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Why do bad balls get wickets? The role of congruent and incongruent information in anticipation

Oliver R. Runswick^{1,2}

André Roca¹

A. Mark Williams³

Allistair P. McRobert⁴

Jamie S. North¹

¹ Expert Performance and Skill Acquisition Research Group, School of Sport, Health and Applied Science, St Mary's University, Twickenham, London, UK

² Department of Sport and Exercise Sciences, University of Chichester, Chichester, UK

³ Department of Health, Kinesiology and Recreation, College of Health, University of Utah, Salt Lake City, USA

⁴ Research Institute for Sport and Exercise Sciences, Liverpool John Moores University, UK

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Corresponding author:

Oliver Runswick

Department of Sport and Exercise Sciences

University of Chichester

College Lane

Chichester

PO19 6PE

Email: o.runswick@chi.ac.uk

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Abstract

1
2 Skilled anticipation is underpinned by the use of kinematic and contextual information. However, few
3 researchers have examined what happens when contextual information suggests an outcome that is different
4 from the event that follows. We aimed to bridge this gap by manipulating the relationship between contextual
5 information and final ball location in a cricket-batting task. We predicted that when contextual information is
6 *congruent* with the eventual outcome then anticipation would be facilitated. In contrast, when contextual
7 information is *incongruent*, this would lead to a confirmation bias on kinematic information and result in
8 decreased anticipation accuracy. We expected this effect to be larger in skilled performers who are more able to
9 utilise context. Skilled and less-skilled cricket batters anticipated deliveries presented using a temporally
10 occluded video-based task. We created conditions whereby contextual information and event outcome were
11 either congruent or incongruent. There was a significant skill by condition interaction ($p < 0.05$). The skilled
12 group anticipated significantly more accurately than the less-skilled group on the congruent trials. Both groups
13 anticipated less accurately on incongruent trials, with the skilled participants being more negatively affected.
14 Skilled performers prioritise contextual information and confirmation bias affects the use of kinematic
15 information available later in the action.

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26 **Introduction**

27 The ability to anticipate is critical when making decisions and executing motor responses under extreme
28 time constraints in dynamic environments. These situations occur regularly in fastball sports such as cricket or
29 baseball, where a batter has to respond to a ball often delivered at extremely high velocities (Gray, 2002).
30 Scientists have identified two broad categories of information that facilitate anticipation in skilled athletes. First,
31 the use of visual information, such as advanced postural cues (i.e., kinematic or biological motion information)
32 from the movements of an opponent, has been shown to underpin skilled anticipation (Mann, Williams, Ward, &
33 Janelle, 2007). Second, the use of contextual information, in visual or non-visual form, such as the score in the
34 game or the positions of fielders, has been shown to contribute to anticipation judgements (Paull & Glencross,
35 1997; Runswick et al., 2018a; Runswick, Roca, Williams, McRobert, & North, 2018b). However, while
36 empirical evidence is reported to support the involvement of both sources of information, few researchers have
37 examined how these two sources of information interact during anticipation. In this paper, we present a novel
38 approach to examine this issue.

39 The majority of researchers have predominantly focused on situations where the information presented
40 to participants is *congruent* with event outcome (i.e., the information available from an opponent's kinematics
41 and the context lead to a probable outcome which is then subsequently realised). However, it is likely that in
42 some situations, the kinematic and contextual information presented may be incongruent in predicting the event
43 that actually occurs. For example, in cricket, fielders are located based on tactical plans that aim to decrease the
44 likelihood of runs being scored and increase the likelihood of getting the batsman out. The bowler will aim to
45 deliver the ball to bounce in a location that is appropriate for the position of the fielders. If the game context and
46 bowler's kinematics lead to the delivery location that subsequently occurs then information is congruent.
47 However, through either deliberate deception or poor execution (a bad ball), bowlers can execute deliveries that

48 land in a location that differs from that which may be predicted from the kinematic or contextual information
49 presented; that is, the information presented is incongruent with the eventual outcome. While such instances are
50 regularly picked up by skilled batters to score runs, the adage exists in cricket that on occasion ‘bad balls get
51 wickets’.

