# **Properties of Pistacia lentiscus L.**

Subjects: Medical Informatics

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*Pistacia lentiscus L.* (PIL) is a wild-growing shrub rich in terpenoids and polyphenols, the oil and extracts of which have been widely used against inflammation and infections, and as wound healing agents.

Keywords: essential oils; terpenoids; water extracts; ethanol extracts; natural antimi- crobials; natural anti-inflammatory; polyphenols; Mediterranean plants; pharmaceutical plants

## 1. Introduction

The undesirable side effects of antibiotics in addition to increasing microbial resistance have created a demand for new alternative molecules [1]. Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) or even steroids, often inducing toxic side-effects [2] have also gained further interest as molecules presenting an anti-inflammatory character.

On these bases, there is an increasing attention towards revisiting plants for drug discovery, proving scientifically their role as popular remedies to diseases [3][4]. Approved therapeutic agents such as statins, tubulin-binding anticancer drugs and some types of immunosuppressants are examples of molecules originating from natural plants [5].

In the Mediterranean region, folk medicine has used extracts and oils derived, e.g., from *Malva* species  $^{[1]}$ , *Thymbra capitate* (L.) Cav.  $^{[2]}$  and *Olea europea* L.  $^{[3]}$  for many years.

The biological activity of essential oils (EOs) and polyphenols from plants and herbs is related to the presence of different chemical classes. In this regard, terpenes and terpenoids in EOs are promising agents in the prevention and treatment of diseases  $^{[6][7]}$ . Terpenes are hydrocarbons, and terpenes containing additional functional groups, usually oxygencontaining, are called terpenoids  $^{[8]}$ . They are lipophilic, and interact with cell membranes, neuronal and muscle ion channels, neurotransmitter receptors, G-protein coupled receptors, second messenger systems and enzymes  $^{[9]}$ . Their beneficial effects and their roles have been evaluated for many decades in human disease, such as inflammatory diseases, tumorigenesis and neurodegeneration using cell and animal models, suggesting terpenes and terpenoids as potential chemopreventive and therapeutic agents  $^{[10]}$ . Further interesting capabilities have been ascribed to polyphenols from botanical species, with molecules including tannins, flavonoids and lignin-carbohydrate complexes having been associated with strong antimicrobial, anti-inflammatory and antioxidant properties  $^{[11]}$ .

In this context, *Pistacia lentiscus* L. (PIL) is a wild-growing shrub rich in terpenoids and polyphenols <sup>[12]</sup>. PIL includes numerous wild and cultivated species, distributed in the Mediterranean and Middle Eastern areas. Although there has been broad investigation on the aromatic natural resin and its clinical application <sup>[13][14]</sup>, the scientific data regarding PIL oil or extracts of leaves, fruits and woods have been not summarized yet. Today, the scientific interest in these edible and not-edible parts of PIL is wide-spreading, as some studies underlined the potential benefit against inflammation and infections <sup>[12][15][16]</sup>. Additionally, the high content of polyphenols found in the extracts make them attractive against chronic and degenerative diseases and as nutraceuticals in human health <sup>[15]</sup>.

Given the above considerations, the purpose of this review was to screen the biological properties of PIL EO and extracts of leaves and fruits. Starting from this, we searched for the phytochemistry of PIL growing in the different geographical areas and reported on the anti-inflammatory and antimicrobial abilities of the plant. For that purpose, a search for the existing literature was made by using data bases such as MEDLINE/PubMed and the Cochrane Library electronic databases.

### 2. Botany and Taxonomy

#### PIL Belongs to the Genus Pistacia, Anacardiaceae Family, Order Sapindales

Different classifications have been proposed regarding the *Pistacia* genus. One of the most known is that of Zohary  $\frac{[16]}{}$ , who classified the genus into four main groups according to the characteristics of the leaf and nut morphology (<u>Table 1</u>).

Table 1. Taxonomy description (groups and species) of the *Pistacia* genus (adapted from Zohary [16]).

| Group         | Species                             |
|---------------|-------------------------------------|
| Lenticella    | Pistacia mexicana HBK               |
|               | Pistacia texana Swingle             |
| Eu lentiscus  | Pistacia lentiscus L. (mastic tree) |
|               | Pistacia saporte Burbar             |
|               | Pistacia weinmannifolia Poisson     |
| Butmela       | Pistacia atlantica Desf.            |
| Eu terebintus | Pistacia chinensis Bge.             |
|               | Pistacia khinjuk Stocks             |
|               | Pistacia palaestina Bois.           |
|               | Pistacia terebinthus L.             |
|               | Pistacia vera L.                    |

In the Mediterranean area (Middle East and Europe), the three most represented species are the following:

- Pistacia vera L., which is characteristic of the temperate areas of Asia Minor, and grown abundantly in Greece, the
  Aegean Islands and in Sicily (Italy). This species has been known since ancient times as attested in reports of the Old
  Testament. Additionally, there have been notices of Pistacia vera by Persian and Greek populations since the 6th and
  the 3rd century B.C., respectively.
- *Pistacia terebinthus* L., originating from the island of Chios, has spread to all the Mediterranean coasts over the centuries. Today, it is mostly present in Portugal, Palestine and North Africa, and in the Middle East of Asia till the western borders of India. In Italy, it is mainly found in the southern part of the peninsula and in Sardinia and Sicily.
- Pistacia lentiscus L., also known as mastic tree or lentisk (Figure 1).



Figure 1. Pistacia lentiscus L., also known as mastic tree or lentisk.

PIL represents one of the most typical shrubs in the Mediterranean maquis (shrubland) of Europe, Morocco, Turkey, Iraq and Iran  $^{[17]}$ . In Italy, it is characteristic of the sensitive ecosystem, like that of Sardinia  $^{[18]}$ , where it grows along the coast up to 700 m above sea level.

PIL is an evergreen environmentally sustainable shrub. It is well-adapted to harsh growing conditions, dryness and a warm environment, which all exercise an influence on the genotype and richness of secondary metabolites [19]. The plant is dioecious, where male and female flowers are on independent trees. The leaves are leathery, bright green and alternate. They are arranged in compound, pinnate whorls. The unisexual flowers are grouped in clusters. The globular fruit is a fleshy drupe, which ripens in August and ranges in color from red to brown in view of the different degrees of maturity [17]. PIL can develop leaf galls due to insect attack, particularly aphid attacks [20]. Common aphid species, such as *Slavum wertheimae* and *Baizongia pistaciae L.*, manipulate the leaves to form tumorous galls for the safety and nutriment of their larvae [21]. The galls are rich in volatile-like terpenes with an abundance of monoterpenes,  $\alpha$  -pinene and limonene [22]. Their chemical composition differs from that of the healthy leaves, which have in general a higher content of sesquiterpenes [22].

#### 3. Historical and Cultural Use

PIL has had a wide range of applications over the centuries. One of the oldest dates back to the Nuragic civilization (1800 to 238 BCE) and was ascribed to the Sardinian population: the oil obtained by cold-pressing the berries was widely used for social purposes, i.e., home or votive lighting lamps, cooking, as well as as a popular remedy [17]. This habit is attested to by the presence of residues of "olium lentiscinum" often found during archaeological excavations in "torcularia" (ancient oil mills) [18].

Today, PIL is considered as an environment phytostabilizer due to the ability to detoxify the soil from harmful pollutants and heavy metals  $\frac{[23]}{2}$ . Furthermore, the plant represents an important source to increase milk quality and dairy products from ruminants browsing the Mediterranean maguis  $\frac{[24]}{2}$ .

