

International Journal of Chemical and Biochemical Sciences (ISSN 2226-9614)

Journal Home page: www.iscientific.org/Journal.html

© International Scientific Organization



Bioactivities of essential oils: a review of biosynthesis, analysis, and

chemistry

Hamad Raza^{*1}, Awais Altaf²

¹Department of Chemistry, University of Agriculture, Faisalabad-38040-Pakistan.

²Institute of Molecular Biology and Biotechnology, The University of Lahore, Lahore, Pakistan.

Abstract

The present article offers a thorough overview of essential oils, including their biosynthesis, analysis, and chemistry. It also rapidly elevates the reader to a proficient level in identifying essential oils and their constituents and imparts knowledge on the biological functions of oils. Vital essential oils are blends of volatile organic compounds that are extracted through distillation from unprocessed plant materials, condensed into an oil with a potent scent, and collected as the upper (rarely lower) layer of separated liquids in a container. in two stages: water and oil. Components of essential oils are typically generated from two biosynthetic groups: phenylpropanoids (an aromatic ring with a propene tail) and terpenes (monoterpenes, sesquiterpenes, and their derivatives). Essential oils can be extracted using a variety of techniques, including solvent extraction, steam distillation, hydrodistillation, and hydrodiffusion. They can also be evaluated using gas chromatography and GC-MS mass spectrometry. People from a variety of disciplines, including aromatherapy, pharmacy, synthetic and analytical chemistry, and hobbyists, congregate in the scientific niche of essential oils. It was required to develop this introduction to the basics of essential oil chemistry in order to make science more approachable for the interested student or researcher. As concerned to the biological activities of the essential oils, these play an important role as Anticancerous, antiviral, anti-Inflammatory, Antinociceptive, penetration enhancement, antioxidant activity, antimicrobial activity, hormonal and endocrine activity, Antiparasitic, allergen, antiulcer, Pesticidal activity and aromatherapy.

Keywords: biological activities, essential oil

Full-length article *Hamad Raza, e-mail: hraza4657@gmail.com

1. Introduction

Aromatic plants release complex, natural, volatile chemicals known as essential oils, which have a unique smell. These substances are created as secondary metabolites. Usually, steam or hydrodistillation-which the Arabs devised in the middleages-is used to manufacture them. They are applied as antibacterial, analgesic, sedative, antiinflammatory, spasmolytic, and local anesthetic therapies in addition to embalming and food preservation. In addition to their medicinal benefits and scent, they are also known for their antiseptic or bactericidal, virucidal, and fungicidal characteristics [1]. These characteristics have essentially not changed throughout time, with the exception that some of its modes of action-primarily at the antimicrobial level-are now better recognized. Plants may synthesize them in all of their parts, including their leaves, stems, flowers, fruits, shoots, seeds, roots, and bark. After that, they are kept in glandular trichomes, secretory cells, epidermal cells, cavities, or canals [2].

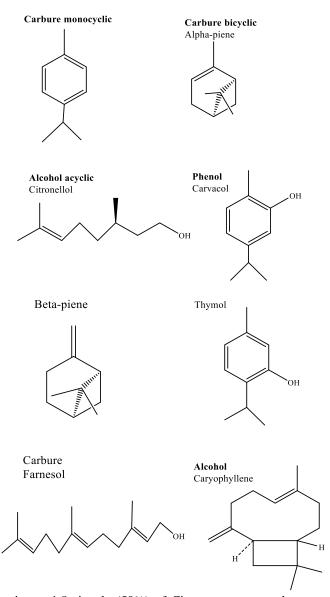
The primary families that generate essential oils are Anneliceae, Apiaceae, Araceae, Asteraceae, Ericaceae, Burseraceae, Cistaceae, Cupressaceae, Geraniaceae, Gramineae. Lamiaceae, Lauraceae, Malvaceae. Myristicaceae, Myrtaceae, Oleaceae, Pinaceae, Piperaceae, Rosaceae, Rutaceae, and Valerianaceae [3]. Environmental factors and systemic factors contribute to the formation of EOs. EOs give plants volatile chemicals that support photosynthesis in the face of oxidative and heat stress. By preventing germination, chemicals included in essential oils operate as allopathic agents, influencing how plants interact with their surroundings. EOs function in plant-animal interactions by discouraging predators [4-6].

Many fragrant plants, mostly found in temperate to warm climates like the Mediterranean and tropical regions, are the source of essential oils. The ancient pharmacopoeias make extensive use of these oils. They are volatile, fatsoluble, transparent, and infrequently colored. Additionally, they dissolve in organic solvents, the densities of which are typically lower than those of water. They can be synthesized by any part of the plant, including the buds, flowers, stems, leaves, branches, fruits, seeds, roots, wood, and bark. Subsequently, they gather in glandular or epidermal cells, cavities, canals, and secretory cells [2].

2. Composition

Essential oils are intricate blends of natural ingredients that come in a variety of strengths, ranging from 20 to 60 components. They have two or three main components in quite high quantities (20–70%) as compared to others. In the case of Origanum compactum, Coriandrum

A.Terpenes -Monoterpenes

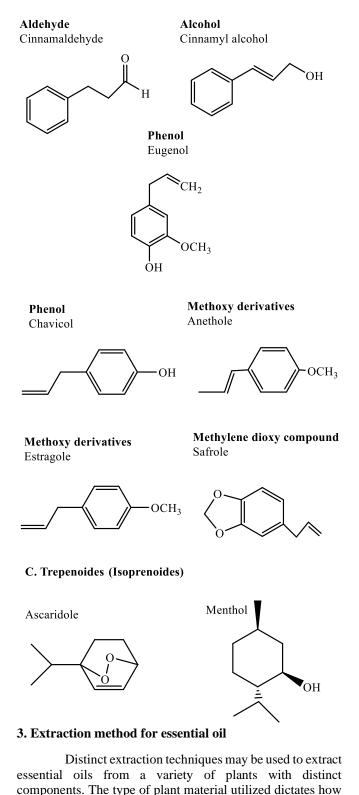


sativum, 1,8-cineole (50%) of Cinnamomum camphora, aphellandrene (36%) and limonene (31%) of leaf and carvone (58%), limonene (37%) from the seed of Anethum graveolens, menthol (59%) and menthone (19%) from the essential oil of Mentha piperita for instance, are the principal components of these plants. These main components usually dictate the biological properties of essential oils [7-8]. There are two main categories of biosynthetic origin among the components. Terpenes and terpenoids make up the primary

Raza, 2024

group, while aromatic and aliphatic elements make up the other group. All of these constituents have low molecular weight [9].

B. Aromatic compound



essential oils are extracted and produced. Additional aspects

considered are the content's format and condition.

3.1. Steam distillation

The most popular technique for obtaining essential oils is steam distillation, which is simply heating raw plant materials and passing them through hot steam to extract the volatile components of the plant material, which evaporates with the heat of the steam and causes the vaporized substances to rise and enter a condensing unit, which is a cooling chamber, where the vapor condenses back to a liquid state as they cool. Ninety-three percent of essential oils are extracted through steam distillation, and the remaining seven percent are extracted through other methods [10]. The watersoluble parts of the plant that include water and essential oils are called hydrosols, or floral water. After condensation, these are combined in a receiver with two distinct outputs. Since oil and water don't mix, essential oil floats on water. Consequently, the upper flow will extract essential oil while the lower flow will extract water [11].

3.2. Hydrodistillation

When it comes to extracting essential oils from plant materials like wood or flowers, HD has become the industry standard. These products are frequently used to separate highboiling-point, non-water-soluble natural substances. As part of the process, the plant materials are submerged entirely in water and then boiled. This process preserves the extracted oils to some degree since the surrounding water serves as an impediment to keep them from burning [12]. Condensing the heated vapor and essential oil vapor together yields an aqueous fraction. This method has the benefit of allowing for the distillation of the necessary substance at a temperature below than 100° C.

3.3. Hydrodiffusion

The only way that Hydrodiffusion extraction differs from steam distillation is in how steam is introduced into the still container. This process is applied when the plant material has dried and is not damaged by boiling temperatures. Steam is administered from the very top of the plant component during hydrodiffusion, while steam is introduced from the bottom during the steam distillation process [13]. The procedure lowers the temperature of the steam to less than 100 °C and can also be run under vacuum or low pressure. Because it requires less steam and produces more oil with a shorter processing time, the hydrodiffusion technique is better than steam distillation

3.4. Solvent extraction

In order to separate the oils, this contemporary technique uses food-grade solvents such ethanol, benzene, dimethyl, or hexane. It is frequently employed to extract essential oils from delicate fragrant plants that are typically unable to tolerate the pressure of steam distillation, such rose or jasmine. Furthermore, compared to most other extraction techniques, solvent extraction typically yields a finer scent, which adds to its allure in some applications. Plant materials are dipped in a solution and allowed to dissolve in order to extract essential oils. Only the vegetable oil is left after the solvent has absorbed the essential oil and the resultant extract has evaporated. The residual oil is referred to as absolute, non-essential oil in technical terms. A highly concentrated aromatic material that closely mimics a plant's inherent scent

Raza, 2024

is called an absolute. Its color is also more vibrant than that of an essential oil [14]. As a result, extracts for cosmetic or scent purposes are frequently made using solvent extraction. This kind of extraction method's primary drawback is the possibility that some solvent residue may remain after it evaporates. As a result, the finished absolute product can include trace levels of harsh chemicals that, when applied, could irritate skin [15].

3.5. CO₂ extraction

Pressurizing the CO2 until it liquefies is the first step in the extraction process. Utilizing liquid CO2 as a solvent allows for the extraction of oils from plants. The extract returns to normal pressure once the CO2 has absorbed the essential oil, which causes the CO2 to transform back into a gas. Consequently, the extracted oil contains no more solvent. Moreover, CO2 has no taste, smell, colour, or toxicity and has no effect on the final oil [16]. However, all of the oil from the plant material—including pesticide residues—is recovered because CO2 extraction is carried out in a fully sealed chamber. As a result, compared to other standard extraction techniques, the final oil may include more pesticides.

