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3 1 **Identifying factors that influence stress physiology of the woylie, a critically**
4
5 2 **endangered marsupial**

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54
55 27 **Short title**
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59 29 Factors influencing the stress physiology of woylies
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63 31 **Keywords**
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67 33 cortisol, marsupials, stress, woylie
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3 27 **Abstract**
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5 28 Faecal glucocorticoid metabolites are minimally invasive stress physiology indices that
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7 29 can be used to understand how animals respond to physical and/or psychological
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9 30 challenges (stressors) and inform how to optimise conservation management in view of
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11 31 these stressors. We investigated contextual biological, environmental and parasitological
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13 32 factors influencing variation in baseline faecal cortisol metabolite (FCM) concentration in
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15 33 a critically endangered marsupial, the woylie (syn. brush-tailed bettong, *Bettongia*
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17 34 *penicillata*). Woylies have undergone a rapid and significant population decline, with
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19 35 environmental stressors exacerbating disease suggested to contribute to these ongoing
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21 36 declines. We conducted a longitudinal field study of 15 adult woylies (9 females, 6 males)
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23 37 in a captive, naturalistic facility. FCM concentration in faecal samples (n=269) collected
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25 38 monthly over 20 months was quantified by enzyme immunoassay in parallel with
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27 39 measures of body condition, sex, season, female reproductive status and the presence of
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29 40 endoparasites and ectoparasites. Linear mixed effect modelling revealed a significant
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31 41 effect of season, sex, body condition index and nematode parasite status on FCM. Overall,
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33 42 mean FCM was lowest in summer and highest in autumn and winter, and females had
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35 43 higher mean FCM than males. There was a significant but weak negative association
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37 44 between body condition and FCM. When woylies were shedding oxyurid nematode eggs
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39 45 they had higher mean FCM compared to when they were not shedding. In future,
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41 46 knowledge of factors that influence FCM fluctuations in woylies may be considered when
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43 47 carrying out potentially stressful conservation interventions that may influence the future
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45 48 survival of this unique and threatened species.
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50 Introduction

51 Global biodiversity is threatened by a growing intensity and range of challenges or
52 stressors. Stress physiology can provide insights into how animals respond to stressors
53 (Cooke *et al.*, 2013). An essential part of the stress response involves the hypothalamic
54 pituitary adrenal (HPA) axis, which aims to maintain homeostasis by modulating
55 physiological and behavioural responses to stressors (Landys, Ramenofsky & Wingfield,
56 2006; Busch & Hayward, 2009; Parry-Jones, Webster & Divljan, 2016). Measuring
57 glucocorticoids and their metabolites provide a means to monitor the HPA axis, the
58 underlying neuroendocrine mechanism that determines how an organism functions under
59 changing conditions (Wikelski & Cooke, 2006). Faecal glucocorticoid metabolites (of
60 either cortisol or corticosterone), measured using minimally invasive methods, are
61 commonly used in wildlife (Keay *et al.*, 2006) and are particularly practical when blood
62 sample collection immediately following capture is not possible (Romero & Reed, 2005).

63 Interpretation of faecal glucocorticoid metabolite results is aided by knowledge of
64 factors that influence baseline values. A variety of factors have been shown to correlate
65 with faecal glucocorticoid metabolite values in wildlife species, ranging from sex to season
66 (Millsbaugh & Washburn, 2004). Parasites, including endoparasites (Clough, Heistermann
67 & Kappeler, 2010) and ectoparasites (St Juliana *et al.*, 2014), have also been associated
68 with alterations in faecal glucocorticoid metabolite concentration in wildlife hosts. In part,
69 links between infection patterns and host stress physiology may be due to the effects of
70 glucocorticoids on immune function (Biondi & Zannino, 1997; Sapolsky, Romero &
71 Munck, 2000). Stress associated immunosuppression and exacerbation of infectious
72 disease could be a significant threat to wildlife ([Beldomenico & Begon, 2010](#)) and
73 understanding the relationships between host stress physiology and parasitism is important
74 for wildlife research and conservation.