### 4. Ethnopharmacology

The ethnopharmacological survey on the medicinal use of PIL is reported in Table 2.

Table 2. Ethnopharmacological uses of Pistacia lentiscus L.

| Geographical Area   | Ailment/Uses  | Ref.                                     |
|---|---|--|
| Sardinia, Italy   | Oral cavity inflammation and infection, tooth ache, osteoarthritis, bronchitis, cough sedative, antipyretic, allergies, asthma, ulcerations, gastrointestinal disorders, wound healing and haemostatic  | [19][25][26]<br>[27][28][29]<br>[30][31] |
| Southern regions of Italy<br>(Calabria and Campania)                | Inflammation of the mouth, tooth ache, mycosis, herpes and refreshing feet  | [27][32]                                 |
| Central regions of Italy<br>(Abruzzi, Marche and<br>Tuscany), Spain | Hypertension and cardiac diseases   |  |
| Spain   | Analgesic, teeth strengthening, hypertension and cardiac diseases   |  |
| Tunisia   | Antipyretic, astringent, eczema, paralysis, antimicrobial, throat infections, asthma, Tunisia hypertension, cardiac diseases, paralysis, diuretic properties, renal stones, jaundice, antiatherogenic effect, antihepatotoxic and gastrointestinal diseases |  |
| Algeria   | Stomach ache, dyspepsia, peptic ulcer, diarrhea and rheumatism  | [ <u>36</u> ]                            |
| Morocco and<br>North Africa   | Hypertension, cardiac diseases and diabetes   | [37]                                     |
| Libya   | Immuno-stimulant and antimicrobial  | [23]                                     |
| Jordan  | Ameliorate jaundice   | [38][39]                                 |
| Israel  | Heartburn and soothes stomach   | [40]                                     |
| Iran  | Gum tissue strengthened, breath deodorizer, brain and liver tonic and gastrointestinal ailments   | [41][42]                                 |

| Geographical Area | Ailment/Uses  | Ref. |
|-------------------|---|------|
| Turkey            | Throat infections, asthma, eczema, stomach ache, renal stones, paralysis,<br>diarrhea, jaundice, anti-inflammatory, antimicrobial, antipyretic, stimulant and<br>astringent | [43] |

As previously referred to, there are few written indications on the medicinal use of the oil as a crude compound, or of the extracts as well. Drinking water extracts and topical application of the extracts or even whole parts of the plant (woods or leaves) have been the most common means of antagonizing gastrointestinal, hepatic, urinary, pulmonary and neurological diseases. In fact, the medicinal value of PIL in popular medicine covers a wide range of diseases, mainly including inflammatory processes and infections.

The Sardinian population has always found the medicinal properties of PIL highly appealing. A large number of publications report PIL oil and water extracts as useful means against a wide variety of inflammatory diseases, infections, allergies  $\frac{[21][27][28][32][33]}{[27][28][32][33]}$  and gastrointestinal disorders  $\frac{[28][29][30]}{[28][29][30]}$ , and as wound healing  $\frac{[31]}{[31]}$ . It is further interesting to note that the Sardinian population administrated PIL as a smoke obtained by burning or boiling the soft wood and leaves, particularly in the cases of osteoarthritis, bronchitis and allergies  $\frac{[30]}{[30]}$ . In addition, PIL is still used as a remedy toward tooth ache and gingival inflammation by administering extracts from the leaves as oral mouthwash, beverages or by directly chewing the soft stems and leaves  $\frac{[30]}{[30]}$ .

Similar beneficial effects have been reported by using the plants growing in the Southern (Campania) [32] and in the center (Abruzzo, Marche and Toscana) of Italy, in Tunisia [27] and in Spain [34].

PIL has been one of most used plants in Israeli and neighboring countries' traditional pharmacology  $\frac{[40]}{4}$ . In Jordan, it was commonly used to antagonize jaundice  $\frac{[38][39]}{4}$ . In Algeria, it is known as antimicrobial, antioxidant, hypotensive and hypoglycemic agent  $\frac{[44]}{4}$ . In Morocco and Tunisia  $\frac{[35][37]}{4}$ , PIL has been largely used as a remedy against gastrointestinal, kidney and hepatic disorders, in addition to being used to treat hypertension, diabetes, cardiac diseases, coughs, sore throats and eczema. Similar applications are reported in Turkey  $\frac{[43]}{4}$  and in Iran  $\frac{[41][42]}{4}$ . Meanwhile, in Tunisia, Spain and in the center of Italy, it has emerged as an agent against hypertension and heart diseases  $\frac{[27][37][41][42][43]}{4}$ .

Regarding the veterinary use, in Sardinia, domestic animals are still treated by PIL wood to combat gastrointestinal disorders, and by swab bark in wound healing procedures and skin diseases [45]. Meanwhile, in Spain, the leaves are mentioned to treat specifically canine distemper [33].

# 5. Phytochemical Constituents

Mainly leaves and fruits are used for preparations of EO and also of water and alcoholic extracts. In <u>Table 3</u>, the major compounds of the EO and the extracts are listed. Hydro-distillation using Clevenger-type devices, and ethanol solvent have been the more common methods to obtain, respectively, the oil and extracts from leaves and fruits. However, the oil obtained by hydro-distillation and the extracts by solvents can have different organoleptic profiles and chemical compositions. These differences, in turn, will affect some properties, among which is the antimicrobial capacity, which is reported to be higher in a material solvent extract in comparison to a hydro-distilled [46]. Additionally, gas chromatographymass spectroscopy (GC/MS) and high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) have been the most useful means to quantify phytochemically the oils and extracts, respectively [47].

Table 3. Chemical profiles of Pistacia lentiscus L.

| Plant Material      | Origin Main Components of Essential Oils or Plant Extracts |   | Test Assays | Ref.          |
|---------------------|--|---|-------------|---------------|
| Essential oils from |  |   |             |               |
| Leaves              | Spain  | β-myrcene (19%), α-terpineol + terpinen-4-ol (15%), α-pinene (11%)                                  | GC-MS       | [ <u>48</u> ] |
| Unripe fruit        |  | β-myrcene (54%), α-pinene (22%),  | GC-MS       |               |
| Ripe fruit          |  | β-myrcene (19%), α-pinene (11%), δ-3-carene   | GC-MS       |               |
| Leaves              | Egypt  | δ-3-carene (65%), sesquiterpene alcohols (4%)   | GC-MS       | [ <u>49</u> ] |
| Leaves              | Greece   | Myrcene (20.6%), germacrene D (13.3%), E-caryophyllene (8.3%), α-cadinol (7.3%), t5-cadinene (7.0%) | GC-MS       | [ <u>50</u> ] |

