



Université de Constantine 3 / Université Lyon 1



Faculté de Génie des Procédés

Département de Génie Pharmaceutique

NANOENCAPSULATION DES HUILES DES PLANTES
EXTRAITES PAR CO₂ SUPERCRITIQUE POUR DES
APPLICATIONS PHARMACEUTIQUES

THESE en cotutelle

Présentée pour l'Obtention du Diplôme de Doctorat
en Génie des Procédés en Génie Pharmaceutique

Par

Narimane LAMMARI

Année Universitaire

2020-2021



Université de Constantine 3 / Université Lyon 1



Faculté de Génie des Procédés

Département de Génie Pharmaceutique

N° de Série :16/GP/2021

N° d'Ordre :138/DOC S/2021

NANOENCAPSULATION DES HUILES DES PLANTES EXTRAITES PAR CO₂ SUPERCRITIQUE POUR DES APPLICATIONS PHARMACEUTIQUES

THESE en cotutelle

Présentée pour l'Obtention du Diplôme de Doctorat en Génie des Procédés en
Génie Pharmaceutique

Par

Narimane LAMMARI

Devant le Jury Composé de :

BOURY Frank, Professeur, Université d'Angers, France	Rapporteur
ZEMANE Ahmed, Professeur, Université Oum El Bouaghi, Algérie	Rapporteur
MENIAI Abdeslam Hassen, Professeur, Université Constantine 3, Algérie	Examinateur
FESSI Hatem, Professeur, Université Claude Bernard Lyon 1, France	Examinateur
GREIGE-GERGES Hélène, Professeure, Université Libanaise, Liban	Examinatrice
SAIDI-BESBES Salima, Professeure, Université Oran 1, Algérie	Examinatrice
LOUAER Ouahida, Professeure, Université Constantine 3, Algérie	Directrice de thèse
ELAISSARI Abdelhamid, Directeur de Recherche CNRS, Université Claude Bernard Lyon 1, France	Directeur de thèse

Année Universitaire

2020-2021

REMERCIEMENTS

Cette thèse s'inscrit dans le cadre d'une convention en cotutelle entre l'Université de Salah Boubnider-Constantine 3 et l'Université de Claude Bernard-Lyon 1. Elle s'est déroulée au sein du Laboratoire de l'Ingénierie et de l'Environnement (LIPE, Constantine) et du Laboratoire d'Automatique et de Génie des Procédés (LAGEPP, Lyon).

Je tiens à témoigner ma profonde gratitude à ma directrice de thèse Madame **Ouahida LOUAER**, Professeure à l'Université de Constantine 3, pour l'honneur qu'elle m'a fait en me confiant ce sujet de thèse, pour ses précieux conseils scientifiques et pour l'aide inestimable qu'elle m'a apportée tout au long de la réalisation de ce travail. Elle a su me donner une grande liberté d'initiative tout en restant toujours présente pour discuter des difficultés que j'ai pu rencontrer. Je voudrais lui exprimer ici ma reconnaissance pour sa grande disponibilité, ses qualités humaines, ses précieux conseils et ses encouragements.

Je tiens à remercier profondément mon directeur de thèse, Monsieur **Abdelhamid ELAISSARI**, Directeur de recherche au CNRS (Lyon), pour m'avoir accueilli au sein de son équipe de recherche, pour l'intérêt qu'il a apporté à mon travail et pour l'avoir suivi avec attention et rigueur. J'ai été très sensible à sa grande disponibilité en dépit de ses responsabilités multiples, à ses qualités humaines et à la confiance qu'il m'a toujours accordée. Qu'il trouve ici l'expression de mon entière considération et ma profonde gratitude pour son soutien et sa disponibilité.

Mes remerciements s'adressent également à Professeur **Abdeslam Hassen MENIAI**, Doyen de la Faculté de Génie des Procédés- Université de Constantine 3, qu'il trouve ici l'expression de ma profonde reconnaissance tant pour l'intérêt qu'il a porté à cette thèse que pour sa collaboration scientifique infaillible et ses conseils judicieux. Qu'il soit aussi remercié pour sa disponibilité permanente, pour les encouragements qu'il m'a prodigués et pour avoir bien voulu participer à mon jury de thèse.

Je tiens à remercier vivement Monsieur **Hatem FESSI**, Professeur à l'Université de Claude Bernard Lyon 1 (Lyon, France), pour l'intérêt qu'il a porté à mon travail, pour ses suggestions toujours avisées et avoir accepté de faire partie du jury de ma thèse.

J'associe à ces remerciements Monsieur **Frank BOURY**, Professeur à l'Institut à l'Université d'Angers (Angers, France) et Monsieur **Ahmed ZERMANE**, Professeur à

l'Université Larbi Benmhidi (Oum El Bouaghi, Algérie), pour avoir pris le temps d'examiner ces travaux en tant que rapporteurs et pour avoir accepté de participer au jury de cette thèse. Je tiens également à adresser mes remerciements particuliers à Madame **Hélène GREIGE-GERGES**, Professeure à l'Université Libanaise (Fanar, Liban) et Madame **Salima SAIDI-BESBES**, Professeure à l'Université d'Oran 1 Ahmed Benbella (Oran, Algérie), pour l'honneur qu'elles me font en acceptant d'examiner mes travaux de recherche et de faire partie du jury de ma thèse.

Je tiens aussi à adresser mes vifs remerciements à toutes les personnes qui ont manifesté de l'intérêt pour cette étude et qui ont contribué à sa réalisation. Je pense particulièrement à :

Monsieur **Abderrazzak BENTAHER**, Directeur de recherche INSERM au service de l'inflammation et l'immunité de l'épithélium respiratoire, Hôpital Lyon sud (Lyon), qu'il trouve ici ma respectueuse gratitude pour m'avoir accueillie au sein de son laboratoire, pour son soutien et ses précieux conseils.

Monsieur **Hervé CASABIANCA**, Directeur de recherche CNRS à l'Institut des Sciences Analytiques (Lyon), pour son accueil chaleureux et l'intérêt qu'il a porté au travail et son aide concernant les analyses chromatographiques.

J'exprime ma sincère gratitude à l'égard des permanents de LAGEPP et particulièrement à Madame **Géraldine AGUSTINI**, Responsable de l'analyse et des techniques instrumentales au LAGEPP, pour son assistance durant les analyses infrarouges et microscopiques.

J'adresse mes remerciements également à Monsieur **Chawki BENSOUICI**, Chef de service du Laboratoire de Biochimie au Centre National en Biotechnologie (Constantine), pour m'avoir accueilli dans son laboratoire, et m'avoir procuré l'appui et l'aide pour accomplir ce travail.

Je profite de l'occasion qui m'est ainsi présentée pour exprimer ma reconnaissance à **Tanguy DEMAUTIS**, thésard à la Faculté de Médecine (Lyon Sud), à **Mehdi LOUAER**, Docteur en Génie Chimique, à la doctorante **Nour Houda ABDEREZZAK**, et à **Ismahane HALOUI**, Maître de Conférence à l'Université de Constantine 3 pour le temps qu'ils m'ont consacré et pour leur coopération.

J'en profite aussi pour remercier les permanents de la Faculté de Génie des Procédés, et particulièrement Professeure **Nawel OUTILI**, pour son aide précieuse, Mme **Hayet AMICHI**, Mme **Fatima Zohra BADAoui**, Mme **Souheila FAATIT**, Melle **Chahra CHEIKH ZOUAOUI** et Melle **Hanane DAOUD** pour leurs qualités humaines.

Un grand merci à tous les techniciens, thésards et post-docs que j'ai rencontré au cours de ces quatre années et qui ont contribué, de près ou de loin, à la réussite de ce travail.

Narimane

DEDICACES

À Mes chers parents Hassen et Nabila ; aucune dédicace ne saurait exprimer l'amour, l'estime, le dévouement et le respect que j'ai toujours pour vous. Rien au monde ne vaut les efforts fournis jour et nuit pour mon éducation et mon bien être. Je n'arrive jamais à vous rendre tout ce que vous m'avez donné. Ce travail est le fruit des sacrifices que vous avez consentis pour ma formation le long de ces années. Que vous trouvez ici l'expression de mes sentiments et de mon éternelle gratitude.

À mon époux Bilal ; je ne saurais exprimer ma profonde reconnaissance pour le soutien continu dont tu as toujours fait preuve. Tu m'as toujours encouragé, incité à faire de mon mieux, ton soutien m'a permis de réaliser le rêve tant attendu. Merci à toi

À ma petite fille Racha ; aucune dédicace ne pourrait exprimer mon amour et mon attachement à toi

À mes chères sœurs (Choubeila et Dounia) ainsi que leurs petites familles pour m'avoir toujours poussée à travailler, pour vos encouragements permanents et votre soutien tout au long de mes années d'étude. Ces quelques lignes, ne sauraient traduire le profond amour que je vous porte.

À ma grande mère maternelle Yamina, je vous dédie cette thèse pour votre attention particulière, votre prière et votre amour inconditionnel.

À ma belle-famille ; je profite de la présente occasion pour vous remercier pour tout le soutien, la sympathie et l'amour que vous m'accordez

À mes tantes et oncles et leurs conjoints

À mes cousins et cousines

*À ma très chère amie Hadjira. Pour toutes les épreuves que nous avons
endurées, toutes les joies que nous avons partagées. Merci infiniment pour tout
ce que tu m'as apporté et pour ce que tu représentes pour moi.*

À tous ceux qui j'ai omis involontairement de citer

Narimane

TABLE DES MATIERES

	Page
LISTE DES FIGURES	xi
LISTE DES TABLEAUX	xiv
LISTE DES ABREVIATIONS	xvi
RESUME	xix
INTRODUCTION	1
DONNEES BIBLIOGRAPHIQUES	6
CHAPITRE I	
GENERALITES SUR LES HUILES ESSENTIELLES ET VEGETALES ET LEUR EXTRACTION	7
1.1 Introduction	8
1.2 Huiles végétales	9
1.2.1 Définition	9
1.2.2 Composition chimique	9
1.3. Huile végétale des noyaux de dattes	13
1.3.1 Généralités sur le palmier dattier	13
1.3.2 Répartition géographique du palmier dattier et production des dattes dans le monde	14
1.3.3 Morphologie du palmier dattier	15
1.3.4 Composition chimique des noyaux de dattes	17
1.3.5 Composition chimique de l'huile des noyaux de dattes	19
1.3.6 Utilisation de l'huile des noyaux de dattes	24
1.4 Huiles essentielles	27
1.4.1 Définition	27
1.4.2 Composition chimique	27
1.5 Huile essentielle du costus indien	30
1.5.1 Généralités sur le costus indien	30
1.5.2 Répartition géographique du costus indien	31
1.5.3 Morphologie du costus indien	32
1.5.4 Composition chimique des racines du costus indien	33
1.5.5 Composition chimique de l'huile de costus indien	36
1.5.6 Utilisation de l'huile de costus indien	37
1.6 Extraction des huiles essentielles et végétales	40
1.6.1 Généralités	40
1.6.2 Extraction par fluide supercritique	40
1.6.3 Utilisation du CO ₂ supercritique pour l'extraction de l'huile des noyaux de dattes et celle du costus	42
1.7 Challenges dans l'utilisation des huiles essentielles et végétales...	43

CHAPITRE II	
ENCAPSULATION DES HUILES ESSENTIELLES ET VEGETALES	45
2.1 Introduction	46
2.2 Principe de la nanoencapsulation des huiles	46
2.3 Nanoparticules polymères	47
2.3.1 Définition	47
2.3.2 Caractéristiques physicochimiques	47
2.4 Principaux polymères utilisés pour la conception des nanoparticules	50
2.4.1 Polymères naturels	50
2.4.2 Polymères synthétiques	51
2.5 Méthodes de préparation des nanoparticules polymères	54
2.5.1 Emulsion-évaporation du solvant	60
2.5.2 Emulsion-diffusion du solvant	60
2.5.3 Séchage par atomisation	60
2.5.4 Nanoprécipitation	61
2.5.5 Gélation ionique	62
2.6 Revue bibliographique sur l'utilisation de la nanoprécipitation pour l'encapsulation des huiles essentielles et végétales	63
2.6.1 Matières premières utilisées	63
2.6.2 Propriétés physicochimiques des nanoparticules polymères préparées par nanoprécipitation	66
2.6.3 Paramètres affectant les propriétés colloïdales des nanoparticules préparées par nanoprécipitation	70
 PARTIE EXPERIMENTALE	 74
CHAPITRE III	
MATERIELS ET METHODES	75
Stratégie du travail	76
Partie 1 Extraction et analyse des huiles	77
3.1 Préparation des matrices végétales	77
3.2 Pilote d'extraction par CO ₂ supercritique	77
3.3 Protocole de l'extraction supercritique	79
3.4 Analyse de l'huile essentielle du costus indien	79
3.5 Analyse de l'huile végétale des noyaux de dattes	81
Partie 2 Etude paramétrique de la nanoprécipitation	82
3.1 Préparation des nanoparticules vides	82
3.2 Etude de l'effet de différents facteurs opératoires	82
3.2.1 Influence de la nature du solvant et du rapport volumique solvant/non-solvant	84
3.2.2 Influence de la quantité du polymère	84
3.2.3 Influence de la vitesse d'agitation	84
3.3 Caractérisation des nanoparticules vides	84
3.3.1 Diffusion dynamique de la lumière	84
3.3.2 Microscopie électronique à balayage	84
Partie 3 Encapsulation des huiles dans des nanoparticules polymères	86

3.1	Protocole de préparation	86
3.2	Caractérisation des nanoparticules	86
3.2.1	Diffusion dynamique de la lumière	86
3.2.2	Microscopie électronique en transmission	86
3.2.3	Spectroscopie infrarouge à transformée de Fourier	87
3.2.4	Efficacité d'encapsulation	87
3.3	Stabilité colloïdale des nanoparticules	88
3.4	Analyse statistique	88
Partie 4	Etude des activités biologiques	89
3.1	Stratégie du travail	89
3.2	Activité anti-inflammatoire	89
3.2.1	Lignées cellulaires et conditions de culture	89
3.2.2	Traitement des plaques	89
3.2.3	Test de cytotoxicité	91
3.2.4	Observation microscopique des changements morphologiques cellulaires	92
3.2.5	Traitement cellulaire par lipopolysaccharide	93
3.2.6	Etude quantitative des cytokines et des médiateurs inflammatoires	93
3.2.7	Etude quantitative des métalloprotéases	94
3.3	Activité antioxydante	96
3.3.1	Méthode de DPPH	97
3.3.2	Méthode d'ABTS	98
3.3.3	Méthode de CUPRAC	99
3.3.4	Pouvoir réducteur	100
3.4	Activité enzymatique	101
3.4.1	Activité anti-Alzheimer	102
3.4.2	Activité antidiabétique	103

CHAPITRE IV

RESULTATS ET DISCUSSION	107	
4.1	Introduction	108
4.2	Résultats de l'analyse des huiles	108
4.2.1	Analyse de l'huile des noyaux de dattes	108
4.2.2	Analyse de l'huile de costus	110
4.3	Résultats de l'étude paramétrique de la nanoprécipitation	111
4.3.1	Effet du rapport volumique solvant / non solvant et de la nature du solvant organique	113
4.3.2	Effet de la concentration en polymère	116
4.3.3	Effet de la vitesse d'agitation	117
4.3.4	Morphologie des nanoparticules vides	119
4.4	Caractérisation des nanoparticules chargées en huile des noyaux de dattes	119
4.4.1	Résultats de l'analyse par diffusion dynamique de la lumière.....	119
4.4.2	Résultats de l'analyse par microscopie électronique	122

4.4.3	Résultats de l'analyse par spectroscopie infrarouge à transformée de Fourier	123
4.5	Caractérisation des nanoparticules chargées en huile de costus	124
4.5.1	Résultats de l'analyse par diffusion dynamique de la lumière.....	124
4.5.2	Résultats de l'analyse par microscopie électronique	127
4.5.3	Résultats de l'analyse par spectroscopie infrarouge à transformée de Fourier	127
4.6	Etude de stabilité des nanoparticules chargées d'huile	128
4.7	Résultats des activités biologiques	130
4.7.1	Résultats de l'activité anti-inflammatoire	130
4.7.2	Résultats de l'activité antioxydante	137
4.7.3	Résultats de l'activité anti-Alzheimer	141
4.7.4	Résultat de l'activité antidiabétique	148
CONCLUSION GENERALE & PERSPECTIVES		155
BIBLIOGRAPHIE		159
LISTE DES ANNEXES		182
	Annexe A : Réactifs, produits chimiques et enzymes utilisés	183
	Annexe B : Extraction de l'huile de costus	186
	Annexe C : Conditions opératoires de la lyophilisation	189
	Annexe D : Analyse des huiles par UV-Visible	190
	Annexe E : Activité anti-inflammatoire	193
	Annexe F : Activité antioxydante	200
	Annexe G : Activité enzymatique	202
	Annexe H : Liste des Productions Scientifiques	204

Liste des Figures

Figure	Page
1.1 Situation de la médecine traditionnelle dans le monde, selon l’OMS 2003.....	8
1.2 Représentation schématique des monoglycérides, diglycérides et triglycérides.....	10
1.3 Composition moyenne en acide gras (%) de quelques huiles végétales...	10
1.4 Composants minoritaires des huiles végétales.....	12
1.5 Répartition géographique du palmier dattier	14
1.6 Production mondiale des dattes en tonnes (a) et en pourcentage (b) en 2015.....	15
1.7 Présentation morphologique du palmier dattier.....	16
1.8 Présentation morphologique d’un noyau de datte.....	16
1.9 Représentation schématique de l’unité isoprène et de la formation des terpènes.....	28
1.10 Exemples de monoterpènes, sesquiterpènes et diterpènes.....	29
1.11 Exemples de phénylpropanoïdes.....	29
1.12 Structures des indole, isothiocyanate, diallyl sulfide et 3 (Z) -hexène-1-ol.....	30
1.13 Répartition géographique du costus indien.....	31
1.14 Présentation morphologique du costus indien.....	32
1.15 Diagramme de phases et coordonnées critiques de quelques fluides.....	41
1.16 Schéma simplifié d’une opération d’extraction par CO ₂ supercritique....	42
2.1 Types de nanoparticules polymères.....	47
2.2 Représentation de la double couche électronique	48
2.3 Illustration de la structure chimique de quelques polymères naturels et synthétiques.....	51
2.4 Mécanisme de la polymérisation radicalaire du méthacrylate de méthyle.	52
2.5 Propriétés des dérivés acryliques (Eudragit®).....	53
2.6 Structure chimique des dérivés acryliques (Eudragit®).....	53
2.7 Méthodes de préparation de nanoparticules polymères.....	55
2.8 Microscopie électronique à balayage des nanoparticules contenant l’huile essentielle du romarin	66
2.9 Microscopie électronique en transmission des nanoparticules vides (à gauche) et ceux contenant l’huile de citron vert (à droite).....	66
2.10 Profil de libération de l’huile essentielle du <i>Zanthoxylum rhoifolium</i> L. à partir des nanoparticules de poly-ε-caprolactone	68
2.11 Etude de stabilité des nanoparticules contenant l’huile de nigelle stockées pendant un mois à différentes températures en termes de taille et du potentiel zêta	69
2.12 Effet de la concentration du polymère sur les propriétés colloïdales des nanoparticules polymères de poly-ε-caprolactone	71

2.13	Effet de la quantité d'huile sur les propriétés colloïdales des nanoparticules polymères de poly- ϵ -caprolactone	72
2.14	Effet de la quantité du tensioactif sur les propriétés colloïdales des nanoparticules polymères de poly- ϵ -caprolactone	72
2.15	Effet du rapport volumique : acétone / eau sur les propriétés colloïdales des nanoparticules polymères de poly- ϵ -caprolactone	73
3.1	Stratégie du travail expérimental.....	76
3.2	Illustration des matières végétales utilisées avant et après prétraitement ..	77
3.3	Schéma du pilote d'extraction par CO ₂ supercritique.....	78
3.4	Préparation des nanoparticules de PMMA vides	82
3.5	Préparation des nanoparticules de PMMA chargées d'huile.....	86
3.6	Traitement cellulaire des plaques.....	90
3.7	Principe du test de cytotoxicité LDH.....	92
3.8	Protocole de la zymographie de gélatine.....	95
3.9	Mécanisme du piégeage du 2,2-diphényl-1-picrylhydrazyle (DPPH).....	97
3.10	Protocole suivi pour l'étude de l'activité antioxydante "DPPH".....	98
3.11	Formation et piégeage de l'ABTS ⁺ en présence d'un agent antiradicalaire.....	98
3.12	Protocole suivi pour l'étude de l'activité antioxydante "ABTS".....	99
3.13	Principe de la méthode de CUPRAC (Réduction du complexe Cu ²⁺ -néocuproïne.....	99
3.14	Protocole suivi pour l'étude de l'activité antioxydante "CUPRAC".....	100
3.15	Protocole suivi pour l'étude de l'activité antioxydante "Pouvoir réducteur".....	101
3.16	Mécanisme d'action de l'acétylcholinestérase et de la butyrylcholinestérase.....	102
3.17	Protocole suivi pour l'étude de l'activité anti-Alzheimer.....	103
3.18	Mécanisme d'action de l' α -amylase et de l' α -glucosidase.....	104
3.19	Schéma de la plaque utilisée pour l'étude de l'activité inhibitrice d' α -amylase.....	105
3.20	Protocole suivi pour l'étude de l'activité anti-glucosidase.....	106
4.1	Aspect de l'huile végétale des noyaux de dattes.....	108
4.2	Aspect de l'huile essentielle du costus.	110
4.3	Effet du rapport volumique solvant/non solvant sur le diamètre (a) et le potentiel zêta (b) des nanoparticules	113
4.4	Distribution de taille des nanoparticules à base de PMMA à différents rapports volumiques solvant/non solvant (1/3, 2/5, 1/2, 2/3 et 1/1) pour l'acétone, l'éthanol et le méthanol	115
4.5	Effet de la concentration en polymère sur le diamètre (a) et le potentiel zêta (b) des nanoparticules.....	116
4.6	Effet de la vitesse d'agitation sur le diamètre (a) et le potentiel zêta (b) des nanoparticules.....	118
4.7	Images de nanoparticules à base de PMMA préparées avec de l'acétone (a), de l'éthanol (b) et du méthanol (c) par microscopie électronique à balayage.....	119
4.8	Variation de couleur des suspensions de nanoparticules chargées d'huile des noyaux de dattes en fonction de la quantité d'huile incorporée.....	120

4.9	Effet de la quantité d'huile des noyaux de dattes sur la taille (a) et le potentiel ζ (b) des nanoparticules chargées.....	121
4.10	Corrélation entre la quantité du polymère (a), la quantité d'huile des noyaux de dattes (b) et le rayon cubique des nanoparticules.....	122
4.11	Images de microscopie électronique à balayage (a) et de microscopie électronique en transmission (b) de nanoparticules de PMMA chargées d'huile des noyaux de dattes.	123
4.12	Spectroscopie infrarouge à transformée de Fourier pour l'huile des noyaux de dattes, le PMMA et les NP chargées.....	124
4.13	Variation de couleur des suspensions de nanoparticules chargées d'huile essentielle du costus.....	125
4.14	Effet de la quantité d'huile de costus sur la taille (a) et le potentiel ζ (b) des nanoparticules chargées	126
4.15	Corrélation entre la quantité du polymère (a), la quantité de l'huile de costus (b) et le rayon cubique des nanoparticules.....	126
4.16	Images de microscopie électronique à balayage (a) et de microscopie électronique en transmission (b) des nanoparticules de PMMA chargées de l'huile de costus.....	127
4.17	Spectroscopie infrarouge à transformée de Fourier pour l'huile de costus, le PMMA et les nanoparticules chargées.....	128
4.18	Stabilité des nanoparticules à base de PMMA chargées d'huile en termes de taille et de potentiel ζ	129
4.19	Stabilité des nanoparticules à base de PMMA chargées d'huile en termes de pH.....	130
4.20	Effet cytotoxique de l'huile de costus sous sa forme libre et encapsulée...	132
4.21	Observation microscopique de la morphologie cellulaire des A549.....	133
4.22	Expression de l'ARNm des médiateurs inflammatoires (TNF- α , GM-CSF et l'IL-1 β).	134
4.23	Schéma du site actif (α -méthylène- γ -butyrolactone) du costunolide et du dehydrocostus lactone.....	135
4.24	Effet cytotoxique des nanoparticules vides et celles chargées en huile de costus à 25 μ g/ml lors de la stimulation des A549 par LPS.....	135
4.25	Zymographie de gélatine pour MMP9 après traitement des cellules A549 avec nanoparticules vides et ceux contenant l'huile de costus à 25 μ g/ml...	136
4.26	Analyse densitométrique après traitement des cellules A549 avec les nanoparticules vides et ceux contenant l'huile de costus à 25 μ g/ml.....	137
4.27	Résultats de l'étude de l'activité antioxydante sur microplaque.....	139
4.28	Inhibition par l'huile de costus, les nanoparticules et la galantamine de l'acétylcholinestérase (a) et de la butyrylcholinestérase (b).....	142
4.29	Mécanisme de l'addition de type Michael au fragment α -méthylène- γ -butyrolactone des lactones sesquiterpéniques.....	144
4.30	Inhibition par l'huile des noyaux de dattes, les nanoparticules et la galantamine de l'acétylcholinestérase (a) et de la butyrylcholinestérase (b)	146
4.31	Inhibition par l'huile de costus, les nanoparticules et l'acarbose de l' α -amylase (a) et de l' α -glucosidase (b).....	149
4.32	Inhibition par l'huile des noyaux de dattes, les nanoparticules et l'acarbose de l' α -amylase (a) et de l' α -glucosidase (b).....	152

Liste des Tableaux

Tableau	Page
1.1 Différents composés bioactifs identifiés dans différentes variétés des noyaux de dattes.....	17
1.2 Composition en acide gras de l'huile des noyaux de dattes issues de différentes variétés.....	20
1.3 Composition en constituants minoritaires de l'huile des noyaux de dattes issues de différentes variétés.....	22
1.4 Différentes utilisations de l'huile des noyaux de dattes.....	24
1.5 Sesquiterpènes isolés des racines du costus indien.....	34
1.6 Utilisations médicinales de l'huile des racines du costus indien et de ses constituants	37
1.7 Exemples de travaux réalisés à propos de l'utilisation du CO ₂ supercritique pour l'extraction de l'huile des noyaux de dattes.....	43
2.1 Stabilité des nanofluides pour différentes valeurs de potentiel zêta.....	49
2.2 Différentes méthodes d'encapsulation d'huiles essentielles et végétales.....	56
2.3 Utilisation de la nanoprécipitation pour l'encapsulation des huiles essentielles et végétales dans des nanoparticules.....	64
3.1 Conditions opératoires de l'extraction supercritique de l'huile des noyaux de dattes et celle du costus.....	79
3.2 Conditions opératoires des analyses par chromatographie en phase gazeuse.....	80
3.3 Conditions opératoires des analyses par chromatographie en phase gazeuse couplée à la spectrométrie de masse	80
3.4 Effet de différents paramètres sur la taille des particules et le potentiel ζ des nanoparticules vides à base de PMMA.	83
4.1 Composition chimique de l'huile végétale de noyaux de dattes déterminée par chromatographie en phase gazeuse.....	109
4.2 Composition chimique de l'huile essentielle du costus déterminée par chromatographie en phase gazeuse couplée à la spectrométrie de masse..	111
4.3 Résultats du diamètre et du potentiel zêta pour les différentes formulations synthétisées	112
4.4 Résultats du diamètre, du potentiel ζ et d'efficacité d'encapsulation des nanoparticules chargées en huile des noyaux de dattes	120
4.5 Résultats du diamètre et du potentiel ζ des nanoparticules chargées en huile essentielle du costus	125
4.6 Résultats des taux d'efficacité d'encapsulation des nanoparticules chargées en huile des noyaux de dattes en fonction du temps et de la température	130
4.7 Résultats des tests DPPH, ABTS, CUPRAC et pouvoir réducteur de l'huile des noyaux de dattes, des nanoparticules chargées et des standards	138

4.8	Résultats de la mesure des CI50 et des A0.8 de l'huile des noyaux de dattes, des nanoparticules chargées et des standards pour les différents tests (DPPH, ABTS, CUPRAC et pouvoir réducteur).	140
4.9	Résultats de l'activité anticholinestérase de l'huile de costus, des nanoparticules et de la galantamine	143
4.10	Concentrations d'inhibition de 50% des enzymes cholinestérases pour l'huile de costus, les nanoparticules et la galantamine	144
4.11	Résultats de l'activité anticholinestérase de l'huile des noyaux de dattes, des nanoparticules et de la galantamine	147
4.12	Concentrations d'inhibition de 50% des enzymes cholinestérases pour l'huile des noyaux de dattes, les nanoparticules et la galantamine	147
4.13	Résultats de l'activité antidiabétique de l'huile de costus, des nanoparticules et de l'acarbose	149
4.14	Concentrations d'inhibition de 50% d' α -amylase et d' α -glucosidase pour l'huile de costus, les nanoparticules et l'acarbose	150
4.15	Résultats de l'activité antidiabétique de l'huile des noyaux de dattes, des nanoparticules et de l'acarbose	153
4.16	Concentrations d'inhibition de 50% d' α -amylase et d' α -glucosidase pour l'huile des noyaux de dattes, les nanoparticules et l'acarbose	153

Liste des Abréviations

OMS	: Organisation Mondiale de la Santé
HV	: Huile Végétale
HE	: Huile essentielle
CO ₂	: Dioxyde de Carbone
UV	: Ultra-Violet
ADN	: Acide Désoxyribonucléique
CAT	: Catalase
SOD	: Superoxide Dismutase
GPx	: Glutathione Peroxidase
CI ₅₀	: Concentration de l'échantillon testé nécessaire pour réduire 50 % des radicaux libres
DDPH	: 1,1-Di Phényl-2-Picryl Hydrazyle
PE	: Pouvoir Etalement
HCl	: Acide hydrochlorique
CL ₅₀	: Concentration létale
TNF- α	: Facteur de Nécrose Tumorale
IL	: Interleukine
IFN- γ	: Interféron-gamma
MPO	: Myéloperoxydase
MCP	: Protéine Chimioattractrice des Monocytes
COX-2	: Cyclooxygénase
iNOS	: Oxyde Nitrique Syntase
NF- κ B	: Facteur Nucléair-kappa B
LPS	: Lipopolysaccharide
NO	: Oxyde Nitrique
CMI	: Concentration Minimale Inhibitrice
P _c	: Pression Critique
T _c	: Température Critique
NP	: Nanoparticules Polymères
DLS	: <i>Dynamic Light Scattering</i>
PCS	: Spectroscopie de Corrélation de Photons
d _h	: Diamètre hydrodynamique
T	: Température
k _B	: Constante de Boltzman
η	: Viscosité de la phase de diffusion
D ₀	: Coefficient de diffusion
ζ	: Potentiel zêta
μ_e	: Mobilité électrophorétique
c	: Constante qui vaut 1 ou 2/3
ϵ	: Constante diélectrique du milieu
r	: Rayon des nanoparticules
EE%	: Efficacité d'Encapsulation
DL	: <i>Drug loading</i>

PMMA	: Poly (Méthyl Méthacrylate)
HPMC	: Hydroxypropyl méthylcellulose
R	: Rendement de l'extraction
P _H	: Poids de l'huile extraite
P _P	: Poids de la plante traitée
CPG	: Chromatographe en Phase Gazeuse
FID	: Détecteur à Ionisation de Flamme
MS	: Spectrométrie de Masse
NaCl	: Chlorure de sodium
MEB	: Microscopie Electronique à Balayage
SEM	: <i>Scanning Electron Microscopy</i>
MET	: Microscopie Electronique en Transmission
TEM	: <i>Transmission Electron Microscopy</i>
FTIR	: Spectroscopie Infrarouge à Transformée de Fourier
NaOH	: Hydroxyde de sodium
DMEM/F	: <i>Dulbecco's Modified Eagles Medium-Nutrient Mixture F-1</i>
FBS	: <i>Fetal Serum Bovine</i>
DMSO	: Diméthyl Sulfoxyde
LDH	: Lactate Déshydrogénase
ARN	: Acide Ribonucléique
qPCR	: <i>Quantitative Polymerase Chain Reaction</i>
PBS	: <i>Phosphate Buffered Saline</i>
RT-PCR	: <i>Reverse Transcriptase- Polymerase Chain Reaction</i>
ADNc	: ADN complémentaire
GM-CSF	: Facteur de stimulation des colonies de granulocytes-macrophages
Ct	: <i>Thershold Cycle</i>
MMP	: Métalloprotéases
BHA	: Hydroxyanisole butylé
A	: Absorbance
ABTS	: 2,2'-azinobis-(3-éthylbenzothiazoline-6-sulfonique)
CUPRAC	: <i>Cupric ion Reducing Antioxidant Capacity</i>
A0.5	: Concentration correspondant à 0.50 d'absorbance
CI50	: Concentration fournissant 50% d'inhibition enzymatique
IKI	: Iodure de potassium-Iode
S/NS	: Solvant / Non Solvant
V _{ns}	: Volume molaire du solvant
δ _s	: Solubilité Hildebrand du solvant
δ _{ns}	: Solubilité Hildebrand du non solvant
R	: Constante des gaz
X	: Affinité du solvant pour le non solvant
m	: Quantité de polymère ou d'huile
N _p	: Nombre de particules
d	: Densité
%	: Pourcentage
m	: Mètre
g	: Gramme
cm	: Centimètre

mg	: Milligramme
Kg	: Kilogramme
M	: Molaire
mM	: Millimolaire
ET	: Equivalent témoin
µg	: Microgramme
ml	: Millilitre
µM	: Micromolaire
K	: Kelvin
nm	: Nanomètre
Mv	: Millivolt
KDa	: Kilo Dalton
min	: Minute
°C	: Degré Celsius
µl	: Microlitre
N	: Normal
rpm	: Tour / minute
h	: Heure

RESUME

Le recours aux plantes à des fins médicinales est connu depuis la nuit des temps dans différentes cultures. Au cours de ces dernières années, des efforts ont été consacrés à la pratique de la phytothérapie en tant que médecine alternative ou complémentaire dans le but d'éviter les effets indésirables liés aux médicaments d'origine synthétiques. Parmi la diversité des constituants de plante utilisés en phytothérapie, les huiles essentielles et végétales continuent à être utilisées en première intention. L'utilisation des huiles est souvent confrontée par leur dégradation et leur biodisponibilité réduite dans le corps humain. Par conséquent, des systèmes de la nanoencapsulation sont conçus pour surmonter les contraintes physicochimiques susmentionnés.

L'objectif de cette étude est la nanoencapsulation de l'huile essentielle des racines du costus indien (*Saussurea lappa* CB. Clarke.) et l'huile végétale des noyaux de dattes (*Phoenix dactylifera* L.) extraites par un procédé innovant et respectueux de l'environnement (extraction par dioxyde de carbone supercritique) dans des nanoparticules polymères et l'étude de leurs performances thérapeutiques.

Trois axes ont été abordés dans ce travail. Le premier a porté sur l'extraction des huiles ainsi que leur analyse qualitative et quantitative par chromatographie en phase gazeuse couplée à la spectrométrie de masse. Le deuxième a porté sur l'encapsulation des huiles dans des nanoparticules polymères à base de dérivés de poly (méthyl méthacrylate) (Eudragit® RS100) par la technique de la nanopréciipitation après avoir été optimisée et la caractérisation des nanocapsules obtenues. Le dernier axe a porté sur l'étude de l'activité anti-inflammatoire, anti-Alzheimer, antidiabétique et antioxydante.

Les résultats de l'analyse des huiles ont montré la prédominance de l'acide oléique (47.7%) et du dehydrocostus lactone (55.4%) pour l'huile végétale et essentielle, respectivement. L'Eudragit RS®100 est capable d'encapsuler avec succès les deux types d'huiles dans des particules de taille comprise entre 145 et 217 nm avec un potentiel ζ de +45 à +59mV et une excellente stabilité à différentes températures et pH. De plus, les nanoparticules chargées d'huile des noyaux de dattes ont montré une activité antidiabétique supérieure à celle du médicament standard, une activité anti-Alzheimer modérée et une faible activité antioxydante. Celles chargées d'huile de costus ont révélé des activités anti-inflammatoire, antidiabétique et anti-Alzheimer pertinentes.

A travers cette thèse, nous avons mis en évidence le potentiel prometteur des nanoparticules polymères à améliorer les performances biologiques des huiles naturelles et qu'elles constituent des alternatives intéressantes par rapport aux différents médicaments d'origine synthétique dans la prise en charge de la maladie d'Alzheimer, du diabète et des maladies inflammatoires.

Mots clés : Encapsulation, huile de costus indien, huile des noyaux de dattes, nanoparticules polymères, Eudragit® RS100, nanopréciipitation

ABSTRACT

The use of plants for medicinal purposes has been known since ancient times in different cultures. In recent years, efforts have been devoted to the use of herbal medicine as a form of alternative therapy to avoid the adverse effects related with conventional chemically synthesized drugs. Among the vastness of plant products, essential and vegetable oils deserve peculiar attention. The use of plant oils is always confronted by their susceptibility to degradation and their reduced bioavailability in the human body. Therefore, nanoencapsulation systems (nanocarriers) were designed to overcome the aforementioned physicochemical drawbacks.

The objective of this study was the nanoencapsulation of costus roots essential oil (*Saussurea lappa* CB Clarke). and date palm seeds vegetable oil (*Phoenix dactylifera* L.) extracted by an innovative and an environmentally friendly technique (Supercritical fluid extraction) in polymeric nanoparticles and the investigation of their therapeutic performances.

Three axes were addressed in this work. The first one dealt with the extraction of oils and their qualitative and quantitative analysis by Gas chromatography- mass spectrometry. The second one is addressed to the encapsulation of plant oils in poly (methyl methacrylate) derivative (Eudragit® RS100) based- polymeric nanoparticles using the nanoprecipitation technique after having been optimized and the characterization of the obtained nanocapsules. The last part focused on the study of the anti-inflammatory, anti-Alzheimer, anti-diabetic and antioxidant activities.

The results of the oil analysis showed the predominance of oleic acid (47.7%) and dehydrocostus lactone (55.4%) for vegetable and essential oils, respectively. Eudragit RS®100 is able to successfully encapsulate both types of oils in nanocapsules in the nanoscale range (from 145 to 217nm) with zeta potential between +45 and + 59mV and excellent stability at different temperatures and pH. In addition, the date seeds oil-loaded nanoparticles showed superior anti-diabetic activity than the standard drug, moderate anti-Alzheimer's activity, and low antioxidant activity. While costus oil loaded nanoparticles exerted relevant anti-inflammatory, anti-diabetic and anti-Alzheimer's activities.

Through this thesis, we have demonstrated the promising potential of polymeric nanoparticles to improve the biological performance of natural oils and found that the studied oils-loaded nanoparticles constitute interesting alternatives of synthetic drugs in the management of Alzheimer, diabetes and inflammatory diseases.

Key words : Encapsulation, costus roots oil, date seed oil, polymeric nanoparticles, Eudragit® RS100, nanoprecipitation

ملخص

مما لا شك فيه أن استخدام النباتات لأغراض طبية كان معروفا منذ فجر التاريخ في ثقافات مختلفة. ولقد كرست جهود عدة في السنوات الأخيرة لممارسة طب الأعشاب كطب بديل أو تكميلي بهدف تجنب الآثار الجانبية التي تُخلفها الأدوية العادية. ومن بين المكونات النباتية المتنوعة المستخدمة في طب الأعشاب يحتل استخدام الزيوت العطرية والنباتية المراتب الأولى. وغالبًا ما يواجه استخدام الزيوت صعوبات كتعرضها للتلف وانخفاض توافرها البيولوجي في جسم الإنسان لذلك تم تصميم أنظمة التغليف (nanoencapsulation) للتغلب على المشاكل المذكورة أعلاه.

الهدف من هذه الدراسة هو تغليف الزيت النباتي لنواة التمر (*Phoenix dactylifera L.*) والزيت العطري للقسط الهندي (*Saussurea lappa CB. Clarke.*) المستخرجين بطريقة مبتكرة و صديقة للبيئة (استخراج ثاني أكسيد الكربون فوق الحرج) في جزيئات البوليمر النانوية ودراسة أدائها العلاجي.

تمت مناقشة ثلاثة محاور، ركزنا في المحور الأول على استخلاص الزيوت وتحليلها النوعي والكمي عن طريق كروماتوجرافيا الغاز مقرونة بمقياس الطيف الكتلي. أما في المحور الثاني فقد تناولنا تغليف الزيوت في جسيمات بوليمر نانوية مكونة من مشتقات بولي (ميثيل ميثاكريلات) (Eudragit® RS100) بتقنية الترسيب النانوي (nanoprecipitation) بعد تحديد الشروط المناسبة و تحليل هاته الجسيمات. أما في الجزء الأخير فقد درسنا الفعالية ضد الالتهابات ، الزهايمر، السكري و الأكسدة.

أظهرت نتائج تحليل الزيوت غالبية حمض الأوليك (47.7%) و (55.4%) dehydrocostus lactone (في الزيت النباتي والعطري على التوالي). أما Eudragit® RS100 فكان قادرا على تغليف كلا النوعين من الزيوت بنجاح في كبسولات نانوية بقطر 145 إلى 217 نانومتر و potentiel z\eta بين +45 و +59 ميللي فولت مع استقرار ممتاز في درجات حرارة وحموضة مختلفة. بالإضافة إلى ذلك ، أظهرت جسيمات البوليمر النانوية المحملة بزيت نواة التمر نشاطاً فعالاً ضد مرض السكري ، معتدلاً ضد مرض الزهايمر ، و منخفضاً ضد الأكسدة. بينما مارست الجزيئات المحملة بزيت القسط أنشطة فعالة ضد الالتهابات، السكري والزهايمر.

لقد سلطنا الضوء من خلال هذه الأطروحة على الإمكانيات الواعدة لجزيئات البوليمر النانوية على تحسين الأداء البيولوجي للزيوت الطبيعية، و على الجسيمات النانوية المحملة بالزيوت المدروسة التي بدورها تشكل بدائل مثيرة للاهتمام مقارنة بالعقاقير المختلفة ذات الأصل الاصطناعي في إدارة مرض الزهايمر، السكري والأمراض الالتهابية.

الكلمات المفتاحية: التغليف ، زيت القسط ، زيت نواة التمر ، جزيئات البوليمر النانوية ، Eudragit® RS100 ، الترسيب النانوي

INTRODUCTION GENERALE

INTRODUCTION GENERALE

La quête de remèdes au sein du règne végétal date de plusieurs millénaires. Actuellement, la médecine connaît un engouement extraordinaire à travers le monde par l'utilisation des plantes aromatiques et médicinales [1]. Selon l'organisation mondiale de la santé (OMS), entre 70 et 95 % de la population mondiale contemporaine a eu recours à la médecine traditionnelle pour satisfaire ses besoins en soins de santé primaire [2]. Ce regain d'intérêt repose essentiellement sur la force d'innovation dans le secteur de l'industrie pharmaceutique pour répondre aux besoins d'un marché toujours plus exigeant en termes de coût, d'accessibilité et d'efficacité. En effet, la médecine traditionnelle est plus abordable, plus proche de l'idéologie du patient et reçoit un meilleur accès du public par rapport aux médicaments d'origine synthétique [3]. En outre, l'utilisation abusive et / ou incorrecte des médicaments conventionnels entraîne dans certains cas des effets secondaires nocifs [4]. On estime que 10 à 20% des complications sont dues aux effets secondaires de ces médicaments [5].

Les plantes produisent une grande variété de métabolites secondaires aux vertus bénéfiques pour l'homme ; parmi eux, les huiles essentielles et végétales requièrent une attention particulière [6–9]. Les huiles essentielles (HE) comprennent des composés organiques volatils et peu-volatils déterminant l'arôme, la saveur et le parfum spécifiques des plantes. Elles sont instables à température ambiante. En revanche, les huiles végétales (HV) sont constituées d'esters de glycérol et d'acides gras et sont non volatiles et stables à température ambiante [10,11].

Récemment, les HE et HV ont fait l'objet d'un grand nombre de travaux de recherches et de développement dans plusieurs domaines en raison de leurs activités biologiques. Etant comestibles sous leur forme raffinée ou vierge, les HV jouent un rôle crucial dans la prévention thérapeutique et prophylactique des maladies telles que l'inflammation, le diabète, le cancer et l'athérosclérose [12–15]. Simultanément, les HE connaissent une émergence considérable en raison de leur propriétés antioxydantes, antibactériennes, antifongiques, antivirales, antimutagènes, anti-carcinogènes et anti-inflammatoires. Les bénéfices attendus par la consommation des HE ou de leurs dérivés ont été largement étudiés [16,17]. Parallèlement aux fins médicinales, l'application des HE s'étend à l'industrie agroalimentaire.

Plusieurs rapports ont mis en évidence l'efficacité des HE par rapport aux conservateurs chimiques pour prévenir la croissance d'agents pathogènes et retarder la détérioration des aliments [18,19]. De plus, les HE trouvent de nombreux débouchés dans le secteur agricole où elles remplacent les pesticides synthétiques qui sont plus toxiques ou auxquels les parasites ont montré une résistance [20].

Une grande diversité des procédés a été mise au point et est utilisée dans le domaine de l'extraction solide- liquide de façon à obtenir un rendement en huile maximum tout en garantissant un produit extrait de qualité dans un état chimique très proche de sa structure native [21]. La plupart des procédés d'extraction classiques utilisent des solvants organiques (tels que le méthanol, l'éthanol, l'hexane, l'acétone, etc.) ou l'eau et se réalisent, généralement, à pression atmosphérique [22]. Sous l'impulsion de réduire l'utilisation de solvants organiques toxiques et en vue d'atteindre la meilleure qualité d'extrait, les plus hauts taux de rendement avec un procédé respectant le concept de la chimie verte [23], des technologies innovantes utilisant les fluides supercritiques tel que le CO₂ sont développées.

Au voisinage du point critique, le pouvoir solvant du CO₂ varie largement avec les changements de température et de pression. La séparation de l'huile et du CO₂ est très facile et s'effectue par simple détente. De plus, ses propriétés de transport à l'état supercritique (diffusivité, viscosité ...) assurent une pénétration plus profonde dans la matière végétale et donc une extraction efficace et rapide [22]. Dernièrement, l'extraction des HE par CO₂ supercritique a connu un engouement sans précédent vu le grand nombre de travaux publiés [24–29].

Toutefois, l'utilisation des HE est généralement entravée par leur faible solubilité dans l'eau, leur volatilité et leur sensibilité aux conditions environnementales (lumière, chaleur, oxygène) [30]. Hădărugă et al. ont rapporté que les HE sensibles à la chaleur et/ou l'oxydation peuvent être dégradées pendant la formulation, le transport et le stockage au point qu'elles deviennent inefficaces, voire néfastes avec la formation de dérivés toxiques [31]. Plusieurs exemples sont liés à cet aspect, citant la dégradation du safrole en métabolites cancérogènes [32], l'oxydation du pinène en dérivés oxydés nocifs [33], ou la dégradation du linalol ou du caryophyllène en dérivés oxygénés allergisants [34]. Le même comportement se produit avec les HV où l'oxydation peut générer des produits toxiques qui affectent les tissus biologiques. De plus, les acides gras insaturés présents dans les HV augmentent le

risque d'oxydation lipidique qui à son tour entraîne la production de radicaux libres ; des produits d'oxydation primaires tels que les hydro peroxydes lipidiques et des produits d'oxydation secondaires à savoir les hydrocarbures, les époxydes, les cétones et les aldéhydes ; qui ont un impact négatif sur le goût des HV [35,36]. Outre tout cela, la faible solubilité dans l'eau, la faible perméabilité et la faible biodisponibilité des HV dans les fluides et les tissus biologiques constituent d'autres facteurs qui limitent leur utilisation rationnelle [11].

Dans le domaine pharmaceutique, la mise au point de nanovecteurs innovants basés sur le concept de l'encapsulation des substances bioactives est en plein essor. A l'heure actuelle, les nanoparticules polymères (NP) ont suscité un intérêt grandissant par rapport aux autres systèmes d'encapsulation [37,38]. Différents avantages sont mis en avant comme la protection des huiles contre les facteurs environnementaux grâce à la présence d'une membrane polymérique entourant l'huile, une protection contre l'irritation de la peau et des tissus, une amélioration de la biodisponibilité, mais aussi un meilleur confort pour les patients (prises répétitives). Ainsi, les NP apparaissent comme une réponse à de nombreux problèmes posés par les HE et HV de nature lipophile pour améliorer la prise en charge des pathologies [11,39]. Les NP font appel aux polymères naturels et synthétiques. Par ailleurs, les polymères synthétiques sont plus avantageux en termes de pureté et de reproductibilité [40,41]. Parmi la variété des polymères synthétiques, Eudragit[®] RS 100, un copolymère d'acrylate d'éthyle, de méthacrylate de méthyle et de méthacrylate de chlorotriméthylammonium éthylique avec 4.5–6.8% de groupes ammonium quaternaire, a été largement utilisé dû au fait qu'il est biocompatible, non toxique, non irritant et fournit une libération contrôlée aux actifs encapsulés [42–45].

Dans le contexte de la formulation des huiles extraites des plantes s'inscrit ce travail de thèse qui a été réalisé au niveau du Laboratoire de l'Ingénierie des Procédés de l'Environnement (Faculté de Génie des Procédés, Université Constantine 3) et du Laboratoire d'Automatique et de Génie des Procédés (Université Claude Bernard Lyon 1). Il porte principalement sur l'encapsulation des huiles extraites des plantes par CO₂ supercritique dans des nanoparticules polymères pour des fins thérapeutiques. C'est dans cette perspective que nous nous sommes intéressés à étudier deux types d'huile, très connues pour leurs propriétés bioactives, et qui n'ont jamais été encapsulées dans des nanoparticules polymères d'Eudragit

® RS 100. Il s'agit de l'HE du costus, extraite des racines du costus indien (*Saussurea lappa* CB. Clarke) ; et l'HV du palmier dattier, extraite des noyaux de dattes (*Phoenix dactilyfera* L.).

Le travail présenté dans ce manuscrit s'articule autour de quatre chapitres

Le premier chapitre bibliographique est dédié aux généralités sur les huiles essentielles et végétales et leurs compositions y compris leur extraction par fluide supercritique. Nous décrirons ensuite les deux plantes utilisées dans ce travail. L'illustration des problèmes rencontrés lors de l'utilisation des huiles sous leur forme libre constituera la fin de cette partie.

Le deuxième chapitre met en évidence l'intérêt des nanoparticules polymères en tant que vecteur d'huile pour une application thérapeutique. Nous présenterons les concepts fondamentaux de l'encapsulation en développant la technologie de la nanoprécipitation et les différents travaux de la littérature traitant ce procédé d'encapsulation.

Quant à la partie expérimentale, elle comporte quatre sections regroupées dans le chapitre trois. La première section porte sur l'extraction des huiles par CO₂ supercritique et leur analyse par chromatographie. Le second volet consiste en une étude paramétrique de la nanoprécipitation pour identifier et optimiser les différents paramètres influençant les propriétés colloïdales des nanoparticules à base d'Eudragit® RS 100 telles que la taille des particules et leur charge de surface. La troisième section de cette partie expérimentale sera dédiée à l'encapsulation de l'huile des noyaux de dattes et celle de costus dans les nanoparticules optimisées ainsi que leur caractérisation. Tandis que la dernière partie sera consacrée à l'étude des effets thérapeutiques *in vitro* des huiles sous leurs formes libres et encapsulées.

Dans le chapitre quatre tous les résultats seront présentés avec leur discussion.

Enfin la conclusion générale fera le bilan du travail réalisé avec les perspectives futures.

**DONNEES
BIBLIOGRAPHIQUES**

CHAPITRE I

GENERALITES SUR LES HUILES ESSENTIELLES ET VEGETALES ET LEUR EXTRACTION

CHAPITRE I

GENERALITES SUR LES HUILES ESSENTIELLES ET VEGETALES ET LEUR EXTRACTION

1.1. Introduction

Les plantes s'imposent dans la nature par leur aspect, leur mystère et leur exubérance. Au fil des siècles, l'homme ne se limitait pas à consommer des plantes, ils s'en servait aussi pour se soigner [5,46]. Les plantes médicinales ont constitué le pilier de la médecine traditionnelle.

La Pharmacopée Française (11^{ème} édition) définit les plantes médicinales comme « *des drogues végétales dont au moins une partie possède des propriétés médicamenteuses. Ces plantes médicinales peuvent aussi avoir des usages alimentaires, condimentaires ou hygiéniques*»[47]. Pendant la dernière décennie, l'utilisation des plantes a connu un regain d'intérêt dans le monde pour leurs vertus médicinales [48], comme illustré dans la **Figure 1.1.**

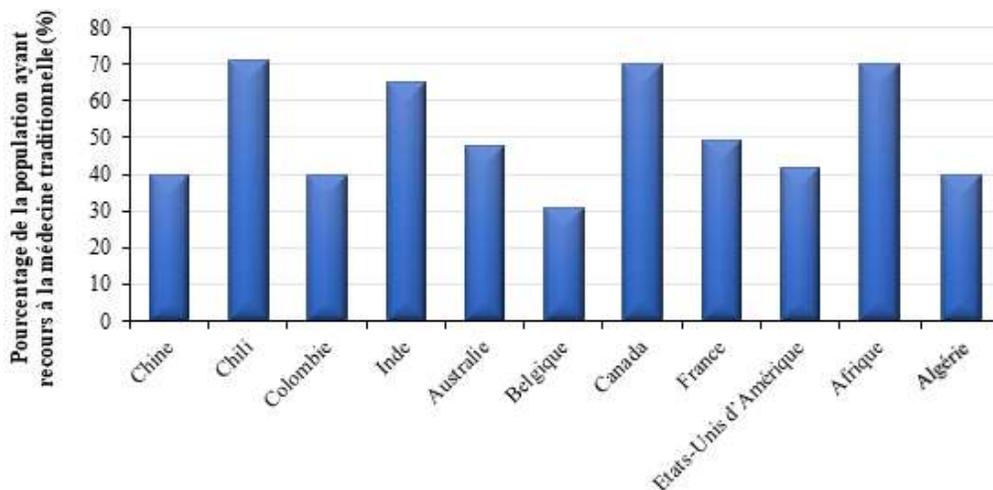


Figure 1.1. Situation de la médecine traditionnelle dans le monde, selon l'OMS 2003.

Les plantes médicinales nous procurent de nombreuses substances bioactives; parmi lesquelles les huiles essentielles et végétales ont suscité un grand intérêt [6–9]. En plus de leur utilisation médicinale, les huiles trouvent de nouvelles embauches dans plusieurs secteurs, principalement en agroalimentaire, en textile et font aussi l'objet d'une énorme

consommation en parfumerie et en cosmétique où elles sont appréciées pour leurs propriétés organoleptiques. Dans ce chapitre sont présentées :

- ✓ Des généralités sur les huiles essentielles et végétales et leurs compositions chimiques.
- ✓ Une description botanique des deux plantes étudiées « le palmier dattier » et « le costus indien » en spécifiant les composants majoritaires et minoritaires des deux matrices et de leurs huiles.
- ✓ Le principe d'extraction par CO₂ supercritique adopté dans cette étude ainsi que les problèmes qui entravent l'utilisation des huiles.

1.2. Huiles végétales

1.2.1. Définition

Les huiles végétales (HV), également appelées huiles non essentielles ou huiles fixes, sont des matières grasses, non volatiles, onctueuses, épaisses, insolubles dans l'eau et solubles dans les solvants organiques. Si les huiles essentielles (HE) sont extraites des plantes aromatiques, les HV, proviennent essentiellement de plantes oléagineuses (du latin « oleago » : « qui contient de l'huile ») [49]. Elles sont généralement extraites des graines (soja, sésame, tournesol etc.), ou moins souvent d'autres parties comme le péricarpe de certains fruits (olive, avocat etc.), par simple pressage et / ou procédé d'extraction au solvant [8]. Les HV se différencient des graisses par leur point de fusion. Les graisses sont plus ou moins solides à la température de 15°C, tandis que les huiles sont des corps gras liquides à cette température [50].

1.2.2. Composition chimique

Les HV sont composées d'une grande variété de constituants selon leur origine, leur type de culture et le mode et la période de récolte [51]. Elles sont composées de :

A. Triglycérides

Les triglycérides, autrement nommés triacylglycérols, représentent 95 à 98% du poids total de l'huile [8]. Les triglycérides résultent de l'estérification d'une molécule de trialcool (glycérol) avec trois molécules d'acides gras (R-COOH) (**Fig.1.2**).

Les caractéristiques des HV dépendent de plusieurs paramètres, y compris ; la longueur et le degré d'insaturation de la chaîne carbonée des acides gras et la stéréochimie des doubles liaisons [52]. De plus, les variétés climatiques, agronomiques et culturales

peuvent engendrer une différence dans la composition en acides gras des triglycérides [8] (Fig.1.3).

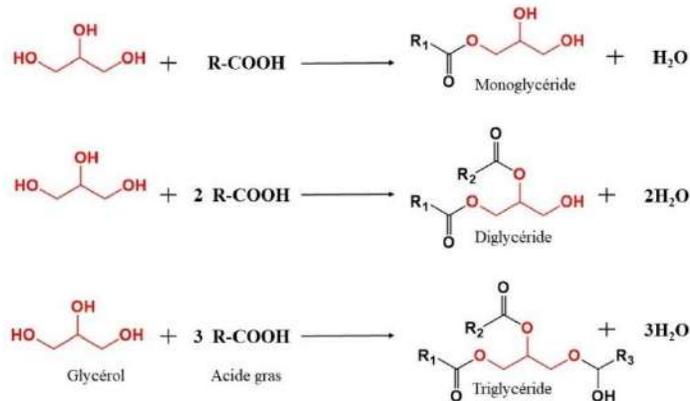


Figure I.2. Représentation schématique des monoglycérides, diglycérides et triglycérides.

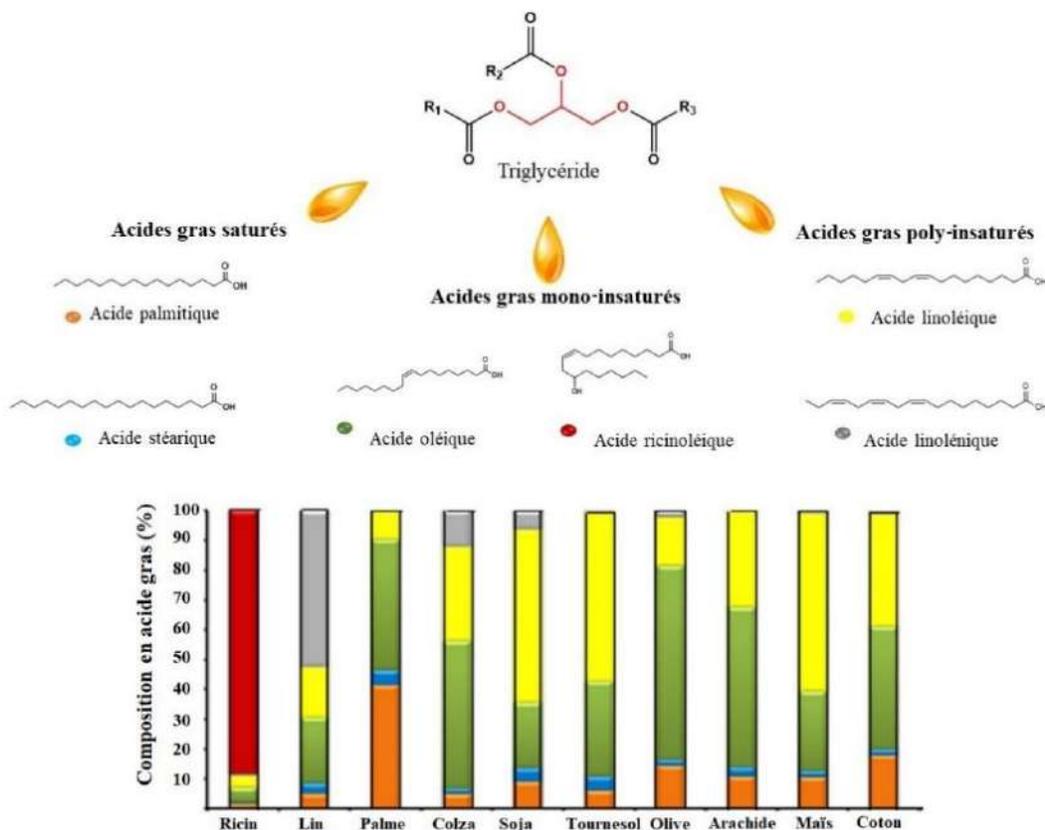


Figure 1.3. Composition moyenne en acide gras (%) de quelques huiles végétales.

B. Composants minoritaires

Outre les triglycérides, les HV contiennent également divers composants minoritaires (moins de 5%) présentant des propriétés biologiques et des valeurs nutritionnelles cruciales [8]. Ces composants comprennent deux groupes les glycérolipides comme les mono- et diglycérides et les phospholipides et les non glycérolipides tels que les tocols, les stérols, les acides gras libres, les pigments, les vitamines, les composés phénoliques, les protéines, l'eau, etc. (**Fig.4**) [53].

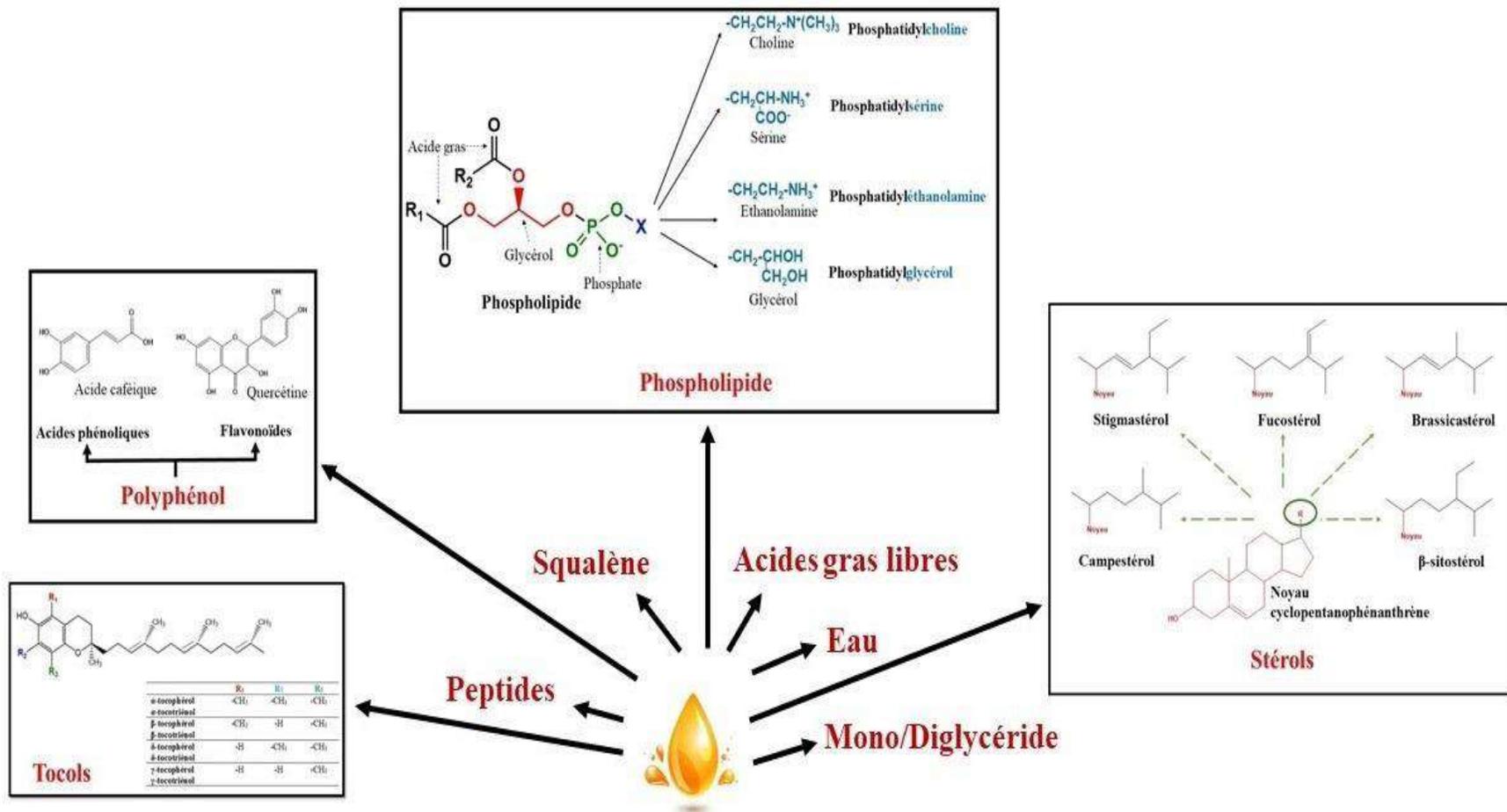


Figure 1.4. Composants minoritaires des huiles végétales.

1.3. Huile végétale des noyaux de dattes

La datte, le fruit du palmier dattier, a toujours été considérée depuis les temps immémoriaux un élément important de l'alimentation tant pour les humains que pour les animaux due à sa valeur nutritive et énergétique inégalable. En plus de sa consommation directe, la datte est utilisée comme matière première en industrie alimentaire (la pâte de dattes [54], la farine de dattes [55], les jus [56], les sirops [57], la confiserie [58], le vinaigre [59], l'alcool [60], etc.). Les bénéfices attendus par la consommation des dattes sont largement documentés [61–64].

Les noyaux de dattes sont des sous-produits (déchets) issus de plusieurs procédés de transformation de dattes. Actuellement, ils sont devenus un problème environnemental majeur pour les zones de production et de transformation. En effet, des tonnes de noyaux de dattes sont quotidiennement jetées comme matière indésirable ou utilisées principalement pour l'alimentation des bovins, des moutons et des chameaux [65]. La littérature fait état de plusieurs travaux consacrés à la recherche de solutions à ce problème et à valoriser ces sous-produits [66–68].

1.3.1. Généralités sur le palmier dattier

Le palmier dattier est connu, depuis des décennies, comme le pilier des écosystèmes oasiens. Il permet de protéger contre le rayonnement solaire et de limiter les dégâts d'ensablement dans ces zones désertiques. Le nom systématique du dattier, *Phoenix dactylifera* L., provient du mot « phoenix » qui indique dattier chez les phéniciens, et « dactylifera » qui dérive du terme « dactulos » signifiant un doigt chez les grecs, allusion faite à la forme du fruit [69]. Le palmier dattier est une plante dioïque, monocotylédone, arborescente, cultivée dans les régions arides et semi-arides et retrouvée entre 10° et 39° d'altitude nord [70]. La classification systématique du palmier dattier est comme suit :

- ✓ **Règne** : Plantae
- ✓ **Division** : Magnoliophyta
- ✓ **Classe** : Liliopsida
- ✓ **Ordre** : Arecales
- ✓ **Famille** : Arecaceae
- ✓ **Genre** : Phoenix
- ✓ **Espèce** : *Phoenix dactylifera* L.

Le genre *Phoenix* comporte près de douze espèces dont l'espèce *Phoenix dactylifera* constitue le véritable palmier dattier. Les fruits « dattes » font l'objet d'un commerce international important [71].

1.3.2. Répartition géographique du palmier dattier et production des dattes dans le monde

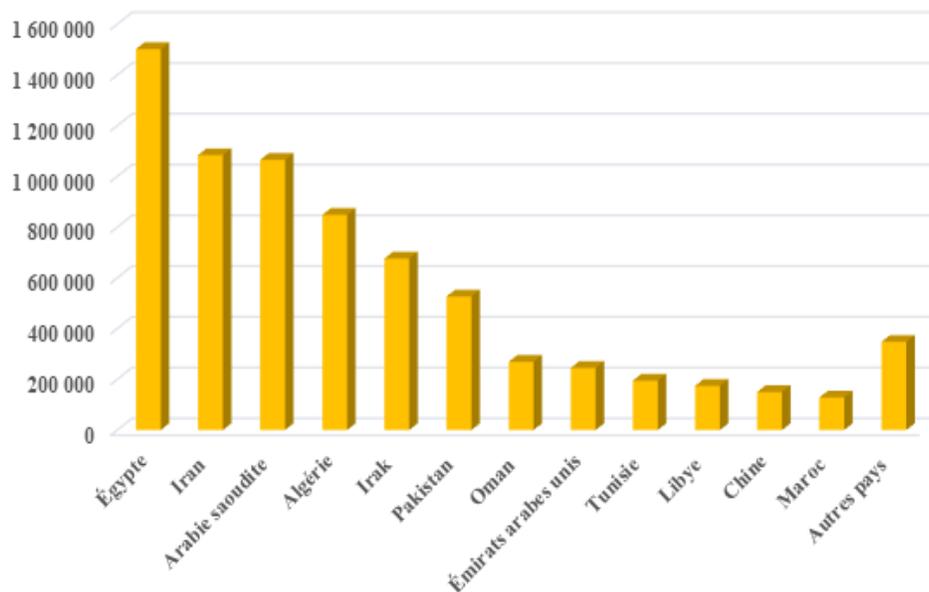
La datte se place au 5^e rang des fruits les plus cultivés dans les régions arides et semi-arides, après les agrumes, la mangue, la banane et l'ananas (**Fig.1.5**).



Figure 1.5. Répartition géographique du palmier dattier.

La production mondiale de dattes varie autour de 7 millions de tonnes par année [72]. Concentrée à 90% au Moyen-Orient et en Afrique du Nord. Les principaux pays producteurs sont l'Égypte, l'Iran, l'Arabie saoudite, l'Algérie et le Pakistan (**Fig.1.6**) [73]. Aux Etats-Unis d'Amérique, la culture du palmier n'a débuté que vers les années 1900 avec l'importation des variétés irakiennes. En Europe, l'Espagne est l'unique pays producteur des dattes principalement dans la célèbre palmeraie d'Elche [73].

a.



b.

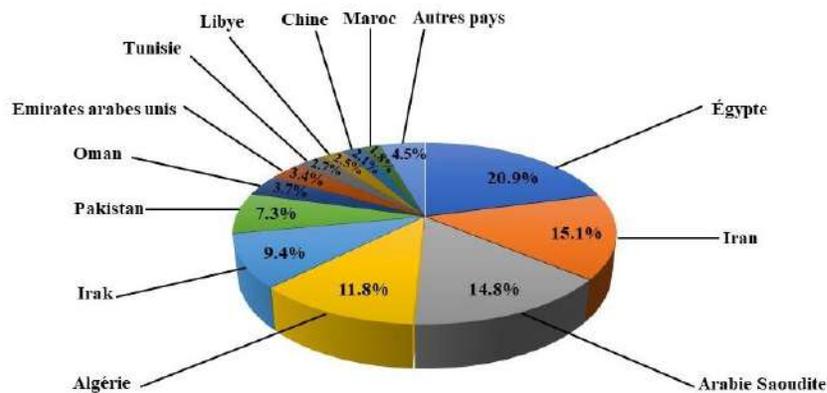


Figure 1.6. Production mondiale des dattes en tonnes (a) et en pourcentage (b) en 2015.

1.3.3. Morphologie du palmier dattier

Le dattier est généralement un palmier de grande taille d'une hauteur d'environ 20 à 30 m, au tronc cylindrique autrement appelé stipe ou tige, portant une couronne de feuilles (palmes) pennées, finement divisées de 4 à 7 m de longueur. Les fleurs mâles et femelles sont portées par des palmiers différents, d'où la caractéristique de l'espèce dioïque [69]. Les fruits sont appelés dattes et sont groupés en régimes (**Fig.1.7**).