52 Thus far, researchers have focused most of their efforts on identifying the sources of kinematic
53 information (such as those from the bowler’s body) that are most important in allowing skilled performers to
54 accurately anticipate and when these sources of information become available in the display (Abernethy &
55 Zawi, 2007; Müller, Abernethy, & Farrow, 2006; Williams & Davids, 1998). The typical approach has involved
56 the use of film-based stimuli in conjunction with spatial and temporal occlusion methods. For example,
57 researchers have shown that when anticipating at soccer penalty kicks, the position of the standing foot in the
58 final stride is especially informative for goalkeepers (Savelsbergh, Williams, van der Kamp, & Ward, 2002),
59 while in cricket the kinematic information, from locations such as the bowling hand and arm, can be picked up
60 prior to ball release and are utilised earlier in the anticipation process by skilled batters (Müller et al., 2006).

61 It is also possible for an opponent to use kinematic information, such as postural cues, to deceive the
62 responder or disguise the intentions of an action (Güldenpenning, Kunde, & Weigelt, 2017). The effect of using
63 postural cues to disguise action intention has been shown across multiple sports including rugby (Jackson,
64 Warren, & Abernethy, 2006), basketball (Kunde, Skirde, & Weigelt, 2009), tennis (Rowe, Horswill, Kronwall-
65 Parkinson, Poulter, & McKenna, 2009), and handball (Cañal-Bruland & Schmidt, 2009). Kunde et al. (2011)
66 showed that a ‘head fake’ (turning the head in the opposite direction to delivering a pass) in basketball
67 negatively affected the ability to judge pass direction and increased the time needed for an opponent to
68 responded. However, skilled performers can still use kinematic information that arises late on in the process to
69 make judgements above chance, even when deception is taking place (Rowe et al., 2009). It appears important
70 for skilled performers to be able to use kinematic information that emerges late in the anticipatory process to

71 make judgements, albeit they may also utilise earlier information from other sources to inform initial
72 judgements regarding likely event outcomes (Müller & Abernethy, 2012; Rowe et al., 2009).

73 More recently, researchers have started to focus on the importance of using contextual information that is
74 available early in the anticipation process (Loffing & Cañal-Bruland, 2017). Murphy et al. (2016) reported that
75 skilled performers outperform less-skilled individuals even when kinematic information is completely absent
76 from the display, suggesting that the use of contextual information is critical for accurate anticipation. Context
77 has been used to describe a number of different information sources in the literature such as the action
78 preferences of opponents (Loffing, Stern, & Hagemann, 2015; Mann, Schaefers, & Cañal-Bruland, 2014), the
79 game score (Farrow & Reid, 2012), the position of teammates and opposing players on the field (Paull &
80 Glencross, 1997) and the sequencing of events (McRobert, Ward, Eccles, & Williams, 2011). Typically,
81 researchers have presented sources of contextual information that are congruent with the event outcome and
82 manipulated the amount of context available to the participant. McRobert et al. (2011) displayed the same
83 cricket deliveries in and out of sequence and found that when deliveries were in sequence, anticipation accuracy
84 improved and that skilled performers made more verbal report statements relating to the use of higher-order
85 cognitive processes. Runswick et al. (2018a) replicated these findings while adding information about the game
86 situation and field placement and showed, using verbal reports, that skilled performers were better able to make
87 use of contextual information to aid anticipation. Similarly, Runswick et al. (2018b) occluded footage at
88 different time points and reported that skilled cricketers could make more accurate judgements based solely on
89 the context available prior to the presence of any kinematic information. In these studies, performers could build
90 on already established probabilities based on the context presented in order to make more accurate predictions.
91 Several researchers have already reported that when contextual information is present and this information is
92 congruent with the event outcome then anticipation performance improves (McRobert et al., 2011; Murphy et
93 al., 2016; Runswick et al., 2018a). However, few researchers have manipulated the relationship between context

94 and event outcome by presenting certain game situations and controlling event outcomes in an effort to examine
95 whether context can either deliberately or accidentally have a negative impact on anticipation.