| Plant Material   | Origin                      | Main Components of Essential Oils or Plant Extracts   | Test Assays      | Ref.          |
|------------------|-----------------------------|---|------------------|---------------|
| Leaves           | Turkey                      | Terpinen-4-ol (29.9%), α-terpineol, (11.6%), limonene (10.6%), (Z)-3-Hex-1-enyl benzoate (6.7%), α-pinene (4.2%), β-caryophyllene (3.2%)  | GC-MS            | [ <u>51</u> ] |
| Leaves           | Morocco                     | Myrcene (39.2%), limonene (10.3%), β-gurjunene (7.8), germacrene (4.3%), α-pinene (2.9%), muurolene (2.9%)  | GC-FID;<br>GC-MS | [ <u>52</u> ] |
| Leaves           | Tunisia                     | α-pinene (16.8%), 4-terpinenol (11.9%), β-phellandrene (8.9%),<br>sabinene (5.7%9, y-terpinene (5.5%) and β-pinene (4.3%)   | GC-MS            | [ <u>53</u> ] |
| Aerial parts     | Algeria<br>(Algiers)        | Longifolene (12.8%), γ-cadinene (6.2%), trans-β-terpineol (5%), α-acorneol (4.6%), γ-muurolene (4.2%), β-pinene (3.7%)  | GC, GC-MS        | [ <u>54</u> ] |
|                  | Algeria<br>(Tizi-<br>Ouzou) | Longifolene (16.4%), trans- $\beta$ -terpineol (15.6%), terpinen-4-ol (7%), y-muurolene (5.7%), $\beta$ -pinene (3.3%), $\alpha$ -pinene (2.8%)   | GC, GC-MS        |               |
|                  | Algeria<br>(Oran)           | α-pinene (19%), trans-β-terpineol (13.1%), sabinene (12.6%), β-pinene, (6.5%), (E)-β-ocimene (5.5%), longifolene (5.2%)   | GC, GC-MS        |               |
| Leaves           | Sardinia<br>(Italy)         | α-pinene (14.8–22.6%), terpinen-4-ol (14.2–28.3%), β-myrcene (1.0–18.3%), <i>p</i> -cymene (14.8–16.2%), sabinene (2.5–8.1%), limonene (0.9–3.8%)   | GC-MS            | [ <u>19</u> ] |
| Leaves           | Greece                      | α-pinene (9.4–24.9%), terpinen-4-ol (6.8–10.6%), p-cymene (0.5–7.5%), limonene (9.0–17.8%), y-terpinene (3.1–3.6%)  | GC-MS            | [ <u>55</u> ] |
| Leaves           | Sardinia<br>(Italy)         | α-pinene, α-thujene, camphene, sabinene, β-pinene, myrcene, α-phellandrene, α-terpinene, para-cymene, β-phellandrene, transocemene, y-terpene, terpinolene, 2-nonanone, linalool, isopentyl isovalerate, terpin-4-ol, α-terpiniol and others. | GC-MS            | [ <u>29</u> ] |
| Leaves           | Algeria                     | β-caryophyllene (54–198 μg g $^{-1}$ dw), δ-cadinene (15–186 μg g $^{-1}$ dw), cubebol (15–117 μg g $^{-1}$ dw), β-bisabolene (22.1- 105 μg g $^{-1}$ dw), α-pinene (1.9–105 μg g $^{-1}$ dw), γ-muurolene (29.7–67.3 μg g $^{-1}$ dw)        | GC-MS            | [ <u>56]</u>  |
| Leaves           | Sardinia<br>(Italy)         | Germacrene D (19.9%), β-caryophyllene (6.6%), α-pinene (6.3%), myrcene (3.9%), β-phellandrene (3.7%), α-humulene (2.4%)   | GC-MS            | [12]          |
| Leaves           | Eastern<br>Morocco          | Taforalt and Saidia areas: limonene, $\alpha$ -pinene, $\alpha$ -terpineol and $\beta$ -caryophyllene;Laayoune and Jerada areas: myrcene and $\beta$ -caryophyllene.  | GC-MS            | [ <u>57</u> ] |
| Fresh leaves     | Greece                      | δ-germacrene (24.78%), myrcene (19.5%), α-cadinol (9.53%), γ-cadinene (5.59%), trans-caryophyllene (5.03%), limonene (4.84%)  | GC-MS            | <u>[58]</u>   |
| Dried leaves     |                             | δ-cadinene (17.04%), α-amorphene (10.32%), δ-germacrene (9.01%), trans-caryophyllene (6.32%), α-cubebene (5.55%), naphthalene (4.13%)   | GC-MS            |               |
| Ripe fruits      | Tunisia                     | Phenolic composition of seed oil (concentrations not shown)   | GC-MS            | [ <u>59</u> ] |
| Leaves           | Tunisia                     | Germacrene D (11.9%), pinene (9.9%), limonene (8.5%), $\delta$ -cadinene (8.5%), $\beta$ -caryophyllene (8.2%), terpinen 4-ol (5.1%)  | GC-FID,<br>GC-MS | [ <u>60</u> ] |
| Fruits           | Tunisia                     | α-pinene (13.35%), α-phellandrene (10.12%), β-phellandrene (10.45%), sabinene (7.01%), germacrene-D (6.86%), β-caryophyllene (4.58%)  | GC-MS            | [ <u>61</u> ] |
| Leaves           | Tuscany<br>(Italy)          | α-pinene (24.6–9.2%), 1–4 terpineol (14.9–7.1%), β-phellandrene (11.4–4.7%), β-pinene (8.6–1.2%), β-mircene (9.2–0.7%), α-terpineol (8.4–4.9%)  | GC-MS            | [ <u>62</u> ] |
| Leaves and twigs | Sardinia<br>(Italy)         | Terpinen-4-ol (25.2%), α-phellandrene (11.9%), β-phellandrene (10.2%), γ-terpinene (10.1%), α-pinene (7.6%)   | GC-FID,<br>GC-MS | [ <u>63</u> ] |
| Fruits           | Tunisia                     | 4-{3-[(2hydroxybenzoyl) amino] anilino}4-oxobut-2-enoic acid (28.96%), β-myrcene (11.47%), 3-pentadecylphenol (8.51%), p-tolyl ester (8.36%), amino formic acid (7.51%)   | GC-MS            | [ <u>64</u> ] |
| Male flowers     | Tunisia                     | β-caryophyllene (12.8%), germacrene-D (9.6%), elemol (8.9%), α-terpineol (7.8%), γ-cadinene (7.1%), bornyl acetate (6.2%)   | GC-MS            | [ <u>65</u> ] |
| Female flowers   |                             | α-limonene (28.7%), germacrene-D (23.7%), elemol (6.7%), β-caryophyllene (6.6%), α-pinene (6.0%), bornyl acetate (3.7%)   | GC-MS            |               |
|                  |                             |   |                  |               |

