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## Variation in $^{13}\text{C}$ among species and sexes in the family Restionaceae along a fine-scale hydrological gradient

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**Variation in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  among species and sexes in the family Restionaceae along a fine-scale hydrological gradient**

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Keywords:	Cape floristic region, carbon isotope discrimination, hydrological gradient, plant gender, Restionaceae, soil water regime trade

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4 **Variation in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  among species and sexes in the family Restionaceae along a**  
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6 **fine-scale hydrological gradient**  
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13 Linder<sup>3</sup>, Guy Midgley<sup>4</sup>  
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17 **ABSTRACT**

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19 Consistent, repeatable segregation of plant species along hydrological  
20 gradients is an established phenomenon that must in some way reflect a trade-off  
21 between plants' abilities to tolerate the opposing constraints of drought and  
22 waterlogging. In C<sub>3</sub> species tissue carbon isotope discrimination ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ) is known to  
23 vary sensitively in response to stomatal behaviour, reflecting stomatal limitation of  
24 photosynthesis during the period of active growth. However, this has not been studied  
25 at fine-spatial scale in natural communities. We tested how  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  varied between  
26 species and sexes of individuals in the family Restionaceae growing along a  
27 monitored hydrological gradient. 20 Restionaceae species were investigated using  
28 species-level phylogeny at two sites in the Cape Floristic Region, a biodiversity  
29 hotspot. A spatial overlap analysis showed the Restionaceae species segregated  
30 significantly ( $p < 0.001$ ) at both sites. Moreover, there were significant differences in  
31  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values among the Restionaceae species ( $p < 0.001$ ) and between male and female  
32 individuals of each species ( $p < 0.01$ ). However, after accounting for phylogeny,  
33 species  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values did not show any significant correlation with the hydrological  
34 gradient. We suggest that some other variable (e.g. plant phenology) could be  
35 responsible for masking a simple response to water availability.

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37 **Key words:** Cape floristic region, carbon isotope discrimination, hydrological  
38 gradient, plant gender, Restionaceae, soil water regime trade-off, water use efficiency