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3 75 Stress exacerbating the impact of parasitic infections has been suggested to
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5 76 contribute to the ongoing decline of the woylie (syn. brush-tailed bettong, *Bettongia*
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7 77 *penicillata*), a critically endangered Australian marsupial (Botero *et al.*, 2013; Thompson
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9 78 *et al.*, 2014). Woylies were once abundant and widespread across much of mainland
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11 79 Australia but became locally extinct across most of their range by the 1970s. Remnant
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13 80 populations are now confined to Western Australia (Wayne *et al.*, 2013a). Recent studies
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15 81 suggest that the distribution and abundance of woylies is related to stressors including
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17 82 habitat fragmentation, proximity to agriculture and invasive predators (Wayne *et al.*,
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19 83 2013b; Yeatman *et al.*, 2016). In addition, more virulent trypanosomes (protozoan
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21 84 hemoparasites) have been found more commonly in declining woylie populations (Botero
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23 85 *et al.*, 2013; Thompson *et al.*, 2014), and white blood cell counts in declining populations
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25 86 are suggestive of “immunological stressors” (Pacioni *et al.*, 2013). Hence, stress-induced
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27 87 immunosuppression has been hypothesised to exacerbate the impacts of parasite
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29 88 (especially trypanosome) infections, contributing to declines (Botero *et al.*, 2013).
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31 89 Associations between faecal cortisol metabolites (FCM), immune cell (phagocyte)
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33 90 function and trypanosomes have since been found, which support the stress-induced
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35 91 immunosuppression hypothesis (Hing *et al.*, 2016). Thus, understanding how parasite
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37 92 infection may influence long-term variation in FCM in woylies is pertinent.
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43 93 In this study, we asked what factors such as season, sex, body condition index,
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45 94 female reproductive status and the presence of parasites influenced variation in FCM in
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47 95 woylies, in a longitudinal study of a captive population.
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3 97 **Materials and methods**

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5 98 *Trapping and sample collection*

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7 99 We studied a captive population of woylies (15 adults; 6 male, 9 female), housed in four
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10 100 adjacent outdoor naturalistic enclosures (3 to 4 adult woylies per 35m x 55m pen) at
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12 101 Native Animal Rescue in Malaga, Western Australia. Woylies had access to underground
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14 102 fungi, native forage (bulbs, seeds etc.), insects and a year round supplementary ration of
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16 103 fruit and vegetables. We trapped all individuals monthly from September (austral-spring)
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18 104 in 2013 to June (austral-winter) in 2015. Galvanized wire Sheffield traps (220 x 220 x
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20 105 550mm) (Sheffield Wire Products, Western Australia), baited with a mixture of peanut
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22 106 butter and oats, were set just prior to sunset and checked before sunrise (maximum total
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24 107 duration in the trap was 8 to 10 hours). We pooled the faeces deposited by each individual
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26 108 woylie at the bottom of their trap but time since defaecation could not be determined. We
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28 109 acknowledge that changes in FCM concentration can occur over time, and this could have
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30 110 influenced our results (Laver *et al.*, 2012). Woylies were individually identified by a
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32 111 unique microchip code. Animals were weighed, females were checked for the presence or
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34 112 absence of pouch young (pouch status), and the size of pouch young (mm) was estimated
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36 113 by palpation of the pouch.

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40 114 Faecal samples were stored frozen at -20°C until they were prepared for FCM
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42 115 assays. All faecal samples were extracted within sixteen months of collection. A blood
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44 116 sample (400 to 1000µl) was collected from the lateral caudal vein into an EDTA
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46 117 MiniCollect tube (Greiner Bio-One, Germany) to enable DNA extraction and trypanosome
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48 118 PCR. EDTA blood samples were stored at -20°C and processed within six months of
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50 119 collection. In some cases, all assays could not be completed for every sample (e.g. due to
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52 120 insufficient sample volume) but a total of 269 faecal samples and 208 blood samples were
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54 121 analysed.

