

1 *Review*

2 **Obstacles and perspectives. Considerations on health** 3 **promotion activities performed for older workers in** 4 **Europe**

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10 **Abstract:** The ageing of workers is one of the most important issues for occupational health and
11 safety in Europe. A number of studies on health promotion intervention for older workers were
12 conducted in European workplaces between 2000 and 2015. This review gives an overview of these
13 studies and considers perspectives for workplace health promotion.

14 **Keywords:** Health Promotion; Ageing; Workplace; Occupational Health; Effectiveness;
15 Salutogenesis; Holistic Medicine; Subsidiarity; Participatory approach; Setting.

16

17 **1. Introduction**

18 Ageing of the workforce presents a challenge for all European countries. Keeping workers active
19 and productive through health promotion intervention is a prime objective of European labour
20 policy. We used the general framework of the ProHealth65+ research funded by EU-CHAFEA to
21 examine workplace health promotion for older workers (WHPOW) in 10 countries belonging to
22 Mediterranean (Italy, Greece, Portugal), Western (Germany, Holland, Czech Republic) and Eastern
23 Europe (Hungary, Poland, Bulgaria, Lithuania) [1].

24 To identify the largest number of projects carried out between 2000 and 2015 we conducted (1)
25 a systematic review of the literature [2]; (2) research on gray literature; (3) an analysis of major
26 companies using SurveyMonkey [3]. The projects were classified according to the type of intervention
27 carried out, the institutions that took part and the role played by each of them. A total of 622
28 intervention studies were retrieved. Most of the studies (47.4%) were carried out in Central European
29 countries, while Eastern and Mediterranean Europe undertook fewer projects (31% and 22%,
30 respectively) [4]. Most intervention was designed to discourage retirement and was based on training
31 programs. Overall, health promotion activities were inadequate for the scale of the social and
32 economic changes taking place.

33 The ProHealth65+ study found that the review of WHPOW activities conducted in Europe from
34 2000 to 2015 revealed major differences in European countries as regards both the number of projects
35 undertaken and their quality. In Western European countries, the implementation of guidelines and
36 specific measures to promote the health of the elderly together with incentives for companies
37 investing in this sector favoured the development of projects in the workplace. On the other hand, in
38 Eastern European countries and especially in those belonging to the Mediterranean area, the projects
39 failed to meet potential needs [5]. The results of this study have been published in detail elsewhere
40 [6].

41 In this paper we report our main considerations after making an analysis of WHPOW
42 intervention studies, and put forward proposals for improving health promotion activities.

43

44 2. Obstacles to health promotion

45 Obstacles encountered in carrying out WHPOW, especially in small companies, include a
46 shortage of financial and human resources for implementing intervention, a lack of flexibility in
47 organising tasks (e.g. job rotation), and an uncompromising attitude on the part of employees and
48 managers. Moreover, regulation often does not support evidence-based practice [7]. Another
49 limiting factor concerns the time taken to implement health promotion measures [8]. A reluctance to
50 change work habits and practices, mostly on the part of long-serving employees, may also
51 constitute an obstacle. This may occur on account of a lack of awareness of the dangerous effects of
52 some habits or due to poor communication regarding the benefits of better working practices or a
53 healthy work environment. A lack of worker participation in the design and implementation of
54 health promotion activities can also affect worker motivation. Lastly, low wages may cause a
55 drastic reduction in the motivation of employees as regards WHP.

56 2.1. Resources and continuity

57 Lack of funding is responsible for limiting WHPOW intervention even though the actions for
58 health may produce many economic benefits by increasing productivity and reducing absenteeism
59 and presenteeism associated with chronic diseases. In general, a lack of resources was the obstacle
60 most frequently reported for WHP programs, while strong management support was the element
61 most frequently reported to facilitate this type of intervention [9].

62 A successful WHP program produces intangible benefits due to increased worker wellbeing
63 and satisfaction. However, since these benefits are not immediate, an initial investment in WHP
64 projects is always necessary. Projects should explicitly include ways of recovering resources so as to
65 ensure continuity of intervention. Since small companies often lack access to health-promotion
66 opportunities available at larger workplaces, it could be useful to provide incentives for smaller
67 workplaces to implement comprehensive WHP programs [10].