96 Several situations arise in sport where the outcome that would be predicted based on access to contextual
97 information alone is incongruent with the event that actually occurs. Cañal-Bruland, Filius, and Oudejans (2015)
98 showed that contextual knowledge of opponents' action capabilities could have a negative impact on
99 performance. Participants completed a baseball batting task and were informed that the pitcher had a good
100 'fastball', yet on trials when a 'fastball' was not delivered, hitting performance decreased due to movements
101 being initiated too quickly. Gray (2002) showed that information gained from situation-specific context (e.g., the
102 sequence of pitches and pitch count in baseball) could negatively affect performance if the expected outcomes
103 did not occur on the following pitch, suggesting that, like kinematic cues contextual information could cause
104 deception (Güldenpenning et al., 2017). While these studies provide an insight into how context can potentially
105 impair anticipation, both are limited by their failure to include a less-skilled group. Previously, researchers
106 investigating high- and low-order cognitive processes in anticipation through the use of verbal reports have
107 shown that skilled performers are able to use the high-order contextual information, whereas both skilled and
108 less-skilled use lower-order kinematic cues (McRobert et al., 2011; Murphy et al., 2016; Runswick et al., 2018).
109 Therefore, while skilled players anticipate more accurately when information is congruent there is likely to be
110 an interaction between congruence and expertise where only skilled participants are susceptible to context
111 deception; albeit, a less-skilled group is necessary to directly test this hypothesis. In addition, researchers have
112 previously isolated the exchange between batter and pitcher without accounting for the effect that other sources
113 of contextual information that would be available in a performance environment, such as position of opposition
114 fielders and game score might have on performance (Paull & Glencross, 1997).

115 In this paper, we suggest that *confirmation bias* can explain why contextual information can have both
116 positive and negative effects on anticipation performance. Confirmation bias postulates that once a decision has

117 been made, people prefer to attend to supporting information and avoid information that conflicts with that
118 presented originally (Jonas, Schulz-Hardt, Frey, & Thelen, 2001; Nickerson, 1998). This phenomenon has
119 previously been applied to decision-making in medicine (Pines, 2006; Tschan et al., 2009). If skilled batters
120 develop outcome expectations based on contextual information early in the anticipation process, this could lead
121 to confirmation bias and affect the use of kinematic information arising later in the process. In congruent
122 situations, a judgement is made based on contextual information and supported with later arising kinematic
123 information leading to accurate anticipation. However, in incongruent situations, the later arising kinematic
124 information may not be used because it suggests an outcome that contrasts with the original decision, leading to
125 a decrease in anticipation accuracy. Furthermore, confirmation bias could be exacerbated by skilled batsmen
126 relying more heavily on sources of contextual information than less-skilled counterparts. In contrast, less-skilled
127 performers are less able to utilise contextual information and rely more heavily on kinematic information to
128 inform decisions (Runswick et al., 2018a). Consequently, less-skilled performers, while more likely to be
129 deceived by kinematic cues (Güldenpenning et al., 2017), are less likely to suffer from confirmation bias and
130 deception caused by contextual information.

131 We compare skilled and less-skilled batters using a temporal occlusion paradigm to uncover how the
132 degree of congruence between contextual information and event outcome affects anticipation performance.
133 Specifically, we used a cricket-batting task that involved a novel manipulation that kept context consistent
134 throughout. We presented participants with deliveries that were occluded immediately prior to ball release and
135 in which the outcome of the delivery was either executed correctly and congruent, or executed incorrectly and
136 incongruent with this context. We predicted that when contextual information was congruent with the event
137 outcome, the skilled group would anticipate more accurately than the less-skilled group due to a superior ability
138 to use both kinematic and contextual information to facilitate anticipation. However, when contextual
139 information was incongruent with event outcome a skill by congruence interaction was expected, which would

140 have a greater negative effect on anticipation performance in skilled compared with less-skilled participants. We
141 predicted that the enhanced ability to use contextual information in skilled performers would lead to
142 confirmation bias and reduce emphasis on using up-to-date kinematic information.

143

144

Method

145

Participants

146 Altogether, 18 skilled cricket batsmen (M age = 25.7 ± 7.8 years) who played at a minimum of club level
147 (M competitive experience = 14.9 ± 9.3 years) and 18 less-skilled participants (M age = 27.8 ± 9.6 years) with
148 no experience in playing competitive cricket volunteered to participate. Six of the skilled players had experience
149 at national representative level (minor county or above, which makes up the top three tiers of domestic cricket
150 competition in the UK). The less-skilled group all resided in a cricket-playing nation and therefore could have
151 experienced some exposure to non-competitive cricket in a physical education or street-sport context. As a
152 result, this group was labelled as less-skilled rather than novice. The research was conducted in accordance with
153 the ethical guidelines of the lead institution and written informed consent was obtained from all participants at
154 the outset.

