higher lean mass) may require protein  
403 doses of approximately 40 g (MacNaughton et al., 2016) as  
404 well as the importance of protein feeding prior to sleep (Res et  
405 al., 2012), our data suggest that breakfast and morning,  
406 afternoon and bedtime snacks are key times to improve for the  
407 present sample. We acknowledge, however, that protein  
408 requirements (both in absolute dosing and timing) should be  
409 tailored to the specific population in question in accordance  
410 with timing of training sessions, training load and moreover,  
411 individualized training goals.

412 Despite the novelty and practical application of the  
413 current study, our data are not without limitations, largely a  
414 reflection of the practical demands of data collection in an elite  
415 football setting. Firstly, this study is reflective of only six  
416 players from one team only (albeit reflective of a top EPL  
417 team) and hence may not be representative of the customary  
418 training and nutritional habits of other teams. Nonetheless, we  
419 deliberately recruited players with different playing positions in  
420 an attempt to provide a more representative sample of  
421 professional soccer players. Secondly, our deliberate choice to  
422 study a two game week scenario (as is highly relevant for elite

423 level players) may not be applicable to players of lower  
424 standards. Thirdly, as with all dietary analysis studies, our data  
425 may be limited by both under-reporting and inter-researcher  
426 variability in ability to assess dietary intakes. Indeed, whilst  
427 we observed no significant group mean changes in body mass  
428 over the data collection period, two of our subjects did appear  
429 to under report whereas four of the subjects reported energy  
430 intake data that was comparable (within 200 kcal) to energy  
431 expenditure data (see Anderson et al. 2017). Finally, both of  
432 the games studied here represented home games and hence the  
433 nutritional choices are likely to be influenced by the philosophy  
434 and service provision of the club coaching and catering staff.

435 In summary, we simultaneously quantified for the first  
436 time the daily distribution of energy and macronutrient intakes  
437 of EPL soccer players on both training and match days. Our  
438 data suggest that players may benefit from consuming greater  
439 amounts of CHO in both the pre-match and post-match meals  
440 so as to increase CHO availability and maximize rates of  
441 muscle glycogen re-synthesis, respectively. Furthermore, we  
442 also observed that daily protein intake was consumed in a  
443 hierarchical manner such that dinner > lunch > breakfast >  
444 snacks. Attention should also be given to therefore ensuring  
445 even distribution of daily protein intake so as to potentially  
446 promote components of training adaptation.

447

448

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450

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455

456

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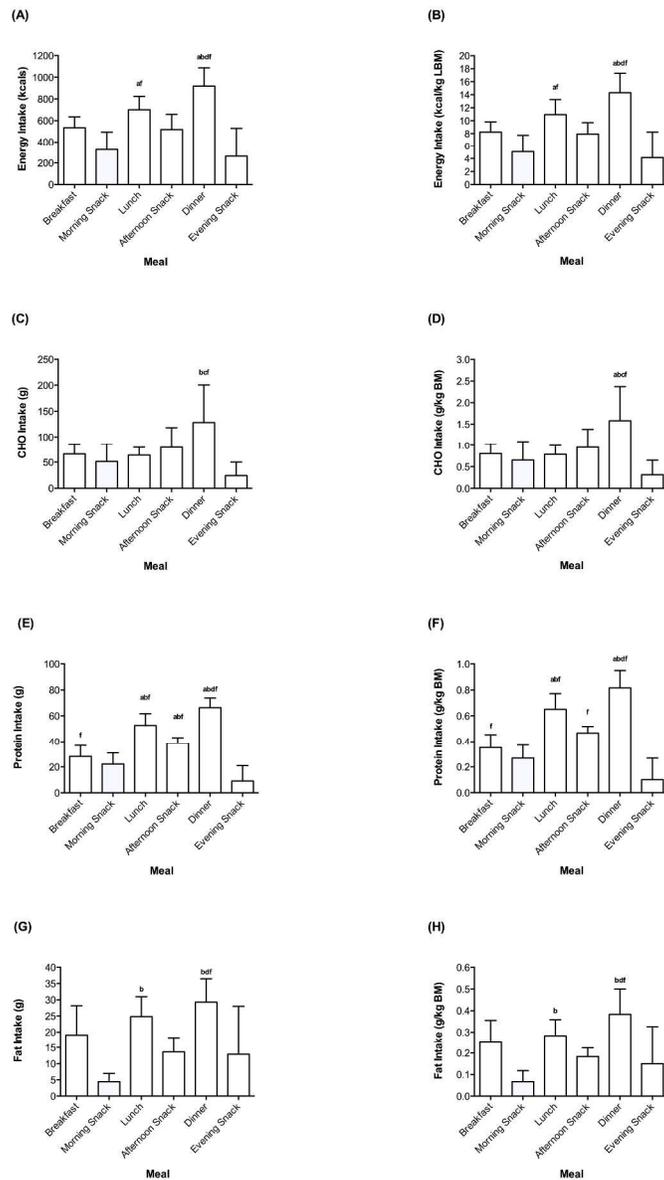