68 Continuity is one of the crucial aspects of WHPOW projects: in many cases a project is
69 sustainable only if it leads to a recovery of resources or a significant improvement in production
70 methods. Many projects come to an end if they are not continuously financed. This general rule has
71 some exceptions. Some Dutch WHPOW projects that were temporarily funded by the government
72 had a positive outcome because several companies decided to take over responsibility for funding
73 after witnessing the beneficial effects of the projects [11].

74 Most European countries already allocate substantial resources for occupational health, but in
75 many cases these resources are not invested profitably. Although the workplace is an ideal setting
76 for health promotion for older people, it is also the place in which huge resources are being wasted
77 or used inefficiently for purposes other than health promotion. Improving the quality of
78 occupational health in the workplace is the best way to recover resources for health promotion.

79 To be effective, a promotion program requires not only economic resources, but also and above
80 all, human resources and scientific knowledge. Health promotion must be based on evidence [12-
81 15].

82

83 2.2. Evaluation of the effectiveness of WHPOW

84 The evaluation of results remains a crucial issue for WHPOW programs. Most WHPOW
85 programs do not envisage an evaluation of results, and even when an assessment is made, there is a
86 lack of scientific evidence since evaluation is performed at the end of a project rather than after a
87 period of time when the lasting effects of the improvements achieved can be demonstrated.

88 Furthermore, since WHPOW programs rarely contemplate the existence of an external advisor,
89 there is the risk of a conflict of interests if evaluation is carried out by those conducting the
90 WHPOW intervention. The same applies to other aspects of workplace health promotion, although
91 some evidence indicates the long-term effectiveness of multicomponent lifestyle interventions in
92 the workplace, the limited number of high quality studies and the lack of consistency among
93 studies preclude a conclusive assessment. More thorough, well-reported studies are needed to fully
94 understand the impact of interventions [16-27]. Methods such as ROI (Return On Investment), that
95 are used to assess the effectiveness of programs, need to be carefully evaluated because their
96 application has raised considerable criticism [28]. However, it is widely accepted that well-designed
97 and well-executed intervention studies founded on evidence-based principles can achieve positive
98 health and financial outcomes [29].

99

100 *2.3. Occupational health: current and historical approaches*

101 The system of insurance against occupational diseases was set up in most developed countries
102 a hundred years ago to deal with industrial work in which occupational hazards were an inevitable
103 consequence of production. Since it was not possible to change the occupational environment, the
104 only form of justice was to offer compensation to the sick worker.

105 A century later, the situation has changed completely. New technologies have brought safety
106 to all work environments. European Directives oblige employers to implement occupational health
107 and safety measures in all countries, and nowadays most causes of disease are to be found outside
108 the workplace.

109 In spite of these changes, the approach to occupational health has remained substantially the
110 same as a century ago. Occupational health services still look for early signs of disease and the
111 insurance system provides compensation for the sick worker. This so-called "laboristic" approach,
112 that focuses only on occupational aspects, fails to take into account the health risks that are not
113 directly related to work, in spite of the fact that diseases arising solely from work constitute only a
114 minute part of all chronic diseases affecting workers. All the diseases that European workers
115 attribute to work are actually due to a number of factors. Musculoskeletal disorders - by far the
116 most frequent complaint affecting European workers - are the result of several different factors that
117 include heavy load carrying, awkward postures, repetitive movements, lack of exercise, obesity,
118 psychosocial factors, and many others. Exposure to each of these risks may be both occupational
119 and non-occupational. If an employee has back pain, a physician cannot clinically detect the cause
120 of this disorder.

121 The "laboristic" approach and the possibility of obtaining financial compensation for work-
122 related back pain can lead to the so-called "compensation syndrome" where the employee
123 emphasizes all work-related aspects of his/her illness and overlooks others. A doctor, who in most
124 cases is a trade union doctor rather than the company doctor, makes a diagnosis of occupational
125 disease. The insurance institute conducts an investigation and, if the occupational cause and effect
126 relationship is established, compensates the employee and punishes the employer who may be sued
127 for damages by the worker and prosecuted by the State. All this process takes years and does not
128 improve health.

129 If the current "laboristic" approach were to be abandoned in favour of a more holistic
130 approach, far more resources would be available to invest in promotion against all health risks. A
131 new culture of health promotion in occupational health and safety (OHS) practice is urgently
132 needed [30]. The workplace could become the ideal environment for promoting a healthy lifestyle
133 [31].

