



# Glucocorticoids in multiple myeloma: past, present, and future

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## Abstract

Glucocorticoids are a backbone of treatment for multiple myeloma in both the upfront and relapsed/refractory setting. While glucocorticoids have single agent activity in multiple myeloma, in the modern era, they are paired with novel agents to induce high clinical response rates. On the other hand, toxicities of steroid therapy limit high dose delivery and impact patient quality of life. We provide a history of steroid use in multiple myeloma with the aim to understand how steroids have emerged and persisted in the treatment of multiple myeloma. We review mechanisms of glucocorticoid sensitivity and resistance and highlight potential future directions to evaluate steroid responsiveness. Further research in this area will aid in optimizing steroid utilization and help determine when glucocorticoid therapy may no longer benefit patients.

**Keywords** Multiple myeloma · Glucocorticoids · Dexamethasone · Apoptosis · Drug resistance

## Introduction

Glucocorticoids (GCs) such as prednisone and dexamethasone are steroid hormones that have been used to treat multiple myeloma, a plasma cell cancer, for over 50 years. It is known that GCs bind cytosolic glucocorticoid receptors (GRs) which then translocate to the nucleus to modulate gene expression. The GC-GR complex binds as a homodimer to GC response elements to transactivate target genes including annexin I and MAPK phosphatase 1 [1]. In addition, glucocorticoids indirectly repress target genes via inhibitory interactions of GC-GR monomers with transcription factors including nuclear factor  $\kappa$ B and activator protein-1 (AP-1) [2], important factors in multiple myeloma pathogenesis [3–5]. The net effect is the promotion of broad anti-inflammatory and immunosuppressive activity. In addition, glucocorticoids promote gluconeogenesis, glycogenolysis, and lipolysis [6] and induce catabolic effects in skeletal muscle [7]. Thus, the potent action of glucocorticoids in multiple myeloma must be weighed against potential toxicities for the patient [8, 9].

## Clinical background

### Glucocorticoids arrive on the scene

In 1962, the Western Cancer Oncology Group performed a randomized double-blind study of prednisone (40 mg daily) versus placebo in 65 patients with multiple myeloma. While patients treated with prednisone had significant decreases in hematocrit and globulin levels, there was no significant difference in survival compared to placebo [10]. Subsequently, in 1969, Alexanian et al. reported on pivotal experience treating multiple myeloma patients with either melphalan alone or melphalan combined with prednisone using different dosing strategies [11]. The addition of prednisone to melphalan clearly improved response rates and overall survival. Subsequent reports in the 1980s demonstrated that multiple myeloma patients resistant to alkylating agents could be effectively salvaged with high-dose dexamethasone, a synthetic glucocorticoid, along with infusional vincristine and doxorubicin (VAD) [12].

### Single-agent glucocorticoids vs chemotherapy

The promising results with glucocorticoids, and in particular high-dose dexamethasone, raised the question as to whether high-dose steroids were the primary driver of disease responses in multiple myeloma. To help address this question, in 1986, Alexanian et al. reported on the M.D. Anderson

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experience on the use of single agent high-dose dexamethasone in multiple myeloma patients, compared to historical controls treated with VAD. While VAD outperformed single agent dexamethasone in those with chemo-sensitive disease, patients with refractory myeloma had similar responses whether they received single agent dexamethasone or chemotherapy [13]. Additional studies confirmed significant response rates with single agent high-dose dexamethasone in the relapsed/refractory setting; however, it was also becoming clear that higher doses of dexamethasone had potential for severe toxicities, including thrombosis, infections, gastrointestinal bleeding, and psychosis [14]. Nonetheless, enthusiasm for single agent high-dose dexamethasone continued, and in 1992, a report on 112 previously untreated myeloma patients demonstrated a response rate of 43%, comparable to prior reports using VAD [15].

As a result of these studies, the utilization of high-dose dexamethasone in the frontline treatment of multiple myeloma was now under way (Table 1).