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3 39 **INTRODUCTION**  
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10 42 Plants are in general very sensitive to small differences in soil moisture, even  
11 43 within a range of moisture tensions where water is still freely available to them  
12 44 (Davies & Gowing 1999). Classical experiments by Ellenberg (1953) with meadow  
13 45 grassland plants demonstrated that interspecific competition leads to segregation of  
14 46 species' distributions along soil moisture gradients and Silvertown *et al.* (1999)  
15 47 further showed that this structures meadow plant communities in the field.  
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25 48 Niche separation on fine-scale hydrological gradients may well be common in  
26 49 plant communities, although the physiological basis of this segregation is still unclear.  
27 50 In general, separation of species into distinct niches along any resource or  
28 51 environmental axes is caused by trade-offs that force species to specialize (MacArthur  
29 52 1972). Possible causes of hydrological niche specialization that have been suggested  
30 53 include trade-offs between tolerance of aeration stress (caused by waterlogging) and  
31 54 drought stress (Davies & Gowing 1999; Silvertown *et al.* 1999) and tolerance of low  
32 55 soil nutrient availability (in wet conditions) and drought stress (e.g. Neill 1990;  
33 56 Castelli *et al.* 2000; Araya 2005).  
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48 58 Whatever the precise trade-offs may be that underlie the specialization of  
49 59 species into hydrological niches, these must involve the water economy of plants and  
50 60 hence must be related to stomatal behaviour. Stomatal function imposes a  
51 61 fundamental trade-off between water conservation and carbon assimilation (and hence  
52 62 growth) because stomata must open to allow CO<sub>2</sub> uptake, but must close to limit water  
53 63 loss. Thus water stress may cause stomatal limitation of photosynthesis during periods  
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3 64 of active growth (e.g. Henson *et al.* 1989). The ratio of CO<sub>2</sub> assimilated to stomatal  
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5 65 conductance determines the Intrinsic Water Use Efficiency (WUE) of a plant. Could  
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8 66 this fundamental trade-off arising from the two conflicting functions of stomata be the  
9  
10 67 ultimate explanation for niche separation along hydrological gradients? If it is, then  
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12 68 intrinsic WUE ought to vary between species in a systematic manner along soil  
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15 69 moisture gradients.  
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20 71         Precisely how intrinsic WUE is expected to vary along soil moisture gradients  
21  
22 72 depends upon how other influences upon growth such as soil-available nitrogen or  
23  
24 73 oxygen supply vary along the gradient too. If no other factor is limiting to growth,  
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26 74 intrinsic WUE ought to decrease monotonically with increasing water supply. If soil-  
27  
28 75 available nitrogen or oxygen (or both) become limiting at the wet end of the gradient,  
29  
30 76 WUE ought to reach a maximum near the middle of the gradient. In theory, these  
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32 77 patterns ought to be detectable through changes in <sup>13</sup>C isotope discrimination, a  
33  
34 78 method often used for assessment of intrinsic WUE (Farquhar *et al.* 1982; Dawson *et*  
35  
36 79 *al.* 2002). When stomatal resistance is high because of closure or increased  
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38 80 photosynthetic demand, the influence of enzymatic discrimination is diminished and  
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40 81  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  leaf values are enriched. On the other hand, if resistance is reduced the relative  
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42 82 influence of enzymatic discrimination increases, favouring <sup>13</sup>C depletion during  
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44 83 fixation (Van de Water *et al.* 2002).  
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53 85         In experiments with crop plants, changes in stomatal resistance and behaviour  
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55 86 eventually led to changes in plant water use efficiency (e.g. Farquhar and Richards  
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57 87 1984; Martin & Thorstenson 1988; Ebdon *et al.* 1998). However, this relationship is  
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59 88 not as straightforward as has often been assumed in the past (Seibt *et al.* 2008). This is  
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3 89 because, particularly in natural vegetation,  $C_i/C_a$  (the ratio of  $CO_2$  concentrations in  
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5 90 the leaf intercellular spaces to that in the atmosphere), which partly determines  
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8 91 isotope discrimination and in turn WUE, could be influenced by external biotic and  
9  
10 92 abiotic factors (Griffiths *et al.* 2000). Hence, WUE and  $\delta^{13}C$  can vary independently  
11  
12 93 of one another, making the use of  $\delta^{13}C$  as a surrogate for WUE questionable (Griffiths  
13  
14 94 *et al.* 2000, Seibt *et al.* 2008). This is particularly the case where  $\delta^{13}C$  is used alone,  
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16 95 without other independent estimates of gas exchange or environmental conditions.  
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22 97 In this paper, we test for a correlation between  $\delta^{13}C$  and the location of species  
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24 98 on a soil moisture gradient in the field, using two methods for controlling variation  
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26 99 that could obscure the relationship. First, our 20 study species all belong to the same  
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28 100 clade, the African Restionaceae, which are dioecious, graminoid  $C_3$  perennials  
29  
30 101 (Linder *et al.* 2005). We selected the Restionaceae for study because many species  
31  
32 102 belonging to this family co-occur within fynbos habitats and species are found across  
33  
34 103 a wide range of water regimes (Linder *et al.* 1998, Hardy *et al.* 2008). By use of a  
35  
36 104 phylogeny for this clade that is resolved to species level (Hardy *et al.* 2008), we are  
37  
38 105 able to use phylogenetically independent contrasts in correlations between  $\delta^{13}C$  and  
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40 106 other variables, thus eliminating the potential influence of phylogenetically-correlated  
41  
42 107 hidden third variables. Second, we make intraspecific comparisons between males and  
43  
44 108 females of Restionaceae species. Females are generally expected to have lower WUE  
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46 109 than males in dioecious species (Dudley 2006).  
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## 54 55 111 **METHODS**

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### 58 59 113 **Site and species**