| Plant Material                                 | Origin              | Main Components of Essential Oils or Plant Extracts  | Test Assays                  | Re          |
|--|---------------------|--|------------------------------|-------------|
| Leaves of male plants at flowering             |                     | α-limonene (18.8%), germacrene-D (13.1%), β-caryophyllene (8.8%), δ-cadinene (8.7%), γ-cadinene (6.2%), α-pinene (4.8%)  | GC-MS                        |             |
| Leaves of female plants<br>at flowering        |                     | Germacrene-D (20.7%), $\delta$ -cadinene (15.6%), $\beta$ -caryophyllene (12.1%), $\gamma$ -cadinene (6.6%), $\delta$ -cadinol (6.1%), $\alpha$ -limonene (5%)   | GC-MS                        |             |
| Ripe fruits                                    |                     | β-myrcene (75.6%), α-pinene (12.6%), α-limonene (3.2%), α-terpineol (1.4%), camphene (0.8%)  | GC-MS                        |             |
| Leaves   | Morocco             | Myrcene (33.5%), $\alpha$ -pinene (19.2%), limonene (6.6%), $\alpha$ -phellandrene (4.6%), $\gamma$ -terpineol (3.7%), $\alpha$ -terpineol (3.6%)  | GC-MS                        | B<br>[66    |
| Leaves   | Sardinia<br>(Italy) | α-pinene (16.9%), terpinen-4-ol (16.5%), sabinene (7.8%), α-phellandrene (7.4%), γ-terpinene (6.3%), β-pinene (4.3%)   | GC-MS                        | [ <u>67</u> |
| Plant extracts/solvent used                    |                     |  |                              |             |
| Leaves/ethyl acetate<br>and methanol           | Italy               | 3,5-O-digalloyl quinic acid ( $26.8\pm0.15$ mg/g DW), 3,4,5-O-trigalloyl quinic acid ( $10.3\pm2.45$ mg/g DW), 5-O- galloyl quinic acid ( $9.6\pm2.45$ mg/g DW), myricetin 3-O-rhamnoside ( $6.8\pm1.04$ mg/g DW), myricetin 3-O-rutinoside ( $4.5\pm0.18$ mg/g DW), myricetin glucuronide ( $3.9\pm0.65$ mg/g DW)                       | HPLC-DAD,<br>HPLC-MS,<br>NMR | [ <u>68</u> |
| Berries/methanol                               | Apulia<br>(Italy)   | Cyanidin 3-O-glucoside (71%), delphinidin 3-O-glucoside,<br>cyanidin 3- O arabinoside (28–31%)   | HPLC-DAD-<br>MS              | [69         |
| Fruits during<br>maturation/petroleum<br>ether | Tunisia             | Oils, fatty acids and sterols  | GC-MS                        | [35         |
| Leaves/methanol                                | Algeria             | 46 compounds (most abundant flavonoids, phenolic acids and their derivatives)  | HPLC-ESI-<br>QTOF            | [70         |
| Leaves/methanol                                | Italy               | 46 secondary metabolites   | LC-ESI-<br>MS/MS             | [ <u>71</u> |
| Fruits/methanol-water                          | Tunisia             | Total phenolic acids 436.4–2762.7 mg/kg; total flavones 75.3–1222.9 mg/kg; total flavonols 24.2–377.4 mg/kg; total secoiridoids 12.6–366.8 mg/kg; total phenols 538.0–4260.6 mg/kg   | HPLC-<br>DAD/MSD             | [72         |
| Leaves/ethanol                                 | Italy               | Tannin derivatives (70.5%), myricetin derivatives (22%), quercetin derivatives (7.2%)  | HPLC-DAD                     | [73         |
| Leaves/methanol Egypt                          |                     | α-pinene (38.1%), 3,5-O-digalloyl quinic acid (13.5%), D-limonene (11.9%), α-phellandrene (10.1%), β-pinene (9.5%), γ muurolene (8.0%), luteolin-3-O-rutinoside (7.8%), quercetin 3-O-di-hexose O-pentose (7.6%), 3,4,5-O-trigalloyl quinic acid (6.1%), quercetin 3-O-glucuronide (4.6%), epicatechin 3-gallate (4.5%), camphene (3.8%) | UHPLC-ESI-<br>MS, GC-MS      | [ <u>74</u> |

PIL EO is constituted by a mixture of terpenes and terpenoids, mainly monoterpenes and sesquiterpenes, which are also responsible for the characteristic smell and flavoring of the plant  $\frac{[12][16][21][31]}{[12][31]}$ . It has been reported that terpenes in PIL are more genetically than environmentally related  $\frac{[75]}{12}$ . Nevertheless, the environment of growing, seasonability of harvesting and kind of material (edible or not-edible parts of the plant) have to be considered when explaining the differences in chemistry of the oils and extracts  $\frac{[19]}{12}$ . Up to 64 chemical constituents have been reported in the PIL EO fingerprint, in addition to other fractions that cannot be quantified by the assays  $\frac{[67]}{12}$ . Some of these terpenoids are constituent fractions of cannabis sativa  $\frac{[9]}{12}$ , and called "non-cannabinoids terpenoids". In PIL oil, non-cannabinoid terpenoids are more likely to be represented by  $\alpha$ -pinene, myrcene, limonene, (E)- $\beta$ -caryophyllene and  $\gamma$ - terpinene (Table 3). They are also included in the list of "terpene super classes"  $\frac{[9]}{12}$ . Furthermore, it is appealing to report that when non-cannabinoid terpenoids reach a concentration equal to or higher than 0.05% in an oil, they can confer pharmacological properties to such an oil, which can be classified as pharmaceutically active  $\frac{[76]}{12}$ .

In view of the prevalent fractions of monoterpenes and oxygenated sesquiterpenes, the EO can be grouped into different chemotypes  $^{[17]}$ . In this regard, the recurrent higher amount of  $\alpha$ -pinene (16.9–19.5%) and terpinen-4-ol (7.7–16.5%) in comparison to the other compounds, allowed the classification of the oil from the leaves of PIL growing in Sardinia as the  $\alpha$ -pinene/terpinen-4-ol chemotype  $^{[19][67]}$ . Similarly, the Greek oil from PIL leaves is the  $\alpha$ -pinene/terpinen-4-ol chemotype  $^{[55][55]}$ . Nevertheless, the simultaneous existence of different chemotypes in a place can be justified by dissimilar geographical sites of harvesting in that country. An example is represented by the Corsican chemotype, which is

expressed by three main phenotypes: the first is  $\alpha$ -pinene/terpinen-4-ol; the second is terpinen-4-ol/limonene; and the third is myrcene-rich (88%) [19]. Very characteristic is the high content of  $\delta$ -3-carene (65%) in the Egyptian oil [49], while the monoterpene terpinen-4-ol, together with  $\alpha$ -pinene and the sesquiterpene myrcene, are among the higher represented fractions in the chemistry of PIL EO from Spain, Morocco and Turkey [48][52][53]. Conversely,  $\alpha$ -pinene (65–86%) and  $\beta$ -myrcene (3%) are the major fractions which characterize the oils of mastic from plants growing in Spain [48].

Regarding the sesquiterpenes, limonene,  $\alpha$ - and  $\beta$ -caryophyllene, D-germacrene,  $\delta$ -cadinene and  $\alpha$ -cadinol,  $\beta$ -bisabolene,  $\beta$ -bourbonene and caryophyllene oxide, they have shown extremely variable concentrations in PIL EO [16][21] [48][77]. With respect to PIL leaves oil, the fruits oil changes significantly in its chemistry: limonene, sabinene and myrcene have been identified as the main representative fractions, in addition to  $\alpha$ -pinene [77]. Additionally, the oil from the berries is rich in anthocyanins [78], which in addition to the concentration of fatty acids, such as oleic acid and linoleic acid [79], are precious as antioxidant compounds [80].

Furthermore, comprehensive studies have been conducted analyzing methanol and alcohol extracts of PIL leaves, while at the same time investigating their chemical profile, where a high concentration of phenolproponoids is reported (<u>Table 3</u>).

In this regard, an interesting study was carried out by Romani and co-workers [68]. Using ethyl acetate and methanol fractions of PIL leaves, the authors identified a high polyphenol content in the extracts, which represented 7.5% of the leaf dry-weight. In this content, three major classes of secondary metabolites were identified: (i) gallic acid and galloyl derivatives of both glucose and quinic acid; (ii) flavonol glycosides, i.e., myricetin and quercetin glycosides; and (iii) anthocyanins, namely delphinidin 3-O-glucoside and cyanidin 3-O-glucoside. All of these represent strong antioxidant polyphenols, which have implications in the prevention of chronic and inflammatory diseases [80]. Additionally, 46 different compounds were identified in the methanol extracts of PIL leaves from plants growing in Algeria [70].