### Balancing risk and benefit in glucocorticoid dosing

In 2006, the Intergroupe Francophone du Myélome group reported on a frontline study in older patients comparing melphalan-prednisone, with dexamethasone-based regimens including single agent dexamethasone  $\pm$  melphalan. Despite similar partial response rates between melphalan-prednisone vs single agent dexamethasone, toxicity continued to be an issue with high-dose dexamethasone, and thus, melphalan-prednisone became a preferred approach in older patients [17]. While response rates of single agent high-dose dexamethasone in phase III studies is around 40% [16], in the relapsed setting, the response rate is much lower [18].

Perhaps in a final blow to the routine use of high-dose dexamethasone, a study of lenalidomide  $\pm$  low-dose dexamethasone (40 mg once weekly) vs high-dose dexamethasone demonstrated increased deaths in the high-dose dexamethasone arm. Fatal events appeared primarily drug-related due to excess toxicity rather than disease-related, since response rates were higher with high-dose delivery [19].

While high-dose delivery of dexamethasone may partially overcome disease resistance, lower doses of dexamethasone are often favored.

## Scientific background

### Glucocorticoid mechanisms of action in multiple myeloma

In 1972, Ghering et al. reported that nanomolar concentrations of dexamethasone induced cytotoxicity in several multiple myeloma cell lines containing cytosolic glucocorticoid receptors.

Cytoplasmic binding sites for dexamethasone numbered 6500 per cell and were saturated around 50 nM [20]. There is a strong correlation between induction of glucocorticoid response element transactivation and induction of apoptosis in myeloma cells [21]. Glucocorticoid-mediated transrepression of nuclear factor  $\kappa$ B is also sufficient, though not required, to induce apoptosis in MM cells [21]. Dexamethasone treatment leads to upregulation of pro-apoptotic genes, down-regulation of anti-apoptotic genes [22], cleavage of both poly (ADP-ribose) polymerase and caspase 3 [23, 24] and activation of intrinsic apoptotic pathways [25].

Dexamethasone treatment also leads to suppression of protein synthesis via the phosphorylation of eIF2-alpha and induction of REDD1, an inhibitor of mTOR [26]. Moreover, inhibitors of mTOR sensitize multiple myeloma cells to dexamethasone-induced apoptosis, an effect mediated by inhibition of cap-dependent translation [27]. In a study evaluating synthetic lethality with dexamethasone in multiple myeloma, it was found that suppression of all three subunits of eIF4F cap-binding complex synergized with dexamethasone to induce cell death, while eIF4F inhibition attenuated dexamethasone resistance [28] (Fig. 1).

### Mechanisms of glucocorticoid resistance in multiple myeloma

By the early 1990s, multiple studies emerged noting a critical role for the cytokine factor interleukin 6 (IL-6) in overcoming dexamethasone sensitivity. For example, it was noted that dexamethasone suppressed IL-6 mRNA gene expression and that dexamethasone-sensitivity could be overcome by excess IL-6 [29–31]. It also became clear that IL-6 paracrine secretion from the tumor micro-environment has a pivotal role in dexamethasone drug resistance in multiple myeloma [32, 33], as does tumor-stromal cell interactions [34]. Additional molecules including insulin-like growth factor and vascular endothelial growth factor, among others, also support myeloma growth [35, 36].

Further mechanisms of dexamethasone resistance have been described including the disruption of pro-apoptotic caspases by over-expression of heat shock protein 27 [37], an effect that can be overcome with proteasome inhibition [38]. The upregulation of JunB, a member of the AP-1 transcription factor family, is also associated with dexamethasone resistance. Dexamethasone sensitivity can be restored via JUNB knockdown, while blockade of IL-6 inhibits stromal cell-mediated upregulation of JunB in myeloma cells [5]. Increased expression of the miRNA cluster miR-221-222 is associated with dexamethasone resistance and is mediated by down-regulation of the p53-upregulated modulator of apoptosis (PUMA) [39].