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6 115 Restionaceae species were sampled from two study sites, located at the heart  
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8 116 of the Cape Floristic Region, South Africa a global biodiversity hotspot (Myers *et al.*  
9  
10 117 2000). The rationale of site selection was to test our hypothesis in sites with  
11  
12 118 contrasting altitude, species composition and water regime. The first site was at  
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14 119 Riverlands Nature Reserve (33° 29' 14.2" S, 18° 35' 44.1" E) at an altitude of 120 m  
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16 120 a.s.l, while the second one was at New Years Peak, within Limietsberg Nature  
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18 121 Reserve (33° 41' 19.6" S, 19° 06' 03.1" E) at an altitude of 1085 m. The annual  
19  
20 122 rainfall at Riverlands was 375 mm, while for New Years Peak it was 1660 mm.  
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22 123 Potential evapotranspiration rates were 3.5 mm and 2.8 mm per day for Riverlands  
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24 124 and New Years Peak respectively.  
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32 126 In a plot of 11,442 m<sup>2</sup> at New Years Peak and 2500 m<sup>2</sup> size at Riverlands, 235  
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34 127 and 305 1 m<sup>2</sup> quadrats were surveyed for the presence/absence of Restionaceae  
35  
36 128 species, and when possible, for the sex of each plant. For the study species, samples  
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38 129 for  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  analysis were taken in replicates of ten along a transect placed through the  
39  
40 130 plot.  
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### 132 **Carbon isotope analysis**

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134 From flowering culms of sampled species between 6-14 months old, a ten cm  
135 long stem sample was taken ten cm above ground surface. The collected plant  
136 material was then oven dried at 60 °C for 48 hours before samples were analysed in  
137 the laboratory. For this analysis, a piece of the stem was scraped to remove any  
138 external dirt, and a small sliver of the clean stem, approximately 0.60 mg in weight,



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3 139 taken with a scalpel and put into a tin capsule. The tin capsule was then combusted in  
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5 140 a Flash EA<sup>®</sup> 1112 series elemental analyzer (Thermo Finnigan, Italy). The CO<sub>2</sub>  
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8 141 produced was fed into a Delta<sup>®</sup> Plus XP IRMS isotope ratio mass spectrometer  
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10 142 (Thermo Electron, Germany) via a ConFlo III<sup>®</sup> gas control unit (Thermo Finnigan,  
11  
12 143 Germany). The carbon isotope ratio (<sup>13</sup>C/<sup>12</sup>C) output was then reported relative to the  
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14 144 PDB standard. The resulting delta notation, δ<sup>13</sup>C, was determined using the following  
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16 145 equation (Kloppel *et al.* 1998):  
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$$\delta^{13}\text{C}(\text{‰}) = \frac{R_{\text{sample}} - R_{\text{standard}}}{R_{\text{standard}}} \times 1000$$

## 21 22 23 147 24 25 26 148 27 28 29 149 **Hydrological monitoring** 30

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33 151 To enable an accurate understanding of soil water regime within the plots, a  
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35 152 hydrologic model based on Gowing & Youngs (1997) was used. The model was built  
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37 153 from inputs of water-table-depth behaviour in the field, topographic variation, soil  
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39 154 characteristics and meteorological data.  
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45 156 The water-table depth was monitored from an array of dip wells, supported by  
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47 157 automatic logging ‘divers’ (Eijkelkamp<sup>®</sup>, The Netherlands). The dip wells were read  
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49 158 manually every two weeks, while automatic divers in a sub-sample of wells were set  
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51 159 to read every four hours for 15 months’ duration. We confirmed the suitability of  
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53 160 water table depth as a proxy for assessing water availability in our sites, by regressing  
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55 161 it against volumetric water content during the monitoring season.  
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3 163 To account for micro-topographical differences, topography was surveyed at  
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6 164 all quadrat and dip well locations using a Leica Geosystems® TPS300 (Switzerland)  
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8 165 total station device.  
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13 167 Using the hydrological monitoring from dipwells and divers, it was possible to  
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15 168 interpolate the water-table depths for each quadrat location. The mean water-table  
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17 169 depths of each quadrat from the spring season, was then weighted by the % presence  
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19 170 of the respective species present, to get its hydrological metric (i.e. mean water-table  
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21 171 depth).  
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### 173 **Phylogeny**

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175 The Restionaceae comprise 350 species, 342 of which form a clade that is  
176 endemic to the Cape Floristic Region. The phylogeny of Restionaceae used in this  
177 study was built on the basis of *rbcl* markers and morphological traits (Hardy *et al.*  
178 2008) and includes 94% of the Cape clade, resolved to species level.  
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180

### 180 **Statistical analysis**

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182 Initially, the botanical data collected for each site were tested for spatial  
183 community structure using Stone and Roberts' C-score in the EcoSim software  
184 (Gotelli & Entsminger 1997). The C-score measures the average number of  
185 "checkerboard units" (i.e. species pairings that do not occur together in a quadrat)  
186 between all possible pairs of species. In a competitively structured community, the C-