3.6 Supercritical fluid extraction

For the purpose of extracting and separating essential oils (EOs) from aromatic plants, supercritical fluid extraction (SFE) has gained widespread usage. This method avoids the use of hazardous organic solvents, offers quick and efficient extraction, and only needs moderate temperatures and cleaning processes. Since carbon dioxide (CO2) is nonexplosive, non-toxic, cheaply obtainable, and easily separated from the extracted products, it is the perfect solvent for extracting and isolating essential oil (EO) from plants[17] . Experimental data on the supercritical CO2 (SC-CO2) extraction of essential oil (EO) from Algerian rosemary leaves was presented by Zermane, Meniai, and Barth. Per gramme of dried rosemary, they were able to extract 0.95 to 3.52 g of essential oil. Moreover, analyses using gas chromatography (GC) and gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS) showed that the primary component in the EO was camphor (at 48.89 weight percent). [18].

4. Analysis of the essential oils

Historically, the primary technical goal of essential oil analysis has been to maximize separation performance through the application of cutting-edge technologies. The analysis's outcome can be applied to address the research or industrial analysis questions that prompted it. When comparing one oil to another for quality control or adulteration research, or when identifying novel constituents or characterizing the chemical classes of compounds present, this can be done for comparison purposes [19]. It is evident that today's analyst uses chromatography to achieve separation and can supplement it with mass spectrometry to help with identification. Because of the power of GC-MS, developments in mass spectrometry detection and separation technology, as well as better data management tools, will have an immediate impact on the essential oil industry. The current study outlines the evolution of instrumental methods for gas chromatography analysis of essential oils [20]. Insofar as mass spectrometry is the separation that most analysts select for essential oil analysis, it will be included. Thus, 316

sample introduction or handling approaches before the analysis stage, if these techniques provide some level of separation, will be explored, along with multidimensional and single column analysis. We'll talk about the recent evidence of comprehensive gas chromatography as the most effective possible technique for separating essential oils.

Essential oils have been utilised in folk medicine, the food industry, and cosmetics from the beginning of human history in many different parts of the world. The most popular analytical technique for qualitative analysis is GC-MS, but the conventional approach for quantifying essential oils is GC-FID. Many chiral components of essential oils could be identified thanks to chiral GC. GC analysis can be substituted with HPLC chromatography. Important details regarding the composition of essential oil constituents can be obtained by the application of hyphenated techniques, such as LC-MS-MS. Nonetheless, the literature has a very small number of papers on the HPLC analysis of essential oils. Multidimensional chromatography is a method that can yield more precise results [21]. An additional instrument for the examination of essential oils is 13C-NMR spectroscopy. This technique has the advantage of being able to detect stereoisomers and thermally unstable chemicals over mass spectrometry, but it has the drawback of not being able to distinguish smaller components of oils. Promising findings were obtained using 1H-NMR as an online tool for GC analysis; however, more research is needed to adapt this technique to essential oil analysis. The range of data obtained from essential oil analysis enables the application of chemometric techniques [22].

4.1 Gass Chromatography

The analysis of volatile organic substances is done with gas chromatography (GC) connected to several types of detection devices. The first stage in the analysis of essential oils is gas chromatography, which separates the mixture into its constituent parts. A "column" is used in this method to accomplish this division. At the beginning of the column, a little amount of essential oil is introduced. A gas then forces the mixture through to the other side, where each separated component comes into contact with a detector, which is typically a flame ionization detector or a mass detector (MS). The column is gradually heated as the components pass through it. It starts off at a low temperature, usually between 40 and 60 °C, and is subsequently elevated at a rate of 3 to 5 °C per minute until it reaches its maximum temperature, which is between 280 and 300 °C. The essential oil components move through the column as vapors in the direction of gas flow when an inert gas, such as nitrogen or helium, is forced through it. The term "gas chromatography" may have contributed to the widespread misconception that the constituents of essential oils flow through the column in a gaseous state. However, the name "gas chromatography" actually refers to the process of using helium or nitrogen gas, not the physical state of the constituents of essential oils as they pass through the column. The components of essential oils typically elute before they reach their boiling point because they reside in the column as liquids or vapors. For instance, spatulanol has a boiling point of 297 °C at atmospheric pressure. Though it typically elutes between 150 and 200 °C, thermodynamic theory states that spatulanol has a substantially higher boiling point in a pressurized column. Raza, 2024

Furthermore, limonene has a boiling point of 176°C, however it usually elutes about 105-115°C. Greater quantities of components, like volatile diterpenes and coumarins, have boiling values that are greater than those of the apparatus. For example, incensol acetate has a boiling point of 420°C, although it is still eluted in gas chromatography like other components, but it needs a longer retention period [23]. The physical state of essential oil components (and volatile derivatives) as they pass through the column is influenced by various factors such as temperature, the concentration and vapor pressure of individual molecules, the intermolecular interactions with the stationary phase (the column), and the inlet gas pressure (helium or nitrogen). Essential oil components are in a vapor phase when they are moving through the column; but, when they are stationary, they are absorbed as a liquid into the column matrix [24]. When the column's temperature rises to a point where the intermolecular interactions with the stationary phase of the column are disrupted, the majority of the constituents of essential oils evaporate. All of the liquid turns into vapor when that temperature is attained since there are very few molecules in the column. The vapor then exits the column and comes into contact with the detector.

4.2 Mass Spectrometric Identification by Comparing to a Mass Spectral Library

There are two primary diagnostic techniques used to identify the constituents of essential oils. The mass spectrometer's "fingerprint" or fragment pattern is the first (Figure 4). Gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS) is the term used to describe the combination of a mass spectrometer and a gas chromatograph [24]. Electron impact ionization is a technique used by the mass spectrometer in gas chromatography to ionize molecules using an electron beam. The compound is therefore subjected to a precisely calibrated electron charge, usually 70 millivolts, after which the masses of the fragments are identified. The entire molecule at 210 Da, represented by the molecular ion peak (M+) in Figure 4, is also included in the mass spectral pattern. Next, in order to find a match, this fragmentation pattern is compared to a library of spectra. Because it is formed from an uncommon compound, the enormous fragmentation pattern in Figure 4 could not be found in the NIST commercial library. It was separated and recognised as 1-acetoximiodesert-3-ene, an uncommon monoterpene iridoid, using nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy.

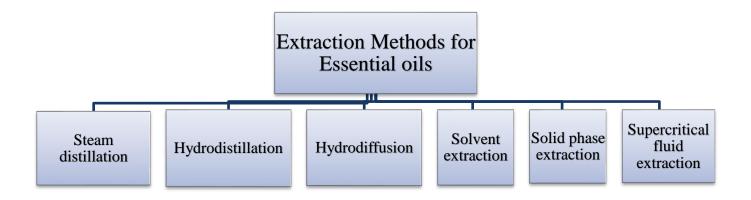


Figure 1. Commonly used methods for essential oil extraction.

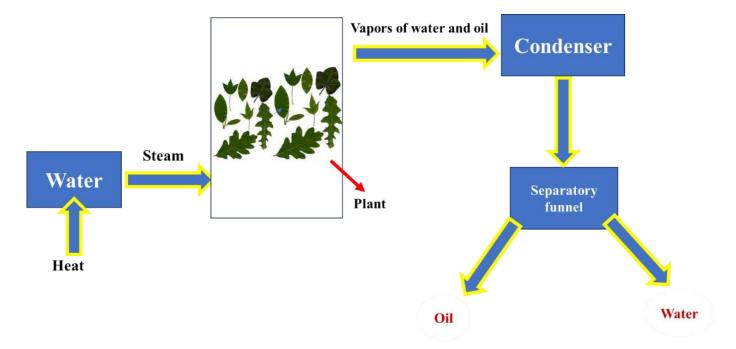


Figure 2. Extraction mechanism of essential oil by steam distillation.

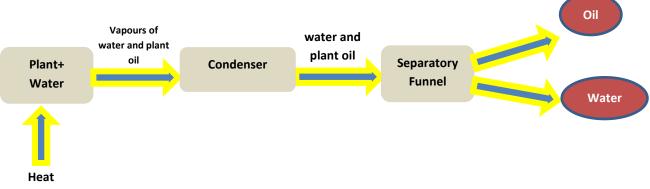


Figure 3. Extraction mechanism of essential oil by steam/hydrodistillation.

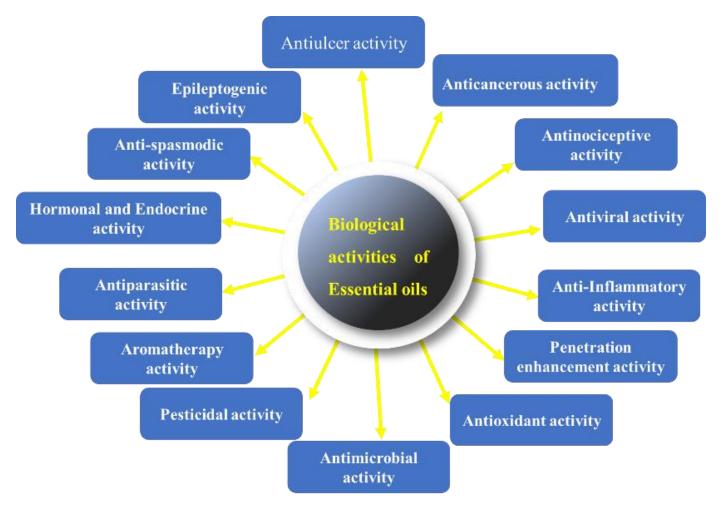


Figure 4. Major bioactivities of essential oils.