134 2.4. *Unnecessary bureaucracy*

135 In some cases, public resources that have been allocated for the health of workers are used in
136 an unprofitable way. For example, every year the Polish Occupational Medicine Service (OMS)
137 carries out 4.5 million mandatory preventive examinations of individuals who are seeking
138 employment [32]. These medical examinations are carried out irrespective of the possible working
139 conditions that neither the future employee nor the physician can foresee. After this medical
140 examination, a qualified physician issues a certificate stating whether or not the individual is fit for
141 work. It is hard to understand the usefulness of this procedure which neither prevents occupational
142 risks nor promotes healthy lifestyles. Moreover, the Polish OMS undertakes no curative measures
143 and, even if called upon to perform a routine medical examination of workers, is not entitled to
144 intervene in the working environment to reduce occupational health and safety risks.

145 To have sufficient resources for workplace health promotion, it is essential to avoid this type of
146 unnecessary expense.

147

148 2.5. *Target health, not diseases*

149 Some researchers argue that health promotion interventions should be directed specifically at
150 workers with an elevated risk of chronic disease. A recent, very interesting review selected some US
151 workplace interventions that targeted at-risk employees on the basis of the latter's disease or
152 disease-related risk factors [33]. However, this approach is not suitable in workplaces where
153 fairness requires health promotion activities to be offered to all workers, not just to a limited
154 number. The ideal solution is to promote health rather than look for disease. The presence of
155 occupational health services in many workplaces allows this to be done.

156 In Italy, occupational health physicians carry out around 10 million mandatory medical
157 examinations and routine check-ups a year - probably the largest number in Europe. However, only
158 a few of these activities are aimed at health promotion.

159 This large number of annual medical examinations (most of which include blood and urine
160 tests despite their acknowledged low job-specificity) is due to a concept of "health surveillance"
161 distorted by cultural and historical factors [34]. Unless there is a clear diagnostic purpose, it is
162 useless to carry out blood tests or instrumental analyses. However, this is often done because
163 workers believe that it is their right ("acquired right") to have these tests and employers consider
164 tests to be a more concrete result than a health education program. OHS companies also find it
165 easier and more profitable to sell health products rather than set up, implement and check the long-
166 term results of a health promotion program.

167 It is debateable whether these medical examinations should be carried out at the expense of the
168 employer and in a country that offers an efficient and universal Public Health System with the
169 screening, diagnosis and treatment of non-work-related diseases. Clearly, we seem to be over-
170 testing; but are we offering correct and adequate health promotion at the same time?

171

172 2.6. *Linking industrial hygiene and occupational health*

173

174 Misuse of health care resources also occurs in current occupational health practice where many
175 occupational physicians face a number of important limitations due to a lack of clinical and

176 occupational exposure information at the time of medical examination, or even threats to their
177 professional independence. This situation often occurs in external OHS services, especially in
178 connection with knowledge of occupational and non-occupational sickness absence data,
179 participation in the investigation of work accidents and occupational diseases, and access to the
180 prevention service on the part of workers.

181 Poor coordination and communication between the OHS, the National Health Service and the
182 employer's insurance companies, and failure to exchange medical records when a worker changes
183 jobs or an employer contacts a different external OHS service, impair occupational health practice.
184 Inadequate exposure information (e.g. job description, risk evaluation, environmental
185 measurements) is of particular concern because without the necessary information Occupational
186 Medicine loses all meaning. If the occupational physician merely assesses the condition of each
187 individual worker without trying to improve the working environment and adapt it to the
188 individual, he/she is simply not doing his/her job.

189 Existing evidence supports an integrated approach [35]. If industrial hygiene and occupational
190 health function separately, working conditions may be seriously impaired. Unfortunately, in some
191 countries, such as Poland, where the Work Safety and Hygiene service and the Occupational
192 Medicine service are separate [32], integration between services is very rare.