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3 187 score should be significantly larger than expected by chance. 10,000 simulations with  
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5 188 a random seed of 10 were run and compared against the actual field distribution.  
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10 190 The species-level  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values were analysed using one-way and when  
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12 191 appropriate two-way analysis of variance. The difference in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values between male  
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14 192 and female plants was tested using a two-sample t-test. All the analysis was conducted  
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16 193 using Statistica<sup>®</sup> Release 8.0 software.  
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22 195 The correlation between mean water table depth and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  was measured by  
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24 196 the method of phylogenetically independent contrasts, an approach often used for  
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26 197 cross-species comparisons (Felsenstein 1985). Such analysis needs to be conducted to  
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28 198 account for the potential similarity of closely related species (phylogenetic history);  
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30 199 which otherwise prevents individual species from being statistically independent data  
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32 200 points (Felsenstein, 1985). The comparative contrast was implemented using the  
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34 201 CACTUS 1.13 (Comparative Analysis of Continuous Traits Using Statistics; Schwikl  
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36 202 & Ackerly 2001) software.  
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## 42 204 **RESULTS**

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### 44 206 **Species**

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48 208 There was an average of 2.1 Restionaceae species per quadrat at each site. The  
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50 209 botanical survey at Riverlands found 18 Restionaceae species, of which we studied  
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52 210 the ten most prevalent species for logistical reasons. Of these ten species it was only  
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54 211 possible to identify gender in individuals of five species. At New Years Peak a total of  
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3 212 12 species were found, of which we used 11 in our study (Table 1). Gender could be  
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5 213 scored in eight of the species.  
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10 215 <Table 1>  
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15 217 **Community structure**  
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18 218 Statistical analysis of the field distribution of Restionaceae using Robert's C-  
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20 219 score for co-occurrence (Gotelli & Entsminger 1997) revealed significant structuring,  
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22 220 compared to what would be expected by chance (with observed values > simulated  
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25 221 values at  $p < 0.001$ ).  
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29 222 **Water regime**  
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34 224 The water-table depths in individual quadrats, as modelled from biweekly  
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36 225 monitoring, ranged from -0.20 to 0.65 m for New Years Peak site and between 0.30  
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38 226 and 1.46m for Riverlands. The mean spring water-table depths for the quadrats  
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40 227 occupied by the studied Restionaceae species are given in Table 1.  
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45 229  **$\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values**  
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50 231  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values observed ranged from -26.9 ‰ (*Calopsis viminea*) to -28.77 ‰  
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52 232 (*Willdenowia arescens*) in Riverlands and from -25.2 ‰ (*Anthochortus crinalis*) to -  
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54 233 27.2 ‰ (*Elegia coleura*) in New Years Peak. The standard errors within each species  
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56 234 ranged from 0.20 - 0.51 (Riverlands) and 0.22 - 0.62 (New Years Peak). One way  
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3 235 analysis of variance showed there were significant differences in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  signatures  
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6 236 among the species at both sites (Table 2).  
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10 238 **<Table 2>**

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15 240  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values for females were generally more negative, -27.5 ‰ (New Years  
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17 241 Peak) and -28.2 ‰ (Riverlands) than for their male counterparts -26.7 ‰ (New Years  
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19 242 Peak) and -27.9 ‰ (Riverlands). Combined analysis of the difference between males  
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21 243 and females of all species at the two sites, showed this difference was significant (two  
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23 244 sample t-test  $p < 0.001$ )  
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29 246 Two-way analysis of variance, for species whose gender was known, also  
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31 247 showed significant differences between the species (both sites) as well as genders of  
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33 248 the plants (only at New Years Peak). However, there was no significant interaction  
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35 249 between species and gender at any of the sites (Table 3).  
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41 251 **<Table 3 >**

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46 253  **$\delta^{13}\text{C}$  versus water table depth**

