

1 A panel of bioluminescent whole-cell bacterial biosensors for the screening for new antibacterial
2 substances from natural extracts

3 Emmi Poikulainen^{1*}, Jenni Tienaho^{1,2}, Tytti Sarjala², Ville Santala¹

4 ¹ Faculty of Engineering and Natural Sciences, Tampere University (Hervanta campus), Korkeakoulunkatu 8,
5 33720 Tampere, Finland ²Natural Resources Institute Finland, Kaironiementie 15, 39700 Parkano,

6 *Corresponding author e-mail: emmi.poikulainen@tuni.fi

7 Abstract

8 Whole-cell bacterial biosensors can be applied for the screening of antibacterial properties of extracts. We
9 constructed a biosensor panel consisting of four different bacterial biosensor strains: *Escherichia*,
10 *Staphylococcus*, *Acinetobacter* and *Pseudomonas* for expanded screening potential. The functionality of the
11 panel was first evaluated with known antibacterial compounds: ethanol, naphthoquinones (juglone, lawsone,
12 plumbagin) and a flavonoid (quercetin). Natural extracts comprise a vast source of potential new
13 antibacterials for diverse functional purposes. To demonstrate the utilization of the panel for screening of a
14 demanding sample material, round-leaved sundew (*Drosera rotundifolia*) extracts were used as an example.
15 Differences between field- and laboratory originating sundew extracts could be detected. This demonstrates
16 the efficiency of the developed biosensor panel in the rapid screening of the antibacterial properties of plant
17 extracts.

18 Keywords: antibacterial, bioluminescence, biosensor cells, high-throughput screening, natural extracts,
19 *Drosera rotundifolia*

20 1. Introduction

21 New antibacterial agents from sustainable and renewable natural sources are globally needed for variable
22 purposes like preservatives in cosmetics, technochemicals, food or feed to replace synthetic preservatives.
23 Furthermore, multi-drug resistant bacteria such as *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Escherichia coli*, *Pseudomonas*
24 *aeruginosa* and *Acinetobacter baumannii* are becoming more serious global problem (Nair et al. 2016; De
25 Bonis et al. 2016; Dhawan et al. 2017; Tenaillon et al. 2010), which emphasizes the need to find novel sources
26 for potential pharmaceutical purposes. To combat these challenges, efficient methods are needed to screen
27 nature-based sources for new antibacterial extracts and compounds.

28 Bacterial whole-cell biosensors can be used for screening antimicrobial effects. The bacterial biosensors can
29 be constructed by genetic engineering to enhance the usability, for example by adding DNA elements to help
30 recognize antibacterial activities. (Galluzzi & Karp 2006). One example of the DNA elements is a bacterial
31 luciferase (*luxABCDE*) operon. However, using a single bacterial biosensor strain may give limited information
32 about the antibacterial efficiency, as the activity might differ between bacterial species. Therefore, a
33 biosensor panel consisting of multiple different bacterial biosensor strains can expand the screening
34 potential.

35 Under normal conditions, the biosensor cells express *luxABCDE* and produce bioluminescence in a luciferase
36 catalyzed reaction (Vesterlund et al. 2004). Bioluminescence is a useful detection method for the assays, as
37 the light production is specific and detectable using very sensitive equipment. To estimate the sample

38 toxicity, the degree of inhibition of a ‘normally on’ activity is measured in “lights-off” biosensor assays (Belkin
39 2003). When the biosensor cells are cultivated with a cytotoxic compound, the gene transcription and protein
40 translation become less active than without the cytotoxic compounds. As the toxicity increases, the inhibition
41 escalates as well, lowering the intensity of the bioluminescent signal (Cui et al. 2018).

42 Natural extracts are a vast source of potential new antibacterials. A natural extract can comprise of up to 15
43 000 diverse metabolites, including both primary and secondary metabolites (Wolfender et al. 2015). Because
44 of the complexity of natural extracts, testing the antimicrobial potential with just one bacterial species
45 reveals only limited information about the full potential. Some previous studies have been made to
46 determine antimicrobial effects of plant extracts on a panel of different bacteria (Rauha et al. 2000; Bacha et
47 al. 2016). However, the methods used in these studies include disc diffusion and broth dilution assays, which
48 are more labor- and time-intensive than using whole-cell bacterial biosensors.