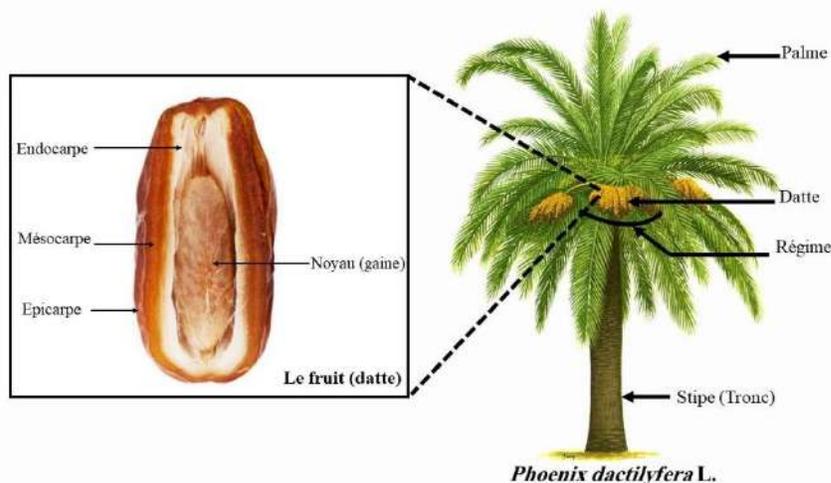


Figure 1.7. Présentation morphologique du palmier dattier.

La datte est une baie généralement de forme allongée, oblongue ou arrondie, d'un poids variable (2 à 8 g) et d'une taille de 2 à 8 cm de longueur selon les variétés. La couleur de la datte dépend des cultivars et du stade de maturation. Elle varie du blanc jaunâtre au noir en passant par les couleurs ambres, rouges et brunes [71]. La baie comporte deux parties :

- Une partie comestible dite pulpe ou chair, composée d'un *mésocarpe* charnu, de consistance variable selon sa teneur en sucre, protégé par une enveloppe cellulosique fine, appelée *épicarpe*. L'*endocarpe* de teinte plus clair et de texture fibreuse se présente sous la forme d'une membrane très fine entourant le noyau [74] (**Fig.1.7**).
- Une partie non comestible ayant une consistance dure appelée noyau ou gaine. Le noyau de dattes est de forme allongée représentant 10 à 15% du poids total des dattes [70]. Il est constitué d'un embryon dorsal, d'un sillon ventral et d'un albumen corné d'une consistance dure et protégé par un tégument [69] (**Fig.1.8**).

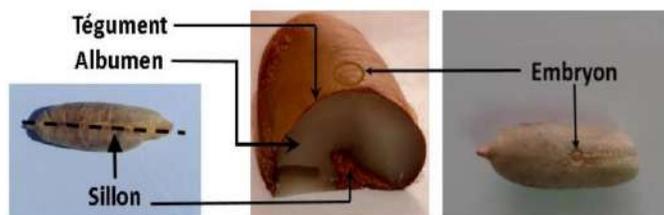


Figure 1.8. Présentation morphologique d'un noyau de datte (El-Khadem et al.)ⁱ.

ⁱ ELKhadem B, Rekia M. *Valorisation des noyaux de dattes par production de bioénergie dans la région d'Adrar*. Mémoire de Master, Université d'Adrar, 2019; pp.13.

1.3.4. Composition chimique des noyaux de dattes

Les travaux de recherche menés sur la composition des noyaux de différentes variétés de dattes cultivées dans différents pays ont démontré la présence des protéines, des lipides, des carbohydrates, des sucres, des minéraux, des flavonoïdes, des acides phénoliques et de l'eau à différentes concentrations tout dépend de l'origine et la saison de culture (**Tableau 1.1**).

Tableau 1.1. Différents composés identifiés dans différentes variétés des noyaux de dattes.

Cultivar	Variété des noyaux de dattes	Contenance	Réf.
<i>Protéine</i>			
Iran	-Mazafati Bam, Mazafati Jiroft et Kalutah	4.44-5.07 ^a	[75]
		5.21-8.62 ^a	[76]
Arabie	-Soukari	8.84-14.09 ^a	[77]
Saoudite	-Barhi, Khulas, Monaif, Rozaiz, Soukari, Soulage et Soughi	3.71-5.47 ^a	[78]
	-Deglet Nour et Allig	5.17-5.56 ^b	[79]
Tunisie	-Deglet Nour, Allig, Kentichi, Bejo, Zehdi et Baydh El Hamam	2070-3870 ^b	[80]
	-Boufgous, Bousthammi et Majhoul	4300-6100 ^b	[81]
Maroc	-Deglet Noor, Khadrawy, Medjool et Zahidi	4440-5490 ^b	[82]
	-Arechti et Korkobbi	5.3-5.84 ^a	[83]
<i>Huile</i>			
Arabie	-Soukari	8.6-9.8 ^a	[77]
Saoudite	-Barhi, Khulas, Monaif, Rozaiz, Soukari, Soulage et Soughi	5.05-7.95 ^a	[78]
<i>Sucre</i>			
Maroc	-Boufgous, Bousthammi et Majhoul	8700-9500 ^b	[81]
	-Deglet Noor, Khadrawy, Medjool et Zahidi	4500-6960 ^b	[82]
Arabie	-Barhi, Khulas, Monaif, Rozaiz, Soukari, Soulage, et	Glu: 313-359 ^b ; Fru: 340-393	[78]
Saoudite	Soughi	^b ; Raf: 285-328 ^b ; Stach: 335-384 ^b ; Suc: 306-354 ^b	
	-Arechti, Korkobbi	4.43-5.33 ^a	[83]
Tunisie	-Lemsi, Amari, Hammouri, Korkobi, Matata, Halwaya, Rochdi, Deglet Nour, Baht, Bouhattam, Eguiwa et Khadhouri	1.21-3.81 ^a	[84]
	-Deglet Nour, Allig, Kentichi, Bejo, Zehdi et Baydh El Hamam	86540-86660 ^b	[80]
<i>Lipide</i>			
Maroc	-Boufgous, Bousthammi et Majhoul	5700-6900 ^b	[81]
	-Deglet Noor, Khadrawy, Medjool et Zahidi	9320-10190 ^b	[82]
Tunisie	-Deglet Nour et Allig	10.19-12.6 ^b	[79]
	-Lemsi, Amari, Hammouri, Korkobi, Matata, Halwaya, Rochdi, Deglet Nour, Baht, Bouhattam, Eguiwa et Khadhouri	4.88-7.84 ^a	[84]
	-Arechti and Korkobbi	8.93-9.02 ^a	[83]
	-Deglet Nour, Allig, Kentichi, Bejo, Zehdi et Baydh El Hamam	870-3810 ^b	[80]
<i>Eau</i>			
Iran	-Mazafati Bam, Mazafati Jiroft et Kalutah	1.66-2.33 ^a	[75]
	-Mazafati Bam, Mazafati Jiroft, Kalutah	9.72-16.28 ^a	[76]
	-Soukari	3.58-7.04 ^a	[77]

Arabie Saoudite	-Barhi, Khulas, Monaif, Rozaiz, Soukari, Soulage and Soughi	7.87-9.01 ^a	[78]
Maroc	-Boufgous, Bousthammi, Majhoul	3580-7040 ^b	[81]
	-Deglet Nour, Khadrawy, Medjool, Zahidi	4.9-6.36 ^a	[82]
Tunisie	-Lemsi, Amari, Hammouri, Korkobi, Matata, Halwaya, Rochdi, Deglet Nour, Baht, Bouhattam, Eguiwa, Khadhouri	73.83-82.37 ^a	[84]
Acide phénolique			
Maroc	-Jihel et Majhoul	Caf: 59.76-92.37 ^b ; Chl: 6.07-11.82 ^b ; Cou: 109.87-141.72 ^b ; Féru: 8.42-14.31 ^b ; Gal: 8.54-12.38 ^b ; Syr: 0.27-0.81 ^b ; Van: 8.92-11.31 ^b	[85]
	-Boufgous, Bousthammi et Majhoul	2690-5340 ^b	[81]
Arabie Saoudite	-Soukari	525.35-595.83 ^b	[77]
Emirates	-Abu Maan, Fard, Khalas, Ajwa, Mabroom, Lulu et Khodari	4.65-7.8 ^b	[76]
Tunisie	-Lemsi, Amari, Hammouri, Korkobi, Matata, Halwaya, Rochdi, Deglet Nour, Baht, Bouhattam, Eguiwa et Khadhouri	5130-9530 ^b	[84]
	-Arechti et Korkobbi	4.21-4.43 ^b	[83]
	-Deglet Nour, Allig et Bejo	Gal: 0.43-0.84 ^a , Van: 8.86-20.8 ^a Caf: 0.52-1.72 ^a , Syr: 0.8-2.15 ^a Cou :51.93-59.96 ^a , Féru: 5.31-17.27 ^a Sin : 3.59-8.13 ^a , Cin : 2.9-6.8 ^a	[86]
Iran	-Kabkab, Rabbi, Zahedi et Mazafati	241-280 ^b	[87]
Lybie	-Adwi, Taleese et TASFERT	Gal: 2.56- 6.91 ^c ,	[88]
Maroc	-Adwi, Allig, Boufgous et Majhoul	Syr: 1.28- 4.86 ^c ,	
Algérie	-Deglet Nour et Ghars	Pro: 0.031-0.089 ^c ,	
Soudan	-Barakawi et Gondeila	Caf: 1.18- 3.43 ^c	
Pakistan	-Dhakki et Dora		
Carbohydate			
Emirates	-Abu Maan, Fard, Khalas, Ajwa, Mabroom, Lulu et Khodari	2.1-4.8 ^a	[76]
Tunisie	-Deglet Nour et Allig	81-83.1 ^b	[79]
Minéraux			
Iran	-Mazafati Bam, Mazafati Jiroft et Kalutah	Na : 25- 29.667 ^c , K: 0.47-0.6 ^c , Ca : 25-29.66 ^c , Fe : 42.9-106.66 ^c , Zn : 6.23- 153.33 ^c , Cu : 25.14- 29.64 ^c , P : 0.06-0.08 ^c , Mn :4.5-7.9 ^c	[75]
	-Barhi, Khulas, Monaif, Rozaiz, Soukari, Soulage et Soughi	B: 5.2-6.2 ^c , Ca: 264-688 ^c , Cr: 1.27-2.19 ^c , Fe: 24.8-37.7 ^c , K: 3285-4212 ^c , Mg: 738-893 ^c , Mn: 3.37-7.79 ^c , Ni: 0.8-1.6 ^c , P :2101-3063 ^c , Zn : 8.48-14.18 ^c	[78]
Maroc	-Boufgous, Bousthammi et Majhoul	K : 2967.12-4153.30 ^c , Na : 108.06-319.42 ^c , Mg: 615.30-827.62 ^c , Ca : 394.97-626.71 ^c , Fe : 27.76-70.30 ^c , Cu : 4.83-8.36 ^c , Mn : 5.51-10.99 ^c , Zn : 8.77-14.79 ^c	[76]

Tunisie	-Deglet Nour et Allig	K: 229-293 ^b , Na: 10.25-10.40 ^b , Mg: 51.7-58.4 ^b , Ca: 28.9-38.8 ^b , Fe: 2.21-2.30 ^b	[79]
	-Lemsi, Amari, Hammouri, Korkobi, Matata, Halwaya, Rochdi, Deglet Nour, Baht, Bouhattam, Eguiwa et Khadhouri	Na: 10.61-16.7 ^b , P: 68.33-124 ^b , K: 201-290 ^b	[84]
	-Arechti et Korkobbi	Na: 43.6-45.8 ^b , K: 322-391 ^b , Ca: 30.4-47.8 ^b , Fe: 5.05-8.40 ^b , Cu: 1.52-2.31 ^b , Mg: 74.6-93.2 ^b , Mn: 0.47-0.85 ^b	[83]
	-Deglet Nour, Allig, Kentichi, Bejo, Zehdi et Baydh El Hamam	K: 70.81-100.53 ^b , Na: 3.67-22.14 ^b , Ca: 119.54-215.36 ^b , P: 58.13-68.18 ^b , Zn: 0.48-1.02 ^b , Fe: 1.07-2.57 ^b	[80]
Flavonoïdes			
Maroc	-Jihel et Majhoul	Lutéoline : 9.17-13.24 ^b Quercétine : 23.71-34.06 ^b Rutoside : 71.74-86.32 ^b	[85]
	-Boufgous, Bousthammi et Majhoul	1220-1840 ^b	(27)
Emirates	-Abu Maan, Fard, Khalas, Ajwa, Mabroom, Lulu et Khodari	1.6-4.54 ^b	[76]
Tunisie	-Lemsi, Amari, Hammouri, Korkobi, Matata, Halwaya, Rochdi, Deglet Nour, Baht, Bouhattam, Eguiwa et Khadhouri	1430-3830 ^b	[84]
	-Arechti et Korkobbi	2.92-3.31 ^b	[83]
	-Deglet Nour, Allig et Bejo	Rutoside: 0.4-0.84 ^a Catéchine: 0.64-3.62 ^a	[86]
Lybie	-Adwi, Taleese et TASFERT	Rutoside: 0.89- 1.23 ^c	[88]
Maroc	-Adwi, Allig, Boufgous et Majhoul	Catéchine: 2.86- 7.23 ^c	
Algérie	-Deglet Nour et Ghars		
Soudan	-Barakawi et Gondeila		
Pakistan	-Dhakki et Dora		

^a pourcentage ; ^b mg/100g poids sec ; ^c mg/kg poids sec ; Glu: glucose; Fru: fructose; Raf: raffinose; Stach: stachyose; Suc: sucrose ; Caf: acide caféique; Chl: acide chlorogénique; Cou: acide p-coumarique; Féru : acide férulique ; Gal : acide gallique ; Syr : acide syringique ; Van :acide vanillique ; Pro : acide protocatéchine ; Sin : acide sinapique ; Cin : acide cinnamique ; Na : sodium, K: potassium, Ca : calcium, Fe : Fer, Zn : zinc, Cu : cuivre, P : phosphore, Mn : manganèse ; B: bore ; Cr: chrome ; Mg: magnésium ; Ni: nickel.

En plus de ces constituants, l'huile contenue dans les noyaux de dattes (5-10%) est largement étudiée dans la littérature pour ses effets précieux dans différents domaines [77,78]. Actuellement, de nombreuses études ont mis en valeur le contenu huileux des sous-produits de dattes à travers l'extraction de l'huile et l'étude de sa composition [89–92].

1.3.5. Composition chimique de l'huile des noyaux de dattes

a. Composition en acides gras

La composition en acide gras de l'huile des noyaux de dattes est illustrée dans le **Tableau 1.2.**

Tableau 1.2. Composition en acide gras de l'huile des noyaux de dattes issues de différentes variétés.

	Besbes et al. (2004) [79]	Basuny et al. (2011) [93]	Akbari et al. (2012) [94]	Boukouada et al. (2014) [95]	Soliman et al. (2015) [96]	Dehdivan et al. (2017) [97]	Bouhlali et al. (2017) [81]	Laghouiter et al. (2018) [98]	Nehdi et al. (2018) [92]	Al-juhaimi et al. (2018) [88]	Olowokere et al. (2019) [89]	Tafti et al. (2019) [75]	Raza et al. (2019) [99]
Composition en acides gras saturés (%)													
C8 :0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.00-0.25	-	-	0.1-1.2	-
C10 :0	0.07-0.80	0.25	0.47-0.50	0-4.3	-	0.2-0.5	-	-	0.00-0.32	-	11.19	0.2-0.5	0.48-0.55
C12 :0	5.81-17.8	35.31	25.6-30.8	22.1-28.5	8.67-24.17	14-15.8	16.74-20.34	6.63-25.36	-	9.7-24.6	24.37	14-15.8	25.7-30.8
C13 :0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.14-18.67	-	-	-	-
C14 :0	3.12-9.84	0.04	13.3-16.9	10.7-11.4	7.01-15.43	10.6-10.9	10.23-12.28	9.30-19.33	0.86-12.31	5.47-12.8	-	10.6-10.8	6.9-16.7
C16 :0	10.9-15.0	12.58	11.9-13.1	8.7-9.6	4.82-18.09	10.8-11.8	9.82-10.91	9.63-17.59	9.49-38.08	8.6-11.24	-	10.8-11.8	11.9-13.1
C17 :0	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.01-0.04	0.08-0.86	0.02-0.11	-	-	-	-
C18 :0	3.00-5.67	3.301	1.8-2.3	1.9-3.4	1.22-7.86	-	2.86-3.73	0.77-3.18	2.44-4.72	1.3-4.9	49.40	3-3.4	1.8-2.3
C20 :0	-	0.02	-	0-0.4	0-0.08	-	0.43-0.52	0.10-0.50	0.25-0.49	-	7.69	0.2-0.4	-
C22 :0	-	-	-	-	0-0.15	-	0.21-0.27	-	0.06-0.36	-	5.58	0-0.1	-
C23 :0	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.21-0.27	-	0.00-0.09	-	-	-	-
C24 :0	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.15-0.21	-	0.07-0.19	-	-	-	-
C26 :0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.00-0.06	-	-	-	-
Composition en acides gras monoinsaturés (%)													
C14 :1	0.04-0.09	-	-	-	-	0.01-0.07	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
C16 :1	0.11-1.52	-	nd	-	0.2-0.4	0.05-0.09	-	0.09-1.66	0.02-0.07	-	-	0.2-0.4	Nd
C18 :1	41.3-47.7	39.50	31.5-37.6	39.2-46.5	-	48.1-50.5	44.92-48.38	37.83-52.53	45.10-50.76	39.7-48.6	-	48.1-50.5	31.5-37.6
C20 :1	-	-	Nd	-	0.2-0.4	-	-	-	0.17-0.52	-	-	0.2-0.4	Nd
Composition en acides gras polyinsaturés (%)													
C18 :2	12.2-21.0	8.20	4.4-7.0	6.1-6.9	7.7-8.2	-	8.30-9.02	5.71-10.44	7.41-12.79	6.2-19.8	-	7.7-8.2	4.4-6.9
C18 :3	1.68-0.81	0.81	nd	0-0.3	0.4-0.7	-	0.09-0.21	0.1-0.41	0.01-0.25	0.3-2.3	-	0.4-0.7	Nd

C8 :0, acide caprylique ; **C10 :0**, acide caprique ; **C12 :0**, acide laurique ; **C13 :0**, acide tridécylique ; **C14 :0**, acide myristique ; **C16 :0**, acide palmitique ; **C17 :0**, acide margarique ; **C18 :0**, acide stéarique ; **C20 :0**, acide arachidique ; **C22 :0**, acide béhénique ; **C23 :0**, acide tricosylique ; **C24 :0**, acide lignocérique ; **C26 :0**, acide cérotique ; **C14 :1**, acide myristoléique ; **C16 :1**, acide palmitoléique ; **C18 :1**, acide oléique ; **C20 :1**, acide gadoléique ; **C18 :2**, acide linoléique ; **C18 :3**, acide linoléique. nd : non-déecté ; Tiret (-) : non-testé.

Variétés du Phoenix dactylifera L. utilisées dans les travaux reportés dans le Tableau : Cultivar Algérien : Degla-Baidha et Tafezouine [95] Ghars, Tafzouine, Azerza, Aoucht, Adela, Dagla, Timjhourt, Bint Qbala et Sboe Lossif [98] Deglet Nour et Ghars [88]. Cultivar Tunisien : Deglet Nour et Allig [79]. Cultivar Arabie Saoudite : Khalas [93], Khalas, Barhy, Kadary, Segae, Succary et Sallag [96] Barhi, Khalas, Manifi, Rezeiz, Sulaj et Sukkari [92]. Cultivar Iranien : Kabkab, Shekar et Shahabi [94] Mazafati Bam, Mazafati Jiroft et Kalutah [97] Mazafati Bam, Mazafati Jiroft et Kalutah [75]. Cultivar Marocain : Bousthammi, Majhoul et Boufgous [81] ; Adwi, Allig, Boufgous, Majhoul [88]. Cultivar Libyen : Adwi, Taleese et Tasfert [88]. Cultivar Soudanais : Barakawi et Gondeila [88]. Cultivar Pakistanais : Dhakki et Dora [88], Karblain, Halawi et Ajwa [99]. Cultivar Nigérien : Marmara [89]

L'analyse des acides gras de différentes variétés de noyaux de dattes a montré la présence de cinq acides gras majoritaires, mais en quantités variables (l'acide oléique, l'acide linoléique, l'acide palmitique, l'acide myristique et l'acide laurique) [75,88,94,95,99]. Certains acides gras sont détectés en quantités faibles, notamment les acides caprylique, caprique, tridécylique, margarique, stéarique, arachidique, béhénique, tricosylique, lignocérique, cérotique, myristoléique, palmitoléique, trans-vaccénique, gadoléique et linoléique. L'huile des noyaux de datte est une source d'acides gras saturés, monoinsaturés et polyinsaturés.

La composition en acides gras peut changer en fonction de la variété et du stade de maturation, ainsi que de la méthode d'extraction [100]. Différentes études ont rapporté que les acides gras insaturés et saturés majoritaires de l'HV des noyaux de dattes de différents cultivars iranien, algérien, tunisien et saoudien sont respectivement les acides oléique et laurique [94–97]. Olowokere et al. ont rapporté que le composant majoritaire dans la variété nigérienne (Marmara) est l'acide stérique (49.40%) suivi par l'acide laurique (24.37%)[89]. L'étude effectuée par Besbes et al. a révélé que les dattes tunisiennes (variétés Deglet Nour et Allig) sont plus riches en acides gras insaturés que des saturés [79].

Basuny et al. ont comparé le profil des acides gras des noyaux de dattes de la variété khalas avec l'huile commerciale de palmiste [93]. Ils ont constaté des taux élevés en acides oléique et linoléique par rapport à l'huile de palmiste. Les teneurs en acides oléique et linoléique sont de 39.5 et 8.2% pour la variété khalas ; et de 26.25 et 2.57% pour l'huile commerciale, respectivement.

b. Composition en stérols

Les stérols, encore appelés les phytostérols, représentent avec les tocols la plus grande partie insaponifiable des HV. Leur structure moléculaire présente de fortes analogies avec le cholestérol animal [101]. Le taux des phytostérols dans les HV est couramment utilisé pour déterminer la qualité d'huile [102]. La littérature a rapporté que les principaux stérols présents dans l'huile des noyaux de dattes sont le β -sitostérol, le campestérol et le Δ^5 -avénastérol (**Tableau 1.3**).

Tableau 1.3. Composition en constituants minoritaires de l'huile des noyaux de dattes issues de différentes variétés.

Constituant	Contenance	Composition	Réf.
Stérol	470 – 845 ^a	Cholestérol	[98]
	541 - 788 ^a	-	[103]
	8.3-11.7 ^a	Cholestérol	[91]
	336 ^a	β -sitostérol (76%), campestérol (8.89%), Δ 5-avenestérol (8.79%), Δ 5,24-stigmastadiérol (2.73%), Δ 7-avenastérol (1.18%), stigmastérol (1.09%), Δ 7-stigmastérol (0.79%), cholestérol (0.42%)	[104]
	300–350 ^a	β -sitostérol (80%), campestérol (10%), Δ 5-avenastérol (4.5%), stigmastérol (2.42%), cholestérol (0.96%), Δ 5,24-stigmastadiérol (0.41%)	[79]
	38.10 ^a	β -sitostérol (66%), campestérol (22%), stigmastérol (9%), brassicaestérol (3%)	[93]
Tocophérol et Tocotriérol	32 - 74 ^a	α -tocophérol (15.57–74.1%), β + γ tocophérol (25.12–56.01%), δ -tocophérol (0-28.41%)	[98]
	54.65 ^a	α -tocophérol (1.85%), β -tocophérol (1.7%), γ -tocophérol (17.72%), α -tocotriérol (63.28%), γ -tocotriérol (11.84%), δ -tocotriérol (3.60%)	[88]
	0.053–0.143 ^a	α -tocophérol (51.02%), (β + γ)-tocophérol (30.61%), δ -tocophérol (12.24%)	[95]
	1.01–1.86 ^a	α -tocophérol (52.54%), α -tocophéryl acetate (27.68%), γ -tocophérol (19.76%)	[105]
	24.97–42.08 ^a	α -tocophérol (38.8%), γ -tocophérol (5.4%), δ -tocophérol (2.4%)	[79]
	51.54 ^a	α -tocophérol (0.6%), δ -tocophérol (1%), β -tocophérol (0.9%), γ -tocophérol (10.3%), α -tocotriérol (66%), γ -tocotriérol (4.6%)	[104]
	70.75 ^a	α -tocophérol (17.52%), β -tocophérol (2.42%), δ -tocophérol (0.9%), α -tocotriérol (30.19%), γ -tocophérol (23.61%), γ -tocotriérol (19.07%), δ -tocotriérol (5.89%)	[92]
	2.43 ^a	α -tocophérol	[93]
Acides phénoliques	312-347 ^a	-	[91]
	64-127 ^a	-	[95]
	22.03–52.08 ^a	Hydroxytyrosol (10.21%), acide protocatéchique (9.62%), tyrosol (8.10%), acide caféique (4.95%), acide gallique (4.11%), acide p-coumarique (0.26%), oleuropéine (0.18%)	[106]
	79 - 177 ^a	-	[107]
	319 ^a	-	[93]
Caroténoïde	10.4-12.8 ^b	-	[91]
Flavanoïde	0.626 ^a	Rutoside (17%), catéchine (83%)	[88]
	41-52 ^a	-	[91]
Minéraux	48.69 ^a	K (64.7%), Na (10.2%), Mg (0.04%), Ca (25.1%), Fe (0.05%)	[96]
Chlorophylle	0.21-0.25 ^b	-	[91]
	0.10 ^b	-	[104]

(-) : Non-déterminé ; ^a mg/100g d'huile ; ^b mg/kg d'huile.

D'autres stérols mineurs sont aussi présents dans l'huile des noyaux de dattes comme le cholestérol, le stigmastérol, le $\Delta 5,24$ -stigmastadiénol, le $\Delta 7$ -avénastérol et le $\Delta 7$ stigmastérol [79,93,104].

Les stérols remplissent plusieurs fonctions d'un point de vue biologique, telle que l'activité anticholestérol. Par leur structure comparable au cholestérol, ils réduisent entre autres l'absorption du cholestérol dans les intestins. Tapiero et ses collaborateurs ont montré que les stérols des HV réduisaient le taux du cholestérol total dans le sang, en particulier le « mauvais cholestérol » en inhibant son absorption dans l'intestin [108].

c. Composition en tocophérols et tocotriénols

Les HV contiennent aussi des traces de tocols (tocophérols et tocotriénols), communément appelés vitamine E. Des recherches récentes ont caractérisé les profils de la famille des tocols dans l'extrait des noyaux de dattes (**Tableau 1.3**). Différentes formes de tocols (α -, β -, γ - et δ -tocophérols et α -, β -, γ - et δ -tocotriénols) sont constatées. La prédominance d'un tocol ou d'un autre dépend de l'origine de l'huile. Alpha-tocophérol et α -tocotriénol sont les principaux tocols présents dans la majorité des cultivars testés [88,92,105]. Dans d'autres études réalisées sur d'autres variétés de noyaux de dattes, γ -tocophérol et α -tocotriénol sont trouvés comme tocols majoritaires [88,104]. Les tocols présentent différentes activités biologiques telles que des activités neuroprotectrices, anticancéreuses, cardioprotectrices, immunostimulantes, antidiabétiques, hépatoprotectrices et néphroprotectrices [109].

d. Composition en polyphénols

L'activité antioxydante de l'huile des noyaux de dattes est due principalement à la présence des phénols et des flavonoïdes. La teneur de ces deux constituants dans l'huile des noyaux de dattes est largement examinée (**Tableau 1.3**). L'étude menée sur la variété tunisienne Kentichi a révélé la présence des flavonoïdes dans les limites 41-52 mg/100g d'huile [91]. De plus, Besbes et al. ont constaté la présence de huit composés phénoliques à des taux compris entre 22.03 et 52.08 mg/100g d'huile dans les variétés tunisienne (Deglet Nour et Allig) [106]. Besbes et al. ont mené une autre étude sur la stabilité des mêmes huiles, les résultats ont montré que la stabilité élevée de l'huile de Deglet Nour est liée au taux élevé en composés phénoliques comparativement à l'huile de Allig [110].

e. Autres composants

Les résultats des travaux antérieurs résumés dans le **Tableau 1.3** montre que l'huile des noyaux de dattes peut contenir d'autres produits minoritaires. L'étude menée par Herch et al. sur la variété tunisienne kentichi a révélé la présence des caroténoïdes à raison de 10.4 à 12.8 (mg/kg d'huile) [91]. Une autre étude élaborée par Soliman et al. a montré que les huiles des noyaux de dattes issues de six cultivars saoudiens (Khalas, Barhy, Kadary, Segae, Succary et Sallag) contiennent des minéraux (48.69 mg/100g d'huile) dont le potassium est l'élément majoritaire (64.7%), suivi par le calcium (25.1%) puis le sodium (10.2%)[96].

1.3.6. Utilisation de l'huile des noyaux de dattes

L'huile des noyaux de dattes est largement utilisée dans le domaine agro-alimentaire, médicinal et industriel, comme le montre le **Tableau 1.4**.

Tableau 1.4. Différentes utilisations de l'huile des noyaux de dattes.

Variété	Région	Activité/Utilisation	Caractéristique	Réf.
<i>Utilisation culinaire</i>				
Tunisienne				
Deglet-Nour	Degach	Huile de friture	Temps d'induction de l'oxydation très élevé.	[111]
Allig		Huile de cuisson	Stable à la chaleur pour une longue durée.	
Saoudienne				
Khalas	Al-Hasa	Production de la mayonnaise	Acceptabilité (goût, odeur, couleur et texture).	[93]
Algérienne				
Kentichi	ns	Production de la margarine	Acceptabilité (couleur, texture et brillance)	[112]
<i>Utilisation médicinale</i>				
Tunisienne				
Deglet nour	Degach	Chimiopréventive	Augmentation de l'activité des enzymes antioxydants endogènes : CAT, SOD et GPx	[113]
		Photoprotectrice	Diminution de l'expression de la protéine p53	[114]
			Diminution de peroxydation lipidique des spermatozoïdes	[115]
Algérienne				
Kentichi	ns	Antioxydante Antibactérienne	Crème : PH=6.33 ; PE=14.78cm ²	[66]
Deglet-Nour	Ouargla	Antioxydante	CI ₅₀ (DPPH)= 210 ^a	[95]
Ghars	Ouargla	Antioxydante	CI ₅₀ (DPPH)= 140 ^a	[95]
	Ghardaia		CI ₅₀ (DPPH)= 46.97 ^a	[98]
Degla-Baïdha	Ouargla	Antioxydante	CI ₅₀ (DPPH)= 170 ^a	[95]
Tamdjoughert	Ouargla	Antioxydante	CI ₅₀ (DPPH)= 290 ^a	[95]
	Ghardaia		CI ₅₀ (DPPH)= 47.97 ^a	[98]
Tafezouine	Ouargla	Antioxydante	CI ₅₀ (DPPH)= 330 ^a	[95]
	Ghardaia		CI ₅₀ (DPPH)= 59.21 ^a	[98]

Azerza	Ghardaia	Antioxydante	CI ₅₀ (DPPH)= 77.58 ^a	[98]
Aoucht	Ghardaia	Antioxydante	CI ₅₀ (DPPH)= 53.95 ^a	[98]
Adela	Ghardaia	Antioxydante	CI ₅₀ (DPPH)= 64.10 ^a	[98]
Bint Qbala	Ghardaia	Antioxydante	CI ₅₀ (DPPH)= 56.82 ^a	[98]
Sboe Lossif	Ghardaia	Antioxydante	CI ₅₀ (DPPH)= 46.42 ^a	[98]
<i>Utilisation industrielle</i>				
Emiratie				
Khalas	ns	Production du biodiesel	Biodiesel conforme aux normes	[116]
Pakistanaise				
Zahidi	ns	Production du biodiesel	Biodiesel conforme aux normes	[117]
Basra	ns			
Khazravi	ns			
Irakienne				
ns	ns	Synthèse du poly (3-hydroxybutyrate)	Structure moléculaire et propriétés thermiques similaires au poly (3-hydroxybutyrate) standard.	[118]
Algérienne				
Deglet Nour Kentichi	Tolga	Anticorrosive	Diminution de la dégradation de l'acier.	[119]

^a mg/ml ; DPPH : 1,1-diphényl-2-picrylhydrazyle ; CI₅₀ : Concentration de l'échantillon testé nécessaire pour réduire 50 % des radicaux libres; SOD : superoxide dismutase ; CAT : catalase ; GPx : glutathione peroxidase ; PE : Pouvoir d'étalement ; ns : non spécifié.

a. Utilisation en agro-alimentaire

L'huile des noyaux de dattes présente une composition chimique et des caractéristiques physico-chimiques précieuses pour son utilisation culinaire (huile de friture, de cuisson ou d'assaisonnement, voire même alternative à l'oléine de palme) [92]. Ceci est lié à la présence de nombreux antioxydants naturels (composés phénoliques, tocols, etc.) qui la rendent très stable face aux rancissements oxydatifs [104] et aux traitements thermiques [111]. En effet, Besbes et al. ont remarqué que les huiles extraites de Deglet Nour et Allig peuvent être utilisées comme huile de friture et de cuisson due à leur résistance à la chaleur et leur grande stabilité à l'oxydation [111]. De plus, l'huile des noyaux de dattes peut être utilisée pour la production de la margarine en raison de la présence de caroténoïdes qui confèrent une couleur jaunâtre du beurre sans ajout de colorants synthétiques [104]. Basuny et Al-Marzooq ont préparé une mayonnaise à base d'huile des noyaux de dattes saoudienne (khalas) et ont trouvé qu'elle était supérieure en termes de caractéristiques sensorielles par rapport à la mayonnaise commerciale préparée à base d'huile de maïs [93].

b. Utilisation en médecine

Suite à son large spectre d'absorbance des rayons UV, l'huile des noyaux de dattes peut protéger la peau contre les rayons UV-A et UV-B, qui sont responsables de la plupart des dommages cellulaires ainsi que des altérations causées par le stress oxydatif [110]. Dammak et al. ont étudié l'effet protecteur de l'huile des noyaux de dattes contre le stress oxydatif causé par le peroxyde d'hydrogène sur des kératinocytes épidermiques humaines normales [113]. Les résultats ont montré que l'huile est pourvue d'un effet chimioprotecteur par inhibition de la peroxydation lipidique induite par le peroxyde d'hydrogène. Dans une autre étude menée par ces mêmes auteurs, l'HV des noyaux de dattes présente des effets photoprotecteurs significatifs par inhibition des dommages d'ADN suite à l'irradiation UV-B des peaux humaines saines [114].

L'huile des noyaux de dattes est apte à être incorporer dans les crèmes cosmétiques. Actuellement, Lecheb et Benamara ont formulé et caractérisé une bio-crème contenant l'HV des noyaux de dattes et ont noté un bon étalement de la crème avec une viscosité et un comportement rhéologique similaires à ceux des crèmes commerciales [66].

Le contenu en antioxydants naturels et l'activité antioxydante diffèrent selon le cultivar. Boukouada et al. ont mené l'étude de l'activité antioxydante de cinq variétés algériennes en utilisant la méthode de DDPH (1,1-diphényl-2-picrylhydrazyle) basée sur la capacité des antioxydants à piéger le radical DPPH[•]. Les résultats ont révélé une différence significative entre les différentes variétés testées et ceci a été attribuée à la teneur en acides phénoliques [95]. Laghouiter et al. ont lié l'activité antioxydante puissante de la variété Sboe Lossif à son taux élevé en α -tocophérol (0.74mg/g d'huile) [98].

L'activité de l'huile des noyaux de dattes contre les espèces réactives de l'oxygène responsables des dommages oxydatifs cellulaires ne se limite pas aux soins de la peau. En effet, une étude menée par Ben Abdallah et al. a révélé que le niveau de la peroxydation lipidique des spermatozoïdes ajoutés avec de l'huile des noyaux de dattes diminue et que la capacité du sperme à féconder l'ovocyte augmente [115]. Dans une autre étude, il est constaté que l'utilisation de l'huile des noyaux de dattes augmente la motilité, la viabilité et le nombre de spermatozoïdes chez la souris [120].

Dans l'ensemble, l'huile des noyaux de dattes peut être considérée comme un produit diététique prometteur avec des effets antioxydants avérés à être incorporer dans les produits cosmétiques et / ou diététiques.

c. Utilisation en industrie

L'huile des noyaux de dattes est extrêmement prometteuse, non seulement dans la production de produits alimentaires fonctionnels et pharmaceutiques, mais aussi en tant qu'une ressource renouvelable. Différents travaux ont été mené sur la transformation de l'HV des noyaux de dattes en biodiesel [116,121]. Azeem et et. ont attribué ce fait à la faible teneur de l'huile en acides gras libres [117]. L'huile des noyaux de dattes est récemment explorée comme matière première pour la synthèse du poly (3-hydroxybutyrate), un polyester biodégradable qui peut remplacer les plastiques contaminants [118].

Une autre application de l'huile des noyaux de dattes est exploitée par Ouadi et al., il s'agit de l'activité anticorrosive [119]. Dans cette étude, le processus de la corrosion est inhibé par l'application de l'HV sur la surface de l'acier traité par une solution d'HCl (1M).

1.4. Huiles essentielles

1.4.1. Définition

Les HE, connues également sous le nom d'essences, d'huiles volatiles ou de parfums, etc., sont des liquides aromatiques, odorants, peu ou pas miscibles à l'eau, incolores ou jaunâtres, inflammables et qui s'altèrent facilement à l'air [122]. Les HE se forment dans un grand nombre de plantes aromatiques comme produits du métabolisme secondaire [123]. Elles sont liquides à température ordinaire avec un toucher non onctueux et non gras contrairement aux HV. Elles sont connues par leur odeur plus ou moins remarquable, suave, piquante ou désagréable [122].

1.4.2. Composition chimique

Les HE constituent un mélange complexe et variable de constituants appartenant exclusivement à deux groupes distincts : les terpénoïdes et les phénylpropanoïdes.

A. Terpènes

Les terpènes sont les composés les plus abondants dans les HE [124]. Ils sont classés en deux catégories principales : les hydrocarbures terpéniques et les dérivés oxygénés [10].

a. Hydrocarbures terpéniques

Les hydrocarbures terpéniques de formule chimique $(C_5H_8)_n$ sont des dérivés de l'isoprène (C_5H_8); reliés tête à queue d'une façon linéaire ou cyclique [124] (**Fig.1.9**). En fonction du nombre d'unités isoprène, différents terpènes peuvent être trouvés dans les HE [125]:

- ✓ $n = 2$: les monoterpènes ($C_{10}H_{16}$)
- ✓ $n = 3$: les sesquiterpènes ($C_{15}H_{24}$)
- ✓ $n = 4$: les diterpènes ($C_{20}H_{32}$)
- ✓ $n = 5$: les sesterpènes ($C_{25}H_{40}$)
- ✓ $n = 6$: les triterpènes ($C_{30}H_{48}$)
- ✓ $n = 8$: les tétraterpènes ($C_{40}H_{64}$)
- ✓ $n > 8$: les polyterpènes

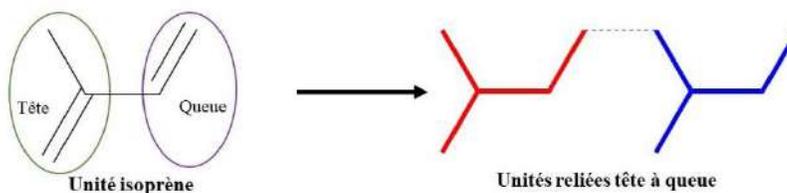


Figure 1.9. Représentation schématique de l'unité isoprène et de la formation des terpènes.

b. Terpénoïdes

Les terpénoïdes sont formés par ajout d'une fonction spécifique sur le squelette hydrocarboné d'un terpène. Le suffixe « oïd » signifie « dérivé de » ou « similaire », par conséquent « terpénoïde » désigne toutes les molécules ayant une structure de type terpène [10]. Différentes fonctions peuvent être greffées sur le terpène (**Fig.1.10**) :

- ✓ Groupement $-OH$ => terpénols ou alcools terpéniques ;
- ✓ Groupement $=O$ => terpénones ou cétones terpéniques ;
- ✓ Groupement $-CHO$ => terpénals ou aldéhydes terpéniques ;
- ✓ Groupement $-COO-$ => esters terpéniques, etc.

A ces différentes dénominations, le préfixe mono-, sesqui- ou di- sont ajoutés, afin de préciser la nature du terpène d'origine. Ainsi, une fonction aldéhyde greffée sur un monoterpène donne une molécule que l'on nommera monoterpénal, ou aldéhyde monoterpénique.

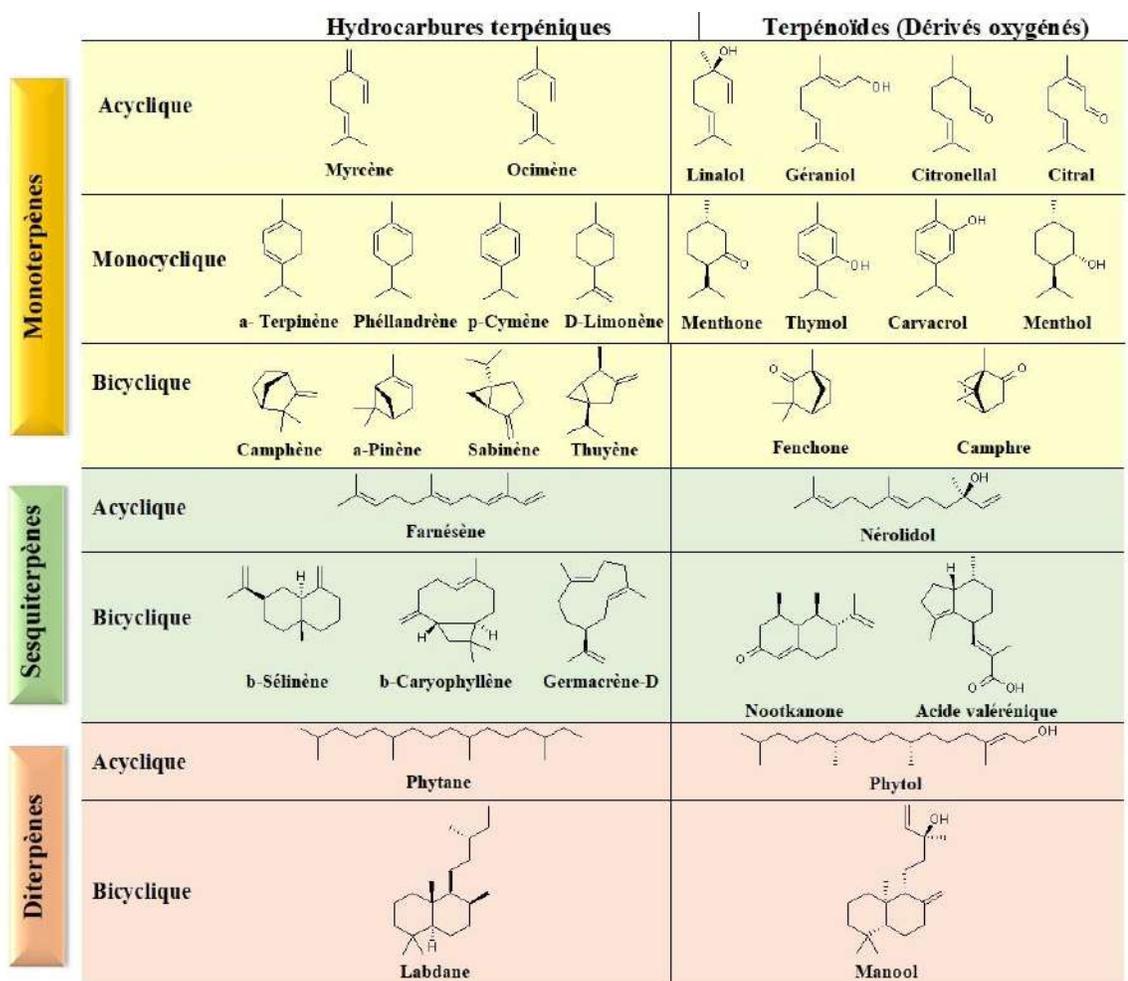


Figure 1.10. Exemples de monoterpènes, sesquiterpènes et diterpènes.

B. Phénylpropanoïdes

Les phénylpropanoïdes, composés aromatiques dérivés du phénylpropane, sont très fréquemment rencontrés dans les HE. Leur nom est dérivé du groupe phényl et de la queue propène [125] (Fig.1.11). Les phénylpropanoïdes donnent une saveur et une odeur spécifiques à la plante lorsqu'ils sont présents [10]. La vanilline, l'eugénol, l'anéthol, l'estragole et le cinnamaldéhyde sont des exemples de ce groupe de constituants.

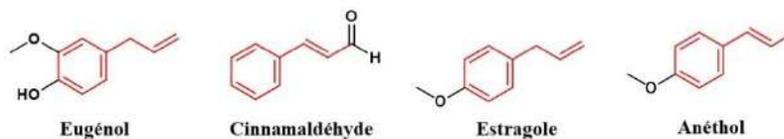


Figure 1.11. Exemples de phénylpropanoïdes.

C. Autres composés

Les essences peuvent contenir des composés soufrés et azotés comme les isothiocyanates, l'indole et le diallyl disulfide (**Fig.1.12**), issus de la dégradation des lactones, des terpènes et des glycosides [125]. Ils peuvent contenir aussi des traces de composés à chaîne droite, ne contenant aucune ramification latérale ; ils vont du n-heptane aux composés avec 35 atomes de carbone. L'alcool de feuille (3 (Z) -hexène-1-ol) représente un exemple de cette classe [125] (**Fig.1.12**).

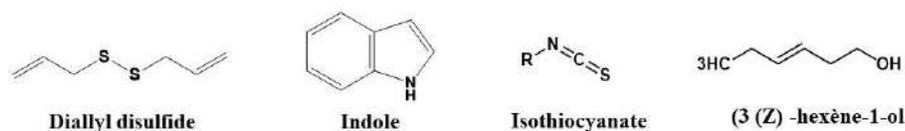


Figure 1.12. Structures des indole, isothiocyanate, diallyl sulfide et 3 (Z) -hexène-1-ol.

1.5. Huile essentielle du costus indien

1.5.1. Généralités sur le costus indien

Le costus indien est une plante de chardon originaire de l'Inde ayant le nom systématique de *Saussurea lappa* C.B. Clarke, appartenant à la famille des Asteraceae qui comprend environ 1000 genres, principalement répartis en Asie et en Europe. *Saussurea* DC., en tant que plus grand sous-genre de cette famille, comprend plus de 300 espèces réparties dans le monde, dont 61 espèces sont présentes en Inde [126]. Le costus est l'une des espèces les plus connues de ce genre, bien utilisé il y a environ 2500 ans en médecine traditionnelle indienne et chinoise [127]. Le costus est également connu sous plusieurs noms vernaculaires y compris *costus* en anglais et français ; *yun mu xiang* en chinois, *Kust* ou *qust* en arabe [126]. L'huile de costus est reconnue depuis des temps immémoriaux comme traitement efficace de la lèpre, c'est pourquoi le nom du « Kushta » qui indique lèpre en sanskrit, une ancienne langue védique indienne, lui a été donné [128]. Les racines sèches de cette plante sont largement utilisées pour le traitement de différentes maladies telles que la fièvre, la bronchite, l'ulcère, la polyarthrite rhumatoïde, la fièvre typhoïde et les maladies chroniques de la peau [129,130].

La classification systématique de la plante est comme suit :

- ✓ **Règne** : Plantae
- ✓ **Division** : Magnoliophyta

- ✓ **Classe** : Magnoliopsida
- ✓ **Ordre** : Asterales
- ✓ **Famille** : Asterales
- ✓ **Genre** : Saussurea
- ✓ **Espèce** : *Saussurea lappa* C.B. Clarke

Plusieurs autres dénominations scientifiques sont accordées à cette plante : *Saussurea costus* Falc., *Aucklandia lappa* Decne., *Aucklandia costus* Falc., *Aplotaxis lappa* Decne., et *Aplotaxis auricula* DC.

1.5.2. Répartition géographique du costus indien

Le costus indien se trouve généralement à une altitude de 2500 à 3000 m en Inde ; y compris le Cachemire , le Jammu , l' Himalaya , les Ghâts occidentaux , l'Himachal Pradesh, l'Uttaranchal et la vallée Kishenganga (**Fig.1.13**) [131].

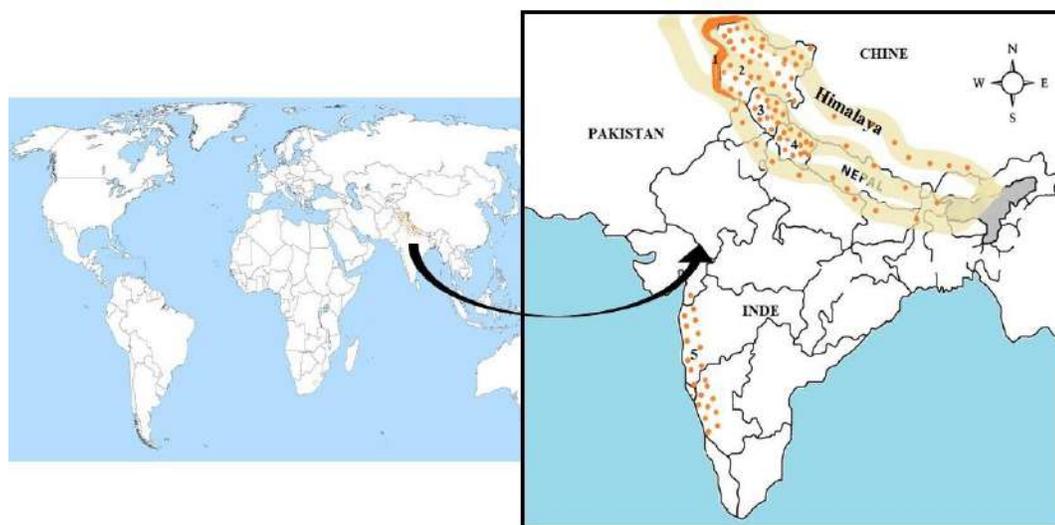


Figure 1.13. Répartition géographique du costus indien : (1) La vallée Kishenganga ; (2) Cachemire et Jammu ; (3) Himachal Pradesh; (4) Uttaranchal et (5) Les Ghâts occidentaux. Les traits en beige : Himalaya ; La couleur orange : Distribution du costus.

Kaur et al. ont rapporté que cette plante peut se trouver aussi en Chine, Corée et Pakistan [132]. *Saussurea lappa* est la seule espèce appartenant à l'Annexe I de « la convention sur le commerce international des espèces de faune et de flore sauvages menacées d'extinction » qui est largement commercialisée au niveau international à des fins médicinales. Le costus utilisé seul ou en association avec d'autres ingrédients actifs est

formulé en médicaments qui sont déjà disponibles sur le marché. Semwal et al. en ont rapporté récemment une liste de ces produits [133].

1.5.3. Morphologie du costus indien

Plante herbacée, vivace ayant une tige dressée et fibreuse qui peut atteindre 1 à 2 m de hauteur [129]. Les racines sont robustes de 60 cm de longueur. Elles sont récoltées en Septembre-Octobre lorsqu'elles atteignent une croissance maximale. Les racines séchées présentent un goût légèrement amer, une odeur caractéristique et une couleur grisâtre à marron foncé. Elles sont épaisses, dures, striées, fusiformes à cylindriques de 7 à 15 cm de long et 1.5 cm d'épaisseur avec un centre effondré [129,132]. Les feuilles sont irrégulièrement dentées, grandes à la base de la tige (plusieurs dizaines de cm) et plus petites en haut. Les fleurs violettes à noires forment un capitule de 3 à 5 cm de diamètre [133]. Les fruits sont des akènes recourbés (3 mm de long) et surmontés d'un pappus (voir **Fig.1.14**) [132,134].

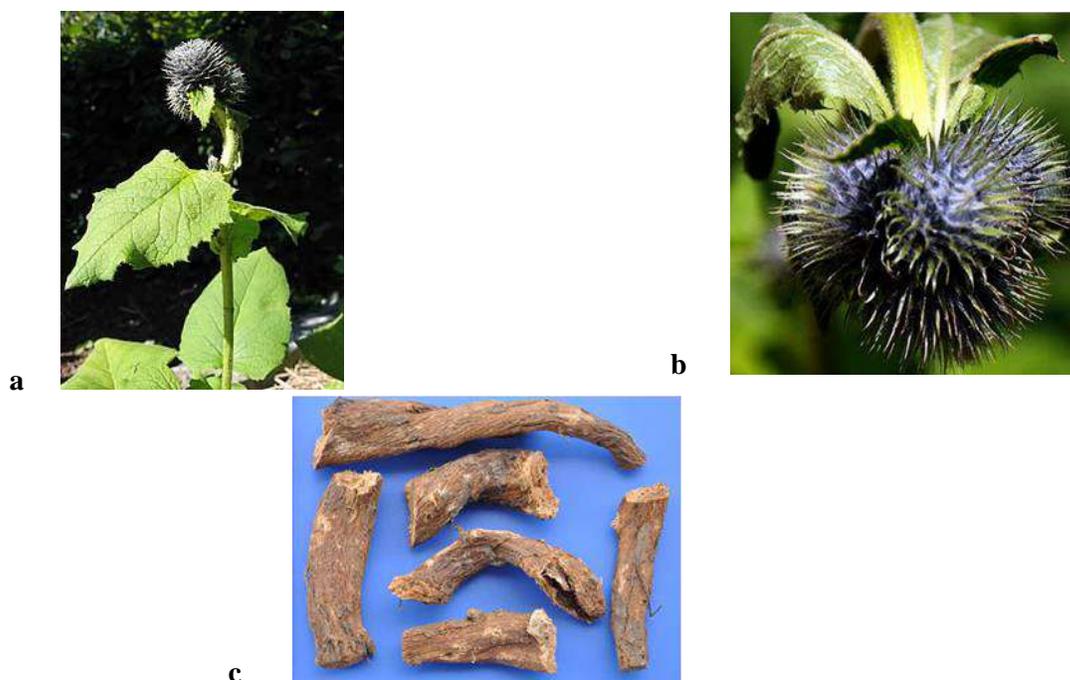


Figure 1.14. Présentation morphologique du costus indien : (a) Partie aérienne de la plante (Jani et al.)ⁱ; (b) Fleurs (Liu et al.)ⁱⁱ; (c) Racines.

ⁱ Jani DP, Jani KD. Analytical profile of Kushtha (*Saussurea lappa*) extensively used medicinal plant in Ayurveda system of medicine. *J Ayurveda Integr Med Sci* 2017; 2: 63–67.

ⁱⁱ Liu ZL, He Q, Chu SS, et al. Essential oil composition and larvicidal activity of *Saussurea lappa* roots against the mosquito *Aedes albopictus* (Diptera: Culicidae). *Parasitol Res* 2012; 110: 2125–2130.

1.5.4. Composition chimique des racines du costus indien

À partir des racines du costus, un large éventail de constituants biologiquement actifs sont isolés. Les sesquiterpènes sont les principaux constituants actifs isolés et ils sont classés en trois groupes sur la base de leur squelette carbocyclique :

- ✓ Guaïane
- ✓ Eudesmane
- ✓ Germacrène

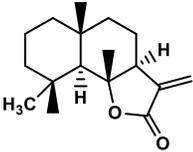
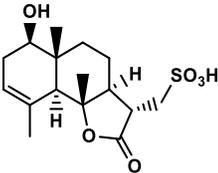
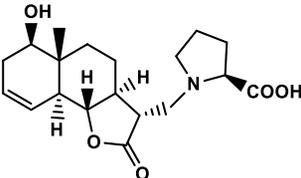
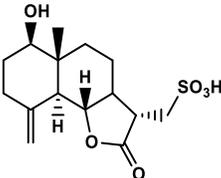
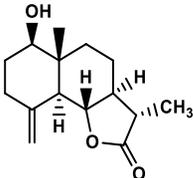
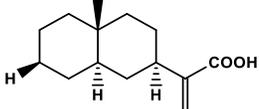
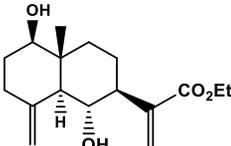
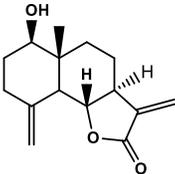
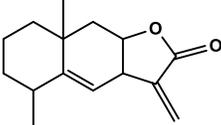
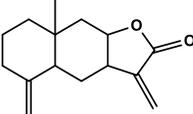
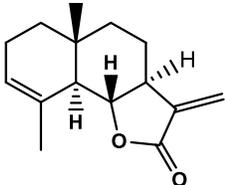
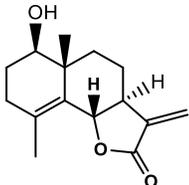
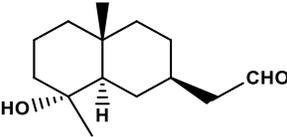
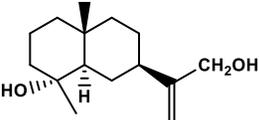
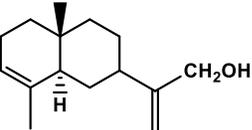
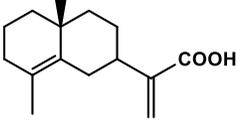
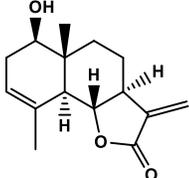
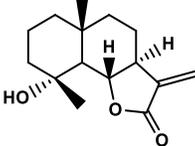
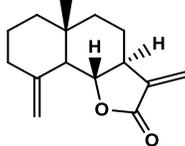
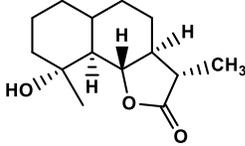
Ces groupes sont biosynthétisés séquentiellement et, en raison de l'instabilité du germacrène, la moitié des sesquiterpènes se présente sous forme de guaïane et 40% sous forme d'eudesmane et germacrène [130] (voir **Tableau 1.5**). D'autres constituants peuvent se présenter dans les racines du costus comme les flavonoïdes, les monoterpènes, les phytostérols [130], les triterpènes [137], les polyphénols [138], les alcaloïdes et les anthraquinones [139].

Tableau 1.5. Sesquiterpènes isolés des racines du costus indien.

Sesquiterpènes de type guaiène						
1		2	3	4	5	6
7	8	9	 10: R ₁ = -H R ₂ = -H 11: R ₁ = -OH R ₂ = -H 12: R ₁ = -OH R ₂ = -H 13: R ₁ = -OH R ₂ = -O-C(=O)-CH ₂ -OH			
14: R ₁ = -OH R ₂ = -H R ₃ = -CH ₃ 15: R ₁ = -H R ₂ = -H R ₃ = -CH ₂ COCH ₃ 16: R ₁ = -H R ₂ = -H R ₃ = -CH ₂ -N-COOH		 17: R ₁ = -H R ₂ = -H R ₃ = -CH ₂ -N-COOH 18: R ₁ = -H R ₂ = -CH ₂ OCH ₃ R ₃ = -H 19: R ₁ = -H R ₂ = -H R ₃ = -CH ₃ 20: R ₁ = -OGlu R ₂ = -CH ₃ R ₃ = -H				
Sesquiterpènes de type germacrène						
21	22	23	24	25		

1 : Isodehydrocostus lactone; 2 : Saussurealdéhyde; 3 : Isodehydrocostus lactone-15-aldehyde ; 4 : 11,13-Epoxydehydrocostus lactone ; 5 : 11,13-Epoxyisozaluzanin C ; 6 : 11, 13-Epoxy-3-ketodehydrocostus lactone ; 7 : 4β-Methoxy-dehydrocostus lactone ; 8 : 15-Hydroxydehydrocostus lactone ; 9 : Lappadilactone ; 10 : Dehydrocostus lactone ; 11 : Isozaluzanine ; 12 : Zaluzanine C ; 13 : 11β, 13-Dihydro-3-epizaluzanin C ; 14 : Cynaropicrine ; 15 : Lappalone ; 16 : Saussureamine B ; 17 : Saussureamine C ; 18 : 12- Methoxy-dihydrodehydrocostus lactone ; 19 : Mokko lactone ; 20 : 11,13 Dihydroglucoaluzanine C ; 21 : Dihydrocostunolide ; 22 : Costunolide ; 23 : 12-Methoxy dihydrocostunolide ; 24 : Costunolide 15-o-β-d-glucopyranoside ; 25 : Saussureamine A.

Tableau 1.5. (Suite)

Sesquiterpènes de type eudesmane				
				
(26)	(27)	(28)	(29)	(30)
				
(31)	(32)	(33)	(34)	(35)
				
(36)	(37)	(38)	(39)	(40)
				
(41)	(42)	(43)	(44)	(45)

26 : Saussureal ; 27 : 13-Sulfodihydrosantamarine ; 28 : Saussureamine D ; 29 : 13-Sulfodihydroreyosin ; 30 : 11β, 13-Dihydroreyosine ; 31 : réynosine ; 32 : acide β-costique ; 33 : α-cyclocostunolide ; 34 : alantolactone ; 35 : Isoalantolactone ; 36 : β-cyclocostunolide ; 37 : Magnolialide ; 38 : 4β-hydroxyeudesm-11-en-12-al ; 39 : 4α-Hydroxy-4β-Méthyldihydrocostol ; 40 : α-Costol ; 41 : acide isocostique ; 42 : Santamarine ; 43 : Arbusculine A ; 44 : 1β, 6α- Dihydroxycostic acid ethyl ester ; 45 : Colartine.

1.5.5. Composition chimique de l'huile de costus indien

L'HE du costus est largement utilisée en médecine traditionnelle chinoise et indienne en tant que médicament unique ou en association avec d'autres substances naturelles bioactives [126]. Il est reporté que l'huile de costus peut être obtenue par différentes méthodes d'extraction avec un rendement de 0.8 à 6% [129]. L'étude de la composition chimique de l'huile est largement étudiée dans la littérature. Différents mono- et sesquiterpènes sont trouvés dans l'HE citant : Pinène, phéllandène, D-limonène, 1,8-cinéol, terpinène, linalool, terpinéol, trans-cinnamaldéhyde, safrole, α -copaène, aromadendrène, myrcène, thuyène, β -élémane, dihydro- α -ionone, β -caryophyllène, géranyl acétone, curcumène, sélinène, trans- β -ionone, α -élémol, nérolidol, caryophyllène oxide, eudesmol, camphène, bergamotène, 8-cédrène-13-ol, β -costol, dehydrocostus lactone et costunolide [129,136,139–141], etc. Liu et al. ont mené une étude phytochimique sur l'HE du costus de la région Hebei-Chine et les résultats ont révélé une teneur plus élevée en sesquiterpénoïdes (79.80%) par rapport aux monoterpénoïdes (13.25%). Les principaux composants sont le dehydrocostus lactone (46.75%), le costunolide (9.26%), le 8-cédrène-13-ol (5.06%) et l' α -curcumène (4.33%) [136]. Ces résultats sont similaires à ceux rapportés par d'autres études. Choudhary et al. ont constaté que le dehydrocostus lactone et le costunolide sont les composants majoritaires de l'huile [142]. L'analyse menée par Chen et al. a montré que les HE du costus indien récolté de sept provinces différentes contiennent toutes ces deux principaux constituants mais à des teneurs différentes variant entre 16.30 et 25.36% pour le dehydrocostus lactone et de 4.28 à 8.32% pour le costunolide [143].

Dans une autre étude, le (7Z,10Z,13Z)-7,10,13-hexadécatriénel et le dehydrocostus lactone sont majoritaires dans les huiles extraites des racines du costus provenant de la Chine et de la Corée [140]. Parallèlement, Abdelwahab et al. ont noté la dominance du costunolide et β -élémane (7.18 %) dans l'huile provenant du Jazan-Arabie Saoudite [144]. Toutes ses variations dans la composition chimique de l'essence de costus indien sont liées à la période de la récolte, aux facteurs climatiques et saisonniers ainsi qu'à la durée de stockage de la plante. En effet, Benedetto et al. ont montré que la période de récolte influe énormément sur la composition chimique de l'huile de costus. La concentration la plus élevée en dehydrocostus lactone est trouvée chez les plantes âgées de trois ans et cueillies en Avril et en Décembre [145].

1.5.6. Utilisation de l'huile de costus indien

Des remèdes à base de l'huile de costus ou de ses dérivés sesquiterpéniques sont utilisés en médecine de par le monde. Vu sa richesse en terpènes, flavonoïdes et en lactones sesquiterpéniques, cette huile exerce une multitude d'activités biologiques, comme mentionné dans le ci-dessous **Tableau 1.6.**

Tableau 1.6. Utilisations médicinales de l'huile des racines du costus indien et de ses constituants.

Effet	Forme utilisée	Caractéristique	Réf.
Antimicrobien	Huile	Inhibition de la croissance des <i>Escherichia coli</i> , <i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i> , <i>Staphylococcus aureus</i> et <i>Bacillus subtilis</i> .	[144]
	Costunolide	Inhibition de la croissance des <i>Trichophyton mentagrophytes</i> , <i>T. simii</i> , <i>T. rubrum</i> 296, <i>T. rubrum</i> 57, <i>Epidermophyton floccosum</i> , <i>Scopulariopsis sp.</i> , <i>Aspergillus niger</i> , <i>Curvularia lunata</i> et <i>Magnaporthe grisea</i>	[146]
	Flavonoïdes	Inhibition de la croissance des <i>Aspergillus niger</i> , <i>Aspergillus Ochraceus</i> , <i>Aspergillus versicolor</i> , <i>Aspergillus flavus</i> , <i>Penicilium ochrochloron</i> , <i>Penicillium funiculosum</i> , <i>Trichoderma viride</i> , <i>Cladosporium cladosporioides</i> et <i>Alternaria alternate</i> .	[147]
Larvicide (<i>Aedes albopictus</i>)	Huile	CL50= 12.41 µg/ml	[136]
	Dehydrocostus lactone	CL50= 2.34 µg/ml	
	Costunolide	CL50= 3.26 µg/ml	
Anti-inflammatoire	Costunolide	Inhibition de TNF-α, IL-1β, IL-6, MCP-1, COX2, iNOS et NF-κB	[148–150]
	Dehydrocostus lactone	Inhibition de TNF-α, IL-1β, IL-17, IL-6, IL-23, IFN-γ, MPO, MCP-1, SOD, COX-2, iNOS	[151,152]
	Santamarine	Inhibition des iNOS et COX-2	[153]
	Saussureamines A et B	Inhibition de la production du NO et l'activation du NF-κB	[154]
Antitumorale	Dehydrocostus lactone	Apoptose des lignées cellulaires HeLa (CL50=12µM)	[155]
	Costunolide	Apoptose des lignées cellulaires MDA-MB-231	[156]
	Cynaropicrine	Apoptose des lignées cellulaires Colo-205 et MCF-7	[157]
	β-cyclocostunolide Dihydro costunolide	Apoptose des lignées cellulaires U937, Eol-1 et Jurkat T	[158]
Anti-hépatite	Dehydrocostus lactone	Suppression de l'expression de l'antigène de surface de l'hépatite B	[159]
	Costunolide		

Hypolipémiant	Huile	Réduction du taux du cholestérol et des triglycérides dans le sang	[138]
Anticoagulant	Huile	Inhibition de la coagulation plaquettaire induite par l'adénosine diphosphate	[160]
Antidiabétique	Huile	Baisse de la glycémie sanguine	[161]
Sédatif	Huile	Soulagement des douleurs durant l'accouchement	[132]

CL50 : Concentration létale ; TNF- α : Facteur de nécrose tumorale ; IL : Interleukine ; MCP-1 : Monocytes de type 1 ; NF- κ B : Facteur nucléaire-kappa B ; IFN- γ : Interféron-gamma ; MPO : Myéloperoxydase ; SOD : Superoxyde dismutase COX-2 : Cyclooxygénase, iNOS : Oxyde nitrique syntase.

a. Activité anti-inflammatoire

C'est l'activité la mieux décrite pour l'extrait de costus, utilisé seul ou en association avec d'autres médicaments, dans le traitement de l'œsophagite, la gastrite, l'ulcère gastroduodéal, le rhumatisme articulaire aigu et la polyarthrite rhumatoïde. L'activité anti-inflammatoire de l'huile de costus s'exprime principalement par l'effet inhibiteur des cytokines pro-inflammatoires par ses dérivés sesquiterpéniques. Il est prouvé que le dehydrocostus lactone inhibe l'expression de plusieurs cytokines comme le facteur de nécrose tumorale (TNF- α), l'interleukine (IL-1 β , IL-17, IL-6, IL-23), l'interféron-gamma (IFN- γ), la myéloperoxydase (MPO), la protéine chimioattractrice des monocytes de type 1 (MCP-1), la superoxyde dismutase (SOD), la cyclooxygénase (COX-2) et l'oxyde nitrique syntase (iNOS) [151,152]. Simultanément, le costunolide inhibe l'expression du TNF- α , IL-1 β , IL-6, MCP-1, COX2, iNOS et NF- κ B (facteur nucléaire-kappa B) [148–150]. Choodej et al. ont constaté des concentrations d'inhibition de 50% des facteurs égales à 2.05 et 2.06 μ M, pour dehydrocostus lactone et costunolide, respectivement [151]. La santamarine est un autre sesquiterpène lactone qui possède un effet anti-inflammatoire par son activité inhibitrice de cytokines (iNOS et COX-2) chez des macrophages humaines (RAW264) stimulées par les lipopolysaccharides (LPS) [153]. De plus, Matsuda et al. ont trouvé que les saussureamines A et B inhibent la production d'oxyde nitrique (NO) et l'activation du NF- κ B chez les macrophages péritonéales de souris stimulées par des lipopolysaccharides (LPS) [154].

b. Activité antimicrobienne

L'huile de costus est traditionnellement utilisée pour traiter les maladies de la cavité buccale, telles que la mauvaise haleine, la carie dentaire et la parodontite [162], ce qui suggère son utilisation dans le traitement des maladies infectieuses causées par des bactéries, des champignons, des virus et des parasites. Il est rapporté que l'essence de costus est très efficace contre différents agents pathogènes résistants. Abdelwahab et al. ont utilisé la

méthode des disques pour exploiter l'effet antibactérien de l'huile et les résultats ont révélé l'inhibition de la croissance des *Escherichia coli*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Staphylococcus aureus* et *Bacillus subtilis* [144]. Cette activité est liée à la présence des sesquiterpènes lactones connus par leur propriétés antibactériennes et antifongiques [163]. Le costunolide a montré une activité antifongique significative contre *Trichophyton mentagrophytes*, *Trichophyton simii*, *Trichophyton rubrum* 296, *Trichophyton rubrum* 57, *Epidermophyton floccosum*, *Scopulariopsis sp*, *Aspergillus niger*, *Curvulari lunata* et *Magnaporthe grisea* avec des concentrations minimales inhibitrices (CMI) de 66.5, 62, 31.25, 62.5, 125, 250, 250, 125 et 250 µg/ml, respectivement [146]. Dans une autre étude, il a été conclu que le dehydrocostus lactone et le costunolide présentent une activité antimycobactérienne synergique contre *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* H37Rv [164].

c. Activité antitumorale

Différents sesquiterpènes lactones provenant du costus indien ont montré un effet anticancéreux prometteur, en particulier le dehydrocostus lactone [155], le costunolide [156], le cynaropicrine [157], le β-cyclocostunolide et le dihydro costunolide [158].

d. Activité hépatoprotectrice

En plus des activités citées ci-dessus, quelques sesquiterpènes lactones isolés de l'HE du costus sont doués d'une activité hépatoprotectrice. Le costunolide et le dehydrocostus lactone ont montré un effet suppresseur important de l'expression de l'antigène de surface de l'hépatite B chez la lignée cellulaire Hep 3B [159].

e. Activité larvicide

Ces dernières années, l'utilisation des insecticides naturels, d'origine végétale, respectueux de l'environnement a suscité l'intérêt de plusieurs chercheurs. Dans ce concept, Liu et al. ont conduit une étude qui a pour but de déterminer l'activité larvicide de l'HE du costus indien et de ses constituants isolés contre les larves du moustique *Aedes albopictus* [136]. Le dehydrocostus lactone et le costunolide ont présenté une activité larvicide plus forte par rapport à l'huile avec des concentrations létales (CL50) de 2.34 et 3.26 µg/ml, respectivement.

f. Autres activités

Il est rapporté que l'essence de costus inhibe la coagulation plaquettaire induite par l'adénosine diphosphate [160], diminue la glycémie sanguine [161] et soulage les douleurs durant l'accouchement sans aucun effet indésirable sur la mère ou sur le fœtus [132]. En dehors des fins médicinales, l'huile de costus est utilisée en parfumerie et en cosmétique pour la préparation des parfums. Elle a une odeur caractéristique très forte et se marie bien avec le vétiver, le patchouli, la rose, la violette et le bois de santal utilisés dans la préparation des huiles pour cheveux [165].