Essential oil	Plant part used	Biological activities	
Anise oil	Ripe fruit	Antioxidant [25]	
	-	Insecticidal activity [26]	
		Antimicrobial activity [27]	
Bitter-fennel fruit oil	Ripe fruit	Antithrombotic [28]	
	L	Insecticidal [29]	
		Antioxidant [30]	
Bitter-fennel herb oil	Aerial parts	Antifungal activity [31]	
	F	Antimycobacterial and anticandidal activity [32]	
Caraway oil	Dry fruit	Antimicrobial activity [33]	
Cardamom oil	Seeds	Anticarcinogenic [34]	
	Secus	Antioxidant [35]	
		Antimicrobial	
Cassia oil	Leaves and young branches	Antifungal and antibacterial activity [36]	
Cinnamon leaf oil, Ceylon	Leaves	Antidiabetic [37]	
		Antioxidant	
		Antimicrobial	
Citronella oil	Fresh aerial part	Antimicrobial anthelmintic, Antioxidant, [38] anticonvulsant	
Clary sage oil	Fresh flowering stem	Analgesic, anti-stress, anti-depression [39], cytotoxic,	
		antioxidant	
Clove oil	Dried flower buds	Antioxidant, Antifungal activity [40], Insecticidal activity,	
		antiseptic [41]	
Coriander oil	Fruits	Antidiabetic, anticancer, antimutagenic, free radical [42]	
Dwarf pine oil	Fresh leaves and twigs	Antioxidant activity,	
		Antidyslipidemic [43]	
Eucalyptus oil	Fresh leaves and fresh terminal	antibacterial activity [44], anticancer, anti-inflammatory,	
	branches	antiseptic	
Juniper oil	Ripe, non-fermented berry cones	Memory enhancing effect [45], antimicrobial, antioxidant [46]	
Lavender oil	Flowering tops	Anti-depressive, carminatives [47], antifungal, antibacterial	
Lemon oil	Fresh peel	Cell Cytotoxicity [48], anti-inflammatory, antioxidant,	
		antibacterial	
Mandarin oil	Fresh peel	Anti- proliferative [49]	
		schistosomicidal effects, antioxidant [50], antibacterial	
Matricaria oil	Fresh flower-head, flower tops	Anti-parasitic, anti-cancer, anti-inflammatory [51], antidiabetic,	
Mint oil	Fresh, flowering aerial part	Antifatigue, neuroprotective, antiviral, scolicidal,	
		immunomodulatory [52], antitumor	
Neroli oil	Fresh flower	Antibacterial activity, antifungal activity [53]	
Nutmeg oil	Dried and crushed kernels	antifungal activity, antimicrobial, antimalarial activity, fumigant [54]	
Peppermint oil	Fresh aerial parts of the flowering plant	antiviral, scolicidal, immunomodulatory, neuroprotective, Antifatigue [52]	
	Pient	i minuigue [52]	
Pine sylvestris oil	Fresh leaves and branches	Antiseptic, antioxidant, antifungal, anti-inflammatory [55]	
Rose oil	Fresh flowers	Genotoxic activity, memory enhancing, Antibacterial activity, antifungal activity, teratogenic, antifertility [56]	
Rosemary oil	Flowering aerial parts	Antibacterial activity, antifungal activity, antioxidant, hepatoprotective [57]	
Tea tree oil	Foliage and terminal branches	Antibacterial activity, Antibacterial activity, antifungal	
	1 shage and terminar branches	activity [58]	

Compound	Biological activity	References
Curdione	Anticancer	[59]
	Antibacterial	[60]
	Antifungal	[60]
	Anti-inflammatory	[61]
1,8-Cineole	Antioxidant	[62] [63]
	Anticarcinogenic	[64]
β-Caryophyllene	Antitumor	[65] [66]
	Antileishmanial	[67]
	Antitrypanosomal	[68]
Myrcene	Antimutagenic	[69]
	Chemopreventive	[70] [71]
	Antiproliferative	[72]
	Antioxidant	[73]
ar-Turmerone	Antimutagenic	[74]
	Hypoglycemic	[75]
	Neuroprotective	[76]
	Insect repellent	[77]
	Antivenom	[78]
	antibacterial	[79]
Germacrone	Skin-penetration enhancer	[80]
	Antitumor	
	Antibacterial	[81]
	Antioxidant	[82]
		[83]
Xanthorrhizol	Estrogenic	[82]
	Nephroprotective	[84]
	Neuroprotective	[85]
	Chemoprotective	[86]
	Hepatoprotective	[85]
	Antibacterial	[85]
B-Elemene	Antiangionenic	[87]
	Hepatoprotective	[88]
	Antitumor	[89]
Terpinolene	Antioxidant	[90]
	Chemoprotective	[73]
	Anti-inflammatory	[91]
Curzerene	Antioxidant, Anticancer	[92] [93]

Table 2. Biological activities of key components of essential oils

5. Authentication of Essential Oils

Essential oil adulteration and counterfeiting is dishonest, unethical, and potentially harmful to consumers. [94]. On the other hand, customers' desire for and motivation to engage in counterfeiting will decline if they are aware of the warning indications of dishonest marketing. [95].

5.1 Simplistic Methods for Authentication of Essential Oils

A thorough analysis that was released in 2015 included a crucial synopsis of the adulteration strategies frequently used in the essential oil sector. It is implied that there isn't a set of guidelines that apply to every kind of adulteration. Every natural substance that has the potential to be tampered *Raza*, 2024 with contains indicators that are distinctive to each instance and context-specific analysis techniques. For instance, adulterating an essential oil with synthetic linalool will infect it with dihydro and dehydrolinalool, byproducts of the synthetic process [96]. It is possible to authenticate essential oils using a number of simple techniques, without resorting to "sophistication" as a cover for dishonest merchants or traders trying to undercut their prices. In these kinds of situations, figuring out whether the goods is a fake requires simply basic techniques. Basic laboratory equipment, however rudimentary, is generally required (apart from evaporation tests) [95]. Thin layer chromatography, ultraviolet absorbance (UV spectrophotometry), and infrared determination can all yield a wealth of information. These components are regarded as unsophisticated since they represent the most fundamental laboratory procedures.

5.1.1UV Absorbance Determination Using Spectrophotometry

Another example is that the UV active ingredients, the coumarins, are diluted when citrus pressed oils are diluted with cottonseed oil. UV spectrophotometry can be used to determine the concentration difference. Similarly, a UV spectrophotometer can be used to determine the concentration difference essential when any oil containing phenylpropanoids is diluted with a carrier oil. There is a UV maximum (peak absorption wavelength, λ max) that can be used for any component that has delocalized electrons. This method allows for the examination of benzene-containing components found in essential oils, such as p-cymene, thymol, carvacrol, cumin aldehyde, and α-turmerone, as well as terpenoid components. Since minor variations may be caused by variations in the relative amount of the constituents occurring naturally, the UV absorption value must be many orders of magnitude different from the corresponding authentic natural essential oil [97]. Anethole, eugenol, safrole, elemicin, and cinnamonaldehyde are examples of common phenylpropanoids. They all exhibit UV chromophores that absorb at wavelengths (eugenol = 280.9nm), which are comparable to those of most aromatic terpenes (thymol = 275 nm). Alternatively, the spectrophotometer can be used to find out if the oil has fixed components like flavonoids or coumarins, which will show that the product is not an essential oil but rather an absolute or pressing oil since essential oils are not expected to have a UV chromophore.

5.1.2 Evaporation Ability

Testing a product's ability to evaporate is another method of figuring out if it is or is not an essential oil. For instance, an essential oil, pressed oil, or absolute mixed with a carrier oil won't evaporate entirely. This is because if the product is not an essential oil, it will contain non-volatile components. Therefore, the authenticity may be determined by applying a few drops of the product on a piece of paper and heating it with a hair dryer for five minutes [27]. A portion of the oil that is still on the paper indicates that it is either contaminated or not an essential oil because it is not volatile. Nonetheless, even in the absence of hydro distillation, an oil that is pressed from citrus peels-like bergamot-is classified as essential according to the International Standards Organization. Bergamot is therefore still genuine even if it turns out to be pressed oil rather than hydro distilled.

5.1.2 Thin Layer Chromatography

As an alternative to spectrophotometry, thin layer chromatography can be used (TLC) can be used to authenticate essential oils. Crude extracts often contain components that are more polar than essential oil components, so TLC can be used to reveal these. Any component that stays at the baseline of a TLC plate using 10% ethyl acetate in 90% hexane, is too polar to be an essential oil component, and must, therefore, be from extraction, not hydro distillation. If the TLC mobile phase is changed to 20% ethyl acetate, 80% hexane, then components below an Rf *Raza, 2024*

value of 0.4 are impossible in an essential oil [98]. Common authentication methods, however, can also identify components that have a vapor pressure too low to be volatile but are nonetheless volatile or somewhat polar. In these situations, the authenticator must be aware of what to look for in order to spot instances of tampering. Understanding the adulteration strategies employed by counterfeiters is necessary for this. For example, if the authenticator is aware that oil produced from grapefruit peel is often used to tamper with lavender essential oil, TLC can identify the presence of coumarins. [99]. A UV indicator on the TLC plate can be used to assess the presence of coumarin auraptene (F254). As an alternative, the standard silica gel plate can be fumigated with ammonia gas, which will make the component glow when exposed to ultraviolet light. The result is more believable if the authenticator possesses a sample of aurapten, which may be utilized as an authentic standard for comparison utilizing TLC migration (Rf value) [99].

6. Biological activities of essential oil

6.1 Anticancer activity of EOs

Numerous tumor cell lines reveal the anticancer activities of essential oils (EOs). EOs boost anti-oxidant, antimutagenic, and antiproliferative properties in cancer cells. EOs in aromatherapy boost immunity and reduce cancerrelated discomfort [100]. Essential oils are cytotoxic by nature. Through the induction of necrosis, apoptosis, cell cycle arrest, and major organelle dysfunction, essential oils (EOs) induce programmed cell death in cancer cells. Targetoriented medication administration can be guided via EO nanoemulsions or nanoencapsulation. Anticancer medication resistance may be addressed by using EOs in more recent drug formulations [101].

6.2 Antinociceptive activity of EOs

For ages, folk medicine has employed plants and essential oils (EOs) to treat a wide range of illnesses, from pain management to analgesia. In this regard, the Antinociceptive action of EOs has garnered interest since pain management remains a significant medical concern [102]. There is substantial data supporting the pharmacological Antinociceptive efficacy of bergamot essential oil (BEO) in treating both neuropathic and nociceptive pain [103].

6.3 Antiviral activity of EOs

It is well known that the chemical components of essential oils (EOs) and their efficacy against various viruses is broad. The antiviral properties of EOs are attributed to the presence of oxygenated monoterpenes and sesquiterpenes. It is currently impossible to determine which EOs will provide the highest level of protection because to the lack of comprehensive understanding around the new coronavirus strain, now known as SARS-CoV-2 (Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome Coronavirus). It is reasonable to anticipate, though, that some of the EOs and related terpenes will provide a detectable amount of protection, just as they do for a large number of other known viruses [104].

6.4 Anti-Inflammatory activity of EOs

Numerous illnesses, including infections caused by bacteria, viruses, and protozoa, autoimmune conditions including diabetes and arthritis, Alzheimer's disease, and cancer, are linked to inflammation. Non-steroidal antiinflammatory medicines (NSAIDs) and corticosteroids are two of the numerous treatments that are available to stop or slow the course of inflammation, although they have certain side effects. Conventional medicine has served the public's health needs for a long time and today offers a wide range of medical care options. This medication uses essential oils to treat a wide range of illnesses [105]. According to research, essential oils including thyme, chamomile, and eucalyptus can reduce inflammation by modulating the NFkB signaling system, which is the primary regulator of the generation of proinflammatory cytokines. Many essential oils, such as eucalyptus, lavender, and tea tree oils, have immunomodulatory properties that might change inflammatory processes. As a result, they may be used as an alternative therapy for a variety of immunological or infectious illness [106].

