

**Title: Nursing Workload, Knowledge about Pain, and their Relation to Pain**

**Records**

**Running Title: Workload and Pain in ICU**

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**Keywords:** Intensive Care Units, Critical Care Nursing, Pain Management, Pain  
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### 12 **Competing Interest**

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14 The authors declare no competing interest.  
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## Nursing Workload, Knowledge about Pain, and Nurses' Relation to Pain Records

### ABSTRACT

**Purpose:** To study the relationship between frequency of pain assessment and nursing workload, and also to analyse the frequency of pain assessment and its relation with knowledge and attitudes towards pain on nursing professionals in intensive care unit.

**Methods:** An ambispective study was conducted in a Spanish tertiary level Intensive Care Unit between October 2017 and April 2018. For the measurement of workload, the "Nursing Activities Score" scale was used, and for the measurement of pain knowledge, the "Knowledge and Attitudes Survey Regarding Pain" was used.

**Results:** There were 1207 measurements among 41 nurses and 1838 among 317 patients. The average nursing workload was high (70.97 points). We found statistically significant positive effect between nursing workload and the frequency of assessment ( $p < 0.001$ ), as well as in patients with communicative capacity ( $p = 0.008$ ).

**Conclusions:** Nursing workload affects the registration and assessment of patients' pain, resulting in a greater number of records as the workload performed by nurses' increases.

**Clinical Implications:** It is necessary to study in greater depth how the severity and the gender of the patients and the shift of the nurses' influence pain registration and assessment.

**Keywords:** Intensive Care Units, Critical Care Nursing, Pain Management, Pain Measurement

**INTRODUCTION**

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24 Despite a variety of guidelines for effective pain control, it is estimated that between 50%  
25 and 80% of hospitalized patients suffer from pain, considered intense in many cases  
26 (Payen, Bosson, Chanques, Mantz, & Labarere, 2009; Puntillo et al., 2013), and affecting  
27 the quality of life of patients during and after their hospital stays (Granja et al., 2005;  
28 Rotondi et al., 2002).

29 Intensive Care Units are especially prevalent in pain studies. Their numbers may  
30 be higher due to the clinical diagnoses of patients, the pathologies responsible for their  
31 admission, and the different techniques and procedures carried out (Al Sutari,  
32 Abdalrahim, Hamdan-Mansour, & Ayasrah, 2014; Clukey, Weyant, Roberts, &  
33 Henderson, 2014; Puntillo et al., 2001; Puntillo et al., 2013).

34 The consequences of poorly controlled pain have been described extensively  
35 throughout the literature. Problems in wound healing, increased mechanical ventilation  
36 times, nosocomial infections, cardiac arrhythmias, increased myocardial oxygen  
37 consumption, increased risk of thromboembolic accidents, delirium or other psychiatric  
38 disorders, increased healthcare costs, and mortality are fundamental consequences of  
39 inadequate pain management (Dale et al., 2013; Dunwoody, Krenzischek, Pasero,  
40 Rathmell, & Polomano, 2008; Pasero et al., 2009; Payen et al., 2009; Robinson et al.,  
41 2008; Sacco & LaRiccia, 2016; Yamashita, Yamasaki, Matsuyama, & Amaya, 2017).

42 There are several circumstances that make it difficult to manage and eliminate  
43 pain in patients. These may be related to the patient, the staff giving care, or the institution  
44 itself. The patient's clinical status or cultural determinants can make diagnosis difficult.  
45 On the other hand, desensitization of hospital staff may result in a lower prioritization of  
46 pain management in favour of other parameters, such as haemodynamics or ventilation,  
47 which can be limiting elements for a good diagnosis or proper pain control (Pasero et al.,

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2009; Rose et al., 2011; Sigakis & Bittner, 2015). In turn, a low level of knowledge has been shown to be one of the limitations that contributes to poor pain management, and is especially problematic for those who cannot express themselves clearly (Medrzycka-Dabrowka, Dąbrowski, Gutysz-Wojnicka, Gawroska-Krzemińska, & Ozga, 2017; Pretorius, Searle, & Marshall, 2015; Rose et al., 2012; van der Woude, Bormans, Hofhuis, & Spronk, 2016). Finally, restrictive or excessively conservative policies in the face of advances in treatments and techniques for pain management, distrust among professional staff, or a perceived excessive workload constitute the leading barriers attributable to the health system (Kizza & Muliira, 2015; Pretorius et al., 2015; Rose et al., 2012; Sneyers, Laterre, Perreault, Wouters, & Spinewine, 2014; Subramanian, Allcock, James, & Lathlean, 2012; Wioletta, Sebastian, & Andrzej, 2016).