49 Here, we developed a panel of bioluminescent “lights-off” bacteria and demonstrated its functionality with
50 demanding sample matrices, sundew (*Drosera rotundifolia*) extracts. The panel contained four non-
51 pathogenic bacterial strains: Gram negative species *E. coli*, *Acinetobacter baylyi*, *Pseudomonas putida* and
52 Gram positive *S. aureus*.

53 2. Materials and methods

54 2.1. Chemicals

55 Labema, Finland supplied tryptone and yeast extract. NaCl, KH₂PO₄ were from Merck, USA. Kanamycin was
56 purchased from Janssen, USA; erythromycin from TCI, Japan. K₂HPO₄ was from VWR International, USA.
57 Glycerol, ampicillin sodium salt, juglone, lawsone, plumbagin, quercetin and Murashige-Skoog basal medium
58 were purchased from Sigma Aldrich, USA.

59 2.2. Bacterial strains

60 **Table 1.** Bacterial strains used in this study.

Strain	Plasmid*	Reference**
<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i> RN4220	pAT19	Vesterlund et al. 2004
<i>Escherichia coli</i> K12	pCGLS11	Vesterlund et al. 2004
<i>Acinetobacter baylyi</i> ADP1	pBAV1K-T5-LUX	Santala et al. 2016
<i>Pseudomonas putida</i>	pBAV1K-T5-LUX	This study

61 *) the plasmid carrying a bacterial luciferase operon

62 **) reference for the construction of biosensor strain

63 2.3. Cultivation

64 The bacterial strains (Table 1) were cultivated on lysogeny agar (LA) plates containing tryptone 10 g/L; yeast
65 extract 5 g/L; NaCl 10 g/L, 100 mM PB (phosphate buffer; pH 7.0; total K₂HPO₄ 9.3 g/L; KH₂PO₄ 6.3 g/L) and
66 agar 15 g/L. *A. baylyi* and *P. putida* strain were grown on media supplemented with 50 µg/mL kanamycin, *E.*
67 *coli* on ampicillin (100 µg/mL) and *S. aureus* on erythromycin (5 µg/mL) to maintain plasmids. *A. baylyi*, *P.*
68 *putida* and *E. coli* were cultivated in 30 °C and *S. aureus* in 37 °C.

69 New cultivation plates were prepared weekly and liquid cultivations daily. For liquid cultivations, similar
70 lysogeny broth (LB) media was used, but without agar and without PB for *P. putida*. A single colony was
71 inoculated into each of the sterile tubes containing the described media. The liquid cultivations were
72 incubated overnight in 30 °C and 300 rpm shaking.

73 2.4. Construction of *P. putida* biosensor strain

74 The plasmid pBAV1k-T5-LUX was a kind gift from Ichiro Matsumura (Addgene plasmid # 55800, Bryksin &
75 Matsumura 2010).

76 *P. putida* (DSM 291) was cultivated on LA plates (16 h, 30 °C) and in LB medium for overnight culture (30 °C,
77 300 rpm). The previously described transformation protocol (Meinhardt 2002) was used with modifications.
78 In brief, LB was used for cultivation. The cells (optical disturbance at 600 nm [OD] 0.7) were harvested by
79 centrifugation (11200 x g, 2 min) and washed three times with ice cold glycerol (10 %). The *P. putida* cells
80 were electroporated with BIO-RAD Micropulser™ (Bio-Rad Laboratories Inc., USA). Prewarmed LB was added
81 after the electroporation, the cells were revived for 90 min in 30 °C and plated for cultivation on selective LA
82 plates.

83 2.5. Sundew propagation and extraction

84 Field-grown sundews were collected from two peatlands (Peatland 1; Lehtolamminneva N 62°6.01' E
85 22°57.22', and Peatland 2; Kivineva N 61°57.77' E 23°23.98') in Western Finland. The vegetatively reproduced
86 sundew tissue was initiated from a small sundew seedling which was multiplied on half-strength Murashige-
87 Skoog nutrient agar medium (Murashige & Skoog 1962). It was stored in freezer until extraction. Sundew
88 plants and tissues were extracted with 100 % ethanol (EtOH; 0.15 g fresh weight plant tissue/mL EtOH) after
89 grounding in a mortar.

90 The extracts were air- and N₂ dried. The extracts were left to evaporate in open vials in a fume hood in room
91 temperature for 6 days. To speed the drying process, N₂ gas was led into the vials using a separate outlet for
92 each vial for 4—6 hours, until all EtOH was removed. The dried extracts were stored in -20 °C and dissolved
93 into sterile double distilled water (DDW). The sample dilutions were stored in -20 °C between the test runs
94 and new dilutions prepared weekly.