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3 122 This work was carried out under a Western Australian Department of Parks and
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5 123 Wildlife Regulation 17 License to Take Fauna for Scientific Purposes (SF009623) and
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7 124 Murdoch University Animal Ethics Permit (RW2611/13).
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11 125
12 126 *Faecal cortisol metabolite (FCM) enzyme immunoassay (EIA)*
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14 127 FCM were analysed by an enzyme immunoassay (EIA) previously used for woylies (Hing
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16 128 *et al.*, 2016). In summary, faecal samples (0.2g dry weight) were lyophilised (freeze-dried)
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18 129 and extraction carried out using 90% ethanol and heat treatment (80°C for 10min). Extracts
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20 130 were assayed for FCM by EIA using a polyclonal anti-cortisol antiserum R4866 protocol
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22 131 (Narayan *et al.*, 2012; Hing *et al.*, 2016). The R4866 anti-cortisol antiserum has been
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24 132 reported to cross react 100% with cortisol metabolites and less than 10% with other
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26 133 steroids (Webster, Narayan & de Vos, In Press). Results were expressed as FCM
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28 134 concentration (pg/g) on a dry weight basis.
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34 136 *Parasitology analyses*
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36 137 We performed microscopic and molecular parasitology analyses to determine what
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38 138 endoparasites were present. To detect gastrointestinal parasites (nematodes and
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40 139 protozoans), one gram wet weight of faeces was floated for 10 minutes using a
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42 140 concentrated sodium nitrate (NaNO₃) solution with centrifugation (Dryden *et al.*, 2005).
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44 141 The area under the coverslip was observed systematically under a BX51 microscope
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46 142 (Olympus, Japan) at 20x objective and eggs were classified as strongyle or oxyurid types
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48 143 (as these were the two major groups observed).
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51 144 To detect trypanosome blood parasites, DNA extraction and *Trypanosoma* PCR
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53 145 amplification from blood samples were carried out using previously described protocols
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55 146 validated for woylies (Botero *et al.*, 2013; Hing *et al.*, 2016). Presence or absence of
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3 147 *Trypanosoma* species in peripheral circulation as indicated by PCR positive or negative
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5 148 results was recorded. The ears of woylies were also visually inspected for the presence or
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7 149 absence of ticks.
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11 151 *Statistical analyses*

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14 152 We used linear mixed effect models to investigate which factors influenced FCM
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16 153 fluctuations in woylies. To fulfil model assumptions of data conforming to a normal
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18 154 distribution, FCM (the dependent variable) was log-transformed. Fixed effects included in
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20 155 our model were: season (summer/autumn/winter/spring), sex (male/female), body
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22 156 condition index, presence or absence of oxyurid eggs on faecal flotation, presence or
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24 157 absence of strongyle eggs on faecal flotation, PCR positive or negative for trypanosomes
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26 158 and the presence or absence of ticks. Two-way interactions between these effects were also
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28 159 included. Woylie ID nested within pen was included as a random effect in all models to
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30 160 account for repeated measures from the same individuals. Body condition index was
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32 161 derived from the residuals of a regression of hindfoot (pes) length to weight, calculated
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34 162 separately for males ($p < 0.001$, co-efficient=28.5, $R^2 = 0.2114$) and females ($p < 0.001$, co-
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36 163 efficient=21.6, $R^2 = 0.0806$) and adjusted for pouch young size in females by including
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38 164 pouch young size as a covariate. We were also interested in the effects of female
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40 165 reproductive activity on FCM, so we re-ran the models described above for females only
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42 166 (n=169) and included pouch status (0 = empty or 1 = pouch young present) as a fixed
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44 167 effect.
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49 168 To ensure there was no strong multicollinearity between explanatory variables, we
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51 169 calculated the variance inflation factor (VIF) for all explanatory variables included in the
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53 170 maximal model, and ensured no variables had a VIF higher than 3 prior to modelling. To
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55 171 determine the minimal adequate models, we undertook model simplification by stepwise
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3 172 reduction, removing non-significant terms from the maximal model until further model
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5 173 reductions resulted in significant changes in model deviances ($p < 0.05$) (Crawley, 2007).
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7 174 Significance ($p \leq 0.05$) was tested in a likelihood ratio test (χ^2). Models were run using R
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9 175 3.1.0 and the packages 'lme4' (Bates *et al.*, 2015) and 'car' (Fox & Weisberg, 2011).
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13 14 177 **Results**