Among the compounds in PIL extracts there were discovered to be relevant antioxidant agents, which may attest not only to the activity of PIL in preventing diabetic complications, cholesterol absorption and lipid metabolism [81][82], but also the remarkable capacity of PIL in managing intestinal inflammatory diseases as reported in the ethnopharmacological survey (Table 2). In fact, recent studies validated the capacity of polyphenols in managing the microbial and metabolomic patterns in the body [83][84][85][86]. Particularly, at the intestinal tract, these compounds can stimulate the multiplication of beneficial microorganisms and prevent the adhesion or directly disrupt the membrane ions flux of pathogens [87][88].

## 6. Anti-Inflammatory and Antioxidative Activities

As mentioned above, the anti-inflammatory effect of PIL is of high relevance in ethnopharmacology. The presence of important anti-inflammatory terpenes in the composition of PIL EO can explain its efficacy. It is well-demonstrated that terpenes are capable of inhibiting several inflammatory molecules, e.g., IL-1 $\beta$ , IL-6, TNF $\alpha$  and COX-2 [ $\frac{|\Omega||\Omega|}{|\Omega|}$ ], thus disrupting the amplification of inflammatory mechanisms. Meanwhile, the anti-inflammatory properties of PIL extracts can be related to the richness of polyphenols, the interplay of which in the inflammatory cascade is mainly demonstrated toward macrophages by inhibiting multiple key regulators of the inflammatory response [ $\frac{|\Omega|}{2}$ ]. Additionally, polyphenols reduce the release of arachidonic acid, prostaglandins and leukotrienes directly related to the inhibition of COX and LOX [ $\frac{|\Omega|}{2}$ ]. Other considerations regard several flavonoids in polyphenols, which can directly modulate the expression of proinflammatory cytokines and chemokines [ $\frac{|\Omega|}{2}$ ]. The ability of these natural compounds to modify the expression of several pro-inflammatory genes in addition to their antioxidant characteristics, such as reactive oxygen species (ROS) scavenging, contributes to the regulation of inflammatory signaling [ $\frac{|\Omega|}{2}$ ].

To clarify scientifically the anti-inflammatory character of PIL EO and extracts, they have undergone investigations by in vitro and in animal model studies with the intent to elucidate any selective interaction toward proteins and enzymes participating in the inflammatory pathway (<u>Table 4</u>).

Table 4. Antioxidant and anti-inflammatory activity of Pistacia lentiscus.

| Exp. Setting         | Origin<br>Model       | Plant<br>Material         | Model                               | Exp. Protocol   | Results   | Re        |
|----------------------|-----------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------------|---|---|-----------|
|                      | Sardinia,<br>Italy    | Leaves oil                | Cells free                          | DPPH as Trolox<br>equivalent antioxidant<br>capacity (TEAC) | Great seasonal<br>variability<br>inhibition           | [19       |
|                      | Algeria               |                           | Cells free                          | FRAP  | ↑ High  | [86       |
|                      |                       | Leaves<br>extract         |                                     | H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> scavenging activity           | ↓ <b>Low</b>  |           |
|                      | Algeria               | Leaves<br>extract         | Cells free                          | Ferric reducing<br>antioxidant power<br>(FRAP)              | † High and dose<br>dependent                          | [94       |
|                      |                       |                           |                                     | DPPH  | ↑↑ Very high  |           |
|                      |                       |                           |                                     | H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> scavenging activity           | ↑↑ Very high  |           |
|                      |                       |                           |                                     | Linoleic acid peroxidation inhibition                       | ↑↑↑ Outstanding                                       |           |
|                      |                       |                           | Cells free                          | DPPH  | ↑↑ Very high  | <u>[5</u> |
|                      | Zakynthos<br>(Greece) | Leaves<br>extract         |                                     | Ferric reducing<br>antioxidant power<br>(FRAP)              | ↑ High  |           |
|                      | Sardinia,             | Leaves                    | Cells free                          | DPPH as Trolox<br>equivalents                               | ↑↑ High   | [9        |
|                      | Italy                 | extract                   |                                     | ABTS as Trolox equivalents                                  | ↑↑ <b>High</b>  |           |
|                      | Algeria               |                           | Cells free                          | DPPH (%)  | ↑ High  | [3        |
| Antioxidant activity |                       | Leaves<br>extract         |                                     | Ferric reducing<br>antioxidant power<br>(FRAP)              | ↑ High  |           |
|                      |                       |                           |                                     | β-carotene bleaching method (%)                             | ↑↑ Very high  |           |
|                      | Morocco               |                           | Cells free                          | DPPH  | Fruits oil: †† high<br>Leaves oil: † high             | [6        |
|                      |                       | Fruits oil,<br>leaves oil |                                     | FRAP  | Fruits oil: †† high<br>Leaves oil: † high             |           |
|                      |                       |                           |                                     | ABTS  | Fruits oil: †† high<br>Leaves oil: † high             |           |
|                      |                       |                           |                                     | Lipid peroxidation  | ↑↑ Very high  | [1        |
|                      | Campania<br>(Italy)   | Leaves<br>extract         | Cell lines                          | Intracellular ROS   | <b>↑</b> ↑Very high                                   |           |
|                      |                       |                           |                                     | Oxidized glutathione  | ↑↑ Very high  |           |
|                      | Sardinia,<br>Italy    | Leaves oil                | Animals                             | DHA   | ↑↑ High protection                                    | [1        |
|                      | Algeria               | Fruits<br>extract,        | Cells free and cell<br>lines        | Intracellular ROS in<br>THP-1 monocytic cells               | Fruits extract:<br>dose-dependent<br>protection       | [9        |
|                      |                       | leaves<br>extract         |                                     | ORAC as µmol Trolox<br>Equivalents                          | Fruits extract:  ↑ High; Leaves extract: ↑↑ Very high |           |
|                      | Sardinia,<br>Italy    | Leaves oil                | Cells free and cell<br>lines, human | H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> scavenging activity           | ↓ Low   | [6        |
|                      |                       |                           | fibroblasts                         | ECC   | ↓ Low   |           |

| Exp. Setting          | Origin<br>Model    | Plant<br>Material  | Model  | Exp. Protocol  | Results   | Ref. |
|-----------------------|--------------------|--------------------|--|--|---|------|
|                       | Sardinia,<br>Italy | Leaves oil         | Animals  | COX-2  | ↑↑ High inhibition  | [12] |
|                       | Sardinia,          |                    | Animals  | TNF-α  | <b>↓</b> ↓ High decrease                                      | [29] |
|                       | Italy              | Leaves oil         |  | IL-6   | $\downarrow\downarrow\downarrow$ High decrease                |      |
| Anti-<br>inflammatory | Algeria            | Fruits<br>extract, | Cells free and cell<br>lines                       | IL-1β inhibition by ATP<br>stimulated THP-1                        | Fruit extract:<br>no reduction;<br>Leaves extract:<br>↑↑ high | [96] |
| activity              |                    | leaves<br>extract  |  | IL-1β inhibition by H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> stimulated THP-1 | Fruit extract:<br>↓ low;<br>Leaves extract:<br>dose-dependent |      |
|                       |                    |                    | 0.11. (  | COX-1  | Inhibition  | [67] |
|                       | Sardinia,<br>Italy | Leaves oil         | Cells free and cell<br>lines, Human<br>fibroblasts | COX-2  | ↑ high inhibition   |      |
|                       |                    |                    | กมเอมเฉรเร   | LOX  | no inhibition   |      |

#### 6.1. Inhibitory Activity against Proinflammatory Cytokines and against Arachidonic Acid Cascade

Remila and co-workers  $^{[96]}$  examined the anti-inflammatory activity of leaves and fruits extracts by measuring the secretion of IL-1 $\beta$  by macrophages exposed to adenosin triphosphate (ATP) or  $H_2O_2$ . The authors found PIL leaves extract significantly reduced the production of IL-1 $\beta$  from ATP- or  $H_2O_2$ -activated cells. The inhibitory capacity of the leaves extract was higher in comparison to that of the fruits and of quercetin and gallic acid (tested as isolated fractions of the polyphenol mixture). The data was explained by the higher content of the total phenols and flavonoids in the leaves compared to the fruits and by the synergy between the pharmacological biomolecules of PIL extract. Similar considerations and a dose-dependent anti-inflammatory effect of the leaves extract was reported in other studies, which further strengthened the capacity of flavonoids and tannins  $^{[97]}$ .