1.6. Extraction des huiles essentielles et végétales

1.6.1. Généralités

L'extraction végétale est une opération très fréquente dans de nombreux procédés de fabrication dans les différentes industries agro-alimentaire, pharmaceutique, cosmétique et de la parfumerie. Elle sert à isoler une substance d'intérêt thérapeutique contenue initialement dans une plante. Différentes méthodes sont développées pour l'extraction des HE et HV comme l'hydrodistillation, l'entraînement à la vapeur, l'expression à froid, l'extraction par solvant organique, etc. Ces techniques traditionnelles requièrent d'importantes adaptations afin de minimiser les risques pour la santé et l'environnement. Au cours de cette dernière décennie, la recherche de procédés et de produits alternatifs plus respectueux de l'homme et de son environnement occupe une place fondamentale en recherche et en développement [166]. Des méthodes d'extraction innovantes sont abordées et développées beaucoup plus écologiques, utilisant des solvants moins toxiques et permettant d'obtenir des extraits de haute qualité. Parmi ces méthodes, l'extraction par fluide supercritique requiert une importance particulière.

1.6.2. Extraction par fluide supercritique

Un fluide est en état supercritique lorsqu'il est porté dans des conditions opératoires de température et de pression supérieures à sa pression (P_c) et température (T_c) critiques, comme représenté dans la **Figure 1.15**.

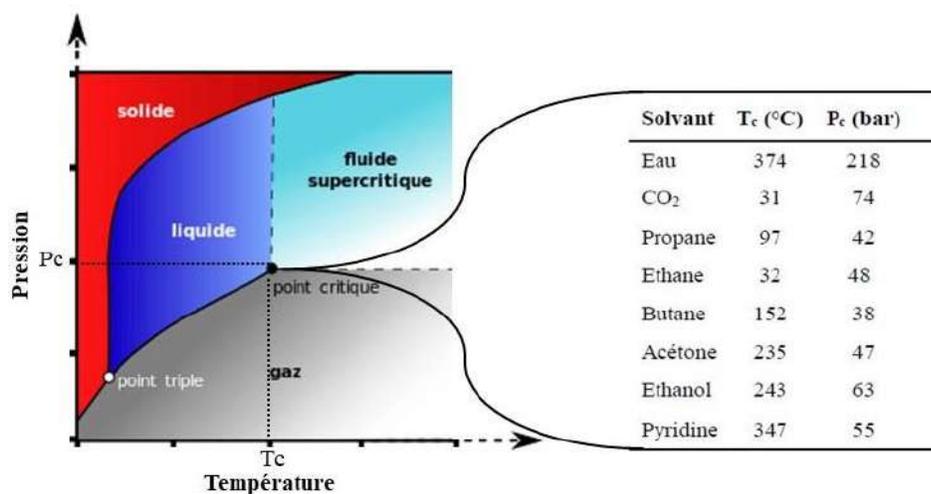


Figure 1.15. Diagramme de phases et coordonnées critiques de quelques fluides.

Un fluide supercritique présente des propriétés physico chimiques intermédiaires entre celles de l'état gazeux et liquide. En particulier, il possède une viscosité faible comme celle des gaz, un coefficient de diffusivité intermédiaire entre celui des gaz et des liquides, et une masse volumique élevée comme celle des liquides [166]. Le dioxyde de carbone (CO₂) est le fluide le plus utilisé. Il est peu coûteux, non toxique, non inflammable et chimiquement inerte. Son état gazeux à la pression atmosphérique permet de le séparer spontanément de l'extrait sans présence éventuelle de résidus de solvants [167]. En outre, le CO₂ possède un bon pouvoir solvant pour l'extraction de composés apolaires tels que les molécules hydrophobes (huiles, alcanes) et peut dissoudre certaines molécules faiblement polaires et volatiles telles que les cétones, les alcools, les esters et les aldéhydes [168]. De plus, sa température et sa pression critiques facilement accessibles sont compatibles avec une large gamme de composés naturels comme les huiles des plantes sans crainte de dégradation thermique [167].

Le cycle de l'extraction par fluide supercritique comporte trois zones (**Fig.1.16**) :

- La zone de l'extraction où le fluide, en état supercritique, se trouve en contact avec la matrice végétale,
- La zone de séparation où l'on récupère l'extrait par une simple détente, provoquant ainsi une séparation des solutés et du CO₂,
- La zone de recyclage où le fluide est condensé pour être remis en état supercritique et entamer un nouveau cycle.

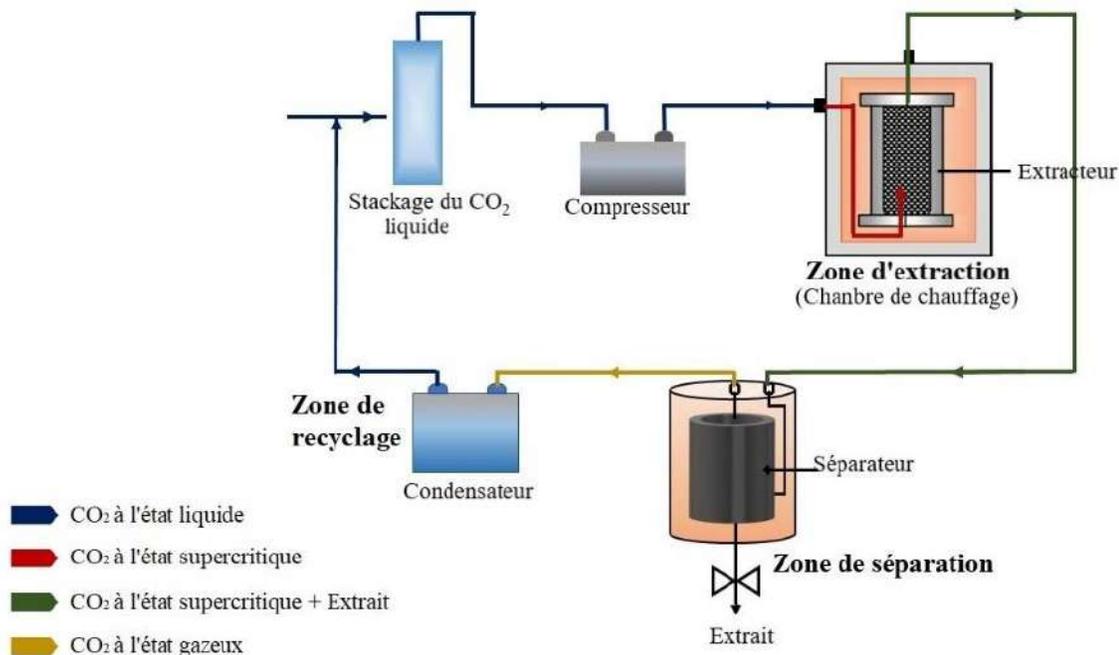


Figure 1.16. Schéma simplifié d'une opération d'extraction par CO₂ supercritique.

Les avantages de l'extraction par CO₂ supercritique sont :

- ✓ Minimisation voire élimination des solvants chimiques,
- ✓ Diffusivité facile dans la matrice végétale,
- ✓ Pouvoir solvant élevé,
- ✓ Convenable pour les substances thermolabiles,
- ✓ Facilité de récupération et purification des extraits par dépressurisation,
- ✓ Extrapolation simple [168].

1.6.3. Utilisation du CO₂ supercritique pour l'extraction de l'huile des noyaux de dattes et celle du costus

Le procédé de l'extraction par CO₂ supercritique a été largement utilisé pour l'extraction des HE et HV. Concernant l'huile des noyaux de dattes, les travaux présentés dans le **Tableau 1.7** traitent l'effet des conditions opératoires sur le rendement et la composition chimique de l'huile extraite.

Pour le costus, ce procédé n'a jamais été utilisé. La plupart des travaux réalisés ont procédé à l'extraction de l'huile par solvants organiques.

Tableau 1.7. Exemples de travaux réalisés à propos de l'utilisation du CO₂ supercritique pour l'extraction de l'huile des noyaux de dattes.

Variété	Pays	Pression (bar)	Température (K)	Rendement (%)	Composant majoritaire	Réf.
Mabroum	Malaisie	200	313	8.1	Acide oléique	[169]
Ghars	Algérie	250	333	14.3	Acide oléique	[170]
Mariami	Malaisie	414	343	3.0	Acide élaidique	[171]
Mariami	Malaisie	552	323	3.3	Acide oléique	[172]

1.7. Challenges dans l'utilisation des huiles essentielles et végétales

La stabilité des HE ou HV au moment de leur utilisation ou durant leur stockage est un facteur important pour préserver leurs valeurs thérapeutiques. Généralement, l'utilisation est entravée par leur susceptibilité d'oxydation [102]. Il est rapporté que les caractéristiques organoleptiques des huiles sont très sensibles à l'oxydation. Dans certains cas extrêmes, l'oxydation des HE ou HV peut générer des dérivés toxiques néfastes pour les tissus biologiques [31–33,35,36]. Il est constaté que les monoterpènes (mono et bicycliques), les alcools monoterpéniques, les amino-acides soufrés et les oxydes sesquiterpéniques sont thermolabiles et sensibles à l'oxydation, limitant ainsi l'utilisation de l'huile de costus [173]. En outre, la stabilité de l'huile des noyaux de dattes contre l'oxydation dépend en particulier de sa teneur et sa composition en acides gras insaturés. Ainsi, l'huile la moins insaturée est la plus stable à l'oxydation. Cette stabilité dépend aussi de sa teneur en tocophérols. D'autres facteurs comme la chaleur et la lumière peuvent favoriser les réactions d'oxydation des huiles végétales, augmentant ainsi la vitesse d'auto-oxydation [102].

Au-delà de la sensibilité aux conditions environnementales (lumière, chaleur et oxygène), l'huile de costus peut être à l'origine de réactions allergiques cutanées potentielles (i.e. dermatites de contact) si elle est appliquée directement sur la peau sans dilution. Une étude menée par Cheminat et ses collaborateurs a montré que l'élimination des sesquiterpènes lactones (costunolide et dehydrocostus lactone) de l'huile de costus par complexation avec l'aminoéthyl-polystyrène prévient les réactions allergiques chez les cobayes [174]. Cependant, cette solution ne semble pas prometteuse puisque la plupart des activités biologiques de l'huile de costus sont liées à la présence de ces deux constituants. Outre tout

cela, la faible la perméabilité et la biodisponibilité réduite des HE et HV dans les fluides et les tissus biologiques constituent d'autres facteurs limitant leur utilisation [11].

De nouveaux procédés sont développés pour surmonter ces limitations, parmi eux la nanoencapsulation a connu un intérêt croissant. Plus de détails à propos de cette technologie vont être abordés dans le chapitre suivant.

CHAPITRE II

ENCAPSULATION DES HUILES ESSENTIELLES ET VEGETALES

CHAPITRE II

ENCAPSULATION DES HUILES ESSENTIELLES ET VEGETALES

2.1. Introduction

Les technologies de la nanoencapsulation sont devenues incontournables dans de très nombreux secteurs (agroalimentaire, cosmétique, électronique, construction, textile, biomédical, etc.) depuis plusieurs années pour les avantages qu'elles peuvent procurer [175,176]. Elles permettent la préparation de différents nanotransporteurs individualisés constitués d'un matériau enrobant contenant une matière active. Dans cette optique, la nanoencapsulation a pu résoudre les problèmes qui confrontent l'utilisation des HE et HV [11,177].

Ce chapitre met l'accent sur un type particulier de nanotransporteurs, les nanoparticules polymères (NP). Nous allons décrire dans une première partie leur propriétés colloïdales ainsi que les principaux polymères utilisés pour leur conception. Ensuite, nous présenterons les procédés de synthèse les plus utilisés puis dans une dernière partie nous exploiterons particulièrement la méthode de la nanoprécipitation et les résultats obtenus dans différents travaux en termes de propriétés physicochimiques des NP chargées d'huile, des excipients utilisés ainsi que des facteurs influençant cette technique.

2.2. Principe de la nanoencapsulation des huiles

La nanoencapsulation consiste ainsi à associer une molécule bioactive (huile) à un nanotransporteur (hôte) dans le but de la protéger du milieu extérieur, d'assurer son transport au sein de l'organisme et garantir sa libération contrôlée à une cellule ou un tissu spécifique [178].

L'engouement pour la nanoencapsulation des huiles vient des nouvelles caractéristiques qu'elle confère, notamment :

- ✓ La protection des huiles des facteurs environnementaux tels que le pH, l'oxygène, la lumière, etc.
- ✓ La protection contre l'évaporation et la photo-dégradation.
- ✓ L'efficacité améliorée.
- ✓ La toxicité réduite.
- ✓ La réduction des effets secondaires.

✓ L'accroissement du confort des malades [39,123,178].

2.3. Nanoparticules polymères

2.3.1. Définition

Les nanoparticules polymères sont des particules colloïdales solides ayant des diamètres compris entre 10 et 1000 nm [179]. Selon la nature et la structure des polymères et leur mode de formulation, il existe deux types de nanoparticules polymères présentant différentes morphologies ; des nanocapsules composées d'une membrane polymère renfermant un cœur liquide et des nanosphères composées d'un cœur matriciel de polymère (**Figure 2.1**). Les premières sont de type vésiculaire ; alors que les deuxièmes sont de type matriciel [180].

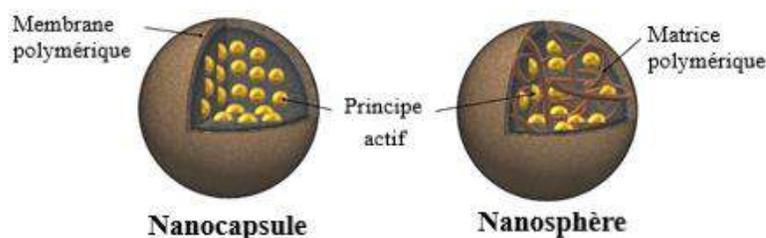


Figure 2.1. Types de nanoparticules polymères (Lammari et al.)ⁱ.

2.3.2. Caractéristiques physicochimiques

La taille des particules, la charge de surface et l'efficacité d'encapsulation sont les principaux paramètres à déterminer pour caractériser les NP.

A. Taille

La diffusion dynamique de la lumière (en anglais, *dynamic light scattering* ou DLS) est autrement appelée la spectroscopie de corrélation de photons (PCS). Elle permet de déterminer le diamètre hydrodynamique de particules, pour des tailles comprises entre 1 nm à 1 μm . Le principe de cette technique porte sur le mouvement brownien des particules en suspension après avoir été irradiées par un laser. L'intensité de la lumière diffusée par les particules est dépendante de leur taille et de leur vitesse. Plus la taille des particules est importante, mieux est la diffusion des rayons lumineux, plus le mouvement Brownien est lent.

ⁱ Lammari N, Froiio F, Louaer M, et al. Poly (ethyl acrylate-co-methyl methacrylate-co-trimethylammoniumethyl methacrylate chloride) (Eudragit RS 100) nanocapsules as nanovector carriers for Phoenix dactylifera L. seeds oil: a versatile antidiabetic agent. *Biomacromolecules* 2020. DOI: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1021/acs.biomac.0c00255>.

L'équation de Stokes-Einstein permet de calculer le diamètre hydrodynamique (d_h) des particules en tenant compte du coefficient de diffusion translationnel (D_0) estimé via la sommation de la lumière diffusée par les particules (eq 2.1) [182] :

$$d_h = \frac{K_B T}{3\pi\eta D_0} \quad (2.1)$$

Où :

d_h : Diamètre hydrodynamique

T : Température

k_B : Constante de Boltzman ($1.3805 \cdot 10^{-23} \text{J.K}^{-1}$)

η : Viscosité de la phase de dispersion

D_0 : Coefficient de diffusion

Cette technique permet ainsi d'obtenir une estimation de la distribution de taille par l'indice de polydispersité de la suspension [182].

B. Charge de surface

La charge de surface d'une particule est caractérisée par le potentiel zêta (ζ). Lorsqu'une particule chargée est en suspension, il se forme une double couche électrique entre la surface chargée et les ions du milieu environnant. Le potentiel ζ est mesuré à la surface de la double couche électrique (nommée plan de cisaillement ou plan de glissement) (**Fig. 2.2**) [183].

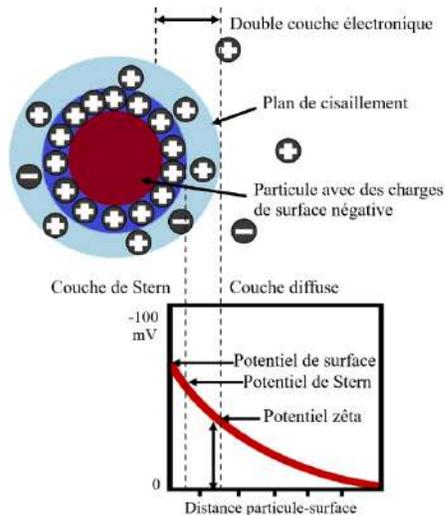


Figure 2.2. Représentation de la double couche électrique.

Le potentiel ζ permet de prédire la stabilité à long terme des NP (**Tableau 2.1**). Si les particules ont un potentiel de charge faible en valeur absolue, les forces de répulsion sont

dans ce cas faibles pour vaincre les forces d'attraction de Van der Waals, ce qui conduit à la floculation ou à la coagulation des particules [184].

Tableau 2.1. Stabilité des dispersions pour différentes valeurs de potentiel zêta (Arulprakasajothi et al.)ⁱ.

Potentiel zêta (mV)	Stabilité du colloïde
0 à ±5	Coagulation ou floculation rapide
±10 à ±30	Stabilité faible
±30 à ±40	Stabilité modérée
±40 à ±60	Stabilité bonne
Plus de ±61	Stabilité excellente

Le potentiel ζ se mesure par électrophorèse à l'aide d'un Zetasizer NanoZS. Un voltage est appliqué entre deux électrodes et les NP vont se déplacer suivant leur charge vers l'électrode de charge opposée. Plus la particule est chargée, plus le déplacement est rapide. La détermination de la vitesse des ions, autrement dite mobilité électrophorétique, sert à calculer le potentiel par l'équation de Helmholtz-Smoluchowski (eq 2.2) :

$$\zeta = \frac{\eta \mu_e}{\varepsilon} c \quad (2.2)$$

Où :

ζ : Potentiel zêta

η : Viscosité du milieu

μ_e : Mobilité électrophorétique

c : Constante qui vaut 1 ou 2/3

ε : Constante diélectrique du milieu

La constante c est définie selon le rayon de la NP (r) et l'épaisseur de la double couche de diffusion k :

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{si } kr < 0.1, c = 2/3 \\ \text{si } kr > 100, c = 1 \end{array} \right.$$

ⁱ Arulprakasajothi M, Elangovan K, Chandrasekhar U, et al. Performance study of conical strip inserts in tube heat exchanger using water based titanium oxide nanofluid. *Therm Sci* 2018; 22: 477–485.

C. Efficacité d'encapsulation

L'efficacité d'une particule à encapsuler un principe actif est évaluée par deux paramètres ; l'efficacité d'encapsulation (EE%) et le taux de charge (DL, *Drug loading*). L'EE% est définie comme étant la quantité de la substance active présente dans les NP par rapport à la quantité initiale introduite dans la formulation (eq 2.3).

$$EE\% = \frac{\text{Quantité du principe actif ou d'huile dans les particules}}{\text{Quantité initiale du principe actif ou d'huile}} \times 100 \quad (2.3)$$

Le DL correspond à la masse de la substance active encapsulée par rapport à la masse de nanoparticules (eq 2.4) [183].

$$DL = \frac{\text{Masse du principe actif ou d'huile dans les particules}}{\text{Masse de nanoparticules préparées}} \times 100 \quad (2.4)$$

Ces deux paramètres dépendent du procédé de formulation. Différentes méthodes d'analyse sont utilisées pour les déterminer telles que la spectroscopie ultraviolet-visible, la chromatographie en phase liquide, la chromatographie en phase gazeuse couplée à la spectrométrie de masse [183], etc.

2.4. Principaux polymères utilisés pour la conception des nanoparticules

Un polymère est une macromolécule formée par la répétition de nombreuses sous-unités qui dérivent d'un ou de plusieurs monomères. Les polymères utilisés pour la conception des NP peuvent être d'origine naturelle ou synthétique [185]. Ils doivent être biocompatibles, non immunogènes, non toxiques et non cancérigènes. Ils peuvent être biodégradables c'est-à-dire ils se dégradent dans l'organisme et leurs produits de dégradation sont bien tolérés. Dans la cas contraire, ils s'éliminent de l'organisme sans avoir subir de dégradations [186]. En tenant compte de la très grande variété des polymères utilisables, nous ne mentionnerons ici que les principaux.

2.4.1. Polymères naturels

Les polymères naturels sont principalement les polysaccharides tels que l'alginate, le chitosane, le dextrane et les dérivés de la cellulose et les protéines comme l'albumine et la gélatine. La **Figure 2.3.A** illustre quelques types de polymères naturels. Les polysaccharides sont largement utilisés pour la conception de la paroi des NP. Ils sont biocompatibles et la plupart sont biodégradables. Leurs produits de dégradation sont facilement éliminés, voire

assimilés par l'organisme vu qu'ils sont constitués de sous-unités saccharidiques (type glucose, galactose, etc.). Leur utilisation est limitée par la faible reproductibilité en termes de structures, de masses molaires et de composition chimique [186].

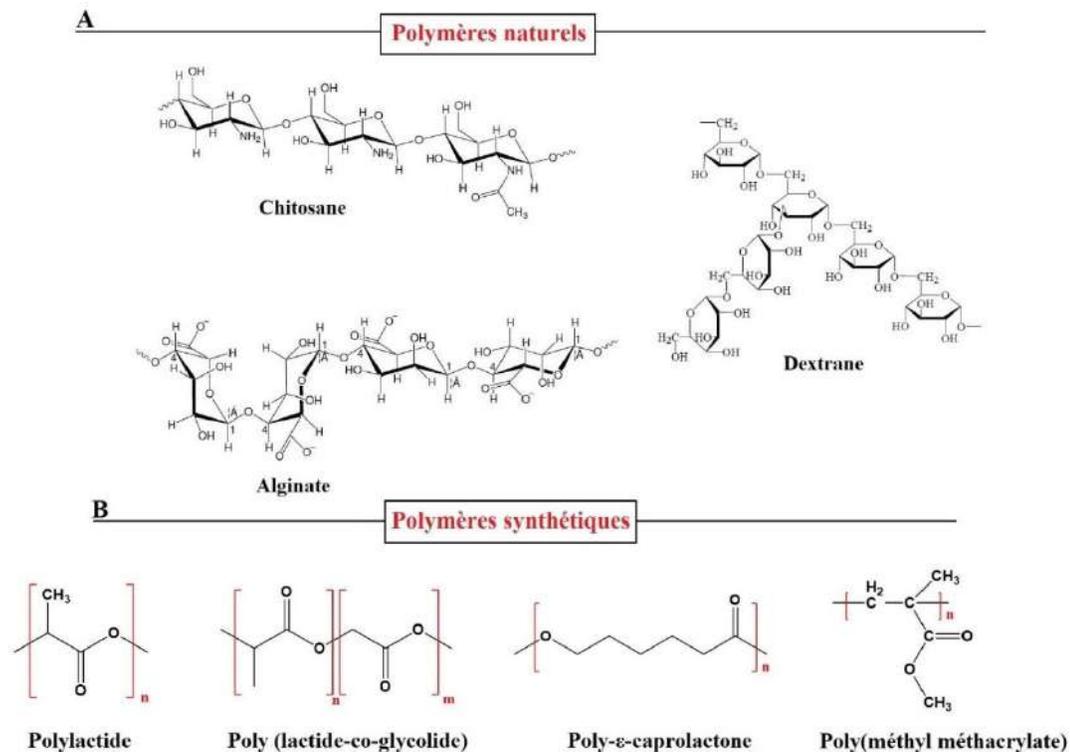


Figure 2.3. Illustration de la structure chimique de quelques polymères naturels et synthétiques.

2.4.2. Polymères synthétiques

Les polymères synthétiques sont plus utilisés comparativement aux polymères naturels. Ils sont caractérisés par :

- ✓ Des propriétés mécaniques, viscoélastiques ou tensioactives mieux contrôlables ;
- ✓ Une composition chimique largement modulable grâce à la très grande variété des monomères ;
- ✓ Un contrôle complet de la taille et des masses molaires en utilisant des méthodes de synthèse macromoléculaires appropriées,
- ✓ Une pureté remarquable [40,41,186].

Les principaux polymères synthétiques utilisés pour la conception des NP sont les suivants :

A. Les polyesters aliphatiques

Le polylactide, le poly (lactide-co-glycolide) et le poly-ε-caprolactone sont les principaux polyesters aliphatiques fréquemment utilisés pour la vectorisation des principes actifs hydrophobes (**Fig.2.3.B**) ; et sont connus pour leur biocompatibilité et leur biodégradabilité [187].

B. Les dérivés du type méthacrylate (Eudragit®)

Un autre type de polymères synthétiques utilisés pour la vectorisation des principes actifs est le poly (méthyl méthacrylate) (PMMA) (**Fig.2.3.B**). Il est synthétisé par polymérisation radicalaire du méthacrylate de méthyle (**Fig.2.4**) amorcée par amorçage chimique (peroxodisulfate d'ammonium ou de potassium) ou par irradiation UV [186].

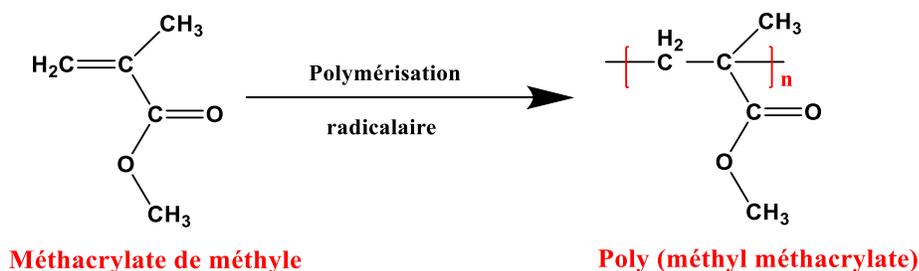


Figure 2.4. Mécanisme de la polymérisation radicalaire du méthacrylate de méthyle.

Les dérivés du PMMA sont plus connus sous leur dénomination commerciale d'Eudragit®. Ils sont simplement utilisés pour l'enrobage des formes pharmaceutiques conventionnelles comme les comprimés. Les premiers polymères de PMMA développés étaient gastro-résistants. Par la suite, la gamme de produits d'Eudragit® est élargie en introduisant sur le marché des dérivés poly (aminoalkyl) méthacrylate pour la libération prolongée. Les polymères de PMMA sont classés en deux grandes classes : (i) les PMMA solubles dans les fluides digestifs comme l'Eudragit® E, L et S ayant des groupements acides ou alcalins permettant une libération pH-dépendante du principe actif ; (ii) les PMMA insolubles, à savoir l'Eudragit® RL et RS ayant des groupes neutres permettant une libération contrôlée du principe actif indépendamment du pH (**Fig.2.5**) [188]. Les Eudragit® RS et RL sont des copolymères de méthyle de méthacrylate et d'éthyle d'acrylate, avec une faible teneur en acide d'ester méthacrylique, et possédant des groupes ammonium quaternaire (**Fig.2.6**) [185]. La différence entre ces deux polymères réside sur la proportion des différents composés. La proportion en éthylacrylate, méthylméthacrylate et triméthylammonio-

éthylméthacrylate de l'Eudragit[®] RL et RS est : 1/2/0.2 et 1/2/0.1, respectivement [189]. Les polymères d'Eudragit[®] sont biocompatibles. Plusieurs études *in vivo* ont prouvées que les Eudragit[®] ne provoquent pas de toxicité ou d'irritation des cellules ou des tissus. De ce fait, ils sont acceptés par les autorités de santé dans les principaux pays en Europe, aux Etats unis d'Amérique et au Japon comme des polymères pharmaceutiques [190].

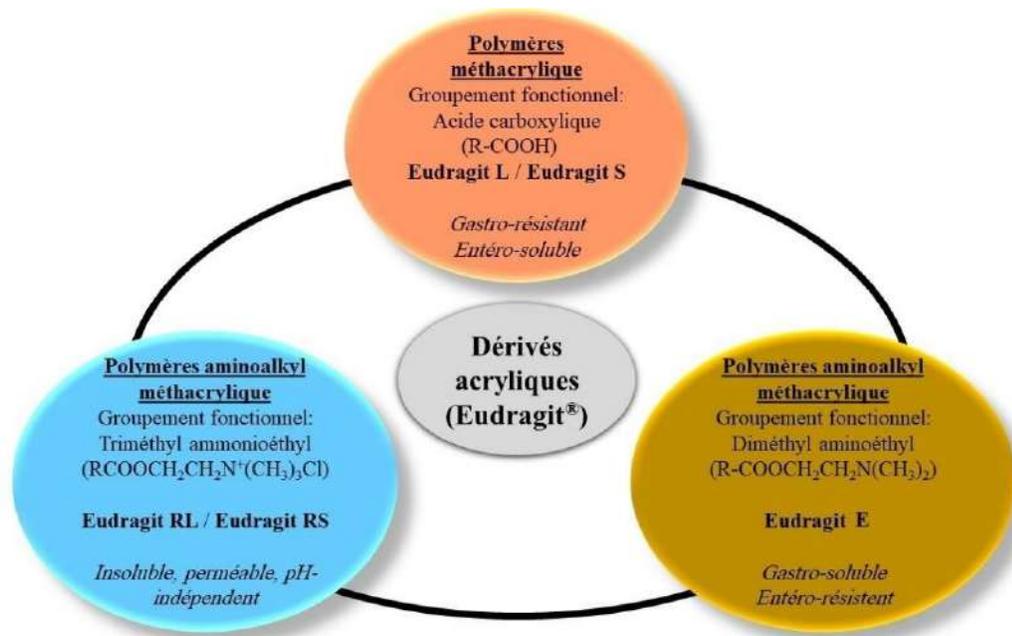
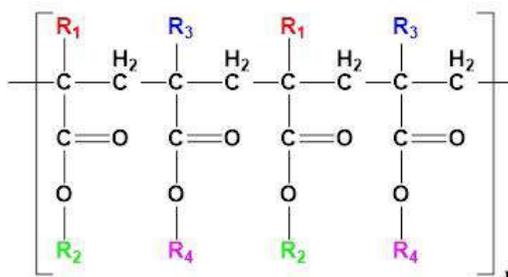


Figure 2.5. Propriétés des dérivés acryliques (Eudragit[®]).



Eudragit E : $\text{R}_1 : \text{R}_3 = \text{CH}_3$ $\text{R}_2 = \text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{N}(\text{CH}_3)_2$ $\text{R}_4 = \text{CH}_3 : \text{C}_4\text{H}_9$

Eudragit L et Eudragit S : $\text{R}_1 : \text{R}_3 = \text{CH}_3$ $\text{R}_2 = \text{H}$ $\text{R}_4 = \text{CH}_3$

Eudragit RL et Eudragit RS : $\text{R}_1 = \text{H} : \text{CH}_3$ $\text{R}_2 = \text{CH}_3 : \text{C}_2\text{H}_5$ $\text{R}_3 = \text{CH}_3$ $\text{R}_4 = \text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{N}(\text{CH}_3)_3^+\text{Cl}^-$

Figure 2.6. Structure chimique des dérivés acryliques (Eudragit[®]) (Date et al.)ⁱ.

ⁱ Date AA, Jain A, Khachane P, et al. Organic solvent-free approach to single step fabrication of Eudragit nanoparticles using Labrasol. *Pharmazie* 2010; 65: 733–736.

2.5. Méthodes de préparation des nanoparticules polymères

De très nombreux procédés sont proposés pour préparer les NP, parmi lesquels les méthodes utilisant des polymères préformés sont plus utilisées. Cela est lié au fait que ces derniers possèdent des caractéristiques physicochimiques bien définies, et que le processus est simple et rapide et ne nécessite pas une étape d'élimination des monomères résiduels et des réactifs (catalyseur, amorceur, etc.) lors de la polymérisation. De plus, ils sont compatibles avec les principes actifs et ne provoquent aucune réaction pendant la préparation des NP [186].

Le principe des méthodes utilisant des polymères préformés (**Fig.2.7**) consiste à précipiter un polymère préalablement dissous dans un solvant organique, formant ainsi des NP solides. Ces méthodes sont largement utilisées pour encapsuler les HE et HV, comme illustré dans le **Tableau 2.2**.

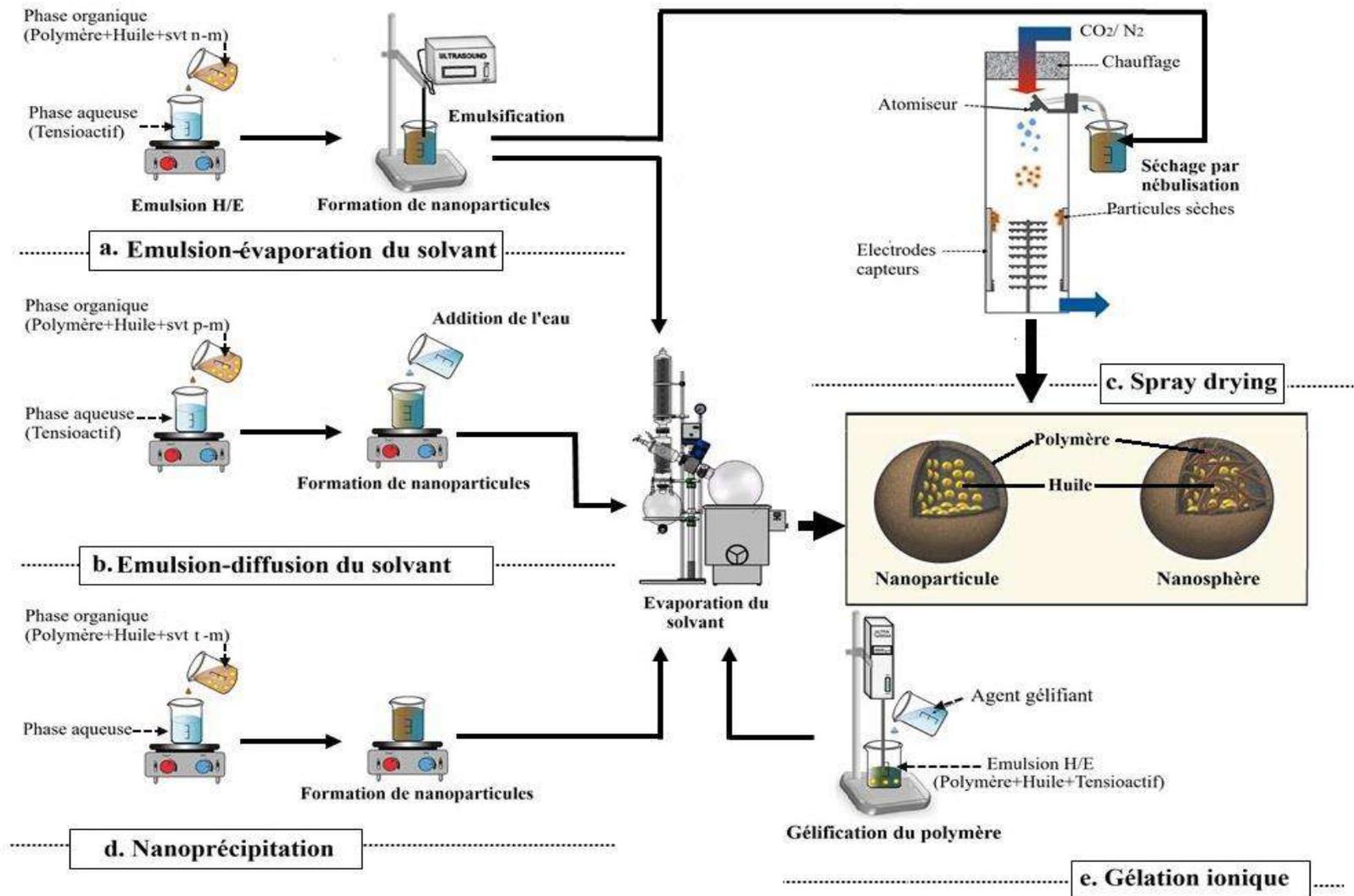


Figure 2.7. Méthodes de préparation de nanoparticules polymères.

Svt n-m : Solvant non-miscible avec l'eau ; svt p-m : Solvant partiellement miscible avec l'eau ; svt t-m : Solvant totalement miscible avec l'eau.

Tableau 2.2. Différentes méthodes d'encapsulation des huiles essentielles et végétales

Huile encapsulée	Plante	Polymère utilisé	Propriété physicochimiques			Réf.
			d _h (nm)	ζ (mV)	EE (%)	
Nanoprécipitation						
Palmarosa	<i>Cymbopogon martini</i> L.	Poly-ε-caprolactone	282	-27.2	99.5	[192]
Géraniole	/	Poly-ε-caprolactone	289	-26.6	99.9	[192]
Thym	<i>Thymus vulgaris</i>	Eudragit-L 100-55	154	-4.11	52.8	[193]
	<i>Thymus serpyllum</i> L.	Chitosan	/	/	68	[194]
		Chitosan	117-226	+27	/	[195]
	<i>Thymus leptobotrys</i>	Eudragit -RS 100	144	+80.9	/	[196]
	<i>Thymus satureoides</i>	Eudragit -RS 100	132	81.6	/	[196]
Bergamote	<i>Citrus bergamia</i> Risso.	Eudragit RS100	57- 208	+39 to +74	28-84	[43]
Orange douce	<i>Citrus sinensis</i> L.	Eudragit RS100	57- 208	+39 to +74	56-96	[43]
Romarin	<i>Rosmarinus officinalis</i> L.	Eudragit EPO	200	/	59	[197]
		Poly-ε-caprolactone	145	-11.0	78.2	[198]
		Poly-ε-caprolactone	220	-19.9	99	[199]
Lavande	<i>Lavandula dentate</i> L.	Eudragit EPO	200	/	41	[197]
		Poly (éthylène oxide)-b- Polylactide	10-75	/	70-75	[200]
Menthe poivrée	<i>Mentha piperita</i> L.	Acétate de cellulose	180	-38	/	[201]
Cinnamon	<i>Cinnamomum cassia</i> persl.	Acétate de cellulose	150	-40	/	[201]
Citronnelle	<i>Cymbopogon citratus</i> DC.	Acétate de cellulose	200	-36	/	[201]
		Polylactide	300	-6	/	[202]
Citron vert	<i>Citrus aurantiifolia</i> Christm.	Chitosane	/	+10	/	[203]
		Chitosane	250	+10	/	[195]
Poivre noir	<i>Shinus mole</i> L.	Chitosane	754	+9.1	/	[204]
<i>Zanthoxylum rhoifolium</i>	<i>Zanthoxylum rhoifolium</i> L.	Poly-ε-caprolactone	500	-20	96	[205]
<i>Pelargonium graveolens</i>	<i>Pelargonium graveolens</i> L'Hér.	Eudragit RS100	113	+80.6	/	[196]
<i>Eugenia Caryophyllata</i>	<i>Eugenia Caryophyllata</i> C.	Eudragit RS 100	131	+80.7	/	[196]
Carvacrol	/	Poly(3-hydroxybutyrate)	146	-26	21	[206]
		Poly (lactide-co-glycolide)	210	/	26	[207]
Carvone	/	Poly (lactide-co-glycolide)	126	/	/	[208]
Anethole	/	Poly (lactide-co-glycolide)	158	/	/	[208]
Rose musquée		Eudragit RS100	158	+9.8	/	[209]

Tableau 2.2. (Suite)

Nanoprécipitation						
Ricin	<i>Ricinus communis</i> L.	1,2,4-Triazoline-3,5-dione	260-150	/	/	[210]
Olive	<i>Olea europaea</i> L.	1,2,4-Triazoline-3,5-dione	185	-30	/	[210]
Pépins de courge	<i>Cucurbita maxima</i> L.	1,2,4-Triazoline-3,5-dione	172	-35	/	[210]
Tournesol	<i>Helianthus annuus</i> L.	1,2,4-Triazoline-3,5-dione	178	-33	/	[210]
Noisette	<i>Corylus avellane</i> L.	1,2,4-Triazoline-3,5-dione	175	-35	/	[210]
Son de riz	<i>Oryza sativa</i> L.	Poly- ϵ -caprolactone	200	-9	/	[211]
Pignons de pin	<i>Pinus siberica</i> L.	Eudragit L 100-55 / Eudragit L100 /	236-296	/	85-91	[212]
Acide gras libre		Eudragit S100	260-319	/	83-99	
Babassu	<i>Attalea speciosa</i> L.	Poly (lactide-co-glycolide)	209	-15.8	/	[213]
Emulsion-évaporation de solvant						
Clou de girofle	<i>Syzygium aromaticum</i> L.	Poly (lactide-co-glycolide)	238	-40.3	93.9	[214]
Eugénol	/	Poly (lactide-co-glycolide)	179	/	98	[215]
Trans-cinnamaldéhyde	/	Poly (lactide-co-glycolide)	174		92	[215]
Grains de Chia	<i>Salvia hispanica</i> L.	Mucilage des grains de chia	205	-11.6	82.8	[216]
Grains de café	<i>Coffea arabica</i> L.	Poly lactide	263	/	112.7	[217]
		Poly(3-hydroxybutyrate-co-3-hydroxyvalérate)	271		94.5	[217]
Emulsion-diffusion de solvant						
Romarin	<i>Rosmarinus officinalis</i> L.	Poly- ϵ -caprolactone	150	-7.06	81.5	[218]
Citron	<i>Citrus aurantiifolia</i> Christm	Poly- ϵ -caprolactone	141.83	-4.82	92.3	[218]
Lippia sidoides	<i>Lippia sidoides</i> Cham.	Poly- ϵ -caprolactone	173.6	/	70.6	[219]
Citronnelle	<i>Cymbopogon citratus</i> DC.	Poly (lactide-co-glycolide)	277	-16	73	[220]
		Poly (lactide-co-glycolide)	217	-20.5	/	[221]
Eugénol	/	Poly- ϵ -caprolactone	320		100	[222]
Gélation ionique						
Clou de girofle	<i>Syzygium aromaticum</i> L.	Chitosane	268.47	+22.45	/	[223]
Poivre noir	<i>Schinus mole</i> L.	Chitosane	517	+40.2	26.6	[224]
Cannelle	<i>Cinnamomum verum</i> L.	Chitosane	80-100	-11.2 to -22.4	47.7 - 55.6	[225]
		Chitosane	215	/	/	[226]
Cardamome	<i>Elettaria cardamomum</i> L.	Chitosane	50-100	>+50	>90	[227]
Summer savory	<i>Summer savory</i> L.	Chitosane	135- 237	-9.7 to -21.1	35.1 - 40.7	[228]

Tableau 2.2. (Suite)

Gélation ionique						
<i>Carum copticum</i>	<i>Carum copticum</i> L.	Chitosane	/	/	36.2	[229]
Curcuma	<i>Curcuma longa</i> L.	Alginate + Chitosane	<300	/	71	[230]
Citronnelle	<i>Cymbopogon citratus</i> DC.	Alginate + Chitosane	<300	/	86.9	[230]
Jasmin	<i>Jasminum polyanthum</i> L.	Gélatine + Gomme arabique		/	/	[231]
Basilic	<i>Bcimum basilicum</i> L.	Gélatine	392 .10 ³	/	95.4	[232]
<i>Pimenta dioica</i>	<i>Pimenta dioica</i> L.	Chitosane + k-carrageenan	/	/	/	[233]
Eugénol	/	Chitosane	80–100	+16.2 to +33.5	1.1–20.2	[234]
Origan	<i>Origanum vulgare</i> L.	Chitosane	40 - 80	/	/	[235]
Grains de pavot	<i>Papaver rhoeas</i> L.	Gélatine + Gomme arabique	<5000	/	76.8	[236]
Vanille	<i>Vanilla pompona</i> L.	Chitosane + Gomme arabique	7500	/	94.2	[237]
Olive	<i>Olea europaea</i> L.	Gélatine + Sodium alginate	/	/	/	[238]
Microalgue	/	Gélatine + Gomme arabique	≈30 .10 ³	/	/	[239]
Menthe poivrée	<i>Mentha piperita</i> L.	Gélatine + Gomme arabique	/	/	/	[240]
Séchage par atomisation						
Nigelle	<i>Nigella staiva</i> L.	Caséinate de sodium + maltodextrine DE10	18.5.10 ³	/	95.4	[241]
<i>Eucalyptus</i>	<i>Eucalyptus staigeriana</i> L.	Gomme de cajou	27.70- 432.6	+24.5 to +10.4	24.9 - 26.8	[242]
<i>Lippia sidoides</i>	<i>Lippia sidoides</i> L.	Alginate + Gomme de cajou	223 to 399	-30 to -36	50	[243]
		Chitosane + Gomme de cajou	335–558	/	70	[244]
		Chitosane	25	-17.3	77.8	[245]
Origan	Oregano EO	Inuline	3000 - 4500	/	/	[246]
		Amidon de riz	3000 – 4500	/	/	[247]
		Gélatine + sucrose	3000 – 4500	/	/	[247]
Amande	<i>Prunus dulcis</i> L.	Amidon du taro	1600–31.1.10 ³	/	37.5	[248]
Pivoine	<i>Paeonia lactiflora</i> L.	Protéine de lactosérum + sirop de maïs + Lécithine	/	/	93.6	[249]
Grains de Chia	<i>Salvia hispanica</i> L.	Caséinate de sodium + maltodextrine + protéine de chia + mucilage de chia	/	/	53.4- 96.2	[250]
Tournesol	<i>Helianthus annuus</i> L.	Maltodextrine + HPMC	/	/	79.4	[251]
Noyer du Queensland	<i>Macadamia integrifolia</i> L.	Caséinate de sodium + maltodextrine	9750	/	88.7	[252]

Tableau 2.2. (Suite)**Séchage par atomisation**

Kénaf	<i>Hibiscus cannabinus</i> L.	β-cyclodextrine + Gomme arabique	(25–37).10 ³	/	90.0- 95.3	[253]
		β-cyclodextrine + Caséinate de sodium	(25–37).10 ³	/	90.0- 95.3	[253]
		β-cyclodextrine + Gomme arabique + Caséinate de sodium	(25–37).10 ³	/	90.0- 95.3	[253]
		Maltodextrine + Protéine de soja	4000-10.10 ³	/	≈ 60	[254]
		Protéine de lactosérum + gomme mesquite	(13–28).10 ³	/	70	[255]
		Protéine de lactosérum + gomme mesquite	(13–28).10 ³	/	70	[255]
		Noix	<i>Juglans regia</i> L.	Poudre de lait écrémé + Tween 80	/	/
Poudre de lait écrémé + maltodextrine	/			/	/	[256]
Lin	<i>Linum usitatissimum</i> L.	Maltodextrine + Gomme arabique	600-26.10 ³		62.3- 95.7	[257]
		Gomme arabique	/	/	≈ 90	[258]
		Gomme arabique + Maltodextrine	/	/	≈ 90	[258]
		Gomme arabique + Maltodextrine + Protéine de lactosérum	/	/	≈ 90	[258]
		Maltodextrine +methylcellulose	/	/	≈ 90	[258]
		Gomme arabique	/	/	54.9 – 90.7	[259]
		Gomme arabique + Maltodextrine	/	/	54.9 – 90.7	[259]
Noyer du Queensland	<i>Macadamia integrifolia</i> L.	Caséinate de sodium +maltodextrine	9750	/	88.75	[252]
Grains de café	<i>Coffea arabica</i> L.	Gomme arabique	4000-11.10 ³	/	10-30	[260]
		Gomme arabique	7880-13.10 ³	/	48-88	[261]

HPMC: Hydroxypropyl méthylcellulose.

2.5.1. Emulsion-évaporation du solvant

Cette technique développée et brevetée par Vanderhoff et al. [262] consiste à préparer une émulsion huile dans l'eau puis à éliminer le solvant organique par évaporation ce qui conduit à la précipitation du polymère et la formation des NP. Dans un premier temps, l'huile à encapsuler est dissoute dans une solution organique non miscible à l'eau, constituée de polymère et de solvant organique (dichlorométhane, chloroforme, ou acétate d'éthyle). Ce mélange est ensuite émulsifié dans une phase aqueuse contenant un stabilisant (généralement le poly alcool vinylique) par homogénéisation ou ultrasonication pour former une émulsion stable. Après cela, le solvant organique est évaporé soit par agitation magnétique continue à température ambiante soit sous pression réduite conduisant à la formation de nanoparticules (**Fig.2.7.a**) [263,264]. Elle est bien adaptée aux principes actifs lipophiles mais moins utilisée pour encapsuler les huiles extraites des plantes par rapport aux autres méthodes (**Tableau 2.2**). Tout ceci est peut-être dû aux énergies importantes mises en jeu et à la possibilité de la coalescence possible des gouttelettes lors de l'évaporation du solvant.

2.5.2. Emulsion-diffusion du solvant

Cette technique brevetée par Quintanar et al. est basée sur des phénomènes de diffusion de solvant pour provoquer la précipitation d'un polymère [265]. Dans cette méthode, le polymère et l'huile doivent être dissous dans une phase organique qui est partiellement miscible à la phase aqueuse contenant un tensioactif sous forte agitation, provoquant une saturation mutuelle rapide des deux phases. Par la suite, l'addition d'eau au système provoque la précipitation du polymère et la formation de NP par diffusion du solvant vers la phase aqueuse externe (**Fig.2.7.b**) [266]. Le solvant est enfin éliminé par évaporation ou filtration. Les avantages de l'émulsion-diffusion du solvant sont la reproductibilité même à l'échelle industrielle et les taux élevés d'encapsulation des molécules lipophiles. Cependant, l'instabilité éventuelle des principes actifs dans la phase aqueuse saturée durant l'émulsification et les grands volumes d'eau à éliminer constituent les principaux inconvénients qui limitent l'utilisation de cette technique [267].

2.5.3. Séchage par atomisation

Le séchage par atomisation ou spray drying est couramment utilisé pour l'encapsulation de molécules sensibles à la chaleur, telles que les huiles, les enzymes et les arômes en raison du court temps de contact entre l'air chaud et la matière première,

généralement, l'évaporation se produit entre 15 à 30 secondes et a lieu à la surface des particules ; ainsi, les matériaux n'atteignent jamais la température d'entrée du gaz de séchage [268]. Les HV sont également encapsulées par cette technique (**Tableau 2.2**). Le spray drying consiste à atomiser une émulsion contenant l'huile à encapsuler avec le polymère en fines gouttelettes dans un courant d'air chaud et sec qui évapore le solvant instantanément en raison de l'énorme surface entre les gouttelettes et le gaz de séchage et forme par la suite des particules solides après précipitation du polymère [269] (**Fig.2.7.c**). Les particules obtenues à la fin sont des nanocapsules contenant la phase huileuse à l'intérieur. Le séchage par nébulisation classique n'est pas adapté à la production des NP parce qu'elles sont trop petites pour être récupérées à la fin du procédé dans le cyclone. Par conséquent, des nouveaux types d'appareils sont conçus pour faciliter la collecte des NP comme le Büchi Nano Spray Dryer, qui capte les particules par un collecteur électrostatique [269].

Actuellement, le spray drying est largement utilisé dans les industries nutraceutiques et agro-alimentaires en raison de ses avantages, notamment la facilité de mise à l'échelle, la simplicité, les faibles coûts de production et la capacité à produire des particules faciles à transporter et à stocker. D'après les différents travaux illustrés dans le **Tableau 2.2**, les inconvénients de ce procédé résident dans la granulométrie élevée des particules ; ainsi qu'aux faibles rendements d'encapsulation des huiles.

2.5.4. Nanoprécipitation

La technique de la nanoprécipitation, autrement appelée « déplacement du solvant », a été décrite pour la première fois par Fessi et al. [270]. Elle requiert l'utilisation de trois ingrédients : un polymère, un solvant et un non-solvant du polymère. Le solvant doit être totalement miscible avec le non-solvant. L'acétone, en raison de son faible point d'ébullition, est très fréquemment recommandé [271]. Cette technique est largement utilisée pour l'encapsulation des HE ou HV, comme illustré dans le **Tableau 2.2**. Elle consiste à dissoudre l'huile dans une solution organique de polymère qui sera ensuite injectée, sous agitation modérée, dans une phase aqueuse, dans laquelle le polymère et l'huile ne sont pas solubles (**Fig.2.7.d**). Les NP se forment instantanément après diffusion du solvant vers la phase aqueuse. Cette formation de particules est traduite par le fait que le polymère quitte les gouttelettes et se dépose à l'interface grâce à son insolubilité à la fois dans l'huile et dans la phase externe (mélange eau-solvant). Par la suite, le solvant organique sera éliminé par

évaporation sous pression réduite [181]. L'ajout des agents tensioactifs n'est pas indispensable mais permet généralement de diminuer la taille et la polydispersité des NP obtenues et assurer la stabilité à long terme de la suspension colloïdale.

La nanoprécipitation est très simple à mettre en œuvre, rapide, économique et hautement reproductible. Elle permet l'incorporation d'une grande quantité d'huile avec un excellent rendement dans des NP de taille bien définie et de distribution de taille homogène. De plus, elle ne nécessite pas d'énergie de production élevée. Le principal inconvénient de cette méthode est l'utilisation de solvants organiques qui peuvent être toxiques pour la santé ce qui nécessite une étape de purification des NP à la fin du procédé [272].

2.5.5. Gélation ionique

Afin d'éviter l'utilisation de solvants organiques toxiques ou des énergies élevées, Calco et al. ont proposé une nouvelle approche appelée gélation ionique ou coacervation [273]. Dans cette méthode, des agrégats nanométriques se forment via l'interaction électrostatique à partir des solutions de polysaccharides chargés qui gélifient en présence d'ions de signe opposé (**Fig.2.7.e**). Cette transition de l'état liquide à l'état de gel des polysaccharides se produit à pH fixe. L'alginate de sodium et le chitosane sont parmi les polysaccharides les plus utilisés pour la gélation ionique [268]. Plusieurs études ont été menées en utilisant cette technique pour encapsuler les HV, comme indiqué dans le **Tableau 2.2**. Les principaux inconvénients de cette technique sont l'efficacité d'encapsulation modérée et le diamètre élevé des nanocapsules comparativement à la technique de la nanoprécipitation.

2.6. Revue bibliographique sur l'utilisation de la nanoprécipitation pour l'encapsulation des huiles essentielles et végétales

Ce travail traite pour la première fois l'encapsulation de l'HE du *Saussurea lappa* CB. Clarke. et l'HV du *Phoenix dactylifera* L. dans des NP en employant la technique de la nanoprécipitation. Une étude bibliographique semble nécessaire sur l'utilisation de cette technique pour l'encapsulation des huiles et le **Tableau 2.3** en résume l'ensemble des travaux qui ont été conduits pendant cette dernière décennie.

2.6.1. Matières premières utilisées

a. Phase organique (phase solvant) : La méthode de la nanoprécipitation implique l'utilisation d'un solvant organique, qui est complètement soluble dans la phase aqueuse externe, induisant une précipitation immédiate du polymère. Selon le **Tableau 2.3**, l'acétone est le solvant le plus recommandé [192,199–202,207,274]. Plusieurs d'autres solvants peuvent être utilisés comme le diméthylsulfoxyde [208], l'éthanol [196], l'acide acétique [194,195,203,204,275], le mélange isopropanol/acétone [193,197], et le tétrahydrofurane [276]. Les polymères utilisés sont souvent biodégradables et biocompatibles ; ils peuvent être synthétiques ou naturels. Eudragit[®]RS100 [43,196], Eudragit[®]L100-55 [193], Eudragit[®]EPO [197], poly-ε-caprolactone [192,199,277], polylactide [202] et poly (lactide- co-glycolide) [207,208] sont des polymères synthétiques largement utilisés pour l'encapsulation des huiles de plantes. Les polymères naturels peuvent aussi être utilisés pour développer des NP, parmi lesquels le chitosane est le plus répandu [194,203,275]. Des tensioactifs comme les esters de sorbitane (span 20 [199]) et les phospholipides (l'Epikuron[®]200 [207] et la lécithine [192]) sont couramment utilisés pour empêcher l'agrégation des particules.

b. Phase aqueuse (phase non-solvant) : Il peut s'agir d'un mélange de tensioactifs dissous dans le non-solvant. Le Pluronic[®]F68 [192,207], le Tween 80 [199,274] et l'alcool polyvinylique [193,278] sont des exemples de tensioactifs utilisés. Concernant le non-solvant, l'eau est largement utilisée [193,196,199–202,207,208,274,279].

Tableau 2.3. Utilisation de la nanoprécipitation pour l'encapsulation des huiles essentielles et végétales dans des nanoparticules.

Huile encapsulée	Phase organique			Phase aqueuse		Propriétés biologiques	Application	Réf.
	Polymère	Surfactant	Solvant	Surfactant	Solvant			
<i>C. martini</i>	Poly- ϵ -caprolactone	Lécithine	Acétone	Pluronic F68	Eau	Antioxydant, antimicrobien	Cosmétique	[192]
Géraniol	Poly- ϵ -caprolactone	Lécithine	Acétone	Pluronic F68	Eau	Antioxydant, antimicrobien	Cosmétique	[192]
	PluronicF-127	/	Tétrahydrofuran	/	Eau	Antimicrobien	Alimentaire	[276]
Thym	Eudragit L 100-55	/	Acétone : Isopropanol	Alcool polyvinylique	Eau	Antioxydant	Alimentaire	[193]
	Chitosane	/	Acide acétique	/	Méthanol	Antimicrobien	Agriculture	[194]
	Chitosane	/	Acide acétique	/	Méthanol	Antimicrobien	Agriculture	[195]
	Eudragit RS 100	/	Ethanol	/	Eau	Bactériostatique, fongistatique	Médecine	[196]
Bergamote	Eudragit RS100	/	Acétone	/	Eau	Antimicrobien	Alimentaire	[43]
Orange sucrée	Eudragit RS100	/	Acétone	/	Eau	Antimicrobien	Alimentaire	[43]
Romarin	Eudragit EPO	/	Acétone: Isopropanol	/	Eau	Antioxydant	Cosmétique	[197]
	Poly- ϵ -caprolactone	Span 20	Acétone	Tween 80	Eau	Insecticide	Agriculture	[198]
	Poly- ϵ -caprolactone	Span 20	Acétone	Tween 80	Eau	Antioxydant, analgésique, antimicrobien	Médecine	[199]
Lavande	Eudragit EPO	/	Acétone: Isopropanol	/	Eau	Antioxydant	Cosmétique	[197]
	Polyéthylène oxide -b-Polylactide	/	Acétone	/	Eau	Antimicrobien	Textile	[200]
Menthe poivrée	Acétate de cellulose	/	Acétone	/	Eau	Antimicrobien	Médecine	[201]
Cannelle	Acétate de cellulose	/	Acétone	/	Eau	Antimicrobien	Médecine	[201]
Citronnelle	Acétate de cellulose	/	Acétone	/	Eau	Antimicrobien	Médecine	[201]
	Polylactide	/	Acétone	/	Eau	Antimicrobien	Médecine	[202]
Poivre noir	Chitosane	/	Acide acétique	/	Méthanol	Antifongique	Agriculture	[204]
Citron vert	Chitosane	/	Acide acétique	/	Méthanol	Antimicrobien	Agriculture	[195]

Tableau 2.3 (Suite)

Citron vert	Chitosane	/	Acide acétique	/	Méthanol	Antimicrobien	Alimentaire	[203]
<i>Z. rhoifolium</i>	Poly-ε-caprolactone	Span 60	Acétone	Tween 80	Eau	Pesticide	Agriculture	[274]
<i>P. graveolens</i>	Eudragit RS 100	/	Ethanol	/	Eau	Bactériostatique, fongistatique	Médecine	[196]
<i>E. Caryophyllata</i>	Eudragit RS 100	/	Ethanol	/	Eau	Bactériostatique, fongistatique	Médecine	[196]
Carvacol	Poly (lactide- co-glycolide)	Epikuron 200	Acétone	Pluronic F68	Eau	Antimicrobien	Médecine	[207]
Carvone	Poly (lactide- co-glycolide)	/	Diméthylsulfoxyde	/	Eau	Antimicrobien	Alimentaire	[208]
Poivrier	Chitosane	/	Acide acétique	/	Méthanol	Antifongique	Alimentaire	[275]
Anéthole	Poly (lactide- co-glycolide)	/	Diméthylsulfoxyde	/	Eau	Antimicrobien	Alimentaire	[208]
Origan	Poly-ε-caprolactone	Span 80	Acétone	Tween 80	Eau	Antimicrobien	/	[280]
Rose musquée	Eudragit RS100	/	Acétone	Tween 80	Eau	Cicatrisant	Cosmétique	[209]
Ricin	1,2,4-Triazoline-	/	Acétone	/	Eau	Source d'acides gras	/	[210]
Olive	3,5-dione					insaturés		
Pépins de courge								
Tournesol								
Noisette								
Son de riz	Poly-ε-caprolactone					Anti-solaire	Cosmétique	[211]
Pignons de pin	Eudragit L 100-55 / Eudragit L100 / Eudragit S100	Poloxamer 188	Acétone	/	Eau	Source d'acides gras insaturés	Médecine	[212]
Babassu	Poly (lactide- co-glycolide)	/	Acétone	Pluronic F68	Eau	Traitement de l'hyperplasie bénigne de la prostate	Médecine	[213]

Plusieurs travaux ont rapporté l'efficacité de la nanoprécipitation par rapport à d'autres méthodes en termes de taille de NP et d'EE% d'huile. Shakeri et al. ont constaté que l'utilisation de la nanoprécipitation a permis une amélioration significative de l'EE% (21%) et une meilleure stabilité (potentiel ζ de -26 mV) des particules de poly(3-hydroxybutyrate) chargées en carvacrol par rapport à la méthode de la dialyse [206]. En outre, Esfandyari-Manesh et al. ont comparé le diamètre moyen, la distribution de taille et la charge en huile du poly (lactide-co-glycolide) carvone / anéthol-NP préparées par deux techniques ; la nanoprécipitation et l'émulsification évaporation du solvant [208]. Les résultats ont révélé que les particules élaborées par nanoprécipitation sont plus petites en taille (126 et 158 nm pour carvone et anéthole, respectivement), et ont une distribution de taille plus étroite (indice de polydispersité d'environ 0.08) et une EE% plus élevée (12.32% pour la carvone et 14.73% pour l'anéthole). La faible EE% constatée en utilisant la méthode d'émulsification est attribuée à la perte d'huile pendant la phase d'évaporation qui a duré 3 h. De plus, la difficulté pour la dispersion mutuelle de la phase organique en utilisant cette méthode se traduit par des particules plus grosses [208]. Fraj et al. ont rapporté des résultats similaires en termes de taille de particule, de potentiel ζ et d'EE% pour l'HE d'*Origanum vulgare* L. contenue dans des NP de poly- ϵ -caprolactone préparées par nanoprécipitation et double émulsion [280]. La taille des particules, le potentiel ζ et l'EE% trouvés sont de 181.6 nm, -40.9 mV, 85.89% et 1759 nm, -15.7 mV, 47.5% pour la nanoprécipitation et la double émulsion, respectivement.

B. Libération *in vitro* de l'huile encapsulée

La libération *in vitro* des HE ou HV à partir des NP est largement étudiée. En 2015, Christofoli et ses collaborateurs ont examiné la libération de l'HE du *Zanthoxylum rhoifolium* L. à partir des NP de poly- ϵ -caprolactone préparées par nanoprécipitation [205]. Les résultats ont montré une courbe de libération biphasique ; une libération initiale rapide pendant la première heure suivie d'une libération ralentie après 12 h pour atteindre un maximum de libération (81.9%) à 72 h (**Fig.2.10**). La première phase est due à la fraction d'huile adsorbée à la surface des NP. Alors que la deuxième est attribuée à la diffusion de l'huile du cœur des NP vers l'extérieur [205]. Ce profil de libération est similaire à ce qui est observé dans des travaux antérieurs [194,200,207].

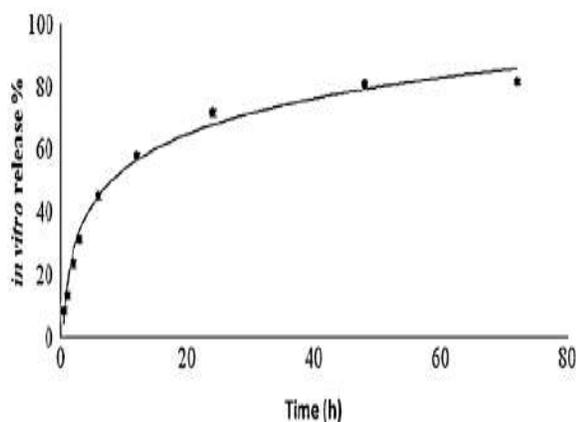


Figure 2. 10. Profil de libération de l'huile essentielle du *Zanthoxylum rhoifolium* L. à partir des nanoparticules de poly-ε-caprolactone (Christofoli et al.)ⁱ.

Les études *in vitro* démontrent que différents facteurs peuvent affecter la libération des huiles à partir de systèmes colloïdaux. Ces facteurs comprennent le type de la paroi polymérique et l'huile à encapsuler. Il est montré que la libération du carvacrol est plus rapide par rapport à celle du thymol à partir des NP de chitosane [194]. Les temps de libération maximaux sont de 540 et 630 min pour une libération de 100% de carvacrol et de thymol, respectivement. Ce résultat s'explique par le fait que le carvacrol est plus hydrophile que le thymol, donc au contact de l'eau, une libération plus importante est attendue [194]. Dans une autre étude, Popiolski et ses collaborateurs ont rapporté que la libération de l'HE du *Lavandula dentata* L. à partir des NP de copolymères polyéthylène oxyde-acide b-poly lactique dépend du poids moléculaire du polylactide [200]. En effet, deux types de polylactide ayant différents poids moléculaires (4.5 et 10 KDa) sont utilisés pour la conception des NP. La libération de l'essence à partir des NP formées par le polylactide (10KDa) était d'environ 40% et ce pourcentage est resté le même pendant 24 h. Alors que pour les NP de polylactide (4.5KDa), seulement 5% sont libérés. Cette différence était liée à la taille moyenne des NP. Au fait, les NP produites à partir du polylactide à poids moléculaire élevé sont significativement plus petites que celles produites à partir du polylactide à poids moléculaire faible ; ce qui favorise la diffusion de l'huile de lavande du noyau interne vers le milieu externe, conduisant ainsi à augmenter la quantité d'huile libérée [200].

ⁱ Christofoli M, Cristina E, Costa C, et al. Insecticidal effect of nanoencapsulated essential oils from *Zanthoxylum rhoifolium* (Rutaceae) in *Bemisia tabaci* populations. *Ind Crop Prod* 2015; 70: 301–308.

C. Stabilité des nanoparticules

La stabilité des NP préparées par la nanoprécipitation est largement étudiée dans la littérature. Fraj et al. ont comparé la stabilité des NP contenant l'HE d'*Origanum vulgare* L. préparées par deux techniques la nanoprécipitation et la double émulsion ; pendant 60 jours à différentes température (4, 25 et 40 °C) et ont suivi la teneur en carvacrol, le constituant majeur de l'HE. Les résultats ont montré que les NP sont physiquement stables avec une forte rétention en carvacrol [280]. De même, Badri et al. n'ont constaté aucun changement significatif de la taille et du potentiel ζ des NP contenant l'huile de nigelle en fonction de la température stockées pendant un mois (**Fig.2.11**) [279].

Le grand défi qui freine la faisabilité des applications biologiques des HE et HV dans plusieurs domaines est leur instabilité en présence de la lumière, la chaleur et l'humidité. Dans ce contexte, l'étude de la photodégradation (rayonnements UV-A et UV-C) des NP de poly- ϵ -caprolactone contenant l'HE de *Zanthoxylum rhoifolium* L. est étudiée [274]. Les résultats ont révélé que l'huile non encapsulée subit une photodégradation de 94.3% après 7 h d'exposition à la lumière, tandis que la dégradation des NP n'est que 44.8%. Cela a confirmé la propriété de la paroi polymérique à protéger les molécules bioactives [274]. Des résultats similaires sont trouvés avec des NP contenant l'huile de bourrache avec la bétaméthasone [282].

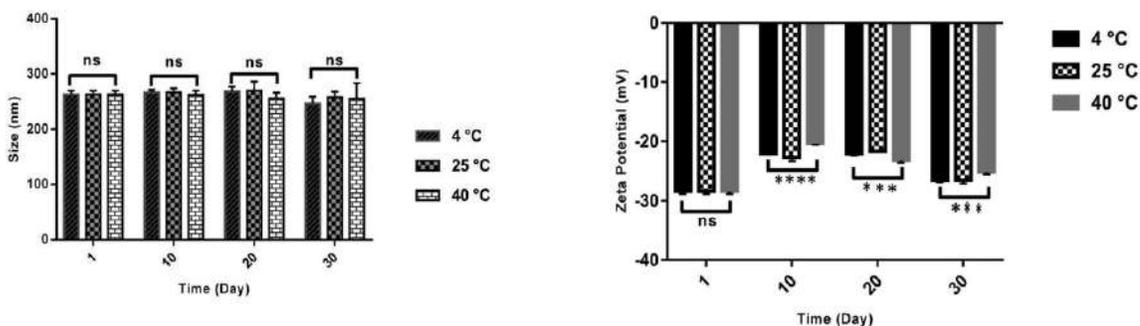


Figure 2.11. Etude de stabilité des nanoparticules contenant l'huile de nigelle stockées pendant un mois à différentes températures en termes de taille et du potentiel zêta (Badri et al.)ⁱ.

ⁱ Badri W, El-Asbahani A, Miladi K, et al. Poly (ϵ -caprolactone) nanoparticles loaded with indomethacin and Nigella Sativa L. essential oil for the topical treatment of inflammation. *J Drug Deliv Sci Technol* 2018; 46: 234–242.