Figure 1. Energy and macronutrient intakes meal distribution on training days. Figure A=absolute energy expenditure, Figure B=energy expenditure relative to lean body mass, Figure C=absolute carbohydrate, Figure D=relative carbohydrate, Figure E=absolute protein, Figure F=relative protein, Figure G=absolute fat and Figure H=relative fat. White bars=training days and black bars=match days. a denotes difference from breakfast, b denotes difference from morning snack, c denotes difference from lunch, d denotes difference from afternoon snack, e denotes difference from dinner, f denotes difference from evening snack.

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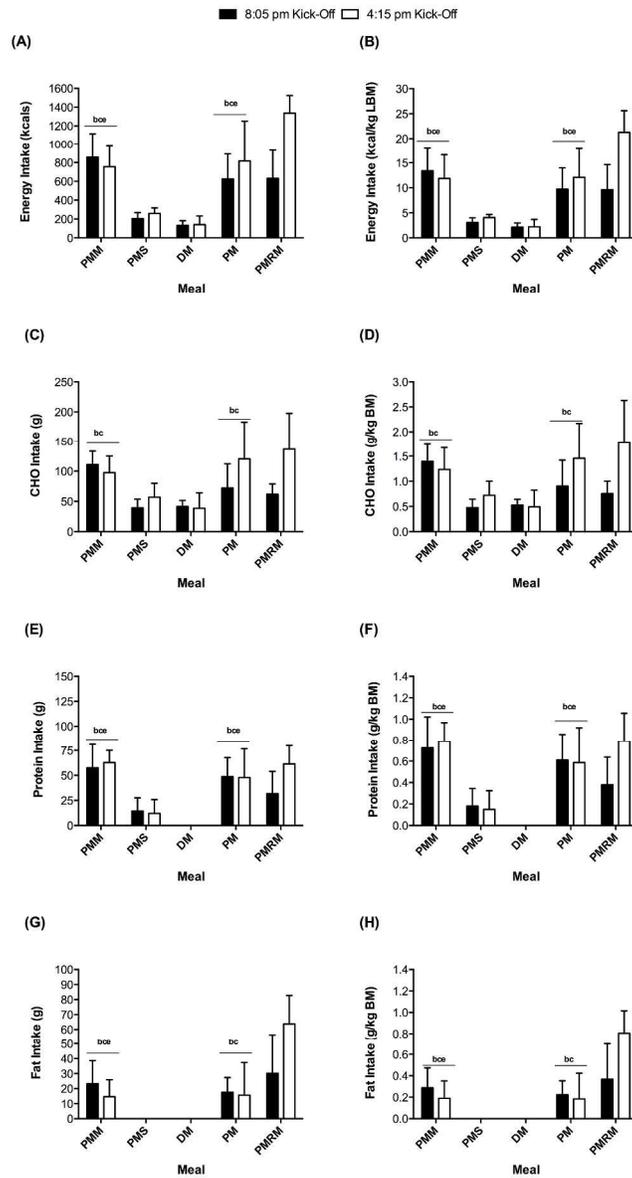


Figure 2. Energy and macronutrient intake meal distribution on the two match days during the study period. Black bars=match day 1 and white bars=match day 2. a denotes difference from PMM, b denotes difference from PMS, c denotes difference from DM, d denotes difference from PM, e denotes difference from PMRM. PMM=Pre Match Meal, PMS=Pre-Match Snack, DM=During-Match, PM=Post-Match, PMRM=Post-Match Recovery Meal.

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