Comparable anti-inflammatory values were reported in regard to PIL EO using the carrageenan-induced paw edema and cotton pellet-induced granuloma in a rat model  $\frac{[29]}{}$ . Particularly, it was evidenced that when applied topically, PIL EO from leaves significantly inhibited the development of granuloma and the serum level of TNF- $\alpha$  and IL-6 in reply to the irritants. The result was mainly related to the activity of  $\alpha$ -pinene,  $\beta$ -pinene,  $\alpha$ - phellandrene and sabinene, which were highly represented in the chemistry of the hydrodistilled oil.

Only one study has investigated the inhibitory activity of the whole PIL EO. It was obtained from the leaves of plants growing in Sardinia and tested against COXs and LOX  $^{[6Z]}$ . The IC<sub>50</sub> values were 10.3 ± 4.4 µg/mL and 6.1 ± 2.5 µg/mL PIL EO for COX-1 and COX-2, respectively, with higher inhibitory activity toward COX-2 in comparison to that produced towards COX-1. Additionally, COX-2 inhibition by the EO was similar to that recorded using ibuprofen as a positive control. The activity of the oil against LOX did not reach the IC<sub>50</sub> value, as PIL EO lowered LOX activity by 30% compared to the control. Despite the low LOX inhibition, the study strengthens the oil as a potential dual inhibitory compound, which was intensively researched in pharmacology to antagonize a great number of inflammatory processes where these enzymes sustain and amplify the disease  $^{[59][72]}$ . The data obtained in that investigation were addressed to the mixture of terpenoids comprising the oil, with particular regard to  $\alpha$ -pinene and terpinen-4-ol (33.38%), enriched by the non-cannabinoid terpenoid limonene (3.4%),  $\beta$ -myrcene (0.9%), (Z)-caryophyllene (1.4%) and (E)- $\beta$ -caryophyllene (0.1%). The mixture allowed the classification of the oil as pharmacologically active  $^{[76]}$ .

#### 6.2. Inhibiting Activity against ROS Molecules

The protective effect of PIL EO and extracts against ROS has been deeply documented in the literature (<u>Table 5</u>). From a scientific point of view, this capacity can be related to the terpenes and polyphenols of the EO and of the extracts, respectively [10][80]. As the accumulation of ROS directly affects the healthy tissue systems, including cellular lipids, nucleic acids and proteins [98], the capacity of the EO and the extracts was studied directly using cell lines and intracellular ROS evaluation assays, or by chemical methods, particularly using the 2,20-azinobis(3-ethylbenzothiazoline-6-sulphonic acid) diammonium salt (ABTS) and the 1,1-diphenyl-2- picrylhydrazyl (DPPH) chemical assays, and more recently using electron chemical devices.

**Table 5.** (a) Antibacterial activity of *Pistacia lentiscus* L. determined by agar diffusion test (ADD) or minimal inhibitory concentration (MIC). (b) Antifungal activity of *Pistacia lentiscus* L. determined by agar diffusion test (ADD) or minimal inhibitory concentration (MIC).

| Origin            | Plant Material   | Bacteria  | Origin of Strain      | Antimicrobial Activity | Re         |
|-------------------|--|---|-----------------------|------------------------|------------|
| Sicily<br>(Italy) | Aerial parts<br>ethanol extract,<br>aerial parts water<br>extracts | Staphylococcus aureus   | ATCC 29213            | Yes                    | [99        |
|                   |  | Escherichia coli  | ATCC 35218            | Yes                    |            |
| Tunisia           | Leaves essential<br>oil  | S. aureus   | ATCC 25923            | Yes                    | <u>[53</u> |
|                   |  | Enterococcus faecalis   | ATCC 29212            | Yes                    |            |
|                   |  | Salmonella enteritidis  | ATCC 13076            | Yes                    |            |
|                   |  | Salmonella typhimurium  | NRRLB 4420            | Yes                    |            |
|                   |  | E. coli   | ATCC 25922            | Yes                    |            |
|                   |  | Pseudomonas aeruginosa  | ATCC 27853            | Yes                    |            |
| Algeria           | Leaves ethanol extract   | S.aureus  | ATCC 601              | Yes                    | <u>[8</u>  |
|                   |  | Listeria monocytogenes  | ATCC 19111            | Yes                    |            |
|                   |  | Klebsiella pneumoniae   | 5215773               | Yes                    |            |
|                   |  | P. aeruginosa   | 22212004              | Yes                    |            |
|                   |  | S. typhi  | 4404540               | Yes                    |            |
|                   |  | Proteus mirabilis   | 0536040               | Yes                    |            |
|                   |  | E. coli   | 5044172               | Yes                    |            |
|                   |  | Enterobacter cloacae  | 1305573               | Yes                    |            |
|                   |  |   | 444                   | Yes                    |            |
| Eas               | stern Morocco  | Aerial parts from different<br>areas of Morocco<br>essential oils | S.aureus              | Not given Yes          | <u>[5</u>  |
|                   |  |   | Streptococcus spp.    | Not given Yes          |            |
|                   |  |   | E. coli               | Not given Yes          |            |
|                   |  |   | K. pneumoniae         | Not given Yes          |            |
|                   |  |   | Pseudomonas spp.      | Not given Yes          |            |
|                   |  |   | Salmonella spp.       | Not given Yes          |            |
|                   | Tunisia  | Fruits essential oil, phenolic extract                            | S.aureus              | Not given Yes          | <u>[5</u>  |
|                   |  |   | Bacillus subtilis     | Not given Yes          |            |
|                   |  |   | L. monocytogens       | Not given Yes          |            |
|                   |  |   | E. coli               | Not given Yes          |            |
|                   |  |   | P. aeruginosa         | Not given Yes          |            |
|                   |  |   | Aeromonas hydrophila  | Not given Yes          |            |
|                   |  |   | Salmonellatyphimurium | Not given Yes          |            |
|                   | Algeria  | Aerial part methanol extract                                      | S.aureus              | Not given Yes          | [3         |
|                   |  | extract   |                       |                        |            |