155 We used the same stimuli as previously employed by McRobert, Williams, Ward, and Eccles (2009).
156 Ten (M age = 19.5 ± 2.5 years) county-level cricket bowlers (six fast; four spin) were recruited to create the
157 video-based test stimuli. A camera was positioned on the batting crease at a height of 1.7 m and in line with
158 middle stump so that it represented a typical viewing perspective while batting. The different bowlers were
159 instructed to bowl to a specified location (outside off stump) and were recorded delivering a full over (six
160 deliveries), yielding 60 unique deliveries.

161

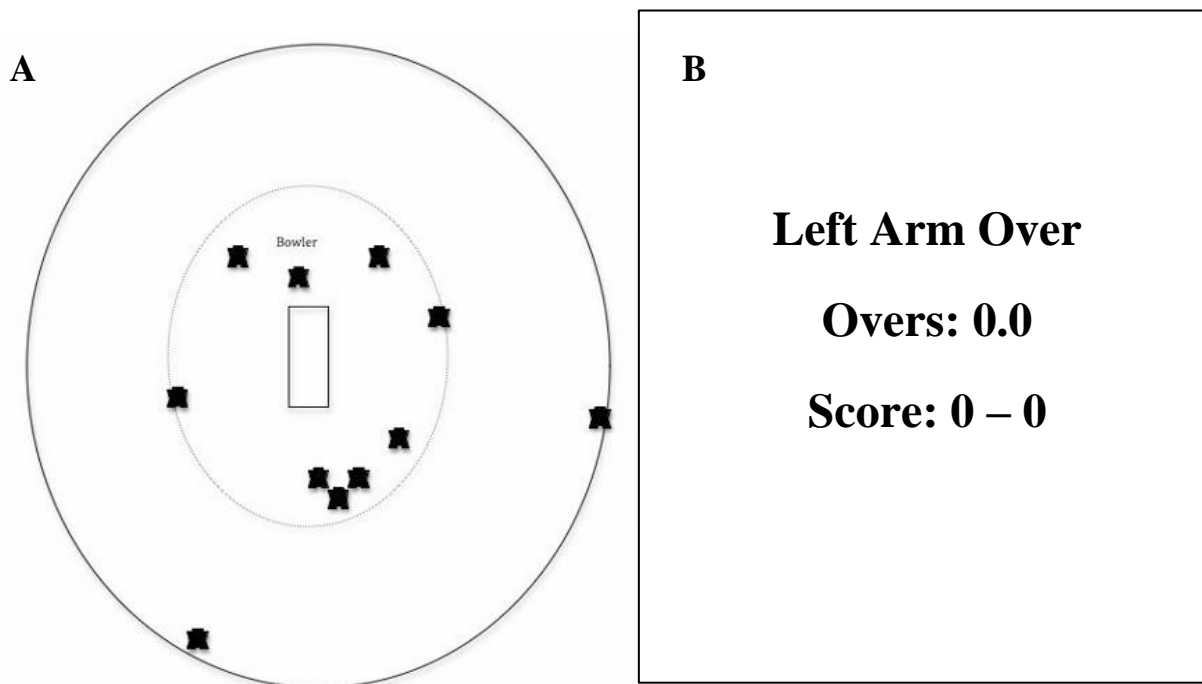
Procedure

162 Two of the original deliveries were selected from six of the bowlers who, alongside ‘good balls’ that had
163 been correctly delivered to the specified location, had also delivered a ‘bad ball’ that had not gone to the
164 requested location. This meant a realistic hypothetical game situation could be created that was congruent with
165 the outcome of one of the deliveries, but that would be incongruent with the outcome of another delivery from
166 the same bowler. The six bowlers selected consisted of two right arm over seam bowlers, two right arm over
167 spin bowlers, and two left arm over seam bowlers. A panel of three qualified cricket coaches viewed non-
168 occluded footage and agreed upon a game situation and field setting that would be tactically appropriate for the
169 outcome of the good delivery and inappropriate for the bad delivery. Figure 1 shows an example of the
170 contextual information participants received prior to viewing the bowler; this example represents the first over
171 of the match. The good delivery, in which the ball location (event outcome) was tactically appropriate for the
172 game situation and field setting (contextual information) was designated as *congruent*. The bad delivery, in
173 which the ball location (event outcome) was not tactically appropriate for the game situation and field setting
174 (contextual information) was designated *incongruent*. The contextual information presented varied across each
175 of the six bowlers, but remained consistent across conditions.