193

194 *2.7. Accessibility of health care in the workplace*

195 Accessibility poses an important problem for external prevention services. Most European
196 enterprises are small and medium-sized, and often distributed over an extensive geographical area.
197 Physicians employed by external occupational services are often located at some distance from
198 workplaces so that their contact with workers is limited to routine medical examinations. Internal
199 prevention services, on the contrary, have good accessibility, so physicians are able to examine
200 workers more frequently after sick leave and increase the probability of early detection of
201 occupational health problems and vulnerable workers. An assiduous presence of the medical
202 service is essential for successful health promotion, since recent studies in the field [36] have shown
203 that there is a constant demand for the advice of an occupational physician.

204

205 *2.8. "Fitness for job"*

206 The fact that health examinations are almost always followed by a fitness-for-work certificate
207 that is issued regardless of the job and its associated risks, may have an unintentionally detrimental
208 effect on workers. Since it is claimed that companies are reluctant to accept workers who are given a
209 'conditional' fit-for-work certificate, some workers who could most benefit from WHP activities
210 may decide to avoid this type of prevention service. Employee participation is an essential requisite
211 for workplace health promotion.

212

213 *2.9. Sharing the costs of health promotion*

214 Ageing of the workforce has such important repercussions on the productive capacity of public
215 and private enterprises that health promotion for older workers has become a vital issue.

216 ProHealth65+ research has shown that some European countries have already taken important
217 steps to tackle this question. Supranational institutions are urging all European countries to rapidly
218 adopt the same correct approach.

219 The true task of occupational medicine is to improve occupational health. This can only be
220 achieved by adopting a holistic approach that takes into account not only occupational risks,
221 technical and medical expertise and ergonomic adaptations in the work environment, but also
222 habits and lifestyles that may favour the onset of diseases and thereby interfere with working
223 capacity.

224 The holistic approach to occupational health is considered to be of prime importance in some
225 central and northern European countries. The most numerous and effective WHPOW projects are
226 concentrated in Scandinavian and central European countries [37, 38]. In these countries health
227 promotion often has fiscal incentives. In Flanders, for example, the State recognizes company
228 commitment to health promotion and participates by providing some of the necessary funding [39].
229 This significant commitment to the promotion of occupational health services should act as a guide
230 for policy and labour laws in other European countries.

231 A particular aspect of health promotion concerns the management of disability. Recovering the
232 full working capacity of a worker with a handicap is certainly better than providing compensation
233 for his/her handicap. Germany offers an excellent example of how workers with disabilities can
234 recuperate without the provision of monetary compensation [40]. This policy is crucial for elderly
235 workers who often suffer from chronic diseases and disabilities.

236

237 *2.10. Subsidiarity*

238 Subsidiarity is another significant aspect of the northern European model of health and safety
239 promotion in the workplace. On the basis of this principle, the State rarely intervenes in
240 consultations among social partners. Safety and health at work are primarily the responsibility of
241 companies and workers. The transition from a proto-industrial top-down, authoritarian model to a
242 more modern participatory and democratic bottom-up pattern is not easy, especially in countries
243 where there is a high unemployment rate. However, according to European Directives on Health
244 and Safety at Work founded on worker participation, this is the path that should be undertaken.

245 Countries such as the Netherlands and Germany, where this process has already been
246 adopted, are familiar with the difficulties involved. A large supply of readily available resources is
247 required and it is useful to create networks of small and medium-sized enterprises, coordinated by
248 local organizations and supported by expertise from universities. Institutions that insure against
249 occupational injuries should fund these efforts, and social partners should give their support.

250 Our analysis of experiences in EU countries showed that the successful development and
251 implementation of WHPOW depends largely on involving both employees and management.
252 Ageing is a highly complex phenomenon, so it is essential to adopt a multi-level approach
253 involving the collaboration of different departments in order to effectively manage the health of an
254 ageing workforce. Activities undertaken as part of a wide-ranging strategy and implemented by
255 large parent companies or local authorities are more likely to be sustained over time, and the
256 presence of external consultants can offer valuable technical experience and expertise.

257 As resources are vital for sustaining WHPOW programs, it is essential to make a preliminary
258 assessment and regular evaluation of the measures adopted. To be successful, a program should
259 ideally implement a life-long approach, with actions that focus on introducing early changes in

260 lifestyles for all employees. At the same time, it should also incorporate personalised and flexible
261 measures. Intervention that includes flexible working hours, provision for mentoring or the transfer
262 of knowledge and extra days off would address some of the specific needs of the working
263 population.