While there is a report of a glucocorticoid receptor (NR3C1) gene mutation in a patient with multiple myeloma

**Table 1** Glucocorticoid single agent activity in multiple myeloma. Response rates to single agent glucocorticoids (prednisone, dexamethasone) in published reports are tabulated, including thenumber of patients in each report (*n*), the dose per cycle, the percent of partial responses, and prior treatment regimens, with corresponding references

Glucocorticoid	Subjects ( <i>n</i> )	Dose/cycle	Cycle length	Response rate <sup>a</sup>	Prior treatment	Reference
Prednisone	33	40 mg/day	n/a	28% <sup>b</sup>	Not reported	Mass RE 1962 [10]
Dexamethasone	19	480 mg	5 weeks	21% <sup>c</sup>	Relapsed	Alexanian R 1986 [13]
Dexamethasone	30	480 mg	5 weeks	27% <sup>c</sup>	Unresponsive <sup>d</sup>	Alexanian R 1986 [13]
Dexamethasone	32	160 mg cycle 1–8 160 mg cycle 9–	1 week 2 weeks	40% <sup>e</sup>	77% 1–2 lines	Friedenberg WR 1991 [14]
Dexamethasone <sup>f</sup>	112	240 mg/m <sup>2</sup>	5 weeks	43% <sup>c</sup>	New diagnosis	Alexanian R 1992 [15]
Dexamethasone	100	480 mg	4 weeks	41% <sup>e</sup>	New diagnosis	Rajkumar SV 2006 [16]
Dexamethasone	127	480 mg cycle 1–2 160 mg cycle 3–12	6 weeks 6 weeks	40% <sup>e</sup>	New diagnosis	Facon T 2006 [17]
Dexamethasone	336	480 mg cycle 1–4 160 mg cycle 5–9	5 weeks	18% <sup>e</sup>	Median = 2.0 lines	Richardson PG 2005 [18]

*n* number<sup>a</sup> Partial response rates<sup>b</sup> Decrease in globulin by 1.5%<sup>c</sup> ≥ 75% reduction<sup>d</sup> < 75% reduction to prior treatment<sup>e</sup> ≥ 50% reduction<sup>f</sup> Followed by maintenance interferon

[40], NR3C1 mutations have not been commonly reported in human myeloma specimens [41]. Nonetheless, low-level NR3C1 expression is associated with inferior survival outcomes in multiple myeloma patients compared to those with higher levels [42, 43]. In a human multiple myeloma cell line, resistance to glucocorticoids was found to involve a block to transcriptional elongation within intron B of NR3C1 [44] and is associated with high-level expression of a variant glucocorticoid receptor mRNA whose protein product is predicted to impact hormone binding [45]. Responsiveness of myeloma cells to dexamethasone varies by glucocorticoid receptor (GR) isoform. The GR $\alpha$  isoform is predominant in sensitive cell lines, while the GR-P isoform predominates in resistant myeloma cell lines [46]. In acute lymphoblastic leukemia, a setting in which glucocorticoids are also a backbone treatment [47], low glucocorticoid receptor levels have been found to correlate with poor response to therapy [48]. However, whether glucocorticoid receptor isoforms or receptor abundance patterns correlate with clinical activity in multiple myeloma patients remains unclear.

Whether multiple myeloma cells have or develop intrinsic resistance to glucocorticoids would also be an important aspect of drug selection for patients. Approximately 20% of myeloma patients harbor mutations in genes that dysregulate NF- $\kappa$ B, resulting in constitutive activation, the most common being inactivation of TNF receptor-associated factor 3 (*TRAF3*) [4]. Patients with low levels of *TRAF3* have low response rates to dexamethasone, compared to those with higher *TRAF3* levels [4]. In another study, *NRAS* mutations,