95 2.6. Test assay runs

96 For the validation of the developed biosensor cell panel, the effects of EtOH, naphthoquinones and quercetin
97 were tested. Concentrations of 0.33, 1.7, and 17 v/v-% (volume percentage) per well were used, prepared by
98 diluting EtOH in DDW. DDW was used as a blank control sample. For juglone, the tested concentrations per
99 well were 3.1, 6.3, 13, 25 µg/mL; for lawsone 43, 85, 170, 340 µg/mL; for plumbagin 0.13, 0.26, 0.52, 1.0
100 µg/mL; and for quercetin 5.0, 10, 20, 100 µg/mL. Fresh dilutions of naphthoquinones and quercetin were
101 prepared weekly. The sundew extracts were tested in concentrations with 0.2, 0.4, and 0.8 mg/mL of plant
102 material dry weight per well.

103 An aliquot of 50 µL of the samples were pipetted in triplicate into the wells of a 96-well, opaque white plate
104 (Corning, USA). Liquid cultivation (OD 1.3—2.0 depending on the species), diluted 1:1 in fresh LB (100 µL) was
105 added to the wells. The bioluminescence measurement was started immediately. A new measurement was
106 done every 5 min until 90 minutes of incubation time had passed with Fluoroskan Ascent FL (Thermo
107 Scientific, USA) microplate reader (room temperature).

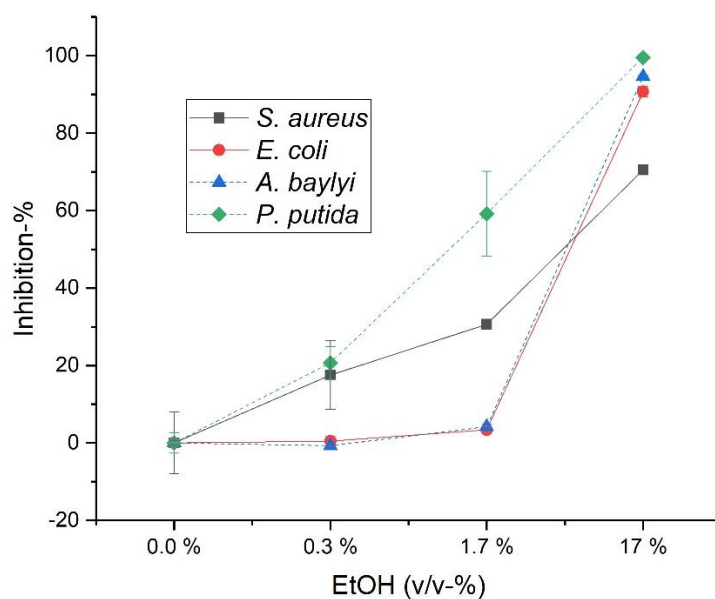
108 The results are represented in Figures 1—3 as inhibition-% (inhibition percentages). They were calculated as
109 the percentage change of the sample wells' average from the average of blank wells after an incubation time,
110 here 50 min. Negative change indicates an increase of signal in sample wells compared to the blank wells,
111 whereas positive inhibition-% indicates a decrease in signal. The error bars in Figures 1—3 represent the CV-
112 % (coefficient of variation) of the sample wells. The SNR (signal-to-noise-ratios) were calculated by dividing
113 the highest signal of microplate at 50-minute measurement by previously determined average signal of two
114 medium-only samples (data not shown).

115 3. Results and discussion

116 3.1. Initial validation of panel

117 First, it was confirmed that all strains produce a measurable light signal. The SNRs in increasing order were
118 *S. aureus* (8.78), *P. putida* (99.9), *A. baylyi* (1685) and *E. coli* (5 996), indicating the order of their ranges as
119 well. Although the pAT19 plasmid carrying bacterial luciferase operon is optimized for *S. aureus* (Vesterlund
120 et al. 2004), the other strains produced clearly higher SNRs in the studied conditions.

121 Then, the functionality of the biosensor strains was tested with EtOH. Based on the time resolved data
122 (Supplementary Figures 1-4), the time point of 50 min incubation was chosen to ensure adequate reaction
123 time for the different species. As expected, the inhibition response was dose-dependent, as increasing ethanol
124 concentrations caused increasing inhibition (Figure 1, showing results after 50 min of incubation).