176 Since it has been reported that skilled performers can pick up kinematic cues prior to ball flight (e.g.,
177 Müller et al., 2006; Müller & Abernethy, 2012), all clips were occluded immediately prior to ball release and
178 duplicated to make six trials from each bowler; three congruent and three incongruent. Participants were
179 unaware that they were viewing repeated clips. The congruent and incongruent trials were arranged into blocks
180 of six trials per bowler as would be seen in a game (one over) and the order of trial types was balanced to negate
181 effects of possible familiarisation. Participants were seated square on to a large screen (minimum size 2006mm
182 x 1192mm Clevertouch 4k) and viewed 36 trials, with one block of six deliveries from each of the six bowlers.
183 For every trial, participants received information on the game score, including the number of overs bowled, runs
184 scored and wickets taken prior to seeing the delivery (as looking at a scoreboard) and were informed that the

185 format was a one-day international (50 over) match. The field settings were displayed on a schematic
186 representation prior to seeing the bowler (Runswick, Roca, Williams, Bezodis, & North, 2017).

187 Participants were informed how to use response sheets for ball location predictions. Less-skilled players
188 were given no instruction about cricket batting. However, they were informed that in cricket the bowler can
189 bowl a legal delivery anywhere between the wide lines marked on the crease, the ball does not have to be aimed
190 at the stumps and can bounce once before reaching the batter. For each trial, when the screen occluded,
191 participants were asked to mark the predicted point the ball would have passed the stumps on a scaled diagram
192 eight \times smaller than game size to fit a single A4 sheet. The radial error from correct ball location was measured
193 and scaled back up to quantify anticipation accuracy at game scale (i.e., how far the bat would have been from
194 the ball). The participants did not receive feedback on their performance at any point during testing.



195
196 Figure 1. An example of the context displayed to participants (A) Field setting. (B) Bowler type and game
197 situation.