The concept of measuring a nurse's workload originated in the 1970s, to quantify the costs involved in admitting patients to intensive care units (Cullen, Civetta, Briggs, & Ferrara, 1974). As time progressed, workload assessment studies began to focus on improving staff management practices in order to increase efficiency in intensive care units. Staff management plays a decisive role in the organization of the nursing workload in these units, since it has been determined that a high workload increases complications in critical patients, increases the frequency of adverse events such as medication error and accidental extubations, and increases mortality risk (Aycan et al., 2015; Cremasco, Wenzel, Zanei, & Whitaker, 2013; Daud-Gallotti et al., 2012; Halm, 2019; Novaretti, Santos, Quitério, & Daud-Gallotti, 2014; Schwab, Meyer, Geffers, & Gastmeier, 2012; Seynaeve et al., 2011; Strazzieri-Pulido, S. González, Nogueira, Padilha, & G. Santos, 2019).

Hence, the purpose of our study was to study the relationship between frequency of pain assessment and nursing workload, and also to analyse the frequency of pain

73 assessment and its relation with knowledge and attitudes towards pain on nursing  
74 professionals in intensive care unit.

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## 76 **METHODS**

### 77 **Study design**

78 An ambispective analytical study was conducted to assess the relationship between  
79 nursing workload, nurses' knowledge of pain, and clinical records between October 2017  
80 and April 2018. All health care professionals agreed to participate in the study by signing  
81 informed consent forms. In addition, the study was approved by the Regional Ethics and  
82 Research Committee (45/17), and carried out in accordance with the ethical standards set  
83 forth in the Helsinki Declaration of 1975.

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### 85 **Sample**

86 The sample consisted of 41 randomly selected intensive care nurses out of a total staff of  
87 84. This study had a confidence interval of 95%, 80% power and an adjustment for  
88 possible losses of 10%. They all worked in a rotating shift at a Spanish hospital in the  
89 tertiary level of the national public health network, consisting of 989 beds. The unit where  
90 the study was conducted had 44 beds for intensive polyvalent care, with a nurse:patient  
91 ratio of 1:2.

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### 93 **Measurement**

94 In the first instance, nurses' awareness and attitudes toward pain management were  
95 assessed. Following this, their supported workload was measured, which consisted of the

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96 sum of the workload for each of their patients, and the frequency of pain assessments  
97 entered in their electronic records, during the morning shift (8 AM–3 PM), afternoon shift  
98 (3PM–10 PM), and night shift (10 PM–8 AM). It should be noticed that nurses were not  
99 informed specifically of the chart review to prevent Hawthorne effect (Argimón Pallás &  
100 María, 2013). Additionally, data were collected about their age, gender, marital status,  
101 academic degree, work experience, and shift. The individual characteristics of their  
102 patients were also analysed: workload, reason for admission (medical, surgical, trauma),  
103 age, sex, severity at admission (APACHE II, which is a severity-of-disease ICU  
104 classification system applied whithin 24 hours of admission of a patient in this unit.  
105 Higher scores correspond to more severe disease and a higher risk of death (Knaus,  
106 Zimmerman, Wagner, Draper, & Lawrence, 1981)), type of analgesia (opioid, non-  
107 opioid), and their communication capacity (yes/no). Those patients subjected to  
108 neuromuscular block, or under suspicion or confirmation of brain death, were excluded  
109 from the part of the study on pain assessment (their charts were excluded from the chart  
110 review) because they cannot express pain in any circumstance; however, they were taken  
111 into account when calculating the nurses' workloads when they took care of two patients.