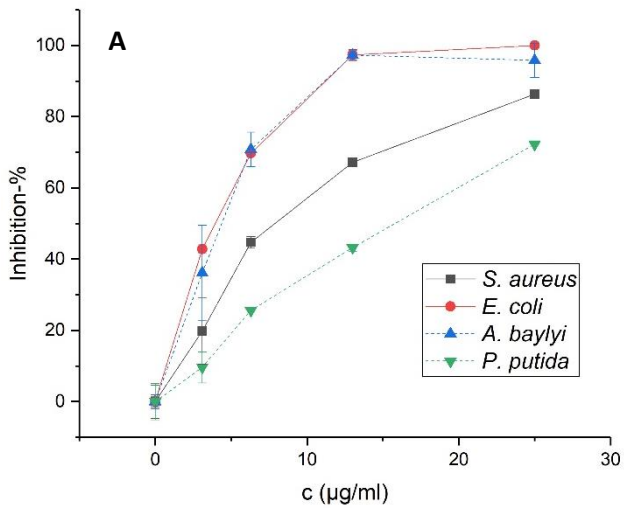
125

126 **Figure 1.** Inhibition percentages (-%) for biosensor panel strains incubated with EtOH after 50 min of
 127 incubation. Error bars represent CV-%, v/v-% is percentage by volume.

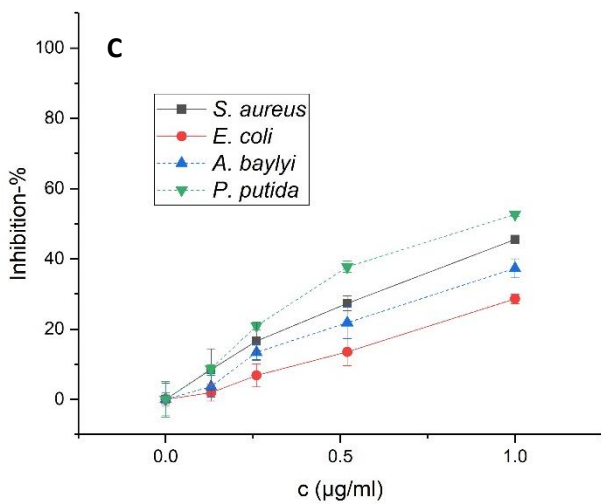
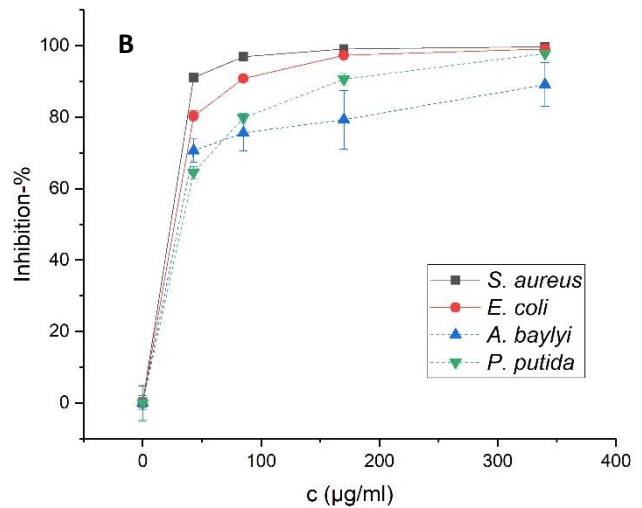
128 The inhibition-% of *E. coli* and *A. baylyi* biosensors caused by 0.3 % and 1.7 % EtOH were 0.5, 3.4, -0.7 and 4.2
 129 % respectively. For example, *A. baylyi* can utilize EtOH as a carbon source and 0.38 % concentration has been
 130 used for cultivations (Salcedo-Vite et al. 2019). However, *S. aureus* and *P. putida* were more sensitive towards
 131 ethanol: both sensors showed approximately 30 inhibition-% after 50 min of incubation with 0.3 %.