6.5 Penetration enhancement activity of EOs

Transdermal medication delivery is a delivery method in which active molecules are transferred through the skin. Its advantages include safety, steady plasma drug concentration, and a decrease in the hepatic first-pass effect. Since the skin serves as a barrier to both dangerous chemicals and pharmaceuticals, permeability enhancers/enhancers are used to increase the permeability of medications through the skin. This brief overview covers recent research on essential oils. Through their interactions with the stratum corneum, essential oils improve skin penetration (SC). It was discovered that they were effective in boosting the skin penetration of both hydrophilic and lipophilic medications. Furthermore, because essential oils are volatile and readily expelled from the body through urine and feces, they do not collect in the body [107]. Essential oils are natural, less poisonous, less allergic, and generally do not harm skin while boosting skin penetration.

6.6 Antioxidant activity of EOs

Substances known as antioxidants have the capacity to shield living things from oxidative stress. Liquid mixes of volatile substances derived from aromatic plants are known as essential oils (EOs). Numerous essential oils (EOs) possess antioxidant qualities, and the application of EOs as natural antioxidants is gaining attention due to the recent suspicions regarding the possible health risks of some synthetic antioxidants, such BHA and BHT. Therefore, adding EOs to edible products-either directly by mixing or through active packaging and edible coatings may be a viable way to stop autoxidation and extend shelf life [108]. However, assessing the antioxidant efficacy of essential oils (EOs) is a critical matter, as most widely employed "tests" are unsuitable and yield inconsistent outcomes that might potentially skew future investigations. An examination of the potential in food protection is presented together with the chemistry elucidating the antioxidant activity of EO. A comprehensive evaluation is conducted on literature approaches to evaluate the antioxidant efficacy of EOs [109].

6.7 Antimicrobial Activity of EOs

It has been documented that plant essential oils can shield food against pathogenic and spoiling microbes. Carvacrol is one of the chemical constituents of a number of essential oils that has been demonstrated to have a particular antibacterial effect. Carvacrol is the primary constituent of thyme essential oil (45% carvacrol) and oregano essential oil (60% to 74% carvacrol). It works effectively against a broad variety of microbiological agents including the majority of gram-positive and gram-negative bacteria. Carvacrol breaks down the outer membrane of gram-negative bacteria, releasing lipopolysaccharides and increasing the permeability of the cytoplasmic membrane to ATP. In Gram-positive bacteria, it can alter the permeability of cations like H+ and K+ by interacting with their membranes [110]. Gram-positive bacteria are more vulnerable to the antibacterial properties of essential oils than gram-negative bacteria, as numerous studies have demonstrated. Gram-positive bacteria can more readily absorb the hydrophobic components of essential oils because the lipophilic ends of their lipoteichoic acid peptides are lipophilic [111].

6.7 Pesticidal activity of EOs

Certain essential oils may be effective as a natural pesticide, according to studies. Case studies have demonstrated the various deterring effects of different oils on pests, especially insects and specific arthropods. The special effects of the oil on pests might be repellent, hinder digestive processes, restrict development, decrease the rate of reproduction, or even cause the bugs to die [112]. But generally, the chemicals in the oils that have these actions are not harmful to animals. Because of the molecules' unique properties, these "green" insecticides may be widely used without endangering anything but bugs. Research has been done on the following essential oils: eucalyptus, rose, peppermint, basil, lemon grass, lavender, and thyme [113].

6.8 Aromatherapy activity of EOs

Aromatherapy is a type of complementary medicine wherein the therapeutic properties of essential oils and other plant extracts are attributed to their aromatic constituents. While aromatherapy can help promote relaxation, there isn't enough proof to say that essential oils can successfully treat any kind of illness. According to scientific studies, essential oils are not able to treat or prevent any kind of sickness or chronic condition [114]. There are significant methodological flaws in the use of essential oils for medicinal reasons. It was discovered that the essential oils' efficacy as complementary therapies was within acceptable methodological bounds. There has been at least one incidence of mortality linked to the usage of essential oils, which can also result in allergic responses and skin irritation [115].

6.9 Hormonal and Endocrine activity of EOs

Korach claims that ingredients in essential oils have never before been categorized as endocrine disruptors. These substances either replicate or counteract the effects of androgens, or male sex hormones, such testosterone, as well as estrogen, the female sex hormone [116]. Lead researcher at the NIEHS Receptor Biology Group and senior author Kenneth Korach, Ph.D., stated, "These results showed that the two oils can have hormonal-like effects for estrogen and testosterone in the body." "There may be health risks associated with lavender and tea tree oil exposure [117]." Some essential oils have the potential to influence the hormonal and endocrine systems, thereby balancing hormone levels in the body. This could have an impact on reproductive health and overall well-being [118].

6.10 Anti-spasmodic activity of EOs

The antispasmodic action of drugs is utilized in a variety of clinical contexts to treat pain and cramping that affects the smooth muscles of the genitourinary, biliary, or gastrointestinal tracts. [119] [120].Since the synthetic antispasmodic medications that are currently on the market have a number of unpleasant side effects, the pharmaceutical industry has made finding new molecules with a natural origin one of its top priorities. An increasing number of patients are using herbal remedies with antispasmodic properties to treat symptoms of functional dyspepsia, intestinal, colonic, or ureteral spasms, gallbladder hyperactivity, and uterine cramps [121]. Within the broad category of medicinal plants, aromatic plants with high essential oil content are regarded as a valuable and readily available natural resource for the synthesis of novel compounds that may prove to be therapeutic candidates. Essential oils are complex mixtures that mostly consist of aromatic terpenes, which are divided into monoterpenes and sesquiterpenes based on how many isoprene units they contain. They also contain phenylpropanoid compounds [122]. Muscle cramps and spasms can be lessened by essential oils' anti-spasmodic properties. Because of this, they can be helpful in the treatment of ailments like irritable bowel syndrome (IBS) [123].

6.11 Antiparasitic Activity of EOs

The secondary metabolites of medicinal plants are called essential oils (EOs), and they contain bioactive substances including terpenes, terpenoids, phenylpropenes, and isothiocyanates that work in concert with one another. The hydrophobic chemicals included in EOs have the ability to enter the cells of bacteria and parasites, resulting in cell distortions and organelle failure. In aquatic creatures, dietary supplements of essential oils (EOs) also influence growth, immunity, and resistance to infectious diseases [124]. Because EOs are hydrophobic and permeabilic, they cause potassium ions and the cytoplasmic substance of parasitic cells to leak out, changing the shape of the cells and stopping parasitic activity [125] [126]. Because of lipoteichoic acids in cell membranes that may make it easier for EOs' hydrophobic components to penetrate, Gram-positive bacteria are often more sensitive to EOs than Gram-negative bacteria [127]. EO is made up of several substances that don't target any particular cell in parasites. The EOs' monoterpenes, α-pinene and sabinene, have demonstrated noteworthy antiprotozoal action. Another important aspect of EOs that demonstrated a greater mode of action than individual compounds is the synergistic effects of several chemicals [128].

6.12 Epileptogenic activity of EOs

Due to the presence of highly reactive monoterpenes such pilocamate, thujone, camphor, 1,8 cineole, pilgene, and sabinylacetate, tansy has long been known to possess epileptogenic properties, or strong convulsants [129].

6.13 Anthelmintic activity of EOs

Anti-anthelmintic action has been observed in β thujone, essential oils, and ether extracts that were extracted from T. vulgare [129].

6.14 Allergen activity of EOs

Gardeners and florists who have been exposed to parts of Compositae plants have reported developing contact dermatitis, commonly referred to as "chrysanthemum allergy" or "compositae dermatitis [130]." The main component of Compositae thought to be accountable for contact dermatitis is thought to be sesquiterpene lactones [131]. Reports of cross-sensitivities have also been made with plant species that are phytochemically similar [132]. There are several clinical research on T. parthenium, T. vulgare, and Chrysanthemum cinerariaefolium (T. cinerariaefolium)related contact dermatitis [133].

6.15 Anticoagulant and Antifibrinolytic activity of EOs

The anticoagulant and antifibrinolytic properties of chloroform extracts, aqueous extracts, and essential oils of T.cilicium, T. corymbosum, and T. macrophyllum were investigated [40]. It was discovered that each extract had strong anticoagulant and antifibrinolytic properties. This illustrates how tanacetum extracts have anticoagulant and antifibrinolytic qualities [133].

6.16 Antiulcer activity of EOs

Additionally, 8- β -hydroxyaquiline, which was extracted from T. microphyllum's aerial portion, has demonstrated antiulcer properties [64]. T. ferulaceum flowers have been treated with antiulcer treatment. T. vulgare and parthenolide have been demonstrated to be beneficial in rats with stomach ulcers. [134].

6.17 Phytotoxic activity of EOs

Every chemical that was separated from T. cinerariaefolium, including α -lactone, has prevented Chinese cabbage seedlings' roots from growing [135].

6.18 Cognitive activity of EOs

Because of their many biological actions, essential oils have been utilized as treatments for a variety of ailments since ancient times. Different pharmacological responses in the nervous system have been observed in recent preclinical and clinical research, resulting in anxiolytic, antidepressant, sedative, and anticonvulsant effects. Research conducted on animal models has demonstrated that many neurotransmitter systems are involved in the mechanism of action of essential oils, leading to quantifiable physiological impacts on the brain [136] [137]. There is proof that exposing oneself to a variety of scents, or olfactory enrichment, enhances brain function in both humans and lab animals. Thus, the theory that inhaling various essential oils before bedtime could serve as a kind of brain tonic to prevent memory loss [138]. It is thought that certain essential oils can help with attention, concentration, and memory, among other cognitive benefits.

In aromatherapy, these oils are frequently used to improve mental clarity.

6.19 Allelopathic Activity

The creation of secondary metabolites is the source of allelopathic interactions, according to the International Allelopathy Society (IAS), which defined allelopathy as "the science that studies any process involving secondary metabolites produced by plants, algae, bacteria and fungi that influences the growth and development of agricultural systems and biological systems" in 1996. Plants and microbes produce secondary metabolites for a variety of defense mechanisms. Allelochemicals are the name for the secondary metabolites that are involved. [139].