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51 255 Taking account of phylogenetic relationships, through PICS analysis, mean  
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53 256 water-table depth was plotted against  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  (Figure 1). The results show that there was  
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55 257 no significant linear correlation between species'  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and their mean water-table  
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57 258 depth along the hydrologic gradient at either site ( $r^2=0.23$   $p=0.34$ , New Years Peak  
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59 259 and  $r^2=0.06$   $p=0.60$ , Riverlands).  
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6 <Figure 1>7  
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10 **DISCUSSION**11  
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15 265 Soil moisture availability is a key environmental variable affecting plant  
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17 266 distribution and coexistence along hydrological gradients (Silvertown 2004;  
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19 267 Engelbrecht *et al.* 2007). In this study, we found that Restionaceae species showed  
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21 268 niche segregation, as quite unrelated species also do for example in wet meadows in  
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23 269 England (Silvertown *et al.*, 1999). Intrinsic water use efficiency is expected to vary  
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25 270 with hydrological conditions and has implications for plant distribution and survival  
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27 271 strategies. For example, where water supply is abundant, plants with a non-  
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29 272 conservative water-use strategy seem to be the most successful (Chen *et al.* 2007). In  
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31 273 the past,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  has been used as a surrogate for WUE and so we tested whether there  
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33 274 was a correlation between  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and hydrological conditions measured in the field.  
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41 276 The Restionaceae  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values observed in these sites, shown in Table 1 (from  
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43 277 -25.2 ‰ to -28.8 ‰) are well within the range of what would be expected of C<sub>3</sub> plants  
44  
45 278 (Griffiths *et al.* 2000; Linder 2005). The larger values of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  at New Years Peak than  
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47 279 at Riverlands (Table 1) could be attributed to differences in altitude, precipitation or  
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49 280 temperature (Panek & Waring 1995; Van de Water 2002; Zheng & Shangguan 2007),  
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51 281 since New Years Peak is 965 m higher than Riverlands and has rainfall of 1500 mm  
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53 282 per year, four times that of Riverlands.  
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3 284 The more negative  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  signature that we found in female plants is in  
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5 285 agreement with previous findings in other species (Dawson & Ehleringer 1993;  
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8 286 Dudley 2006). The gender difference is usually interpreted as evidence of water use  
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10 287 efficiency, which is improved through reduction of both water loss and carbon gain  
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12 288 (Dawson and Geber 1999). In this context, females of dioecious species often show  
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15 289 higher reproductive effort than males because females allocate more biomass to  
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17 290 reproduction in the form of flowers and fruits (Correia & Diaz Barradas 2000) thereby  
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19 291 reducing their WUE.  
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24 293 Stomatal limitation of photosynthesis mediated by water stress is currently  
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26 294 accepted as one of the main limitations to plant productivity in dry-land ecosystems  
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28 295 (Diaz-Espejo *et al.* 2007). The close relationship between WUE and transpiration  
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30 296 efficiency, is also known to be reflected in carbon isotope discrimination (Farquhar *et*  
31  
32 297 *al.* 1982). Thus, the significant differences in the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values observed (Tables 2 and  
33  
34 298 3) amongst species within a single family and having similar life form, suggests that  
35  
36 299 they have different stomatal behaviour. Physiologically, this is a strong suggestion of  
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38 300 environmental control (in this case by water) on plants' response (stomatal behaviour  
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40 301 and hence carbon isotope discrimination). Ecologically, the implication goes even  
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42 302 further: it could be regulating species distribution pattern by modifying their  
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44 303 competitive interaction. For example, Mole *et al.* (1994) found that prairie grass  
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46 304 *Agropyron smithii*, which has a more negative mean  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ , showed further range  
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48 305 expansion than other coexisting species following drought. Even the level of diversity  
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50 306 in leaf gas-exchange regulation has been associated with high species diversity in  
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52 307 tropical rainforest (Bonal & Guehl 2001).  
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3 309  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values and water-table depth  
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8 311 Previous studies in the investigation of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and water availability, have been  
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10 312 conducted either at coarse continental, altitudinal or large landscape vegetation units  
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12 313 (e.g. Stewart *et al.* 1995; Kloeppel *et al.* 1998; Van de Water *et al.* 2002; Wang *et al.*  
13  
14 314 2005; Chen *et al.* 2007) or only between genotypes of a species level (e.g. Yoneyama  
15  
16 315 & Ohtani 1983; Farquhar & Richards 1984; Martin & Thorstenson 1988). Only very  
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18 316 few have looked at subtle topo-edaphic gradients within a landscape scale (Peñuelas  
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20 317 *et al.* 1999; Bai *et al.* 2008). Furthermore, the most prevalent generalization from the  
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22 318 above studies has been for plant  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values to be positively correlated with water  
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24 319 availability, which was often expressed as precipitation. In these studies, more  
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26 320 negative values of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  have been interpreted as indicators of greater enzymatic  
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28 321 discrimination, implying higher stomatal conductance and hence lower water use  
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30 322 efficiency (e.g. Farquhar & Richards 1984).  
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39 324 In woody fynbos plants, species in the same genera show similar drought  
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41 325 vulnerability curves, regardless of whether or not they were wetland adapted or  
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43 326 dryland adapted species. This suggests strong phylogenetic constraint on xylem  
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45 327 function (Aston 2007). In this study even though we accounted for phylogeny of our  
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47 328 species, we still found no significant correlation between the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and the subtle  
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49 329 hydrologic gradient, even as the species segregated along the gradient (Figure 1).  
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55 331 Although this comes as a surprise, it reinforces recent views by Seibt *et al.*  
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57 332 (2008), on the insufficiency of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values alone as reliable surrogates to WUE to  
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59 333 explain plant response distributions in relation to water regime, particularly in natural  
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3 334 field populations. This is because a number of other environmental interactions could  
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5 335 influence  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  (Vitousek *et al.* 1990; Griffiths *et al.* 2000). For example, Bai *et al.*  
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7  
8 336 (2008) found the relationship between  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and water regime was the opposite of  
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10 337 what would be expected and they suggested that another environmental factor i.e.  
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12 338 nitrogen availability could be a mediating factor between water availability and plant  
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15 339  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  response. In our case, we have accounted for the factors: species, gender,  
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17 340 phylogeny, and water regime, but not the seasonality component i.e. phenology of the  
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19 341 species. It is known that plant carbon isotope discrimination varies with the plant's  
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21 342 stage of development and season (e.g. Mole *et al.* 1994; Zhao *et al.* 2004; Chen &  
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23 343 Chen 2007). Smedley *et al.* (1991) showed there is a general trend for a decrease of  
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25 344 carbon isotope discrimination as the growing season progresses i.e. a response to  
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27 345 increase in evaporative demand and decrease in soil moisture. Hence early flowering  
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29 346 species discriminate more than later flowering ones, because such species are active  
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31 347 during the initial, less water-stressed months of the growing season and tend to use  
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33 348 water less efficiently. As such phenology is a possible explanation for the differences  
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35 349 we saw in our species, particularly as Restionaceae flower year-round, with different  
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37 350 species flowering in different months (Linder 2002).  
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353