| (a)    |                  |   |   |   |                          |               |
|--------|------------------|---|---|---|--------------------------|---------------|
| Origin | Plant Material   | Bacteria  | Origin of Strain  | Antimicrobial   | Activity                 | Ref.          |
|        |                  |   | E. coli   | Not given   | Yes                      |               |
|        |                  |   | P. aeruginosa   | Not given   | Yes                      |               |
|        | Algeria          | Leaves and stems<br>methanol extract, leaves<br>and stems aqueous<br>extracts                                   | S.aureus<br>E. coli   | Not given<br>Not given  | No<br>No                 | <u>[44]</u>   |
| S      | Sardinia (Italy) | Fruits essential oil  | Bacillus clausii  | Probiotic   | No                       | [ <u>79</u> ] |
|        |                  |   | Staphylococcushominis   | Clinical  | No                       |               |
|        |                  |   | S.aureus  | ATCC 6538   | No                       |               |
|        |                  |   | Streptococcus pyogenes  | Clinical  | No                       |               |
|        |                  |   | Streptococcus agalactiae  | Clinical  | Yes                      |               |
|        |                  |   | Streptococcus salivarius  | Probiotic<br>(n = 2)  | No                       |               |
|        |                  |   | Streptococcus mitis   | Clinical  | No                       |               |
|        |                  |   | Streptococcus mutans  | Collection  | No                       |               |
|        |                  |   | Streptococcus intermedius   | Collection  | Yes                      |               |
| S      | ardinia (Italy)  | Fruit methanol extract, leaves methanol extract,  | S. aureus   | ATCC<br>25293   | Yes                      | [100          |
|        |                  |   | Staphylococcusepidermidis   | ATCC<br>12,228  | Yes                      |               |
|        |                  |   | E. coli   | ATCC<br>25,922  | In part                  |               |
|        |                  |   | K. pneumoniae   | ATCC 9591   | In part                  |               |
| S      | Sardinia (Italy) | Leaves essential oil  | Streptococcus gordonii  | ATCC<br>10,558  | Yes                      | [67]          |
|        |                  |   | Actinomyces naeslundii  | ATCC<br>12104   | Yes                      |               |
|        |                  |   | Fusobacterium nucleatum   | ATCC<br>25586   | Yes                      |               |
|        |                  |   | Porphyromonas gingivalis  | ATCC<br>33277   | Yes                      |               |
|        |                  |   | P. gingivalis   | Clinical (n<br>= 2)   | Yes                      |               |
|        |                  |   | Tannerella forsythia  | ATCC<br>43300   | Yes                      |               |
|        |                  |   | T. forsythia  | Clinical ( <i>n</i> = 2)  | Yes                      |               |
|        |                  |   | (b)   |   |                          |               |
|        | Origin           | Plant Material  | Fungi   | Origin of<br>Strain   | Antifungal<br>Activity   | Ref           |
|        | Sicily (Italy)   | Aerial parts ethanol<br>extract, aerial parts water<br>extracts<br>Leaves ethyl acetate and<br>methanol extract | Candida albicans<br>Candida parapsilosis<br>Candida glabrata<br>Cryptococcus neoformans | Clinical (n = 18) Clinical (n = 9) Clinical (n = 11) Clinical (n = 5) | Yes<br>Yes<br>Yes<br>Yes | [99           |

| (a)    |                  |  |                    |                             |          |               |
|--------|------------------|--|--------------------|-----------------------------|----------|---------------|
| Origin | Plant Material   | Bacteria                                     | Origin of Strain   | Antimicrobial A             | Activity | Ref.          |
| т      | uscany (Italy)   |  | C.albicans         | Clinical                    | No       | [101]         |
|        |                  |  | C.glabrata         | Clinical                    | No       |               |
|        |                  | Leaves ethyl acetate and<br>methanol extract | C.parapsilosis     | Clinical                    | No       |               |
|        |                  |  | C. tropicalis      | Clinical                    | No       |               |
|        |                  |  | C. zeylanoides     | Clinical                    | No       |               |
|        | Algeria          | Leaves ethanol extract                       | C.albicans         | 444                         | Yes      | [86]          |
|        | Tunisia          |  | Aspergillus flavus | Not given                   | No       | [ <u>59</u> ] |
|        |                  | Fruits essential oil, phenolic extract       | Aspergillus niger  | Not given                   | No       |               |
|        |                  |  | C.albicans         | Not given                   | In part  |               |
|        |                  |  | C. albicans        | Clinical                    | No       | [ <u>79</u> ] |
| S      | Sardinia (Italy) | Fruits essential oil                         | C.glabrata         | Clinical                    | No       |               |
|        |                  |  | C.krusei           | Clinical                    | No       |               |
| S      | Sardinia (Italy) | Leaves essential oil                         | C.albicans         | Laboratory                  | Yes      | [ <u>67</u> ] |
|        |                  |  | C.albicans         | Clinical ( <i>n</i><br>= 2) | Yes      |               |
|        |                  |  | C.glabrata         | Laboratory                  | Yes      |               |
|        |                  |  | C.glabrata         | Clinical ( <i>n</i><br>= 2) | Yes      |               |

As it is shown in <u>Table 4</u>, the anti-ROS ability has been mainly investigated in PIL extracts. Scientifically, this ability has been addressed to the richness in polyphenols the extracts possess, which not only inhibits the production of ROS by the direct involvement of specific molecules <sup>[102]</sup>, but also can modulate the Keap1-Nrf2/ARE pathway <sup>[103]</sup>. This is a powerful oxidation-reduction defense system, where polyphenols act to degrade specifically the Keap1 protein and regulate the Nrf2-related pathway <sup>[80][104]</sup>.

Remila and co-workers  $^{[96]}$  proved the high antioxidant capacity of PIL leaves extract using the oxygen radical absorbance capacity in macrophages, melanoma and mammary mouse cell lines. Furthermore, due to the activation of apoptosis mechanisms, the extracts significantly inhibited the growth of melanoma cells. The data was related to the richness in phenolics, flavonoids and tannins in the extracts. Similar conclusions were obtained by Atmani  $^{[94]}$ , who examined hexane and chloroform aqueous extracts of PIL leaves containing highly concentrated flavonoids. In relation to the peak of hydroxyl groups, the aqueous formulations strongly inhibited lipid peroxidation. The mechanism was explained by the scavenging of peroxyl radicals by the extracts. Radicals play a role in the development of cardiovascular disease and cancer. In this regard, the scavenger activity of gallic acid and galloylquinic derivatives, isolated from PIL leaves, is particularly attractive. Notably, a progressive increase in the anti-radical activity associated with the number of galloyl groups in quinic acid was found  $^{[105]}$ . Furthermore, all the tested metabolites strongly reduced the oxidation of low-density lipoproteins, thus strengthening the protection of PIL against the lipid peroxidation.

In addition to having a preventive capacity, a potential ability to halt or reverse oxidative stress-related diseases has been attributed to PIL. In fact, the ability to fight aggressive tumors, i.e., neuro-blastoma [19], and other important tumor cell lines has been proved by in vitro studies [106][107].

Animal testing further explored the anti-ROS efficacy of PIL derivates. Ben Khedir and co-workers  $\frac{[61]}{}$  determined the scavenger and anti-inflammatory activity of the fruits oil using the carrageenan-induced paw edema in a rat model. In that study, PIL oil demonstrated significantly better anti-inflammatory activity with edema inhibition, in comparison to those produced by the control NADPH. Moreover, PIL oil was able to increase the expression of superoxide dismutase, catalase and glutathione peroxidase, which are released as a response to the oxidative stress in the inflamed tissue. The effects were interpreted as a consequence of the content of humulene, caryophyllene and polyunsaturated fatty acid in the oil. Humulene and caryophyllene have been shown to inhibit the nuclear factor kappa B (NF-kB) pathway, responsible for the transcription of several proinflammatory cytokines, i.e., TNF- $\alpha$ , IL-1 $\beta$ , IL-6 and iNOS and COX-2 enzymes  $\frac{[108]}{}$ . The

polyunsaturated fatty acid in the oil might have partially replaced the arachidonic acid in the inflamed cell membranes [78], consequently lowering COX-2 production, the local inflammation and ROS generation.