132 3.2. Testing the panel with pure plant metabolites

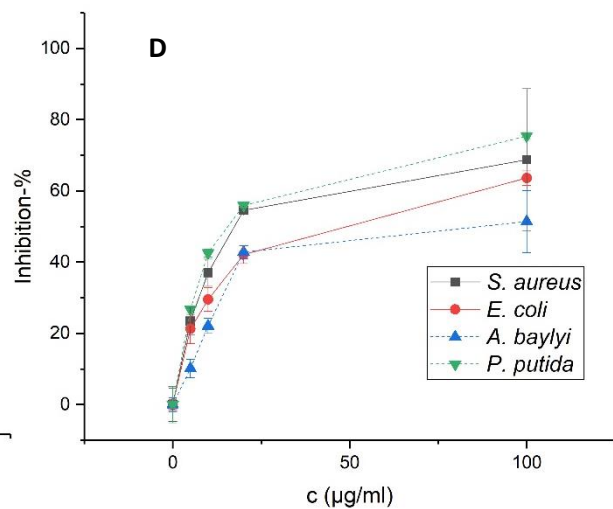
133 The panel was used to measure inhibition caused by plant metabolites, which have previously demonstrated
 134 antibacterial effects. The metabolites included both naphthoquinones and quercetin (Paper et al. 2005;
 135 Jaisinghani 2017), a flavonoid. The tested naphthoquinones were juglone, lawsone and plumbagin
 136 (Mahapatra et al. 2007; Wang et al. 2016; Rahmoun et al. 2012; Paiva et al. 2003). Previously reported
 137 minimal inhibitory concentrations (MICs) of the metabolites are found in Supplementary Table 1.



138



139



140 **Figure 2.** Inhibition percentages (-%) caused by naphthoquinones and quercetin after 50 min of
 141 incubation. A) Juglone. B) Lawsone. C) Plumbagin. D) Quercetin. Error bars represent CV-%.

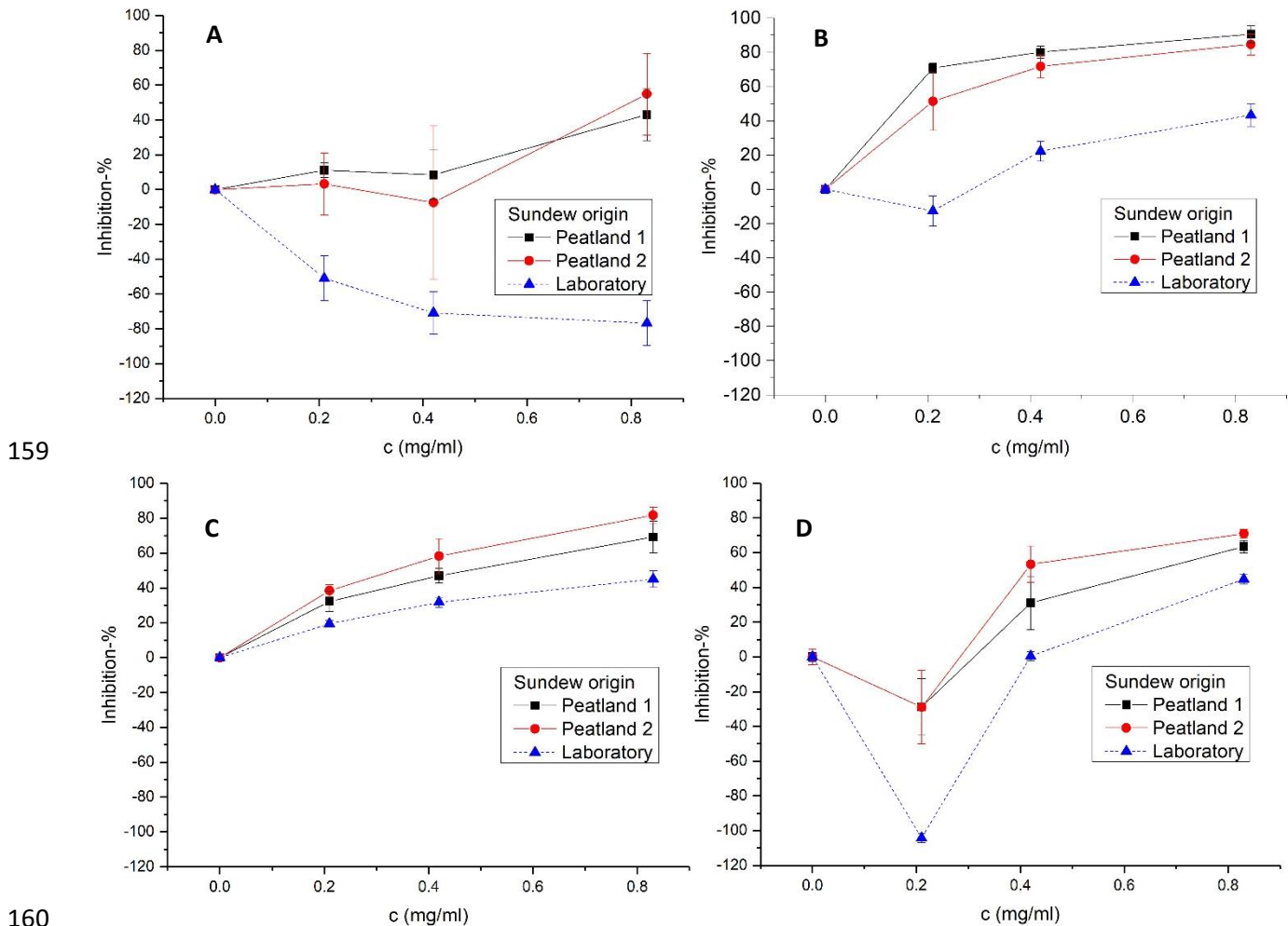
142 Our biosensor panel gave a comparable result with the reported MIC value for juglone (Figure 2A), where 25
 143 µg/mL inhibited *S. aureus* by 86 %. However, differences are seen in lawsone (Figure 2B) tests, for example
 144 *E. coli* sensor was inhibited 91 % by only 170 µg/ml of lawsone, suggesting that less than 512 µg/ml is needed
 145 to fully inhibit the cellular processes of *E. coli*. On the other hand, 1.0 µg/ml of plumbagin (Figure 2C) and 20
 146 µg/ml of quercetin (Figure 2D), comparable concentrations to the previously reported MICs, only inhibited *S.*
 147 *aureus* in our panel by approximately 50 %. However, it should be noted that MIC tests measure the lowest
 148 concentration that inhibits bacterial growth (Wiegand et al. 2008), while the developed panel measures the
 149 toxicity effects towards the bioluminescence production.