D. Reproductibilité à grande échelle

Avec le développement des stratégies de conception de nanovecteurs, la reproductibilité et l'applicabilité d'un point de vue industriel restent cruciales dans le choix d'une technique appropriée pour produire des nanovecteurs chargés d'HE ou HV avec des propriétés prévisibles. En ce qui concerne le processus de nanoprécipitation, Ephrem et ses collaborateurs ont comparé les propriétés colloïdales des nanocapsules contenant l'huile essentielle du romarin préparées à petite et à grande échelles [199]. Les résultats ont révélé que l'extrapolation à l'échelle industrielle n'a pas d'influence sur les caractéristiques des NP qui ont une forme sphérique, un diamètre moyen de 230 nm, un potentiel ζ de -20 mV avec une EE% supérieure à 99% et une bonne stabilité [199].

2.6.3. Paramètres affectant les propriétés colloïdales des nanoparticules préparées par nanoprécipitation

Les principaux paramètres qui gouvernent les propriétés physicochimiques des NP mises en jeu sont les conditions opératoires et la composition polymérique (polymère, huile, tensioactif).

A. Effet du polymère

Différents travaux sont réalisés pour étudier l'effet du polymère sur les propriétés des NP préparées par la méthode de déplacement du solvant. Dans ce contexte, l'impact de la quantité du poly- ϵ -caprolactone sur le diamètre moyen des NP contenant l'HE du *Rosmarinus officinalis* L. est étudié et les résultats ont montré que la taille des particules est proportionnelle à la quantité du polymère. En effet, une quantité élevée du polymère entraîne une augmentation de l'épaisseur de la paroi polymérique ce qui augmente la taille des particules au détriment de leur nombre. Des résultats similaires sont rapportés par Badri et al. avec les NP de poly- ϵ -caprolactone contenant l'huile d'argan (**Fig.2.12**) [278]. De plus il est constaté que la structure poreuse de l'Eudragit[®]L100 a entraîné la fuite de l'huile extraite des pignons de pin encapsulée dans les NP, diminuant ainsi le taux de l'EE% [212].

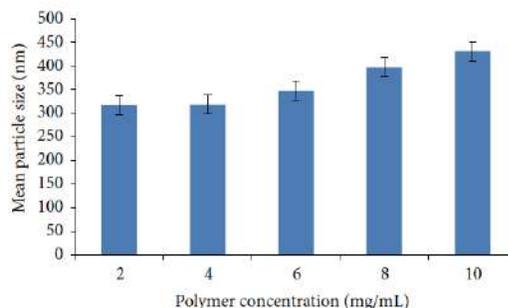


Figure 2.12. Effet de la concentration du polymère sur les propriétés colloïdales des nanoparticules polymères de poly- ϵ -caprolactone (Badri et al.)ⁱ.

B. Effet de l'huile encapsulée

Concernant l'effet du type d'huile à encapsuler, Liakos et al. ont déterminé la taille de trois types de NP à base d'acétate de cellulose produites dans les mêmes conditions tout en variant l'huile [201]. Les résultats ont révélé que la taille des particules croît dans l'ordre suivant ; NP contenant l'huile de la cannelle, NP contenant l'huile de la menthe poivrée puis celles contenant l'huile de la citronnelle. Cette différence est attribuée à la structure chimique de l'huile encapsulée. Le géraniol et le néral, les principaux composants de l'huile de la citronnelle, ont de longues chaînes carbonées (~ 10 atomes de carbone), ce qui entraîne une augmentation de la taille des capsules lorsqu'elles sont fixées à l'acétate de cellulose. Alors que pour l'huile de la cannelle, le composé majoritaire (le cinnamaldéhyde) réagit avec le groupe hydroxyle de l'acétate de cellulose créant ainsi une liaison hémiacétal responsable de la compression des NP ce qui réduit la taille des particules [201]. Dans une autre étude réalisée par Badri et al., la taille des NP augmente avec la quantité d'huile d'argan encapsulée (**Fig.2.13**) [278].

En plus de la taille, l'huile encapsulée peut affecter la charge superficielle des particules. Il est rapporté que l'augmentation de la quantité d'huile de citronnelle entraîne un accroissement du potentiel ζ des NP à base d'acétate de cellulose [201]. Les auteurs ont lié cette variation à la présence de certaines molécules d'huile sur la surface externe des particules. Dans une autre étude, la présence de l'HE du citron vert à la surface des NP de chitosane a diminué le potentiel ζ de +61.1 à +57.0 mV dû à la diminution des groupes NH_3^+ libres de chitosane suite à leur interaction avec l'HE [203].

ⁱ Badri W, Miladi K, Eddabra R, et al. Elaboration of nanoparticles containing indomethacin: Argan oil for transdermal local and cosmetic application. *J Nanomater* 2015; 2015: 1–9.

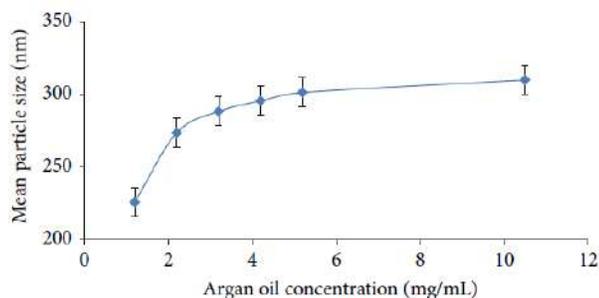


Figure 2.13. Effet de la quantité d'huile sur les propriétés colloïdales des nanoparticules polymères de poly- ϵ -caprolactone (Badri et al.)ⁱ.

C. Effet du tensioactif

Au moyen de la technique de la nanopréciipitation, des NP avec une stabilité colloïdale suffisante peuvent être produites sans aucun besoin de tensioactif. Actuellement, plusieurs rapports ont mis en évidence l'effet négligeable du surfactant sur les propriétés physico-chimiques des NP contenant des HE [43,195,275,276,196,197,200–204,208]. Le même scénario s'est produit avec les HV. Badri et al. (2015) ont souligné que la quantité d'alcool polyvinylique utilisée comme tensioactif n'a d'effet significatif sur le diamètre moyen des NP de poly- ϵ -caprolactone qu'au-delà de 0.1 mg/ml en raison du dépôt de tensioactif supplémentaire sur la surface des particules (**Fig.2.14**)[278].

Certains HE peuvent jouer le rôle de tensioactif. C'est le cas des HE de la menthe poivrée, de la cannelle et de la citronnelle qui présentent de longues queues d'hydrocarbures avec des têtes hydrophiles ayant des groupements fonctionnels [201].

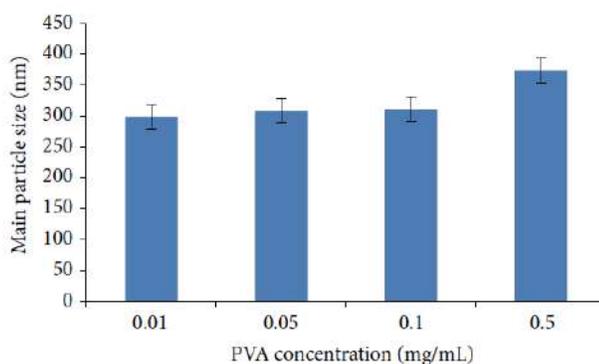


Figure 2.14. Effet de la quantité du tensioactif sur les propriétés colloïdales des nanoparticules polymères de poly- ϵ -caprolactone (Badri et al.)ⁱ.

ⁱ Badri W, Miladi K, Eddabra R, et al. Elaboration of nanoparticles containing indomethacin: Argan oil for transdermal local and cosmetic application. *J Nanomater* 2015; 2015: 1–9.

D. Effet du rapport volumique phase organique / phase aqueuse

L'effet du rapport entre la phase organique et la phase aqueuse peut affecter la taille des particules. Il est montré que la taille des NP est proportionnelle à ce rapport en raison de la diffusion lente du solvant organique (acétone) vers la phase aqueuse ce qui rend la précipitation du polymère lente entraînant une augmentation de la taille des NP (**Fig.2.15**) [278].

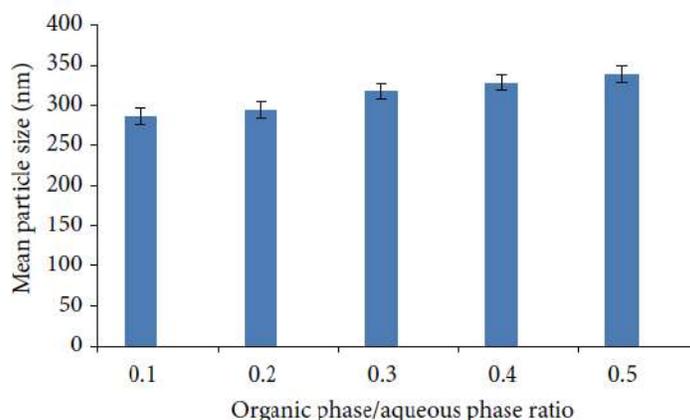


Figure 2.15. Effet du rapport volumique : acétone / eau sur les propriétés colloïdales des nanoparticules polymères de poly-ε-caprolactone (Badri et al.)ⁱ.

E. Effet des conditions opératoires

En plus des facteurs mentionnés ci-dessus, les conditions opératoires peuvent affecter les propriétés physico-chimiques des NP préparées par nanoprécipitation. Dans ce contexte, Badri et al. ont étudié l'effet de la vitesse d'agitation et de la vitesse d'addition de la phase organique et ont noté que la taille des particules de poly-ε-caprolactone contenant l'huile d'argan est inversement proportionnelle à la vitesse d'agitation et à la vitesse d'addition de la phase organique à la phase aqueuse [278].

Dans l'ensemble la nanoprécipitation largement utilisée pour l'encapsulation des HE et HV permet d'obtenir des NP avec des caractéristiques physicochimiques bien adaptées pour leur application dans plusieurs domaines : alimentaire, agricole, médicale, cosmétique et en textile (**Tableau 2.3**).

ⁱ Badri W, Miladi K, Eddabra R, et al. Elaboration of nanoparticles containing indomethacin: Argan oil for transdermal local and cosmetic application. *J Nanomater* 2015; 2015: 1–9.

PARTIE EXPERIMENTALE

CHAPITRE III

MATERIELS ET METHODES

CHPITRE III

MATERIELS ET METHODES

Stratégie du travail

Cette partie est consacrée à la description des matériels et méthodes utilisés afin de mener à bien la présente étude. Elle englobe quatre sous-parties essentielles. La première section porte sur l'extraction et l'analyse de l'huile des noyaux de dattes et celle du costus. La seconde consiste en une étude paramétrique de la nanoprécipitation pour identifier et optimiser les différents paramètres influençant la préparation des NP vides à base de PMMA (Eudragit®RS100). La troisième porte sur la préparation et la caractérisation des NP chargées d'huile ; et enfin dans la dernière partie les méthodes permettant d'accéder aux activités biologiques des huiles sous leurs formes libres et encapsulées sont détaillées. Un schéma récapitulatif montrant la stratégie expérimentale suivie dans le présent travail est illustré ci-dessous. Tous les réactifs et produits utilisés tout au long de cette étude sont insérés en **Annexe A**.

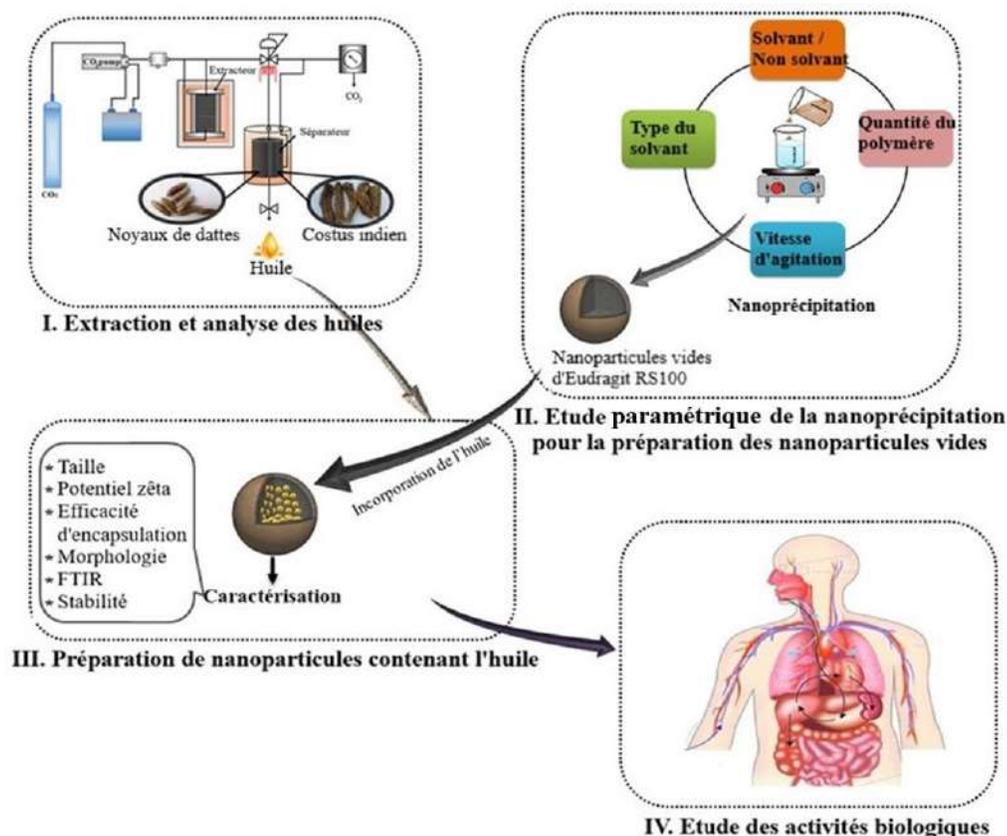


Figure 3.1. Stratégie du travail expérimental.

Partie 1. Extraction et analyse des huiles

3.1. Préparation des matrices végétales

Les noyaux de dattes utilisées dans cette étude proviennent de la variété « Ghars », récoltée dans la région du Sahara (Biskra, Algérie). Les racines sèches du costus indien sont achetées chez un herboriste (Bordj Bou Arreridj, Algérie). Les deux matières végétales ont subi un traitement préliminaire : lavage, séchage et broyage. Les poudres obtenues sont stockées par la suite dans des récipients étanches. Les taux d'humidité résiduelle sont respectivement de 8 et 10% pour la poudre des racines du costus et celle noyaux de dattes. La **Figure 3.2** montre les matières végétales utilisées avant et après prétraitement.

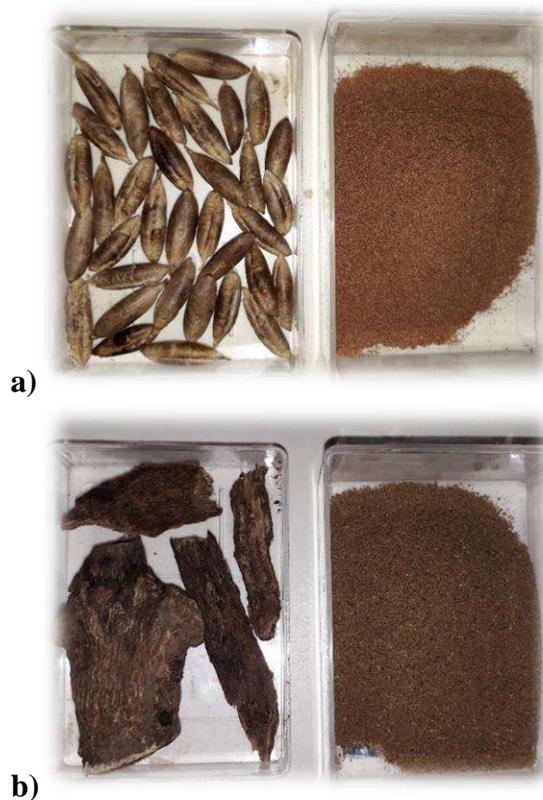


Figure 3.2. Illustration des matières végétales utilisées avant et après prétraitement : (a) Noyaux de dattes ; (b) Racines du costus indien.

3.2. Pilote d'extraction par CO₂ supercritique

L'extraction est réalisée dans un pilote construit par la société Separex (Champigneulle, France) (série 4343 type SF2). L'installation comprend : un extracteur en acier inoxydable, deux séparateurs en série pour le fractionnement et la récupération des extraits et une pompe haute pression qui peut aller jusqu'à 700bar (**Fig 3.3**). Le débit maximal

du CO₂ est de 200 g/min. Le CO₂ utilisé est d'une pureté de 99.5% et est fourni par SIDAL SPA Air liquide (Alger, Algérie).

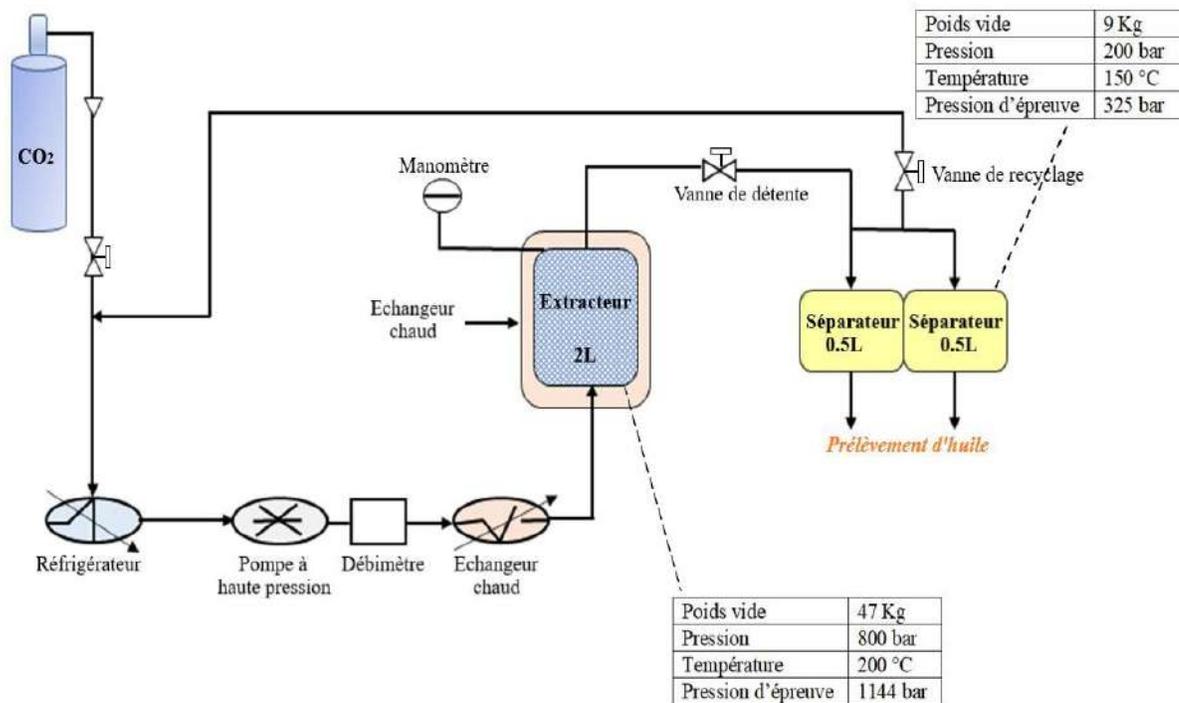


Figure 3.3. Schéma du pilote d'extraction par CO₂ supercritique.

3.3. Protocole de l'extraction par CO₂ supercritique

En se basant sur l'étude élaborée par Louaer et ses collaborateurs [170], les conditions opératoires utilisées pour l'extraction de l'huile des noyaux de dattes sont résumées dans le **Tableau 3.1**.

Pour l'huile de costus, une série d'expériences est effectuée afin d'optimiser la pression, la température et le diamètre des particules (Voir **Annexe B**). Les conditions optimales retenues sont regroupées dans le **Tableau 3.1**.

Tableau 3.1. Conditions opératoires optimales de l'extraction supercritique de l'huile des noyaux de dattes et celle du costus.

Paramètre opératoire	Huile des noyaux de dattes	Huile de costus
Mode	Dynamique	Dynamique
Pression de CO ₂	250bar	100bar
Débit du CO ₂ supercritique	50g/min	50g/min
Masse initiale de la poudre	80g	80g
Diamètre de la poudre	0.3mm	0.3mm
Température d'extraction	60°C	40°C
Température de séparation	30°C	30°C
Temps d'extraction	210min	180min

Les huiles sont recueillies et conservées à 4 °C à l'abri de la lumière pour éviter toute dégradation. Le rendement d'huile en pourcentage (R) est calculé par l'équation 3.1 :

$$R = \frac{P_H}{P_P} \times 100 \quad (3.1)$$

Avec :

P_H : poids de l'huile extraite en g

P_P : poids de la plante traitée en g.

3.4. Analyse de l'huile essentielle du costus indien

L'HE du costus est analysée à l'Institut des Sciences Analytique (ISA) (Villeurbanne, France) par un chromatographe en phase gazeuse (CPG) (Agilent 6890N) lié à un détecteur à ionisation de flamme (FID) et couplé à la spectrométrie de masse (MS) (Agilent 5973N) en utilisant deux colonnes capillaires, l'une polaire (INNOWAX) et l'autre apolaire (HP-1). Les conditions opératoires sont répertoriées dans les **Tableaux 3.2** et **3.3**.

Tableau 3.2. Conditions opératoires des analyses par chromatographie en phase gazeuse.

Colonne capillaire	INNOWAX	HP-1
Longueur	60 m	50 m
Diamètre interne	0.32 mm	0.32 mm
Épaisseur de phase	0.50 µm	0.50 µm
Température du détecteur (FID)	250 °C	250 °C
Gaz vecteur	Hélium	Hélium
Débit	1.3 ml/min	1.3 ml/min
Température de l'injecteur	250 °C	250 °C
Programmation du four	2 min à 60°C 2°C/min de 60 à 245°C 30 min à 245°C	8 min at 80 °C 2°C/min de 80 à 220 °C 10°C/min de 220 à 310°C 20 min à 310 °C
Quantité injectée	1µl	1µl
Mode d'injection	Split 1/60	Split 1/60

Tableau 3.3. Conditions opératoires des analyses par chromatographie en phase gazeuse couplée à la spectrométrie de masse

Colonne capillaire	HP-5MS
Courant d'ionisation	70 eV
Longueur	30 m
Diamètre interne	0.25 mm
Épaisseur de phase	0.25 µm
Température du détecteur	250 °C
Gaz vecteur	Hélium
Débit	1.0 ml/min
Température de l'injecteur	250 °C
Programmation du four	2 min à 60°C ; 3°C/min de 60 à 250°C ; 2min à 250°C ; 10°C/min de 250 à 325°C puis 15min à 325°C.
Quantité injectée	1µl
Mode d'injection	Split 1/60

L'identification des constituants de l'HE se fait par comparaison du spectre de masse de chaque pic séparé par CPG avec ceux reportés dans des bibliothèques de référence (Wiley et NIST data gateway 2005). La calibration pour les indices de rétention est obtenue par injection d'un mélange d'alcane de C5 à C30.

3.5. Analyse de l'huile végétale des noyaux de dattes

L'HV des noyaux de dattes est analysée à l'Institut des Sciences Analytiques (Villeurbanne-France), par CPG-FID (Agilent 6890N) en utilisant la colonne INNOWAX dans les mêmes conditions opératoires que ceux de l'huile de costus mentionnées dans le **Tableau 3.2.** L'huile est traitée, avant injection, comme suit :

- Mettre à reflux 200 μ l de corps gras avec 4 ml de solution méthanolique de soude (0.5N) pendant 10 min.
- Ajouter 5ml de solution méthanolique de trifluorure de bore (10%) et porter au reflux pendant 5 min.
- Après addition de l'eau, faire l'extraction par 2 ml d'hexane
- Sécher la phase organique avec du sulfate de sodium et injecter la dans CPG-FID.

Partie 2. Etude paramétrique de la nanoprécipitation

3.1. Préparation des nanoparticules vides

Les NP sont préparées au moyen de la nanoprécipitation. La phase organique, obtenue en dissolvant du PMMA (Evonik, Allemagne) dans un solvant organique, est ajoutée lentement à la phase aqueuse, constituée d'eau seulement (eau déionisée du système Milli-Q), à température ambiante et sous agitation magnétique modérée (**Fig.3.4**). La diffusion du solvant vers le non-solvant conduit à la formation instantanée d'une suspension de NP. Le solvant organique est évaporé ultérieurement à l'aide de d'un rotavapor R-124[®] de Buchi.

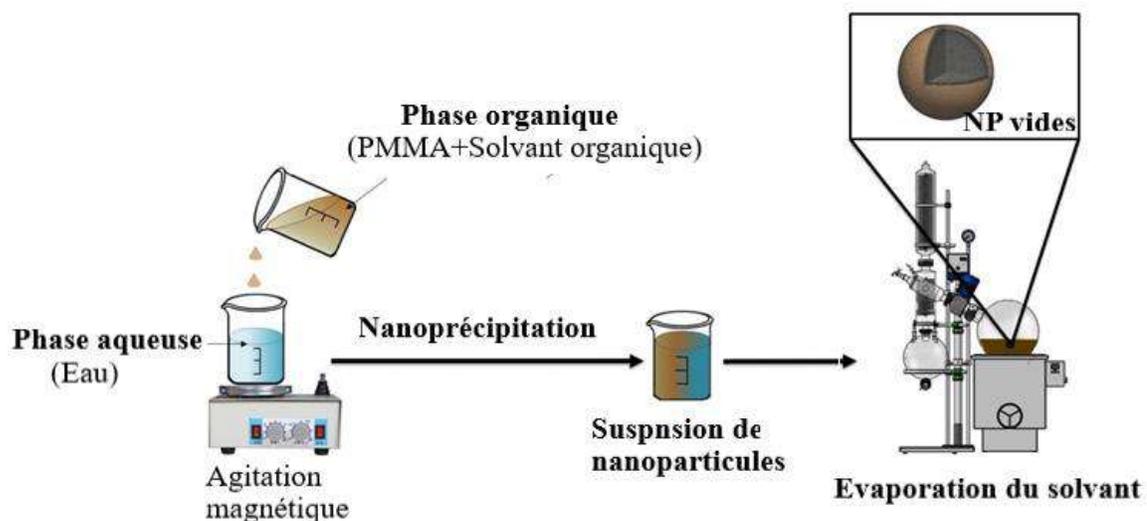


Figure 3.4. Préparation des nanoparticules de PMMA vides.

3.2. Etude de l'effet de différents facteurs opératoires

Différents paramètres sont examinés pour l'optimisation des NP modèles conçues pour l'encapsulation des HE et HV. Le **Tableau 3.4** résume l'ensemble des formulations qui sont réalisées.

Tableau 3.4. Effets de différents paramètres sur la taille des particules et le potentiel ζ des nanoparticules vides à base de PMMA. Les valeurs « en gras » indiquent les paramètres modifiés.

Paramètre étudié	Formulation	Phase organique				Phase aqueuse (ml)	Vitesse (rpm)
		Eudragit (mg/ml)	Acétone (ml)	Ethanol (ml)	Méthanol (ml)		
Type du solvant & Rapport volumique solvant / non-solvant	F1	16	10	-	-	30	500
	F2	16	12	-	-	30	500
	F3	16	15	-	-	30	500
	F4	16	20	-	-	30	500
	F5	16	30	-	-	30	500
	F6	16	-	10	-	30	500
	F7	16	-	12	-	30	500
	F8	16	-	15	-	30	500
	F9	16	-	20	-	30	500
	F10	16	-	30	-	30	500
	F11	16	-	-	10	30	500
	F12	16	-	-	12	30	500
	F13	16	-	-	15	30	500
	F14	16	-	-	20	30	500
	F15	16	-	-	30	30	500
Concentration en polymère	F16	28	15	-	-	30	500
	F17	40	15	-	-	30	500
	F18	52	15	-	-	30	500
	F19	64	15	-	-	30	500
	F20	28	-	15	-	30	500
	F21	40	-	15	-	30	500
	F22	52	-	15	-	30	500
	F23	64	-	15	-	30	500
	F24	28	-	-	15	30	500
	F25	40	-	-	15	30	500
	F26	52	-	-	15	30	500
	F27	64	-	-	15	30	500
Vitesse d'agitation	F28	16	15	-	-	30	300
	F29	16	15	-	-	30	700
	F30	16	-	15	-	30	300
	F31	16	-	15	-	30	700
	F32	16	-	-	15	30	300
	F33	16	-	-	15	30	700

La concentration du polymère est la concentration dans le solvant organique.

3.2.1. Influence de la nature du solvant et du rapport volumique solvant/non-solvant

Le choix du solvant se fait essentiellement sur la base de sa miscibilité avec le non-solvant (l'eau) et de son pouvoir à solubiliser le polymère. Pour étudier l'effet du solvant ainsi que le rapport volumique solvant/non-solvant sur les propriétés colloïdales des NP, quinze solutions organiques de PMMA (16 mg/ml) sont préparées à différents rapports volumiques (1/3, 2/5, 1/2, 2/3 et 1/1) en variant le solvant organique (acétone, éthanol et méthanol). Le volume du non-solvant est maintenu constant (30 ml) pour toutes les expériences. Toutes les formulations préparées sont évaluées en termes de taille de particules, de distribution en taille et de potentiel ζ .

3.2.2. Influence de la concentration en polymère

Différentes solutions organiques de PMMA (15 ml) à différentes concentrations sont préparées (16, 28, 40, 52 et 64 mg/ml) en utilisant les trois solvants organiques. La taille des particules, l'indice de polydispersité et le potentiel ζ sont à nouveau évalués pour toutes les formulations.

3.2.3. Influence de la vitesse d'agitation

Pour évaluer l'effet de la vitesse d'agitation sur les propriétés colloïdales des NP obtenues, différentes solutions organiques de PMMA à (16 mg/ml) sont préparées à un rapport volumique de 1/2 sous trois vitesses d'agitation (300, 500 et 700 rpm). Les NP résultantes sont à nouveau caractérisées.

3.3. Caractérisation des nanoparticules vides

3.3.1. Diffusion dynamique de la lumière

La suspension des NP est soumise à une analyse par diffusion dynamique de la lumière en utilisant un Zetasizer Nano ZS200 (Malvern Instruments, Royaume-Uni) pour mesurer la taille moyenne des particules, l'indice de polydispersité et le potentiel ζ . Les NP sont dispersées dans une solution de NaCl (1 mM) avant chaque mesure. Toutes les mesures sont effectuées en triple à température ambiante et à un pH avoisinant 6.5.

3.3.2. Microscopie électronique à balayage

La Microscopie Electronique à Balayage (MEB ou SEM pour Scanning Electron Microscopy) est une méthode d'analyse microscopique permettant d'observer des objets en relief. Celle-ci est basée sur une interaction électron-matière entre un faisceau électronique et la surface de l'échantillon à analyser. Cette interaction génère des électrons secondaires se

trouvant dans des états d'énergie faible. Ils sont accélérés vers différents détecteurs permettant ainsi la reconstruction d'une image tridimensionnelle de la surface [283].

La MEB est réalisée à l'aide d'un microscope FEI Quanta 250 FEG au Centre Technologique des Microstructures (CT μ) de l'Université de Lyon (Villeurbanne, France). Une goutte de la suspension de NP est fixée sur un support spécifique au MEB (plot métallique) à l'aide d'un ruban adhésif double face, puis séchée à température ambiante. L'échantillon est recouvert d'une fine couche de métal (d'environ 2 à 3 nm d'épaisseur) pour qu'il réémet les électrons à l'intérieur de la chambre d'observation du microscope. Cette étape est réalisée par pulvérisation cathodique du cuivre en utilisant un métalliseur. Les échantillons ainsi préparés sont observés au microscope sous une tension d'accélération de 15 kV.

Partie 3. Encapsulation des huiles dans des nanoparticules polymères

3.1. Protocole de préparation

Les NP sont préparées dans les conditions optimales préalablement déterminées (Partie 2). Pour ce faire, différentes quantités de l'HE du costus ou de l'HV des noyaux de dattes (15, 30, 60, 120, 240 et 300 mg) sont dissoutes dans la solution organique de PMMA à 16 mg/ml (Fig.3.5). L'acétone est choisi comme solvant organique pour l'huile des noyaux de dattes et l'éthanol pour l'huile de costus indien. La phase organique est ajoutée à 30 ml d'eau sous agitation magnétique (500 rpm) et à température ambiante. Le solvant organique est évaporé ultérieurement à l'aide d'un rotavapor R-124[®] Buchi (9°C, 25rpm).

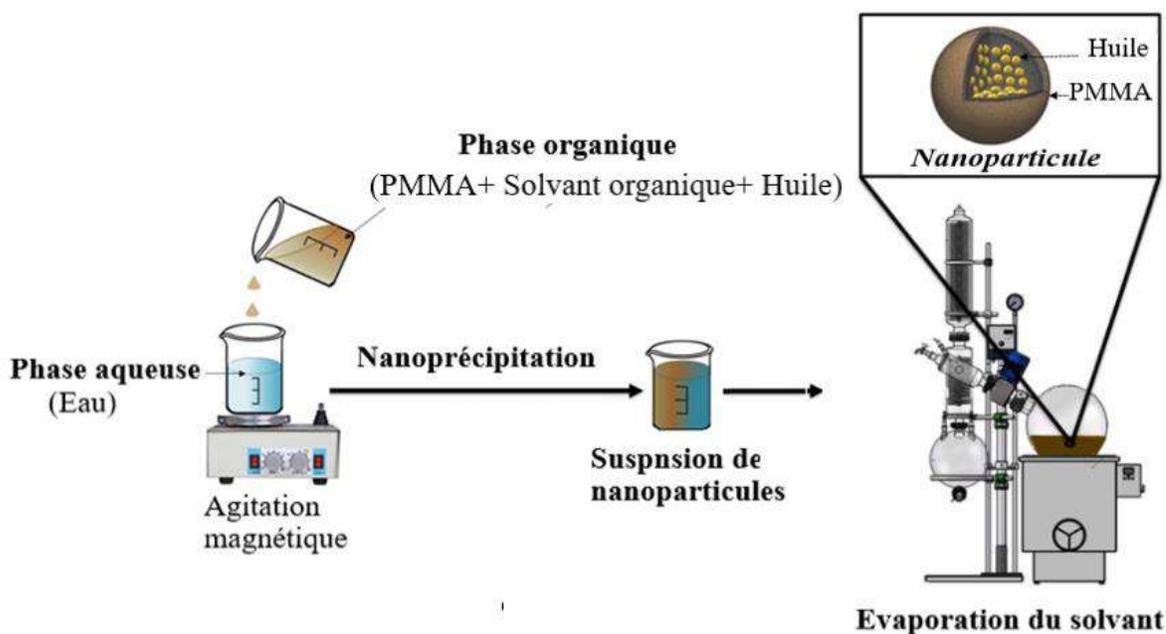


Figure 3.5. Préparation des nanoparticules de PMMA chargées d'huile.

3.2. Caractérisation des nanoparticules

3.2.1. Diffusion dynamique de la lumière

Les NP sont analysées en termes de taille, d'indice de polydispersité et de potentiel ζ à l'aide d'un Zetasizer Nano ZS200 comme décrit précédemment dans la partie 2 (3.3.1).

3.2.2. Microscopie électronique en transmission

La microscopie électronique en transmission (MET, ou TEM pour Transmission Electron Microscopy) repose sur le même principe que le MEB, mais le faisceau d'électrons

est « transmis » à travers un échantillon très mince, ce qui permet de l'observer en « transparence » [284].

Dans notre étude, les NP sont visualisées immédiatement après préparation, à l'aide d'un microscope Philips CM120 fonctionnant à 120 kV, au Centre Technologique des Microstructures (CT μ) de l'Université de Lyon (Villeurbanne, France). Pour cela, 10 μ l de la suspension de NP sont déposés directement sur la grille du microscope qui sera observée après séchage à l'air libre.

3.2.3. Spectroscopie infrarouge à transformée de Fourier

La Spectroscopie Infrarouge à Transformée de Fourier ou Fourier Transform InfraRed Spectroscopy (FTIR) en anglais est l'une des techniques les plus utilisées pour l'identification des groupements fonctionnels et leurs éventuelles interactions dans une molécule [283].

Le polymère, l'huile de costus et celle des noyaux de dattes sous leurs formes libres et encapsulées sont analysés à l'aide d'un spectromètre FTIR (spectromètre Thermo Scientific Technologies FTIR avec logiciel IR MONIC Solution). Une lyophilisation est effectuée avant l'analyse des NP liquides dont les conditions opératoires sont insérées en **Annexe C**. Les spectres sont enregistrés dans une plage de 400 à 4000 cm^{-1} .

3.2.4. Efficacité d'encapsulation

- **Nanoparticules contenant l'huile des noyaux de dattes**

La dispersion colloïdale des NP contenant l'HV des noyaux de dattes est soumise à une centrifugation à 15000 tr/min pendant 30 min. Le surnageant est éliminé et la quantité d'huile encapsulée est mesurée après ajout du chloroforme. La solution résultante a été filtrée et analysée par un spectrophotomètre ultraviolet UV-1800 (Shimadzu, Japon) à une longueur d'onde égale à 274.8 nm. L'EE% et le DL(μg d'huile/mg de polymère) sont déterminées en utilisant les équations 2.3 et 2.4 (Chapitre II). La méthode analytique a fait l'objet d'une validation en termes de linéarité, précision et répétabilité (voir **Annexe D**).

- **Nanoparticules contenant l'huile de costus**

La détermination de l'EE% de l'HE du costus par UV-visible n'est pas possible vu l'apparition de plusieurs pics dans le spectre ce qui rend le choix de la longueur d'onde maximale difficile (voir **Annexe D**).

3.3. Stabilité colloïdale des nanoparticules

Afin d'évaluer la stabilité colloïdale, les formulations des NP obtenues sont stockées pendant 3 mois à 4, 25 et 40°C. La stabilité physique des NP est évaluée en termes de taille des particules et de potentiel ζ .

De plus, la stabilité des NP aux variations de pH est examinée à travers le potentiel ζ . Pour ce faire, le potentiel ζ de différentes formulations est mesuré à température ambiante et à différents pH (3, 4, 5, 7, 9, 10 et 12). Le pH est ajusté par l'ajout de solutions d'HCl ou du NaOH à l'aide d'un pH-mètre pH510 (Mettler Toledo, Viroflay, France).

3.4. Analyse statistique

Toutes les valeurs sont exprimées en moyenne \pm écart type. La comparaison entre les différentes données est déterminée par analyse de variance (ANOVA) suivi d'un post-test de Tukey à l'aide du logiciel XLSTAT. La différence est considérée comme significative si p-value est inférieure à 0.05.

Partie 4. Etude des activités biologiques

3.1. Stratégie du travail

En se basant sur la littérature reportée dans le chapitre I, les principales utilisations médicinales de l'huile des noyaux de dattes et celle du costus portent sur l'activité antioxydante et anti-inflammatoire, respectivement. De ce fait, la stratégie suivie dans cette partie porte sur l'étude de ces deux activités pour les deux huiles sous leurs formes libres et encapsulées. Ainsi l'étude de l'activité de ces formulations sur l'inhibition des enzymes clés de plusieurs maladies à savoir : l' α -amylase et l' α -glucosidase pour le diabète sucré ; l'acétylcholinestérase et la butyrylcholinestérase pour l'Alzheimer est menée.

3.2. Activité anti-inflammatoire

L'étude de l'effet anti-inflammatoire de l'HE du costus sous sa forme libre et encapsulée sur la lignée cellulaire A549 est effectuée au niveau du service de l'inflammation et l'immunité de l'épithélium respiratoire – Hôpital Lyon Sud - Université Claude Bernard Lyon 1, France.

3.2.1. Lignées cellulaires et conditions de culture

Les cellules épithéliales alvéolaires humaines (lignée A549) sont obtenues auprès de l'ATCC (American Type Culture Collection LGC Standard, Molsheim, France). Les cellules sont cultivées dans du DMEM/F-12 enrichi avec 10% (v/v) de FBS et 1% (v/v) d'un mélange d'antibiotique (pénicilline : streptomycine). Les cellules sont cultivées sous atmosphère humide en présence de 5 % de CO₂ à 37°C. Le milieu de culture est renouvelé régulièrement pour assurer un bon développement des cellules. De la trypsine (0.05%) est utilisée pour décrocher les cellules de leur support afin de procéder aux différentes expériences. Après avoir compté les cellules par un compteur automatique (EVE de VWR), elles sont réparties dans des puits de culture cellulaire (2.10⁶ cellules/puits) et laissées incuber pendant 5h en présence de 5 % de CO₂ à 37°C.

3.2.2. Traitement des plaques

Des plaques de 12 puits sont utilisées tout au long de cette étude. Le protocole de traitement des plaques est illustré dans la **Figure 3.6**.

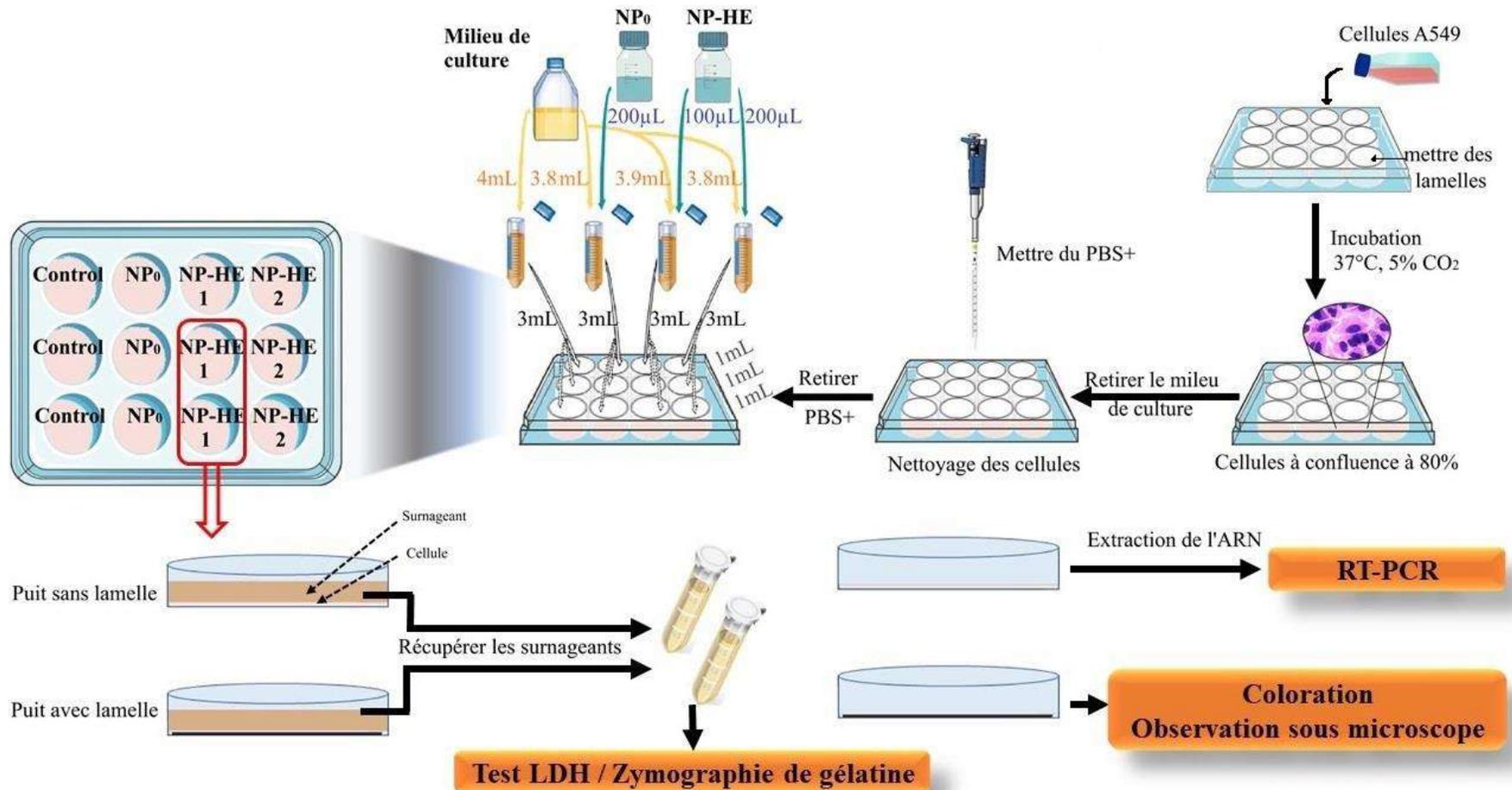


Figure 3.6. Traitement cellulaire des plaques. **NP₀** : Nanoparticules vides ; **NP-HE** : Nanoparticules contenant l'huile essentielle du costus à 4mg/ml ; **NP-HE 1** : Nanoparticules contenant l'huile essentielle du costus à 100µg/ml ; **NP-HE2** : Nanoparticules contenant l'huile essentielle du costus à 200µg/ml.

Chaque lot de trois puits a subi le même traitement (ligne verticale) ; des lamelles sont ajoutées aux quatre derniers puits (ligne horizontale). Lorsque les cellules A549 sont à 80 % de confluence, elles vont subir différents traitements à savoir : les NP vides, la solution de l'huile de costus (200µg/ml d'huile dans du DMSO), le DMSO seul et les NP chargées d'huile de costus à différentes concentrations (12.5, 25, 50, 75, 100 et 200 µg/ml d'huile). Parallèlement à cela, les cellules témoins reçoivent le même volume de solvant que les cellules traitées (1ml de milieu de culture DMEM/F-12). Les cultures sont ensuite incubées à 37°C en présence de 5 % de CO₂ durant 24h. La méthode suivie pour la préparation des différentes concentrations est insérée en **Annexe E.1**.

Après incubation, les surnageants de culture de tous les puits sont récupérés et conservés au congélateur à -20°C jusqu'à réalisation d'un test de cytotoxicité et d'une zymographie de gélatine.

Dans le but de conserver l'ARN des cellules, du RNAlater (750µl) est ajouté aux puits dépourvus de lamelles. Une visualisation des cellules contenues dans les puits pourvus de lamelles est réalisée par la suite. Enfin, les plaques sont conservées au congélateur à -80°C jusqu'à réalisation d'une qPCR (*Quantitative Polymerase Chain Reaction*).

3.2.3. Test de cytotoxicité

Le test de cytotoxicité LDH (Lactate déshydrogénase) est une méthode indirecte et colorimétrique qui permet de déterminer la cytotoxicité cellulaire *in vitro*. Ce test est basé sur le fait que lors de la mort cellulaire, des enzymes cytoplasmiques comme la LDH, peuvent être libérées dans le milieu à cause de la perte de l'intégrité de la paroi plasmique. En mesurant la quantité de la LDH relâchée, il est possible de déterminer le taux de cellules ayant subi une lyse ou des dommages. La LDH provenant des cellules favorise l'oxydation du lactate en pyruvate avec une réduction simultanée du NAD⁺ en NADH. Dans une seconde étape, la diaphorase, catalyseur provenant du kit, réduit le sel de tétrazolium par transfert des protons du NADH en formazan de couleur rouge et qui peut être détecté par spectrophotométrie (**Fig.3.7**) [285]. L'intensité de la coloration reflète la quantité de LDH libérée et donc la mort cellulaire.

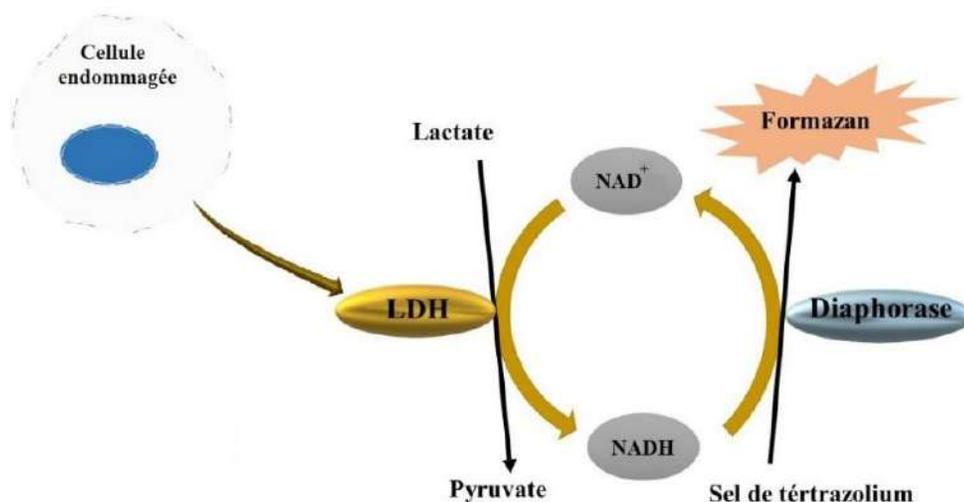


Figure 3.7. Principe du test de cytotoxicité LDH.

Un test de cytotoxicité LDH est réalisé sur les surnageants issus des différents traitements cellulaires en utilisant le kit d'analyse de cytotoxicité Pierce LDH (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) selon le protocole suivant :

- Dans une plaque à 96 puits fond plats, déposer 50 µl de chaque surnageant.
- Déposer 1 quadruplet de contrôle positif « *LDH positive control* ».
- Déposer 1 quadruplet de contrôle négatif (Tampon phosphate salin).
- Ajouter 50 µl de « *Reaction Mixture* » à chaque puit et mélanger avec une pipette multicanaux. Le protocole de la préparation des réactifs est inséré en **Annexe E.2**.
- Incuber la plaque à température ambiante pendant 30min à l'abri de la lumière.
- Déposer 50 µl de « *Solution Stop* » et mélanger en tapotant.
- Lire l'absorbance à 492 et 680nm et soustraire la valeur mesurée à 680nm de celle mesurée à 492nm. Le pourcentage de cytotoxicité est mesuré en appliquant l'équation 3.2 :

$$\% \text{ Cytotoxicité} = \frac{\text{Activité LDH des composés traités} - \text{Activité LDH contrôle négatif}}{\text{Activité LDH contrôle positif} - \text{Activité LDH contrôle négatif}} \times 100 \quad (3.2)$$

3.2.4. Observation microscopique des changements morphologiques cellulaires

Après les traitements cellulaires, les changements de morphologie des cellules A549 sont visualisés au microscope optique après fixation et coloration avec le kit Kwik-Diff

(Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). Le protocole de coloration est comme suit :

- Ajouter 1ml de fixateur aux puits contenant des lamelles, laisser reposer puis aspirer ce dernier.
- L'opération est répétée avec l'éosine et le bleu de méthylène qui servent à colorer respectivement le cytoplasme et le noyau.
- Retirer les lamelles, les laver et les mettre sur des lames.
- Procéder à une observation sous microscope optique.

3.2.5. Traitement cellulaire par lipopolysaccharide

L'étude de l'activité anti-inflammatoire porte sur la suppression de l'expression des cytokines inflammatoires chez les cellules A549, après activation par lipopolysaccharide (LPS). Les cellules sont traitées 1 h avant la stimulation par LPS avec des NP vides et des NP contenant l'huile de costus à 25 µg/ml. Après 1 h d'incubation, les cellules sont lysées ; des études quantitatives des cytokines et médiateurs inflammatoires ainsi que des métalloprotéases sont réalisées.

3.2.6. Etude quantitative des cytokines et des médiateurs inflammatoires

A. Extraction de l'ARN

L'extraction des ARN totaux est effectuée grâce à un Kit EZ-10 DNAaway RNA Miniprep Kit de Biobasic en suivant les indications du fabricant (voir **Annexe E.3** et **E.4**).

B. Reverse Transcriptase- Polymerase Chain Reaction (RT-PCR)

Des ADN complémentaires (ADNc) sont synthétisés à partir des ARN totaux grâce à une Reverse Transcriptase en utilisant de l'ARN comme matrice. La Reverse Transcription (RT-PCR) est effectuée à l'aide du Kit « Superscript[®]TM IV » (Thermo Fischer Scientific), dans un thermocycleur « Gene AMP PCR System 2400 » (Perkin Elmer) en suivant les indications du fabricant (voir **Annexe E.5**).

C. Quantitative Polymerase Chain Reaction (qPCR)

La PCR quantitative (qPCR) ou PCR en temps réel est une réaction de PCR classique visant à amplifier une matrice d'ADN (simple ou double brin) afin de quantifier par fluorescence la formation du produit de PCR. Dans notre étude, elle nous a permis de déterminer de façon indirecte l'effet des traitements testés (NP chargées et NP vides après stimulation des A549 par LPS) sur l'expression de gènes cibles codant pour différents

cytokines et médiateurs inflammatoires à savoir : l'interleukine (IL1 β), le facteur de nécrose tumorale alpha (TNF α) et le facteur de stimulation des colonies de granulocytes-macrophages (GM-CSF). La qPCR est réalisée à l'aide du kit « TaqMan® Fast Advanced Master Mix » (Thermo Fischer Scientific), dans un thermocycleur en suivant les instructions du fabricant (voir **Annexe E.6**). Le TBP est utilisé comme gène de normalisation. Les amorces Taqman utilisés sont : hTBP (Hs99999910_m1), hCSF2 (Hs00929873_m1), hTNF α (Hs00174128_m1) et hIL1 β (Hs 01555410_m1)

E. Extrapolation des résultats de qPCR

Les courbes d'amplification obtenues sont analysées avec le logiciel « AriaMx » (Agilent) afin de déterminer le cycle seuil (Threshold Cycle, Ct) de chaque gène. Le Ct correspond au nombre de cycles de qPCR nécessaires pour que l'ADN amplifié soit détectable. Chaque résultat de Ct représente la moyenne des Ct issus de trois répétitions. La méthode développée par Livak et Schmittgen [286] est utilisée dans le but d'évaluer l'expression relative de notre gène par rapport au gène de normalisation en appliquant l'équation suivante :

$$\text{Quantité initiale du gène} = 2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct} \quad (3.3)$$

Avec : $\Delta Ct = Ct \text{ gène cible} - Ct \text{ gène de référence}$,

$$\Delta\Delta Ct = (\Delta Ct) \text{ condition expérimentale} - (\Delta Ct) \text{ condition contrôle.}$$

3.2.7. Etude quantitative des métalloprotéases

La zymographie de gélatine décrite en 1980 par Heussen, C. et Dowdle, E.B [287] est utilisée pour quantifier les métalloprotéases (MMP) secrétées par les cellules traitées. C'est une technique électrophorétique simple, extrêmement sensible, utilisée pour quantifier les gélatinases, autrement dits métalloprotéases (MMP-2 et MMP-9) dans les échantillons en se basant sur leur poids moléculaire (kDa) ainsi que la dégradation de leur substrat préférentiel (la gélatine). Le principe de cette méthode porte sur la digestion de la gélatine incorporée dans un gel de polyacrylamide par des gélatinases migrant à travers le gel. Après coloration, les zones de digestion forment des bandes claires sur un fond sombre où la gélatine est dégradée par MMP. Le protocole suivi pour déterminer les MMP libérées par les A549 est illustré dans la **Figure 3.8** et il consiste à :

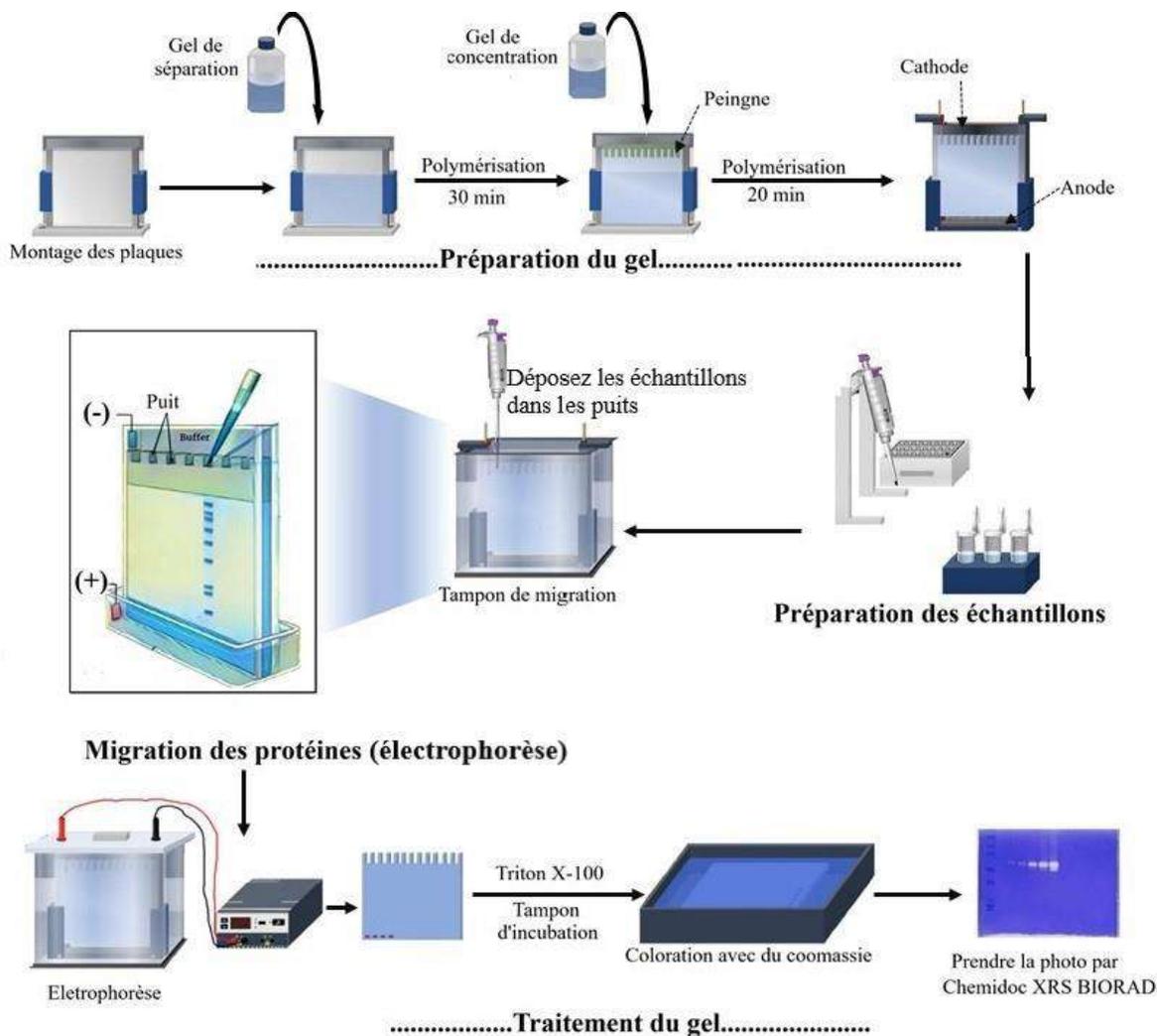


Figure 3.8. Protocole de la zymographie de gélatine.

A. Préparation des gels

- Faire le montage des plaques en verres.
- Préparer la solution de séparation à 10% d'acrylamide et la déposer entre les plaques.
- Déposer 150 μ l d'isopropanol pour niveler le gel.
- Laisser polymériser environ 30 min.
- Préparer la solution de concentration à 4% d'acrylamide et la déposer en-dessus du gel de séparation.
- Placer les peignes et laisser polymériser environ 20 min. La composition des deux gels ainsi que le protocole de préparation des différentes solutions et tampons

utilisés est inséré en **Annexe E.7.**

- Après solidification, retirer les peignes et laver les puits avec de l'eau distillée.

B. Préparation des échantillons

- Pipeter 5µl des surnageants décongelés issus de différents traitements cellulaires.
- Ajouter 7µl PBS+, 3µl Tampon de charge 5X et une goutte du bleu laemmlli 5X.

C. Traitement des gels par électrophorèse

- Pour faire séparer les protéines, le gel est soumis à une électrophorèse à 4°C et à 10 mA jusqu'à ce que les protéines s'alignent au début du gel de séparation. Puis la migration se fait à 20 mA.
- Décoller le gel des plaques à la fin de la migration et retirer le gel de concentration.

D. Traitement du gel

- Laver le gel dans du triton X-100 (2 %) sous agitation pendant environ 30min à température ambiante.
- Laisser le gel dans le tampon d'incubation à 37 °C pendant 24 h.
- Mettre le gel dans le tampon de coloration pendant 10 min sous agitation sous la sorbonne puis dans le tampon de décoloration pendant environ 2h.

Prendre la photo du gel à l'aide du ChemidocXRS BIORAD. Les activités enzymatiques sont détectées sous forme de bandes claires de lyse de la gélatine sur un fond bleu. Une analyse densitométrique des différentes bandes est effectuée à l'aide du logiciel Image J pour quantifier l'activité enzymatique.

3.3. Activité antioxydante

L'étude de l'activité antioxydante de l'HV des noyaux de dattes sous sa forme libre et encapsulée est effectuée *in vitro* en se basant sur des réactions colorimétriques quantitatives à l'aide d'un lecteur de microplaques (PerkinElmer Multimode Plate Reader EnSpire) au niveau du centre national de recherche biotechnologique (CRBt), Constantine, Algérie.

Il n'existe pas de méthode universelle par laquelle le profil antioxydant des échantillons est déterminé quantitativement d'une manière bien précise vue la complexité du processus d'oxydation et la nature diversifiée des antioxydants. De ce fait, diverses méthodes et outils analytiques sont développées pour l'évaluation de l'activité antiradicalaire [288].

est mesurée graphiquement à partir de la droite de régression du pourcentage d'inhibition en fonction de la concentration et comparée à celle du BHA.

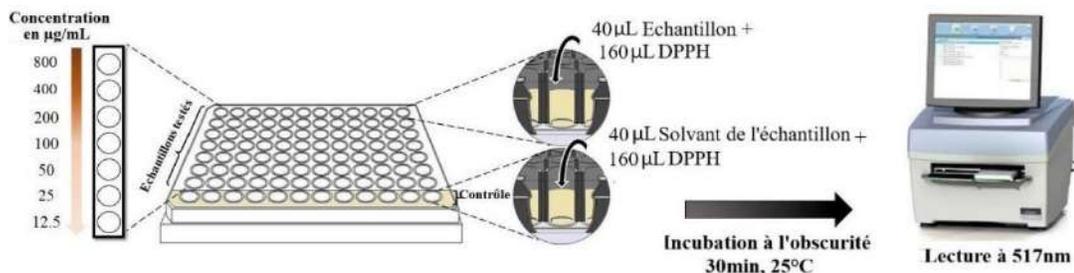


Figure 3.10. Protocole suivi pour l'étude de l'activité antioxydante "DPPH".

3.3.2. Méthode de l'ABTS (2,2'-azinobis-(3-éthylbenzothiazoline-6-sulfonique))

A. Principe

Le profil antioxydant d'une molécule est déduit de sa capacité à réduire le radical ABTS^{•+} (un radical de couleur bleu, formé de la réaction d'ABTS (sel d'ammonium de l'acide 2,2'-azinobis-(3-éthylbenzothiazoline-6-sulfonique)) avec le persulfate de potassium). La réduction de l'ABTS^{•+}, par transfert de proton, conduit à la décoloration de la solution et l'absorbance sera alors mesurée par spectrométrie à 734nm [291]. La **Figure 3.11** montre le principe de cette méthode.

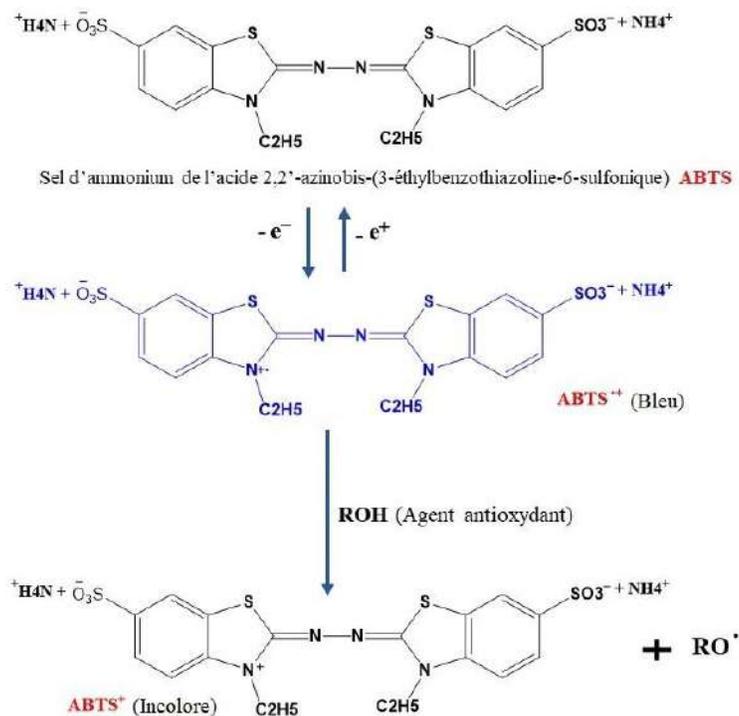


Figure 3.11. Formation et piégeage de l'ABTS^{•+} en présence d'un agent antiradicalaire.

B. Protocole

L'activité de piégeage de l'ABTS^{•+} est évaluée selon le protocole précédemment décrit par Re et al.[292], avec de légères modifications, comme indiqué dans la **Figure 3.12**. Dans une microplaque à 96 puits, 40 µl de la solution échantillon à différentes concentrations sont ajoutées à 160 µl de solution d'ABTS^{•+}. L'absorbance est lue à 734 nm et la capacité de piégeage de l'ABTS^{•+} est déterminée par rapport au blanc en appliquant l'équation 3.5.

$$ABTS \text{ Inhibition}\% = \frac{A_{\text{blanc}} - A_{\text{échantillon}}}{A_{\text{blanc}}} \times 100 \quad (3.5)$$

Où A_{blanc} : l'absorbance du blanc ; $A_{\text{échantillon}}$: l'absorbance de l'échantillon. La CI_{50} de différentes solutions testées est mesurée et comparée à celle du BHA.

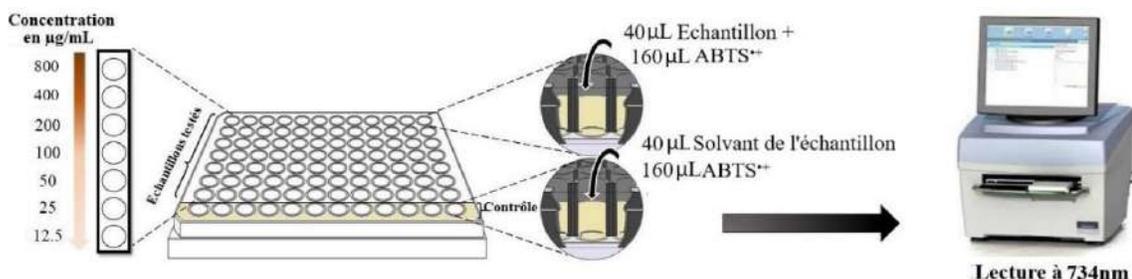


Figure 3.12. Protocole suivi pour l'étude de l'activité antioxydante "ABTS".

3.3.3. Méthode de CUPRAC (Cupric ion Reducing Antioxidant Capacity)

A. Principe

La méthode CUPRAC (Cupric ion Reducing Antioxidant Capacity) consiste à déterminer le pouvoir antioxydant par réduction du cuivre. Le principe de cette méthode porte sur le fait qu'en présence d'un agent antiradicalaire, le complexe cuivre (Cu^{2+})-néocuproïne est réduit en gagnant un électron [293], comme le montre la **Figure 3.13**. La conversion du Cu^{2+} en Cu^{+1} est suivie par spectrophotométrie à une longueur d'onde de 450 nm.

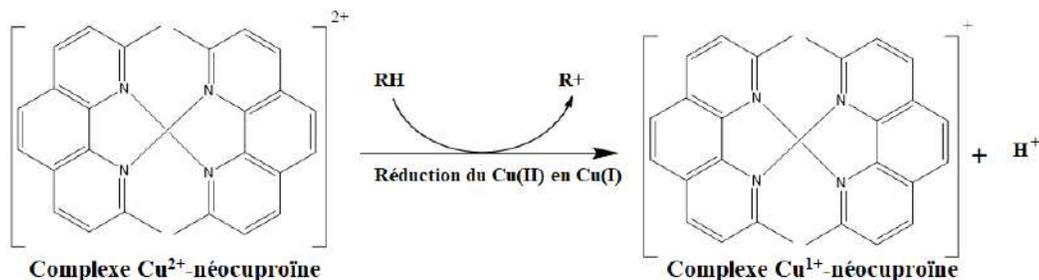


Figure 3.13. Principe de la méthode de CUPRAC (Réduction du complexe Cu^{2+} -néocuproïne).

B. Protocole

La capacité à réduire le cuivre est évaluée selon le protocole précédemment décrit par Apak et al. [294], comme illustré dans la **Figure 3.14**. Dans une microplaque à 96 puits, 40 μL de la solution échantillon à différentes concentrations sont ajoutées à 60 μL de la solution d'acétate d'ammonium (1M), 50 μL de néocuproïne (7.5mM) et 50 μL de chlorure de cuivre (10mM). L'absorbance est lue après 1h d'incubation à température ambiante à 450 nm. Le BHA est utilisé comme standard. L'activité antioxydante est évaluée à titre de A0.5 ($\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$) indiquant la concentration correspondant à 0.50 d'absorbance. Elle est déterminée graphiquement à partir de la droite de régression d'absorbance en fonction de la concentration pour chaque échantillon testé.

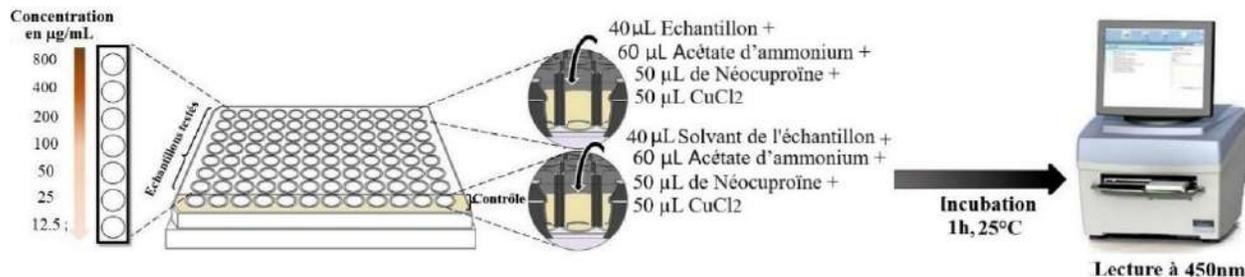
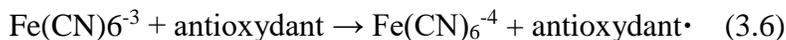


Figure 3.14. Protocole suivi pour l'étude de l'activité antioxydante "CUPRAC".

3.3.4. Pouvoir réducteur (Reducing power test)

A. Principe

La méthode Reducing power ou le pouvoir réducteur est décrite par Oyaizu en 1986. Elle est basée sur la capacité d'un antioxydant à réduire le fer ferrique (Fe^{3+}) présent dans le complexe ferricyanure de potassium ($\text{K}_3\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6$) en fer ferreux (Fe^{2+}) (Eq 3.6). L'addition du Fe^{3+} au produit réduit conduit à la formation du bleu de Prusse ($\text{Fe}[\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6]$) (Eq 3.7), qui a une forte absorbance à 700nm [288]. Cette réaction est révélée par le virage de la coloration du jaune au bleu-vert.



B. Procédure

Dans une microplaque à 96 puits, mélanger 10 μL de l'échantillon à différentes concentrations avec 40 μL du tampon phosphate à pH 6.6 et 50 μL de ferricyanure de potassium à 1%. Après incubation pendant 20 min à 50°C, 50 μL d'acide trichloracétique à 10% sont ajoutés pour

arrêter la réaction. La lecture de l'absorbance se fait à 700nm après addition de 40 μ l d'eau distillée et 10 μ l de chlorure du fer à 0.1%, comme illustré dans la **Figure 3.15**. L'activité antioxydante est évaluée à titre de A0.5 et comparée à celle du BHA.