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3 547 **Table 1.** Species studied at each site, % presence, height,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and mean water table  
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10 550 **Table 2.** Analysis of variance results for  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  among species of Restionaceae at New  
11 Years Peak and Riverlands  
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17 553 **Table 3.** Two-way analysis of variance of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  for Restionaceae by species and  
18 gender at New Years Peak and Riverlands  
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24 556 **Figure 1.** Phylogenetically independent contrasts of mean water table depth and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$   
25 for species sampled at New Years Peak and Riverlands.  
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**Table 1.** Species studied at each site, % presence, height,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and mean water table depth

Site	Species	% Presence	Average height (m)	Mean $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰)	Mean Water table (m)
Riverlands	<i>Calopsis viminea</i>	10.2	0.48	-26.9	0.54
	<sup>+</sup> <i>Cannomois acuminata</i> <sup>‡</sup>	12.1	0.78	-27.5	0.86
	<i>Chondropetalum nudum</i>	21.0	0.74	-28.7	0.63
	<i>Elegia filacea</i>	28.2	0.68	-28.0	0.43
	<i>Hypodiscus willdenowia</i> <sup>‡</sup>	13.1	0.45	-27.8	0.57
	<i>Ischyrolepis capense</i>	10.5	0.50	-28.2	0.58
	<sup>+</sup> <i>Ischyrolepis monanthos</i>	12.5	0.60	-27.5	0.83
	<sup>+</sup> <i>Staberoha distachyos</i>	24.9	0.65	-28.5	0.68
	<sup>+</sup> <i>Thamnochortus punctatus</i>	38.4	0.91	-28.2	0.83
<sup>+</sup> <i>Willdenowia arescens</i>	17.0	0.68	-28.8	0.78	
New Years Peak	<i>Anthochortus crinalis</i>	35.7	0.33	-25.2	0.07
	<sup>+</sup> <i>Elegia coleura</i>	13.2	0.48	-27.2	0.15
	<i>Elegia filacea</i>	23.8	0.27	-26.3	0.36
	<i>Elegia neesii</i>	50.6	0.49	-26.5	0.25
	<sup>+</sup> <i>Ischyrolepis curviramis</i> <sup>§</sup>	26.8	0.20	-26.8	0.34
	<sup>+</sup> <i>Restio pedicellatus</i>	10.6	0.44	-27.1	0.33
	<sup>+</sup> <i>Restio bolusii</i>	23.8	0.31	-25.9	0.30
	<sup>+</sup> <i>Hypodiscus arescens</i>	<10.0	0.51	-28.1	na
	<sup>+</sup> <i>Restio obscurus</i>	<10.0	0.55	-27.5	na
<sup>+</sup> <i>Staberoha cernua</i>	<10.0	0.24	-26.3	na	
<sup>+</sup> <i>Ceratocarium fimbriatum</i> <sup>§</sup>	<10.0	0.69	-27.7	na	