112 For the measurement of pain knowledge, the Spanish version of the “Knowledge  
113 and Attitudes Survey Regarding Pain” (KASRP) (Zuazua-Rico, Maestro-González,  
114 Mosteiro-Díaz, & Fernández-Garrido, 2019) was applied, which is the most widely used  
115 questionnaire and the one with the most evidence to express the concept. This tool has  
116 been undergoing revisions and extensions since its creation; the most recent version was  
117 distributed in 2014 (Ferrell & McCaffery, 2014). It comprises 39 items, 22 of which are  
118 true-or-false questions, 15 are multiple-choice questions, and 2 are clinical case studies  
119 with 2 questions each. We calculated the KASRP score by assigning a score of 1 to  
120 correctly answered questions and a score of 0 to incorrectly answered or unanswered

121 questions, the maximum score was 41 points. We then calculated the total percentage of  
122 correct answers. It is considered that if a nurse scored less than 80%, his or her ability to  
123 care for a patient experiencing pain was considered to be significantly compromised  
124 (McCaffery & Robinson, 2002).

125 For the measurement of workload, the Spanish version of the “Nursing Activities  
126 Score” scale (NAS) (Arias-Rivera et al., 2013) was used, due to its efficacy in expressing  
127 the time spent by nursing professionals on the care of a patient regardless of severity. It  
128 covers up to 81% of all nursing activities. The NAS consists of 23 items with sub-items,  
129 representing the percentage of time that one nurse spends on a specified activity. The  
130 percentages obtained in all items are then added to obtain the final result, which ranges  
131 from 18.3% to 177%. It is estimated that 100 points on the NAS equals the maximum  
132 dedication of the nursing staff for a duration of 24 hours (Miranda, Nap, de Rijk,  
133 Schaufeli, & Iapichino, 2003), being able to reach higher scores in case of overload.

134 To determine the frequency of pain assessment, the clinical records of patients  
135 seen by the nurses selected during the study period were reviewed, and the number of  
136 pain assessments were registered. Quality of the recorded pain assessment was not  
137 considered.

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### 139 **Analysis**

140 A descriptive analysis of each variable was performed, providing frequency distribution  
141 and position measurements (mean, median, standard deviation, and range). For the  
142 comparison of variables, a fixed effects model was chosen. The comparison of  
143 quantitative variables between two categories was carried out using Student’s *t*-test (with  
144 the Welch correlation if the variances were different), or the Wilcoxon test for



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145 independent samples, depending on whether the normality hypothesis was verified. The  
146 comparison of quantitative variables between three categories was performed with an  
147 ANOVA test and the Tukey post hoc test, or the Kruskal-Wallis test and Dunn post hoc  
148 test, depending on whether the previous hypotheses of normality (Shapiro-Wilk's test)  
149 and homoscedasticity (Bartlett's test and the Ansari-Bradley test) were met. The Pearson  
150 or Spearman's correlation coefficient and the associated hypothesis contrast were used to  
151 study the linear relationship between continuous variables, depending on whether the  
152 normality hypothesis was fulfilled.

153 Finally, a multivariate mixed effects model was constructed to evaluate the global  
154 model of the study. A level of significance of  $p < 0.05$  was used. The statistical analysis  
155 was carried out using the R (R Development Core Team) program, version 3.4.3.

## 156

## 157 RESULTS

158 There were 1,207 measurements among the 41 nurses, and 1,838 measurements among  
159 the 317 patients admitted during the study period, divided into morning (32.2%),  
160 afternoon (34.4%), and night (33.2%) shifts. The main sociodemographic and situational  
161 characteristics of both nurses and patients are shown in **Table 1**. The population of nurses  
162 was predominantly female (85%), while that of the patients was predominantly male  
163 (70.5%).

164 The predominant type of analgesia was non opioid analgesia (60.7%), compared  
165 to other types that included the use of opiates. All the patients studied (except those who  
166 were under suspicion or confirmation of brain death) had analgesic treatment prescribed.  
167 The predominant type of admission was medical (51.4%), followed by surgical (38.7%),

168 and traumatological (9.9%). In most of the cases analysed, patients had the capacity to  
169 communicate with staff (70.2%).

170 The average workload of the nurses was 70.97 points on the NAS scale (*SD*:  
171 26.14), and the average score on the KASRP was 59.7% (*SD*: 9); on the other hand, the  
172 average workload of each patient was 47.14 points on the NAS scale. The average number  
173 of assessments by nurses was 1.3 measurements per patient/shift (*SD*: 0.68). Of the cases  
174 studied, 35.8% did not have any pain assessments during the shift.