150 Each of the bacterial strains in the panel showed a unique response to the pure plant metabolites. This could
 151 be caused by various factors, such as the cell wall differences, which affect for example the transfer of
 152 substances into the cells. A G+ (Gram positive) species, *S. aureus*, has two cell wall layers, as opposed to one

153 layer of G- (Gram negative) bacteria (Vollmer & Seligman 2010). Thus, the biosensor panel helps in the
154 assessment and differentiation of the substances' effects on the bacteria.

155 3.3. Demonstrating the panel's functionality with sundew extracts

156 As a proof of concept, antibacterial effects of sundew (*Drosera rotundifolia*) extract, which is known to
157 contain antibacterial flavonoids such as quercetin (Paper et al. 2005), were tested by the biosensor panel.
158 The biosensor strains reacted differently to the sundew extracts (Figure 3).



159

160

161 **Figure 3.** Inhibition percentages (-%) caused by *Drosera rotundifolia* extracts for biosensor panel
162 strains after 50 minutes of incubation. Error bars represent CV-%. A) *S. aureus*. B) *E. coli*. C) *A. baylyi*.
163 D) *P. putida*.

164 No significant differences ($P > 0.1$, Student's unpaired t test for mean of all concentrations) could be detected
165 with *P. putida* biosensor between the sundew extracts from the two peatlands (Figure 3D). The extract from
166 vegetatively propagated sundew tissue showed lower inhibition-% than Peatland 1 ($P < 0.05$ for all
167 concentrations) and Peatland 2 ($P < 0.01$ for all concentrations). The effects of peatland sundew extracts
168 were dose dependent in the whole panel, except of the effect on *S. aureus* (Figure 3A) at 0.42 mg/mL. The
169 most sensitive species to field-grown sundew extracts was *E. coli* (Figure 3B) as even 0.21 mg/mL inhibited

170 the growth approximately by 80 %. *P. putida* was not inhibited but stimulated by 0.21 mg/mL and was also
171 overall the most tolerant of the G- bacteria.