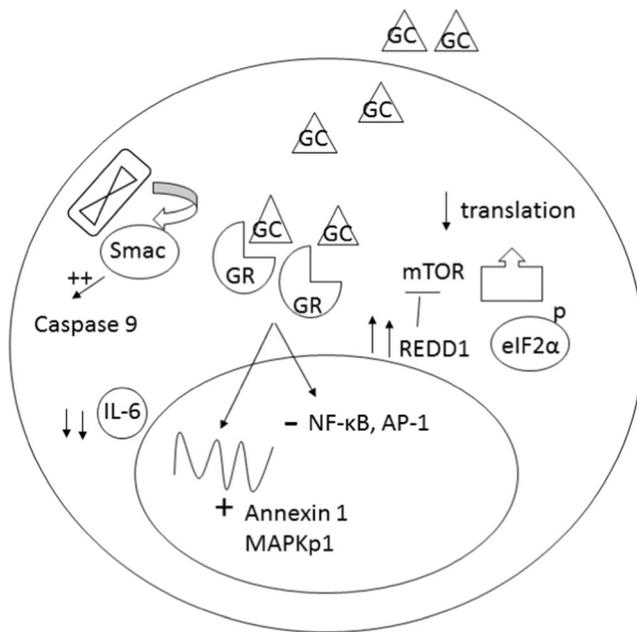
which are also present in about 20% of myeloma patients, were associated with low response rates to bortezomib, while 3 of 6 patients with *NRAS* mutations responded to high-dose dexamethasone [49]. Additional recurrent mutations have been described in multiple myeloma patient cells, including in genes involved in RNA processing and protein homeostasis [41], and it is unknown how these mutations might impact glucocorticoid sensitivity. While more data is needed, in the future, gene expression or mutational analysis could help guide decision making regarding continued use of dexamethasone, ideally in the setting of a clinical study.

Overall, this era saw great strides in elucidating the mechanisms of dexamethasone sensitivity and resistance in multiple myeloma (Fig. 2). However, the precise mechanisms of drug resistance in multiple myeloma patients remain to be fully explored.

## Present perspectives

### Pairing glucocorticoids with novel agents: the new paradigm

In the modern era, significant progress has been made in the discovery of novel agents that pair well with glucocorticoid mechanism of action, to promote synergistic effects. For example, the immunomodulatory drug thalidomide and analogs (IMiDs), in pre-clinical studies, demonstrate that the IMiDs directly augment anti-proliferative effects on myeloma cells in



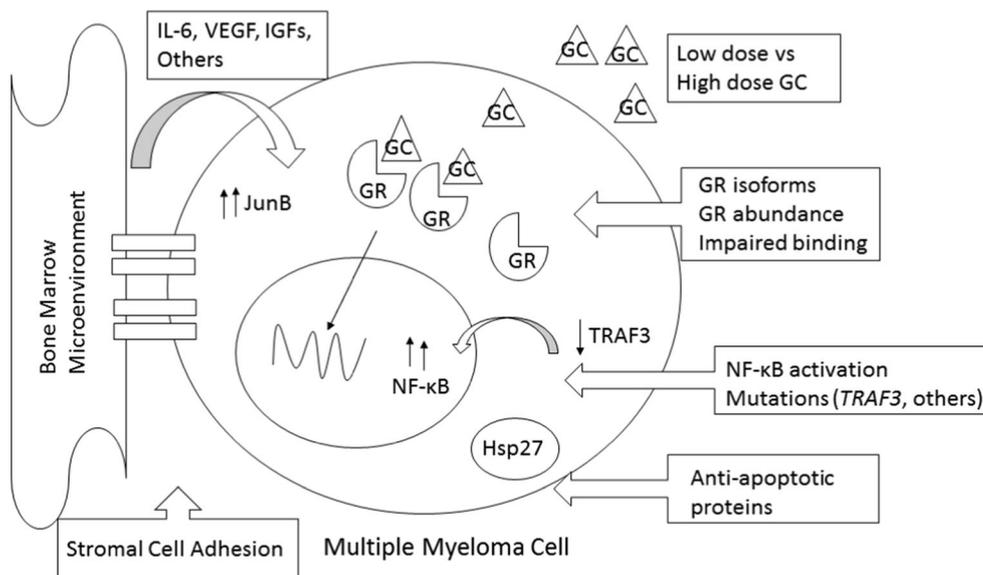
### Multiple Myeloma Cell

**Fig. 1** Glucocorticoid mechanisms of action in multiple myeloma. Glucocorticoids bind cytosolic glucocorticoid receptors which translocate to the nucleus, leading to transactivation and transrepression of target genes. Glucocorticoids inhibit IL-6 production, induce release of Smac from mitochondria leading to caspase 9 activation, and inhibit mRNA translation via inhibition of mTOR and phosphorylation of eIF2-alpha. GC = glucocorticoid, GR = glucocorticoid receptor, IL-6 = interleukin 6, NF-kB = nuclear factor kB, AP-1 = activator protein-1, MAPKp1 = MAPK phosphatase 1, mTOR = mechanistic target of rapamycin, Smac = second mitochondria-derived activator of caspases