Other in vivo studies demonstrated that an administration of PIL oil before the induction of the Bilateral Common Carotid Artery Occlusion followed by Reperfusion (BCCAO/R) was able to prevent the oxidative stress challenge in the nervous tissue due to the ischemic insult  $^{[12][109]}$ . In the cerebral tissue, PIL oil restored the membrane phospholipid DHA and decreased the activity of the COX-2 enzyme. Additionally, PIL oil increased the concentration of the anti-inflammatory endocannabinoid congeners palmitoylethanolamide (PEA) and oleoylethanolamide (OEA)  $^{[12]}$ . The outcomes were related to the high presence of the phytocannabinoid (E)- $\beta$ -caryophyllene, which worked synergistically with the other compounds in the oil, expanding the levels of cannabinoid receptor type 2 (CB2) and PPAR-alpha receptors. Further studies attest to the role of  $\beta$ -caryophyllene as CB2 agonists, demonstrating its capacity to antagonize the release of cytokines from LPS-stimulated monocytes (TNF- $\alpha$  and IL-1  $\beta$ )  $^{[I]}$ .

### 7. Potential Cytotoxicity

Starting from Paracelsus' statement "the right dose differentiates a poison to a remedy", investigations have been conducted with the intent to validate pharmaceutically PIL derivatives. For this reason, many studies have been conducted, in particular using in vitro and cell lines models testing different doses of PIL oil and extracts (<u>Table 4</u>). As a measure of risk versus benefit, many of them also applied enzymes testing, looking for the capacity of the EO and extracts to interact with the proteins and their involvement in inflammation and oxidative stress. In fact, it is well-known that the in vitro and cell lines systems are largely recommended to elucidate the safety of herbal products and propose the natural agents as nutraceuticals or xenobiotics [110]. Although such models lack the complexity of animals, and the compounds in testing should not exert in vivo the same effects as reported in isolated cell tissues [111], they have a significant role in predicting of risks and toxicology.

As a result of this work, it can be stated that not any published laboratory study reported cytotoxic effects which could be connected to PIL oil or extracts. Conversely, the experiments demonstrated direct or indirect biocompatibility of PIL derivatives to humans and non-human animals.

Notably, a wide range of biocompatibility was documented in oral cells. It was remarked specifically in oral human fibroblast cell lines using the EO from leaves and the MTT reduction assay  $^{[67]}$ . That fact was further validated in the periodontal ligament fibroblasts, the gingival fibroblasts, the gingival keratinocytes and dysplastic oral keratinocytes applying the WST-1 metabolic activity assay  $^{[67]}$ .

The absence of side effects to oral cells is strengthened concerning the polyphenol extracts. In detail, the fruits extract showed high biocompatibility and a selecting index (SI) of cytotoxicity equal to > 256 toward the human gingival cells, at the same time demonstrating a strong response against periodontal bacteria [112].

## 8. Antimicrobial Activity

Several studies reported the antimicrobial activity of PIL oils and extracts, trying to clarify scientifically their popular use in infectious diseases.

Commonly studied pathogens comprise bacteria known for antibiotic resistance (*Staphylococcus aureus* incl. methicillin-resistant strains (MRSA), *Escherichia coli* and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*), and other bacteria associated with the oral diseases, as well as yeasts, with particular regard to *Candida albicans* (<u>Table 5</u>a,b).

Different antimicrobial activity was reported in the studies testing PIL EO and extracts. A high capacity against both bacteria and yeasts was demonstrated in regard to the leaves EO from plants growing in different regions  $\frac{[16][78][58]}{[59]}$ . Whereas the fruits EO from Tunisia  $\frac{[59]}{[59]}$  and Sardinia  $\frac{[79]}{[59]}$  were found to have a limited effect against bacteria and yeasts, the ethanol and water extracts of leaves from plants growing in Sicily inhibited the growth of *S. aureus*, *E. coli* and yeasts  $\frac{[99]}{[99]}$ . Additionally, the leaves ethanol or methanol extracts showed activity against several Gram-positive and Gramnegative bacteria  $\frac{[38][87][113]}{[199]}$ . However, leaves and stems methanolic or water extracts prepared in Algeria were inactive against *S. aureus* and *E. coli*  $\frac{[44]}{[44]}$ , and leaves alcoholic extracts from Tuscany did not act against yeasts  $\frac{[101]}{[49]}$ .

The research started from the fact that terpenoids in EO exert a wide-spectrum of antibacterial, antifungal and even antiviral activity, and have been demonstrated to inhibit the growth of drug-resistant microbial strains, which are difficult to be treated even by conventional antibiotics  $\frac{[113]}{1100}$ . Although  $\alpha$ -pinene together with the monoterpenes terpinene and myrcene are among the most represented fractions in the Mediterranean oils showing antimicrobial capacity (Table 5), it is of

general interest if higher activity could be related to specific PIL chemotypes [114]. In this context, as reported regarding the anti-inflammatory capacity, synergy between the chemical fractions of terpenes is proposed to explain PIL EO antimicrobial activities. Synergy was recently claimed to explain the inhibitory activity of the EO against *Porphyromonas gingivalis*, *Tannerella forsythia* and *Fusobacterium nucleatum* [67]. The result was related to the pharmacological interplay of the terpenes characterizing the oil chemotype from North Sardinia, which was α-pinene-terpinen-4-ol, further augmented by the non-cannabinoid terpenoids limonene and β-myrcene, the sesquiterpenes (Z)-caryophyllene and (E)-β- caryophyllene. Similarly, the antimicrobial efficacy of extracts can be attributed to the richness of polyphenols [25][38][46] [60][61][69][111], in particular in regard to the concentrations of tannins, flavonoids, and lignin-carbohydrate complexes in the polyphenols mixture [11]. This is also the case with the ethanol extract of fruits, which showed the highest inhibition potential against *P. gingivalis* in comparison to 20 other extracts of pharmaceutical plants [112]. Furthermore, the potency of the fruits extract were higher than that of the leaves and woody parts, with MIC values against *P. gingivalis* of 8 μg/mL.

Recently, Mandrone and co-workers [100] related the antimicrobial activity of aqueous MeOH extracts of fruits and leaves to the concentration of phenolic components. That research further attested to the fact that phenols are active against multi-resistant bacteria, among them MRSA and carbapenemase-producing *Klebsiella pneumoniae*.

Concerning *Candida spp.*, the activity of PIL derivates is reportedly controversial (<u>Table 5</u>). Low or no susceptibility of the yeasts to the leaves extract, or to the fruits oil, was found. Despite this, PIL leaves EO from Sardinia had low MIC values against *C. glabrata* and *C. albicans* [67]. The results were explained as a consequence of the recurrence of pharmacological concentrations of six terpenes, which were above 0.05% in the fingerprint. Additionally, the EO documented the ability to inhibit COX-2 and LOX, which are very important proteins for the development of *Candida* virulence [115].

Furthermore, a high inhibition of *C. albicans* was reported when using PIL extracts. The activity of water or ethanol extracts has been attributed to the flavonoid contents. Notably, the phenolic compound tannic acid was reported as more active against the yeast than the antifungals nystatin and amphotericin [59][66].

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