15
16 178 Overall, FCM concentration ranged widely from 0.03 to 457.40 pg/g. Host and
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18 179 environmental factors that significantly affected FCM in woylies included season, body
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20 180 condition index and sex ($p < 0.05$) (Table 1). Modelling revealed that mean log-transformed
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22 181 FCM was lowest in summer (2.5 ± 0.2 SE, $n=108$ samples), moderate in spring (2.9 ± 0.1 ,
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24 182 $n=50$) and highest in the cooler months of autumn (3.3 ± 0.1 SE, $n=71$) and winter ($3.3 \pm$
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26 183 0.2 SE, $n=40$) (Figure 1a). Overall, there was a significant but weak relationship between
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28 184 body condition index and FCM (Table 1). The relationship between body condition index
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30 185 and FCM differed between the sexes with a more marked negative relationship in males
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32 186 compared to females (Figure 1b). Females (3.1 ± 0.1 SE) had a higher mean FCM compared
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34 187 to males (2.7 ± 0.1 SE) (Figure 1c). In female woylies, the presence or absence of pouch
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36 188 young overall did not have a significant effect on FCM (coefficient = 0.03, SE=0.40, $df=1$,
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38 189 $\chi^2=1.7$, $p=0.193$). However, there was a significant interaction between pouch status and
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40 190 season (coefficient = -0.79, SE = 0.72, $df=1$, $\chi^2=8.15$, $p=0.04$), with the greatest difference
41
42 191 noted in winter when mean FCM in females with pouch young was higher (3.86 ± 0.20 ,
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44 192 $n=119$) than females without pouch young (2.46 ± 0.59 , $n=52$).

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46 193 Oxyurid pinworm eggs were present in 17% of 269 faecal samples, and were
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48 194 significantly associated with FCM (Table 1). When woylies were shedding oxyurid eggs,
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50 195 they had higher mean FCM than when oxyurid eggs were not detected (Figure 2a). An
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52 196 interaction between body condition and oxyurids also influenced FCM. When woylies
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3 197 were shedding oxyurid eggs, there was a weak positive relationship between body
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5 198 condition index and FCM (Table 1). A weak negative relationship between body condition
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7 199 and FCM was observed when oxyurid eggs were not detected (Figure 2b). Woylies were
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9 200 also infected by trypanosomes (57% of 208 blood samples positive), strongyles (25% of
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11 201 269 faecal samples positive) and ticks (44% infested of 260 inspections) in this study.
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14 202 Interactions between trypanosome and strongyle status, and between strongyle and tick
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16 203 status also influenced FCM. FCM was lowest when neither trypanosomes nor strongyles
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18 204 were detected (Figure 2c) and when neither ticks nor strongyles were detected) (Figure
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21 205 2d).

207 **Discussion**

208 We identified several host, environmental and parasitological factors that influenced
209 baseline FCM levels of captive woylies housed in semi-natural enclosures. These
210 fluctuations in FCM may represent natural variations in HPA axis activity essential to
211 survival (Crespi *et al.*, 2013) but they may also represent the physiological response of
212 woylies to environmental and biological stressors (such as parasites and climate) which are
213 of importance to conservation science.

214 Glucocorticoids are essential to the physiological and behavioural responses that
215 allow animals to adapt to changing conditions (Jessop, Woodford & Symonds, 2013).
216 Therefore it is not unexpected that we noted significant seasonal variation in FCM in
217 woylies as in other wildlife studies (including marsupials) of faecal glucocorticoid
218 metabolites (Romero, 2002). For example, winter peaks in FCM in koala (*Phascolarctos*
219 *cinereus*) were hypothesised to be due to low winter temperatures and rainfall and
220 associated resource limitations and metabolic demands (Davies *et al.*, 2014).

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3 221 The important question in understanding seasonal variation is what proximate
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5 222 stressors are driving ultimate seasonal changes? Seasonal reproduction and changing
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7 223 resource quality and quantity are often cited as proximate causes of seasonal fluctuations
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10 224 in faecal glucocorticoid metabolites (Romero, 2002). However, our study provides a rather
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12 225 unique perspective as these woylies are continuous breeders and were supplementary fed
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14 226 throughout the study. Levels of anthropogenic noise and human interaction (including
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16 227 handling), which have been reported to constitute stressors in other marsupials (Narayan *et*
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18 228 *al.*, 2013) are also unlikely explanations as these factors remained relatively constant
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21 229 across the study period. Alternatively, peak FCM in woylies during the cooler seasons may
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23 230 be associated with circadian rhythms (Lane, 2006), shortened day length (Steinmetz *et al.*,
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25 231 2006), or increased metabolic demands such as energy mobilisation for thermoregulation
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27 232 (Steffen & Musacchia, 1985). Seasonal variation in woylie stress physiology should be
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29 233 considered in the timing of management interventions as it may influence their response to
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31 234 interventions.