172 The extracts of laboratory grown sundew caused a different response compared to the field-originating
173 extracts. *A. baylyi* (Figure 3C) showed dose dependent inhibition to the laboratory sundew extracts, but 0.83
174 mg/mL caused approximately as much inhibition as 0.21 mg/mL of the peatland sundew extract (40 %). *S.*
175 *aureus* was stimulated to produce light by all tested concentrations. *P. putida* and *E. coli* were stimulated by
176 0.21 mg/mL. The luminescent light signal of those *P. putida* wells was over 2-fold compared to that of the
177 blank sample (0.0 mg/mL). With extract sample dilution, the inhibitory compounds are also diluted, which
178 gives the bacteria a chance to benefit from the sugars and other nutrients potentially present in the extracts.
179 Sequentially, this can cause higher light signal than in the control wells with no extract.

180 4. Conclusion

181 Our study demonstrates that a panel of bioluminescent bacterial whole-cell biosensors can be used to find
182 species specific antibacterial responses to plant extracts, which are not revealed when using only one species
183 for screening. Differences between *S. aureus* and the G- strains were detected both in the performance and
184 the response to sundew extracts. Although both *A. baylyi* and *P. putida* are soil bacteria, *P. putida* was more
185 tolerant to the sundew extracts and juglone. This highlights the benefits of a panel of bacterial biosensor
186 strains for the screening of antimicrobial substances. The panel proposed here suggests a combination of
187 bacteria, which are suitable for high-throughput screening of plant extracts using 96-well plate format, with
188 a rapid test protocol of under 2 hours. If a need arises to study other pathogens, they could easily be applied
189 to the panel by introducing the bioluminescence operon. The panel presents an efficient, new method for
190 future studies to screen potential antibacterial substances and plant extracts.

191 Acknowledgements

192 The authors thank docent Niko Silvan for collecting the peatland originating sundew samples. Furthermore,
193 we thank Anneli Käenmäki and Eeva Pihlajaviita for their technical assistance in *in vitro* propagation of round-
194 leaved sundew and the extractions. This work was supported by Maa- ja vesitekniiikan tuki ry [grant number
195 39372] and Suovijelysyhdistys ry, Finland.

196 References

197 Bacha, K., Tariku, Y., Gebreyesus, F., Zerihun, S., Mohammed, A., Weiland-Bräuer, N., Schmitz, R.A. & Mulat,
198 M. (2016). Antimicrobial and anti-Quorum Sensing activities of selected medicinal plants of Ethiopia:
199 Implication for development of potent antimicrobial agents, BMC microbiology, Vol. 16(1), pp. 139.

200 Belkin, S. (2003). Microbial whole-cell sensing systems of environmental pollutants. *Current opinion in*
201 *microbiology*, 6(3), 206-212.

202 Bryksin, A.V. & Matsumura, I. (2010). Rational Design of a Plasmid Origin That Replicates Efficiently in Both
203 Gram-Positive and Gram-Negative Bacteria, *PLoS One*, Vol. 5(10), pp. e13244.

204 Cui, Z., Luan, X., Jiang, H., Li, Q., Xu, G., Sun, C., Zheng, L., Song, Y., Davison, P.A. & Huang, W.E. (2018).
205 Application of a bacterial whole cell biosensor for the rapid detection of cytotoxicity in heavy metal
206 contaminated seawater, *Chemosphere*, Vol. 200 pp. 322-329.

207 De Bonis, P., Lofrese, G., Scoppettuolo, G., Spanu, T., Cultrera, R., Labonia, M., ... & Pompucci, A. (2016).
208 Intraventricular versus intravenous colistin for the treatment of extensively drug resistant *Acinetobacter*
209 *baumannii* meningitis. *European journal of neurology*, 23(1), 68-75.

210 Dhawan, S. R., Vaidya, P. C., John, J. J., Saikia, B., Samujh, R., Saxena, A., & Singhi, P. D. (2017). Necrotizing
211 Fasciitis of Scalp and Neck in Neonates. *APSP journal of case reports*, 8(3), 23.

212 Galluzzi, L. & Karp, M. (2006). Whole cell strategies based on lux genes for high throughput applications
213 toward new antimicrobials, *Combinatorial chemistry & high throughput screening*, Vol. 9(7), pp. 501-514.

214 Jaisinghani, R.N. (2017). Antibacterial properties of quercetin, *Microbiology Research*, Vol. 8(1),

215 Mahapatra, A., Mativandlela, S. P., Binneman, B., Fourie, P. B., Hamilton, C. J., Meyer, J. J. M., ... & Lall, N.
216 (2007). Activity of 7-methyljuglone derivatives against *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* and as subversive
217 substrates for mycothiol disulfide reductase. *Bioorganic & medicinal chemistry*, 15(24), 7638-7646.