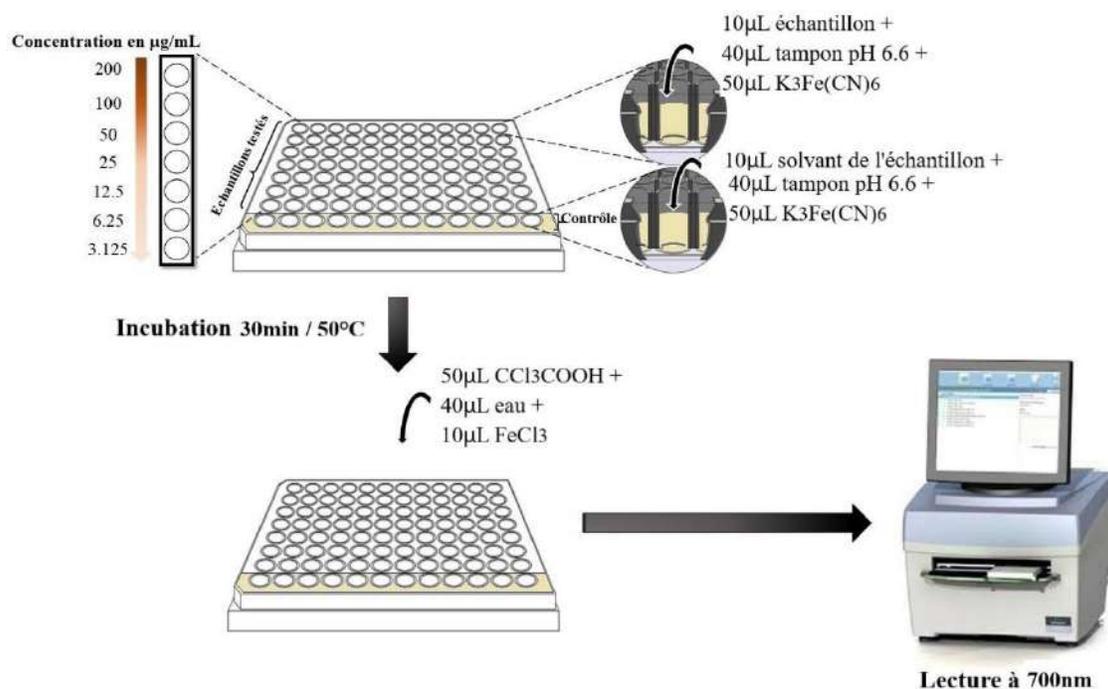


Figure 3.15. Protocole suivi pour l'étude de l'activité antioxydante "pouvoir réducteur".

3.4. Activité enzymatique

L'étude de l'activité enzymatique de l'huile des noyaux de dattes et celle du costus sous leurs formes libres et encapsulées est effectuée *in vitro* en se basant sur des réactions colorimétriques quantitatives à l'aide d'un lecteur de microplaques (PerkinElmer Multimode Plate Reader EnSpire) au niveau du centre national de recherche biotechnologique (CRBt), Constantine, Algérie.

L'activité enzymatique est évaluée à titre de CI50 (μ g/ml) indiquant la concentration correspondant à une inhibition de 50% d'enzyme. Elle est déterminée graphiquement à partir de la droite de régression de pourcentage d'inhibition d'enzyme en fonction de la concentration pour chaque échantillon testé et comparée à celle des standards. Le protocole de la préparation des réactifs et des enzymes est inséré en **Annexe G**.

3.4.1. Activité anti-Alzheimer

A. Principe

Le principe de cette méthode est basé sur la capacité des enzymes : l'acétylcholinestérase et la butyrylcholinestérase à hydrolyser en thiocholine l'acétylthiocholine et la butyrylthiocholine, respectivement (**Fig.3.16**). La thiocholine réagit avec l'acide 5,5'-dithiobis (2-nitrobenzoïque) et génère un chromophore jaune qui peut être quantifié à 412 nm.

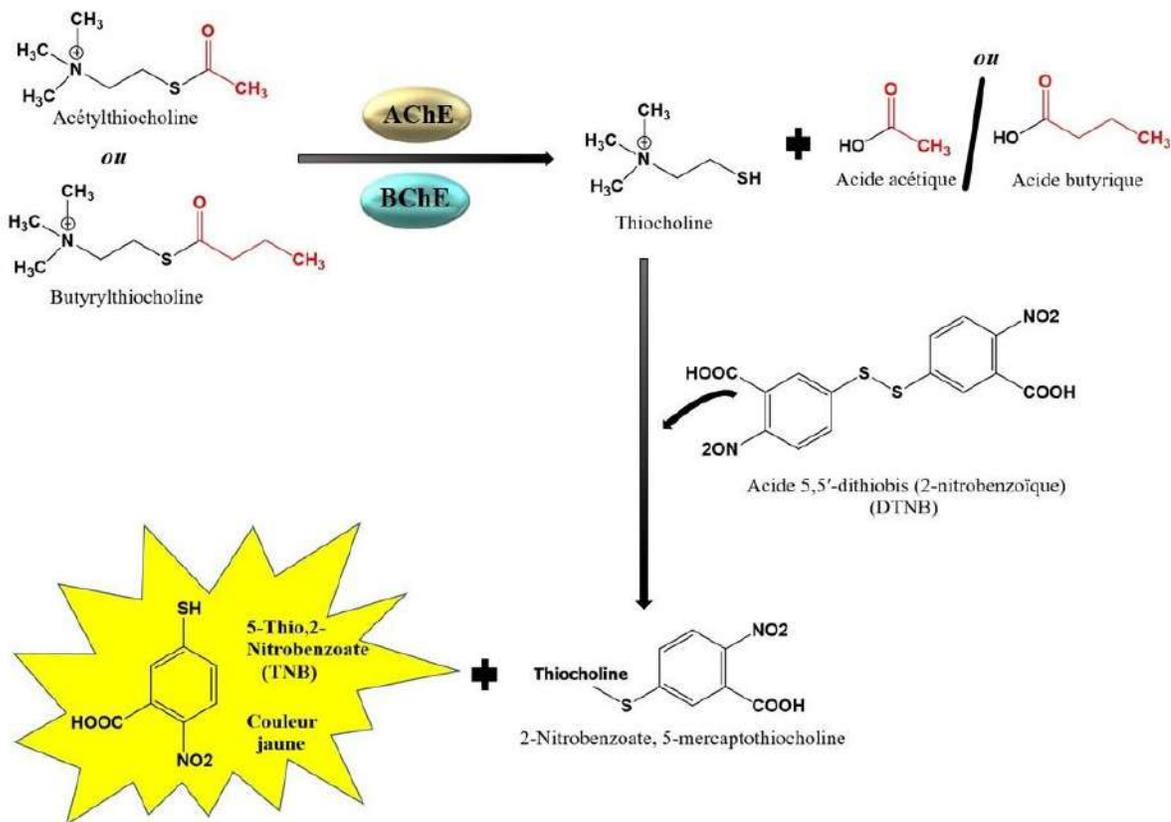


Figure 3.16. Mécanisme d'action de l'acétylcholinestérase et de la butyrylcholinestérase.

B. Protocole

L'activité anti-Alzheimer de l'huile des noyaux de dattes et celle du costus sous leur formes libre et encapsulée est évaluée *in vitro* contre l'acétylcholinestérase et la butyrylcholinestérase selon la méthode précédemment décrite par Ellman et al. [295]. Le protocole suivi est illustré dans la **Figure 3.17**. Dans une microplaque, 10 μ l de la solution échantillon à différentes concentrations sont mélangées et incubées pendant 15 min à 25°C avec 150 μ l de solution tampon (pH 8) et 20 μ l d'acétylcholinestérase ou de

butyrylcholinestérase. Ensuite, 10 µl de l'acide 5,5'-dithiobis (2-nitrobenzoïque) sont ajoutés avec 10 µl d'acétylthiocholine ou de butyrylthiocholine. L'absorbance est lue à 412 nm et le pourcentage d'inhibition de l'acétylcholinestérase et de la butyrylcholinestérase est déterminé par rapport au blanc en appliquant l'équation 3.8.

$$\% \text{ Inhibition} = \frac{A_{\text{blanc}} - A_{\text{échantillon}}}{A_{\text{blanc}}} \times 100 \quad (3.8)$$

Où A_{blanc} : l'absorbance du blanc ; $A_{\text{échantillon}}$: l'absorbance de l'échantillon. La galantamine est utilisée comme référence.

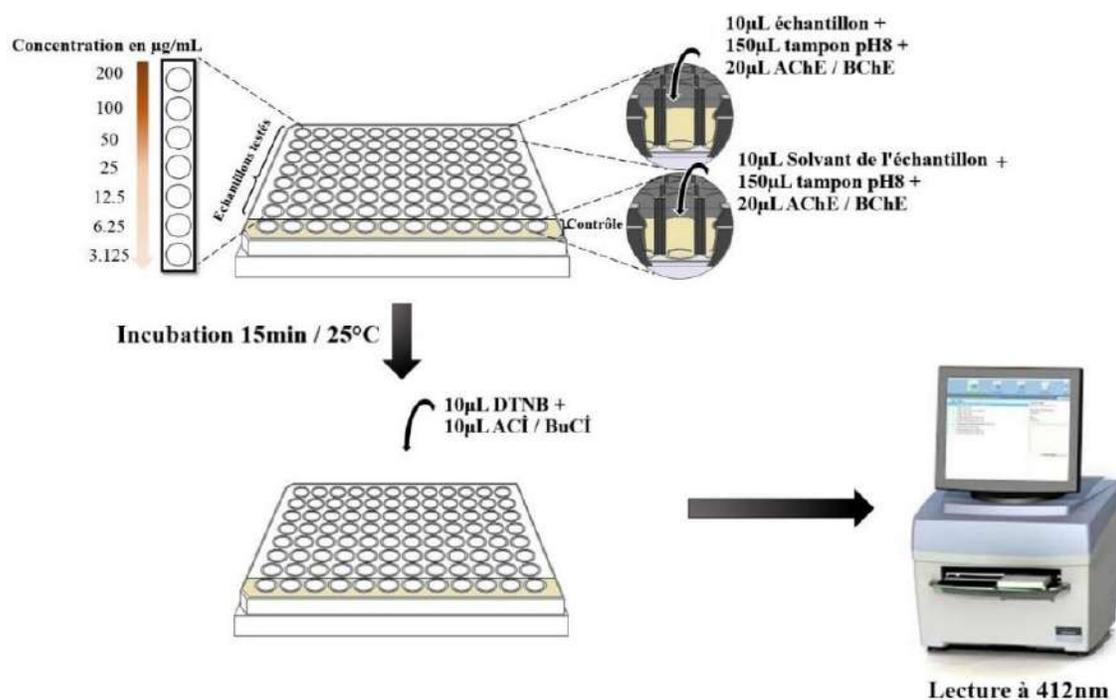


Figure 3.17. Protocole suivi pour l'étude de l'activité anti-Alzheimer.

3.4.2. Activité antidiabétique

A. Principe

L' α -amylase pancréatique hydrolyse les amidons complexes en oligosaccharides dans l'intestin grêle, qui seront hydrolysés par la suite avec d'autres oligosaccharides, trisaccharides et disaccharides par l' α -glucosidase intestinale en glucose et autres monosaccharides d'où un taux élevé est un signe du diabète sucré [296](**Fig.3.18**). Le principe de la méthode adoptée pour étudier l'activité antidiabétique porte sur la capacité de

l' α -amylase et l' α -glucosidase à hydrolyser l'amidon et le 4-nitrophényl α -D-glucopyranoside, respectivement.

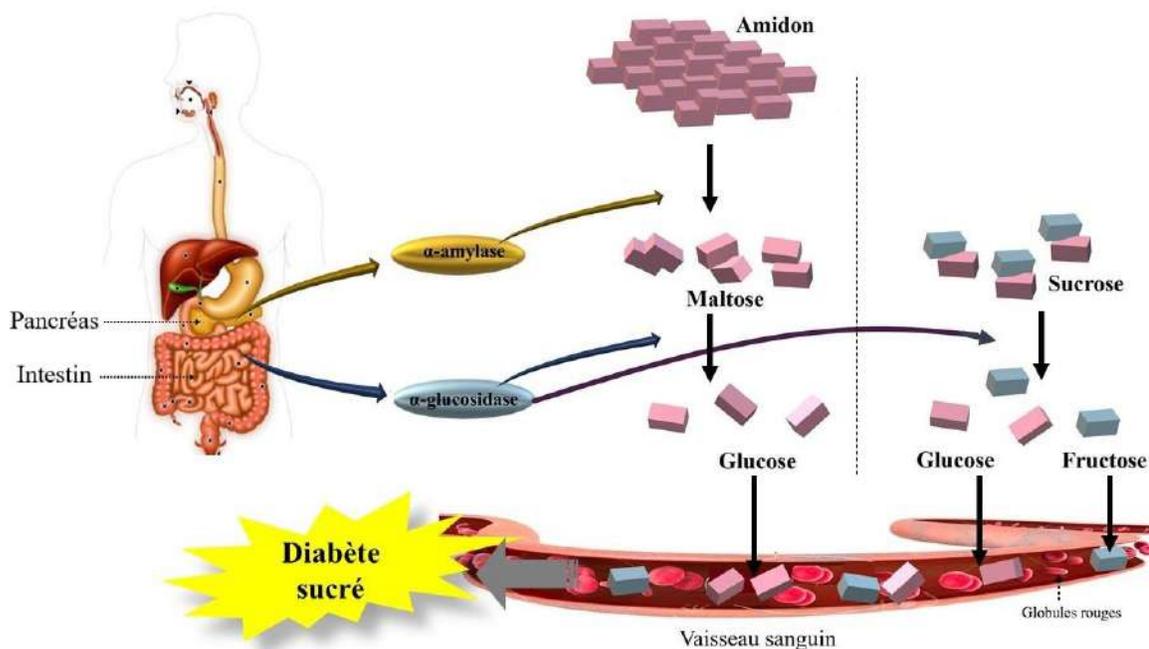


Figure 3.18. Mécanisme d'action de l' α -amylase et de l' α -glucosidase.

B. Protocole de l'activité anti-amylase

L'activité inhibitrice de l'alpha-amylase est réalisée par la méthode Caraway-Somogyi (Iodure de potassium-Iode (IKI))[297]. Dans une microplaque, 25 μ l de la solution échantillon à différentes concentrations sont mélangées avec une solution d' α -amylase (50 μ l). Après incubation à 37°C pendant 10min, la réaction est démarrée en ajoutant 50 μ l de la solution d'amidon. La plaque sera à nouveau incubée pendant 10 min à 37°C et analysée par un lecteur de microplaques à 630 nm après l'ajout de 25 μ l d'HCl et 100 μ l de la solution d'IKI. La **Figure 3.19** illustre la répartition de différentes solutions dans la microplaque utilisée. L'inhibition de l'activité α -amylase est calculée en appliquant l'équation 3.9 et comparée à celle d'un médicament standard : Acarbose.

$$\text{Inhibition (\%)} = \left(1 - \frac{(A_c - A_e)(A_s - A_b)}{(A_c - A_e)}\right) \times 100 \quad (3.9)$$

Avec : A_e : Absorbance [Amidon+IKI+HCl+Volume de solvant d'échantillon +Volume tampon Enzyme] ;

A_e : Absorbance [Enzyme+Amidon+IKI+HCL+ Volume de solvant d'extrait] ;

A_s : Absorbance [Enzyme+Extrait+Amidon+IKI+HCl] ;

A_b : Absorbance [Extrait+IKI+125µl de tampon].

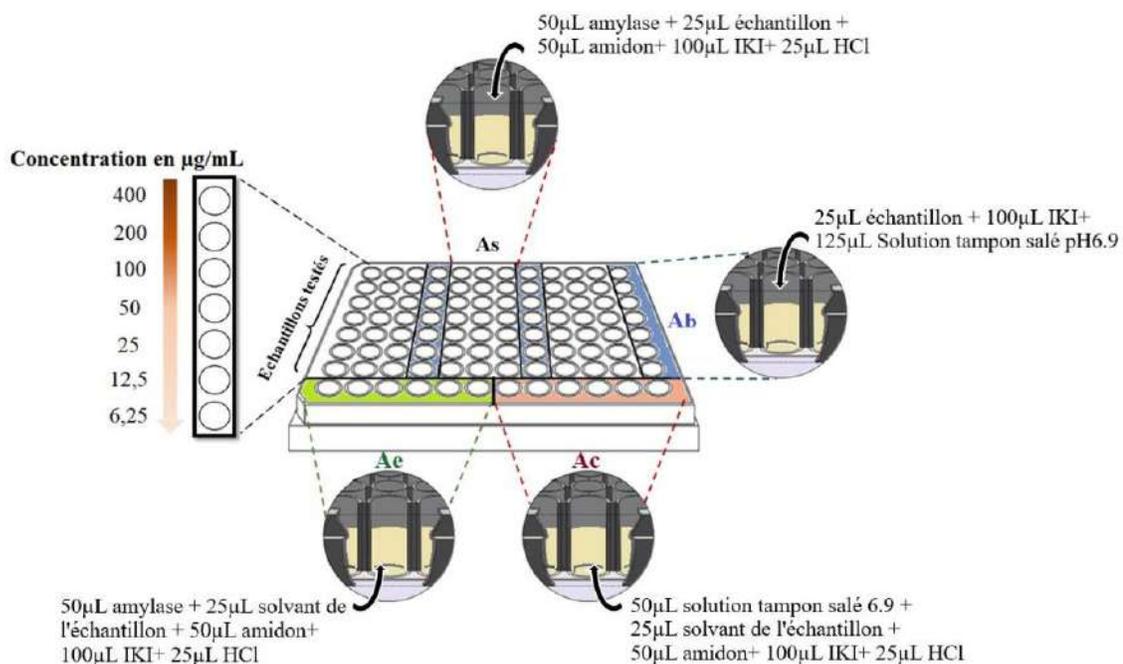


Figure 3.19. Schéma de la plaque utilisée pour l'étude de l'activité inhibitrice d'α-amylase.

c. Protocole de l'activité anti-glucosidase

L'activité inhibitrice de l'α-glucosidase est réalisée en appliquant la méthode décrite précédemment par Vadivelan et al. avec quelques modifications [298]. Cinquante microlitres de la solution échantillon à différentes concentrations sont pré-incubées avec 100 µl de la solution d'enzyme à 37°C pendant 15 min ; puis 50 µl de la solution de p-nitrophényl α-D glucopyranoside sont ajoutées au mélange, comme illustré dans la **Figure 3.20**. L'absorbance est lue à 405 nm après incubation à 37°C pendant 5 min. Le pourcentage d'inhibition de l'α-glucosidase est calculé selon l'équation 3.8. L'acarbose est utilisé comme référence.

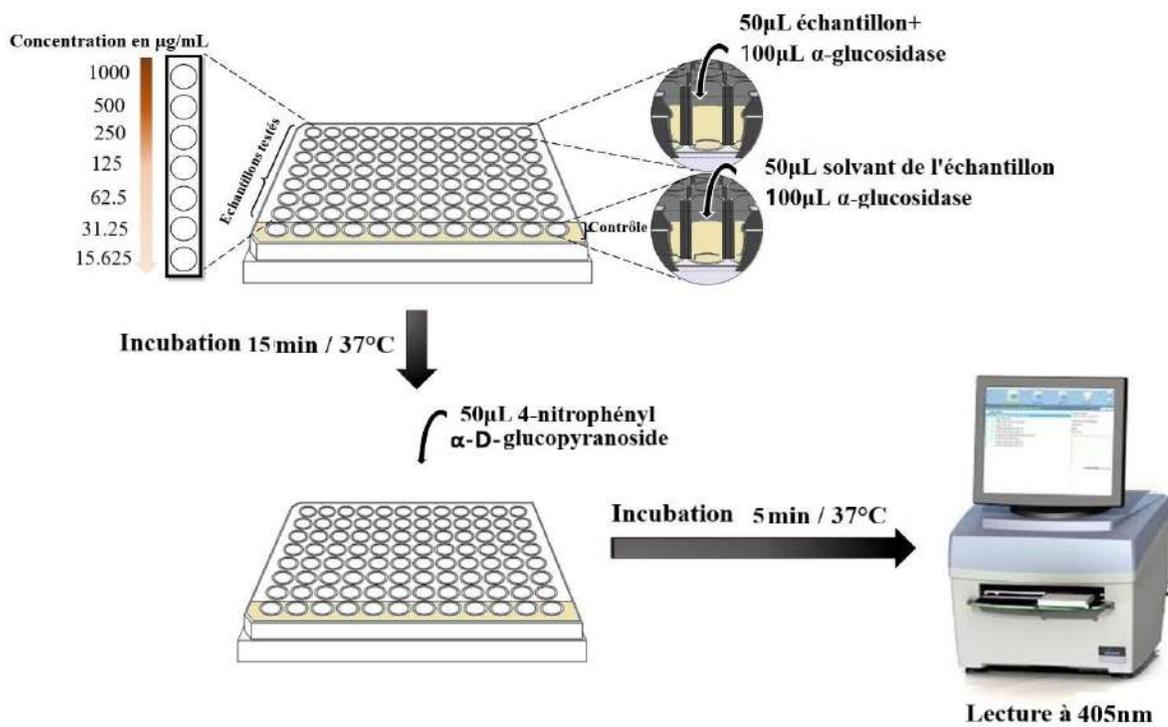


Figure 3.20. Protocole suivi pour l'étude de l'activité anti-glucosidase.

CHAPITRE IV

RESULTATS ET DISCUSSION

CHAPITRE IV

RÉSULTATS ET DISCUSSION

4.1. Introduction

Dans le présent chapitre, tous les résultats obtenus avec leurs discussions sont exposés en suivant la méthodologie du chapitre III.

- La première partie comporte les résultats de l'analyse par GC-MS des deux extraits ;
- La deuxième partie illustre les résultats de l'étude paramétrique de la nanoprecipitation ainsi que la caractérisation des nanoparticules vides ;
- La troisième partie est consacrée aux résultats de la caractérisation des nanoparticules chargées d'huile ;
- Et enfin la dernière partie concerne les résultats des activités biologiques à savoir : antioxydante, anti-inflammatoire, anti-Alzheimer et antidiabétique.

4.2. Résultats de l'analyse des huiles

4.2.1. Analyse de l'huile des noyaux de dattes

L'huile végétale obtenue par fluide supercritique est un liquide visqueux ayant une couleur jaune clair (**Fig.4.1**).



Figure 4.1. Aspect de l'huile végétale des noyaux de dattes.

La composition en acides gras de l'HV obtenue est récapitulée dans le **Tableau 4.1**. Un total de 18 composants a été identifié, représentant 98.769 % du poids total d'huile dont 58.027% sont des acides gras insaturés et 40.742% correspondent aux acides gras saturés. Il est également remarqué que l'acide oléique est le composé majoritaire avec 47.737% du poids total, suivi de l'acide laurique (15.17%), l'acide palmitique (10.45%), l'acide myristique (10.155%) et l'acide linoléique (8.768%). Ces résultats sont en accords avec ceux rapportés par différents travaux où il est constaté la prédominance de ces cinq acides gras, mais en quantités variables [75,81,88,94,98] (voir Chapitre I). D'autres composés apparaissent comme traces dans notre huile tels : l'acide arachidonique, l'acide linoléique, l'acide stéarique, l'acide caprique et l'acide caprylique.

Tableau 4.1. Composition chimique de l'huile végétale de noyaux de dattes déterminée par chromatographie en phase gazeuse.

No	Composant	Symbole	Formule	IR-WAX	Quantité (%)	
1	Acide caprylique	C8 : 0	C ₈ H ₁₆ O ₂	1404	0.215	
2	Acide caprique	C10 : 0	C ₁₀ H ₂₀ O ₂	1609	0.264	
3	Acide laurique	C12 : 0	C ₁₂ H ₂₄ O ₂	1817	15.17	
4	Acide tridécylique	C13 : 0	C ₁₃ H ₂₆ O ₂	1919	0.035	
5	Acide myristique	C14 : 0	C ₁₄ H ₂₈ O ₂	2024	10.155	
6	Acide pentadécylique	C15 : 0	C ₁₅ H ₃₀ O ₂	2126	0.072	
7	Acide palmitique	C16 : 0	C ₁₆ H ₃₂ O ₂	2233	10.45	
8	Acide palmitoléique	C16 : 1	C ₁₆ H ₃₀ O ₂	2261	0.100	
9	Acide margarique	C17 : 0	C ₁₇ H ₃₄ O ₂	2335	0.082	
10	Acide stéarique	C18 : 0	C ₁₈ H ₃₆ O ₂	2440	3.608	
11	Acide oléique	C18 : 1	C ₁₈ H ₃₄ O ₂	2468	47.737	
12	Acide linoléique	C18 : 2	C ₁₈ H ₃₂ O ₂	2515	8.768	
13	Acide linoléique	C18 : 3	C ₁₈ H ₃₀ O ₂	2583	0.361	
14	Acide gadoléique	C20 : 1	C ₂₀ H ₃₂ O ₂	2645	0.528	
15	Acide arachidonique	C20 : 4	C ₂₀ H ₃₈ O ₂	2670	0.533	
16	Acide hénéicosylique	C21 : 0	C ₂₁ H ₄₂ O ₂	2748	0.03	
17	Acide béhénique	C22 : 0	C ₂₂ H ₄₄ O ₂	2851	0.382	
18	Acide lignocérique	C24 : 0	C ₂₄ H ₄₈ O ₂	>3000	0.279	
					Acides gras insaturés	58.027
					Acides gras saturés	40.742
					Total	98.769

4.2.2. Analyse de l'huile de costus

L'HE obtenue est peu visqueuse avec une couleur jaune brunâtre, une odeur très forte et une saveur piquante (**Fig.4.2**).



Figure 4.2. Aspect de l'huile essentielle du costus.

Deux méthodes complémentaires sont utilisées (GC-FID et GC-MS) pour mieux connaître la composition de l'HE. De ce fait, deux types de colonnes capillaires sont utilisés (HP-Innowax et HP-1) afin d'obtenir des informations satisfaisantes sur la composition de l'HE et éviter la co-élution de certains constituants. Les pourcentages relatifs des composants de l'huile sont représentés dans le **Tableau 4.2**. Un total de 21 composants est identifié, représentant 82.75% du poids total. Les principaux constituants de l'essence sont le dehydrocostus lactone comme composé majoritaire (55.39%), suivi du costunolide (8.87%), dehydrosaussurea lactone (6.55%) et de l'aplotaxène (4.73%). Les sesquiterpènes oxygénés représentent 75.92% de l'ensemble des constituants, tandis que 8 des 21 constituants sont des hydrocarbures sesquiterpènes, correspondant à 5.94% de l'HE brute. La composition chimique de l'HE est en accord avec celle rapportée dans des travaux précédents [136,139,143]. Chen et al. ont constaté que les huiles extraites des racines de costus provenant de sept provinces contiennent toutes les deux principaux composants, le dehydrocostus lactone et le costunolide à des teneurs allant de 16.30 à 25.36% et de 4.28 à 8.32%, respectivement [143]. La variation de la composition de l'extrait peut être attribuée à des facteurs climatiques et saisonniers, au moment de la récolte ainsi qu'à la durée de stockage de la plante.

D'autres composés présentant un intérêt médicinal sont présents à l'état de traces dans notre huile comme le β -eudesmol, l'oxyde de caryophyllène, le β -ionone et l' α -humulène (Tableau 4.2).

Tableau 4.2. Composition chimique de l'huile essentielle du costus déterminée par chromatographie en phase gazeuse couplée à la spectrométrie de masse.

No	Composant	Formule	IR-HP-1	IR-WAX	Quantité (%)
1	Béta elemène	C ₁₅ H ₂₄	1388	1808	0.288
2	Dihydroionone	C ₁₃ H ₂₂ O	1396	-	0.088
3	Alpha ionone	C ₁₃ H ₂₀ O	1406	1876	0.147
4	Trans Béta Caryophyllène	C ₁₅ H ₂₄	1419	1628	0.288
5	Néryyl acétone	C ₁₃ H ₂₂ O	1428	-	0.029
6	Alpha humulène	C ₁₅ H ₂₄	1452	1704	0.033
7	Béta ionone	C ₁₃ H ₂₀ O	1464	1946	0.093
8	Alpha+Gamma curcumène	C ₁₅ H ₂₂ /C ₁₅ H ₂₄	1471	1801/1719	0.06
9	Pentadécène-1	C ₁₅ H ₃₀	1474	1539	0.06
10	Béta sélinène	C ₁₅ H ₂₄	1482	1750	0.308
11	Alpha sélinène	C ₁₅ H ₂₄	1493	1758	0.17
12	Alpha élémol	C ₁₅ H ₂₆ O	1534	2108	0.085
13	Eléma- 1,3,11(13)-Trién-12-al	C ₁₅ H ₂₂ O	1555	-	0.206
14	Oxyde Caryophyllène	C ₁₅ H ₂₄ O	1570	2024	0.291
15	Béta Eudesmol	C ₁₅ H ₂₆ O	1636	2268	1.256
16	Aplotaxène	C ₁₇ H ₂₈	1660	2623	4.734
17	Béta costol	C ₁₅ H ₂₄ O	1748	2532	1.865
18	Alpha costol	C ₁₅ H ₂₄ O	1754	2607	1.034
19	Dehydrosaussurea lactone	C ₁₅ H ₂₀ O ₂	1861	-	6.556
20	Costunolide	C ₁₅ H ₂₀ O ₂	1891	-	8.874
21	Dehydrocostus lactone	C ₁₅ H ₁₈ O ₂	1962	-	55.399
22	Inconnu	-	2118	-	0.446
23	Inconnu	-	2146	-	0.44
Total					82.75

Sesquiterpènes hydrocarbonés : 5.94% ; Sesquiterpènes oxygénés : 75.92% ; Inconnu : 0.89.

4.3. Résultats de l'étude paramétrique de la nanopréciptation

Dans le but d'optimiser les NP à base de PMMA, une série d'expériences sur les variables liées au processus de la nanopréciptation est menée afin de montrer leur impact sur les propriétés colloïdales des NP y compris, la taille des particules, l'indice de polydispersité

et le potentiel ζ . Le **Tableau 4.3** résume les résultats de l'analyse des NP vides préparées en faisant varier les quantités des ingrédients de la formulation et les conditions opératoires.

Tableau 4.3. Résultats du diamètre et du potentiel zêta pour les différentes formulations synthétisées. Les valeurs « en gras » indiquent les paramètres modifiés.

	Eudragit (mg/ml)	Rapport volumique			Vitesse d'agitation (rpm)	Diamètre (nm)	Potentiel ζ (mV)
		Acétone	Ethanol	Méthanol			
F1	16	1/3	-	-	500	59 ± 1	44 ± 2
F2	16	2/5	-	-	500	52 ± 1	50 ± 2
F3	16	1/2	-	-	500	50 ± 1	51 ± 4
F4	16	2/3	-	-	500	49 ± 2	53 ± 3
F5	16	1/1	-	-	500	49 ± 1	48 ± 2
F6	16	-	1/3	-	500	49 ± 3	39 ± 2
F7	16	-	2/5	-	500	47 ± 1	39 ± 3
F8	16	-	1/2	-	500	45 ± 2	39 ± 2
F9	16	-	2/3	-	500	51 ± 1	38 ± 2
F10	16	-	1/1	-	500	54 ± 4	43 ± 2
F11	16	-	-	1/3	500	48 ± 3	71 ± 3
F12	16	-	-	2/5	500	46 ± 5	70 ± 2
F13	16	-	-	1/2	500	45 ± 1	64 ± 3
F14	16	-	-	2/3	500	50 ± 1	59 ± 4
F15	16	-	-	1/1	500	53 ± 2	51 ± 1
F16	28	1/2	-	-	500	51 ± 2	45 ± 2
F17	40	1/2	-	-	500	65 ± 3	53 ± 2
F18	52	1/2	-	-	500	78 ± 1	53 ± 1
F19	64	1/2	-	-	500	88 ± 4	54 ± 3
F20	28	-	1/2	-	500	44 ± 2	37 ± 2
F21	40	-	1/2	-	500	55 ± 1	45 ± 2
F22	52	-	1/2	-	500	59 ± 1	47 ± 1
F23	64	-	1/2	-	500	63 ± 1	45 ± 6
F24	28	-	-	1/2	500	45 ± 1	64 ± 3
F25	40	-	-	1/2	500	49 ± 4	63 ± 2
F26	52	-	-	1/2	500	53 ± 3	73 ± 3
F27	64	-	-	1/2	500	54 ± 1	72 ± 2
F28	16	1/2	-	-	300	61 ± 2	48 ± 3
F29	16	1/2	-	-	700	42 ± 1	49 ± 5
F30	16	-	1/2	-	300	56 ± 2	40 ± 2
F31	16	-	1/2	-	700	35 ± 1	41 ± 2
F32	16	-	-	1/2	300	54 ± 2	62 ± 3
F33	16	-	-	1/2	700	34 ± 2	66 ± 4

La concentration du polymère est définie par rapport au solvant organique.

4.3.1. Effet du rapport volumique solvant / non solvant et de la nature du solvant organique

Le rapport phase organique / phase aqueuse fait partie des paramètres les plus critiques pour la formation spontanée des NP par la méthode de la nanoprécipitation [299]. Pour évaluer cet effet, différents rapports (1/3, 2/5, 1/2, 2/3 et 1/1) du volume de solvant par rapport au volume de non-solvant (S/NS) sont réalisés en utilisant trois types de solvants : acétone, éthanol et méthanol, comme illustré dans le **Tableau 4.3**. La **Figure 4.3** montre la relation entre la taille des NP et le rapport S/NS pour les trois types de solvants utilisés après leur évaporation.

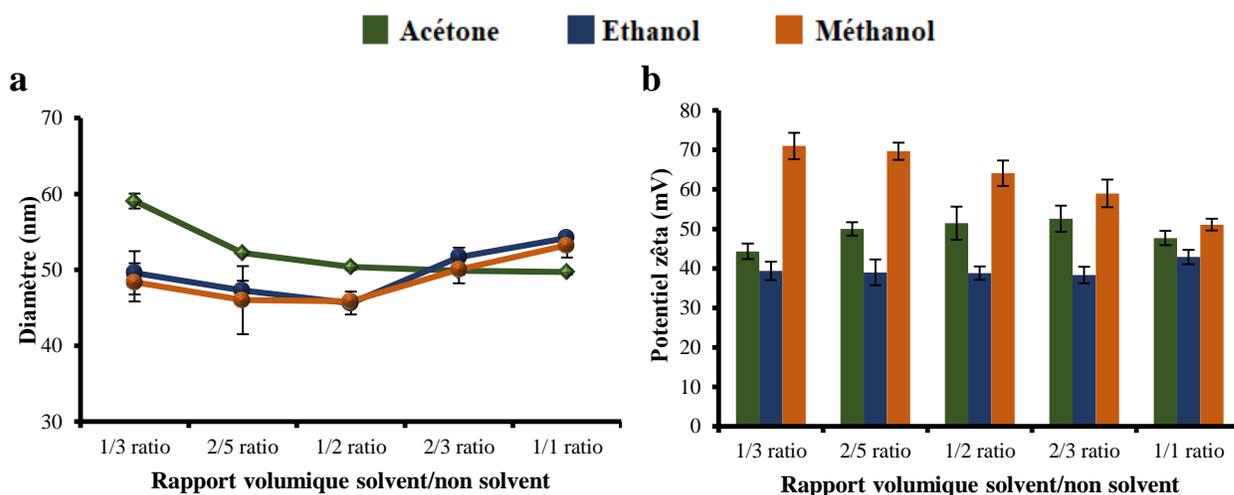


Figure 4.3. Effet du rapport volumique solvant/non solvant sur le diamètre (a) et le potentiel zêta (b) des nanoparticules.

Il est observé qu'avec une augmentation du rapport volumique acétone/eau de 1/3 à 1/1, il y a une diminution significative de la taille des particules de 59 ± 1 à 49 ± 1 nm (**Fi.4.3.a**). Une telle diminution de la taille en fonction du rapport volumique peut s'expliquer par la viscosité réduite de la phase organique, ce qui facilite la diffusion de l'acétone dans l'eau. Les résultats obtenus sont en accord avec ceux de Limayem et ses collaborateurs [300]. Dong et Feng ont constaté que l'augmentation du volume du solvant tout en préservant la même quantité du polymère conduit à une diminution de la viscosité de la phase organique, et donc la taille des particules [301].

La **Figure 4.3.a** montre également qu'en augmentant le rapport volumique de l'éthanol à l'eau de 1/3 à 1/2, une légère diminution de la taille des particules est observée de

49 ± 3 à 45 ± 2 nm. Cependant, à des rapports de volumes très élevés, il y a une augmentation de la taille des particules de 51 ± 1 à 54 ± 1 nm pour des rapports de volume de 2/3 et 1/1, respectivement. La même tendance s'est manifestée avec le méthanol. En augmentant le rapport du méthanol / eau de 1/3 à 1/2, la taille des NP diminue de 48 ± 3 nm à 45 ± 1 nm et des NP présentant des diamètres plus importants sont obtenues avec des rapports de volume élevés. Néanmoins, l'analyse statistique de ces résultats démontre que les changements de taille des particules n'étaient pas significatifs pour le méthanol et l'éthanol (la valeur p-ANNOVA était supérieure à 0.05). Ces résultats sont liés en se référant à des travaux antérieurs à la solubilité des solvants organiques dans l'eau [302]. En effet, il est constaté que la taille des particules change considérablement lors de l'utilisation de solvants partiellement solubles dans l'eau comme le cas de l'acétate d'éthyle et le carbonate de propylène. Alors qu'elle ne change pas d'une façon significative en utilisant un solvant entièrement miscible avec l'eau. Les valeurs diélectriques de l'acétone, l'éthanol et le méthanol sont respectivement 21.30 ± 0.02 , 25.02 ± 0.02 et 33.30 ± 0.02 [303]. Ainsi, l'éthanol et le méthanol sont plus miscibles avec l'eau par rapport l'acétone, ce qui traduit l'effet négligeable de ces deux solvant sur la taille des particules.

Pour une étude plus approfondie, la variation de la dispersion de taille est étudiée en fonction du rapport S/NS pour toutes les NP développées. La **Figure 4.4** illustre pour tous les solvants testés, une distribution granulométrique unimodale étroite pour un rapport volumique de 1/2. Concernant l'acétone, on constate une distribution de taille unimodale avec des rapports volumiques de 1/3, 2/5 et 1/2, et qui devient plus étroite pour le rapport 1/2. Tandis qu'une distribution bimodale est observée avec les rapports volumiques : 2/3 et 1/1. Ces résultats s'accordent avec ceux de Tarhini et al. qui ont suggéré lors du développement des NP à base de protéines par le biais de la nanoprécipitation que la distribution de taille est très large avec des rapports supérieurs à 1/2 [304]. Résultats aussi confirmés par Badri et al. [305].

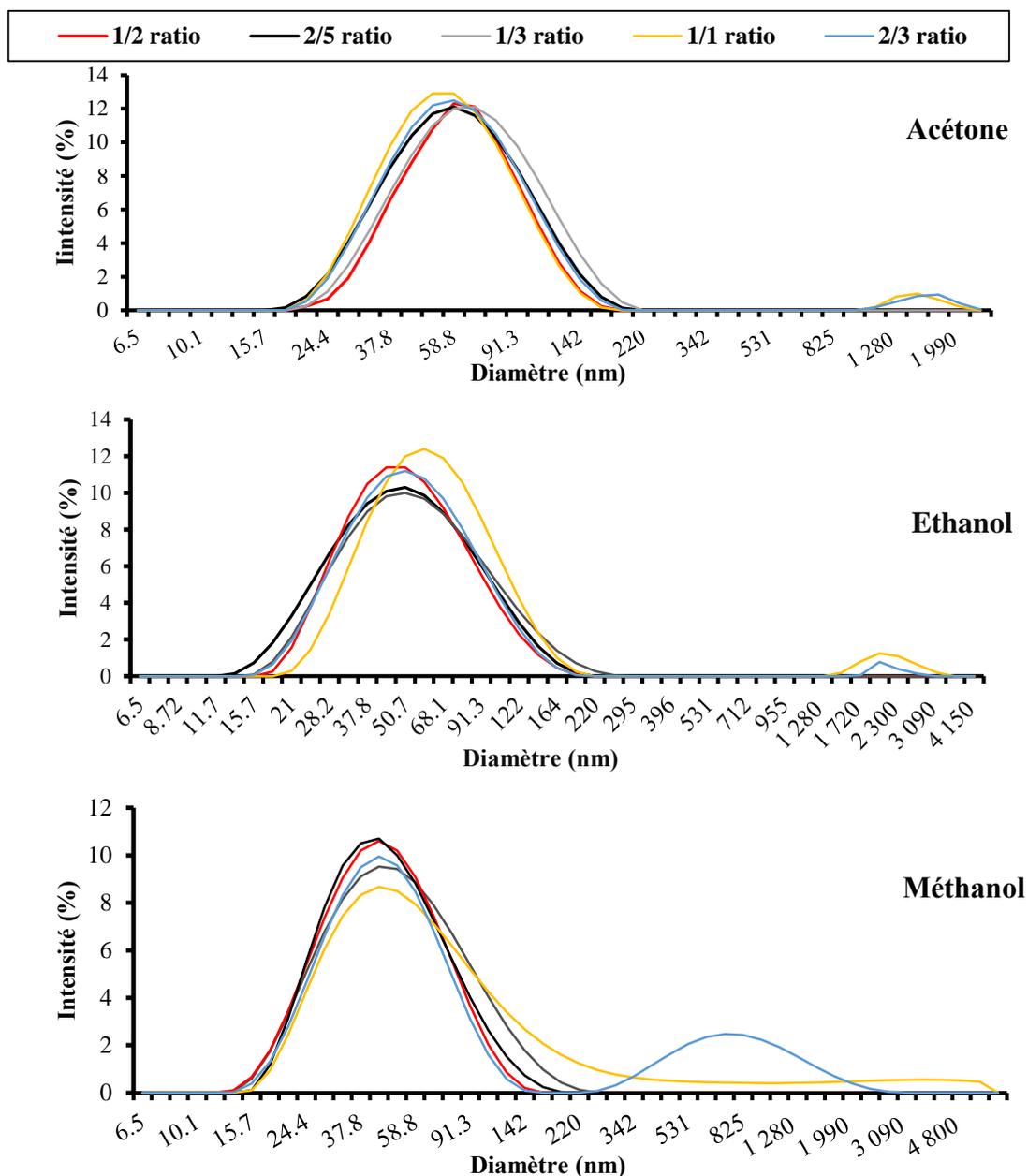


Figure 4.4. Distribution de taille des nanoparticules à base de PMMA à différents rapports volumiques solvant/non solvant (1/3, 2/5, 1/2, 2/3 et 1/1) pour l'acétone, l'éthanol et le méthanol.

Il est également observable que, pour l'éthanol, les NP ne présentent pas de distribution unimodale à des rapports supérieurs à 1/2 où un petit pic est apparu indiquant la présence d'agrégats (**Fig.4.4**). Le même résultat s'est reproduit avec le méthanol pour des rapports élevés (2/3 et 1/1) mais les pics d'agrégation dans ce cas sont plus larges. En effet, un pic de forme gaussienne non parfaite est observé pour le rapport volumique 1/1.

L'influence du rapport volumique S/NS sur le potentiel ζ est également étudiée et les résultats sont montrés dans la **Figure 4.3.b**. Toutes les NP ont un potentiel ζ positif à cause de la présence des groupements positifs quaternaires d'ammonium dans le PMMA comme décrit précédemment [43]. Concernant l'effet du rapport volumique sur le potentiel ζ , il n'est significatif que pour le méthanol. En augmentant le rapport S/NS, le potentiel ζ diminue et les NP deviennent moins stables. Ceci est en accord avec les résultats de la distribution de taille où les NP préparées avec du méthanol montrent l'aggrégation la plus élevée pour un rapport de 1/1. Dans le cas de l'acétone et de l'éthanol, l'effet du rapport volumique est insignifiant. Des résultats similaires rapportés par Badri et al. ont révélé l'effet négligeable du rapport volumique acétone / eau sur le potentiel ζ des NP de polycaprolactone préparées par la nanoprécipitation [41].

D'après tous ces résultats, un rapport volumique de 1/2 semble favoriser la formation de NP de petite taille avec une distribution unimodale étroite et un potentiel ζ élevé pour les trois solvants utilisés et sera retenu pour l'étude des autres facteurs.

4.3.2. Effet de la concentration en polymère

L'effet de la concentration en polymère sur la taille et le potentiel ζ des particules est évaluée pour les trois types de solvants et les résultats sont montrés sur la **Figure 4.5**.

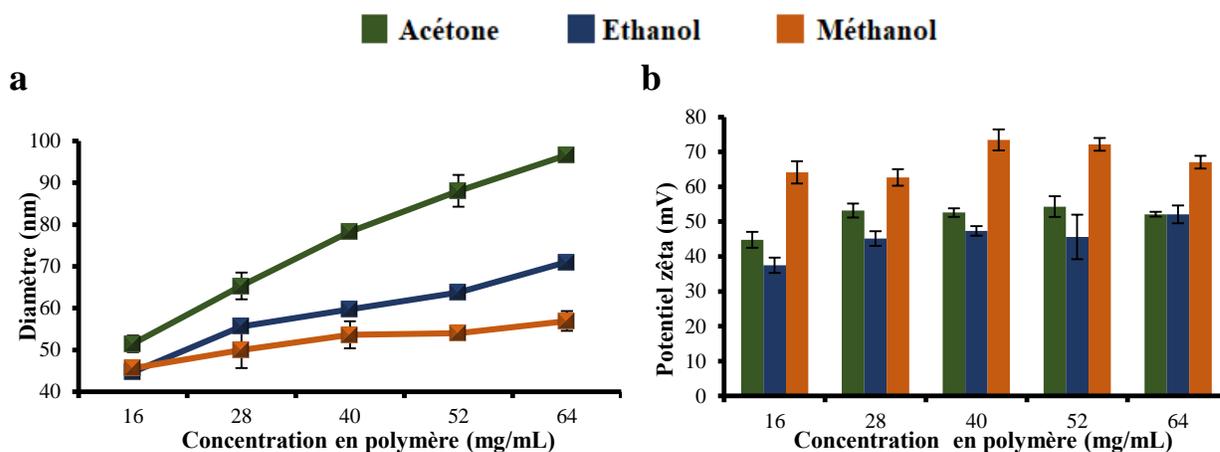


Figure 4.5. Effet de la concentration en polymère sur le diamètre (a) et le potentiel zêta (b) des nanoparticules.

Nous notons que la taille des particules est dépendante de la concentration en PMMA. La concentration et la taille des NP évoluent dans le même sens quel que soit le solvant

organique utilisé (**Fig.4.5**). Ce résultat est déjà mis en évidence par de nombreux travaux [301,302,306]. Badri et al. ont attribué l'augmentation de la taille des particules à l'augmentation de la viscosité de la phase organique qui réduit la diffusion de l'acétone vers la phase aqueuse [41].

Notre étude montre également que la taille des NP dépend du type de solvant organique. Les NP obtenues avec de l'acétone sont plus grandes que celles obtenues avec de l'éthanol ou du méthanol (**Fig.4.5.a**). En effet, d'après l'étude de Bilati et al. l'augmentation de la taille des particules est due à la constante diélectrique faible du solvant (ϵ) [307]. Ainsi, l'acétone, ayant une constante diélectrique inférieure à celles de l'éthanol et du méthanol [303], donne des NP plus grandes. Des résultats similaires sont aussi constatés [308]. L'affinité du solvant (X) pour le non solvant s'est avérée cruciale pour optimiser la taille finale des particules [305]; elle est calculée selon l'équation 4.1:

$$X = Vns*(\delta_s - \delta_{ns})^2 / RT \quad (4.1)$$

Où Vns est le volume molaire du solvant; δ_s et δ_{ns} sont les paramètres de solubilité Hildebrand du solvant et du non-solvant, respectivement; R est la constante des gaz et T est la température absolue [307]. Plus la valeur de X est élevée, plus l'affinité du solvant pour le non-solvant est faible, plus la vitesse de diffusion est lente et donc plus la taille des NP augmente [305]. Les paramètres de solubilité Hildebrand de l'acétone, l'éthanol, le méthanol et l'eau sont respectivement 19.7, 26.2, 29.7 et 48 [309]. Ainsi, l'affinité des non-solvants pour l'eau varieront dans l'ordre suivant : méthanol > éthanol > acétone. Par conséquent, la vitesse de diffusion de l'acétone est la plus lente et les NP obtenues sont les plus grandes.

En ce qui concerne le potentiel ζ des NP obtenues, la **Figure 4.5.b** montre que la variation de la concentration en polymère ne présente pas d'effet significatif, comme rapportés par Badri et al. [41].

4.3.3. Effet de la vitesse d'agitation

L'effet de la vitesse d'agitation sur les propriétés colloïdales des particules est évalué pour les trois types de solvants et les résultats sont illustrés dans la **Figure 4.6**.

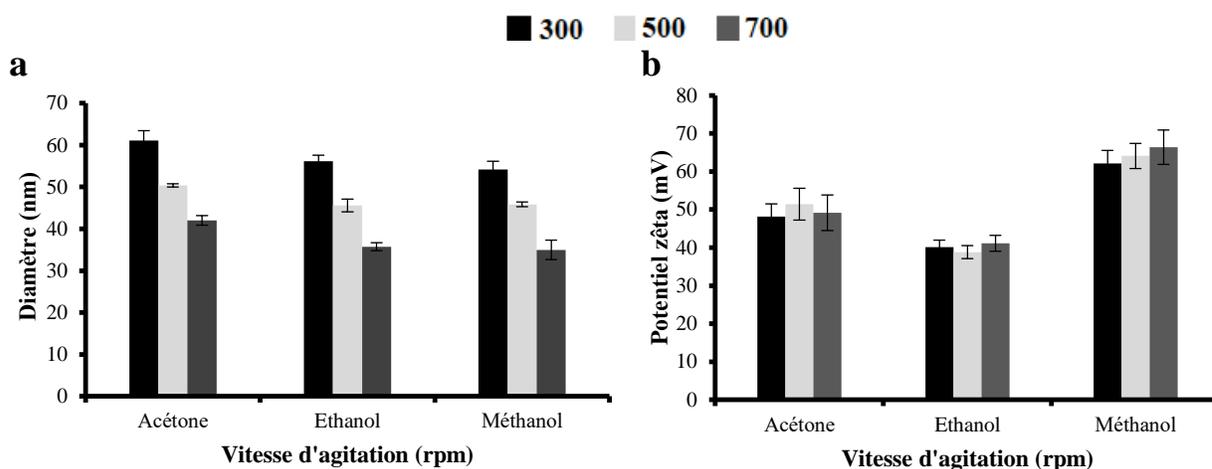


Figure 4.6. Effet de la vitesse d'agitation sur le diamètre (a) et le potentiel zêta (b) des nanoparticules.

La taille des NP préparées par nanoprecipitation dépend de la vitesse d'agitation (**Fig.4.6.a**). En effet, plus la vitesse est élevée, plus la taille des NP diminue. En augmentant la vitesse d'agitation de 300 à 700 rpm, la taille des particules diminue significativement de 61 ± 2 nm à 42 ± 1 nm, de 56 ± 2 à 35 ± 1 nm et de 54 ± 2 à 34 ± 2 nm pour l'acétone, l'éthanol et méthanol, respectivement. Ce comportement est attendu puisqu'il a déjà été constaté pour des NP formées de polycaprolactone [41] et de polylactide [310]. Une telle diminution de la taille peut s'expliquer par le fait qu'en augmentant la vitesse d'agitation, la force de cisaillement augmente ce qui entraîne une diffusion plus rapide du solvant vers le non-solvant [271].

Concernant l'influence de la vitesse d'agitation sur le potentiel ζ , les résultats montrent que l'effet est insignifiant ($p > 0,05$) (**Fig.4.6.b**). Ces résultats sont en accord avec ceux trouvés par Badri et al. [41]. Il est néanmoins important de préciser que la vitesse d'agitation la plus élevée (700 rpm) forme une mousse qui gêne par la suite l'évaporation du solvant. Sur cette base, 500rpm est choisie comme vitesse optimale.

Pour conclure, les paramètres étudiés ont tous un rôle crucial dans la préparation des NP à base de PMMA. Les conditions optimales donnant des particules avec une taille convenable, une distribution uniforme et un potentiel ζ élevé sont : un rapport volumique S/NS de 1/2 ; une concentration en PMMA de 16 mg/ml ; et une vitesse d'agitation de 500 rpm.

4.3.4. Morphologie des nanoparticules vides

Les trois formulations optimisées de NP sont visualisées par MEB et évaluées en termes de forme et de texture. La **Figure 4.7** montre que toutes les NP ont une forme sphérique, régulière et sont de l'échelle submicrométrique.

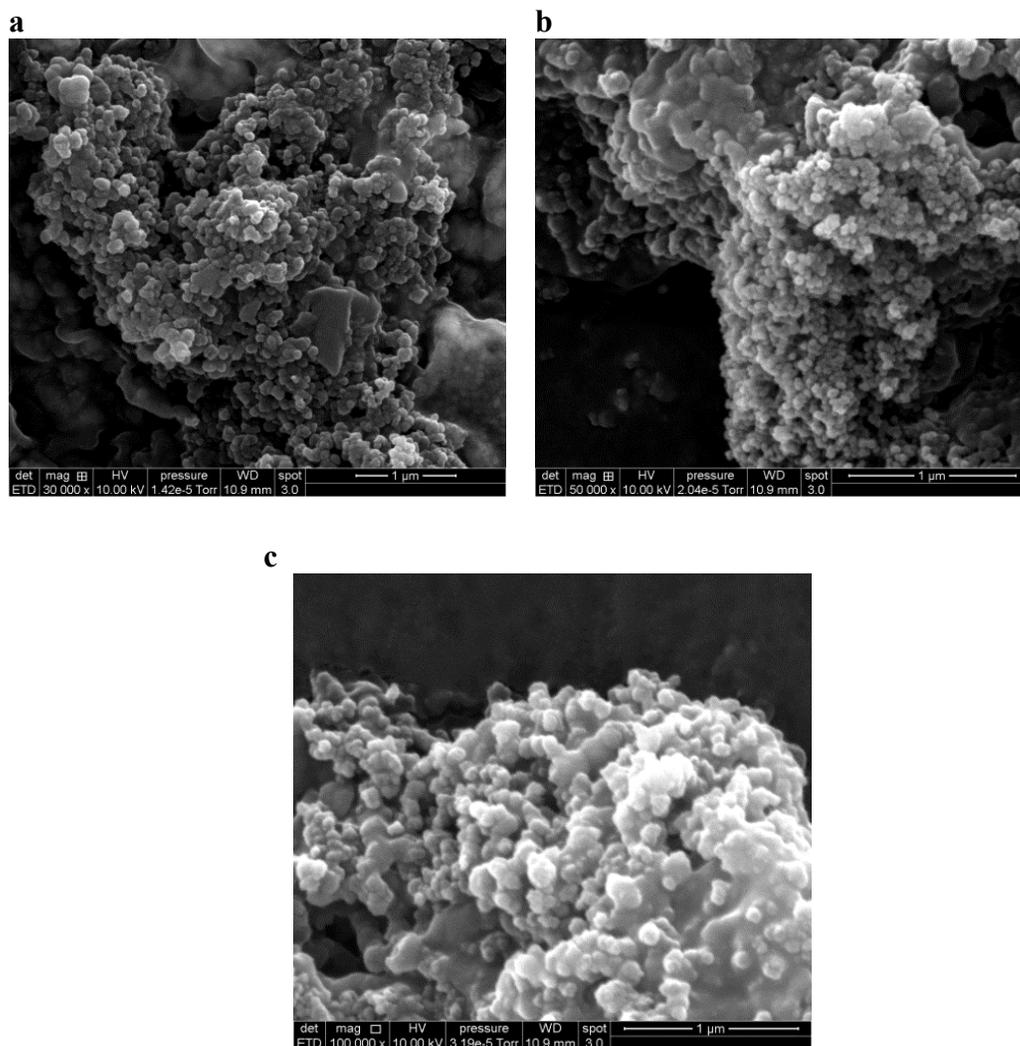


Figure 4.7. Images de nanoparticules à base de PMMA préparées avec de l'acétone (a), de l'éthanol (b) et du méthanol (c) par microscopie électronique à balayage.

4.4. Caractérisation des nanoparticules chargées en huile des noyaux de dattes

4.4.1. Résultats de l'analyse par diffusion dynamique de la lumière

Pour obtenir la quantité adéquate de l'HV des noyaux de dattes à encapsuler, différentes quantités sont étudiées (15, 30, 60, 120, 240 et 300 mg) et les NP préparées sont analysées en termes de taille, potentiel ζ et EE%, comme illustré dans le **Tableau 4.4**.

Tableau 4.4. Résultats de diamètre du potentiel ζ et d'efficacité d'encapsulation des nanoparticules chargées en huile des noyaux de dattes.

Quantité d'huile (mg)	Diamètre (nm)	Potentiel ζ (mV)	EE (%)	DL ($\mu\text{g}/\text{mg}$ polymer)
0	50 ± 1	51 ± 4	/	/
15	126 ± 2	57 ± 4	99.0 ± 1.0	61.9 ± 0.6
30	150 ± 1	62 ± 3	97.3 ± 3.0	121.6 ± 3.8
60	187 ± 2	62 ± 2	99.0 ± 1.0	247.5 ± 2.5
120	217 ± 3	59 ± 4	98.0 ± 1.0	490.0 ± 5.0
240	228 ± 3	46 ± 5	91.3 ± 3.2	913.3 ± 32.1
300	231 ± 3	48 ± 1	85.7 ± 3.1	1070.8 ± 38.2

La suspension contenant les NP vides a une couleur blanche transparente. Cependant, elle a perdu sa transparence et est devenue de plus en plus opaque en augmentant la quantité d'huile incorporée (**Fig.4.8**).

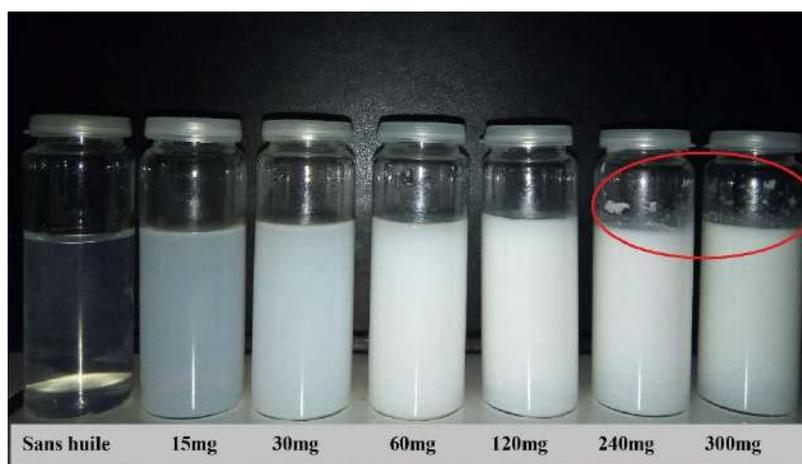


Figure 4.8. Variation de couleur des suspensions de nanoparticules chargées d'huile des noyaux de dattes en fonction de la quantité d'huile incorporée.

Ce Résultat est en concordance avec les mesures de la taille des particules, montrées sur la **Figure 4.9.a**, où toutes les NP préparées ont un diamètre moyen supérieur à celui des NP vides. Résultats conformes avec d'autres travaux [311]. Ainsi, en augmentant la quantité d'huile de 15 à 120 mg, une augmentation significative de la taille des particules est enregistrée de 126 ± 2 à 217 ± 3 nm. Alors qu'au-delà de 120 mg, une légère augmentation de la taille des particules est constatée. Pour 240 et 300 mg d'huile, le diamètre des particules

est de 228 ± 3 et 231 ± 3 nm, respectivement. De plus, les suspensions ne présentent pas un aspect homogène et certaines gouttes d'huile apparaissent (**Fig.4.8**). Donc, nous pouvons supposer qu'il y a une quantité optimale d'HV à encapsuler dans notre NP. Le même résultat est confirmé par Badri et al. [278].

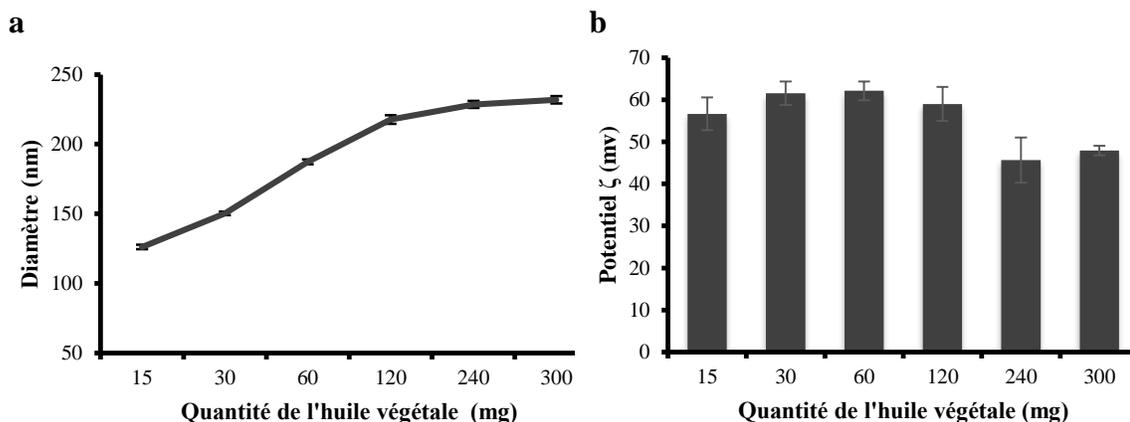


Figure 4.9. Effet de la quantité d'huile des noyaux de dattes sur la taille **(a)** et le potentiel ζ **(b)** des nanoparticules chargées.

Dans le but de sélectionner la quantité adéquate d'extrait à encapsuler, une analyse plus approfondie est effectuée pour corrélérer entre la quantité d'huile et le rayon cubique des NP en supposant que le nombre de NP est constant et qu'uniquement leur taille qui varie en fonction de la quantité de polymère ou d'huile utilisés (Eq. 4.2).

$$r^3 \approx \frac{m}{N_p} \quad (4.2)$$

Avec :

r : le rayon de la nanoparticule.

m : la quantité de polymère ou d'huile utilisés.

N_p : le nombre de nanoparticules.

Pour les NP chargées d'huile, la taille des particules augmente en augmentant la quantité d'huile de 15 à 120 mg ; ce qui est confirmée par la bonne corrélation entre la quantité d'huile et le rayon des NP ($R^2=0.9866$) (**Fig.4.10**). Alors qu'avec des quantités plus élevées (240 et 300 mg), les particules n'augmentent pas en taille. Ceci est peut-être expliqué par le fait que les NP sont saturées en huile. Donc, la quantité maximale d'huile à encapsuler ne doit excéder 120mg.

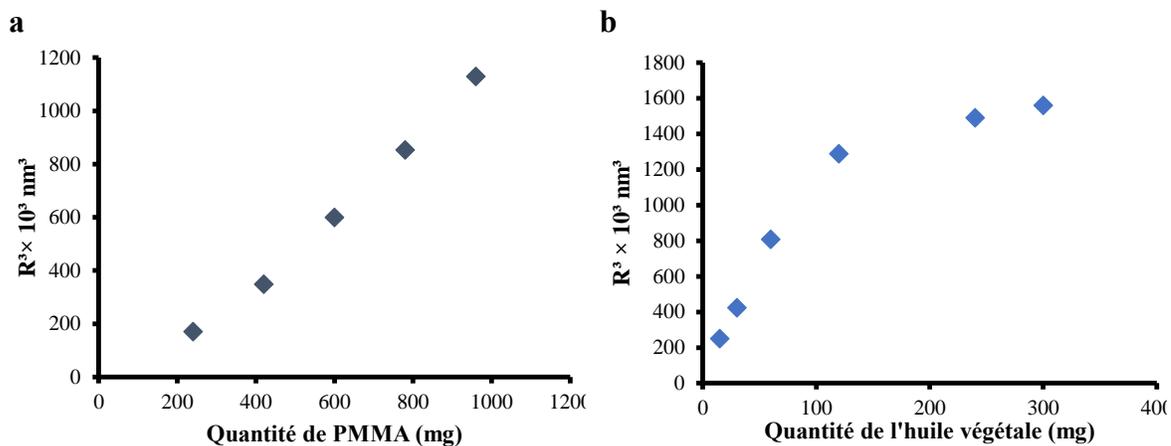


Figure 4.10. Corrélation entre la quantité du polymère (a), la quantité d'huile des noyaux de dattes (b) et le rayon cubique des nanoparticules.

Pour l'effet de la quantité d'huile sur le potentiel ζ , nous notons pour les NP une légère variation en augmentant la teneur de l'extrait encapsulé (Fig.4.9.b). De plus, des valeurs plus élevées sont enregistrées par rapport aux NP vides, où leur potentiel ζ est de 51 ± 4 mV. Ce résultat est attribué à l'incorporation de l'huile qui peut interagir avec le polymère, influençant ainsi la charge des NP. La Figure 4.9.b montre également que toutes les valeurs mesurées du potentiel ζ sont supérieures à +30mV ce qui indique que ces NP sont physiquement stables.

Une mesure de l'EE% est effectuée par spectroscopie UV-visible et les résultats sont montrés dans le Tableau 4.4. Presque la totalité de l'huile des noyaux de dattes est encapsulée dans les NP ; les valeurs de l'EE% sont comprises entre 97 et 99%. Alors que de faibles valeurs sont notées à des quantités plus élevées d'huile (>120mg), ce qui confirme notre hypothèse.

4.4.2. Résultats de l'analyse par microscopie électronique

Les images obtenues par MEB des NP chargées en huile ne sont pas très nettes et explicatives ce qui nous a conduit à analyser ces particules par MET. Les résultats ont permis de bien visualiser la forme sphérique et régulière de ces dernières (voir Fig.4.11).

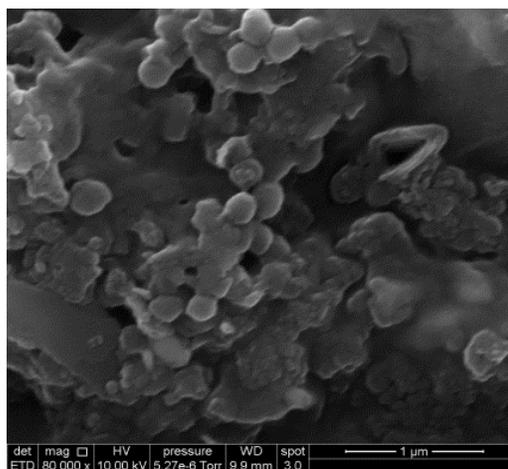
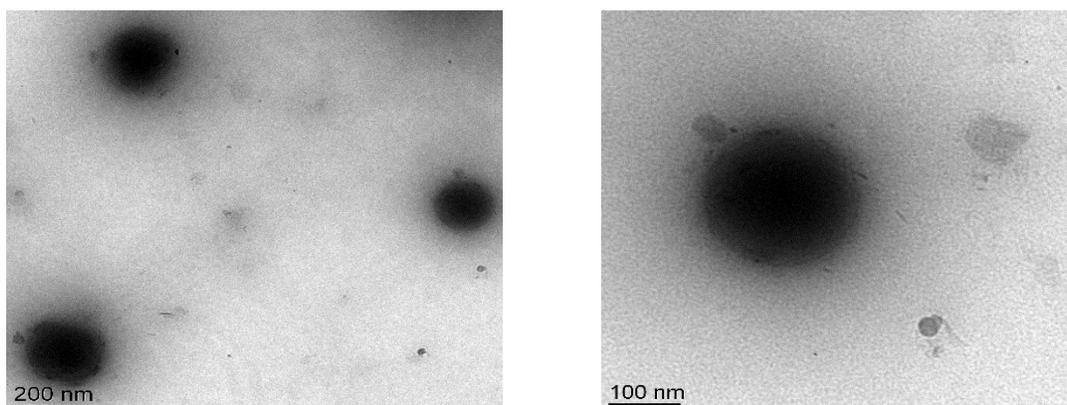
a**b**

Figure 4.11. Images de microscopie électronique à balayage **(a)** et de microscopie électronique en transmission **(b)** de nanoparticules de PMMA chargées d'huile des noyaux de dattes.

4.4.3. Résultats de l'analyse par spectroscopie infrarouge à transformée de Fourier

Dans le but d'étudier l'interaction chimique entre l'huile des noyaux de dattes et le polymère, une analyse par FTIR est réalisée. Généralement, l'interaction principe actif-polymère conduit à la formation de nouvelles bandes d'absorption et/ou à l'expansion des bandes d'absorption dans les spectres FTIR [312]. Les spectres de l'huile non encapsulée, du PMMA et des NP chargées sont illustrés dans la **Figure 4.12**.

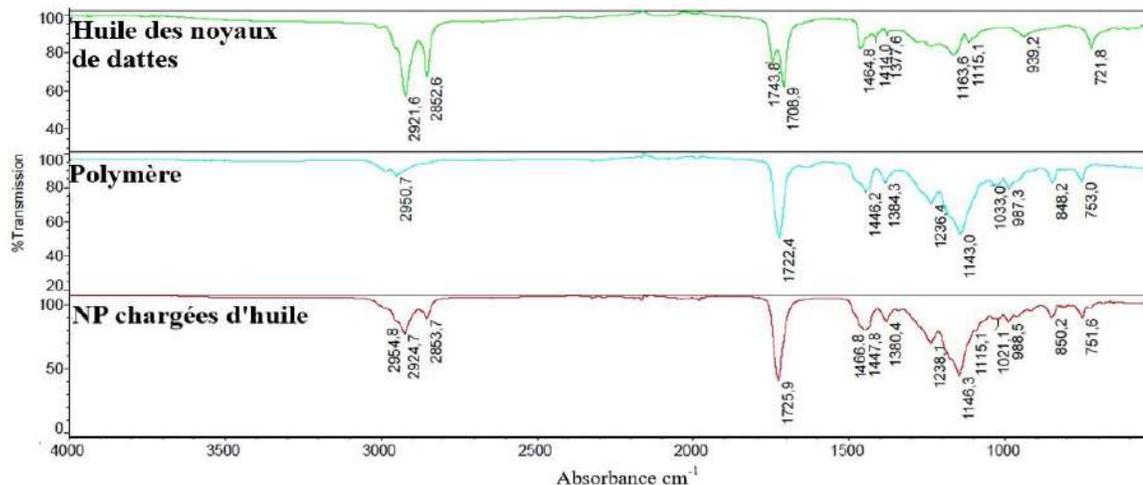


Figure 4.12. Spectroscopie infrarouge à transformée de Fourier pour l'huile des noyaux de dattes, le PMMA et les NP chargées.

Les pics à 2921 et 2852 cm^{-1} , détectés dans le spectre de l'huile, correspondent aux vibrations d'élongation du C–H aliphatique dans les groupements CH_2 et CH_3 terminaux, respectivement. La bande d'absorption à 1708 cm^{-1} est liée aux vibrations d'élongation C=O de l'acide carboxylique ; alors que celle à 1464 cm^{-1} est attribuée à l'élongation C=C des groupes carbonyles. De plus, les pics à 1743 et 1163 cm^{-1} sont dus respectivement aux vibrations d'élongation des groupements C=O et C–O de l'ester. Ces résultats sont similaires à ceux obtenus dans la littérature [89,313,314].