264

265 2.11. *Type of setting*

266 Our study focused on intervention studies that were developed or implemented in the
267 workplace. The workplace is considered to be particularly interesting and important for health
268 promotion because it has a powerful impact on a large number of people both during and after
269 their working life. The development of WHP projects is facilitated in large enterprises because of
270 the availability of medical resources and staff skilled in environmental and human resources
271 management. Moreover, the fact that the workplace brings together large numbers of workers in a
272 single place at a given time is an additional incentive for performing health promotion in that
273 setting. Another vital aspect of health promotion activities in the workplace is naturally the need for
274 cooperation between employers and employees.

275 However, the fact that health promotion action usually takes place in the workplace, does not
276 mean that all intervention studies adopt a “workplace setting approach”, i.e. all health promotion
277 action begins and ends in the same environment. Poland et al. [41] stated that taking a ‘setting
278 approach’ to health promotion means not only addressing the contexts in which people live, work,
279 and play and making these the object of inquiry and intervention, but it also involves considering
280 the needs and capacities of people in different settings. The authors of this type of health promotion
281 project recognize that both the problem and the solution lie within the same setting and that
282 intervention must change the setting itself. In these projects, changing the central and underlying
283 health factors does not merely involve changing people’s health behaviour, it also entails modifying
284 the settings themselves [42, 43]. In a work context, this means that both the problem and the
285 solution lie within the setting and are therefore closely related to the production of goods or
286 services on the part of the enterprise. Rarely can the promotion of workers' health be obtained only
287 through changes in conditions in the workplace. When this occurs, rather than health promotion, it
288 is merely a question of prevention of occupational risks, which, according to European Directives, is
289 a mandatory task of the employer. Activities devoted exclusively to the safety and control of
290 industrial risk factors were not included in our research. Most health promotion needs to go beyond
291 the boundaries of working activities by using a holistic approach to focus on physical, social and
292 organizational factors. An example of a ‘non-settings’ approach is when the workplace becomes a
293 place where people can be contacted and their behaviour can be changed in relation to diet,
294 physical activity, or other non-occupational factors. In this way, health promotion activities can be
295 performed in a setting without applying a ‘settings’ approach.

296 Our review indicated that the sole aim of most WHPOW intervention studies was to change
297 the habits and lifestyles of workers and did not envisage any change in or control of the working
298 environment. These studies adopted a ‘non-settings’ approach as they used the workplace only as
299 an environment in which health-promoting activities could be carried out on workers in order to
300 change their behaviour in relation to lifestyle factors such as diet, smoking and physical activity.
301 They did not focus on the setting itself.

302

303

304

305 2.12. *Type of approach to changes in the environment*

306 We also observed that health promotion projects with a 'settings' approach to the workplace
307 followed two distinct methods: a non-participatory, top-down approach, and a participatory,
308 bottom-up approach. Participatory studies used group interventions that enabled workers to have a
309 say in how the actions were conducted. Examples included health circles, problem-based learning
310 groups and many others that required an active effort on the part of the employees. Most of these
311 WHPOW studies used psychosocial measures as indicators, since they wanted to change the
312 organizational culture and climate toward older workers. Studies of this type used more qualitative
313 research methods than those that adopted a different approach.

314 The non-participatory 'settings' approach included studies that aimed at improving health by
315 changing the physical work environment or work organization without involving employees in
316 decisions about what changes should be made or how these should come about. These studies
317 relied mainly on the opinions of experts and on technical measures, and often resorted to industrial
318 hygiene or human resource management methods.

319 For some years now the literature has indicated the participatory model as an example to
320 follow for the promotion of health [44].

321

322 2.13. *Concept of health*

323 Since the studies included in our selection did not explicitly define health, we examined the
324 resulting health outcomes. An analysis of the intervention undertaken enabled us to deduce the
325 underlying concept of health. According to Torp and Vinje [45], health promotion projects are based
326 on three different concepts of health: the traditional idea that sees health as absence of disease
327 (therefore health behaviour, injury, occupational or non-occupational diseases, absenteeism); the
328 salutogenic concept of positive health (i.e. engagement, satisfaction, self-esteem, motivation); and a
329 middle-of-the-road way of defining or describing health based on dual intervention (work ability,
330 general health).