218 Meinhardt, F. (2002). *Pseudomonas putida* Transformation Protocol, Protocol No. 4308 915.529,
219 Multiporator/Eppendorf Eporator.

220 Murashige, T. & Skoog, F. (1962). A revised medium for rapid growth and bio assays with tobacco tissue
221 cultures, *Physiologia Plantarum*, Vol. 15(3), pp. 473-497.

222 Nair, S. V., Baranwal, G., Chatterjee, M., Sachu, A., Vasudevan, A. K., Bose, C., ... & Biswas, R. (2016).
223 Antimicrobial activity of plumbagin, a naturally occurring naphthoquinone from *Plumbago rosea*, against
224 *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Candida albicans*. *International Journal of Medical Microbiology*, 306(4), 237-
225 248.

226 Paiva, S.R.d., Figueiredo, M.R., Aragão, T.V. & Kaplan, M.A.C. (2003). Antimicrobial activity *in vitro* of
227 plumbagin isolated from *Plumbago* species, *Memorias do Instituto Oswaldo Cruz*, Vol. 98(7), pp. 959-961.

228 Paper, D.H., Karall, E., Kremser, M. & Krenn, L. (2005). Comparison of the antiinflammatory effects of
229 *Drosera rotundifolia* and *Drosera madagascariensis* in the HET-CAM assay, *Phytotherapy Research: An*

230 International Journal Devoted to Pharmacological and Toxicological Evaluation of Natural Product
231 Derivatives, Vol. 19(4), pp. 323-326.

232 Rahmoun, N.M., Boucherit-Otmani, Z., Boucherit, K., Benabdallah, M., Villemin, D. & Choukchou-Braham,
233 N. (2012). Antibacterial and antifungal activity of lawsone and novel naphthoquinone derivatives, *Medecine
234 et Maladies Infectieuses*, Vol. 42(6), pp. 270-275.

235 Rauha, J., Remes, S., Heinonen, M., Hopia, A., Kähkönen, M., Kujala, T., Pihlaja, K., Vuorela, H. & Vuorela, P.
236 (2000). Antimicrobial effects of Finnish plant extracts containing flavonoids and other phenolic compounds,
237 *International Journal of Food Microbiology*, Vol. 56(1), pp. 3-12.

238 Salcedo-Vite, K., Sigala, J., Segura, D., Gosset, G. & Martinez, A. (2019). *Acinetobacter baylyi* ADP1 growth
239 performance and lipid accumulation on different carbon sources, *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology*,
240 Vol. 103(15), pp. 6217-6229.

241 Santala, V., Karp, M., & Santala, S. (2016). Bioluminescence-based system for rapid detection of natural
242 transformation. *FEMS microbiology letters*, 363(13).

243 Tenaillon, O., Picard, B., Denamur, E. & Skurnik, D. (2010). The population genetics of commensal
244 *Escherichia coli*, *Nature Reviews Microbiology*, Vol. 8(3), pp. 207-217.
245 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/nrmicro2298>.

246 Vesterlund, S., Paltta, J., Lauková, A., Karp, M. & Ouwehand, A.C. (2004). Rapid screening method for the
247 detection of antimicrobial substances, *Journal of Microbiological Methods*, Vol. 57(1), pp. 23-31.

248 Vollmer, W. & Seligman, S.J. (2010). Architecture of peptidoglycan: more data and more models, *Trends in
249 Microbiology*, Vol. 18(2), pp. 59-66.

250 Wang, J., Cheng, Y., Wu, R., Jiang, D., Bai, B., Tan, D., Yan, T., Sun, X., Zhang, Q. & Wu, Z. (2016).
251 Antibacterial activity of juglone against *Staphylococcus aureus*: from apparent to proteomic, *International
252 journal of molecular sciences*, Vol. 17(6), pp. 965.

253 Wiegand, I., Hilpert, K. & Hancock, R.E. (2008). Agar and broth dilution methods to determine the minimal
254 inhibitory concentration (MIC) of antimicrobial substances, *Nature protocols*, Vol. 3(2), pp. 163.

255 Wolfender, J., Marti, G., Thomas, A. & Bertrand, S. (2015). Current approaches and challenges for the
256 metabolite profiling of complex natural extracts, *Journal of Chromatography A*, Vol. 1382 pp. 136-164.