<sup>+</sup> species in which males and females were distinguished; <sup>‡</sup> species missing from phylogeny <sup>§</sup> there were only 5 replicates for the species (10 for the other species); <sup>na</sup> no sufficient hydrologic data available due to <10 % presence.

**Table 2.** Analysis of variance results for  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  among species of Restionaceae at New Years Peak and Riverlands

Site	Source	df	MS	F	p
New Years Peak	Species	10	6.80	5.71	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
	Error	89	1.19		
Riverlands	Species	9	3.54	3.58	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
	Error	90	0.99		

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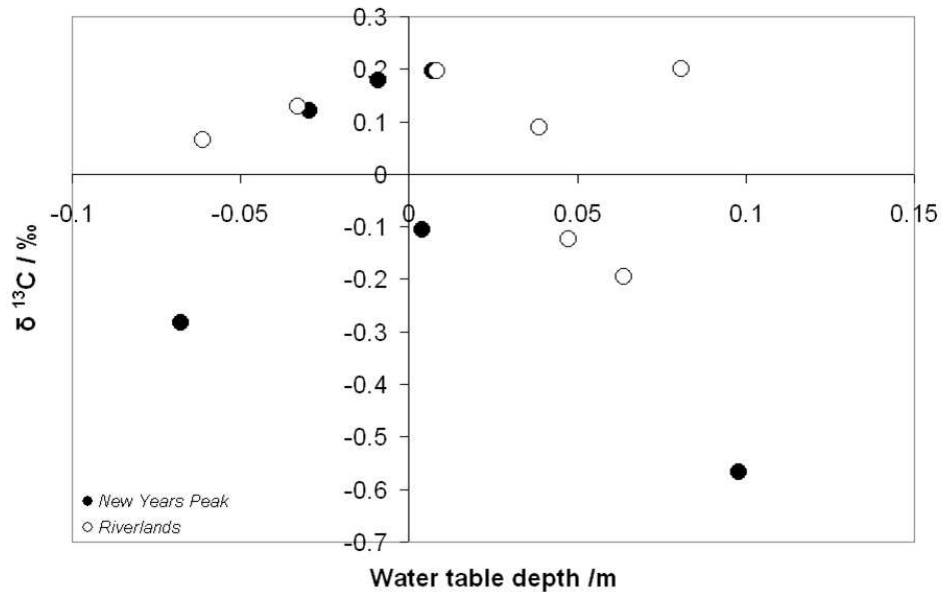
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**Table 3.** Two-way analysis of variance of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  for Restionaceae by species and gender at New Years Peak and Riverlands

Site	Source	df	MS	F	p
New Years Peak	Species	7	3.94	4.13	<b>&lt;0.002</b>
	Gender	1	4.52	4.73	<b>0.04</b>
	Species x Gender	7	0.98	1.03	0.43
	Error	37	0.96		
Riverlands	Species	4	3.40	2.98	<b>0.03</b>
	Gender	1	1.42	1.24	0.27
	Species x Gender	4	2.78	2.43	0.06
	Error	40	1.14		

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Phylogenetically independent contrasts of mean water table depth and δ<sup>13</sup>C for species sampled at New Years Peak and Riverlands.  
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