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34 235 Woylie body condition remained within a healthy range throughout the study and
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36 236 body condition was only weakly negatively associated with FCM. This is consistent with
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38 237 other wildlife studies that show broader relationships between stress and body condition
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40 238 (Mumby *et al.*, 2015) that may be due to regulation of metabolism by glucocorticoids
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42 239 (Sapolsky *et al.*, 2000). The presence of only a weak effect in our study may be due to the
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44 240 protection of the captive study population from acute stressors such as limited food
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46 241 resources. In a study of free-ranging woylies during a translocation program, a significant
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48 242 and more pronounced negative association between body condition index and FCM after
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50 243 translocation was found (Hing *et al.*, In Review). The negative relationship between body
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52 244 condition index and FCM in our current study was more marked in males compared to
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55 245 females. This may be associated with sex differences in endocrine regulation of
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3 246 metabolism and body weight (Shi & Clegg, 2009), but these interactions are currently
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5 247 uncharacterised in woylies. Longer-term monitoring of FCM and body condition in free-
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7 248 ranging populations that are exposed to other potential stressors is required to investigate
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9 249 the potential ramifications for woylie health and conservation.

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11 250 Females had higher mean FCM than males, a pattern also reported in other
12
13 251 Australian marsupials including the bilby (*Macrotis lagotis*) (Narayan *et al.*, 2012), koala
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15 252 (Narayan *et al.*, 2013) and southern brown bandicoot (*Isodon obesulus*) (Dowle, Webster
16
17 253 & Deane, 2012). These results may be a reflection of sex differences in glucocorticoid
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19 254 metabolism (Lane, 2006) and could suggest that male and female woylies have different
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21 255 physiological sensitivities to stressors, a pattern that has been observed in other species
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23 256 (Handa *et al.*, 1994).

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27 257 Females woylies are capable of caring for young 96% of the time (Thompson *et al.*,
28
29 258 2015) as they are continuous breeders and can undertake embryonic diapause (Smith,
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31 259 1989). Consequently, the majority of samples collected from female woylies during this
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33 260 study (n=171 in total) were collected when they were carrying pouch young (n=119). We
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35 261 found no association between female pouch status and FCM, which is consistent with
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37 262 previous suggestions that stress-induced reproductive inhibition is not a major concern for
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39 263 woylie conservation (Wayne *et al.*, 2013a). Nevertheless, the greatest difference between
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41 264 females with versus without pouch young was noted in winter which may suggest greater
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43 265 physiological demands on mothers during this time.

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47 266 When woylies were shedding oxyurid pinworm eggs, they had significantly higher
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49 267 FCM concentration compared to when oxyurid eggs were not detected. This may reflect
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51 268 parasite induced stress or exacerbation of infection by stress. Itching associated with the
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53 269 perianal deposition of oxyurid eggs has been found to cause mild chronic stress in rats
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55 270 (Silveira *et al.*, 2003). In addition, experiments have shown that stressor exposure
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3 271 increases the shedding of oxyurid eggs in captive ground squirrels (*Citellus armatus*)
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5 272 (Noble, 1966). We also found that the relationship between body condition index and
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7 273 FCM was influenced by the presence or absence of oxyurid eggs. However the relationship
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9
10 274 was weak, so the biological significance of this effect is unclear.

11
12 275 We sought to investigate the impact of parasite co-infection on host stress
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14 276 physiology because animal hosts are commonly infected by multiple endoparasite and
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16 277 ectoparasite types with potential effects on host immunity and health (Ezenwa *et al.*,
17
18 278 2010). While we found FCM was lowest when neither trypanosomes nor strongyles were
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20 279 detected and when neither ticks nor strongyles were detected, other results found in this
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22 280 study suggest that the relationship between stress physiology and parasite co-infection in
23
24 281 woylies is complex. For example, in trypanosome positive woylies mean FCM was higher
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26 282 when strongyle eggs were not detected compared to when strongyle eggs were detected.
27
28 283 This is consistent with findings from studies of free-ranging woylies. When free-ranging
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30 284 woylies were trypanosome positive, strongyle egg counts decreased as FCM increased
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32 285 (potentially making eggs less likely to be detected if counts dropped below the detectable
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34 286 threshold) (Hing *et al.*, 2016). It is possible that these interactions reflect the influence of
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36 287 stress physiology on different arms of the immune system (such as T helper 1 and T helper
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38 288 2 responses) responsible for defence against micro-parasites (such as trypanosomes) and
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40 289 macro-parasites (such as strongyles) (Padgett & Glaser, 2003; Hing *et al.*, 2016). The
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42 290 immune response to parasites and the potential coordinating role of glucocorticoids, while
43
44 291 widely explored in other species (Sapolsky *et al.*, 2000), remain areas for further
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46 292 exploration in woylies.