175 We found statistically significant differences related to the workload of the nurses.  
176 The morning and afternoon shift had a higher workload than the night shift ( $p < 0.001$ ).  
177 Moreover, between the academic degree of the professionals and the number of pain  
178 assessments performed on patients, those with a master's degree or higher performed a  
179 larger number of assessments ( $p = 0.003$ ). The workload of the nurses increased the  
180 frequency of pain assessments ( $p < 0.001$ ). It was verified that there were more pain  
181 assessments conducted during the afternoon shift ( $p = 0.020$ ) than the morning and night  
182 shifts, as well as on patients with communicative capacity ( $p = 0.008$ ), and among women  
183 ( $p = 0.013$ ), as shown in **Tables 2 and 3**.

184 We found no relationship between the frequency of pain assessments and the  
185 nurses' age, sex, marital status, professional experience, or level of knowledge about pain.  
186 Regarding the patients, we found no differences in the frequency of pain assessments by  
187 professionals due to patients' age, diagnosis of admission, type of analgesia, or individual  
188 workload.

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**DISCUSSION**

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3 191 Although our absolute results about the frequency of pain assessment were within the  
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5 192 standards established by the Spanish Society of Critical Care, which establish a minimum  
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7 193 of 1 measurement per shift (Sociedad Española de Medicina Intensiva Crítica y Unidades  
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9 194 Coronarias, 2017), our results agree with previous studies that showed a low priority is  
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11 195 given to the control of pain by nursing staff in intensive care. With respect to the omission  
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13 196 of pain assessment records, our data were more comprehensive than those obtained by  
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15 197 Purser et al. (2014), where 85% of the patients studied did not have a record; or by Ravaud  
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17 198 et al. (2004), where no postoperative patients were evaluated. Even so, it should be noted  
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19 199 that in 35.8% of the data obtained, no pain assessments were recorded, which leads us to  
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21 200 affirm that an optimal pain control is compromised (considering the nursing assessments  
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23 201 expressed in the clinical history). Since physicians rely on the documentation of pain  
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25 202 assessments, by the nursing staff, lack of documentation leaves the physician with  
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27 203 insufficient information to evaluate effectiveness of the pain management. This could be  
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29 204 related to the tendency to prioritize others factors perceived as more urgent, such as  
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31 205 haemodynamics or mechanical ventilation (Manias, Bucknall, & Botti, 2005; Payen et  
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33 206 al., 2007; Pretorius et al., 2015). These results match those of an investigation carried out  
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35 207 in the United States (Chanques et al., 2006), where the average frequency of assessment  
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37 208 was 1.2 times per shift. In Norway, Woien et al. (2014) observed that 20% of patients  
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39 209 studied received no pain assessment during their hospital stays. A study in Canada placed  
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41 210 the percentage at 28.6% (Haslam, Dale, Knechtel, & Rose, 2012), and research conducted  
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43 211 in other European centres found percentages similar to those found in our study (Payen  
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45 212 et al., 2007). These results indicate a disparity in published studies on the frequency of  
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47 213 pain assessment, since studies conducted in different countries show a frequency that  
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49 214 generally ranges between 2 and 16 pain assessments every 24 hours (Gélinas, Tousignant-  
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215 Laflamme, Tanguay, & Bourgault, 2011; Radtke et al., 2012; Rose, Haslam, Dale,  
216 Knechtel, & McGillion, 2013; Topolovec-Vranic et al., 2010; Wøien et al., 2014).

217         During the afternoon shift, the nurses performed more frequent pain assessments.  
218 This result is in contrast to that obtained by Olsen et al. (2015), where the morning shift  
219 saw the most pain assessments by nurses. We consider our result to be due to the  
220 possibility that during the morning shift the nurses are more occupied with matters not  
221 directly focused on the patient (although they are concerned about the patient), a result of  
222 greater presence and pressure by the medical personnel in the unit, a circumstance that is  
223 not explicitly included in the NAS scale, but shows the complexity of the measurement  
224 (Alghamdi, 2016). This explanation is supported when comparing the different workloads  
225 per shift, where we observed, despite the empirical evidence, that there are no significant  
226 differences measured by the NAS scale between the morning and afternoon shifts  
227 according to Deberg et al. (2012). It was also observed that during the night shift, the staff  
228 recorded more assessments than during the morning shift, although in this case the results  
229 did not show significant differences.