combination with dexamethasone [50]. In part, the additive effects in promoting myeloma apoptosis reflect differences in mechanisms of action, with IMiDs promoting extrinsic apoptosis and dexamethasone promoting intrinsic apoptosis [51]. While exogenous IL-6 can overcome these effects, it is notable that the IMiDs are able to inhibit the production of IL-6 from both myeloma cells and bone marrow stromal cells [52]. Moreover, IMiDs such as thalidomide have been found to reverse the poor prognostic significance associated with low *NR3C1* expression [43].

On the other hand, IMiDs such as lenalidomide cause selective degradation of Ikaros family zinc finger protein 1, whose loss of function has been found to mediate glucocorticoid resistance in acute lymphoblastic leukemia [53, 54]. However, since the overall clinical activity of these agents when used in combination is so high, it remains unclear if this latter mechanism of action impacts drug synergism in a meaningful way when treating multiple myeloma patients.

The proteasome inhibitors such as bortezomib are another group of highly active novel agents that pair well with glucocorticoids. It has been demonstrated that proteasome inhibition overcomes resistance to exogenous IL-6, decreases myeloma cell adherence to bone marrow stromal cells, and decreases bone marrow stromal cell IL-6 secretion, leading to additive apoptotic effects with dexamethasone [55]. Combination treatment of IMiDs, proteasome inhibitors, and glucocorticoids in myeloma patients have confirmed very high clinical response rates when these drugs are used together [56]. Newer proteasome inhibitors, including ixazomib, and carfilzomib, and IMiDs such as pomalidomide, are also



**Fig. 2** Mechanisms of resistance to glucocorticoids. Resistance of multiple myeloma to glucocorticoids includes cell-extrinsic and cell-intrinsic factors. Extrinsic factors include stromal cell-mediated adhesion and secretion of factors supportive of myeloma cell growth and survival. Intrinsic factors include over-expression of Hsp27,

activation of NF-kB, or glucocorticoid receptor modulation. GC = glucocorticoid, GR = glucocorticoid receptor, IL-6 = interleukin 6, VEGF = vascular endothelial growth factor, IGFs = insulin-like growth factors, Hsp = heat shock protein, NF-kB = nuclear factor kB, AP-1 = activator protein-1, TRAF = TNF receptor-associated factor

commonly paired with dexamethasone in the relapsed/refractory setting [57–60]. Since these drugs have not typically been studied with or without steroids in clinical studies, it remains poorly understood if synergistic mechanisms remain potent after failing a first-line steroid-based regimen.

Selinexor, a selective inhibitor of XPO1-mediated nuclear export, demonstrates synergistic anti-tumor activity with dexamethasone [61]. The glucocorticoid receptor is an XPO1 cargo, and treatment with selinexor thus enhances glucocorticoid receptor transcriptional activation. In support of clinically relevant drug synergism, early phase studies with selinexor alone showed minimal response, while combination with low-dose dexamethasone significantly increased response rates [62]. Moreover, clinical responses have been seen with selinexor and low-dose dexamethasone even in those with relapsed/refractory multiple myeloma having received a median of seven prior lines of treatment [63]. Thus, this is a promising novel drug combination that takes advantage of glucocorticoid drug synergism.

Panobinostat, a histone deacetylase inhibitor, also has activity in multiple myeloma and has demonstrated responses in combination with bortezomib and dexamethasone, as well as in combination with lenalidomide and dexamethasone, among other steroid-containing combinations [64–66]. Potentiation of panobinostat with dexamethasone has been demonstrated in vitro and in murine models, demonstrating a rationale for these clinical combinations [67]. While data is limited on the precise clinical benefit of dexamethasone in this setting, in a phase I study, the addition of dexamethasone to a small expansion cohort appeared to increase response rates compared to panobinostat/bortezomib alone [68]. Thus, there is a rationale to keep glucocorticoids on board when using this combination and is the on-label approach.