47
48 293 Future projects that use FCM in woylies should be aware of the strengths and
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50 294 limitations of our approach. In general, given how woylies must be trapped and handled,
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52 295 FCM are more practical physiology metrics in this species compared to other measures
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3 296 like plasma glucocorticoids. However, as the application of FCM in woylie research and
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5 297 management remains in its infancy, further optimisation would strengthen our ability to
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7 298 interpret results of the EIA used in our study. High performance liquid chromatography
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9 299 (HPLC) and gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS), though costly and resource
10
11 300 intensive, would allow identification of hormone metabolite constituents in woylie faeces,
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13 301 which would be valuable for example to pinpoint sex-related differences in glucocorticoid
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15 302 metabolism (Monfort, 2003). Of most importance is the biological relevance of the
16
17 303 hormonal titre, that is, does the FCM data relate to biological events of interest?
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19 304 Adrenocorticotrophic hormone (ACTH) challenge for assay validation is not feasible for
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21 305 woylies housed in large enclosures because it is not practical nor ethically permissible to
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23 306 trap and collect faecal samples three times a day for several days as previously performed
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25 307 in a woylie (n=1) in a zoo study (Fanson *et al.*, 2015). However, we have demonstrated
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27 308 that the R4866 FGM EIA can detect variation in FCM concentration related to
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29 309 translocation (Hing *et al.*, In Review) and in association with differences in immune
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31 310 function (Hing *et al.*, 2016). Thus the protocol we employed provides physiologically
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33 311 relevant information by monitoring FCM in relation to environmental and management
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35 312 factors.
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43 314 **5. Conclusions**

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45 315 This longitudinal study revealed insights into factors influencing stress physiology indices
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47 316 in a captive population of woylies. Sex and seasonal factors had the greatest influence on
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49 317 FCM fluctuations and parasite parameters showed some interesting and complex
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51 318 interactions that are yet to be fully understood. This study provides a baseline for
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53 319 understanding what factors should be considered when carrying out potentially stressful
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55 320 conservation interventions or other anthropogenic activities that may influence the future
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321 survival of this unique and critically endangered species.

Review Copy

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3 322 **Declaration of interest**
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5 323 We declare that there is no conflict of interest that could be perceived as prejudicing the
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7 324 impartiality of the research reported.
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11
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478 **Tables and figures**

479

480 **Table 1.** Coefficients for the minimum adequate linear mixed effect model of factors

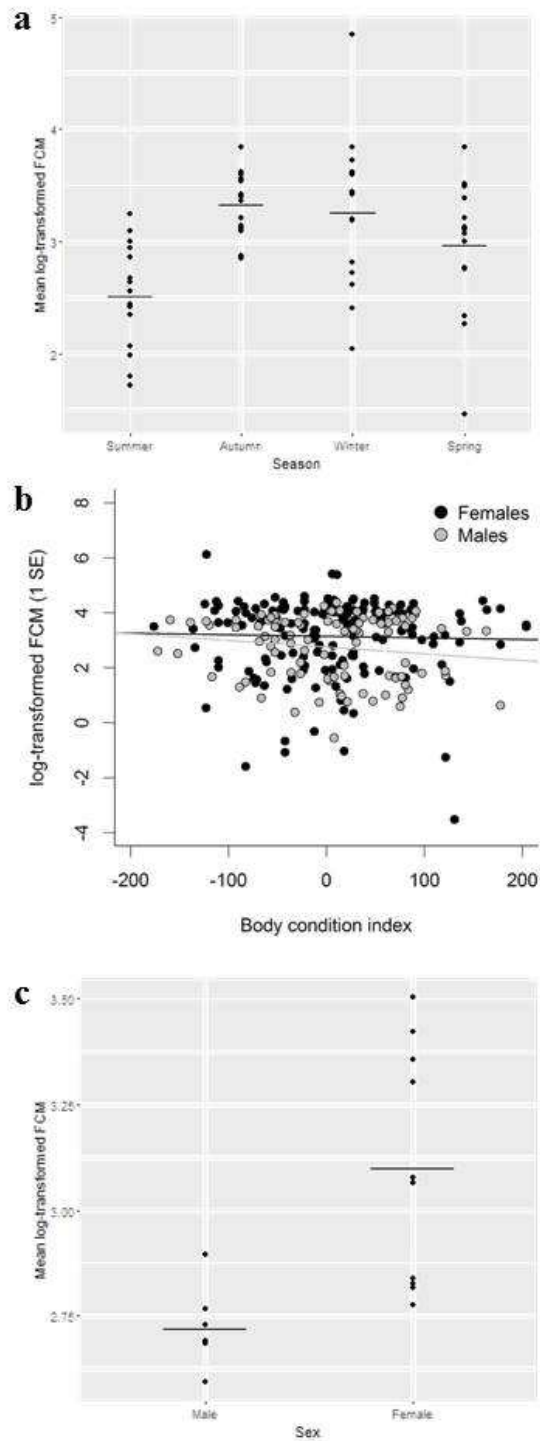
481 affecting faecal cortisol metabolites (FCM log-transformed). Significant factors in bold