Le spectre FTIR du PMMA montre des pics caractéristiques à 2950, 1722 et 1143 cm^{-1} attribués respectivement aux vibrations d'étirement des C–H aliphatiques, des C=O et C–O des groupes esters. Cela est conforme à ce qui est rapporté précédemment [315,316].

La superposition des spectres de l'huile et du PMMA sur celui des NP chargées révèle une augmentation de l'intensité du pic à 1725 cm^{-1} et l'apparition de certains pics caractéristiques des groupements fonctionnels de l'huile des noyaux de dattes à 2924, 2853 et 1466 cm^{-1} . Cela signifie que l'HV est bien encapsulée dans les NP.

4.5. Caractérisation des nanoparticules chargées en huile de costus

4.5.1. Résultats de l'analyse par diffusion dynamique de la lumière

Les NP contenant l'HE du costus, préparées par le procédé de la nanoprécipitation, sont caractérisées en suivant la même démarche adoptée pour l'huile des noyaux de dattes.

De ce fait, différentes quantités d'huile sont incorporées et les NP résultantes sont analysées par DLS, comme le montre le **Tableau 4.5**.

Tableau 4.5. Résultats du diamètre et du potentiel ζ des nanoparticules chargées en huile essentielle du costus.

Quantité d'huile (mg)	Diamètre (nm)	Potentiel ζ (mV)
0	45 ± 2	39 ± 2
15	60 ± 2	40 ± 1
30	86 ± 1	41 ± 1
60	112 ± 1	39 ± 1
120	145 ± 1	45 ± 2
240	155 ± 1	43 ± 1

La taille moyenne des NP chargées d'huile est significativement plus élevée que celle des NP vides ($p < 0,05$). Des résultats similaires sont déjà rapportés dans la littérature [192,311]. Concernant l'aspect des nanosuspensions, le même phénomène s'est reproduit avec l'essence de costus. En effet, la couleur de la suspension devient de plus en plus opaque en augmentant la quantité d'huile. A des concentrations élevées (plus de 120mg), la suspension n'est plus homogène (apparition de quelques traces d'huiles) (**Fig.4.13**).

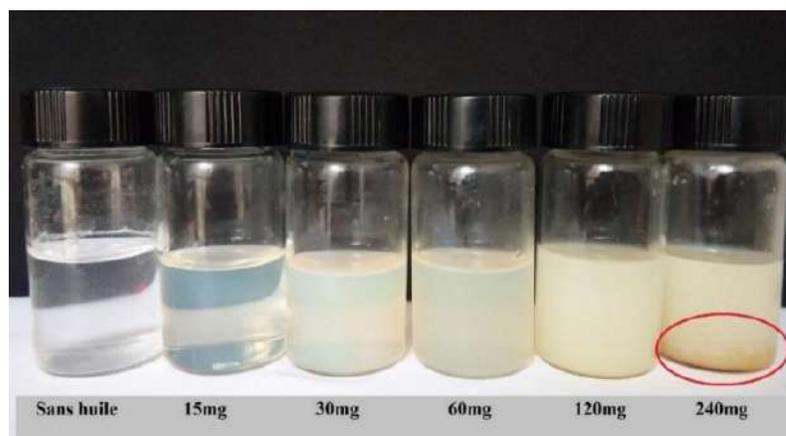


Figure 4.13. Variation de couleur des suspensions de nanoparticules chargées d'huile essentielle du costus.

Nous observons qu'au-delà de 120mg, l'effet sur la taille des NP est négligeable (**Fig.4.14.a**). Ce résultat est confirmé par le calcul du coefficient de corrélation (eq.4.2), $R^2=0.9998$ (**Fig.4.15**).

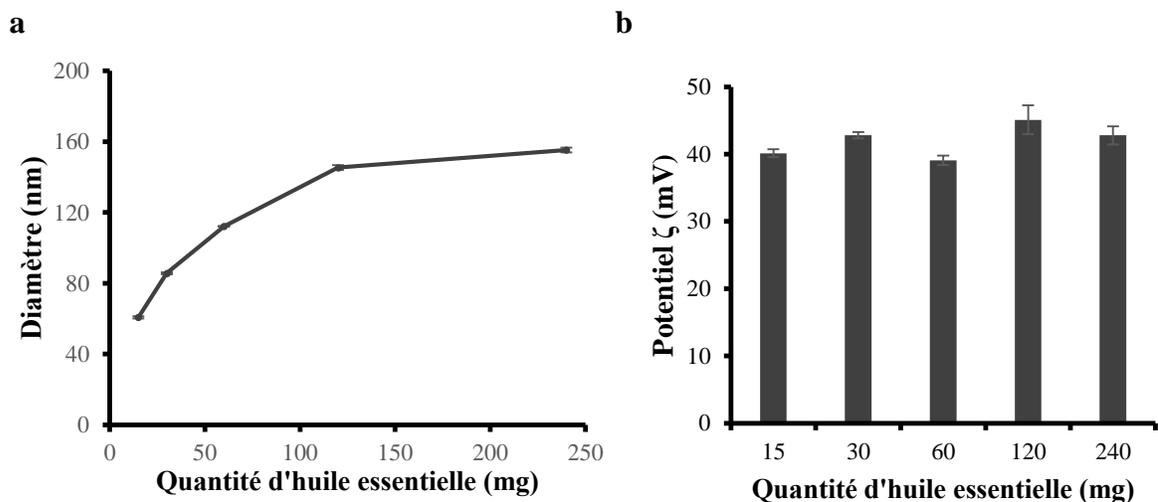


Figure 4.14. Effet de la quantité d'huile de costus sur la taille (a) et le potentiel ζ (b) des nanoparticules chargées.

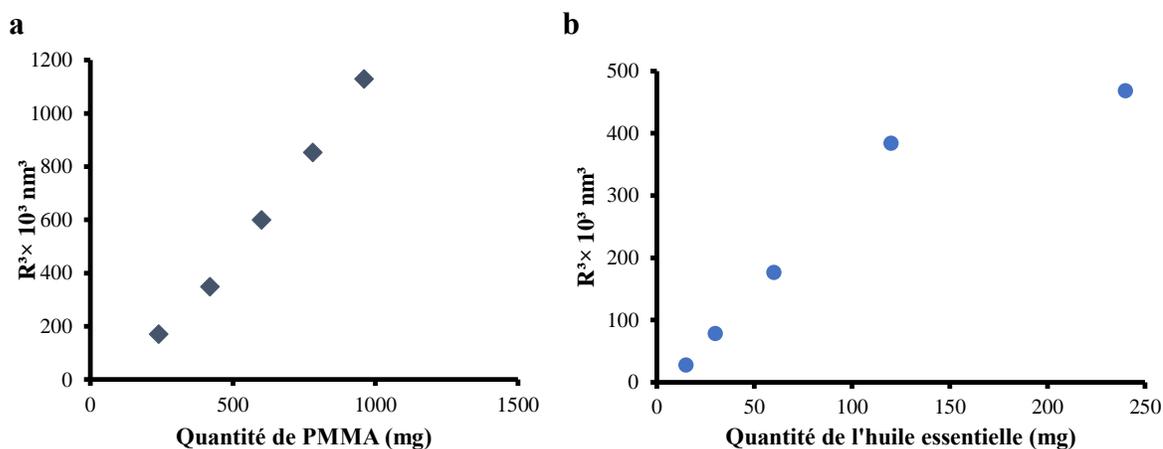


Figure 4.15. Corrélation entre la quantité du polymère (a), la quantité de l'huile de costus (b) et le rayon cubique des nanoparticules.

Nous avons également étudié l'effet de la teneur en huile encapsulée sur le potentiel ζ et les résultats montrés dans la **Figure 4.14.b** révèle une très faible variation. Toutes les NP synthétisées sont physiquement stables (potentiel $\zeta > +30$ mV).

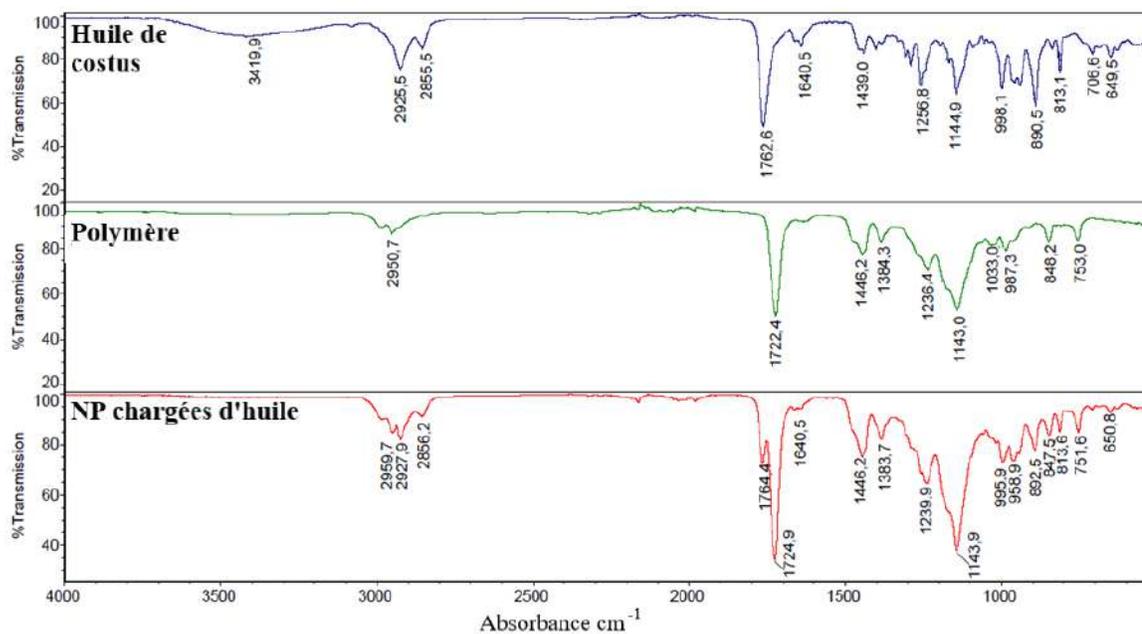


Figure 4.17. Spectroscopie infrarouge à transformée de Fourier pour l'huile de costus, le PMMA et les nanoparticules chargées.

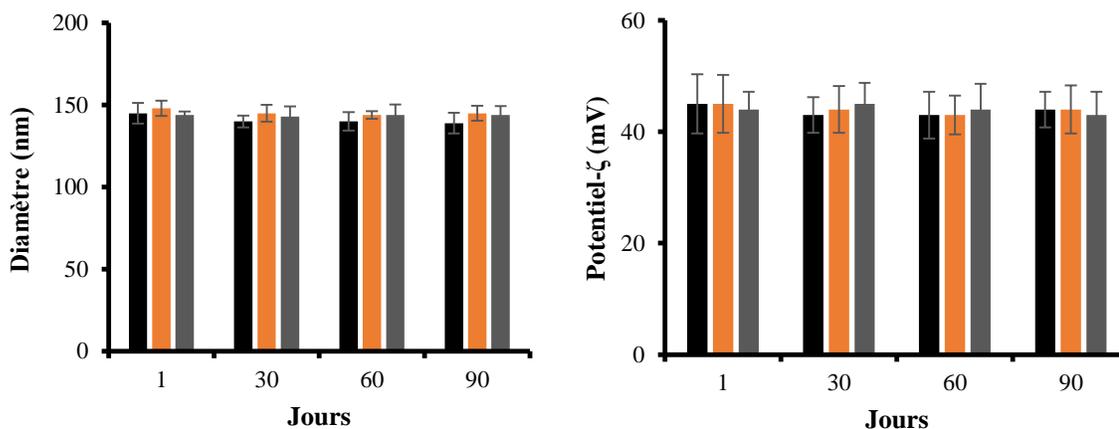
Le spectre de PMMA concorde avec celui qui est déjà discuté dans la **section 4.4.3**. Pour le spectre de l'HE, la large bande à 3419 cm^{-1} correspond au groupement O–H des phénols et des alcools ; alors que les petits pics à 2925 et 1439 cm^{-1} sont dus respectivement aux vibrations d'élongation et de déformation des liaisons C–H des hydrocarbures saturés [317]. La forte bande d'absorption à 1762 cm^{-1} est attribuée aux lactones à cinq carbone, présents dans le dehydroaussurea lactone, le dehydrocostus lactone et le costunolide [318]. De plus, les pics à 1640 cm^{-1} et ceux compris entre 649 et 998 cm^{-1} sont liés respectivement aux vibrations d'élongation et de déformation de la liaison C = C des alcènes.

La superposition des spectres de l'huile, du PMMA et des NP chargées montre l'augmentation de l'intensité du pic à 1724 cm^{-1} , la disparition du pic à 3419 cm^{-1} et la formation de nouveaux pics à 2927 , 2856 , 1764 , 1640 et 650 cm^{-1} qui caractérisent l'essence de costus. Ce résultat confirme l'encapsulation de l'HE dans les nanoparticules polymères.

4.6. Etude de stabilité des nanoparticules chargées d'huile

La stabilité colloïdale des NP chargées d'huile est étudiée en analysant la taille et le potentiel ζ en fonction de la température (4 , 25 et 40 °C) pendant trois mois, comme le montre la **Figure 4.18**.

NP chargées de l'HE du costus



NP chargées de l'HV des noyaux de dattes

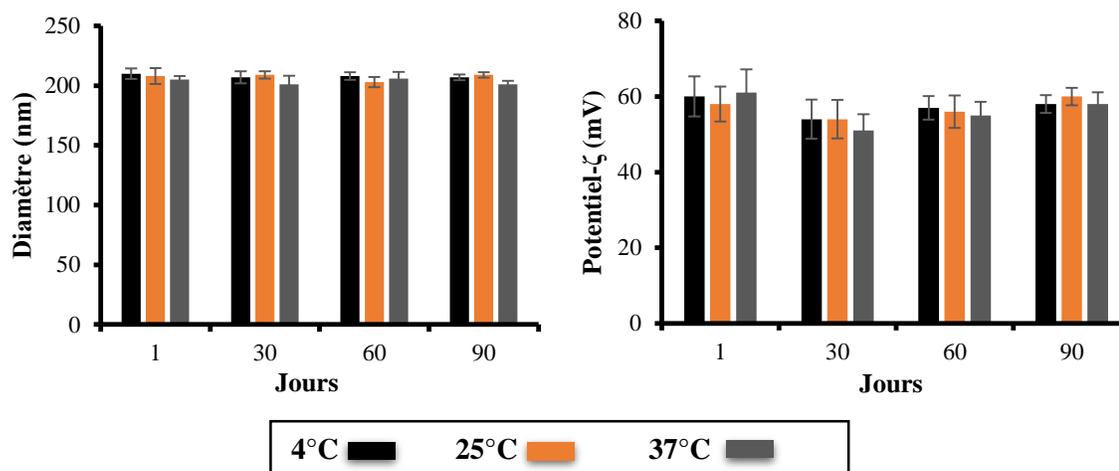


Figure 4.18. Stabilité des nanoparticules à base de PMMA chargées d'huile en termes de taille et de potentiel ζ .

Nous notons pour le diamètre moyen et le potentiel ζ un léger changement pendant toute la période de stockage pour les deux huiles étudiées.

Pour s'assurer de la permanence de la charge en huile des noyaux de dattes dans les nanoparticules au cours du temps, le taux d'encapsulation est mesuré en fonction du temps et de la température et les résultats sont mentionnés dans le **Tableau** ci-dessous.

Tableau 4.6. Résultats des taux d'efficacité d'encapsulation des nanoparticules chargées en huile des noyaux de dattes en fonction du temps et de la température.

	Taux d'efficacité d'encapsulation (%)		
	4°C	25°C	37°C
1 Jour	99.2 ± 1.7	99.6 ± 3.0	98.9 ± 0.9
30 Jours	98.5 ± 2.5	97.5 ± 2.5	99.1 ± 1.3
60 Jours	96.9 ± 1.9	99.2 ± 1.9	98.4 ± 1.8
90 Jours	97.6 ± 0.5	98.5 ± 1.9	99.1 ± 1.3

Il apparait clairement que la variation du taux d'encapsulation est négligeable.

La stabilité des nanoparticules par rapport aux variations de pH nous indique qu'en augmentant le pH de 3 à 12, le potentiel ζ diminue de +45 à +32 mV pour l'HE et de +68 à +34 mV pour l'HV (Fig.4.19). Boddohi et al. ont liés les changements du potentiel ζ à la diminution de la charge du chitosane induite par la réduction de la concentration en ions H^+ [319]. La diminution du potentiel ζ en allant d'un milieu acide vers un milieu basique n'a pas influé sur la stabilité de la suspension vue que les valeurs sont au-dessus de la limite +30 mV.

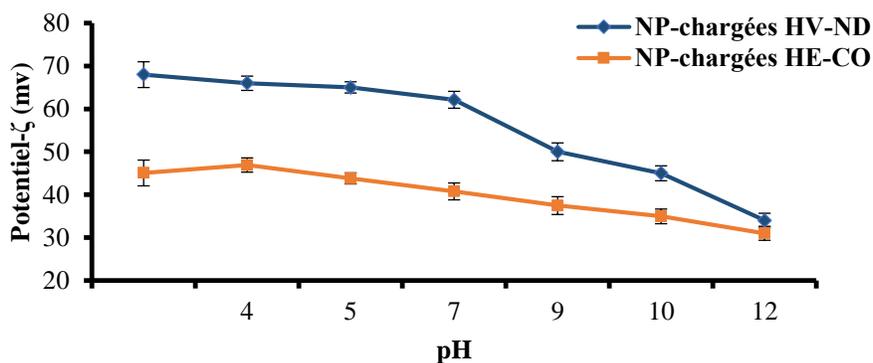


Figure 4.19. Stabilité des nanoparticules à base de PMMA chargées d'huile en termes de pH. HV-ND : Huile végétale des noyaux de dattes ; HE-CO : Huile essentielle du costus.

4.7. Résultats des activités biologiques

4.7.1. Résultats de l'activité anti-inflammatoire

L'inflammation est l'ensemble de réactions de défense naturelle ayant pour but de reconnaître, détruire et éliminer des agents pathogènes, des irritants ou des cellules endommagées. L'hôte répond à une inflammation par la production et la libération des médiateurs pro-inflammatoires (cytokines) comme l'IL-1, l'IL-6, l'IL-10 et le TNF- α . Ce dernier induit à son tour la production d'autres cytokines inflammatoires comme GM-CSF et

potentialise l'inflammation [320]. La cellule produit aussi des métalloprotéinases matricielles telles que MMP-9 et MMP-2, responsables du remodelage tissulaire [321] et de la modulation de l'inflammation [322].

L'extrait des racines de costus et ses principales lactones sesquiterpéniques sont largement testés pour leurs effets anti-inflammatoires. Dans le présent travail, l'étude de l'activité anti-inflammatoire est réalisée sur la lignée cellulaire A549 après avoir fait un test de cytotoxicité pour déterminer la concentration d'huile non cytotoxique.

A. Etude de cytotoxicité par test LDH

Un test LDH est établi pour étudier la cytotoxicité de notre formulation. La lignée cellulaire épithéliale pulmonaire humaine A549 est choisie dans notre étude à raison de son large domaine d'utilisation *in vitro* pour le dépistage de la cytotoxicité des formulations [323]. La viabilité cellulaire est déterminée après traitement des cellules A549 par différentes formulations à savoir : les NP vides, l'huile de costus non encapsulée et les NP correspondantes à différentes concentrations (12.5, 25, 50, 75, 100 et 200 μ g/mL) pendant 24h. Les résultats du test LDH (exprimés en pourcentage de cytotoxicité par rapport aux cellules témoins non traitées) sont présentés dans la **Figure 4.20**. La non-cytotoxicité des NP vides confirme la biocompatibilité du polymère utilisé. Des résultats similaires sont trouvés concernant la non-cytotoxicité des NP constituées de PMMA après traitement de nombreuses lignées cellulaires telles que RAW264, HaCaT (kératinocytes humains), MDA-MB231 (adénocarcinome mammaire humain invasif), FaDu (cellules de carcinome du pharynx), MCF -7 (adénocarcinome mammaire humain non invasif) [324], macrophages NR8383 [325], CAM (membrane chorioallantoïque) et la lignée de cellules épithéliales cornéennes du lapin [326]. La **Figure 4.20** indique aussi que les nanocapsules chargées d'huile présentent un effet cytotoxique dose-dépendant. En effet, une augmentation graduelle du pourcentage de cytotoxicité est survenue en augmentant la concentration d'huile. Les NP à des concentrations très élevées ($\geq 50 \mu$ g/ml) sont considérées comme cytotoxiques ; contrairement à celles de 25 et 12.5 μ g/ml qui sont non cytotoxiques.

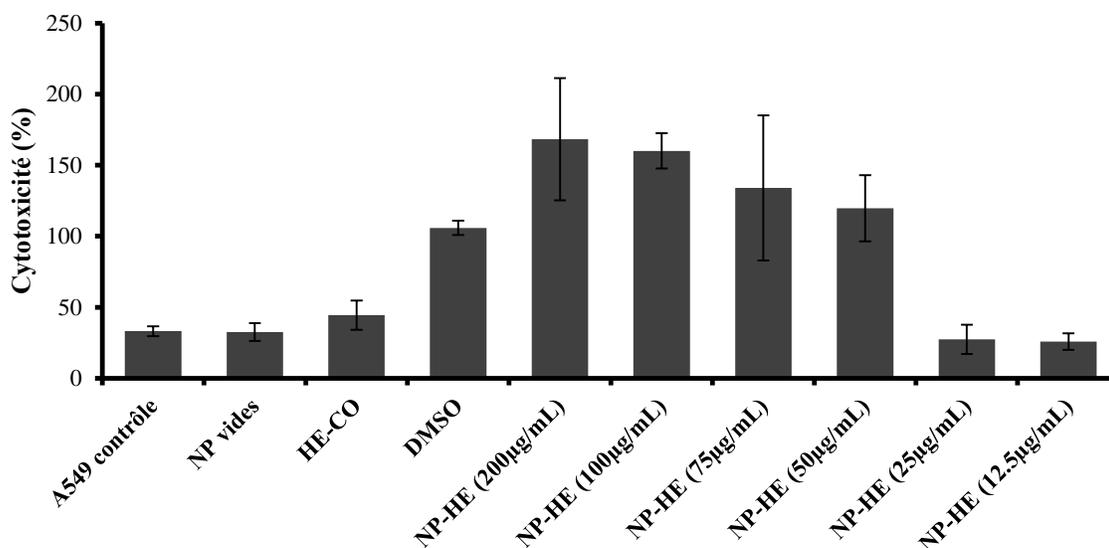


Figure 4.20. Effet cytotoxique de l'huile de costus sous sa forme libre et encapsulée.

B. Evaluation des modifications de la morphologie cellulaire

Dans le but de confirmer les résultats du test LDH, les cellules A549 issues des différents traitements sont observées à l'aide d'un microscope optique après coloration. La **Figure 4.21** montre les images prises pour chaque traitement. Contrairement aux cellules témoins (**Fig. 4.21.A**), des altérations structurales, une réduction du nombre de cellules viables et une destruction du cytoplasme sont observées lors du traitement avec des particules chargées en HE du costus à des concentrations supérieures ou égales à 50 µg/ml (**Fig.4.21.D, E, F et G**). Cependant, les cellules traitées avec des NP à des concentrations de 12.5 et 25 µg/ml ne présentent pas de changements morphologiques marqués ; ainsi des cellules à confluence, des noyaux plus gros et un cytoplasme intact sont visualisés (**Fig.4.21.B et C**). De ce fait, les NP contenant l'extrait du costus à 12.5 et 25 µg/ml ne présentent aucune cytotoxicité.

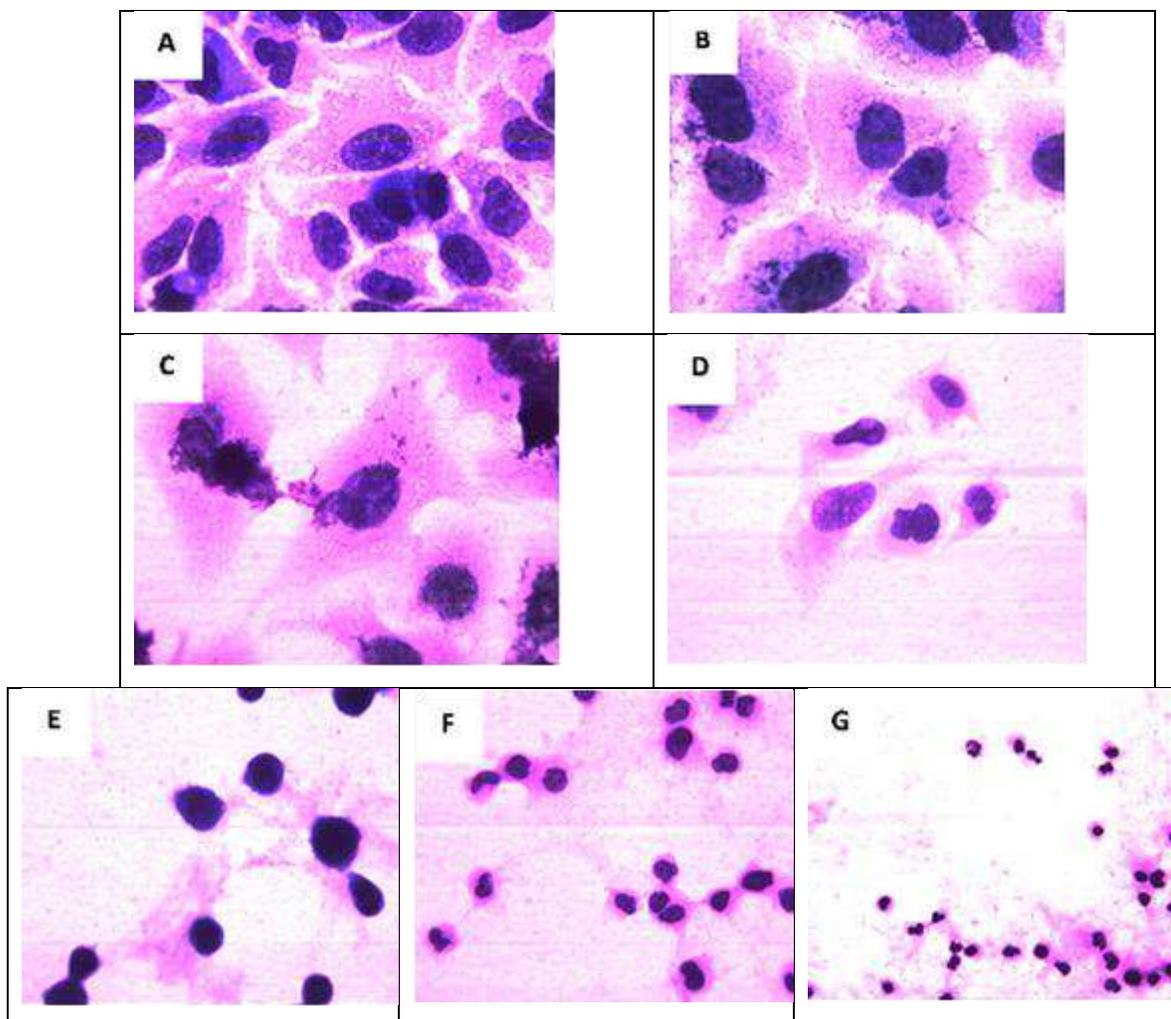


Figure 4.21. Observation microscopique de la morphologie cellulaire des A549. Cellules non traitées (A) ; Cellules traitées par des NP chargées d'huile de costus à différentes concentrations : 12.5 µg/ml (B) ; 25 µg/ml (C) ; 50 µg/ml (D) ; 75 µg/ml (E) ; 100 µg/ml (F) et 200 µg/ml (G). Grossissement x400.

C. Evaluation des marqueurs inflammatoires

Le dosage des marqueurs inflammatoires est effectué sur les cellules A549 après traitement par les NP contenant l'huile à 25µg/ml et stimulées par LPS. Ce dernier est utilisé pour déclencher l'expression et la libération des médiateurs inflammatoires par les cellules A549. Une RT-qPCR est utilisée pour l'évaluation de ces marqueurs et les cycles seuils (Ct) obtenus des différents gènes sont estimés à partir des courbes d'amplification à l'aide du logiciel AriaMx. L'expression de l'ARNm de TNF- α , IL-1 β et GM-CSF est évaluée par rapport à un gène de normalisation (TBP) en appliquant l'équation 3.3 et les résultats sont

représentés par la **Figure 4.22**. L'extrapolation des résultats de la qPCR est insérée en **Annexe E.8**.

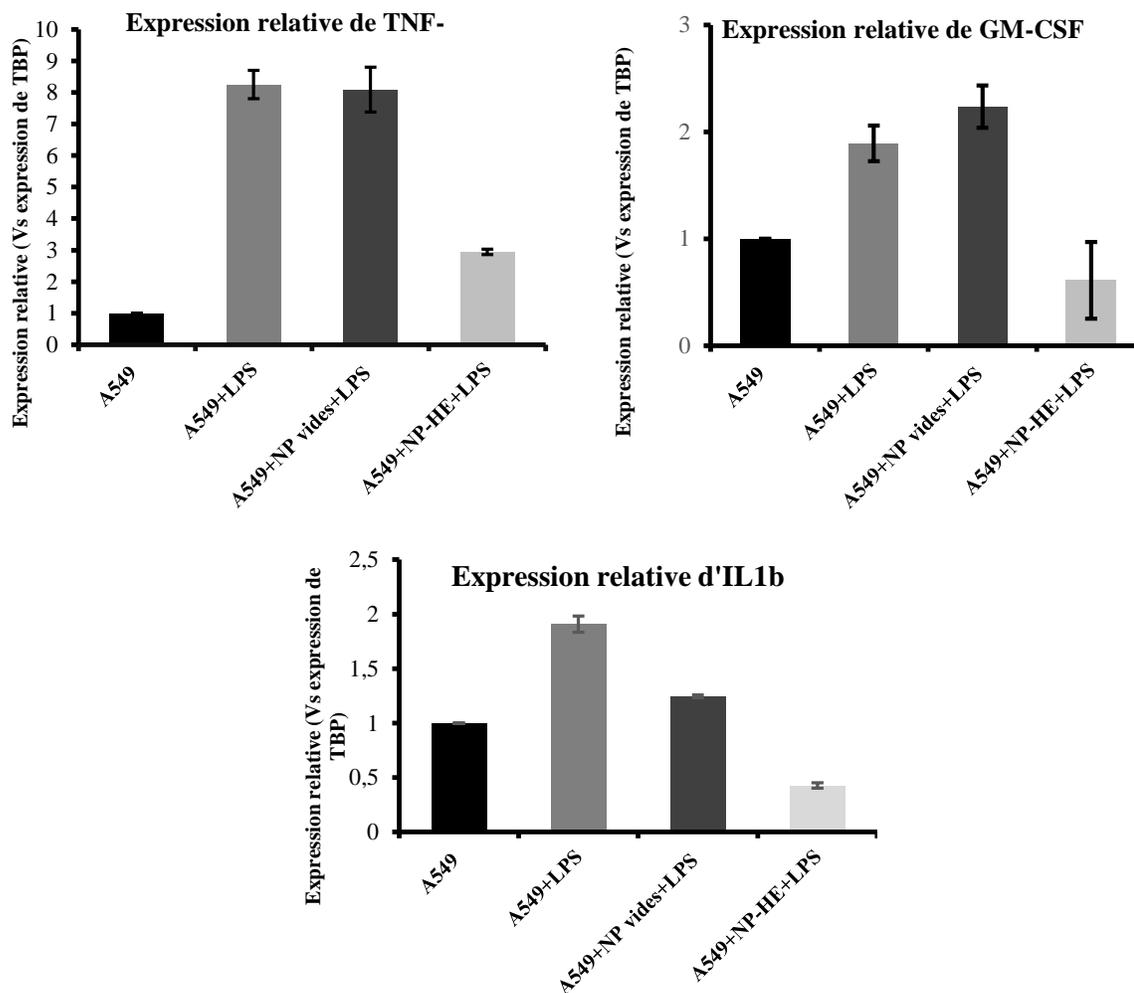
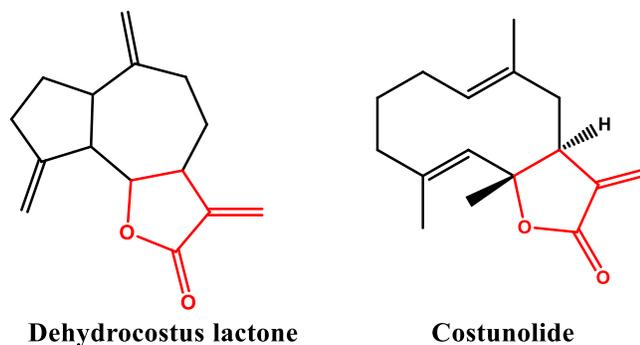


Figure 4.22. Expression de l'ARNm des médiateurs inflammatoires (TNF- α , GM-CSF et l'IL-1 β).

La stimulation des cellules A549 avec du LPS a entraîné une forte augmentation de l'expression de l'ARNm des facteurs inflammatoires. Le même résultat est observé lors du traitement par des NP vides.

Par contre, une réduction de l'expression des cytokines est observée lors du traitement avec les NP chargées ; ce qui laisse suggérer que l'HE exerce un effet anti-inflammatoire. Il est reporté que le dehydrocostus lactone et le costunolide peuvent inhiber potentiellement l'expression du TNF- α [148,151,327] et IL-1 β [148–150]. L'activité de ces deux constituants n'est pas limitée sur ces deux cytokines. Dans une étude récente menée par Zhou et al. [152],

le dehydrocostus lactone extrait des racines du costus a réduit l'expression d'autres médiateurs inflammatoires comme la MPO, la SOD, la MCP-1, l'IL-17, l'IL-6 et l'IL-23 ; il réduit également la voie de signalisation inflammatoire associée à COX2, IL-6, IL-23, iNOS et IL-17 [152]. Par la suite, il est démontré que le costunolide régule négativement l'expression de la translocation nucléaire de IL-6, MCP-1, COX2, iNOS et NF- κ B dans les cellules microgliales BV-2 [148]. Li et al. ont attribué l'effet anti-inflammatoire du costunolide et du dehydrocostus lactone à leur cycle α -méthylène- γ -butyrolactone (**Fig.4.23**).



Figures 4.23. Schéma du site actif (α -méthylène- γ -butyrolactone) du costunolide et du dehydrocostus lactone. Le α -méthylène- γ -butyrolactone est marqué en rouge.

Un test de cytotoxicité LDH est parallèlement réalisé pour affirmer la non-cytotoxicité du traitement sur les cellules A549 stimulées par LPS et les résultats présentés dans la **Figure 4.24** confirment la non-cytotoxicité de notre formulation.

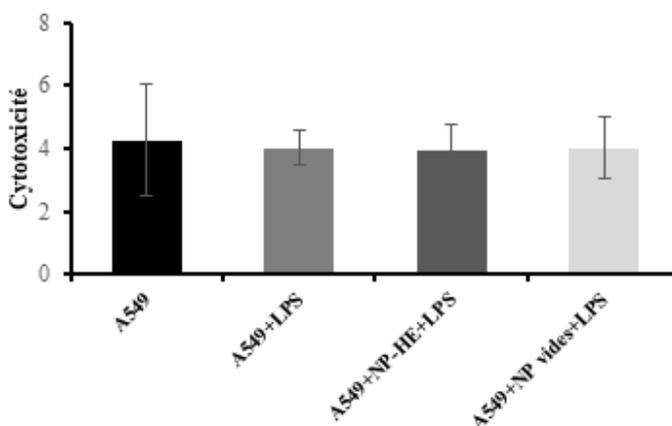


Figure 4.24. Effet cytotoxique des nanoparticules vides et celles chargées en huile de costus à 25 μ g/ml lors de la stimulation des A549 par LPS.

D. Zymographie et analyse densitométrique

Une zymographie de gélatine est réalisée pour évaluer l'activité des métalloprotéases libérés par les cellules A549 traitées et les résultats sont rapportés sur la **Figure 4.25**.

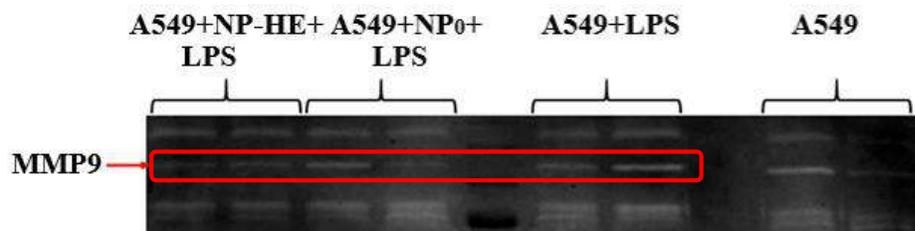


Figure 4.25. Zymographie de gélatine pour MMP9 après traitement des cellules A549 avec nanoparticules vides et ceux contenant l'huile de costus à 25 µg/ml.

La comparaison de l'intensité des bandes se fait en plan horizontal ; une bande claire correspond au lieu où les MMP dégradent la gélatine. Nous notons une diminution de l'intensité de la bande du MMP-9 après traitement des cellules par les NP contenant l'huile de costus par rapport aux cellules ayant subies une stimulation par LPS seulement. Ceci est expliqué par le fait que LPS stimule la production de MMP-9 qui en migrant à travers le gel vont dégrader la gélatine et laisser une bande claire. L'intensité des bandes est proportionnelle à la quantité du MMP libérées par les cellules. Dans l'autre cas, l'HE par son effet anti-inflammatoire, va inhiber la production des MMP-9 ce qui traduit par la suite par une diminution de l'intensité de la bande. Ces résultats sont en accords avec des travaux antérieurs où le costunolide [150] et le dehydrocostus lactone [328] présentent une inhibition remarquable de la MMP-9.

Pour compléter cette étude qualitative, une analyse densitométrique par le logiciel ImageJ est effectuée et les résultats illustrés dans la **Figure 4.26** confirment ceux de la zymographie où les NP contenant l'essence de costus réduisent l'activité des MMP-9.

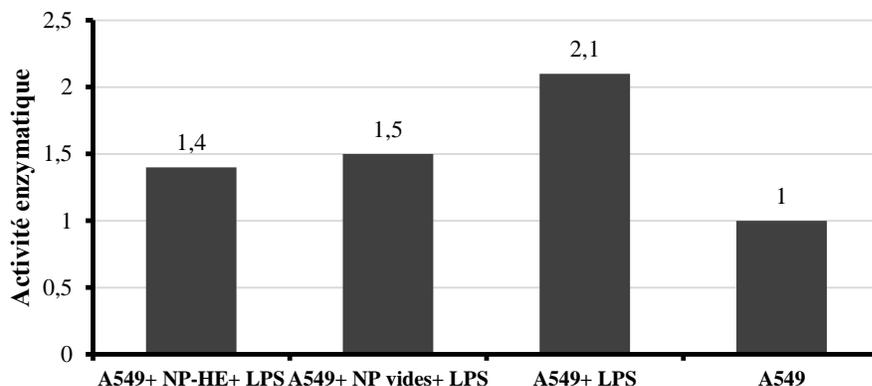


Figure 4.26. Analyse densitométrique après traitement des cellules A549 avec les nanoparticules vides et ceux contenant l'huile de costus à 25 µg/ml.

Dans l'ensemble, nous déduisons que l'huile de costus possède une activité anti-inflammatoire importante qui se traduit par la réduction de l'expression des cytokines inflammatoires et des MMP-9.

4.7.2. Résultats de l'activité antioxydante

L'organisme humain est soumis à une grande variété d'agression chimiques (fumées de combustion, tabagisme, métaux de transition, toxines), physiques (radiations ionisantes, ultraviolet, traumatisme), et métaboliques (exposition à des xénobiotiques, privation des facteurs de croissance ou facteurs hormonaux) [329]. La plupart de ces agressions débouchent sur une même expression appelée stress oxydatif ou stress oxydant, qui se définit comme étant une perturbation de l'équilibre endogène entre les radicaux libres (espèces réactives de l'oxygène) et les agents antioxydants en faveur des premiers, ce qui conduit à des dommages au niveau des tissus graisseux, de l'ADN et des protéines [330]. Des études épidémiologiques montrent aujourd'hui que plus le taux en antioxydants est élevé, moins est le risque de développer un cancer ou des maladies cardiovasculaires [331]. Les radicaux libres présentent un électron de valence non apparié dans l'orbitale externe ; ils peuvent être des dérivés de l'azote comme le monoxyde d'azote NO•, ou de l'oxygène tels le radical hydroxyle OH• ou l'anion superoxyde O₂•- [330]. En présence des antioxydants, l'équilibre est rétabli soit par réduction (gain d'un autre électron) ou par oxydation (perte de l'électron libre) [332].

En se basant sur l'étude bibliographique illustrée dans le chapitre I, la méthode de DPPH est la seule méthode utilisée pour exploiter l'effet antioxydant de l'huile des noyaux

de dattes ; et comme il n'existe pas d'une méthode unique *in vitro* vue la complexité du processus d'oxydation et la nature diversifiée des antioxydants, d'autres méthodes à savoir ; l'ABTS, le CUPRAC et le pouvoir réducteur sont employées dans notre étude pour évaluer cet effet pour l'huile libre et encapsulée. L'activité de différents échantillons est déduite à l'aide d'un spectrophotomètre en suivant le piégeage des radicaux libres qui s'accompagne par le passage de la couleur violette à la couleur jaune pour le DPPH et du bleu à l'incolore pour l'ABTS ; ou en suivant la réduction du cuivre ou du fer ferrique qui se reflète par le virage de la couleur verte à l'orange pour le CUPRAC et du jaune au bleu pour le pouvoir réducteur. Les résultats sont comparés à ceux des antioxydants standards, et sont regroupés dans le **Tableau 4.7** en termes de pourcentages d'inhibition pour chaque concentration.

Tableau 4.7. Résultats des tests DPPH, ABTS, CUPRAC et pouvoir réducteur de l'huile des noyaux des dattes, des nanoparticules chargées et des standards.

C($\mu\text{g/ml}$)	12.5	25	50	100	200	400	800
DPPH (% inhibition)							
Huile	-	-	-	-	5.4 \pm 2.9	11.1 \pm 1.4	18.1 \pm 2.0
NP	-	2.4 \pm 0.5	2.6 \pm 0.9	3.4 \pm 0.7	7.5 \pm 0.4	14.0 \pm 0.8	21.5 \pm 0.9
BHA	48.2 \pm 2.6	62.4 \pm 2.8	81.1 \pm 1.4	84.2 \pm 0.1	87.2 \pm 1.2	88.9 \pm 2.3	90.2 \pm 2.5
ABTS (% inhibition)							
Huile	-	5.9 \pm 0.7	6.0 \pm 0.9	8.4 \pm 1.2	10.6 \pm 1.4	13.1 \pm 1.8	16.4 \pm 0.9
NP	-	-	4.2 \pm 1.1	4.6 \pm 1.6	8.9 \pm 0.3	11.4 \pm 2.6	18.9 \pm 4.8
BHA	64.7 \pm 0.6	78.5 \pm 2.7	88.4 \pm 1.3	95.3 \pm 0.3	95.6 \pm 0.5	95.8 \pm 0.2	95.9 \pm 0.1
CUPRAC (Absorbance)							
Huile	-	0.17 \pm 0.03	0.22 \pm 0.03	0.28 \pm 0.01	0.42 \pm 0.01	0.73 \pm 0.01	1.16 \pm 0.01
NP	-	0.16 \pm 0.01	0.21 \pm 0.02	0.27 \pm 0.00	0.43 \pm 0.00	0.69 \pm 0.02	1.03 \pm 0.01
BHA	1.15 \pm 0.07	1.95 \pm 0.21	3.08 \pm 0.18	3.56 \pm 0.04	3.36 \pm 0.01	3.77 \pm 0.01	3.95 \pm 0.01
C($\mu\text{g/ml}$)	3.125	6.25	12.5	25	50	100	200
Pouvoir réducteur (Absorbance)							
Huile	-	-	-	0.03 \pm 0.00	0.06 \pm 0.01	0.17 \pm 0.01	0.25 \pm 0.07
NP	-	-	-	0.04 \pm 0.00	0.08 \pm 0.01	0.19 \pm 0.06	0.26 \pm 0.07
BHA	0.09 \pm 0.01	0.12 \pm 0.01	0.19 \pm 0.02	0.38 \pm 0.02	0.77 \pm 0.02	1.72 \pm 0.03	3.52 \pm 0.02

(-) : Absence d'absorbance.

Les valeurs moyennes sont exprimées en moyenne \pm SD de trois mesures parallèles.

Huile : Huile des noyaux de dattes ; NP : nanoparticules contenant l'huile des noyaux de dattes.

En comparant les résultats obtenus avec ceux du BHA, nous déduisons que l'huile des noyaux de dattes présente une très faible activité antioxydante. Aucun virage de couleur n'est détecté sur les microplaques issues des différents tests (voir **Fig.4.27**). Concernant le test du DPPH, les valeurs de la CI_{50} sont très élevées ($> 0.8\text{mg/ml}$) (**Tableau 4.8**). De même sont les valeurs de la CI_{50} pour le test d'ABTS et des A0.5 pour les méthodes CUPRAC et pouvoir réducteur. La CI_{50} (DPPH) trouvée dans notre étude est comparable à celles obtenues par d'autres travaux de recherche [95,98] (voir chapitre I). La CI_{50} de la variété Ghars issue de la région de Ghardaïa est de 46.9 mg/ml [98]; alors que celle récoltée de la région de Ouargla est trouvée à 140 mg/ml [95]. La variété utilisée dans notre étude provient de la région de Biskra. Cette différence est donc attribuée à l'origine de la plante. En effet, les variations géographiques et les changements climatiques peuvent affecter la qualité de l'huile et son pouvoir antioxydant [333].

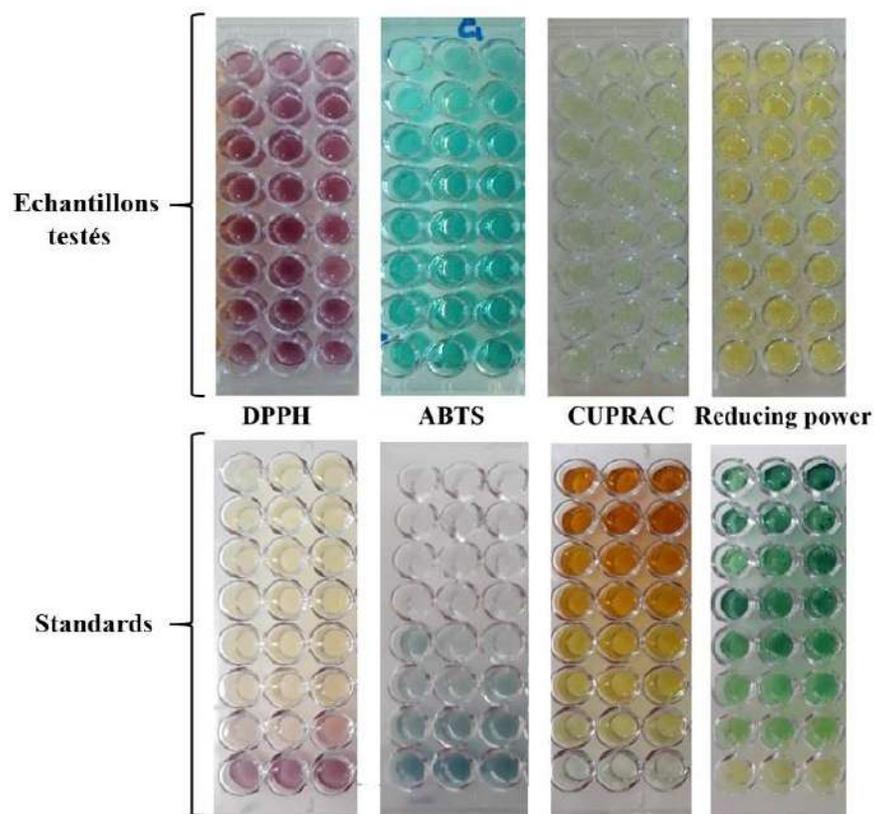


Figure 4.27. Résultats de l'étude de l'activité antioxydante sur microplaque.

Tableau 4.8. Résultats de la mesure des CI_{50} et des $A0.5$ de l'huile des noyaux de dattes, des nanoparticules chargées et du standard pour les différents tests (DPPH, ABTS, CUPRAC et pouvoir réducteur).

	Huile	NP chargées	BHA
CI_{50} DPPH ($\mu\text{g/ml}$)	> 800	> 800	12.7 ± 3.8
CI_{50} ABTS ($\mu\text{g/ml}$)	> 800	> 800	6.7 ± 0.5
$A0.5$ CUPRAC ($\mu\text{g/ml}$)	246.5 ± 3.4	242.0 ± 7.8	3.5 ± 0.1
$A0.5$ Pouvoir réducteur ($\mu\text{g/ml}$)	> 200	> 200	32.9 ± 0.3

Les composés phénoliques jouent un rôle important dans l'extrait des noyaux de dattes en ce qui concerne la saveur, la durée de conservation et la résistance à l'oxydation. Ainsi, une meilleure stabilité à l'oxydation est liée à la présence de ces derniers à des taux élevés [65]. Dans ce contexte et afin d'expliquer la faible activité antioxydante, nous avons quantifié la teneur en polyphénols totaux de l'HV des noyaux de dattes et les résultats montrent un taux égal à $2.74 \pm 1.7 \mu\text{g/mg}$. Le principe de la méthode utilisée est inséré en **Annexe F.7**. Des résultats similaires sont trouvés par Herch et al. [91] ($3.12 - 3.45 \mu\text{g/mg}$), Jaih et al. [107] ($0.79 - 1.77 \mu\text{g/mg}$), Basuny et al. [93] ($3.19 \mu\text{g/mg}$) et Besbes et al. [106] ($0.22 - 0.52 \mu\text{g/mg}$). Ces résultats sont attribués à la polarité du solvant utilisé dans le procédé de l'extraction. Différentes études révèlent une relation proportionnelle entre la polarité du solvant utilisé, la teneur en polyphénols totaux et l'activité antioxydante [80,334–336]. Dans notre étude le CO_2 , vu qu'il est non polaire, il a une faible capacité à dissoudre des composés polaires tels que les polyphénols ; ce qui entraîne une faible activité antioxydante. Il est rapporté que l'ajout d'un co-solvant tel que le méthanol au procédé d'extraction par CO_2 supercritique améliore le taux des polyphénols extraits [337,338]. Une étude similaire menée par Djenidi et al. a aboutit à des quantités considérables en polyphénols ($56.7 \mu\text{g/mg}$) en ajoutant du méthanol [339].

La faible activité antioxydante trouvée par ces méthodes est donc attribuée à la faible teneur en antioxydants naturels. Ces méthodes colorimétriques ont permis de montrer la faible activité antioxydante de l'HV des noyaux de dattes, contrairement à ce qui est publié où le rôle efficace dans la prévention du stress oxydatif est prouvé. Dammak et al. ont étudié l'effet protecteur de l'huile des ND contre le stress oxydatif induit par le peroxyde d'hydrogène sur des kératinocytes épidermiques humaines normales et les résultats ont montré qu'elle augmente l'activité des enzymes antioxydantes endogènes : Superoxide

dismutase, catalase et glutathione peroxidase [113]. Dans une autre étude menée par ces mêmes auteurs, l'huile des noyaux de dattes diminue l'expression de la protéine P53 qui endommage l'ADN suite à l'irradiation UV-B des peaux humaines saines [114]. De plus, il est prouvé que l'acide oléique est aussi efficace que l' α - et le γ -tocophérol pour prévenir les risques des produits de peroxydation lipidique, tels que l'instabilité génomique, le dysfonctionnement mitochondrial et la sénescence cellulaire, qui sont tous des signes distinctifs du processus de vieillissement [340]. Alors, nous pouvons conclure que l'extrait des noyaux de dattes est peut-être efficace dans le management du stress oxydatif et du vieillissement cellulaire mais pas par le biais de l'activité antiradicalaire liée à la présence des antioxydants naturels.

4.7.3. Résultats de l'activité anti-Alzheimer

Les maladies neurodégénératives et plus particulièrement la maladie d'Alzheimer est devenue un problème majeur de santé publique. Outre les problèmes que pose cette maladie, son coût global pour la société en termes de soins et d'accompagnement ne cesse de s'alourdir vu sa prévalence qui croît sur un rythme alarmant. La maladie d'Alzheimer s'agit d'un trouble neurodégénératif chronique du cerveau caractérisé par un déclin progressif des activités de la vie quotidienne, du comportement et de la cognition. Elle est due à un déficit en neurotransmetteur cholinergique : l'acétylcholine [341]. Le traitement de cette maladie porte donc sur l'inhibition des enzymes qui dégradent l'acétylcholine dans la synapse, à savoir : l'acétylcholinestérase et la butyrylcholinestérase, augmentant ainsi la disponibilité de l'acétylcholine pour stimuler les récepteurs dans le cerveau [342,343].

L'activité anticholinestérase de l'huile des noyaux de dattes et celle du costus sous leurs formes libres et encapsulées est évaluée pour la première fois dans notre étude et comparée à celle d'un médicament standard : la galantamine.

A. Cas de l'huile de costus

L'HE du costus et les NP correspondantes ont inhibé l'activité de l'acétylcholinestérase et de la butyrylcholinestérase de manière dose-dépendante, comme illustré dans la **Figure 4.28**.

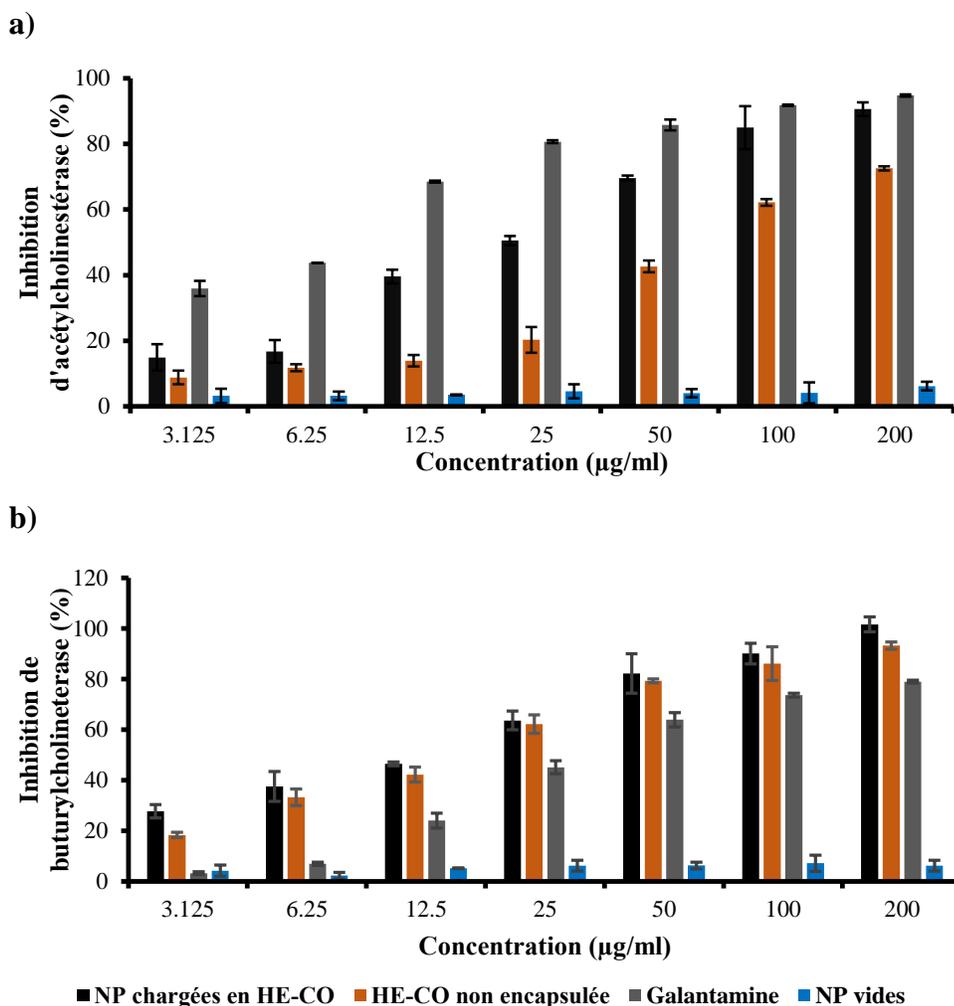


Figure 4.28. Inhibition par l'huile de costus, les nanoparticules et la galantamine de l'acétylcholinestérase (a) et de la butyrylcholinestérase (b).

Concernant la butyrylcholinestérase, les NP chargées en huile ont montré une meilleure inhibition que la galantamine. À la concentration la plus élevée (200 µg/ml), l'ordre d'inhibition est : NP chargées en huile (101.6%) > huile non encapsulée (93.2%) > galantamine (78.9%) ; Alors que pour l'acétylcholinestérase, il est comme suit : galantamine (94.8%) > NP chargées en huile (90.6%) > huile non encapsulée (72.6%) (voir **Tableau 4.9**).

Tableau 4.9. Résultats de l'activité anticholinestérase de l'huile de costus, des nanoparticules et de la galantamine.

C($\mu\text{g/ml}$)	3.125	6.25	12.5	25	50	100	200
Inhibition de l'acétylcholinestérase %							
Huile	8.8 \pm 2.1	11.8 \pm 1.1	13.9 \pm 1.8	20.3 \pm 3.9	42.7 \pm 1.8	62.2 \pm 1.0	72.6 \pm 0.6
NP chargées	14.9 \pm 4.0	16.7 \pm 3.4	46.3 \pm 2.1	58.2 \pm 2.7	73.0 \pm 4.0	85.0 \pm 6.5	90.6 \pm 2.1
NP vides	3.2 \pm 2.2	3.2 \pm 1.3	3.5 \pm 0.1	4.6 \pm 2.1	4.0 \pm 1.3	4.1 \pm 3.2	6.2 \pm 1.3
Galantamine	35.9 \pm 2.3	43.8 \pm 0.0	68.5 \pm 0.3	80.7 \pm 0.4	85.8 \pm 1.6	91.8 \pm 0.2	94.8 \pm 0.3
Inhibition de la butyrylcholinestérase %							
Huile	18.3 \pm 2.6	33.3 \pm 3.3	42.2 \pm 2.9	62.2 \pm 3.7	79.3 \pm 0.7	88.3 \pm 6.7	93.2 \pm 1.5
NP chargées	27.7 \pm 1.1	37.5 \pm 5.9	46.4 \pm 0.7	63.6 \pm 3.7	82.1 \pm 7.8	90.0 \pm 3.3	101.6 \pm 2.9
NP vides	4.2 \pm 2.2	2.3 \pm 1.3	5.2 \pm 0.1	6.2 \pm 2.1	6.3 \pm 1.3	7.2 \pm 3.2	6.2 \pm 2.1
Galantamine	3.3 \pm 0.6	6.9 \pm 0.6	24.0 \pm 2.9	45.1 \pm 2.6	63.8 \pm 2.8	73.6 \pm 0.8	78.9 \pm 0.6

C : Concentration.

En comparant l'inhibition des NP vides avec ceux contenant l'huile contre les deux enzymes, on suggère que l'huile de costus présente une activité anti-Alzheimer. Ce résultat est en accord avec celui du Ponnusankar et al. lorsqu'ils ont testé l'inhibition *in vitro* de l'acétyl- et de la butyrylcholinestérase par l'extrait méthanolique des racines du costus [344]. D'autres travaux ont également révélé que les lactones sesquiterpéniques ont un effet anticholinestérasique [345–347].

Li et ses collaborateurs ont rapporté que l'effet biologique du costunolide et du dehydrocostus lactone, les principaux constituants de notre huile, est lié à leur squelette α -méthylène- γ -butyrolactone [348]. Au fait, la double liaison de l' α -méthylène- γ -butyrolactone constitue un site électrophile capable de s'engager dans des réactions de type Michael avec des groupes nucléophiles de certains groupes essentiels des sites actifs dans le corps humain tels les acides aminés et les peptides (L-cystéine, glutathion) ou les enzymes contenant des groupes sulfhydriles (**Fig.4.29**) [349]. Selon l'étude menée par Frasco et al., la présence de groupes sulfhydriles libres dans les molécules de cholinestérases humaines entraîne une inhibition micromolaire irréversible [350].

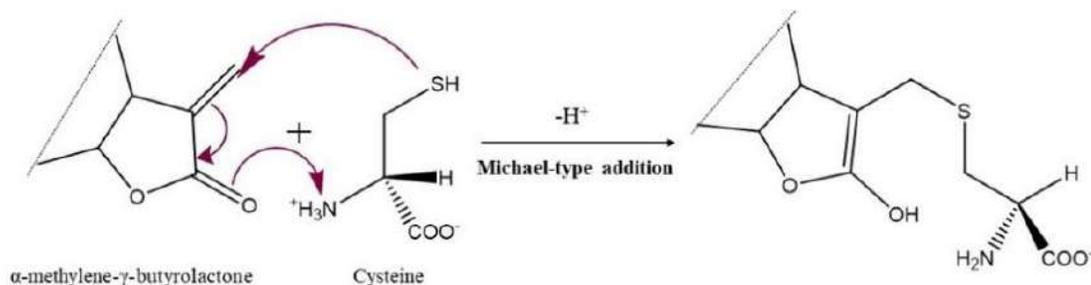


Figure 4.29. Mécanisme de l'addition de type Michael au fragment α -méthylène- γ -butyrolactone des lactones sesquiterpéniques. La structure contenant le groupement sulfhydryle (-SH) représente le nucléophile (résidu de protéine : cystéine, par exemple).

Dans la présente étude, l'activité anti-Alzheimer *in vitro* est réalisée sur la butyrylcholinestérase dérivant du sérum de cheval similaire à 90.1% à celle de l'homme [351] et sur l'acétylcholinestérase provenant d'*Electrophorus electricus*.

Donc nous pouvons considérer que la butyrylcholinestérase utilisée contient des groupes sulfhydryles capables de réagir avec l' α -méthylène- γ -butyrolactone du costunolide et du dehydrocostus lactone. Ce qui explique l'effet inhibiteur élevé de l'essence de costus par rapport à la galantamine. Les valeurs de CI50 obtenues avec l'huile libre et la galantamine sont respectivement 17.4 et 34.7 $\mu\text{g/ml}$, comme illustré dans le **Tableau 4.10**.

Tableau 4.10. Concentrations d'inhibition de 50% des enzymes cholinestérases pour l'huile de costus, les nanoparticules et la galantamine.

	CI50 (Acétylcholinestérase) ($\mu\text{g/ml}$)	CI50 (Butyrylcholinestérase) ($\mu\text{g/ml}$)
Huile essentielle	67.4 \pm 3.7	17.4 \pm 1.1
NP chargées	25.0 \pm 2.0	14.9 \pm 1.9
Galantamine	6.3 \pm 1.2	34.7 \pm 1.9

Parallèlement, il est rapporté que l'acétylcholinestérase de l'*Electrophorus electricus* ne contient pas de groupes sulfhydryles libres et que l'inhibition enzymatique est millimolaire [350]. Cela permet d'expliquer la valeur élevée de CI50 de l'huile de costus (CI50=67.4 \pm 3.7 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) ; comparativement à celle contre la butyrylcholinestérase (CI50 = 17.4 \pm 1.1 $\mu\text{g/ml}$).

La **Figure 4.28** illustre également que l'huile de costus sous sa forme encapsulée montre une meilleure activité anti-cholinestérase que l'huile non encapsulée. Une diminution

des valeurs de CI50 est notée pour les deux enzymes, comme représenté dans le **Tableau 4.10**. Les valeurs de CI50 sont de 25.0 et 67.4 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ contre l'acétylcholinestérase ; et de 14.9 et 17.4 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ contre la butyrylcholinestérase pour les NP chargées en huile et l'huile non encapsulée, respectivement. Cela est conforme aux rapports précédents où ils affirmaient une amélioration de l'activité biologique lors de l'encapsulation des HE [43].

Comme rapporté précédemment, l'extrait méthanolique des racines du *Saussurea lappa* inhibe l'acétyl- et la butyrylcholinestérase respectivement à 58.7 et 94.5 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ [344]. Ces valeurs sont nettement plus élevées que celles obtenues dans la présente étude. Alors, les NP synthétisées peuvent s'avérer prometteuses pour l'inhibition des enzymes associées à la maladie d'Alzheimer. Outre la concentration d'inhibition des enzymes, le processus d'extraction vert assure une très bonne qualité des extraits en respectant les exigences de l'OMS.

B. Cas de l'huile des noyaux de dattes

Les résultats de l'inhibition de l'activité des cholinestérases par l'HV des noyaux de dattes libre et encapsulée sont représentés dans la **Figure 4.30**.

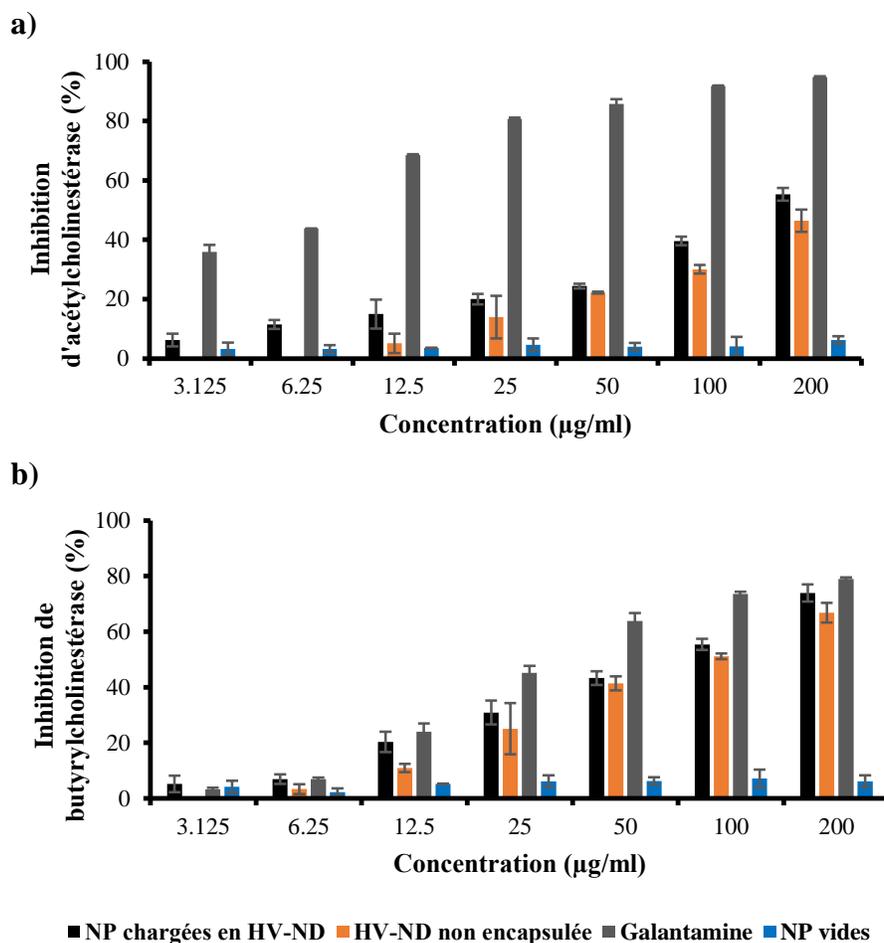


Figure 4.30. Inhibition par l'huile des noyaux de dattes, les nanoparticules et la galantamine de l'acétylcholinestérase (a) et de la butyrylcholinestérase (b).

Une faible activité est constatée sur l'acétylcholinestérase. La galantamine a montré un effet inhibiteur plus puissant en termes de pourcentage (94.8%) pour une concentration de 200µg/ml suivi par les NP contenant l'huile et l'huile non encapsulée avec des taux d'inhibition de l'ordre de 55.3 et 46.3%, respectivement. De plus, une activité modérée de l'huile est remarquée contre la butyrylcholinestérase ; les pourcentages d'inhibition sont de l'ordre de 66.8, 73.9 et 78.9% pour l'huile non encapsulée, les NP chargées et la galantamine, respectivement (**Tableau 4.11**). La mesure des CI50 de l'huile libre et encapsulée corrobore l'activité modérée de l'huile des noyaux de dattes sur les deux enzymes (voir **Tableau 4.12**).

Tableau 4.11. Résultats de l'activité anticholinestérase de l'huile des noyaux de dattes, des nanoparticules et de la galantamine.

C($\mu\text{g/ml}$)	3.125	6.25	12.5	25	50	100	200
Inhibition de l'acétylcholinestérase %							
Huile végétale	-	-	5.1 ± 3.2	13.9 ± 7.2	22.1 ± 0.3	30.1 ± 1.4	46.4 ± 3.8
NP chargées	6.2 ± 2.1	11.5 ± 1.5	14.9 ± 4.9	20.0 ± 1.8	24.4 ± 0.8	39.6 ± 1.4	55.3 ± 1.1
NP vides	3.2 ± 2.2	3.2 ± 1.3	3.5 ± 0.1	4.6 ± 2.1	4.0 ± 1.3	4.1 ± 3.2	6.2 ± 1.3
Galantamine	35.9 ± 2.3	43.8 ± 0.0	68.5 ± 0.3	80.7 ± 0.4	85.8 ± 1.6	91.8 ± 0.2	94.8 ± 0.3
Inhibition de la butyrylcholinestérase %							
Huile végétale	-	3.4 ± 1.7	10.9 ± 1.4	25.1 ± 9.2	41.4 ± 2.5	51.1 ± 1.0	66.8 ± 3.6
NP chargées	5.2 ± 2.9	6.9 ± 1.7	20.3 ± 3.7	30.9 ± 4.3	43.3 ± 2.4	55.4 ± 2.0	73.9 ± 3.1
NP vides	4.2 ± 2.2	2.3 ± 1.3	5.2 ± 0.1	6.2 ± 2.1	6.3 ± 1.3	7.2 ± 3.2	6.2 ± 2.1
Galantamine	3.3 ± 0.6	6.9 ± 0.6	24.0 ± 2.9	45.1 ± 2.6	63.8 ± 2.8	73.6 ± 0.8	78.9 ± 0.6

C : Concentration.

Tableau 4.12. Concentrations d'inhibition de 50% des enzymes cholinestérases pour l'huile des noyaux de dattes, les nanoparticules et la galantamine.

	CI50 (Acétylcholinestérase) ($\mu\text{g/ml}$)	CI50 (Butyrylcholinestérase)($\mu\text{g/ml}$)
Huile végétale	> 200	98.1 ± 6.8
NP chargées	168.7 ± 6.9	88.6 ± 6.3
Galantamine	6.3 ± 1.2	34.7 ± 1.9

Similairement à l'étude menée sur l'huile de costus, l'inhibition de la butyrylcholinestérase se fait majoritairement par l'action de l'inhibiteur sur les groupements sulfhydriles de l'enzyme via la réaction de Michael. Cette dernière s'agit d'une addition nucléophile d'un carbanion sur un composé carbonyle insaturé (aldéhyde, cétone, ester, nitrile, amide) formant ainsi une liaison carbone-carbone, ou carbone-soufre. Différentes études ont révélé la réticulation des dérivés de triglycérides (acide oléique) avec des dérivés aminés et phosphorés par l'addition de Michael [352,353]. Donc, on peut déduire que l'acide oléique, composant majoritaire de l'huile des noyaux de dattes, permet d'inhiber de la même manière la butyrylcholinestérase. Ceci ne peut s'appliquer à l'acétylcholinestérase utilisée vue qu'elle ne contient pas de groupements sulfhydriles.