Considered a major source of lead compounds in agriculture, volatile oils and their constituents are being investigated for weed and insect control [71]. Many species' defense mechanisms include bioactive terpenoids, which are a relatively unexplored source of active chemicals with potential applications in both the agricultural and pharmaceutical fields [140]. In actuality, the terpenoid route yields a wide variety of very phytotoxic allelochemicals, and studies have been conducted on the phytotoxicity of essential oils. Angelini examined the allelopathic action of the tea tree's essential oil, Melaleuca alternifolia (Maiden and against the contaminating fungus Betche) Cheel, Trichoderma harzianum, which results in significant losses while cultivating Pleurotus species. Trichoderma harzianum can be controlled allelopathically by this essential oil in vitro [141].

6.20 Cytotoxicity

Essential oils lack cellular ligands because of their intricate molecular makeup [74]. Because they are lipophilic mixes, they can pierce the cell membrane, break down the phospholipid, fatty acid, and polysaccharide layers, and cause permeabilization. It seems that this cytotoxicity involves this kind of membrane damage. Membrane permeabilization in bacteria is linked to ATP pool depletion, proton pump collapse, and ion loss and decreased membrane potential [75]. Lipids and proteins can be harmed by essential oils and can clog the cytoplasm. Lysis and the release of macromolecules can result from damage to the cell wall and membrane [142]. Additionally, as in the case of oxidative stress, essential oils change the fluidity of the membrane, making it unusually porous and allowing proteins, cytochrome C, radicals, and Ca2+ ions to leak out. Apoptosis and necrosis are the two ways that this permeabilization of the outer and inner membranes results in cell death. There are multiple compartments where the cell's ultrastructural modification is evident. Electron microscopy can also show that essential oils disrupt the viral membrane of the herpes simplex virus (HSV) [143]. Analysis of Saccharomyces cerevisiae microtubule genes involved in ergosterol production, sterol absorption, lipid metabolism, and the structure and function of cell detoxification further supported the induction of membrane degradation. Alpha therapy affects transport and the cell wall. -terpine [144].

Essential oils are one category of natural plant products that merits special consideration because of their widespread application in traditional healing practices. Moreover, the procedure of distilling essential oils from plant organs is today quite dependable and reasonably priced. Many preclinical studies have demonstrated the biological actions of essential oils, clarifying their pharmacological objectives and mode of action, and proving their effectiveness. More specifically, antibacterial, antioxidant, anti-inflammatory, and anticancer effects have been demonstrated in a range of cellular and animal models. The benefits of essential oils for dental health have been demonstrated, however the lack of human studies relative to in vivo/in vitro research limits their potential as safe and effective phototherapeutic agents. Therefore, more meticulously designed clinical trials are needed to establish a high quality of scientific proof and validate the true efficacy and safety of plant-based medicines that people have been using since prehistoric times. Essential oils should be valued in a number of fields, primarily human health, green chemistry, and sustainable agriculture, because of their many biological functions. To maximize its potential use, however, much study on its mechanism of action and likely toxicological effects needs to be done.

References

- R. Smith, S.M. Cohen, J. Doull, V. Feron, J. Goodman, L. Marnett, P. Portoghese, W. Waddell, B. Wagner, R. Hall. (2005). A procedure for the safety evaluation of natural flavor complexes used as ingredients in food: essential oils. Food and Chemical Toxicology. 43(3): 345-363.
- F. Bakkali, S. Averbeck, D. Averbeck, M. Idaomar.
 (2008). Biological effects of essential oils–a review. Food and Chemical Toxicology. 46(2): 446-475.
- [3] C.E. Vickers, J. Gershenzon, M.T. Lerdau, F. Loreto. (2009). A unified mechanism of action for volatile isoprenoids in plant abiotic stress. Nature chemical biology. 5(5): 283-291.
- [4] E. Pichersky, J. Gershenzon. (2002). The formation and function of plant volatiles: perfumes for pollinator attraction and defense. Current opinion in plant biology. 5(3): 237-243.
- [5] R. Shaheen, M.A. Hanif, S. Nisar, U. Rashid, Z. Sajid, M.R. Shehzad, J.K. Winkler-Moser, A. Alsalme. (2021). Seasonal Variation, Fractional Isolation and Nanoencapsulation of Antioxidant Compounds of Indian Blackberry (Syzygium cumini). Antioxidants. 10(12): 1900.
- [6] R. Shaheen, S. Nisar, R.a. Kowalski, M.I. Jilani. (2019). Essential oil isolates of Indian Black Berry Leaves: A Review. International Journal of Chemical and Biochemical Sciences. 16: 11-16.
- [7] D. Chaiyasit, W. Choochote, E. Rattanachanpichai, U. Chaithong, P. Chaiwong, A. Jitpakdi, P. Tippawangkosol, D. Riyong, B. Pitasawat. (2006). Essential oils as potential adulticides against two populations of Aedes aegypti, the laboratory and natural field strains, in Chiang Mai province, northern Thailand. Parasitology research. 99: 715-721.

- [8] M. Moghaddam, L. Mehdizadeh, Chemistry of essential oils and factors influencing their constituents. In *Soft chemistry and food fermentation*, Elsevier: 2017; pp 379-419.
- [9] T.J. Betts. (2001). Chemical characterisation of the different types of volatile oil constituents by various solute retention ratios with the use of conventional and novel commercial gas chromatographic stationary phases. journal of Chromatography A. 936(1-2): 33-46.
- [10] P. Masango. (2005). Cleaner production of essential oils by steam distillation. Journal of Cleaner Production. 13(8): 833-839.
- [11] A.C.C. Manzan, F.S. Toniolo, E. Bredow, N.P. Povh. (2003). Extraction of essential oil and pigments from Curcuma longa [L.] by steam distillation and extraction with volatile solvents. Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry. 51(23): 6802-6807.
- [12] M. Gavahian, A. Farahnaky, K. Javidnia, M. Majzoobi. (2012). Comparison of ohmic-assisted hydrodistillation with traditional hydrodistillation for the extraction of essential oils from Thymus vulgaris L. Innovative Food Science & Emerging Technologies. 14: 85-91.
- [13] M.A. Vian, X. Fernandez, F. Visinoni, F. Chemat. (2008). Microwave hydrodiffusion and gravity, a new technique for extraction of essential oils. journal of Chromatography A. 1190(1-2): 14-17.
- [14] A. El Asbahani, K. Miladi, W. Badri, M. Sala, E.A. Addi, H. Casabianca, A. El Mousadik, D. Hartmann, A. Jilale, F. Renaud. (2015). Essential oils: From extraction to encapsulation. International journal of pharmaceutics. 483(1-2): 220-243.
- [15] P. Burger, H. Plainfossé, X. Brochet, F. Chemat, X. Fernandez. (2019). Extraction of natural fragrance ingredients: History overview and future trends. Chemistry & biodiversity. 16(10): e1900424.
- [16] L. Holm, V. Josendal. (1974). Mechanisms of oil displacement by carbon dioxide. Journal of petroleum Technology. 26(12): 1427-1438.
- [17] M.C. Mesomo, M.L. Corazza, P.M. Ndiaye, O.R. Dalla Santa, L. Cardozo, A. de Paula Scheer. (2013). Supercritical CO2 extracts and essential oil of ginger (Zingiber officinale R.): Chemical composition and antibacterial activity. The Journal of Supercritical Fluids. 80: 44-49.
- [18] M. Yousefi, M. Rahimi-Nasrabadi, S.M. Pourmortazavi, M. Wysokowski, T. Jesionowski, H. Ehrlich, S. Mirsadeghi. (2019). Supercritical fluid extraction of essential oils. TrAC Trends in Analytical Chemistry. 118: 182-193.
- [19] U.J. Salzer, T.E. Furia. (1977). The analysis of essential oils and extracts (oleoresins) from seasonings-A critical review. Critical Reviews in Food Science & Nutrition. 9(4): 345-373.
- P.J. Marriott, R. Shellie, C. Cornwell. (2001). Gas chromatographic technologies for the analysis of essential oils. Journal of chromatography A. 936(1): 1-22.
- [21] A. Smelcerovic, A. Djordjevic, J. Lazarevic, G. Stojanovic. (2013). Recent advances in analysis of

essential oils. Current Analytical Chemistry. 9(1): 61-70.

- [22] P.J. Marriott, R. Shellie, C. Cornwell. (2001). Gas chromatographic technologies for the analysis of essential oils. Journal of chromatography A. 936(1-2): 1-22.
- [23] R. Hively, R. Hinton. (1968). Variation of the retention index with temperature on squalane substrates. Journal of Chromatographic Science. 6(4): 203-217.
- [24] N.J. Sadgrove, G.F. Padilla-González, A. Green, M.K. Langat, E. Mas-Claret, D. Lyddiard, J. Klepp, S.V.-M. Legendre, B.W. Greatrex, G.L. Jones. (2021). The diversity of volatile compounds in Australia's semi-desert genus Eremophila (Scrophulariaceae). Plants. 10(4): 785.
- [25] A. Padmashree, N. Roopa, A. Semwal, G. Sharma, G. Agathian, A.S. Bawa. (2007). Star-anise (Illicium verum) and black caraway (Carum nigrum) as natural antioxidants. Food chemistry. 104(1): 59-66.
- [26] S.-I. Kim, J.-Y. Roh, D.-H. Kim, H.-S. Lee, Y.-J. Ahn. (2003). Insecticidal activities of aromatic plant extracts and essential oils against Sitophilus oryzae and Callosobruchus chinensis. Journal of Stored products research. 39(3): 293-303.
- [27] G. Singh, S. Maurya, M. DeLampasona, C. Catalan. (2006). Chemical constituents, antimicrobial investigations and antioxidative potential of volatile oil and acetone extract of star anise fruits. Journal of the Science of Food and Agriculture. 86(1): 111-121.
- [28] M. Tognolini, V. Ballabeni, S. Bertoni, R. Bruni, M. Impicciatore, E. Barocelli. (2007). Protective effect of Foeniculum vulgare essential oil and anethole in an experimental model of thrombosis. Pharmacological research. 56(3): 254-260.
- [29] I. Ghanem, A. Audeh, A.A. Alnaser, G. Tayoub. (2013). Chemical constituents and insecticidal activity of the essential oil from fruits of Foeniculum vulgare Miller on larvae of Khapra beetle (Trogoderma granarium Everts). Herba Polonica. 59(4): 86-96.
- [30] E. El Ouariachi, N. Lahhit, A. Bouyanzer, B. Hammouti, J. Paolini, L. Majidi, J. Desjobert, J. Costa. (2014). Chemical composition and antioxidant activity of essential oils and solvent extracts of Foeniculum vulgare Mill. from Morocco. J. Chem. Pharm. Res. 6(4): 743-748.
- [31] M.B. Pai, G. Prashant, K. Murlikrishna, K. Shivakumar, G. Chandu. (2010). Antifungal efficacy of Punica granatum, Acacia nilotica, Cuminum cyminum and Foeniculum vulgare on Candida albicans: An: in vitro: study. Indian Journal of Dental Research. 21(3): 334-336.
- [32] K.F. Abed. (2007). Antimicrobial activity of essential oils of some medicinal plants from Saudi Arabia. Saudi Journal of Biological Sciences. 14(1): 53-60.
- [33] A. Aly, R. Maraei, A. Rezk, A. Diab. (2023). Phytochemical constitutes and biological activities of essential oil extracted from irradiated caraway

seeds (Carum carvi L.). Int J Radiat Biol. 99(2): 318-328.