482 (n=202 readings from 15 individuals).

Fixed effects	Coefficient	SE	Df	χ^2	p-value
Body condition index	-0.001	0.001	1	3.905	0.048
Season	1.047	0.205	1	30.561	<0.001
Sex	-0.447	0.168	1	6.577	0.010
Trypanosomes	0.418	0.190	1	0.987	0.321
Oxyurid pinworm eggs	0.522	0.221	1	5.134	0.024
Strongyle nematode eggs	1.166	0.375	1	0.059	0.808
Ticks	0.288	0.213	1	0.129	0.720
Body condition index:sex	-0.447	0.002	1	4.522	0.034
Body condition index:pinworm eggs	0.005	0.003	1	3.970	0.046
Trypanosomes:strongyle eggs	-1.166	0.416	1	7.838	0.005
Strongyle eggs:ticks	-0.835	0.391	1	4.563	0.033

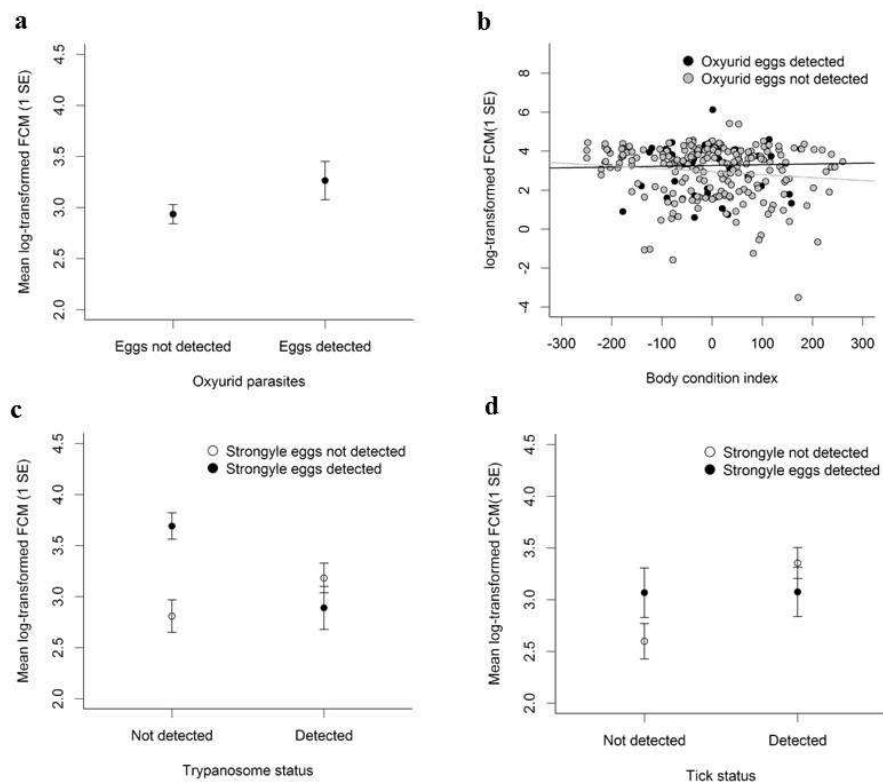
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486 **Figure 1. Host and environment factors which influence faecal cortisol metabolites in**
 487 **woylies: (a) Season, (b) Interactive effect of body condition and sex, (c) Sex.** In (a) and
 488 (c), dots represent (averaged) FCM concentration of individual woylies and horizontal
 489 lines mark the overall mean.