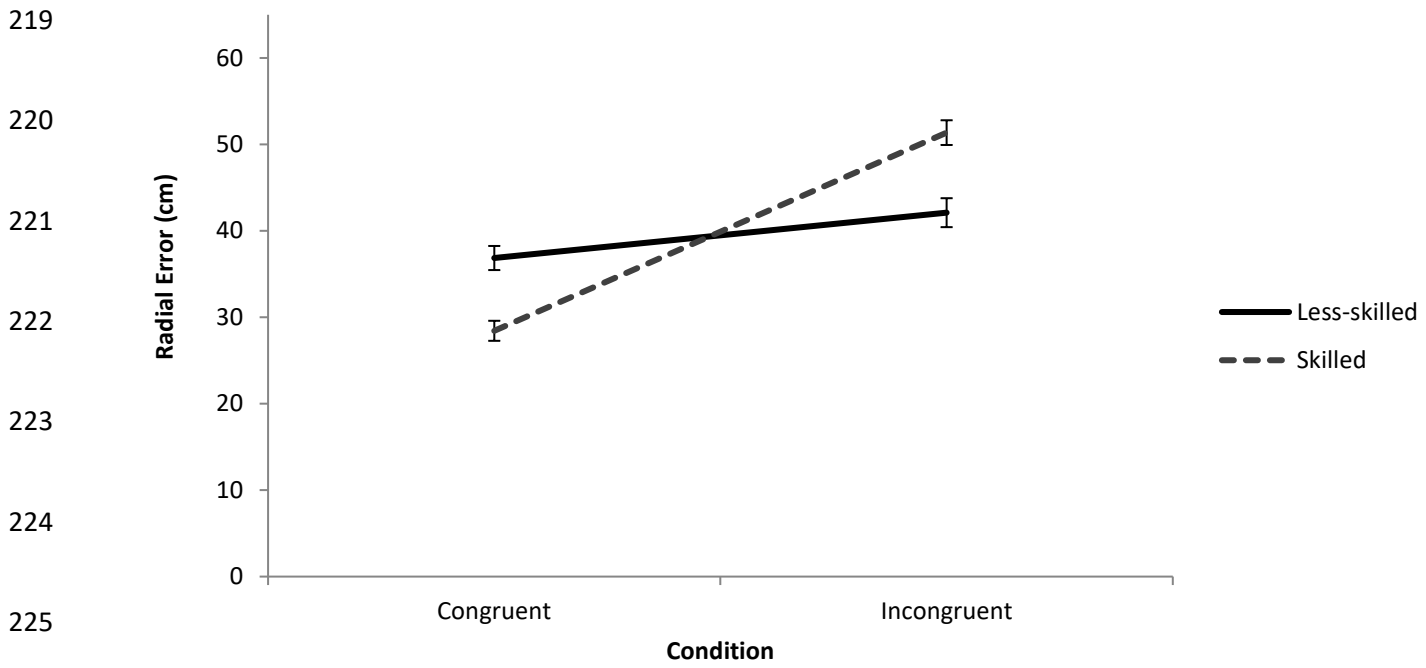
198 **Data Analysis**

199 A two-way mixed design ANOVA was used to analyse the effect of group (skilled, less-skilled) and
200 condition (congruent, incongruent) on anticipation accuracy. Any violations of sphericity were corrected for by
201 adjusting the degrees of freedom using the Greenhouse-Geisser correction when epsilon was less than 0.75 and
202 the Huynh-Feldt correction when greater than 0.75. Partial eta squared (η_p^2) was used as a measure of effect size
203 for all analyses. The alpha level (p) for statistical significance was set at 0.05.