- [34] M. Ivanović, K. Makoter, M. Islamčević Razboršek. (2021). Comparative study of chemical composition and antioxidant activity of essential oils and crude extracts of four characteristic Zingiberaceae herbs. Plants. 10(3): 501.
- [35] G.D. Teresa-Martínez, A. Cardador-Martínez, C. Téllez-Pérez, K. Allaf, C. Jiménez-Martínez, M. Alonzo-Macías. (2022). Effect of the instant controlled pressure drop technology in cardamom (Elettaria cardamomum) essential oil extraction and antioxidant activity. Molecules. 27(11): 3433.
- [36] D. Huang, J.-G. Xu, J.-X. Liu, H. Zhang, Q. Hu. (2014). Chemical constituents, antibacterial activity and mechanism of action of the essential oil from Cinnamomum cassia bark against four food-related bacteria. Microbiology. 83: 357-365.
- [37] P. Knauth, Z.L. López, G. Acevedo-Hernandez, M.T.E. Sevilla, Cinnamon essential oil: Chemical composition and biological activities. In 2018; pp 215-244.
- [38] R. Sharma, R. Rao, S. Kumar, S. Mahant, S. Khatkar. (2019). Therapeutic Potential of Citronella Essential Oil: A Review. Curr Drug Discov Technol. 16(4): 330-339.
- [39] M. Mohaddese. (2020). Clary sage essential oil and its biological activities. Advances in Traditional Medicine. 20.
- [40] K.-G. Lee, T. Shibamoto. (2001). Antioxidant property of aroma extract isolated from clove buds [Syzygium aromaticum (L.) Merr. et Perry]. Food chemistry. 74(4): 443-448.
- [41] H. Meeker, H. Linke. (1988). The antibacterial action of eugenol, thyme oil, and related essential oils used in dentistry. Compendium (Newtown, Pa.). 9(1): 32, 34-5, 38 passim.
- [42] M. Kačániová, L. Galovičová, E. Ivanišová, N.L. Vukovic, J. Štefániková, V. Valková, P. Borotová, J. Žiarovská, M. Terentjeva, S. Felšöciová. (2020). Antioxidant, antimicrobial and antibiofilm activity of coriander (Coriandrum sativum L.) essential oil for its application in foods. Foods. 9(3): 282.
- [43] N. Kumari, N. Singh, B. Singh. (2017). Phytoconstituent s and Pharmacological activity of Pinus roxburghiiSarg.: A Review. International Journal of Pharmaceutics and Drug Analysis. 241-249.
- [44] B. Salehi, J. Sharifi-Rad, C. Quispe, H. Llaique, M. Villalobos, A. Smeriglio, D. Trombetta, S.M. Ezzat, M.A. Salem, A. Zayed, C.M. Salgado Castillo, S.E. Yazdi, S. Sen, K. Acharya, F. Sharopov, N. Martins. (2019). Insights into Eucalyptus genus chemical constituents, biological activities and health-promoting effects. Trends in Food Science & Technology. 91: 609-624.
- [45] V.D. Zheljazkov, M. Kacaniova, I. Dincheva, T. Radoukova, I.B. Semerdjieva, T. Astatkie, V. Schlegel. (2018). Essential oil composition, antioxidant and antimicrobial activity of the galbuli of six juniper species. Industrial Crops and Products. 124: 449-458.

- [46] J. Bajac, G. Zengin, I. Mitrović, I. Antić, M. Radojković, B. Nikolovski, M. Terzić. (2023). Juniper berry essential oils as natural resources of biological and pharmacological high-valuable molecules. Industrial Crops and Products. 204: 117248.
- [47] H.M. Cavanagh, J.M. Wilkinson. (2002). Biological activities of lavender essential oil. Phytother Res. 16(4): 301-8.
- [48] N.A.N. Azmi, A.A.M. Elgharbawy, H.M. Salleh, M. Moniruzzaman. (2022). Preparation, Characterization and Biological Activities of an Oilin-Water Nanoemulsion from Fish By-Products and Lemon Oil by Ultrasonication Method. Molecules. 27(19).
- [49] M.H. Martins, L. Fracarolli, T.M. Vieira, H.J. Dias, M.G. Cruz, C.C. Deus, H.D. Nicolella, R. Stefani, V. Rodrigues, D.C. Tavares. (2017). Schistosomicidal effects of the essential oils of Citrus limonia and Citrus reticulata against Schistosoma mansoni. Chemistry & biodiversity. 14(1): e1600194.
- [50] F. Yi, R. Jin, J. Sun, B. Ma, X. Bao. (2018). Evaluation of mechanical-pressed essential oil from Nanfeng mandarin (Citrus reticulata Blanco cv. Kinokuni) as a food preservative based on antimicrobial and antioxidant activities. Lwt. 95: 346-353.
- [51] A. El Mihyaoui, J.C.G. Esteves da Silva, S. Charfi, M.E. Candela Castillo, A. Lamarti, M.B. Arnao. (2022). Chamomile (Matricaria chamomilla L.): A Review of Ethnomedicinal Use, Phytochemistry and Pharmacological Uses. Life (Basel). 12(4).
- [52] H. Zhao, S. Ren, H. Yang, S. Tang, C. Guo, M. Liu, Q. Tao, T. Ming, H. Xu. (2022). Peppermint essential oil: its phytochemistry, biological activity, pharmacological effect and application. Biomed Pharmacother. 154: 113559.
- [53] A.H. Ammar, J. Bouajila, A. Lebrihi, F. Mathieu, M. Romdhane, F. Zagrouba. (2012). Chemical composition and in vitro antimicrobial and antioxidant activities of Citrus aurantium l. flowers essential oil (Neroli oil). Pak J Biol Sci. 15(21): 1034-40.
- [54] K. Ashokkumar, J. Simal-Gandara, M. Murugan, M.K. Dhanya, A. Pandian. (2022). Nutmeg (Myristica fragrans Houtt.) essential oil: A review on its composition, biological, and pharmacological activities. Phytother Res. 36(7): 2839-2851.
- [55] A. Nisca, R. Ștefănescu, D.I. Stegăruş, A.D. Mare, L. Farczadi, C. Tanase. (2021). Comparative study regarding the chemical composition and biological activity of pine (Pinus nigra and P. sylvestris) bark extracts. Antioxidants. 10(2): 327.
- [56] A. Verma, R. Srivastava, P.K. Sonar, R. Yadav. (2020). Traditional, phytochemical, and biological aspects of Rosa alba L.: a systematic review. Future Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences. 6(1): 114.
- [57] G. Nieto, G. Ros, J. Castillo. (2018). Antioxidant and Antimicrobial Properties of Rosemary (Rosmarinus officinalis, L.): A Review. Medicines (Basel). 5(3).

- [58] C.F. Carson, K.A. Hammer, T.V. Riley. (2006). Melaleuca alternifolia (Tea Tree) oil: a review of antimicrobial and other medicinal properties. Clin Microbiol Rev. 19(1): 50-62.
- [59] J. Li, W.-H. Bian, J. Wan, J. Zhou, Y. Lin, J.-R. Wang, Z.-X. Wang, Q. Shen, K.-M. Wang. (2014). Curdione inhibits proliferation of MCF-7 cells by inducing apoptosis. Asian Pacific Journal of Cancer Prevention. 15(22): 9997-10001.
- [60] S. Naz, S. Ilyas, Z. Parveen, S. Javed. (2010). Chemical analysis of essential oils from turmeric (Curcuma longa) rhizome through GC-MS. Asian Journal of Chemistry. 22(4): 3153.
- [61] O.-J. Oh, H.-Y. Min, S.K. Lee. (2007). Inhibition of inducible prostaglandin E 2 production and cyclooxy-genase-2 expression by curdione from Curcuma zedoaria. Archives of pharmacal research. 30: 1236-1239.
- [62] N.S. Perry, P.J. Houghton, J. Sampson, A.E. Theobald, S. Hart, M. Lis-Balchin, J.R.S. Hoult, P. Evans, P. Jenner, S. Milligan. (2001). In-vitro activity of S. lavandulaefolia (Spanish sage) relevant to treatment of Alzheimer's disease. Journal of Pharmacy and pharmacology. 53(10): 1347-1356.
- [63] Y. Saito, A. Shiga, Y. Yoshida, T. Furuhashi, Y. Fujita, E. Niki. (2004). Effects of a novel gaseous antioxidative system containing a rosemary extract on the oxidation induced by nitrogen dioxide and ultraviolet radiation. Bioscience, biotechnology, and biochemistry. 68(4): 781-786.
- [64] H. Moteki, H. Hibasami, Y. Yamada, H. Katsuzaki, K. Imai, T. Komiya. (2002). Specific induction of apoptosis by 1, 8-cineole in two human leukemia cell lines, but not a in human stomach cancer cell line. Oncology reports. 9(4): 757-760.
- [65] M.R. Loizzo, R. Tundis, F. Menichini, A. Saab, G. Statti, F. Menichini. (2008). Antiproliferative effects of essential oils and their major constituents in human renal adenocarcinoma and amelanotic melanoma cells. Cell Proliferation. 41(6): 1002-1012.
- [66] M.S. Owolabi, A.L. Ogundajo, N.S. Dosoky, W.N. Setzer. (2013). The cytotoxic activity of Annona muricata leaf oil from Badagary, Nigeria. American Journal of Essential Oils and Natural Products. 1(1): 1-3.
- [67] D.C. Soares, N.A. Portella, M.F.d.S. Ramos, A.C. Siani, E.M. Saraiva. (2013). Trans-β-caryophyllene: an effective antileishmanial compound found in commercial copaiba oil (Copaifera spp.). Evidencebased complementary and alternative medicine. 2013.
- [68] E. Izumi, T.n. Ueda-Nakamura, V.F. Veiga Jr, A.C. Pinto, C.V. Nakamura. (2012). Terpenes from Copaifera demonstrated in vitro antiparasitic and synergic activity. Journal of Medicinal Chemistry. 55(7): 2994-3001.
- [69] A.C. De-Oliveira, L.F. Ribeiro-Pinto, F.J. Paumgartten. (1997). In vitro inhibition of CYP2B1 monooxygenase by β-myrcene and other monoterpenoid compounds. Toxicology letters. 92(1): 39-46.