490

491 **Figure 2. Parasite factors which influence faecal cortisol metabolites in woylies: (a)**492 Oxyurid pinworm status (eggs not detected n=215, eggs detected n=44) **(b)** Interactive493 effect of body condition index and oxyurid status, **(c)** Interactive effect of trypanosome

494 (not detected n=90, detected n=118) and strongyle status (not detected n=195, detected

495 n=64), **(c)** Interactive effect of strongyle and tick status (not detected n=145, detected

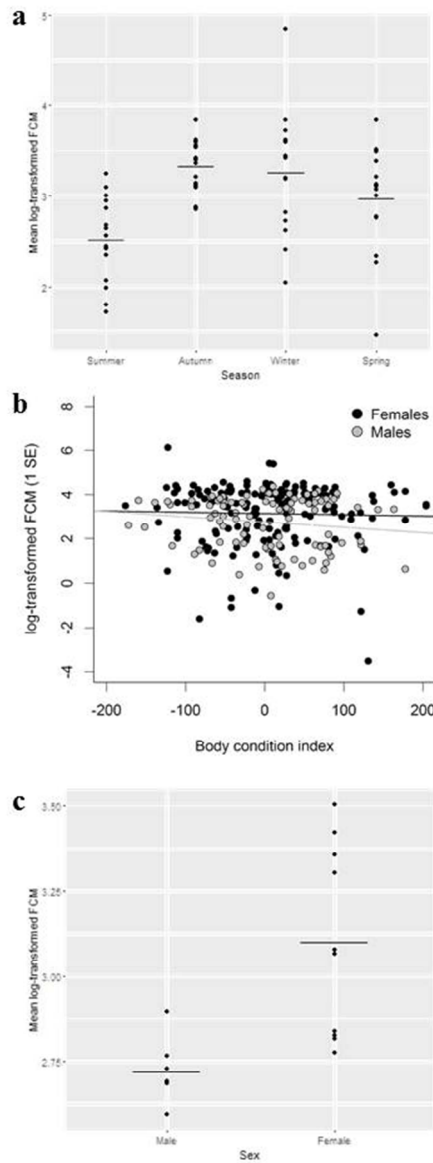
496 n=115).

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498 **- END-**

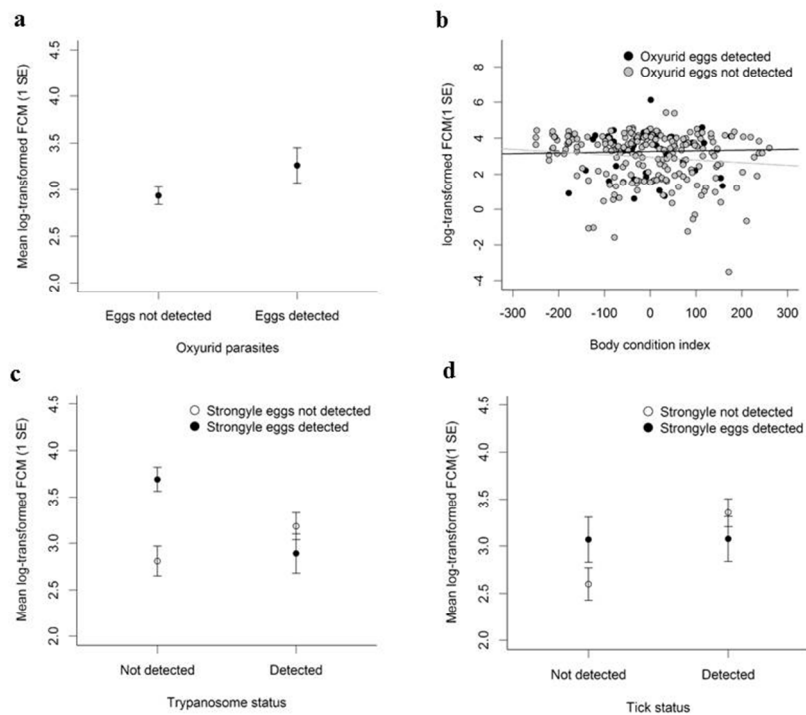
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Oxyurid pinworm eggs	0.522	0.221	1	5.134	0.024
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Ticks	0.288	0.213	1	0.129	0.720
Body condition index:sex	-0.447	0.002	1	4.522	0.034
Body condition index:pinworm eggs	0.005	0.003	1	3.970	0.046
Trypanosomes:strongyle eggs	-1.166	0.416	1	7.838	0.005
Strongyle eggs:ticks	-0.835	0.391	1	4.563	0.033

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