Parallèlement, plusieurs rapports ont illustré l'effet majeur des polyphénols sur l'inhibition des enzymes cholinestérases et plus particulièrement l'acétylcholinestérase [354,355]. Ils ont montré que l'acide cinnamique possède un potentiel inhibiteur d'acétylcholinestérase trois fois plus élevé que le médicament standard (donépézil) [356]. De

plus, Balkis et al. ont noté que la position, le nombre, la substitution des groupes hydroxyles et l'état d'oxydation des flavonoïdes peuvent varier l'efficacité de l'inhibition de cette enzyme [357]. En tenant compte des résultats de ces travaux, on peut attribuer la faible activité de l'HV sur l'acétylcholinestérase à sa teneur très faible en polyphénols totaux.

Dans l'ensemble, l'huile des noyaux de dattes possède une activité anti-Alzheimer modérée. Pour ce qui est de l'huile de costus, elle peut servir comme alternative aux anticholinestérasiques utilisés actuellement dans la prise en charge de la maladie malgré leur effets indésirables tels que les vomissements, les nausées, la diarrhée, la confusion et l'agitation [358].

4.7.4. Résultat de l'activité antidiabétique

Le diabète sucré, un trouble métabolique caractérisé par une hyperglycémie attribuable à une carence insulinaire, est devenu une cause importante de mortalité et de morbidité à l'échelle mondiale [359]. L'un des plus grands défis de la gestion du diabète est le contrôle efficace et cohérent de l'hyperglycémie postprandiale. Le régime alimentaire sain des personnes diabétiques fait l'objet de nombreux débats. Actuellement, la plupart des experts sont convaincus que l'apport total en glucides est un facteur relativement fiable pour prédire la glycémie postprandiale [360]. L'inhibition de l' α -amylase et de l' α -glucosidase, enzymes impliquées dans la digestion des glucides, peut réduire considérablement l'hyperglycémie postprandiale [361,362]. En effet, l' α -amylase décompose les glucides à chaîne longue ; tandis que l' α -glucosidase convertit l'amidon et les disaccharides en sucre simple (glucose) [296]. Par conséquent, l'inhibition de ces deux enzymes semble être une stratégie importante dans la gestion du diabète sucré. Dans ce contexte, l'effet antidiabétique de l'huile de costus et celui des noyaux de dattes est testé sur ces enzymes, pour la première fois, *in vitro* et comparé à celui d'un médicament standard ; l'acarbose. Les résultats sont présentés comme suit :

A. Cas de l'huile de costus

L'huile de costus et les NP correspondantes ont montré une inhibition dose-dépendante des α -amylase et α -glucosidase, comme illustré dans la **Figure 4.31** et le **Tableau 4.13**.

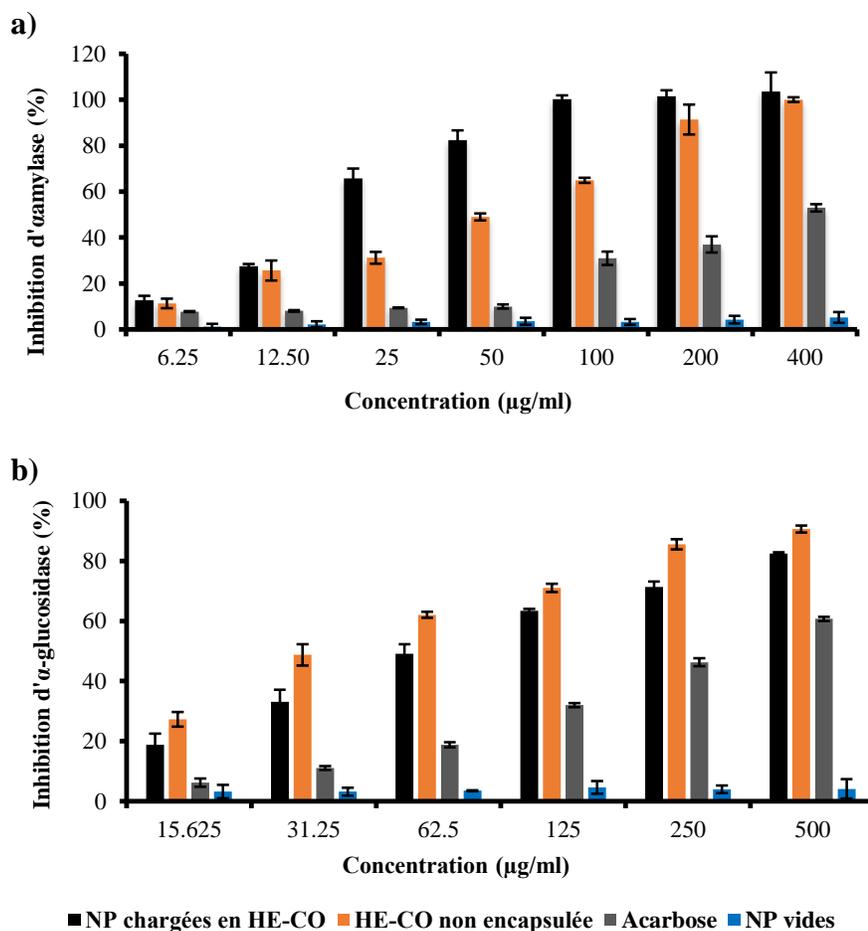


Figure 4.31. Inhibition par l'huile de costus, les nanoparticules et l'acarbose de l' α -amylase (a) et de l' α -glucosidase (b).

Tableau 4.13. Résultats de l'activité antidiabétique de l'huile de costus, des nanoparticules et de l'acarbose.

C ($\mu\text{g/ml}$)	6.25	12.5	25	50	100	200	400
Inhibition de l'α-amylase %							
Huile essentielle	11.3 ± 2.0	25.7 ± 4.4	31.2 ± 2.5	49.0 ± 1.5	64.9 ± 1.0	91.4 ± 6.5	100.0 ± 1.0
NP chargées	12.7 ± 2.0	27.5 ± 1.0	65.8 ± 4.3	82.4 ± 4.2	100.3 ± 1.6	101.5 ± 2.7	100.5 ± 8.3
NP vides	1.2 ± 1.2	2.2 ± 1.3	3.3 ± 1.0	3.6 ± 1.5	3.3 ± 1.3	4.3 ± 1.6	5.2 ± 2.3
Acarbose	7.8 ± 0.2	8.1 ± 0.3	9.5 ± 0.1	10.7 ± 0.9	31.8 ± 2.9	37.2 ± 3.5	53.1 ± 1.6
C ($\mu\text{g/ml}$)	15.625	31.25	62.5	125	250	500	
Inhibition de l'α-glucosidase %							
Huile essentielle	27.3 ± 2.4	48.7 ± 3.5	62.0 ± 1.0	71.0 ± 1.4	85.6 ± 1.7	90.7 ± 1.6	
NP chargées	18.7 ± 3.8	33.0 ± 4.1	49.1 ± 3.1	63.0 ± 0.6	71.3 ± 1.8	82.5 ± 0.4	
NP vides	3.2 ± 2.2	3.2 ± 1.3	3.5 ± 0.1	4.6 ± 2.1	4.0 ± 1.3	4.1 ± 3.2	
Acarbose	6.2 ± 1.4	11.5 ± 0.6	18.8 ± 0.8	32.0 ± 0.7	46.2 ± 1.3	60.7 ± 0.7	

C : Concentration.

En comparant l'effet des capsules formulées avec celui des capsules vides, nous déduisons que l'essence du costus est pourvue d'un effet antidiabétique. Résultat confirmé par Raafat et ses collaborateurs dont l'étude a révélé que l'extrait des racines du costus est plus efficace dans le contrôle du diabète gestationnel chez des femmes enceintes avec un profil de sécurité élevé sur le fœtus [363]. La **Figure 4.31** montre également que l'activité inhibitrice de l'huile est extrêmement forte en comparaison avec l'acarbose. De cette étude, il apparaît clairement dans le **Tableau 4.14** que les concentrations d'inhibition des 50% des enzymes par l'huile non encapsulée sont plus faibles que celle obtenues avec le standard. La valeur varie de 65.9 à 365.3 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ pour l' α -amylase, et de 42.1 à 271.7 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ pour l' α -glucosidase.

Tableau 4.14. Concentrations d'inhibition de 50% d' α -amylase et d' α -glucosidase pour l'huile de costus, les nanoparticules et l'acarbose.

	CI50 (α -amylase) ($\mu\text{g/ml}$)	CI50 (α -glucosidase) ($\mu\text{g/ml}$)
Huile essentielle	65.9 \pm 1.7	42.10 \pm 3.0
NP chargées	22.9 \pm 0.3	75.8 \pm 4.4
Acarbose	365.3 \pm 10.7	271.7 \pm 7.1

D'après Eliza et al., l'effet antidiabétique de l'HE est lié à la présence du costunolide. Ils ont prouvé que l'administration de cette molécule chez des rats diabétiques (20 mg/kg de poids corporel) réduit le glucose plasmatique de façon dose-dépendante, diminue l'hémoglobine glycosylée et augmente l'insuline plasmatique et le glycogène tissulaire [364]. Dans une autre étude, la sensibilité accrue de l'insuline à absorber le glucose est attribuée à la stimulation des îlots bêta pancréatiques à sécréter de l'insuline par cette même molécule [365].

En ce qui concerne le mécanisme d'inhibition des enzymes clés contrôlant le diabète, presque toutes les α -glucosidases sont inhibées au niveau de leur groupements sulfhydriles [366,367]. Ceci n'est pas le cas avec l' α -amylase, malgré la présence de ces groupements ; ce qui explique cette différence entre les valeurs de CI50 des deux enzymes.

Il est également rapporté que les α -amylases possèdent des groupements sulfhydriles, mais l'effet inhibiteur de l'huile de costus n'est pas similaire à celui contre l' α -glucosidase. Schramm et al. ont constaté que les groupements sulfhydriles ne sont pas absolument

nécessaires dans la réaction d'inhibition de l' α -amylase puisque leur oxydation complète coïncide avec une inactivation à 80% de l'enzyme [368]. Ces observations suggèrent que le groupement α -méthylène- γ -butyrolactone des lactones sesquiterpéniques est indispensable pour l'activité anti-glucosidase. De plus, l'activité contre l' α -amylase est peut-être due à la présence d'autres groupements doués d'une activité inhibitrice. Padilla-Gonzalez et al. ont rapporté que l'effet thérapeutique des sesquiterpènes lactones ne se limite pas à la fraction lactone, bien que d'autres fragments structuraux comme les groupes époxy, peroxy ou aldéhyde ne doivent pas être exclus [349].

En ce qui concerne l' α -amylase, l'encapsulation de l'huile de costus a permis d'améliorer l'inhibition (CI50) par rapport à l'huile libre de 65.9 à 22.9 $\mu\text{g/ml}$, comme indiqué dans le **Tableau 4.14**. Des résultats similaires sont rapportés où les capsules formulées avec l'extrait de *Psoralea corylifolia* ont montré un meilleur effet antidiabétique comparativement à la forme libre [369]. Dans une autre étude réalisée par Kavitha et al., l'amélioration de l'activité antidiabétique de l'extrait de *Nilgirianthus ciliatus* est liée à l'encapsulation de l'huile [370]. Cependant, des résultats inattendus sont constatés avec l' α -glucosidase où les NP chargées (CI50=75.8 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) ont présenté une activité d'inhibition plus faible par rapport à la forme libre (CI50=42.1 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) (**Tableau 4.14**).

B. Cas de l'huile des noyaux de dattes

L'étude de l'activité antidiabétique est réalisée avec l'huile des noyaux de dattes et les NP correspondantes et les résultats sont illustrés dans la **Figure 4.32**.

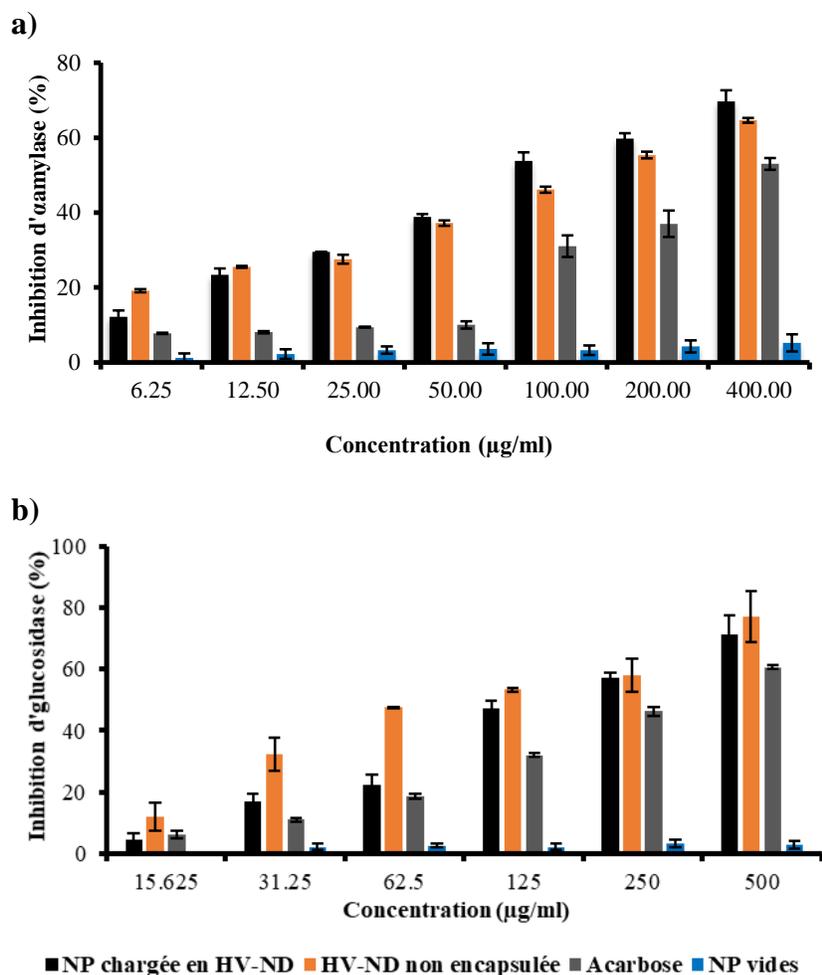


Figure 4.32. Inhibition par l'huile des noyaux de dattes, les nanoparticules et l'acarbose de l' α -amylase (a) et de l' α -glucosidase (b).

Une inhibition dose dépendante des deux enzymes est constatée. Les NP chargées en huile ont montré un effet inhibiteur de l' α -amylase plus important avec un pourcentage de 69.7% à la concentration de 400 μ g/ml comparativement à l'huile non encapsulée et l'acarbose avec des taux d'inhibition de 64.6 et 53.0%, respectivement. De la réponse de l'inhibition de l' α -glucosidase par l'acarbose (60.7%) et l'huile sous ses deux formes libre (77.1%) et encapsulée (71.3%), il apparaît que l'acarbose est la moins efficace (**Tableau 4.15**). Résultats confirmés par les valeurs des CI50 (voir **Tableau 4.16**).

Tableau 4.15. Résultats de l'activité antidiabétique de l'huile des noyaux de dattes, des nanoparticules et de l'acarbose.

C (µg/ml)	6.25	12.5	25	50	100	200	400
Inhibition de lα-amylase %							
Huile végétale	19.1±0.4	25.5±0.2	27.5±1.2	37.2±0.7	46.1±0.8	55.4±0.9	64.6±0.7
NP chargées	12.2±1.7	23.4±1.7	29.5±0.1	38.8±0.8	53.8±2.3	59.3±1.5	69.7±3.0
NP vides	1.2 ± 1.2	2.2 ± 1.3	3.3 ± 1.0	3.6 ± 1.5	3.3 ± 1.3	4.3 ± 1.6	5.2 ± 2.3
Acarbose	7.8 ± 0.2	8.1 ± 0.3	9.5 ± 0.1	10.7±0.9	31.8±2.9	37.2±3.5	53.1±1.6
C (µg/ml)	15.625	31.25	62.5	125	250	500	
Inhibition de l'α-glucosidase %							
Huile végétale	12.0±4.5	32.4±5.4	47.6±0.1	53.3±0.5	58.2±5.4	77.1±8.2	
NP chargées	4.4±2.0	16.9±2.7	22.3±3.2	47.3±2.4	57.2±1.9	71.3±5.9	
NP vides	3.2 ± 2.2	3.2 ± 1.3	3.5 ± 0.1	4.6 ± 2.1	4.0 ± 1.3	4.1 ± 3.2	
Acarbose	6.2±1.4	11.5±0.6	18.8±0.8	32.0±0.7	46.2± 1.3	60.7±0.7	

C : Concentration

Tableau 4.16. Concentrations d'inhibition de 50% d' α -amylase et d' α -glucosidase pour l'huile des noyaux de dattes, les nanoparticules et l'acarbose.

	CI50 (α -amylase) (µg/ml)	CI50 (α -glucosidase) (µg/ml)
Huile végétale	148.9±7.2	88.9±2.3
NP chargées	87.6±4.8	155.3±6.6
Acarbose	365.3±10.7	271.7±7.1

En comparant l'activité des NP chargées à celle des NP vides, on en déduit que l'effet antidiabétique est dû à la présence de l'huile des noyaux de dattes et plus précisément aux acides gras insaturés. En effet, plusieurs études ont mis en évidence l'efficacité de ces derniers dans la gestion du diabète du type 2 [371–373]. L'analyse par GC-MS a révélé que l'huile des noyaux de dattes est constituée principalement d'acide gras insaturés (58.027%) dont 47.7% sous forme d'acide oléique et 8.8% d'acide linoléique.

En examinant le **Tableau 4.16**, nous constatons que l'huile des noyaux de dattes est plus efficace dans l'inhibition de l' α glucosidase par rapport à l' α amylase ; ainsi les valeurs de CI50 sont de l'ordre de 88.9 et 148.9 µg/ml, respectivement. Comme signalé précédemment, le mécanisme d'inhibition de l' α glucosidase est dû aux groupements sulfhydriles de l'enzyme via la réaction de Michael. Effectivement l'acide oléique peut engendrer ce type de réaction [374,375]. Des études antérieures ont confirmé ce résultat. Des analyses cinétiques menées par Su et ses collaborateurs ont montré que l'acide oléique est un

inhibiteur compétitif de l' α -glucosidase [374]. De plus, Miyazawa et al. ont constaté que l'augmentation du nombre de doubles liaisons des acides gras améliore l'effet inhibiteur de l' α -glucosidase [375].

Concernant l'inhibition de l' α -amylase, il est déjà signalé qu'elle ne dépend pas uniquement des groupements sulfhydriles. D'ailleurs, les polyphénols peuvent aussi inhiber l' α -amylase d'une façon compétitive, non-compétitive ou mixte [376]. Le taux faible des polyphénols présents dans l'huile explique l'activité modérée sur cette enzyme.

Un autre résultat similaire à celui de l'huile de costus est observé. L'encapsulation de l'HV a amélioré son activité seulement sur l' α -amylase (**Tableau 4.16**).

L'ensemble des résultats obtenus montre que les deux huiles étudiées peuvent être utilisées pour leur effet antidiabétique comme alternatives aux hypoglycémiantes oraux dont la prise est souvent associée à des effets indésirables tels que : la diarrhée, l'inconfort gastro-intestinal, les nausées, les flatulences, les crampes et la prise de poids [377].

**CONCLUSION
GENERALE
&
PERSPECTIVES**

CONCLUSION GENERALE & PERSPECTIVES

Devant la montée en puissance de la demande en produits naturels, la médecine a connu au cours de la dernière décennie une émergence considérable dans l'emploi des médicaments à base de plantes par rapport aux substances synthétiques en raison de leur coût, accessibilité et efficacité. Dans ce contexte s'inscrit notre thèse qui a pour objectif de formuler l'huile essentielle du costus (*Saussurea lappa* CB. Clarke) et l'huile végétale des noyaux de dattes (*Phoenix dactylifera* L.) pour des applications pharmaceutiques. En se basant sur la revue bibliographique établie, une stratégie est adoptée pour bien élucider les différentes étapes entreprises pour l'élaboration de ce travail qui peut être décomposée en trois parties distinctes :

- La première partie est consacrée à l'extraction de deux variétés d'huiles ; l'huile végétale des noyaux de dattes et l'huile essentielle du costus indien par un procédé vert et la détermination de leurs compositions chimiques.
- La deuxième a trait au processus d'encapsulation de ces extraits principalement la nanoprécipitation en optimisant les différents paramètres influant sur la synthèse des nanoparticules vides, suivi de l'encapsulation des huiles dans les nanocapsules.
- Dans la troisième partie, certaines activités biologiques des capsules chargées en huiles sont examinées, testées et comparées à celles des extraits non encapsulés et des standards.

L'analyse des travaux effectués a permis d'aboutir aux résultats suivants :

Les rendements de l'extraction par CO₂ supercritique dans les conditions optimales des deux matrices végétales sélectionnées sont respectivement 23 et 14% pour les racines du costus et les noyaux de dattes. L'analyse des extraits par GC/MS a permis d'identifier les composés majoritaires de chacun d'eux en révélant que l'huile végétale des noyaux de dattes se compose principalement d'acides gras insaturés tel que l'acide oléique (47.7%).

Pour l'huile essentielle du costus, le dehydrocostus lactone (55.39%) et le costunolide (8.87%) (des lactones sesquiterpéniques) apparaissent comme principaux constituants.

A propos de l'encapsulation, des nanoparticules polymères à base d'Eudragit®RS100 sont utilisées comme nanovecteurs des huiles afin d'améliorer leurs stabilités et booster leurs biodisponibilités. Parmi les techniques d'élaboration de ces nanoparticules, la nanoprécipitation a été choisie vue sa simplicité, rapidité et reproductibilité. Le développement des nanoparticules est basé sur le choix approprié de la quantité du polymère, le type du solvant organique, le rapport phase organique / phase aqueuse ainsi que la vitesse d'agitation pour leur conférer les propriétés requises. Ainsi, les conditions optimales donnant des nanoparticules avec des propriétés colloïdales convenables sont fixées à 1/2 pour le rapport volumique solvant / non solvant, à 16mg/ml pour la concentration en polymère et à 500rpm pour la vitesse d'agitation.

Une fois synthétisées, les nanoparticules chargées en huiles sont caractérisées. L'analyse par la diffusion dynamique de la lumière a révélé une taille comprise entre 145 et 217 nm plus importante que celle des nanoparticules vides et un potentiel ζ supérieur en valeur absolue à 40mV (pH=6.5) dans les deux cas étudiés leur garantissant une bonne stabilité. Ce résultat est confirmé par la variation de la température et du pH. Les nanocapsules visualisées par microscopie électronique en transmission ont présenté une forme sphérique et régulière. L'analyse des spectres IR montre des interactions entre les huiles et le polymère. Une spectroscopie RMN est suggérée pour identifier clairement ces différentes interactions qui ont eu lieu lors de l'encapsulation. Parallèlement à ces paramètres, le taux d'encapsulation est déterminé par UV-visible. Cette technique a permis d'accéder au taux d'encapsulation de l'huile des noyaux de dattes uniquement ; 98% de l'huile sont encapsulées.

La valorisation des nanoparticules développées est mise en évidence à travers différents effets biologiques étudiés *in vitro* tels que : l'effet antioxydant, anti-inflammatoire, anti-Alzheimer et antidiabétique.

Nous soulignons le potentiel prometteur des nanoparticules à améliorer la performance biologique des entités bioactives. En effet, les nanoparticules contenant l'huile de costus exercent un effet anti-Alzheimer plus élevé que celui de l'huile non

encapsulée, avec des CI50 de 25.0 et 14.9 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ sur l'acétylcholinestérase et la butyrylcholinestérase, respectivement ; un effet antidiabétique plus marqué que le médicament standard sur l' α -amylase (22.9 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) et l' α -glucosidase (75.8 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) ; ainsi qu'une activité anti-inflammatoire remarquable révélée par la réduction de l'activité enzymatique de la métalloprotéase MMP-9 et de l'expression des cytokines inflammatoires: TNF- α , GM-CSF et IL1 β . Concernant les nanoparticules contenant l'huile des noyaux de dattes, une activité antidiabétique supérieure à celle du médicament standard est enregistrée. Les concentrations d'inhibition de 50% d' α -amylase et d' α -glucosidase sont respectivement 87.6 et 155.3 $\mu\text{g/ml}$. Son effet anti-Alzheimer modéré est confirmé par les valeurs des CI50 ; 168.7 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ pour l'acétylcholinestérase et 88.6 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ pour la butyrylcholinestérase. De plus, une faible activité antioxydante constatée pour ces nanoparticules est attribuée à la faible teneur en polyphénols totaux.

Pour conclure, nous avons montré à travers ce manuscrit, que les nanoparticules développées chargées de molécules naturelles constituent des alternatives très intéressantes par rapport aux différents médicaments d'origine synthétique dans la prise en charge de la maladie d'Alzheimer, du diabète ou des maladies inflammatoires. Par ailleurs, des études complémentaires sont recommandées pour la poursuite de ces travaux de recherche. Concernant les particules contenant l'huile des noyaux de dattes, il faut envisager une étude de cytotoxicité sur des lignées cellulaires afin de déterminer la concentration requise non néfaste pour l'organisme humain ainsi qu'une évaluation de l'effet antioxydant en déterminant l'activité des nanoparticules sur des enzymes antioxydantes endogènes suite à l'irradiation UV des peaux humaines saines. En outre, nos perspectives concernant les particules contenant l'huile de costus portent sur la détermination de l'efficacité d'encapsulation et l'étude de l'expression de l'ARNm d'autres cytokines inflammatoires tels que : IL8, chemokine ligand (CCL2) etc. Nous pouvons également approfondir notre travail de recherche sur le plan clinique *in vivo*. Il s'agit donc de discriminer les propriétés pharmacocinétiques, la biodisponibilité et la voie métabolique impliquée. De plus, nous proposons d'étendre cette étude à la recherche d'autres activités biologiques de ces extraits encapsulés à savoir l'activité antimicrobienne, anticancéreuse et larvicide.

BIBLIOGRAPHIE

BIBLIOGRAPHIE

- [1] Mainardi T, Kapoor S, Bielory L. Complementary and alternative medicine: herbs, phytochemicals and vitamins and their immunologic effects. *J allergu cinical Immunol* 2009; 123: 283–94.
- [2] Robinson MM, Xiaorui Z. The world medicines situation (Traditional medicines: global situation, issues and challenges). *World Health Organization*.
- [3] Wachtel-Galor S, Benzie IFF. Herbal medicine: An introduction to its history, usage, regulation, current trends, and research needs. In: Benzie IFF, Wachtel-Galor S (eds) *Herbal Medicine: Biomolecular and Clinical Aspects*. CRC Press, 2011, pp. 1–10.
- [4] Rates SMK. Plants as source of drugs. *Toxicon* 2001; 39: 603–613.
- [5] Selles C. *Valorisation d'une plante médicinale à activité antidiabétique de la région de Tlemcen: Anacyclus pyrethrum L, Application de l'extrait aqueux à l'inhibition de corrosion d'un acier doux dans H2SO4 0.5M*. Thèse de Doctorat, Université Abou Beker Balkaid. Tlemcen, 2012, pp. 3-4.
- [6] Dhifi W, Bellili S, Jazi S, et al. Essential oils' chemical characterization and investigation of some biological activities: A critical review. *Med* 2016; 3: 25.
- [7] Sharifi-Rad J, Sureda A, Tenore GC, et al. Biological activities of essential oils: From plant chemoeology to traditional healing systems. *Molecules* 2017; 22: 70.
- [8] Yara-Varón E, Li Y, Balcells M, et al. Vegetable oils as alternative solvents for green oleo-extraction, purification and formulation of food and natural products. *Molecules* 2017; 22: 1474.
- [9] Kumar A, Sharma A, Upadhyaya KC. Vegetable oil: Nutritional and industrial perspective. *Curr Genomics* 2016; 17: 230–240.
- [10] Moghaddam M, Mehdizadeh L. Chemistry of essential oils and factors influencing their constituents. In: Grumezescu AM, Holban AM (eds) *Soft Chemistry and Food Fermentation*. Elsevier Inc., 2017, pp. 379–419.
- [11] Sagiri SS, Anis A, Pal K. A Review on encapsulation of vegetable oils : Strategies, preparation methods and application. *Polym Plast Technol Eng* 2016; 55: 37–41.
- [12] Saha S, Ghosh M. Antioxidant effect of vegetable oils containing conjugated linolenic acid isomers against induced tissue lipid peroxidation and inflammation in rat model. *Chem Biol Interact* 2011; 190: 109–120.
- [13] Kochikuzhyil BM, Devi K, Fattepur SR. Effect of saturated fatty acid-rich dietary vegetable oils on lipid profile, antioxidant enzymes and glucose tolerance in diabetic rats. *Indian J Pharmacol* 2010; 42: 142–145.
- [14] Yu FL, Greenlaw R, Fang Q, et al. Studies on the chemopreventive potentials of vegetable oils and unsaturated fatty acids against breast cancer carcinogenesis at initiation. *Eur J Cancer Prev* 2004; 13: 239–248.
- [15] Ganesan K, Sukalingam K, Xu B. Impact of consumption and cooking manners of vegetable oils on cardiovascular diseases-A critical review. *Trends Food Sci Technol* 2018; 71: 132–154.
- [16] Adorjan B, Buchbauer G. Biological properties of essential oils: an updated review. *Flavour Fragr J* 2010; 25: 407–426.
- [17] Raut JS, Karuppayil SM. A status review on the medicinal properties of essential oils. *Ind Crops Prod* 2014; 62: 250–264.
- [18] Mihai AL, Popa ME. Essential oils utilization in food industry - a literature review.

- Sci Bull Ser F Biotechnol* 2013; 17: 187–192.
- [19] Ribeiro-Santos R, Andrade M, DeMelo NR, et al. Use of essential oils in active food packaging: Recent advances and future trends. *Trends Food Sci Technol* 2017; 61: 132–140.
- [20] Isman MB, Miresmailli S, MacHial C. Commercial opportunities for pesticides based on plant essential oils in agriculture, industry and consumer products. *Phytochem Rev* 2011; 10: 197–204.
- [21] Najib BM, Amine F, Abdelkrin K. Méthodes d'extraction et de distillation des huiles essentielles : Revue de littérature. *Rev Agrobiol* 2019; 9: 1653–1659.
- [22] Penchev PI. *Étude des procédés d'extraction et de purification de produits bioactifs à partir de plantes par couplage de techniques séparatives à basses et hautes pressions*. Thèse de Doctorat, Université de Toulouse, 2010; pp. 16-23.
- [23] Mnayer D. *Eco-Extraction des huiles essentielles et des arômes alimentaires en vue d'une application comme agents antioxydants et antimicrobiens*. Thèse de Doctorat, Université d'Avignon et des Pays de Vaucluse, 2016; pp.104-106.
- [24] Sodeifian G hossein, Sajadian SA, Ardestani NS. Optimization of essential oil extraction from *Launaea acanthodes* Boiss: Utilization of supercritical carbon dioxide and cosolvent. *J Supercrit Fluids* 2016; 116: 46–56.
- [25] Zermane A, Larkeche O, Meniai A-H, et al. Optimization of Algerian rosemary essential oil extraction yield by supercritical CO₂ using response surface methodology. *Comptes Rendus Chim* 2016; 19: 538–543.
- [26] Haloui I, Meniai A-H. Supercritical CO₂ extraction of essential oil from Algerian Argan (*Argania spinosa* L.) seeds and yield optimization. *Int J Hydrogen Energy* 2017; 42: 12912–12919.
- [27] Larkeche O, Zermane A, Meniai A-H, et al. Optimization of hydrodistillation of rosemary essential oil: Comparison with supercritical CO₂ extraction. *Int J Energy Optim Eng* 2020; 9: 3.
- [28] Vargas CE, Mendes MF, Azevedo DA, et al. Extraction of the essential oil of abajeru (*Chrysobalanus icaco*) using supercritical CO₂. *J Supercrit Fluids* 2010; 54: 171–177.
- [29] Uquiche E, Cirano N, Millao S. Supercritical fluid extraction of essential oil from *Leptocarpha rivularis* using CO₂. *Ind Crops Prod* 2015; 77: 307–314.
- [30] Turek C, Stintzing FC. Stability of essential oils: A review. *Compr Rev Food Sci Food Saf* 2013; 12: 40–53.
- [31] Hădărugă DI, Hădărugă NG, Costescu CI, et al. Thermal and oxidative stability of the *Ocimum basilicum* L. essential oil/ β -cyclodextrin supramolecular system. *Beilstein J Org Chem* 2014; 10: 2809–2820.
- [32] Bogusz MJ, Al-Tufail M. Chapter 18 Toxicological aspects of herbal remedies. In: *Handbook of Analytical Separations. Vol 6*. 2008, pp. 589–610.
- [33] Sarigiannis DA, Karakitsios SP, Gotti A, et al. Exposure to major volatile organic compounds and carbonyls in European indoor environments and associated health risk. *Environ Int* 2011; 37: 743–765.
- [34] Sköld M, Karlberg A-T, Matura M, et al. The fragrance chemical β -caryophyllene—air oxidation and skin sensitization. *Food Chem Toxicol* 2006; 44: 538–545.
- [35] Matthäus B. Oxidation of edible oils. In: Decker EA, Elias RJ, McClements DJ (eds) *Oxidation in Foods and Beverages and Antioxidant Applications*. Woodhead Publishing Limited, 2010, pp. 183–283.
- [36] Chen B, McClements DJ, Decker EA. Minor components in food oils : A critical

- review of their roles on lipid oxidation chemistry in bulk oils and emulsions. *Crit Rev Food Sci Nutr* 2011; 51: 901–916.
- [37] Elmowafy M, Samy A, Abdelaziz AE, et al. Polymeric nanoparticles based topical gel of poorly soluble drug: Formulation, ex-vivo and in vivo evaluation. *Beni-Suef Univ J Basic Appl Sci* 2017; 6: 184–191.
- [38] Bolhassani A, Javan zad S, Aghasadeghi M, et al. Polymeric nanoparticles. *Hum Vaccin Immunother* 2014; 10: 321–332.
- [39] Bilia AR, Guccione C, Isacchi B, et al. Essential oils loaded in nanosystems : A developing strategy for a successful therapeutic approach. *Evidence-Based Complement Altern Med* 2014; 2014: 1–14.
- [40] Gültekin HE, Değim Z. Biodegradable Polymeric Nanoparticles are effective Systems for Controlled Drug Delivery. *FABAD J Pharm Sci* 2013; 38: 107–118.
- [41] Badri W, Miladi K, Agha Q, et al. Effect of process and formulation parameters on polycaprolactone nanoparticles prepared by solvent displacement. *Colloids Surfaces A Physicochem Eng Asp* 2017; 516: 238–244.
- [42] Lammari N, Froiio F, Louaer M, et al. Poly (ethyl acrylate-co-methyl methacrylate-co-trimethylammoniumethyl methacrylate chloride) (Eudragit RS 100) nanocapsules as nanovector carriers for Phoenix dactylifera L. seeds oil: a versatile antidiabetic agent. *Biomacromolecules* 2020; DOI: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1021/acs.biomac.0c00255>.
- [43] Froiio F, Ginot L, Paolino D, et al. Essential oils-loaded polymer particles: Preparation, characterization and antimicrobial property. *Polymers (Basel)* 2019; 11: 1017.
- [44] Santos SS, Lorenzoni A, Pegoraro NS, et al. Formulation and in vitro evaluation of coconut oil-core cationic nanocapsules intended for vaginal delivery of clotrimazole. *Colloids Surfaces B Biointerfaces* 2014; 116: 270–276.
- [45] Contri R V., Ribeiro KLF, Fiel LA, et al. Vegetable oils as core of cationic polymeric nanocapsules: Influence on the physicochemical properties. *J Exp Nanosci* 2013; 8: 913–924.
- [46] Chabrier J. *Plantes médicinales et formes d'utilisation en phytothérapie*. Thèse de Doctorat, Université de Lorraine, 2018, pp.10-11.
- [47] Anne-Sophie Limonier. *La Phytothérapie de demain : les plantes médicinales au cœur de la pharmacie*. Thèse de Doctorat, Université Aix-Marseille, 2018; pp.21.
- [48] OMS (Organisation Mondiale de la Santé). Médecine traditionnelle. 2003.
- [49] Guendzi C. *Contribution à l'analyse physico-chimique de l'huile d'arachides, d'amandes et de leur mélange. Détermination de leurs pouvoirs antimicrobiens*. Mémoire de Master, Université de Tlemcen, 2017; pp.1.
- [50] Barka A. *Evaluation des indices de nature physico-chimiques de quelques huiles alimentaires de friture et impact sur la santé du consommateur*. Mémoire de Master, Université de Tlemcen, 2016; pp.5.
- [51] Lligadas G, Ronda JC, Galia M, et al. Plant oils as platform chemicals for polyurethane synthesis : current state-of-the-art. *Biomacromolecules* 2010; 11: 2825–2835.
- [52] Meier MAR, Jurgen MO, Schubert US. Plant oil renewable resources as green alternatives in polymer science. *Chem Soc Rev* 2007; 36: 1788–1802.
- [53] Xenakis A, Papadimitriou V, Sotiroudis TG. Colloidal structures in natural oils. *Curr Opin Colloid Interface Sci* 2010; 15: 55–60.
- [54] Ahmed J, Ramaswamy HS. Physico-chemical properties of commercial date pastes (Phoenix dactylifera). *J Food Eng* 2006; 76: 348–352.

- [55] Ogungbenle H. Chemical and fatty acid compositions of date palm fruit (*Phoenix dactylifera* L) flour. *Bangladesh J Sci Ind Res* 2011; 46: 255–258.
- [56] Chaira N, Ferchichi A, Mrabet A, et al. Characterisation of date juices extracted from the rest of sorting of Deglet Nour variety. *Biotechnology(Faisalabad)* 2007; 6: 251–256.
- [57] Al-Hooti SN, Sidhu JS, Al-Saqer JM, et al. Chemical composition and quality of date syrup as affected by pectinase/cellulase enzyme treatment. *Food Chem* 2002; 79: 215–220.
- [58] Abdellaoui R, Boukhiar A, Kechadi K, et al. Preparation of a natural candy from date (*Phoenix dactylifera* L.), olive (*Olea europaea* L.), and carob (*Ceratonia siliqua* L.) fruits. *J Food Qual* 2018; 2018: 1–9.
- [59] Matloob MH. Zahdi date vinegar: Production and characterization. *Am J Food Technol* 2014; 9: 231–245.
- [60] Mohammed SSD, Yohanna B, Wartu JR, et al. Wine produced from fermentation of honey slurry and dates palm fruit juice blend using *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* isolated from palm wine. *Int J Biol* 2018; 10: 52.
- [61] Hamad I, Abdelgawad H, Al Jaouni S, et al. Metabolic analysis of various date palm fruit (*Phoenix dactylifera* L.) cultivars from Saudi Arabia to assess their nutritional quality. *Molecules* 2015; 20: 13620–13641.
- [62] Ismail WIW, Radzi MNFM. Evaluation on the benefits of date palm (*Phoenix dactylifera*) to the brain. *Altern Integr Med* 2013; 2: 4.
- [63] Bouguedoura N, Benkhalifa A, Bennaceur M. Le palmier dattier en Algérie. In: Aberlenc-Bertossi F (ed) *Biotechnologie du palmier dattier*. OpenEdition books, 2010, pp. 15–22.
- [64] Baliga MS, Baliga BRV, Kandathil SM, et al. A review of the chemistry and pharmacology of the date fruits (*Phoenix dactylifera* L.). *Food Res Int* 2011; 44: 1812–1822.
- [65] Mrabet A, Jiménez-Araujo A, Guillén-Bejarano R, et al. Date seeds: A promising source of oil with functional properties. *Foods* 2020; 9: 787.
- [66] Lecheb F, Benamara S. Feasibility study of a cosmetic cream added with aqueous extract and oil from date (*Phoenix dactylifera* L.) fruit seed using experimental design. *J Cosmet Sci* 2015; 66: 359–370.
- [67] Chandrasekaran M, Bahkali AH. Valorization of date palm (*Phoenix dactylifera*) fruit processing by-products and wastes using bioprocess technology – Review. *Saudi J Biol Sci* 2013; 20: 105–120.
- [68] Mrabet A, Rodríguez-Gutiérrez G, Guillén-Bejarano R, et al. Valorization of Tunisian secondary date varieties (*Phoenix dactylifera* L.) by hydrothermal treatments: New fiber concentrates with antioxidant properties. *LWT - Food Sci Technol* 2015; 60: 518–524.
- [69] ELkhadem B, Rekia M. *Valorisation des noyaux de dattes par production de bioénergie dans la région d’Adrar*. Mémoire de Master, Université d’Adrar, 2019; pp.5-13.
- [70] Boussema Z, Khali M. Extraction et composition chimique d’huile de noyaux de dattes algériennes. *Nutr Santé* 2016; 5: 100–106.
- [71] Mimounia Y. *Développement de produits diététiques hypoglycémisants à base de dattes molles variété «Ghars», la plus répandue dans la cuvette de Ouargla*. Thèse de Doctorat, Université de Ouargla, 2015; pp.52-53.

- [72] Kamergi N, Girault E. Une filière équitable en Palestine: Les dattes Medjool. *Artisans Du Monde*, 2014, p. 37.
- [73] Senoussi M, Chenouf C. *Extraction et caractérisation physico-chimique de l'huile des noyaux de dattes (Ghars, Deglat-Nour, Meche-Degla)*. Mémoire de Master, Université Mohamed El Bachir El Ibrahimi- B.B.A, 2018; pp.6-7.
- [74] Ghnimi S, Umer S, Karim A, et al. Date fruit (*Phoenix dactylifera* L.): An underutilized food seeking industrial valorization. *NFS J* 2017; 6: 1–10.
- [75] Tafti AG, Panahi B. Chemical composition of seed and seed oil from Iranian commercial date cultivars. *J Food Bioprocess Eng* 2019; 2: 1–8.
- [76] Hussain MI, Semreen MH, Shanableh A, et al. Phenolic composition and antimicrobial activity of different emirati date (*Phoenix dactylifera* L.) pits: A comparative study. *Plants* 2019; 8: 497.
- [77] Babiker EE, Atasoy G, Özcan MM, et al. Bioactive compounds, minerals, fatty acids, color, and sensory profile of roasted date (*Phoenix dactylifera* L.) seed. *J Food Process Preserv* 2020; 00: e14495.
- [78] Al-Juhaimi F, Ghafoor K, Özcan MM. Physical and chemical properties, antioxidant activity, total phenol and mineral profile of seeds of seven different date fruit (*Phoenix dactylifera* L.) varieties. *Int J Food Sci Nutr* 2012; 63: 84–89.
- [79] Besbes S, Blecker C, Deroanne C, et al. Date seeds: Chemical composition and characteristic profiles of the lipid fraction. *Food Chem* 2004; 84: 577–584.
- [80] Kchaou W, Abbès F, Blecker C, et al. Effects of extraction solvents on phenolic contents and antioxidant activities of Tunisian date varieties (*Phoenix dactylifera* L.). *Ind Crops Prod* 2013; 45: 262–269.
- [81] Bouhlali E dine T, Alem C, Ennassir J, et al. Phytochemical compositions and antioxidant capacity of three date (*Phoenix dactylifera* L.) seeds varieties grown in the South East Morocco. *J Saudi Soc Agric Sci* 2017; 16: 350–357.
- [82] Salomón-Torres R, Sol-Uribe JA, Valdez-Salas B, et al. Effect of four pollinating sources on nutritional properties of medjool date (*Phoenix dactylifera* l.) seeds. *Agriculture* 2020; 10: 1–13.
- [83] Thouri A, Chahdoura H, Arem A El, et al. Antioxidant activity, volatile and nonvolatile composition of two *Phoenix dactylifera* L. by-products. *J Coast Life Med* 2017; 5: 254–260.
- [84] Metoui M, Essid A, Bouzoumita A, et al. Chemical composition, antioxidant and antibacterial activity of Tunisian date palm seed. *Polish J Environ Stud* 2019; 28: 267–274.
- [85] Bouhlali E dine T, Hmidani A, Bourkhis B, et al. Effect of *Phoenix dactylifera* seeds (dates) extract in triton WR-1339 and high fat diet induced hyperlipidaemia in rats: A comparison with simvastatin. *J Ethnopharmacol* 2020; 259: 112961.
- [86] Kchaou W, Abbès F, Mansour R Ben, et al. Phenolic profile, antibacterial and cytotoxic properties of second grade date extract from Tunisian cultivars (*Phoenix dactylifera* L.). *Food Chem* 2016; 194: 1048–1055.
- [87] Radfar R, Farhoodi M, Ghasemi I, et al. Assessment of phenolic contents and antioxidant and antibacterial activities of extracts from four varieties of Iranian date palm (*Phoenix dactylifera* L.) seeds. *Appl Food Biotechnol* 2019; 6: 173–184.
- [88] Al Juhaimi F, Özcan MM, Adiamo OQ, et al. Effect of date varieties on physico-chemical properties, fatty acid composition, tocopherol contents, and phenolic compounds of some date seed and oils. *J Food Process Preserv* 2018; 42: 1–6.

- [89] Olowokere JA, Onen AI, Odineze MC, et al. Extraction and characterization of oil from date palm (*Phoenix dactylifera*) seed. *Asian J Appl Chem Res* 2019; 3: 1–9.
- [90] Bouallegue K, Allaf T, Besombes C, et al. Phenomenological modeling and intensification of texturing/grinding-assisted solvent oil extraction: case of date seeds (*Phoenix dactylifera* L.). *Arab J Chem* 2019; 12: 2398–2410.
- [91] Herch W, Kallel H, Boukhchina S. Physicochemical properties and antioxidant activity of Tunisian date palm (*Phoenix dactylifera* L.) oil as affected by different extraction methods. *Food Sci Technol* 2014; 34: 464–470.
- [92] Nehdi IA, Sbihi HM, Tan CP, et al. Chemical composition of date palm (*Phoenix dactylifera* L.) seed oil from six Saudi Arabian cultivars. *J Food Sci* 2018; 83: 624–630.
- [93] Basuny AMM, AL-Marzooq MA. Production of mayonnaise from date pit oil. *Food Nutr Sci* 2011; 2: 938–943.
- [94] Akbari, M. Oil characteristics and fatty acid profile of seeds from three varieties of date palm (*Phoenix dactylifera*) cultivars in Bushehr-Iran. *African J Biotechnol* 2012; 11: 12088–12093.
- [95] Boukouada M, Ghiaba Z, Gourine N, et al. Chemical composition and antioxidant activity of seed oil of two algerian date palm cultivars (*Phoenix dactylifera*). *Nat Prod Commun* 2014; 9: 1777–1780.
- [96] Soliman SS, Al-Obeed RS, Ahmed TA. Physico-chemical characteristics of oil produced from seeds of some date palm cultivars (*Phoenix dactylifera* L.). *J Environ Biol* 2015; 36: 455–459.
- [97] Dehdivan NS, Panahi B. Physicochemical properties of seeds and seeds oil extracted from Iranian date palm cultivars. *Biol Forum – An Int J* 2017; 9: 139–144.
- [98] Laghouiter OK, Benalia M, Gourine N, et al. Chemical characterization and in vitro antioxidant capacity of nine Algerian date palm cultivars (*Phoenix dactylifera* L.) seed oil. *Med J Nutrition Metab* 2018; 11: 103–117.
- [99] Raza MQ, Arshad MU, Arshad MS, et al. Characterization from three varieties of compositional and functional characteristics of date seeds and oil (*Phoenix dactylifera* L.). *IntJBiosci* 2019; 15: 1–14.
- [100] Al-Shahib W, Marshall RJ. Fatty acid content of the seeds from 14 varieties of date palm *Phoenix dactylifera* L. *Int J Food Sci Technol* 2003; 38: 709–712.
- [101] Severac E. *Valorisation enzymatique des huiles végétales*. Thèse de Docorat, Université de Toulouse, 2017; pp.65-66.
- [102] Cuvelier ME, Maillard MN. Stabilité des huiles alimentaires au cours de leur stockage. *Ol Corps Gras Lipides* 2012; 19: 125–132.
- [103] Boukouada M, Yousfi M. Phytochemical study of date seeds lipids of three fruits (*Phoenix dactylifera* L) produced in Ouargla region. *Ann la Fac des Sci Sciencs l'Ingénieur* 2009; 1: 66–74.
- [104] Nehdi I, Omri S, Khalil MI, et al. Characteristics and chemical composition of date palm (*Phoenix canariensis*) seeds and seed oil. *Ind Crops Prod* 2010; 32: 360–365.
- [105] Habib HM, Kamal H, Ibrahim WH, et al. Carotenoids, fat soluble vitamins and fatty acid profiles of 18 varieties of date seed oil. *Ind Crops Prod* 2013; 42: 567–572.
- [106] Besbes S, Blecker C, Deroanne C, et al. Date seed oil: Phenolic, tocopherol and sterol profiles. *J Food Lipids* 2004; 11: 251–265.
- [107] Jaih AAM, Rahman RA, Razis AFA, et al. Fatty acid, triacylglycerol composition and antioxidant properties of date seed oil. *Int Food Res J* 2019; 26: 517–527.

- [108] Tapiero H, Townsend DM, Tew KD. Phytosterols in the prevention of human pathologies. *Biomed Pharmacother* 2003; 57: 321–325.
- [109] Ahsan H, Ahad A, Iqbal J, et al. Pharmacological potential of tocotrienols: a review. *Nutr Metab (Lond)* 2014; 11: 52.
- [110] Besbes S, Blecker C, Deroanne C, et al. Quality characteristics and oxidative stability of date seed oil during storage. *Food Sci Technol Int* 2004; 10: 333–338.
- [111] Besbes S, Blecker C, Deroanne C, et al. Heating effects on some quality characteristics of date seed oil. *Food Chem* 2005; 91: 469–476.
- [112] Hamitri-guerfi F, Madani K, Hadjal S, et al. Development of a new margarine added date seed oil : characteristics and chemical composition of date seed oil. *Int J Nutr Food Eng* 2015; 9: 12.
- [113] Dammak I, Boudaya S, Benabdallah F, et al. Date seed oil inhibits hydrogen peroxide-induced oxidative stress in human epidermal keratinocytes. *Int J Dermatol* 2010; 49: 262–268.
- [114] Dammak I, Boudaya S, Benabdallah F, et al. Effect of date seed oil on p53 expression in normal human skin. *Connect Tissue Res* 2010; 51: 55–58.
- [115] Benabdellah F, Chakroun N, Dammak I, et al. Sperm quality improvement after date seed oil in vitro supplementation in spontaneous and induced oxidative stress. *Asian J Androl* 2009; 11: 393–398.
- [116] Al-Zuhair S, Taher H, Al Dhaheri S, et al. Biodiesel production from oils extracted from date pits. *Green Sustain Chem* 2017; 7: 48–56.
- [117] Azeem MW, Hanif MA, Al-Sabahi JN, et al. Production of biodiesel from low priced, renewable and abundant date seed oil. *Renew Energy* 2016; 86: 124–132.
- [118] Yousuf RG, Winterburn JB. Waste date seed oil extract as an alternative feedstock for Poly (3-hydroxybutyrate) synthesis. *Biochem Eng J* 2017; 127: 68–76.
- [119] Elouadi Y, Beladjila A, Bouyanzer A, et al. The palm oil from seed of Phoenix dactylifera (oil of both Deglet Nour and Kentichi) as a natural antioxidants and environment-friendly inhibitors on the corrosion of mild steel in HCl 1M. *Moroccan J Chem* 2017; 5: 139–152.
- [120] Abdul-Afiq M., Rahman RA, Che Man Y., et al. Date seed and date seed oil. *Int Food Res J* 2013; 20: 2035–2043.
- [121] Al-Muhtaseb AH, Jamil F, Myint MTZ, et al. Cleaner fuel production from waste Phoenix dactylifera L. kernel oil in the presence of a bimetallic catalyst: Optimization and kinetics study. *Energy Convers Manag* 2017; 146: 195–204.
- [122] Bousba N. *Extraction des huiles essentielles riches en anti-oxydants à partir de produits naturels et de co-produits agroalimentaires*. Thèse de Doctorat, Université d'Avignon et des Pays de Vaucluse, 2011; pp.3-4.
- [123] El-Asbahani A, Miladi K, Badri W, et al. Essential oils: From extraction to encapsulation. *International Journal of Pharmaceutics* 2015; 483: 220–243.
- [124] Chizzola R. Regular monoterpenes and sesquiterpenes (essential oils). In: Ramawat KG, Mérillon JM (eds) *Natural products*. Springer-Verlag Berlin Heidelberg, 2013, pp. 2973–3008.
- [125] Morsy NFS. Chemical structure, quality indices and bioactivity of essential oil constituents. In: El-Shemy H (ed) *Active Ingredients from Aromatic and Medicinal Plants*. IntechOpen, 2017, pp. 175–206.
- [126] Pandey MM, Rastogi S, Rawat AKS. *Saussurea costus*: Botanical, chemical and pharmacological review of an ayurvedic medicinal plant. *J Ethnopharmacol* 2007;

- 110: 379–390.
- [127] Madhuri K, Elango K, Ponnusankar S. *Saussurea lappa* (Kuth root): review of its traditional uses, phytochemistry and pharmacology. *Orient Pharm Exp Med* 2012; 12: 1–9.
- [128] Kuniyal CP, Rawat YS, Oinam SS, et al. Kuth (*Saussurea lappa*) cultivation in the cold desert environment of the Lahaul valley, northwestern Himalaya, India: Arising threats and need to revive socio-economic values. *Biodivers Conserv* 2005; 14: 1035–1045.
- [129] Ansari S. Ethnobotany and pharmacognosy of Qust/ Kut (*Saussurea lappa*, C.B. Clarke) with special reference of unani medicine. *Pharmacogn Rev* 2019; 13: 71–76.
- [130] Singh R, Chahal KK, Singla N. Chemical composition and pharmacological activities of *Saussurea lappa* : A review. *J Pharmacogn Phytochem* 2017; 6: 1298–1308.
- [131] Amara U, Mashwani Z ur R, Khan A, et al. Conservation status and therapeutic potential of *Saussurea lappa* : An overview. *Am J Plant Sci* 2017; 08: 602–614.
- [132] Kaur L, Singh A, Kaur J. A brief review of remedial uses of *Saussurea lappa*. *J Pharmacogn Phytochem* 2019; 8: 4423–4430.
- [133] Semwal RB, Pandian A, Semwal DK. Biological applications and secondary metabolites of *Saussurea costus* (Falc.). *J Conv Knowl Holist Heal* 2020; 4: 201.
- [134] Hassan R, Masoodi MH. *Saussurea lappa*: A comprehensive review on its pharmacological activity and phytochemistry. *Curr Tradit Med* 2019; 6: 13–23.
- [135] Jani DP, Jani KD. Analytical profile of Kushtha (*Saussurea lappa*) extensively used medicinal plant in Ayurveda system of medicine. *J Ayurveda Integr Med Sci* 2017; 2: 63–67.
- [136] Liu ZL, He Q, Chu SS, et al. Essential oil composition and larvicidal activity of *Saussurea lappa* roots against the mosquito *Aedes albopictus* (Diptera: Culicidae). *Parasitol Res* 2012; 110: 2125–2130.
- [137] Robinson A, Yashvanth S, Babu S, et al. Isolation of α -amyrin eicosanoate, a triterpenoid from the roots of *Saussurea lappa* Clarke- Differential solubility as an aid. *J Pharm Sci Technol* 2010; 2: 207–212.
- [138] Gautam H, Asrani RK. Phytochemical and pharmacological review of an ethno medicinal plant : *Saussurea Lappa*. *Vet Res Int* 2018; 6: 1–9.
- [139] Zahara K, Tabassum S, Sabir SS, et al. A review of therapeutic potential of *Saussurea lappa*-An endangered plant from Himalaya. *Asian Pac J Trop Biomed* 2014; 7: S60–S69.
- [140] Chang KM, Kim GH. Comparison of volatile aroma components from *Saussurea lappa* C.B. Clarke root oils. *J Food Sci Nutr* 2008; 13: 128–133.
- [141] Madhavi M, Mallika G, Lokanath N, et al. A review on phytochemical and pharmacological aspects of *Saussurea lappa* A review on phytochemical and pharmacological aspects of *Saussurea lappa*. *Int J Rev Life Sci* 2012; 2: 24–31.
- [142] Choudhary A, Sharma RJ, Singh IP. Determination of major sesquiterpene lactones in essential oil of *Inula racemosa* and *Saussurea lappa* using qNMR. *J Essent Oil-Bearing Plants* 2016; 19: 20–31.
- [143] Chen F, Tan X, Tang Q, et al. GC-MS analysis of volatile oil from *Aucklandia lappa* from different producing areas. *China Pharm* 2011; 22: 2187–2189.
- [144] Abdelwahab SI, Taha MME, Alhazmi HA, et al. Phytochemical profiling of *Costus* (*Saussurea lappa* Clarke) root essential oil, and its antimicrobial and toxicological effects. *Trop J Pharm Res* 2019; 18: 2155–2160.

- [145] Benedetto C, Auria MD, Mecca M, et al. Chemical and biological evaluation of essential oil from *Saussurea costus* (Falc.) Lipsch. from Garhwal Himalaya collected at different harvesting periods. *Nat Prod Res* 2019; 6419: 1–4.
- [146] Duraipandiyar V, Al-Harbi NA, Ignacimuthu S, et al. Antimicrobial activity of sesquiterpene lactones isolated from traditional medicinal plant, *Costus speciosus* (Koen ex.Retz.) Sm. *BMC Complement Altern Med* 2012; 12: 13.
- [147] Rao KS, Babu GV, Ramnareddy YV. Acylated flavone glycosides from the roots of *Saussurea lappa* and their antifungal activity. *Molecules* 2007; 12: 328–344.
- [148] Rayan NA, Baby N, Pitchai D, et al. Costunolide inhibits proinflammatory cytokines and iNOS in activated murine BV2 microglia. *Front Biosci* 2011; 3: 1079–1091.
- [149] Kang JS, Yoon YD, Lee KH, et al. Costunolide inhibits interleukin-1 β expression by down-regulation of AP-1 and MAPK activity in LPS-stimulated RAW 264.7 cells. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* 2004; 313: 171–177.
- [150] He Y, Moqbel S, Xu L, et al. Costunolide inhibits matrix metalloproteinases expression and osteoarthritis via the NF- κ B and Wnt/ β -catenin signaling pathways. *Mol Med Rep* 2019; 20: 312–322.
- [151] Choodej S, Pudhom K, Mitsunaga T. Inhibition of TNF- α -induced inflammation by sesquiterpene lactones from *Saussurea lappa* and semi-synthetic analogues. *Planta Med* 2018; 84: 329–335.
- [152] Zhou Q, Zhang W, He Z, et al. The possible anti-inflammatory effect of dehydrocostus lactone on DSS-induced colitis in mice. *Evidence-Based Complement Altern Med* 2020; 2020: 1–8.
- [153] Choi HG, Lee DS, Li B, et al. Santamarin, a sesquiterpene lactone isolated from *Saussurea lappa*, represses LPS-induced inflammatory responses via expression of heme oxygenase-1 in murine macrophage cells. *Int Immunopharmacol* 2012; 13: 271–279.
- [154] Matsuda H, Toguchida I, Ninomiya K, et al. Effects of sesquiterpenes and amino acid–sesquiterpene conjugates from the roots of *Saussurea lappa* on inducible nitric oxide synthase and heat shock protein in lipopolysaccharide-activated macrophages. *Bioorg Med Chem* 2003; 11: 709–715.
- [155] Yang M, Zhang J, Li Y, et al. Bioassay-guided isolation of dehydrocostus lactone from *Saussurea lappa*: A new targeted cytosolic thioredoxin reductase anticancer agent. *Arch Biochem Biophys* 2016; 607: 20–26.
- [156] Choi YK, Cho S-G, Woo S-M, et al. *Saussurea lappa* Clarke-derived costunolide prevents TNF α -induced breast cancer cell migration and invasion by inhibiting NF- κ B activity. *Evidence-Based Complement Altern Med* 2013; 2013: 936257.
- [157] Cho JY, Kim AR, Jung JH, et al. Cytotoxic and pro-apoptotic activities of cynaropicrin, a sesquiterpene lactone, on the viability of leukocyte cancer cell lines. *Eur J Pharmacol* 2004; 492: 85–94.
- [158] Robinson A, Kumar TV, Sreedhar E, et al. A new sesquiterpene lactone from the roots of *Saussurea lappa*: Structure–anticancer activity study. *Bioorg Med Chem Lett* 2008; 18: 4015–4017.
- [159] Mitra S., Gopumadhavan S, Hemavathi T., et al. Active-compounds from *Saussurea lappa* clarke that suppress hepatitis B virus surface antigen gene expression in human hepatoma cells. *Antivir Reseach* 1995; 27: 99–109.
- [160] Hou P., Chen W., Zhao X., et al. Analysis of chemical constituents in the essential oil of the *Radix Aucklandiae* by GC-MS and the effect on platelet aggregation. *Chinese*

- J Exp Tradit Med Formulae* 2008; 14: 26–30.
- [161] Upadhyay OP, Singh RH, Dutta SK. Studies on anti diabetic medicinal plants used in Indian folklore. *Ayurvaidyan* 1994; 9: 159–167.
- [162] Wei H, Yan LH, Feng WH, et al. Research progress on active ingredients and pharmacologic properties of *Saussurea lappa*. *Curr Opin Complement Altern Med* 2014; 1: 1–7.
- [163] Neerman M. Sesquiterpene lactones: a diverse class of compounds found in essential oils possessing antibacterial and antifungal properties. *Int J Aromather* 2003; 13: 114–120.
- [164] Luna-Herrera J, Costa MC, González HG, et al. Synergistic antimycobacterial activities of sesquiterpene lactones from *Laurus* spp. *J Antimicrob Chemother* 2007; 59: 548–552.
- [165] Butola JS, Samant SS. *Saussurea* species in Indian Himalayan region: Diversity, distribution and indigenous uses. *Int J Plant Biol* 2010; 1: 43–51.
- [166] Herzi N. *Extraction et purification de substances naturelles : comparaison de l'extraction au CO₂-supercritique et des techniques conventionnelles*. Thèse de Doctorat, Université de Toulouse, 2013; pp. 3-19.
- [167] Zermane A. *Etude de l'extraction supercritique application aux systèmes agroalimentaires*. Thèse de Doctorat, Université Mentouri de Constantine, 2010; pp.4-7.
- [168] Bonnard N, Brondeau M., Falcy M, et al. *Protocole travaux pratiques: Extraction par CO₂ supercritique*. 2017.
- [169] Jaih M, AbdulRahman AA, AbdullRazis R, et al. Supercritical fluid extraction of date seed oil. In: *International Food Research Conference (IFRC 2017)*, pp. 117–120.
- [170] Louaer M, Zermane A, Larkeche O, et al. Experimental study and optimization of the extraction of Algerian date stones oil (*Phoenix dactylifera* L.) using supercritical carbon dioxide. *J Food Process Eng* 2019; 42: e13049.
- [171] Aris NA, Norhuda I, Adeib IS. Extraction of *Phoenix Dactylifera* (Mariami) seeds oil using supercritical carbon dioxide (SC-CO₂). *Int J Chem Environ Eng* 2013; 4: 32–37.
- [172] Aris NA, Norhuda I, Adeib IS. Solubility of phoenix dactylifera seed oil in supercritical carbon dioxide (SC-CO₂) using empirical model. *Key Eng Mater* 2014; 594–595: 301–305.
- [173] Deschepper R. *Variabilité de la composition chimique des huiles essentielles et intérêt de la notion chimiotype en aromathérapie*. Thèse de Doctorat, Université d'Aix-Marseille, 2007; pp.41.
- [174] Cheminat A, Stampf J., Benezra C, et al. Allergic contact dermatitis to costus: Removal of haptens with polymers. *Acta Dermato- Venereol* 1981; 61: 525–529.
- [175] El-Alami El-Hassani N. *Conception et réalisation de capteurs et de biocapteurs électrochimiques à base de nanomatériaux pour le contrôle de la qualité en agroalimentaire et pour l'analyse biomédicale*. Thèse de Doctorat, Université Claude Bernard-Lyon 1, 2018; pp.37.
- [176] Faivre AL. *Administration de substances actives dans la peau : rôle de la composition hydrophile de nanoparticules polymériques*. Thèse de Doctorat, Université Claude Bernard- Lyon 1, 2019; pp. 3.
- [177] Froiio F, Mosaddik A, Morshed MT, et al. Edible polymers for essential oils encapsulation: Application in food preservation. *Ind Eng Chem Res* 2019; 58: 46.