230         As can be seen, we found a relationship between the academic degree of the  
231 nursing staff and the number of pain assessments they performed, which increased with  
232 the degree of qualification; contrary to the findings of Rose et al. (2011), which did not  
233 find such a relationship. From these results, it can be deduced that increased academic  
234 education could lead to higher quality care (Morrison et al., 2011).

235         From our results, we cannot confirm the influence of knowledge on the attitudes  
236 about pain management shown by the nurses in their records, mainly because our study  
237 population was homogenous in its KASRP score. Our results differ from those obtained  
238 in other investigations where such influences were found (Arbour & Gelinias, 2011;  
239 Erdek, 2004; Haslam et al., 2012; Medrzycka-Dabrowka et al., 2017; Purser et al., 2014;

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240 Radtke et al., 2012; Ravaud et al., 2004; Rose et al., 2013; Topolovec-Vranic et al., 2010).  
241 However, those results derived from the practice of specific training actions, while our  
242 study is based on a static model without intervention on the staff.

243         Considering the communication capacity, a patient who can communicate clearly  
244 makes it considerably easier for nurses to assess their pain. The systematic assessment of  
245 non-communicative patients constitutes a challenge for nurses. Better communication  
246 could result in benefits such as less frequent use of sedatives (Dale et al., 2013; Payen et  
247 al., 2009; Robinson et al., 2008; Sacco & LaRiccia, 2016; Yamashita et al., 2017). In this  
248 respect, our results match those of other studies, where non-communicative patients  
249 received fewer assessments than those who were able to communicate clearly (Haslam et  
250 al., 2012; Rose et al., 2011; Topolovec-Vranic et al., 2010).

251         On the other hand, we did not find a relationship between the assessment of pain  
252 and the diagnosis at admission. These results agree with those of Rose et al. (2013),  
253 where, although there were differences regarding pain and diagnosis at admission, they  
254 did not find a statistical relationship.

255         We must be careful when analysing the relationship between the level of severity  
256 of the patients at admission and the frequency of pain assessments performed by staff ( $p$   
257  $\leq 0.001$ ), since our model did not take into account the patients' dates of admission. Our  
258 analysis was performed from a random point of view, thus allowing a more  
259 comprehensive overview, encompassing all possible moments: from admission, to the  
260 end of treatment, or death.

261         The workload of the nursing staff increased the pain records in the clinical history,  
262 contrary to the findings of another study carried out by Olsen et al. (2015) that did not  
263 find such an association. Our results diverge from those based on subjective opinions in

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264 which the workload was considered a limiting factor (Kizza & Muliira, 2015; Pasero et  
265 al., 2009; Pretorius et al., 2015; Rose et al., 2011; Sigakis & Bittner, 2015; Wang & Tsai,  
266 2010). Evaluating the work of a nurse based on a chart audit is complex since, sometimes  
267 the documentation does not fully reflect their work, but it is the only way available that  
268 supports us as professionals.

269           The patients' scores on workload differed from those of the nursing staff. We must  
270 bear in mind that the workload of a nurse is given, as a rule, as the sum of care for several  
271 patients, so a high workload for nursing staff may not correspond to a high workload for  
272 each patient. We consider that a higher nursing workload might increase the concentration  
273 of nurses attending to the different situations that occur when caring for critical patients.

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### CONCLUSIONS

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276 Pain is still a low priority element for critical care nurses, despite efforts made in recent  
277 years with the development of new assessment instruments and new treatments. We found  
278 that when nursing workload was higher, nurses tended to complete and document pain  
279 assessments more than when workload was lower. Although the workloads were similar  
280 between the morning shift and the afternoon shift, nurses were more likely to document  
281 pain assessments in the afternoon shift. We did not find a significant difference between  
282 Knowledge and Attitude Scores among the nurses studied. Regarding academic degree,  
283 those nurses with a master degree tended to document pain assessments more than those  
284 with basic nursing studies. Moreover, those patients who had communicative capacity  
285 received more pain assessments than those who couldn't communicate by themselves.

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**CLINICAL IMPLICATIONS**

289 It is necessary to study in greater depth how the severity of the patients and the shift of  
290 the nurses' influence pain registration and assessment; in particular, it is necessary to  
291 perform a differentiated evaluation based on the gender of the patient. There is a need to  
292 educate nurses on pain knowledge facts as a means to try to improve pain assessments.

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