- [70] W. Chaouki, D.Y. Leger, B. Liagre, J.L. Beneytout, M. Hmamouchi. (2009). Citral inhibits cell proliferation and induces apoptosis and cell cycle arrest in MCF-7 cells. Fundamental & clinical pharmacology. 23(5): 549-556.
- [71] N.S. Dosoky, S.K. Pokharel, W.N. Setzer. (2015). Leaf essential oil composition, antimicrobial and cytotoxic activities of Cleistocalyx operculatus from Hetauda, Nepal. Am. J. Essent. Oils Nat. Prod. 2(5): 34-37.
- [72] D. Mitić-Ćulafić, B. Žegura, B. Nikolić, B. Vuković-Gačić, J. Knežević-Vukčević, M. Filipič. (2009). Protective effect of linalool, myrcene and eucalyptol against t-butyl hydroperoxide induced genotoxicity in bacteria and cultured human cells. Food and chemical toxicology. 47(1): 260-266.
- [73] M. Sawamura, S.H. Sun, K. Ozaki, J. Ishikawa, H. Ukeda. (1999). Inhibitory effects of citrus essential oils and their components on the formation of N-nitrosodimethylamine. Journal of agricultural and food chemistry. 47(12): 4868-4872.
- [74] G.K. Jayaprakasha, B.S. Jena, P.S. Negi, K.K. Sakariah. (2002). Evaluation of antioxidant activities and antimutagenicity of turmeric oil: a byproduct from curcumin production. Zeitschrift für Naturforschung C. 57(9-10): 828-835.
- [75] P. Lekshmi, R. Arimboor, P. Indulekha, A. Nirmala Menon. (2012). Turmeric (Curcuma longa L.) volatile oil inhibits key enzymes linked to type 2 diabetes. International journal of food sciences and nutrition. 63(7): 832-834.
- [76] J. Hucklenbroich, R. Klein, B. Neumaier, R. Graf, G.R. Fink, M. Schroeter, M.A. Rueger. (2014). Aromatic-turmerone induces neural stem cell proliferation in vitro and in vivo. Stem cell research & therapy. 5: 1-9.
- [77] H.C. Su, R. Horvat, G. Jilani. (1982). Isolation, purification, and characterization of insect repellents from Curcuma longa L. Journal of agricultural and food chemistry. 30(2): 290-292.
- [78] L.A. Ferreira, O.B. Henriques, A.A. Andreoni, G.R. Vital, M.M. Campos, G.G. Habermehl, V.L. de Moraes. (1992). Antivenom and biological effects of ar-turmerone isolated from Curcuma longa (Zingiberaceae). Toxicon. 30(10): 1211-1218.
- [79] H.-S. Lee. (2006). Antimicrobial properties of turmeric (Curcuma longa L.) rhizome-derived arturmerone and curcumin. Food Science and Biotechnology. 15(4): 559-563.
- [80] J. Srivilai, N. Waranuch, A. Tangsumranjit, N. Khorana, K. Ingkaninan. (2018). Germacrone and sesquiterpene-enriched extracts from Curcuma aeruginosa Roxb. increase skin penetration of minoxidil, a hair growth promoter. Drug delivery and translational research. 8: 140-149.
- [81] Y. Liu, W. Wang, B. Fang, F. Ma, Q. Zheng, P. Deng, S. Zhao, M. Chen, G. Yang, G. He. (2013). Anti-tumor effect of germacrone on human hepatoma cell lines through inducing G2/M cell cycle arrest and promoting apoptosis. European Journal of Pharmacology. 698(1-3): 95-102.
- [82] H. Diastuti, Y.M. Syah, L.D. Juliawaty, M. Singgih.(2014). Antibacterial activity of germacrane type 328

sesquiterpenes from Curcuma heyneana rhizomes. Indonesian Journal of Chemistry. 14(1): 32-36.

- [83] O.A.A. Hamdi, L.J. Ye, M.N.A. Kamarudin, H. Hazni, M. Paydar, C.Y. Looi, J.A. Shilpi, H.A. Kadir, K. Awang. (2015). Neuroprotective and Antioxidant Constituents from Curcuma zedoaria Rhizomes. Records of Natural Products. 9(3).
- [84] S.H. Kim, K.O. Hong, J.K. Hwang, K.-K. Park. (2005). Xanthorrhizol has a potential to attenuate the high dose cisplatin-induced nephrotoxicity in mice. Food and chemical toxicology. 43(1): 117-122.
- [85] S.F. Oon, M. Nallappan, T.T. Tee, S. Shohaimi, N.K. Kassim, M.S.F. Sa'ariwijaya, Y.H. Cheah. (2015). Xanthorrhizol: A review of its pharmacological activities and anticancer properties. Cancer cell international. 15: 1-15.
- [86] S.K. Lee, C.-H. Hong, S.-K. Huh, S.-S. Kim, O.-J. Oh, H.-Y. Min, K.-K. Park, W.-Y. Chung, J.-K. Hwang. (2002). Suppressive effect of natural sesquiterpenoids on inducible cyclooxygenase (COX-2) and nitric oxide synthase (iNOS) activity in mouse macrophage cells. Journal of environmental pathology, toxicology and oncology. 21(2).
- [87] W. Chen, Y. Lu, J. Wu, M. Gao, A. Wang, B. Xu. (2011). Beta-elemene inhibits melanoma growth and metastasis via suppressing vascular endothelial growth factor-mediated angiogenesis. Cancer chemotherapy and pharmacology. 67: 799-808.
- [88] J. Liu, Z. Zhang, J. Gao, J. Xie, L. Yang, S. Hu. (2011). Downregulation effects of beta-elemene on the levels of plasma endotoxin, serum TNF-alpha, and hepatic CD14 expression in rats with liver fibrosis. Frontiers of Medicine. 5: 101-105.
- [89] Q.Q. Li, G. Wang, F. Huang, M. Banda, E. Reed. (2010). Antineoplastic effect of β -elemene on prostate cancer cells and other types of solid tumour cells. Journal of Pharmacy and pharmacology. 62(8): 1018-1027.
- [90] H.-J. Kim, F. Chen, C. Wu, X. Wang, H.Y. Chung, Z. Jin. (2004). Evaluation of antioxidant activity of Australian tea tree (Melaleuca alternifolia) oil and its components. Journal of agricultural and food chemistry. 52(10): 2849-2854.
- [91] R. Tisserand, R. Young. (2013). Essential oil safety: a guide for health care professionals. Elsevier Health Sciences: pp.
- [92] B. Hsu. (1980). The Use of Herbs in Anticancer Agents. The American journal of Chinese medicine. 8(04): 301-306.
- [93] J. Zhao, J.-s. Zhang, B. Yang, G.-P. Lv, S.-P. Li. (2010). Free radical scavenging activity and characterization of sesquiterpenoids in four species of Curcuma using a TLC bioautography assay and GC-MS analysis. Molecules. 15(11): 7547-7557.
- [94] F. Capetti, A. Marengo, C. Cagliero, E. Liberto, C. Bicchi, P. Rubiolo, B. Sgorbini. (2021). Adulteration of essential oils: A multitask issue for quality control. Three case studies: Lavandula angustifolia Mill., Citrus limon (L.) Osbeck and Melaleuca alternifolia (Maiden & Betche) cheel. Molecules. 26(18): 5610.

- [95] N.J. Sadgrove. (2022). Honest nutraceuticals, cosmetics, therapies, and foods (NCTFs): Standardization and safety of natural products. Critical Reviews in Food Science and Nutrition. 62(16): 4326-4341.
- [96] T.K.T. Do, F. Hadji-Minaglou, S. Antoniotti, X. Fernandez. (2015). Authenticity of essential oils. TrAC Trends in Analytical Chemistry. 66: 146-157.
- [97] C.L. Woolley, M.M. Suhail, B.L. Smith, K.E. Boren, L.C. Taylor, M.F. Schreuder, J.K. Chai, H. Casabianca, S. Haq, H.-K. Lin. (2012). Chemical differentiation of Boswellia sacra and Boswellia carterii essential oils by gas chromatography and chiral gas chromatography–mass spectrometry. Journal of chromatography A. 1261: 158-163.
- [98] H. Ofori, D. Hettiarachchi, T. Sostaric, F. Busetti, M.C. Boyce. (2019). High-performance thin-layer chromatographic fingerprinting of sandalwood essential oils. JPC-Journal of Planar Chromatography-Modern TLC. 32(3): 205-210.
- [99] T. Baj, E. Sieniawska, A. Ludwiczuk, J. Widelski, A. Kiełtyka-Dadasiewicz, K. Skalicka-Woźniak, K. Głowniak. (2017). Thin-layer chromatography— Fingerprint, antioxidant activity, and gas chromatography—Mass spectrometry profiling of several Origanum L. species. JPC-Journal of Planar Chromatography-Modern TLC. 30(5): 386-391.
- [100] M. Sharma, K. Grewal, R. Jandrotia, D.R. Batish, H.P. Singh, R.K. Kohli. (2022). Essential oils as anticancer agents: Potential role in malignancies, drug delivery mechanisms, and immune system enhancement. Biomedicine & Pharmacotherapy. 146: 112514.
- [101] L. Phillips, L. Malspeis, J. Supko. (1995). Pharmacokinetics of active drug metabolites after oral administration of perillyl alcohol, an investigational antineoplastic agent, to the dog. Drug Metabolism and Disposition. 23(7): 676-680.
- [102] E.J. Lenardão, L. Savegnago, R.G. Jacob, F.N. Victoria, D.M. Martinez. (2016). Antinociceptive effect of essential oils and their constituents: an update review. Journal of the Brazilian Chemical Society. 27: 435-474.
- [103] D. Scuteri, M. Crudo, L. Rombolà, C. Watanabe, H. Mizoguchi, S. Sakurada, T. Sakurada, R. Greco, M.T. Corasaniti, L.A. Morrone. (2018). Antinociceptive effect of inhalation of the essential oil of bergamot in mice. Fitoterapia. 129: 20-24.
- [104] B.M. Nadjib. (2020). Effective antiviral activity of essential oils and their characteristic terpenes against coronaviruses: An update. J. Pharmacol. Clin. Toxicol. 8(1): 1138.
- [105] S. Pérez G, M. Zavala S, L. Arias G, M. Ramos L. (2011). Anti-inflammatory activity of some essential oils. Journal of Essential Oil Research. 23(5): 38-44.
- [106] E. Pandur, A. Balatinácz, G. Micalizzi, L. Mondello, A. Horváth, K. Sipos, G. Horváth. (2021). Antiinflammatory effect of lavender (Lavandula angustifolia Mill.) essential oil prepared during different plant phenophases on THP-1 macrophages. BMC Complementary Medicine and Therapies. 21: 1-17.