Clarithromycin is a macrolide antibiotic which has minimal single agent activity against multiple myeloma [69, 70], but which augments the activity of dexamethasone. Clarithromycin, when used in combination with lenalidomide and dexamethasone, demonstrates high clinical response rates, which appear to be significantly higher when compared to lenalidomide and dexamethasone alone [71, 72]. The ability of clarithromycin to enhance dexamethasone sensitivity may reflect its effects on delaying glucocorticoid clearance and shifting of the dexamethasone dose-response curve to the left [73, 74]. Thus, it is important to pair this agent with a glucocorticoid backbone.

As IL-6 secretion is a major mechanism of resistance to dexamethasone in multiple myeloma, the utility of targeted inhibition of IL-6 has also been evaluated in pre-clinical studies in combination with dexamethasone. Although IL-6 monoclonal antibody appears to have limited single agent activity against myeloma cells, inhibition of IL-6 potentiates dexamethasone-mediated apoptosis and attenuates bone

marrow stromal cell-mediated resistance to dexamethasone [75]. Clinical studies of siltuximab, an IL-6 monoclonal antibody, ± high-dose dexamethasone demonstrate that the combination of these drugs, but not siltuximab alone, has modest clinical activity in relapsed/refractory patients [76]. While it is likely that blocking IL-6 has an important role in overcoming dexamethasone resistance, additional resistance mechanisms may need to be overcome, especially in the relapsed/refractory setting.

Elotuzumab, a monoclonal antibody targeting SLAMF7, has also been found to have promising single agent anti-myeloma activity in pre-clinical studies. The activity of elotuzumab involves both promotion of antibody-dependent cellular cytotoxicity and augmentation of natural killer cell anti-tumor effect [77, 78]. A phase I dose-escalation study, while designed to assess safety and tolerability, demonstrated no objective responses to single-agent elotuzumab [79]. Subsequent studies, however, which have largely investigated elotuzumab in combination with lenalidomide and dexamethasone have demonstrated high response rates [80, 81]. Pre-clinical rationale for the combination of elotuzumab and lenalidomide include the ability of lenalidomide to augment anti-myeloma activity via increased natural killer cell activation [82]. Glucocorticoids, in contrast, have been shown to reduce natural killer cell activity [83, 84], which would seem to be antagonistic, in part, to the mechanism of action of these drugs. Nonetheless, as this regimen has typically been used in combination, it is difficult to tease out what the precise impact of dexamethasone is in this setting.

In contrast to the experience with siltuximab and elotuzumab, promising single agent activity has been seen with daratumumab, an anti-CD38 monoclonal antibody in relapsed/refractory patient populations [85]. While dexamethasone was not included in early single agent studies, dexamethasone was added to subsequent trials with daratumumab in combination with lenalidomide or bortezomib with high clinical activity [86, 87]. In contrast, a phase II study of daratumumab and dexamethasone without an IMiD or proteasome inhibitor reported a response rate of only 25% [88]. While difficult to compare across studies, this response rate was not higher than that seen with single agent daratumumab [85], so it is difficult to conclude that dexamethasone synergizes with daratumumab in myeloma patients. It should be noted, however, that glucocorticoids have a role as a pre-medication agent to reduce daratumumab infusion reactions. Overall, given the data from the large phase III POLLUX and CASTOR trials alluded to above, dexamethasone usage will likely continue to be high when using this novel agent. Nonetheless, in the emerging era of immuno-therapeutics, the role of dexamethasone in dampening immune responses will need to be carefully considered.

Overall, in the modern era, dexamethasone-free regimens continue to be the exception, rather than the rule.