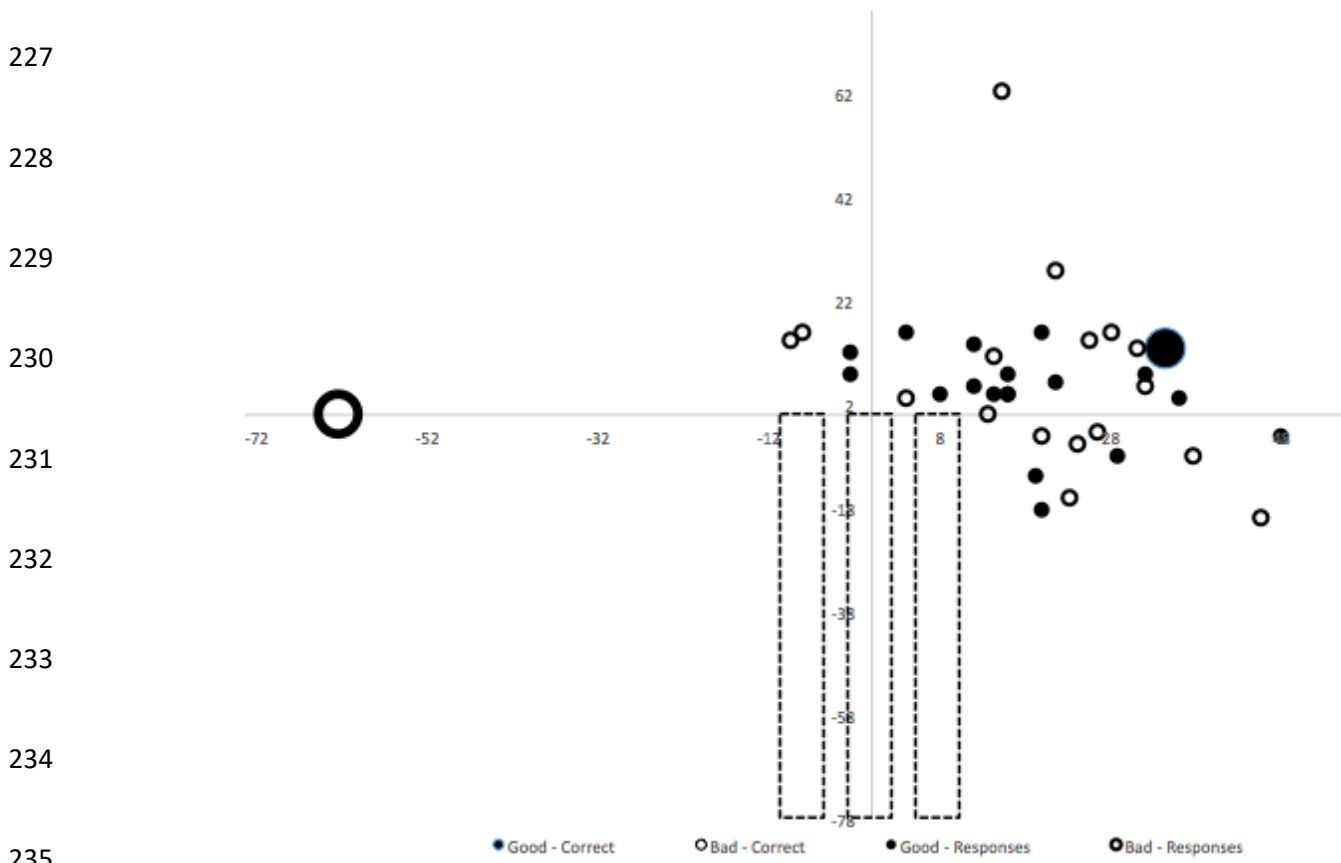
204 **Results**

205 There was a significant effect of congruence on the anticipation accuracy across groups ($F_{1, 34} = 85.34, p$
206 $< 0.01, \eta_p^2 = 0.72$). The skilled group were significantly more accurate at predicting ball location on the
207 congruent ($M_{\text{radial error}} \pm SD; 28.4 \pm 4.9$ cm) compared to incongruent (51.4 ± 4.1 cm) trials. Also, the less-skilled
208 players were significantly more accurate at predicting ball location on the congruent (36.9 ± 5.9 cm) compared
209 to incongruent (42.1 ± 7.1 cm) trials. There was no significant overall effect of skill across conditions ($F_{1, 34} =$
210 $0.10, p = 0.75, \eta_p^2 = 0.01$). However, there was a significant skill \times congruence interaction (Figure 2; $F_{1, 34} =$
211 $33.63, p < 0.01, \eta_p^2 = 0.50$). The skilled group ($M_{\text{radial error}} \pm SD; 28.4 \pm 4.9$ cm) were more accurate at
212 anticipating ball location than the less-skilled group (36.9 ± 4.1 cm) on congruent trials, but the skilled group
213 (51.4 ± 4.1 cm) were significantly less accurate than the less-skilled group (42.1 ± 7.1 cm) when contextual
214 information was incongruent with the event outcome. Figure 3 shows the correct responses to the good and bad
215 deliveries that were displayed following the context presented in Figure 1, alongside the distribution of skilled
216 responses. This schematic represents the largest difference between congruent and incongruent deliveries in the
217 study.

218



226 Figure 2. Anticipation accuracy for skilled and less-skilled groups in congruent and incongruent conditions (SE).



236 Figure 3. A scale set of cricket stumps with the top of middle representing (0, 0) and axis scales showing
237 distance scaled up to game size (cm) with response distribution shown from skilled performers in response to
238 the one congruent (good) and incongruent (bad) deliveries that were coupled with the context from Fig 1A and
239 1B.

240 **Discussion**

241 We used a novel, video-based temporal occlusion task to investigate the effect of congruence between
242 contextual information and event outcome on anticipation in cricket. The results showed that both skill groups
243 anticipated more accurately in the congruent condition, suggesting the relationship between information sources
244 available prior to event outcome is important for anticipation. Furthermore, the skilled group anticipated more
245 accurately than the less-skilled group when the contextual information and the event outcome were congruent.
246 This finding supported our prediction and is in line with much of the literature investigating both kinematic
247 (Abernethy, 1990; Müller et al., 2009) and contextual information sources in anticipation (McRobert et al.,
248 2011; Murphy et al., 2016). As predicted, based on the findings of Runswick et al. (2018a; 2018b), there was
249 also a significant interaction between congruence and skill level. The skilled group anticipated more accurately
250 than the less-skilled group when information was congruent with event outcome and less accurately than the
251 less-skilled group when it was not. Similarly, Cañal-Bruland et al. (2015) showed that contextual information of
252 an opponent's action capabilities could harm batting performance in baseball when the information is not
253 congruent with the pitch delivered (event outcome). Gray (2002) showed pitch sequence and count only had a
254 positive influence when it was congruent with the event outcome. However, this is the first study to show that a
255 lack of congruence between contextual information and the outcome of the following event can have a
256 significant negative impact on anticipation and that this decrement in performance is significantly greater for
257 skilled compared with less-skilled participants. This incongruence can arise through deception or poor execution
258 from the bowler and in this study caused the skilled performer's anticipation performance to fall below that of

259 the less-skilled group.