- [107] Q. Jiang, Y. Wu, H. Zhang, P. Liu, J. Yao, P. Yao, J. Chen, J. Duan. (2017). Development of essential oils as skin permeation enhancers: Penetration enhancement effect and mechanism of action. Pharmaceutical biology. 55(1): 1592-1600.
- [108] R. Amorati, M.C. Foti, L. Valgimigli. (2013). Antioxidant activity of essential oils. Journal of agricultural and food chemistry. 61(46): 10835-10847.
- [109] A. Ozkan, A. Erdogan, M. Sokmen, S. Tugrulay, O. Unal. (2010). Antitumoral and antioxidant effect of essential oils and in vitro antioxidant properties of essential oils and aqueous extracts from Salvia pisidica. Biologia. 65: 990-996.
- [110] E.J. Veldhuizen, J.L. Tjeerdsma-van Bokhoven, C. Zweijtzer, S.A. Burt, H.P. Haagsman. (2006). Structural requirements for the antimicrobial activity of carvacrol. Journal of agricultural and food chemistry. 54(5): 1874-1879.
- [111] S. Cox, C. Mann, J. Markham, H.C. Bell, J. Gustafson, J. Warmington, S.G. Wyllie. (2000). The mode of antimicrobial action of the essential oil of Melaleuca alternifolia (tea tree oil). Journal of applied microbiology. 88(1): 170-175.
- [112] C. Regnault-Roger, C. Vincent, J.T. Arnason. (2012). Essential oils in insect control: low-risk products in a high-stakes world. Annual review of entomology. 57: 405-424.
- [113] O. Koul, S. Walia, G. Dhaliwal. (2008). Essential oils as green pesticides: potential and constraints. Biopestic. Int. 4(1): 63-84.
- [114] M.S. Lee, J. Choi, P. Posadzki, E. Ernst. (2012). Aromatherapy for health care: an overview of systematic reviews. Maturitas. 71(3): 257-260.
- [115] P. Posadzki, A. Alotaibi, E. Ernst. (2012). Adverse effects of aromatherapy: a systematic review of case reports and case series. International Journal of Risk & Safety in Medicine. 24(3): 147-161.
- [116] J. Weaver. (2019). Lavender oil linked to early breast growth in girls. National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences Environmental Factor.
- [117] I. Bartoňková, Z. Dvořák. (2018). Assessment of endocrine disruption potential of essential oils of culinary herbs and spices involving glucocorticoid, androgen and vitamin D receptors. Food & function. 9(4): 2136-2144.
- [118] S. Fouyet, E. Olivier, P. Leproux, M. Dutot, P. Rat. (2022). Evaluation of Placental Toxicity of Five Essential Oils and Their Potential Endocrine-Disrupting Effects. Current Issues in Molecular Biology. 44(7): 2794-2810.
- [119] A. Annaházi, R. Róka, A. Rosztóczy, T. Wittmann. (2014). Role of antispasmodics in the treatment of irritable bowel syndrome. World journal of gastroenterology: WJG. 20(20): 6031.
- [120] I. Baiu, M.T. Hawn. (2018). Gallstones and biliary colic. JAMA. 320(15): 1612-1612.
- [121] E. Yarnell, K. Abascal. (2011). Spasmolytic Botanicals: Relaxing Smooth Muscle with Herbs. Alternative and Complementary Therapies. 17(3): 169-174.

- [122] J. Sharifi-Rad, A. Sureda, G.C. Tenore, M. Daglia, M. Sharifi-Rad, M. Valussi, R. Tundis, M. Sharifi-Rad, M.R. Loizzo, A.O. Ademiluyi. (2017). Biological activities of essential oils: From plant chemoecology to traditional healing systems. Molecules. 22(1): 70.
- [123] S.C. Heghes, O. Vostinaru, L.M. Rus, C. Mogosan, C.A. Iuga, L. Filip. (2019). Antispasmodic effect of essential oils and their constituents: A review. Molecules. 24(9): 1675.
- [124] A. Sena-Lopes, F.S.B. Bezerra, R.N. das Neves, R.B. de Pinho, M.T.d.O. Silva, L. Savegnago, T. Collares, F. Seixas, K. Begnini, J.A.P. Henriques. (2018). Chemical composition, immunostimulatory, cytotoxic and antiparasitic activities of the essential oil from Brazilian red propolis. PLoS One. 13(2): e0191797.
- [125] P.S. Chavan, S.G. Tupe. (2014). Antifungal activity and mechanism of action of carvacrol and thymol against vineyard and wine spoilage yeasts. Food Control. 46: 115-120.
- [126] D.A. de Castro Nizio, R.Y. Fujimoto, A.N. Maria, P.C.F. Carneiro, C.C.S. França, N. da Costa Sousa, F. de Andrade Brito, T.S. Sampaio, M. de Fátima Arrigoni-Blank, A.F. Blank. (2018). Essential oils of Varronia curassavica accessions have different activity against white spot disease in freshwater fish. Parasitology research. 117: 97-105.
- [127] M. Coradi, M. Zanetti, A. Valério, D. de Oliveira, A. da Silva, S.M.d.A.G. Ulson, A.A.U. de Souza. (2018). Production of antimicrobial textiles by cotton fabric functionalization and pectinolytic enzyme immobilization. Materials Chemistry and Physics. 208: 28-34.
- [128] C.F. Carson, B.J. Mee, T.V. Riley. (2002). Mechanism of action of Melaleuca alternifolia (tea tree) oil on Staphylococcus aureus determined by time-kill, lysis, leakage, and salt tolerance assays and electron microscopy. Antimicrobial agents and chemotherapy. 46(6): 1914-1920.
- [129] V. Kumar, D. Tyagi. (2013). Chemical composition and biological activities of essential oils of genus Tanacetum-a review. Journal of Pharmacognosy and Phytochemistry. 2(3): 159-163.
- [130] H. Mensing, W. Kimmig, B. Hausen. (1985). Airborne contact dermatitis. Der Hautarzt; Zeitschrift fur Dermatologie, Venerologie, und Verwandte Gebiete. 36(7): 398-402.
- [131] B. Hausen, P. Osmundsen. (1983). Contact allergy to parthenolide in Tanacetum parthenium (L.) Schulz-Bip.(feverfew, Asteraceae) and crossreactions to related sesquiterpene lactone containing Compositae species. Acta dermato-venereologica. 63(4): 308-314.
- [132] P. Benoit, H. Fong, G. Svoboda, N. Farmsworth. (1976). Biological and phytochemical evaluation of plants. XIV. Antiinflammatory evaluation of 163 species of plants. Lloydia. 39(2-3): 160-171.
- [133] K.A. Mark, R.R. Brancaccio, N.A. Soter, D.E. Cohen. (1999). Allergic contact and photoallergic contact dermatitis to plant and pesticide allergens. Archives of dermatology. 135(1): 67-70.

- [134] M. Abad, P. Bermejo, S. Valverde, A. Villar. (1994). Anti-inflammatory activity of hydroxyachillin, a sesquiterpene lactone from Tanacetum microphyllum. Planta medica. 60(03): 228-231.
- [135] Y. Sashida, H. Nakata, H. Shimomura, M. Kagaya. (1983). Sesquiterpene lactones from pyrethrum flowers.
- [136] L.R. Lizarraga-Valderrama. (2021). Effects of essential oils on central nervous system: Focus on mental health. Phytotherapy research. 35(2): 657-679.
- [137] M. Moss, J. Cook, K. Wesnes, P. Duckett. (2003). Aromas of rosemary and lavender essential oils differentially affect cognition and mood in healthy adults. International Journal of Neuroscience. 113(1): 15-38.
- [138] C. Higley. (1998). Reference guide for essential oils. Abundant Health: pp.
- [139] T. Moon, J.M. Wilkinson, H.M. Cavanagh. (2006). Antiparasitic activity of two Lavandula essential oils against Giardia duodenalis, Trichomonas vaginalis and Hexamita inflata. Parasitology research. 99: 722-728.
- [140] I.-S. Rim, C.-H. Jee. (2006). Acaricidal effects of herb essential oils against Dermatophagoides farinae and D. pteronyssinus (Acari: Pyroglyphidae) and qualitative analysis of a herb Mentha pulegium (pennyroyal). The Korean Journal of Parasitology. 44(2): 133.
- [141] M. Tellez, M. Kobaisy, S. Duke, K. Schrader, F. Dayan, J. Romagni. (2002). Terpenoid-based defense in plants and other organisms. Lipid Technology. 354.
- [142] R. Lambert, P.N. Skandamis, P.J. Coote, G.J. Nychas. (2001). A study of the minimum inhibitory concentration and mode of action of oregano essential oil, thymol and carvacrol. Journal of applied microbiology. 91(3): 453-462.
- [143] E.M. Soylu, S. Soylu, S. Kurt. (2006). Antimicrobial activities of the essential oils of various plants against tomato late blight disease agent Phytophthora infestans. Mycopathologia. 161: 119-128.
- [144] A. Manjamalai, G. Jiflin, V.B. Grace. (2012). Study on the effect of essential oil of Wedelia chinensis (Osbeck) against microbes and inflammation. Asian J. Pharm. Clin. Res. 5: 155-163.