## Glucocorticoids and adverse toxicities

In addition to glucocorticoid activity in multiple myeloma, increased understanding of glucocorticoid effects in other tissues has provided insight into glucocorticoid toxicity. In skeletal muscle for example, where glucocorticoids induce muscle atrophy, dexamethasone has been found to rapidly impair peptide chain initiation and inhibit protein synthesis by as much as 50–80% [89–93]. Inhibition of ternary complex formation via eIF2- $\alpha$  activation appears to have a role in this response, though results have been variable [91, 93–95]. Dexamethasone also represses mTOR in skeletal muscle via upregulation of REDD1 leading to reduced phosphorylation of down-stream targets S6K1 and 4E-BP1 [96]. Since dexamethasone also suppresses protein synthesis in multiple myeloma cells by similar actions, more work is needed to determine if glucocorticoid-induced muscle atrophy can be teased out from its anti-myeloma effects.

It has also been appreciated that many unwanted glucocorticoid side effects likely stem from glucocorticoid transactivation rather than transrepression, including adverse metabolic effects such as those regulating glucose homeostasis [97]. In contrast, the transrepression of transcription factors such as nuclear factor  $\kappa$ B and AP-1, which regulate pro-inflammatory cytokines, likely plays a role in glucocorticoid-induced anti-myeloma activity. With this rationale in mind, selective glucocorticoid receptor agonists and modulators (SEGRAMs) are being developed that favor transrepression over transactivation [98–100]. While some of these agents have demonstrated potent anti-myeloma activity, other reports have been conflicting, and the anti-myeloma activity is likely influenced by the co-activator/co-repressor profile of the particular compound being studied [101–103]. Moreover, the net contribution of these agents to glucocorticoid toxicity may be more nuanced than the simplified separation described above. For example, adverse effects of glucocorticoids on bone metabolism may involve both transactivation and transrepression mechanisms [97]. In addition, glucocorticoids have non-genomic mechanisms of action that may contribute to adverse effects [104]. Overall, the study of SEGRAMs, while promising, remains to be fully explored in multiple myeloma.

In contrast to the SEGRAMs, among the glucocorticoid drugs, all act by the same basic mechanism. Variations in toxicity and efficacy likely relate more to the relative potency and dose of the specific drug used. Dexamethasone for example, which is the most commonly used agent, has a relative potency of 6-fold that of prednisone. Although higher doses of glucocorticoids may increase anti-myeloma activity, the toxicity of glucocorticoids is dose-dependent [14, 19]. A complete discussion of the molecular mechanisms of glucocorticoid side effects is beyond the scope of this review, but this topic is further reviewed in [1, 97, 104, 105].

## Future considerations for glucocorticoid use in myeloma

In the relapsed/refractory setting, glucocorticoids continue to be highly utilized. In part, this is reflective of the potent clinical activity of these agents, which may persist well past first-line treatment, probably by promoting drug synergism. Selinexor is a good example of this. Nonetheless, it also reflects the reality that glucocorticoids continue to be included in clinical trials of salvage regimens. Thus, it is difficult for caring providers to know when, if ever, to stop these agents. Is it possible that in some circumstances, we are largely inducing catabolic side effects with limited activity against the actual malignant plasma cell? Studies of real-world glucocorticoid prescribing practices, and correlative patient-level symptom assessments, would be helpful to further understand the scope of this issue. In addition, studies of steroid-sparing regimens, particularly in older frail patients, may allow for future non-steroid options for our patients.

The development and testing of glucocorticoid receptor modulators, and the identification of novel drugs that act down-stream of the glucocorticoid receptor, may help us determine whether we can harness the potent anti-myeloma effects of glucocorticoid agents, while minimizing unwanted toxicities. Finally, more work is needed to determine if and how biologic factors, including tumor biomarkers, or information on mutation status, could be used to predict steroid responsiveness.

## Conclusion

A better understanding of mechanisms of glucocorticoid sensitivity and resistance in multiple myeloma have helped to identify optimal drug partners to overcome steroid resistance. Very high response rates have been demonstrated when steroids are paired with novel agents in the frontline setting. Nonetheless, further research focused on *in vivo* resistance mechanisms and drug-responsiveness in multiple myeloma patients will help guide decision-making regarding ongoing need for steroid treatment. The need for further mechanistic work on this old drug continues to demand our attention.

## Compliance with ethical standards

**Conflict of interest** The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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