260 An explanation for why the significant decline in anticipation performance is so dramatic is drawn from
261 confirmation bias, suggesting that once a decision is formed, new information that supports the original decision
262 is prioritised (Pines et al., 2006). Runswick et al. (2018b) had skilled and less-skilled cricket batters make
263 anticipatory judgements at different occlusion points and collected self-reported scores to analyse the use of
264 different sources of information at varying time points in the anticipation process. The skilled performers could
265 make significantly more accurate anticipatory judgements than their less-skilled counterparts at the earliest
266 occlusion point and relied more heavily on contextual information. Murphy et al. (2016) supported these
267 findings by reporting that skilled performers could anticipate more accurately when kinematic information was
268 absent from the display. We suggest that skilled batters made an early judgement as to the probable event
269 outcome based on contextual information. Subsequently, this may have resulted in confirmation bias, with
270 skilled batters prioritising later arising kinematic information that led to the same conclusion. When the later
271 arising kinematic information led to a different outcome, its use was diminished causing a significantly
272 decreased ability to make accurate judgements. Less-skilled performers, who rely on kinematic information, did
273 not suffer from confirmation bias because they are less able to use contextual information and, therefore, there
274 was no early decision to bias the use of up-to-date kinematic information. This application represents an
275 expansion of the confirmation bias literature towards the investigation of information use in the context of
276 temporally-constrained anticipation tasks. Previously, researchers have generally focused on tasks involving
277 more conscious processing and there is, therefore, an opportunity for future work to build on this study and
278 continue to test the application of confirmation bias in more dynamic environments.

279 In the present study, an occlusion point immediately prior to ball release and different types of bowler
280 were chosen in order to investigate whether up-to-date kinematic information from the bowler's body is affected
281 by confirmation bias. Runswick et al. (2018b) recently reported that when 80ms of ball flight information was

282 available to skilled cricket batters, prioritisation of information began to switch from contextual information to
283 that arising from the bowler and ball flight. It is therefore possible that skilled batters would be able to rapidly
284 correct responses formulated from the use of incongruent context. Runswick et al. (2018b) used *congruent*
285 contextual information, so early ball flight information always supported the responses that had been established
286 earlier using context and therefore lead to more accurate judgments. However, if confirmation bias is occurring,
287 then, despite the value of early ball flight information, the use of this information will still be biased towards
288 supporting the early judgment because it becomes available after an initial judgment has been made using
289 context. Therefore, the same pattern of results could occur when ball flight is present, with highly accurate
290 predictions in congruent situations but less use of ball flight information and less accurate predictions when
291 context is incongruent. Furthermore, even if the early ball flight information is not subject to confirmation bias
292 then the skilled batter is at a disadvantage because the correct outcome is realised later, meaning less time is
293 afforded to execute a motor response. In the future, researchers should look to investigate whether the effects
294 displayed in this experiment still occur when ball flight information is available and is consistent across different
295 types and speeds of bowler.

296 While this research has used a novel manipulation to begin to uncover the impact that incongruent
297 contextual information can have on anticipation performance, some further limitations should be noted. This
298 experiment focused solely on incongruent information caused by accidental poor execution rather than
299 deliberate deception and so researchers should investigate occurrences in which incongruent contextual
300 information is used to deliberately deceive the opposition. Furthermore, a simple pen and paper response was
301 used alongside screen-based stimuli, potentially diluting the skilled advantage (Mann, Abernethy and Farrow,
302 2010) and making it harder to transfer findings to the field setting (cf. Pinder et al., 2011). In future, researchers
303 should investigate the congruence of kinematic and contextual information sources using tasks that necessitate a
304 movement response (e.g., Runswick et al., 2017).

305 The data presented in this study show that an incongruent relationship between contextual information
306 and the outcome of the following event caused skilled cricket batters to anticipate less accurately than less-
307 skilled counterparts. From an applied perspective, performers in fast-ball sports should make use of contextual
308 information with caution and be aware that the ability to update probabilities with new kinematic information is
309 vital to avoid deception. Practitioners should make sure that training occurs in the presence of both full
310 kinematic and contextual information sources in order to allow both batters and bowlers to learn to use the
311 dynamic relationship between the two and event outcome to both deceive and predict. While previously
312 researchers have highlighted the positive influence context can have on anticipation, such an effect may only
313 occur when the contextual information is congruent with event outcome. If the two sources of information are
314 incongruent, it can have a significant negative effect on the ability of skilled batters to anticipate, thereby
315 providing one argument as to why on occasion ‘bad balls get wickets’ in cricket.

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