331 The majority of studies in the workplace referred to pathogenic health outcomes such as the
332 presence/absence of diseases or injury. Examples of these outcomes are common mental disorders,
333 such as anxiety, depression, distress or burnout; musculoskeletal disorders; cardiovascular diseases;
334 allergy and accidents. Many studies included health behaviour action that focused on safe working
335 techniques and the use of personal protective equipment at work. Some studies included lifestyle
336 measures such as healthy eating, physical activity and non-smoking behaviour that were clearly
337 detached from the core activities of the company. Health outcomes measured in other studies were
338 absenteeism, i.e. the frequency of absence from work due to illness, or presenteeism, i.e. working
339 despite being ill.

340 A more limited number of studies used outcomes such as general health and the quality of life,
341 or work ability, often measured by the Finnish Work Ability Index. Both the quality of life and
342 work ability can be used as positive measurements, but they are used more often negatively to
343 measure injuries or work-related diseases.

344 Positive health outcomes such as self-esteem and job engagement were rarely considered. Most
345 studies used more than one outcome measurement related to health. Moreover, several studies
346 included outcome measurements related to the working environment, productivity and satisfaction
347 with the type of intervention.

348

349 3. Conclusions

350 Although the literature indicates health promotion interventions based on a salutogenic
351 approach and a participatory method designed to modify lifestyles and work environments as
352 being the most effective, the majority of studies we surveyed had a traditional clinical approach
353 aimed mainly outside the workplace. Any changes that were made to the workplace, were almost
354 always decided with a top-down approach. As a general conclusion we can state that work is a
355 fundamental health factor. Workers account for around half of the world's population and since the
356 well-being of workers is closely linked to companies and national productivity, it consequently
357 influences the well-being of the entire population.

358 Health promotion at work is linked to at least two more strategies for improving health in the
359 workplace: 1) wellness programs, with emphasis on the lifestyle of individuals, and 2) occupational
360 health and safety with a focus on physical work-related risk factors [46]. Most experts [37, 47] argue
361 that WHP should adopt a holistic approach that includes both of these aspects, as well as focusing
362 on psychosocial and organizational work factors. Health promotion interventions should be
363 designed to bring about structural changes in production that would significantly improve the
364 work situation.

365 There are three main approaches to health promotion that place a focus on 1) a problem (e.g.
366 accident prevention and reducing smoking levels), 2) the population (e.g. ageing in good health), or
367 3) the setting (e.g. schools that promote health). However, most studies conducted in the workplace
368 do not aim to change the work environment, focusing instead on changing health behaviour by
369 means of a specific type of intervention.

370 Despite the number of theoretical health promotion documents that explicitly describe health
371 as a positive concept related to physical, mental and social well-being and not simply to the absence
372 of disease, very few health promotion studies in the workplace use positive health measurements.

373 Both the Ottawa Charter for Health Promotion and the Luxembourg Declaration on Workplace
374 Health Promotion in the European Union reflect a holistic view of health, and explicitly refer to the
375 WHO's definition of health as a complete state of well-being. Well-being at work is strongly related
376 to positive aspects, such as motivation, engagement, and job satisfaction [48]. The most recent
377 literature emphasises the idea that health must be seen as the ability to adapt and self-manage in
378 the face of physical, social and emotional illnesses or constraints that are more or less chronic [49].
379 In accordance with Antonovsky's [50] salutogenic perspective, individuals should be helped to
380 move towards higher levels of overall health, well-being and achievement. This positive, holistic
381 and dynamic approach embraces the need to focus on people's resources and their capacity to
382 create health [51].

383 Compared to practitioners in other medical fields, occupational physicians have always
384 focused less on treatment and more on the prevention of accidents and diseases. The occupational
385 health focus has been, and still is, mainly on risk factors and the prevention of diseases rather than
386 on health promotion defined in a positive and / or holistic manner. Research on workplace health
387 promotion in European countries often resembles traditional disease prevention. In future, health
388 promotion programs conducted in the workplace should focus not only on risk factors and the
389 prevention of disease, but should put more emphasis on a participatory approach leading to
390 positive health outcomes.

391 The ageing of the active population means that health promotion is a necessity rather than a
392 mere option. Consequently, European institutions should urge national entities to introduce further
393 health promotion intervention, involve social partners and private bodies in this objective and share
394 experiences and effectiveness tests.

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400

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