- [178] Ruffel L. *Procédé de co-atomisation séchage pour l'encapsulation d'un principe actif au sein de nanoparticules de silice mésoporeuse*. Thèse de Doctorat, Université de Toulouse, 2019.
- [179] Reis CP, J. Neufeld R, J. Ribeiro A, et al. Nanoencapsulation I. Methods for preparation of drug-loaded polymeric nanoparticles. *Nanomedicine* 2006; 2: 8–21.
- [180] Krishna RSM, Shivakumar HG, Gowda D, et al. Nanoparticles: A novel colloidal drug delivery system. *Indian J Pharm Edu Res* 2006; 40: 15–21.
- [181] Lammari N, Louaer O, Meniai AH, et al. Encapsulation of essential oils via nanoprecipitation process: Overview, progress, challenges and prospects. *Pharmaceutics* 2020; 12: 431.
- [182] Rascol E. *Etude des propriétés de surface de nanoparticules à l'interface avec les fluides biologiques et les membranes cellulaires*. Université de Montpellier, 2017.
- [183] Rigaux G. *Elaboration, caractérisation et évaluation biologique de nanoparticules biocompatibles pour la thérapie photodynamique et l'imagerie IRM*. Université de Reims Champagne-Ardenne, 2015.
- [184] Arulprakasajothi M, Elangovan K, Chandrasekhar U, et al. Performance study of conical strip inserts in tube heat exchanger using water based titanium oxide nanofluid. *Therm Sci* 2018; 22: 477–485.
- [185] Eidi H. *Cytotoxicité de nanoparticules polymériques, vecteurs de médicaments*. Thèse de Doctorat, Université Henri Poincaré- Nancy, 2011.
- [186] Wu M. *Synthèse de nanoparticules à propriétés de surface contrôlées par polymérisation en miniémulsion pour la vectorisation de molécules actives*. Thèse de Doctorat, Université de Lorraine, 2007; pp.17-28.
- [187] Badri W, Eddabra R, Fessi H, et al. Biodegradable polymer based nanoparticles: Dermal and transdermal drug delivery. *J Colloid Sci Biotechnol* 2014; 3: 141–149.
- [188] Joshi M. Role of Eudragit in targeted drug delivery. *Int J Curr Pharm Res* 2013; 5: 58–62.
- [189] Santos Silva AM, Caland LB, Melo Doro PN, et al. Hydrophilic and hydrophobic polymeric benzimidazole-loaded nanoparticles: Physicochemical properties and in vitro antitumor efficacy. *J Drug Deliv Sci Technol* 2019; 51: 700–707.
- [190] Hoffart V, Lamprecht A, Maincent P, et al. Oral bioavailability of a low molecular weight heparin using a polymeric delivery system. *J Control Release* 2006; 113: 38–42.
- [191] Date AA, Jain A, Khachane P, et al. Organic solvent-free approach to single step fabrication of Eudragit nanoparticles using Labrasol. *Pharmazie* 2010; 65: 733–736.
- [192] Jummes B, Sganzerla WG, da Rosa CG, et al. Antioxidant and antimicrobial poly- ϵ -caprolactone nanoparticles loaded with *Cymbopogon martinii* essential oil. *Biocatal Agric Biotechnol* 2020; 23: 101499.
- [193] Pina-Barrera AM, Alvarez-Roman R, Baez-Gonzalez JG, et al. Application of a multisystem coating based on polymeric nanocapsules containing essential oil of *Thymus vulgaris* L. to increase the shelf life of table grapes (*Vitis vinifera* L.). *IEEE Trans Nanobioscience* 2019; 18: 549–557.
- [194] Sotelo-Boyás ME, Correa-Pacheco Z, Bautista-Banos S, et al. Release study and inhibitory activity of thyme essential oil-loaded chitosan nanoparticles and nanocapsules against foodborne bacteria. *Int J Biol Macromol* 2017; 103: 409–414.
- [195] Sotelo-Boyás M., Valverde-Aguilar G, Plascencia-Jatomea M, et al. Characterization of chitosan nanoparticles added with essential oils. In vitro effect on *Pectobacterium*

- carotovorum. *Rev Mex Ing química* 2015; 14: 589–599.
- [196] El-Asbahani A, Miladi K, Addi H, et al. Antimicrobial activity of nano-encapsulated essential oils: comparison to non-encapsulated essential oils. *J Colloid Sci Biotechnol* 2015; 4: 39–48.
- [197] Silva-Flores PG, Opez LAP-L, Rivas-Galindo VM, et al. Simultaneous GC-FID quantification of main components of *Rosmarinus officinalis* L. and *Lavandula dentata* essential oils in polymeric nanocapsules for antioxidant application. *J Anal Methods Chem* 2019; 2019: 1–9.
- [198] Khoobdel M, Ahsaei SM, Farzaneh M. Insecticidal activity of polycaprolactone nanocapsules loaded with *Rosmarinus officinalis* essential oil in *Tribolium castaneum* (Herbst). *Entomol Res* 2017; 47: 175–184.
- [199] Ephrem E, Greige-Gerges H, Fessi H, et al. Optimisation of rosemary oil encapsulation in polycaprolactone and scale-up of the process. *J Microencapsul* 2014; 31: 746–753.
- [200] Popiolski TM, Otsuka I, Halila S, et al. Preparation of polymeric micelles of poly (Ethylene Oxide- b -Lactic Acid) and their encapsulation with lavender oil. *Mater Res* 2016; 19: 1356–1365.
- [201] Liakos IL, Iordache F, Carzino R, et al. Cellulose acetate - essential oil nanocapsules with antimicrobial activity for biomedical applications. *Colloids Surfaces B Biointerfaces* 2018; 172: 471–479.
- [202] Liakos IL, Grumezescu AM, Holban AM, et al. Polylactic acid-lemongrass essential oil nanocapsules with antimicrobial properties. *Pharmaceuticals* 2016; 9: 42.
- [203] Sotelo-Boyás ME, Correa-Pacheco ZN, Bautista-Baños S, et al. Physicochemical characterization of chitosan nanoparticles and nanocapsules incorporated with lime essential oil and their antibacterial activity against food-borne pathogens. *LWT - Food Sci Technol* 2017; 77: 15–20.
- [204] Luque-Alcaraz AG, Cortez-Rocha MO, Velázquez-Contreras CA, et al. Enhanced antifungal effect of chitosan/Pepper tree (*Schinus molle*) essential oil bionanocomposites on the viability of *Aspergillus parasiticus* spores. *J Nanomater* 2016; 2016: 6060137.
- [205] Christofoli M, Cristina E, Costa C, et al. Insecticidal effect of nanoencapsulated essential oils from *Zanthoxylum rhoifolium* (Rutaceae) in *Bemisia tabaci* populations. *Ind Crop Prod* 2015; 70: 301–308.
- [206] Shakeri F, Shakeri S, Hojjatoleslami M. Preparation and characterization of carvacrol loaded polyhydroxybutyrate nanoparticles by nanoprecipitation and dialysis methods. *J Food Sci* 2014; 79: 697–705.
- [207] Iannitelli A, Grande R, di Stefano A, et al. Potential antibacterial activity of carvacrol-loaded poly(DL-lactide-co-glycolide) (PLGA) nanoparticles against microbial biofilm. *Int J Mol Sci* 2011; 12: 5039–5051.
- [208] Esfandyari-Manesh M, Ghaedi Z, Asemi M, et al. Study of antimicrobial activity of anethole and carvone loaded PLGA nanoparticles. *J Pharm Res* 2013; 7: 290–295.
- [209] Contri R V, Kulkamp-guerreiro IC, Janine S, et al. Nanoencapsulation of Rose-Hip oil prevents oil oxidation and allows obtainment of gel and film topical formulations. *AAPS PharmSciTech* 2016; 17: 863–871.
- [210] Chattopadhyay S, Prez F Du. Simple design of chemically crosslinked plant oil nanoparticles by triazolinedione- ene chemistry. *Eur Polym J* 2016; 81: 77–85.
- [211] Rigo LA, Silva CR, Oliveira SM, et al. Nanoencapsulation of rice bran oil increases

- its protective effects against UVB radiation-induced skin injury in mice. *Eur J Pharm Biopharm* 2015; 93: 11–17.
- [212] Averina E, Allémann E. Encapsulation of alimentary bioactive oils of the Baikal Lake area into pH-sensitive micro- and nanoparticles. *LWT - Food Sci Technol* 2013; 53: 271–277.
- [213] Sousa VP de, Crean J, Borges VR de A, et al. Nanostructured systems containing babassu (*Orbignya speciosa*) oil as a potential alternative therapy for benign prostatic hyperplasia. *Int J Nanomedicine* 2013; 8: 3129–3139.
- [214] Priyadarshini BM, Antipina MN, Fawzy AS. Formulation and characterisation of poly (lactic-co-glycolic acid) encapsulated clove oil nanoparticles for dental applications. *Inst Eng Technol* 2018; 12: 311–317.
- [215] Gomes C, Moreira RG, Castell-perez E. Nanoparticles with entrapped trans - cinnamaldehyde and eugenol for antimicrobial delivery applications. *J Food Sci* 2011; 76: 16–24.
- [216] Campo C De, Pereira P, Maria T, et al. Nanoencapsulation of chia seed oil with chia mucilage (*Salvia hispanica* L.) as wall material: characterization and stability evaluation. *Food Chem* 2017; 234: 1–9.
- [217] Freiberger EB, Kaufmann KC, Bona E, et al. Encapsulation of roasted coffee oil in biocompatible nanoparticles. *LWT - Food Sci Technol* 2015; 64: 381–359.
- [218] Galindo-Pérez MJ, Quintanar-Guerrero D, Cornejo-Villegas M de los Á, et al. Optimization of the emulsification-diffusion method using ultrasound to prepare nanocapsules of different food-core oils. *LWT - Food Sci Technol* 2018; 87: 333–341.
- [219] Frederico N de O, Rodrigues THS, Pereira R de CA, et al. Production and physico-chemical characterization of nanocapsules of the essential oil from *Lippia sidoides* Cham. *Ind Crop Prod* 2016; 86: 279–288.
- [220] Almeida KB, Ramos AS, Nunes JBB, et al. PLGA nanoparticles optimized by Box-Behnken for efficient encapsulation of therapeutic *Cymbopogon citratus* essential oil. *Colloids Surfaces B Biointerfaces* 2019; 181: 935–942.
- [221] Almeida KB, Araujo JL, Cavalcanti JF, et al. In vitro release and anti-herpetic activity of *Cymbopogon citratus* volatile oil-loaded nanogel. *Rev Bras Farmacogn* 2018; 28: 498–502.
- [222] Choi M., Sootittantawat A, Nuchuchua O, et al. Physical and light oxidative properties of eugenol encapsulated by molecular inclusion and emulsion-diffusion method. *Food Res Int* 2009; 42: 148–156.
- [223] Hasheminejad N, Khodaiyan F, Safari M. Improving the antifungal activity of clove essential oil encapsulated by chitosan nanoparticles. *Food Chem* 2019; 275: 113–122.
- [224] López-meneses AK, Plascencia-jatomea M, Lizardi-mendoza J, et al. *Schinus molle* L . essential oil-loaded chitosan nanoparticles: Preparation, characterization, antifungal and anti-aflatoxicogenic properties. *LWT - Food Sci Technol* 2018; 96: 597–603.
- [225] Liu Y, Wang S, Zhang R, et al. Development of poly (lactic acid)/ chitosan fibers loaded with essential oil for antimicrobial applications. *Nanomaterials* 2017; 7: 194.
- [226] Hu J, Wang X, Xiao Z, et al. Effect of chitosan nanoparticles loaded with cinnamon essential oil on the quality of chilled pork. *LWT - Food Sci Technol* 2015; 63: 519–526.
- [227] Jamil B, Abbasi R, Abbasi S, et al. Encapsulation of cardamom essential oil in chitosan nano-composites: In-vitro efficacy on antibiotic-resistant bacterial pathogens and

- cytotoxicity studies. *Front Microbiol* 2016; 7: 1–10.
- [228] Feyzioglu GC, Tornuk F. Development of chitosan nanoparticles loaded with summer savory (*Satureja hortensis* L .) essential oil for antimicrobial and antioxidant delivery applications. *LWT - Food Sci Technol* 2016; 70: 104–110.
- [229] Esmaeili A, Asgari A. In vitro release and biological activities of *Carum copticum* essential oil (CEO) loaded chitosan nanoparticles. *Int J Biol Macromol* 2015; 81: 283–290.
- [230] Natrajan D, Srinivasan S, Sundar K, et al. Formulation of essential oil-loaded chitosan e alginate nanocapsules. *J Food Drug Anal* 2015; 23: 560–568.
- [231] Lv Y, Yang F, Li X, et al. Formation of heat-resistant nanocapsules of jasmine essential oil via gelatin / gum arabic based complex coacervation. *Food Hydrocolloids* 2014; 35: 305–314.
- [232] Sutaphanit P, Chitprasert P. Optimisation of microencapsulation of holy basil essential oil in gelatin by response surface methodology. *Food Chem* 2014; 150: 313–320.
- [233] Dima C, Cotârlet M, Alexe P, et al. Reprint of ‘ Microencapsulation of essential oil of pimento [*Pimenta dioica* (L) Merr .] by chitosan / k-carrageenan complex coacervation method’. *Innov Food Sci Emerg Technol* 2014; 25: 97–105.
- [234] Woranuch S, Yoksan R. Eugenol-loaded chitosan nanoparticles : I . Thermal stability improvement of eugenol through encapsulation. *Carbohydr Polym* 2013; 96: 578–585.
- [235] Hosseini SF, Zandi M, Rezaei M, et al. Two-step method for encapsulation of oregano essential oil in chitosan nanoparticles : Preparation , characterization and in vitro release study. *Carbohydr Polym* 2013; 95: 50–56.
- [236] Yang X, Gao N, Hu L, et al. Development and evaluation of novel microcapsules containing poppy-seed oil using complex coacervation. *J Food Eng* 2015; 161: 87–93.
- [237] Yang Z, Peng Z, Li J, et al. Development and evaluation of novel flavour microcapsules containing vanilla oil using complex coacervation approach. *Food Chem* 2014; 145: 272–277.
- [238] Devi N, Deka C, Hazarika D, et al. Study of complex coacervation of gelatin A and sodium alginate for microencapsulation of olive oil. *J Macromol Sci Part A* 2012; 49: 936–945.
- [239] Zhang K, Zhang H, Hu X, et al. Synthesis and release studies of microalgal oil-containing microcapsules prepared by complex coacervation. *Colloids Surfaces B Biointerfaces* 2012; 89: 61–66.
- [240] Dong Z, Ma Y, Hayat K, et al. Morphology and release profile of microcapsules encapsulating peppermint oil by complex coacervation. *J Food Eng* 2011; 104: 455–460.
- [241] Mohammed NK, Tan C, Manap YA, et al. Process conditions of spray drying microencapsulation of *Nigella sativa* oil. *Powder Technol* 2017; 315: 1–14.
- [242] Herculano ED, Paula HCB De, Dias FGB, et al. Physicochemical and antimicrobial properties of nanoencapsulated *Eucalyptus staigeriana* essential oil. *LWT - Food Sci Technol* 2015; 61: 484–491.
- [243] De-Oliveira EF, Paula HCB, De Paula RCM. Alginate / cashew gum nanoparticles for essential oil encapsulation. *Colloids Surfaces B Biointerfaces* 2014; 113: 146–151.
- [244] Abreu FOMS, Oliveira EF, Paula HCB, et al. Chitosan/cashew gum nanogels for essential oil encapsulation. *Carbohydr Polym* 2012; 89: 1277–1282.
- [245] Paula HCB, Sombra FM, Abreu FOMS, et al. *Lippia sidoides* essential oil

- encapsulation by angico gum/chitosan nanoparticles. *J Braz Chem Soc* 2010; 21: 2359–2366.
- [246] Beirão da costa S, Duarte C, Bourbon AI, et al. Inulin potential for encapsulation and controlled delivery of Oregano essential oil. *Food hydrocolloids* 2013; 33: 199–206.
- [247] Beirão da costa S, Duarte C, Bourbon AI, et al. Effect of the matrix system in the delivery and in vitro bioactivity of microencapsulated Oregano essential oil. *J Food Eng* 2012; 110: 190–199.
- [248] Hoyos-leyva JD, Bello-perez LA, Agama-acevedo JE, et al. Characterization of spray drying microencapsulation of almond oil into taro starch spherical aggregates. *LWT - Food Sci Technol* 2019; 101: 526–533.
- [249] Wang S, Shi Y, Han L. Development and evaluation of microencapsulated peony seed oil prepared by spray drying : Oxidative stability and its release behavior during in-vitro digestion. *J Food Eng* 2018; 231: 1–9.
- [250] Us-medina U, Julio LM, Segura-campos MR, et al. Development and characterization of spray-dried chia oil microcapsules using by-products from chia as wall material. *Powder Technol* 2018; 334: 1–8.
- [251] Rocchia P, Martínez ML, Llabot JM, et al. Influence of spray-drying operating conditions on sunflower oil powder qualities. *Powd* 2014; 254: 307–313.
- [252] Laohasongkram K, Mahamaktudsanee T, Chaiwanichsiri S. Microencapsulation of Macadamia oil by spray drying. *Ital Oral Surg* 2011; 1: 1660–1665.
- [253] Chew SC, PingTan C, Nyam KL. Microencapsulation of refined kenaf (*Hibiscus cannabinus* L.) seed oil by spray drying using β -cyclodextrin / gum arabic / sodium caseinate. *J Food Eng J* 2018; 237: 78–85.
- [254] González A, Martínez ML, Paredes AJ, et al. Study of the preparation process and variation of wall components in chia (*Salvia hispanica* L.) oil microencapsulation. *Powder Technol* 2016; 301: 868–875.
- [255] Rodea-gonzález DA, Cruz-olivares J, Román-guerrero A, et al. Spray-dried encapsulation of chia essential oil (*Salvia hispanica* L.) in whey protein concentrate-polysaccharide matrices. *J Food Eng* 2012; 111: 102–109.
- [256] Shamaei S, Sadegh S, Aghbashlo M, et al. Microencapsulation of walnut oil by spray drying : Effects of wall material and drying conditions on physicochemical properties of microcapsules. *Innov Food Sci Emerg Technol* 2017; 39: 101–112.
- [257] Carneiro HCF, Tonon R V, Grosso CRF, et al. Encapsulation efficiency and oxidative stability of flaxseed oil microencapsulated by spray drying using different combinations of wall materials. *J Food Eng* 2013; 115: 443–451.
- [258] Gallardo G, Guida L, Martinez V, et al. Microencapsulation of linseed oil by spray drying for functional food application. *Food reseach Int* 2013; 52: 473–482.
- [259] Rubilar M, Morales E, Contreras K, et al. Development of a soup powder enriched with microencapsulated linseed oil as a source of omega-3 fatty acids. *Eur J Lipid Sci Technol* 2012; 114: 423–433.
- [260] Nosari ABFL, Lima JF, Serra OA, et al. Improved green coffee oil antioxidant activity for cosmetical purpose by spray drying microencapsulation. *Rev Bras Farmacogn* 2015; 25: 307–311.
- [261] Frascareli EC, Silva VM, Tonon R V, et al. Effect of process conditions on the microencapsulation of coffee oil by spray drying. *Food Bioprod Process* 2011; 90: 413–424.
- [262] Vanderhoff JW, Asser MS El. *Polymer emulsification process*. 1979.

- [263] Rodríguez J, Martín MJ, Ruiz MA, et al. Current encapsulation strategies for bioactive oils : From alimentary to pharmaceutical perspectives. *Food Reseach Int* 2016; 83: 41–59.
- [264] Rao JP, Geckeler KE. Polymer nanoparticles : Preparation techniques and size-control parameters. *Prog Polym Sci* 2011; 36: 887–913.
- [265] Quintanar-Guerrero D, Fessi H, Allémann E, et al. Influence of stabilizing agents and preparative variables on the formation of poly(D,L-lactic acid) nanoparticles by an emulsification-diffusion technique. *Int J Pharm* 1996; 143: 133–141.
- [266] Mora-Huertas CE, Fessi H, Elaissari A. Polymer-based nanocapsules for drug delivery. *Int J Pharm* 2010; 385: 113–142.
- [267] Hassou M. *Modélisation et simulation de la formation des nanocapsules polymériques par la méthode d'émulsion-diffusion*. Université Claude Bernard Lyon1, 2007.
- [268] Froiio F, Lammari N, Tarhini M, et al. Chapter 16 - Polymer-based nanocontainers for drug delivery. In: *Smart Nanocontainers Micro and Nano Technologies*. 2020, pp. 271–285.
- [269] Jordanovska S. *Les nanoparticules dans l'industrie pharmaceutique : comparaison des méthodes de fabrication*. Université de Bordeaux, 2015.
- [270] Fessi H, Puisieux F, Devissaguet JP, et al. Nanocapsule formation by interfacial polymer deposition following solvent displacement. *Int J Pharm* 1989; 55: R1–R4.
- [271] Miladi K, Sfar S, Fessi H, et al. Nanoprecipitation process : From particle preparation to in vivo applications. In: Vauthier C, Ponchel G (eds) *Polymer Nanoparticles for Nanomedicines*. Springer, 2016, pp. 17–53.
- [272] Martínez Rivas CJ, Tarhini M, Badri W, et al. Nanoprecipitation process: From encapsulation to drug delivery. *Int J Pharm* 2017; 532: 66–81.
- [273] Calvo P, Remunan Lopez JL, Vila-Jato, et al. Novel hydrophilic chitosan – polyethylene oxide nanoparticles as protein carriers. *J Appl Polym Sci* 1997; 63: 125–132.
- [274] Christofoli M, Costa ECC, Bicalho KU, et al. Insecticidal effect of nanoencapsulated essential oils from *Zanthoxylum rhoifolium* (Rutaceae) in *Bemisia tabaci* populations. *Ind Crops Prod* 2015; 70: 301–308.
- [275] Chavez-Magdaleno ME, Luque-Alcaraz AG, Gutierrez-Martinez P, et al. Effect of chitosan-pepper tree (*Schinus molle*) essential oil biocomposites on the growth kinetics, viability and membrane integrity of *colletotrichum gloeosporioides*. *Rev Mex Ing Química* 2018; 17: 29–45.
- [276] Yegin Y, Perez-Lewis KL, Zhang M, et al. Development and characterization of geraniol-loaded polymeric nanoparticles with antimicrobial activity against foodborne bacterial pathogens. *J Food Eng* 2016; 170: 64–71.
- [277] Zhang Y, Xiaoyu Liu, Wang Y, et al. Antibacterial activity and mechanism of cinnamon essential oil against *Escherichia coli* and *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Food Control* 2016; 59: 282–289.
- [278] Badri W, Miladi K, Eddabra R, et al. Elaboration of nanoparticles containing indomethacin: Argan oil for transdermal local and cosmetic application. *J Nanomater* 2015; 2015: 1–9.
- [279] Badri W, El-Asbahani A, Miladi K, et al. Poly (ϵ -caprolactone) nanoparticles loaded with indomethacin and *Nigella Sativa L.* essential oil for the topical treatment of inflammation. *J Drug Deliv Sci Technol* 2018; 46: 234–242.
- [280] Fraj A, Jaâfar F, Marti M, et al. A comparative study of oregano (*Origanum vulgare*

- L.) essential oil-based polycaprolactone nanocapsules/ microspheres: Preparation, physicochemical characterization, and storage stability. *Ind Crops Prod* 2019; 140: 111669.
- [281] Liakos IL, D'autilia F, Garzoni A, et al. All natural cellulose acetate—Lemongrass essential oil antimicrobial nanocapsules. *Int J Pharm* 2016; 510: 508–515.
- [282] Weber J, Funk NL, Motta MH, et al. Association of borage oil and betamethasone dipropionate in lipid-core nanocapsules: characterization, photostability and in vitro irritation test. *J Nanosci Nanotechnol* 2016; 16: 1354–1362.
- [283] Ben-Ghzaïel T. *Synthèse, caractérisation et étude des propriétés magnétiques et diélectriques de nanocomposites Polyaniline/hexaferrite pour l'absorption des micro-ondes*. Thèse de Doctorat, Université Parris-Saclay, 2020.
- [284] Ben-Mabrouk A. *Elaboration de nanocomposites à base de whiskers de cellulose et de polymère acrylique par polymérisation in situ*. Université de Grenoble, 2012.
- [285] Aslantürk ÖS. In Vitro cytotoxicity and cell viability assays: Principles, advantages, and disadvantages. In: Larramendy ML, Soloneski S (eds) *Genotoxicity - A Predictable Risk to Our Actual World*. IntechOpen, 2017, pp. 1–18.
- [286] Livak KJ, Schmittgen TD. Analysis of relative gene expression data using real-time quantitative PCR and the 2- $\Delta\Delta$ CT method. *Methods* 2001; 25: 402–408.
- [287] Heussen C, Dowdle EB. Electrophoretic analysis of plasminogen activators in polyacrylamide gels containing sodium dodecyl sulfate and copolymerized substrates. *Anal Biochem* 1980; 196–202.
- [288] Gülçin I. Antioxidant activity of food constituents: An overview. *Arch Toxicol* 2012; 86: 345–391.
- [289] Kedare SB, Singh RP. Genesis and development of DPPH method of antioxidant assay. *J Food Sci Technol* 2011; 48: 412–422.
- [290] Blois M. Antioxidant determinations by the use of a stable free radical. *Nature* 1958; 4617: 1119–1200.
- [291] Ilyasov IR, Beloborodov VL, Selivanova IA, et al. ABTS/PP decolorization assay of antioxidant capacity reaction pathways. *Int J Mol Sci* 2020; 21: 1131.
- [292] Re R, Pellegrini N, Proteggente A, et al. Antioxidant activity applying an improved ABTS radical cation decolorization assay. *Free Radic Biol Med* 1999; 26: 1231–1237.
- [293] Pisoschi AM, Negulescu GP. Methods for total antioxidant activity determination: A review. *Biochem Anal Biochem* 2012; 1: 1–10.
- [294] Apak R, Güçlü K, Özyürek M, et al. Novel total antioxidant capacity index for dietary polyphenols and vitamins C and E, Using their cupric Ion reducing capability in the presence of neocuproine: CUPRAC method. *J Agric Food Chem* 2004; 52: 7970–7981.
- [295] Ellman G., Courtney K., Andres V, et al. A new and rapid colorimetric determination of acetylcholinesterase activity. *Biochem Pharmacol* 1961; 7: 88–95.
- [296] Nair SS, Kavrekar V, Mishra A. In vitro studies on alpha amylase and alpha glucosidase inhibitory activities of selected plant extracts. *Eur J Exp Biol* 2013; 3: 128–132.
- [297] Zengin G, Sarikurkcu C, Aktumsek A, et al. A comprehensive study on phytochemical characterization of *Haplophyllum myrtifolium* Boiss. endemic to Turkey and its inhibitory potential against key enzymes involved in Alzheimer, skin diseases and type II diabetes. *Ind Crops Prod* 2014; 53: 244–251.
- [298] Vadivelan R, Krishnan RG, Kannan R. Antidiabetic potential of *Asparagus racemosus*

- willd leaf extracts through inhibition of α -amylase and α -glucosidase. *J Tradit Chinese Med Sci* 2019; 9: 1–4.
- [299] Quintanar-Guerrero, Allémann E, Fessi H, et al. Preparation techniques and mechanisms of formation of biodegradable nanoparticles from preformed polymers. *Drug Dev Ind Pharm* 1998; 24: 1113–28.
- [300] Limayem Blouza I, Charcosset C, Sfar S, et al. Preparation and characterization of spirinolactone-loaded nanocapsules for pediatric use. *Int J Pharm* 2006; 325: 124–131.
- [301] Dong Y, Feng S. Methoxy poly(ethylene glycol)-poly(lactide) (MPEG-PLA) nanoparticles for controlled delivery of anticancer drugs. *Biomaterials* 2004; 25: 2843–2849.
- [302] Song KC, Seok H, Yeop I, et al. The effect of type of organic phase solvents on the particle size of poly(d,l-lactide-co-glycolide) nanoparticles. *Colloids Surfaces A Physicochem Eng Asp* 2006; 276: 162–167.
- [303] Mohsen-nia M, Amiri H, Jazi B. Dielectric constants of water, methanol, ethanol, butanol and acetone: Measurement and computational study. *J Solution Chem* 2010; 39: 701–708.
- [304] Tarhini M, Benlyamani I, Hamdani S, et al. Protein-based nanoparticle preparation via nanoprecipitation method. *Materials (Basel)* 2018; 11: 1–18.
- [305] Stainmesse S, M-Orecchioni A, Nakache E, et al. Formation and stabilization of a biodegradable polymeric colloidal suspension of nanoparticles. *Colloid Polym Sci* 1995; 273: 505–511.
- [306] Chorny M, Fishbein I, Danenberg HD, et al. Lipophilic drug loaded nanospheres prepared by nanoprecipitation : Effect of formulation variables on size , drug recovery and release kinetics. *J Control Release* 2002; 83: 389–400.
- [307] Bilati U, Allémann E, Doelke E. Development of a nanoprecipitation method intended for the entrapment of hydrophilic drugs into nanoparticles. *Eur J Pharm Sci* 2005; 24: 67–75.
- [308] Guhagarkar SA, Malshe VC, Padma V. Nanoparticles of polyethylene sebacate: A new biodegradable polymer. *AAPS PharmSciTech* 2009; 10: 935–942.
- [309] Khan MR, Sayed E. Sulfur removal from heavy and light petroleum hydrocarbon by selective oxidation. In: *Advances in Clean Hydrocarbon Fuel Processing: Science and Technology*. Woodhead Publishing Limited, pp. 243–261.
- [310] Asadi H, Rostamizadeh K, Salari D, et al. Preparation of biodegradable nanoparticles of tri-block PLA–PEG–PLA copolymer and determination of factors controlling the particle size using artificial neural network. *J Microencapsul* 2011; 28: 406–416.
- [311] Rosset V, Ahmed N, Zaanoun I, et al. Elaboration of argan oil nanocapsules containing Naproxen for cosmetic and transdermal local application. *J colloid Sci Biotechnol* 2012; 1: 218–224.
- [312] Yenilmez E. Desloratadine-Eudragit® RS100 nanoparticles: Formulation and characterization. *Turkish J Pharm Sci* 2017; 14: 148–156.
- [313] Jahangirian H, Haron MJ, Yusof NA, et al. Enzymatic synthesis of fatty hydroxamic acid derivatives based on palm kernel oil. *Molecules* 2011; 16: 6634–6644.
- [314] Ali MA, Al-hattab TA, Al-hydary IA. Extraction of date palm seed oil (Phoenix Dactylifera) by soxhlet apparatus. *Int J Adv Eng Technol* 2015; 8: 261–271.
- [315] Sibokoza SB, Moloto MJ, Mtunzi F, et al. Diphenyldiselenide mediated synthesis of copper selenide nanoparticles and their poly(methyl methacrylate) nanofibers. *Asian*

- J Chem* 2018; 30: 1455–1459.
- [316] Khurshid MF, Hussain T, Masood R, et al. Development and evaluation of a controlled drug delivery wound dressing based on polymeric porous microspheres. *J Ind Text* 2016; 46: 986–999.
- [317] Riaz M, Altaf M, Faisal A, et al. Biogenic synthesis of AgNPs with *Saussurea lappa* C.B. Clarke and studies on their biochemical properties. *J Nanosci Nanotechnol* 2018; 18: 8392–8398.
- [318] Zaghoul AM, Yusufoglu HS, et al. New cytotoxic sesquiterpene lactones from *Anthemis scrobicularis*. *J. Asian Nat. Prod. Res* 2014; 16: 922–929.
- [319] Boddohi S, Killingsworth CE, Kippe MJ. Polyelectrolyte multilayer assembly as a function of pH and ionic strength using the polysaccharides chitosan and heparin. *Biomacromolecules* 2008; 9: 2021–2028.
- [320] Kany S, Vollrath JT, Relja B. Cytokines in inflammatory disease. *Int J Mol Sci* 2019; 20: 6008.
- [321] Shoshani Y, Pe'er J, Doviner V, et al. Increased expression of inflammatory cytokines and matrix metalloproteinases in pseudophakic corneal edema. *Investig Ophthalmology Vis Sci* 2005; 46: 1940.
- [322] Manicone A, McGuire J. Matrix metalloproteinases as modulators of inflammation. *Semin Cell Dev Biol* 2008; 19: 34–41.
- [323] Carterson AJ, Bentrup KH zu, Ott M, et al. A549 lung epithelial cells grown as three-dimensional aggregates: Alternative tissue culture model for *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* pathogenesis. *Infect Immun* 2005; 73: 1129–1140.
- [324] Gargouri M, Sapin A, Bouli S, et al. Optimization of a new non-viral vector for transfection: Eudragit nanoparticles for the delivery of a DNA plasmid. *Technol Cancer Res Treat* 2009; 8: 433–444.
- [325] Eidi H, Joubert O, Attik G, et al. Cytotoxicity assessment of heparin nanoparticles in NR8383 macrophages. *Int J Pharm* 2010; 396: 156–165.
- [326] Katzer T, Chaves P, Bernardi A, et al. Prednisolone-loaded nanocapsules as ocular drug delivery system: development, in vitro drug release and eye toxicity. *J Microencapsul* 2014; 31: 519–528.
- [327] Seo CS, Lim HS, Jeong SJ, et al. Anti-allergic effects of sesquiterpene lactones from the root of *Aucklandia lappa* Decne. *Mol Med Rep* 2015; 12: 7789–7795.
- [328] Kim EJ, Hong JE, Lim SS, et al. The hexane extract of *Saussurea lappa* and its active principle, dehydrocostus lactone, inhibit prostate cancer cell migration. *J Med Food* 2012; 15: 24–32.
- [329] Migdal C, Serres M. Espèces réactives de l'oxygène et stress oxydant. *médecine/sciences* 2011; 27: 405–412.
- [330] Favier A. Le stress oxydant: Intérêt conceptuel et expérimental dans la compréhension des mécanismes des maladies et potentiel thérapeutique. *Actual Chim* 2003; 270: 108–115.
- [331] Defraigne JO, Pincemail J. Stress oxydant et antioxydants: Mythes et réalités. *Rev Med Liege* 2008; 63: 10–19.
- [332] Nimse SB, Pal D. Free radicals, natural antioxidants, and their reaction mechanisms. *RSC Adv* 2015; 5: 27986–28006.
- [333] Saleh EA, Tawfik MS, Abu-Tarboush HM. Phenolic contents and antioxidant activity of various date palm (*Phoenix dactylifera* L.) fruits from Saudi Arabia. *Food Nutr Sci* 2011; 02: 1134–1141.

- [334] Ardekani MRS, Khanavi M, Hajimahmoodi M, et al. Comparison of antioxidant activity and total phenol contents of some date seed varieties from Iran. *Iran J Pharm Res* 2010; 9: 141–146.
- [335] Daoud A, Malika D, Bakari S, et al. Assessment of polyphenol composition, antioxidant and antimicrobial properties of various extracts of Date Palm Pollen (DPP) from two Tunisian cultivars. *Arab J Chem* 2019; 12: 3075–3086.
- [336] Siahpoosh A, Taleb AM, Almasi H. In vitro evaluation of antioxidant activity and total phenol contents of some extracts from ripe fruits of Phoenix dactylifera var Berhi. *Int J Pharmacogn Phytochem Res* 2016; 8: 1855–1862.
- [337] Fariás-Campomanes AM, Rostagno MA, Coaquira-Quispe JJ, et al. Supercritical fluid extraction of polyphenols from lees: overall extraction curve, kinetic data and composition of the extracts. *Bioresour Bioprocess* 2015; 2: 45.
- [338] Tyśkiewicz K, Konkol M, Rój E. The application of supercritical fluid extraction in phenolic compounds isolation from natural plant materials. *Molecules* 2018; 23: 2625.
- [339] Djenidi H, Khennouf S, Bouaziz A. Antioxidant activity and phenolic content of commonly consumed fruits and vegetables in Algeria. *Prog Nutr* 2020; 22: 224–235.
- [340] Fernández del Río L, Gutiérrez-Casado E, Varela-López A, et al. Olive oil and the hallmarks of aging. *Molecules* 2016; 21: 163.
- [341] Grossberg GT. Cholinesterase inhibitors for the treatment of Alzheimer's disease. *Curr Ther Res* 2003; 64: 216–235.
- [342] Mesulam M, Guillozet A, Shaw P, et al. Widely spread butyrylcholinesterase can hydrolyze acetylcholine in the normal and alzheimer brain. *Neurobiol Dis* 2002; 9: 88–93.
- [343] Lane RM, Potkin SG, Enz A. Targeting acetylcholinesterase and butyrylcholinesterase in dementia. *Int J Neuropsychopharmacol* 2005; 9: 101.
- [344] Ponnusankar S, Elango K, Kadiyala M. Screening of siddha medicinal plants for its in-vitro acetylcholinesterase and butyrylcholinesterase inhibitory activity. *Pharmacogn Mag* 2014; 10: 294.
- [345] Ibrahim M, Farooq T, Hussain N, et al. Acetyl and butyryl cholinesterase inhibitory sesquiterpene lactones from Amberboa ramosa. *Chem Cent J* 2013; 7: 116.
- [346] Hegazy M-E, Ibrahim A, Mohamed T, et al. Sesquiterpene lactones from Cynara cornigera: Acetyl cholinesterase inhibition and in silico ligand docking. *Planta Med* 2015; 82: 138–146.
- [347] Hajimehdipoor H, Mossadegh M, Naghibi F, et al. Natural sesquiterpene lactones as acetylcholinesterase inhibitors. *An Acad Bras Cienc* 2014; 86: 801–806.
- [348] Li Q, Wang Z, Xie Y, et al. Antitumor activity and mechanism of costunolide and dehydrocostus lactone: Two natural sesquiterpene lactones from the Asteraceae family. *Biomed Pharmacother* 2020; 125: 109955.
- [349] Padilla-Gonzalez GF, dos Santos FA, Da Costa FB. Sesquiterpene lactones: More than protective plant compounds with high toxicity. *CRC Crit Rev Plant Sci* 2016; 35: 18–37.
- [350] Frasco MF, Colletier JP, Weik M, et al. Mechanisms of cholinesterase inhibition by inorganic mercury. *FEBS J* 2007; 274: 1849–1861.
- [351] Moorad DR, Luo C, Saxena A, et al. Purification and determination of the amino acid sequence of equine serum butyrylcholinesterase. *Toxicol Methods* 1999; 9: 219–227.
- [352] De-Espinosa LM, Ronda JC, Gallià M, et al. Quinoline-containing networks from enone and aldehyde triglyceride derivatives. *J Polym Sci Part A Polym Chem* 2008;

- 46: 7207–7224.
- [353] Moreno M, Lligadas G, Ronda JC, et al. Phospha-Michael addition to enone-containing triglyceride derivatives as an efficient route to flame retardant renewable thermosets. *J Polym Sci Part A Polym Chem* 2012; 50: 3206–3213.
- [354] Jabir NR, Khan FR, Tabrez S. Cholinesterase targeting by polyphenols: A therapeutic approach for the treatment of Alzheimer's disease. *CNS Neurosci Ther* 2018; 24: 753–762.
- [355] Jung M, Park M. Acetylcholinesterase inhibition by flavonoids from *Agrimonia pilosa*. *Molecules* 2007; 12: 2130–2139.
- [356] Lan J-S, Hou J-W, Liu Y, et al. Design, synthesis and evaluation of novel cinnamic acid derivatives bearing N-benzyl pyridinium moiety as multifunctional cholinesterase inhibitors for Alzheimer's disease. *J Enzyme Inhib Med Chem* 2017; 32: 776–788.
- [357] Balkis A, Tran K, Lee YZ, et al. Screening flavonoids for inhibition of acetylcholinesterase identified Baicalein as the most potent inhibitor. *J Agric Sci* 2015; 7: 26–35.
- [358] Nair VP, Hunter JM. Anticholinesterases and anticholinergic drugs. *Contin Educ Anaesth Crit Care Pain* 2004; 4: 164–168.
- [359] Kharroubi AT, Darwish HM. Diabetes mellitus: The epidemic of the century. *World J Diabetes* 2015; 6: 850–867.
- [360] Sheard NF, Clark NG, Brand-Miller JC, et al. Dietary carbohydrate (amount and type) in the prevention and management of diabetes: a statement by the american diabetes association. *Diabetes Care* 2004; 27: 2266–2271.
- [361] Agarwal P, Gupta R. Alpha-amylase inhibition can treat diabetes mellitus. *Res Rev J Med Heal Sci* 2016; 5: 1–8.
- [362] Naquvi KJ, Ahamad J, Mir SR, et al. Review on role of natural alpha-glucosidase inhibitors for management of diabetes mellitus. *Int J Biomed Res* 2011; 2: 374–380.
- [363] Raafat K, El-Darra N, Saleh F, et al. Optimization of infrared-assisted extraction of bioactive lactones from *Saussurea lappa* L. and their effects against gestational diabetes. *Pharmacogn Mag* 2019; 15: 208–218.
- [364] Eliza J, Daisy P, Ignacimuthu S, et al. Normo-glycemic and hypolipidemic effect of costunolide isolated from *Costus speciosus* (Koen ex. Retz.) Sm. in streptozotocin-induced diabetic rats. *Chem Biol Interact* 2009; 179: 329–334.
- [365] Li W., Zheng H., Bukuru J, et al. Natural medicines used in the traditional Chinese medical system for therapy of diabetes mellitus. *J Ethnopharmacol* 2004; 92: 1–21.
- [366] Faridmoayer A, Scaman CH. Binding residues and catalytic domain of soluble *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* processing alpha-glucosidase I. *Glycobiology* 2005; 15: 1341–1348.
- [367] El-Shora HM, Metwally MA, Khlaf SA. Essential groups and stability of α -glucosidase of *Penicillium notatum*. *Ann Microbiol* 2009; 59: 285–291.
- [368] Schramm M. Unmasking of sulfhydryl groups in pancreatic α -amylase. *Biochemistry* 1964; 3: 1231–1234.
- [369] Shanker K, Mohan GK, Hussain MA, et al. Green biosynthesis, characterization, in vitro antidiabetic activity, and investigational acute toxicity studies of some herbal-mediated silver nanoparticles on animal models. *Pharmacogn Mag* 2017; 13: 188–192.
- [370] Kavitha K, Sujatha K, Manoharan S. Biotherapeutic discovery development,

- characterization and antidiabetic potentials of *Nilgirianthus ciliatus* nees derived nanoparticles. *J nanodemicine Biother Discov* 2017; 7: 152.
- [371] Teng H, Chen L. α -Glucosidase and α -amylase inhibitors from seed oil: A review of liposoluble substance to treat diabetes. *Crit Rev Food Sci Nutr* 2017; 57: 3438–3448.
- [372] Vassiliou EK, Gonzalez A, Garcia C, et al. Oleic acid and peanut oil high in oleic acid reverse the inhibitory effect of insulin production of the inflammatory cytokine TNF-both in vitro and in vivo systems. *Lipids Health Dis* 2009; 8: 1–10.
- [373] Nguyen T, Um B, Kim S. Two unsaturated fatty acids with potent alpha-glucosidase inhibitory activity purified from the body wall of sea cucumber (*Stichopus japonicus*). *J Food Sci* 2011; 76: 208–214.
- [374] Su CH, Hsu CH, Ng LT. Inhibitory potential of fatty acids on key enzymes related to type 2 diabetes. *BioFactors* 2013; 39: 415–421.
- [375] Miyazawa M, Yagi N, Taguchi K. Inhibitory compounds of alpha-glucosidase activity from *Arctium lappa* L. *J Oleo Sci* 2005; 54: 589–594.
- [376] Nyambe-Silavwe H, Villa-Rodriguez JA, Ifie I, et al. Inhibition of human α -amylase by dietary polyphenols. *J Funct Foods* 2015; 19: 723–732.
- [377] Fujisawa T, Ikegami H, Inoue K, et al. Effect of two α -glucosidase inhibitors, voglibose and acarbose, on postprandial hyperglycemia correlates with subjective abdominal symptoms. *Metabolism* 2005; 54: 387–390.

LISTE DES ANNEXES

Annexe A

Réactifs, produits chimiques et enzymes utilisés

Tous les réactifs, produits, enzymes et milieux de culture avec leurs caractéristiques sont regroupés dans le Tableau ci-dessous :

Tableau A.1. Caractéristiques des réactifs, produits chimiques et enzymes utilisés.

Produit utilisés				
<i>Produit chimique</i>	<i>CAS</i>	<i>Fournisseur</i>	<i>Pureté (%)</i>	<i>Masse (g/mol)</i>
1,1-diphenyl-2-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH)	1898-66-4	Sigma-Aldrich	-	394.32
Sel d'ammonium de l'acide 2,2'-azinobis-(3-éthylbenzothiazoline-6-sulfonique) (ABTS)	30931-67-0	Sigma-Aldrich	-	548.68
Persulfate de potassium (K ₂ S ₂ O ₈)	7727-21-1	Sigma-Aldrich	≥ 99	270.32
Acétate d'ammonium (C ₂ H ₇ NO ₂)	631-61-8	Merck Millipore (Supelco)	-	77.08
Chlorure de cuivre (CuCl ₂)	7447-39-4	Sigma-Aldrich	≥ 99	134.45
Néocuproïne (C ₁₄ H ₁₂ N ₂)	484-11-7	Sigma-Aldrich	≥ 98	208.26
Chlorure de fer (FeCl ₃)	7705-08-0	Sigma-Aldrich	≥ 99	162.20
Ferricyanure de potassium (K ₃ Fe(CN) ₆)	13746-66-2	Sigma-Aldrich	≥ 99	329.24
Carbonate de sodium (Na ₂ CO ₃)	497-19-8	Sigma-Aldrich	≥ 99	105.99
Folin-Ciocalteu	521-24-4	Sigma-Aldrich	≥ 99	260.20
Acide gallique	149-91-7	Supleco	-	170.12
Hydroxyanisole butylé (BHA)	25013-16-5	Sigma-Aldrich	≥ 98.5	180.24
Acide 5,5'-dithiobis (2nitrobenzoïque)	69-78-3	Sigma-Aldrich	≥ 98	396.35
Iodure d'acétylthiocholine	1866-15-5	Sigma-Aldrich	≥ 98	289.18
Iodure de S-butyrylthiocholine	1866-16-6	Sigma-Aldrich	≥ 98	317.23
Galantamine	1953-04-4	Sigma-Aldrich	≥ 99	368.27
4-nitrophényl α-D-glucopyranoside	3767-28-0	Sigma-Aldrich	≥ 99	301.25
Acarbose	56180-94-0	Sigma-Aldrich	≥ 95	645.60
Iodure de potassium (KI)	7681-11-0	Biochem Chemopharma	≥ 99	166.00
Iode solide (I ₂)	7553-56-2	Sigma-Aldrich	≥ 99.8	253.81
Amidon	9005-25-8	Sigma-Aldrich		
Hydrogénophosphate de sodium (Na ₂ HPO ₄)	7558-79-4	Sigma-Aldrich	≥ 99	141.96
Dihydrogénophosphate de sodium (NaH ₂ PO ₄)	7558-80-7	Sigma-Aldrich	≥ 99	119.98
Enzymes utilisées				
<i>Enzyme</i>	<i>CAS</i>	<i>Fournisseur</i>	<i>Origine</i>	<i>Type</i>

Liste des annexes

Alpha-glucosidase	9001-42-7	Sigma-Aldrich	<i>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</i>	Type I, ≥10 U/mg
Alpha-amylase	9001-19-8	Sigma-Aldrich	<i>Aspergillus oryzaewere</i>	≥150 U/mg
Acétylcholinestérase	9000-81-1	Sigma-Aldrich	<i>Electrophorus electricus</i>	Type-VI-S, EC 3.1.1.7, 200-1,000U/mg
Butyrylcholinestérase	9001-08-5	Sigma-Aldrich	Sérum de cheval	EC 3.1.1.8, ≥10U/mg

Produits et réactifs pour traitement cellulaire

<i>Produit</i>	<i>Nom</i>	<i>Origine</i>
FBS	Fetal Serum Bovine	Gemini® Bio-Products, West Sacramento, CA
Mélange d'antibiotique	Pénicilline-Streptomycine (10000 U/mL)	Life Technologies®, Grand Island, États-Unis
RNAlater	-	Invitrogen®, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Massachusetts, États-Unis
PBS+	Dubecco's Phosphate Buffered Saline (avec CaCl ₂ et MgCl ₂)	Gibco®, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Massachusetts, États-Unis
PBS-	Dubecco's Phosphate Buffered Saline (sans CaCl ₂ et MgCl ₂)	Gibco®, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, Massachusetts, États-Unis
BSA	Bovine Serum Alcaline	Sigma-Aldrich
LPS	Lipopolysaccharide	Issu de <i>Salmonella abortus equi</i> S-form (Enzo Life Sciences, Lörrach, Allemagne).
Trypsine	Issue du pancréas de bovin	Sigma Aldrich
Tris-HCl	-	BioRad, États-Unis
Acrylamide/Bisacrylamide	Solution 40%	Sigma Aldrich
SDS	Dodécylsulfate de sodium	Sigma Aldrich
Gélatine	-	Sigma Aldrich
APS	Persulfate d'ammonium	BioRad, États-Unis
TEMED	N,N,N',N'-tétraméthylène diamine	Life Technologies®, Grand Island, États-Unis
Tampon 10X	-	BioRad, États-Unis
Triton X-100	Polyéthylène glycol tert-octylphényl éther	VWR™, États-Unis
Bleu de Coomassie	Brilliant Blue G 250	Serva Electrophoresis™ Thermo Fisher Scientific, Massachusetts, États-Unis
Bleu laemmli 5X	-	BioRad, États-Unis
Glycérol	-	Sigma Aldrich
Eau RNAase free	-	Millipore

Liste des annexes

Buffer Lysis DRP	DNA + RNA + Protein Extraction Kit (E3597)	Biobasics INC (Ontario, Canada)
GT solution	-	Biobasics INC (Ontario, Canada)
NT solution	-	Biobasics INC (Ontario, Canada)
Milieu de culture	Nom	Origine
DMEM/F-12	Dulbecco's Modified Eagles Medium-Nutrient Mixture F-1	Gibco®, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, Massachusetts, États-Unis

Annexe B

Extraction de l'huile de costus

Une étude paramétrique a été effectuée afin d'examiner l'effet de trois paramètres à savoir : la pression ; la température ; et le diamètre des particules sur le rendement d'extraction de l'huile de costus indien par CO₂ supercritique ; des expériences préliminaires sont réalisées selon les conditions illustrées dans le **Tableau A.2**. Les résultats de ces expériences sont montrés dans les **Figures A.1** et **A.2**.

Tableau A.2. Conditions opératoires utilisées pour l'extraction de l'huile de costus.

Expérience	Température (°C)	Diamètre (mm)	Pression (bar)
E1	40	0.6	100
E2	50	0.6	100
E3	60	0.6	100
E4	40	0.3	100
E5	40	0.9	100
E6	40	0.3	150
E7	40	0.3	200

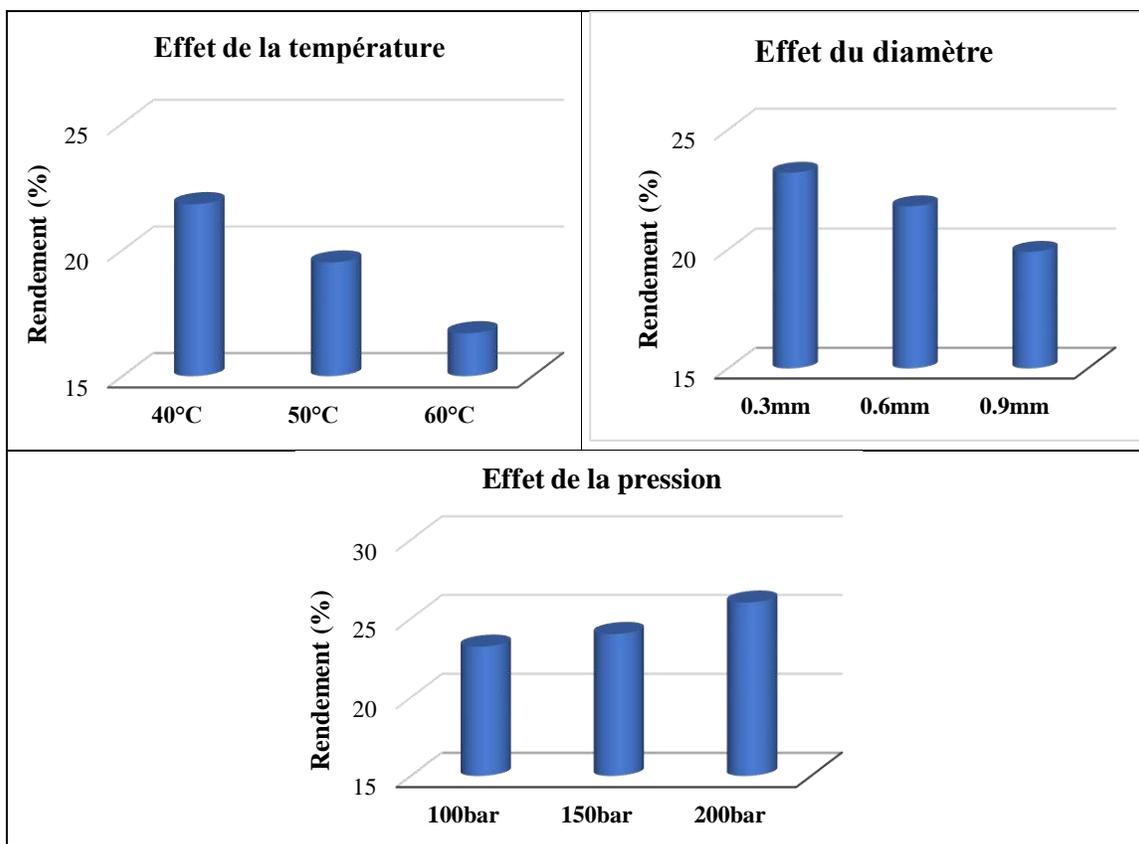


Figure A.1. Effet des différents facteurs sur le rendement de l'huile de costus.

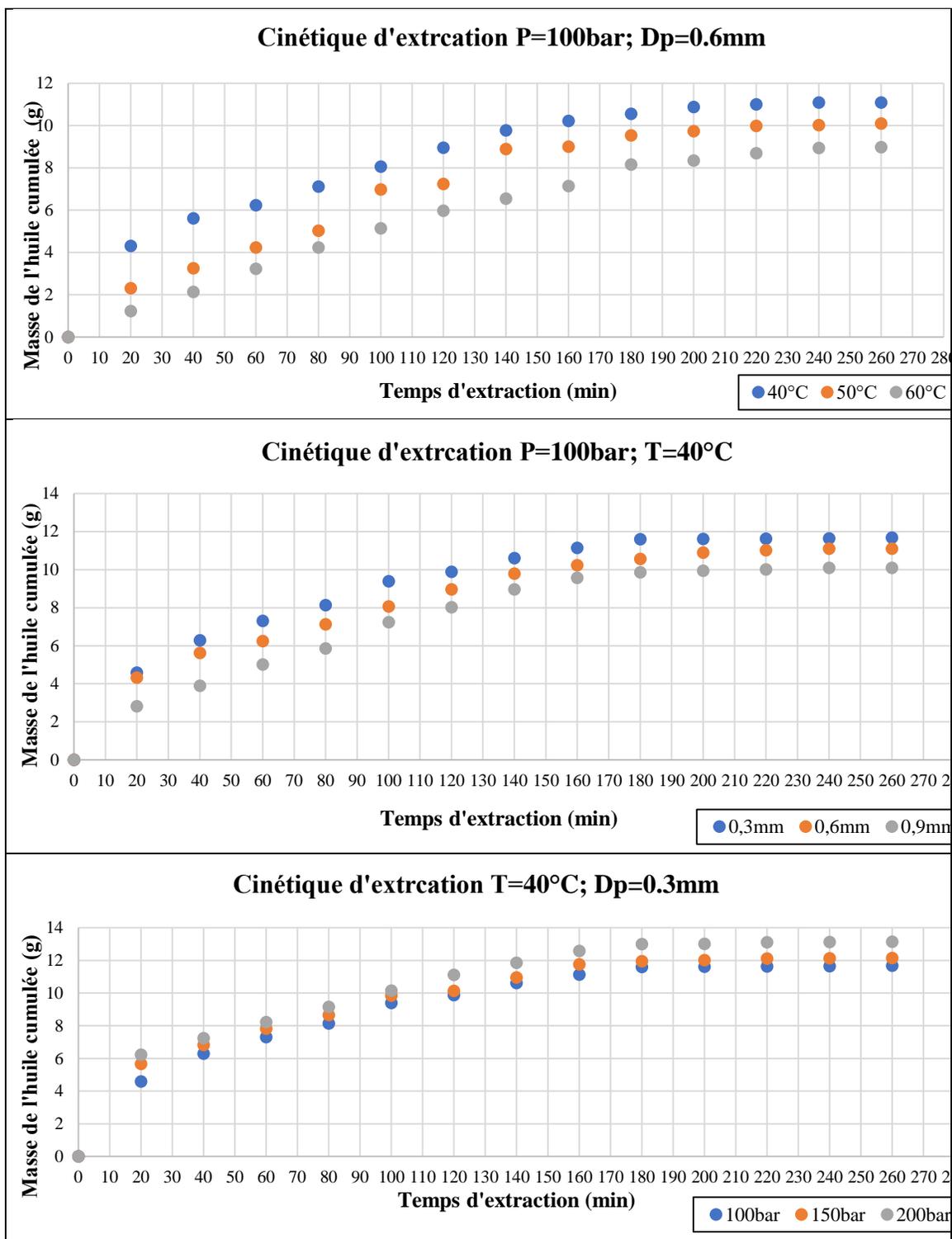


Figure A.2. Analyse des cinétiques d'extraction de l'huile de costus. P : Pression ; T : Température et Dp : Diamètre des particules.

D'après les résultats illustrés ci-dessus, les trois paramètres étudiés avaient un effet remarquable sur le rendement de l'extraction de l'huile de costus indien. L'étude de l'effet de la température montre qu'une augmentation de la température entraîne une baisse du rendement, cela est attribué au fait qu'à faible pression (100bar), la perte du pouvoir solvant domine sur l'augmentation de la tension de vapeur du solvant, ce qui entraîne une diminution de la solubilité, réduisant ainsi le rendement.

L'étude de l'effet du diamètre a montré que l'augmentation du diamètre des particules influe négativement sur le rendement de l'extraction. Ceci est attribué à la diminution de la surface de contact entre la matrice végétale et le solvant (CO₂).

L'effet de la pression sur le rendement de l'HE du costus est réalisé en fixant la température à 40°C et le diamètre à 0.3mm. Nous notons qu'une augmentation de la pression entraîne une augmentation du pouvoir solvant ce qui se traduit par une amélioration du rendement d'extraction

L'observation visuelle des différents échantillons a révélé que l'huile extraite à 150 et 200bar est très visqueuse et se solidifie à température ambiante. C'est peut-être dû à la présence d'autres constituants autre que l'HE. Afin d'éviter cet état de l'extrait, une pression de 100bar est choisie où l'essence est liquide à température ambiante. En résumé, les conditions optimales étaient fixées à : Température (40°C), diamètre (0.3mm) et pression (100bar).

Annexe C

Conditions opératoires de la lyophilisation

Étalement : Période de maintien de la congélation : 0 min Vide partiel d'isolation cuve : 5 Sec
 Durée produits pour fin de congélation : -33 °C
 Durée étagères pour demande chargement : 20.0 °C Type acquittement chargement : Automatique

Consignes température étagères pour congélation

T° en fin de rampe	-40.0 °C	-40.0 °C	-50.0 °C	-40.0 °C						
Durée d'application	03H00mn	03H00mn	00H00mn							

Lyophilisation primaire :

Lyophilisation primaire sur : Durée chauffe et température produits Température à atteindre pour la fin de lyophilisation primaire : -2 °C
 Durée de maintien en fin de lyophilisation primaire : 2 min Niveau de vide nécessaire pour le départ chauffe : 1.102 mBar
 Température étagères en début de première rampe : -40 °C

Consignes température étagères pour lyophilisation primaire

Consigne vide	0.173	0.173	0.173	0.173	0.173	0.173	0.100	0.100	0.100
T° en fin de rampe	-40.0 °C	-35.0 °C	-35.0 °C	-20.0 °C	-20.0 °C	-5.0 °C	-5.0 °C	5.0 °C	5.0 °C
Durée d'application	00H15mn	01H30mn	09H00mn	01H00mn	04H00mn	01H17mn	04H00mn	00H00mn	00H00mn

Lyophilisation secondaire :

Code N°	Durée de la Période	Consigne T°	Consigne pression	Période N°	Durée de la Période	Consigne T°	Consigne pression
	4 jours 0 heures 40 minutes	15 °C	0.010 mBar	11			

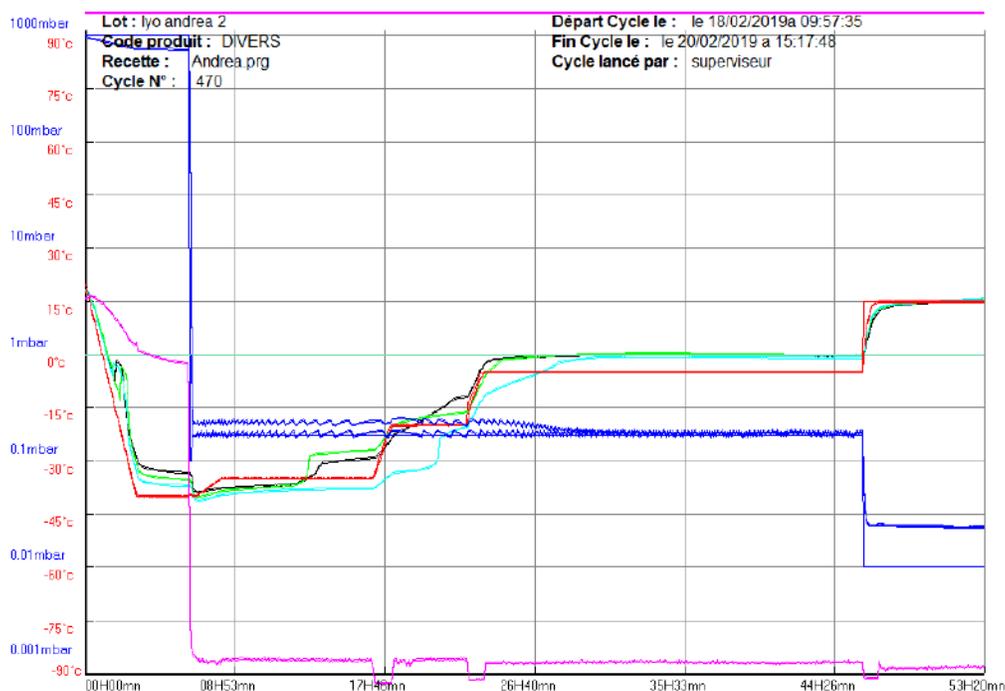


Figure A.3. Conditions opératoires de la lyophilisation.

Annexe D

Analyse des huiles par UV-Visible

D.1. Validation de la méthode analytique UV-Visible de l'huile des noyaux de dattes

Pour valider la méthode d'analyse, une solution mère de l'huile des noyaux de dattes dans du chloroforme (20mg/ml) avec cinq solutions étalons (0.8, 1, 2, 4, 6 et 8 mg/ml) sont préparées. Les absorbances des solutions sont ensuite lues grâce au spectrophotomètre UV et la courbe est tracée par la suite.

D.1.1. Détermination de la longueur d'onde

Le maximum d'absorption défini pour l'huile des noyaux de dattes est de 274.8 nm d'après la **Figure A.4**.

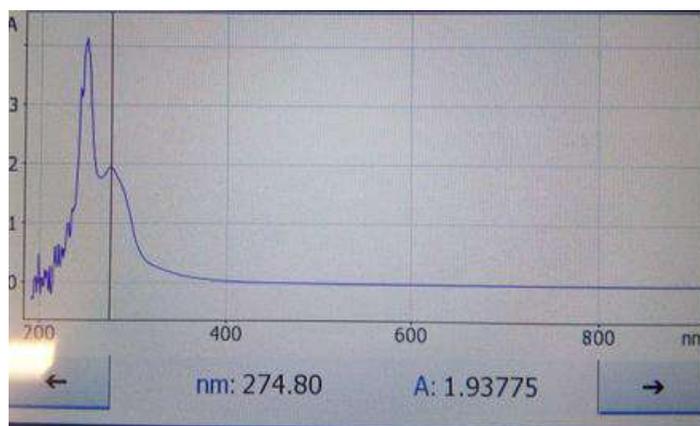


Figure A.4. Sélection de la longueur d'onde maximale de l'huile des noyaux de dattes.

D.1.2. Linéarité de la gamme d'étalonnage

Les résultats obtenus après l'analyse en UV-visible des différentes solutions étalons sont montrés sur le **Tableau A.3**.

Tableau A.3. Absorbances des solutions étalons à différentes concentrations.

C (mg/ml)	Absorbance
0.8	0.109
1.0	0.128
2.0	0.209
4.0	0.415
6.0	0.605
8.0	0.778

La représentation graphique des résultats obtenus et le tracé de la courbe de tendance donne une droite, avec un coefficient de corrélation de 0.9992 (**Figure A.5**).

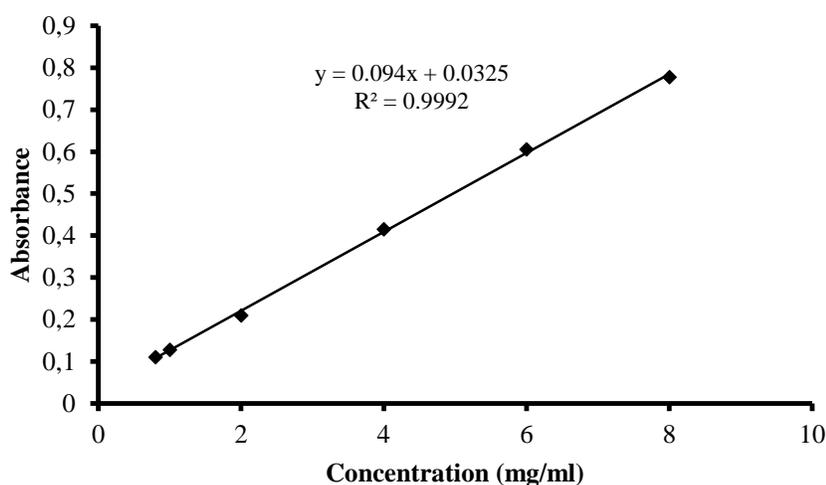


Figure A.5. Courbe d'étalonnage de l'huile des noyaux de dattes.

D.1.3. Exactitude

Les taux de recouvrements de trois solutions sont calculés d'après l'équation A.1 et les résultats sont mentionnés dans le **Tableau A.4**.

$$\text{Taux de recouvrement (\%)} = \frac{\text{Concentration calculée}}{\text{Concentration introduite}} \times 100 \quad (\text{A.1})$$

Tableau A.4. Etude d'exactitude de la méthode.

Concentration (mg/ml)	Absorbance	Concentration calculée (mg/ml)	Taux de recouvrement (%)
1	0.126	0.994	99.460
2	0.221	2.005	100.260
4	0.409	4.005	100.130

Les taux de recouvrement sont tous supérieurs à 99%, ce qui confirme l'exactitude de la méthode.

D.1.4. Précision

Les écarts-types relatifs (RSD) pour les mesures inter-day et intra-day sont calculés en appliquant l'équation A.2 et les résultats sont illustrés dans le **Tableau A.5**.

$$\text{Ecart type relatif (\%)} = \frac{\sigma}{m} \times 100 \quad (\text{A.2})$$

Où, m est la moyenne, σ est l'écart type

Tableau A.5. Etude de répétabilité intra- et inter-day.

Concentration (mg/mL)	Intra-day			Inter-day		
	Moyenne	SD	RSD	Moyenne	SD	RSD
1	0.118	0.004	4.000	0.132	0.005	4.370
2	0.182	0.003	1.830	0.186	0.012	6.460
4	0.418	0.005	1.265	0.425	0.012	2.930

SD: Ecart type; RSD: écarts-types relatifs

Tous les RSD sont inférieurs à 10.0% (**Tableau A.5**), ce qui confirme la répétabilité de la méthode d'analyse.

D.1.5. Limites de détection et de quantification

Les valeurs de limite de détection (LOD) et de limite de quantification (LOQ) sont de 0.13 et 0.44 mg/ml, respectivement.

D.2. Analyse de l'huile de costus par UV-Visible

Plusieurs pics apparaissent dans le spectre UV-visible de l'huile de costus, ce qui rend cette méthode inutile.

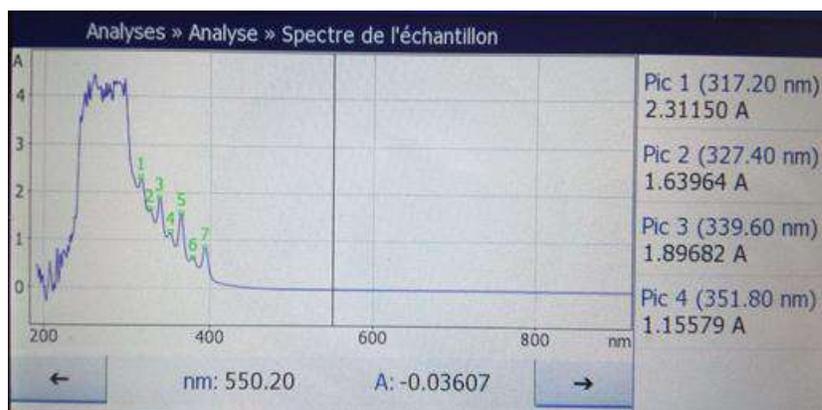


Figure A.6. Sélection de la longueur d'onde maximale de l'huile de costus.

Annexe E

Activité anti-inflammatoire

E.1. Préparation des concentrations

Pour la préparation des aliquots des différentes solutions, on se sert de l'équation (A.3):

$$C_1 \cdot V_1 = C_2 \cdot V_2 \quad (\text{A.3})$$

Où C_1 : la concentration de la solution de NP (4mg/ml),

V_1 : le volume prélevé,

C_2 : La concentration finale,

V_2 : le volume de la solution finale.

$$V_2 = (\text{Volume de la solution dans un puit} \times \text{nombre de puits}) + 1 \text{ volume}$$

mort

$$= (1\text{ml} \times 3) + 1 = 4\text{ml}.$$

Aliquots de NP contenant l'huile

200µg/ml —————> 200µl solution mère + 3.8ml milieu de culture

100µg/ml —————> 100µl solution mère + 3.9ml milieu de culture

75µg/ml —————> 75µl solution mère + 3.925ml milieu de culture

50µg/ml —————> 50µl solution mère + 3.950ml milieu de culture

25µg/ml —————> 25µl solution mère + 3.975ml milieu de culture

12.5µg/ml —————> 12.5µl solution mère + 3.987ml milieu de culture

Aliquots de NP vides

Pour le test de cytotoxicité : 200µl solution mère + 3.9ml milieu de culture

Pour les autres tests : 25µl solution mère + 3.975ml milieu de culture

Aliquots de la solution d'huile

200µg/ml —————> 800µl d'huile + 1.6ml DMSO + 1.6ml milieu de culture

E.2. Test de cytotoxicité LDH

E.2.1. Préparation de Reaction Mixture

- Dans un flacon de 15ml, dissoudre un tube de « *Substrate Mix* » dans 11.4ml d'eau.

- Décongeler un tube de « *Assay Buffer* » (0.6ml) à température ambiante.

- Mélanger l'*Assay Buffer* avec le *Substrate Mix* et conserver à l'abri de la lumière jusqu'à utilisation.

E.2.2. Préparation du contrôle positif

Mélanger 1µl de LDH Positive Control avec 10ml de PBS⁺ et 1% BSA.

E.3. Extraction de l'ADN

- Mettre 350 µl de *Buffer Lysis DRP tampon* dans les puits contenant les A549.
- Gratter
- Transférer en tube 1.5ml
- Centrifuger 3min à 12000g à 4°C
- Récupérer le surnageant et le placer sur colonne EZ-10 DNA
- Incuber 1min à température ambiante
- Centrifuger 1min à 9000g
- Conserver l'éluat en eppendorf dans la glace.

E.4. Extraction de l'ARN

- Ajouter 250 µl à l'éluat conservé, homogénéiser
- Déposer le mélange sur colonne RZ-10 DNA
- Centrifuger 1min à 9000g
- Conserver l'éluat en eppendorf dans la glace
- Ajouter 500 µl de *GT solution*
- Incuber 1min à température ambiante
- Centrifuger 1min à 9000g
- Eliminer l'éluat
- Centrifuger 1min à 9000g
- Ajouter 500 µl de *NT solution*
- Incuber 1min à température ambiante
- Centrifuger 1min à 9000g
- Eliminer l'éluat
- Centrifuger 2min à 9000g
- Transférer la colonne sur tube de 1.5ml

- Déposer 30 µl d'eau *RNAase free*
- Incuber 2min à température ambiante
- Centrifuger 2min à 9000g pour éluer l'ARN
- Conservation à 4°C puis congélation

E.5. Protocole de la transcription inverse (*SuperScript® IV First-Strand cDNA Synthesis Reaction*)

E.5.1. Hybridation de l'ARN

- Dans un tube de réaction mélanger les composants mentionnés dans le tableau suivant :

Composant	Volume
Amorces Oligo d(T)20 (50µM)	1µl
dNTP mix (10mM)	1µl
ARN matrice	11µl
DEPC (diéthyl pyrocarbonate)-traité l'eau	13µl

- Mélanger et centrifuger brièvement le mélange.
- Chauffer le mélange ARN-amorce à 65 °C pendant 5 min, puis incuber dans la glace pendant au moins 1 min.

E.5.2. Préparation du RT mix

- Dans un tube de réaction, mélanger les composants mentionnés dans le tableau suivant

Composant	Volume
Tampon SSIV	4µl
DTT (100mM)	1µl
RNaseOUT™ Recombinant RNase Inhibitor	1µl
SuperScript® IV Reverse transcriptase (200U/µL)	1µl

- Mélanger et centrifuger brièvement le mélange.

E.5.3. Combiner l'ARN hybrid avec RT mix

- Incuber le mélange réactionnel à 50–55 °C pendant 10 min.
- Inactiver la réaction en l'incubant à 80 °C pendant 10 min.

E.5.4. Amplification par PCR

Utilisez votre réaction RT immédiatement pour l'amplification par PCR ou conservez-la à -20 °C.

E.6. Protocole de qPCR (Taqman® Fast Advanced Master Mix)

- Dans un tube de réaction, mélanger les composants mentionnés dans le tableau suivant:

Composant	Volume
Taqman® Fast Advanced Master Mix (2X)	10µl
Taqman® Assay (20X)	1µl
Eau sans nucléase	7µl
Volume total par réaction	18µl

- Centrifuger brièvement pour amener le mélange réactionnel au fond du tube et éliminer les bulles d'air.
- Transférer le volume approprié du mélange réactionnel PCR dans chaque puits d'une plaque (96 puits) de réaction optique.
- Ajouter 2µl d'ADNc (1 pg à 100 ng dans de l'eau sans nucléase), dans chaque puits.
- Sceller la plaque avec un film adhésif optique, puis centrifuger brièvement pour amener le mélange de réaction PCR au fond des puits et éliminer les bulles d'air.
- Insérer la plaque dans le thermocycleur. Le programme de la PCR comprend un cycle de dénaturation initiale à 95°C durant 10 min, suivi de 45 cycles d'amplification (dénaturation à 95°C durant 15 secondes et hybridation/élongation à 60°C durant 30 secondes) (**Figure A.7**).

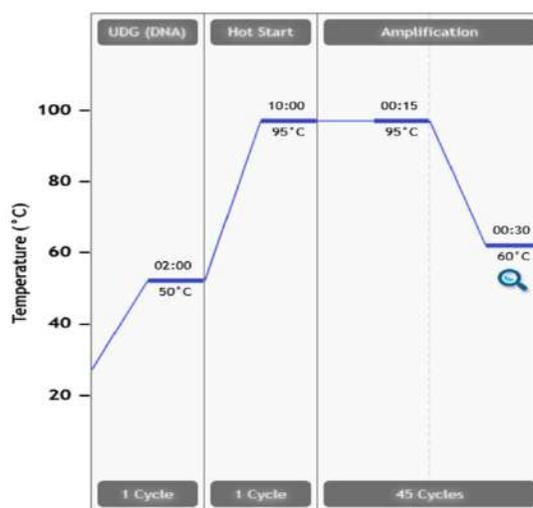


Figure A.7. Programme de PCR.

E.7. Zymographie

E.7.1. Préparation du gel de séparation

Dans un flacon de 50ml, mélanger 3.31 ml d'eau avec :

- Tris-HCl pH 8.8 1.5M (2.5 ml)
- Acrylamide/Bisacrylamide 40% (2.5 ml)
- Dodécylsulfate de sodium (SDS) 10% (100 µl)
- Gélatine 1.5mg/ml (1.5 ml)
- Persulfate d'ammonium (APS) 10% (75 µl)
- N,N,N',N'-tétraméthylène diamine (TEMED) (15 µl)

E.7.2. Préparation du gel de concentration

Dans un flacon de 15ml, mélanger 3.15ml d'eau avec :

- Tris -HCl pH 6.8 0.5M (1.25 ml)
- Acrylamide/Bisacrylamide 40% (500 µl)
- SDS 10% (50 µl)
- APS 10% (37.5 µl)
- TEMED (7.5 µl)

E.7.3. Préparation du tampon de migration (Tris-glycine-SDS)

- Mélanger 100 ml de tampon 10X avec 10ml SDS à 10%.
- Mettre la solution résultante dans 1l d'eau distillée.

E.7.4. Préparation du tampon d'incubation

- Dissoudre 6.06g du Tris (50mM) et 0.74g du CaCl₂ (5mM) dans 1l d'eau.
- Ajuster le pH à 7.6 avec du HCl.
- Ajouter 1ml de Triton X-100
- Ajouter 50µl du chlorure de zinc (1mM) pour 100ml de tampon.

E.7.5. Préparation du tampon de coloration

- Dissoudre 5g du bleu de Coomassie dans 50ml d'acide acétique glacial et 200ml du méthanol.
- Compléter à 500ml avec de l'eau distillée.

E.7.6. Préparation du tampon de décoloration

- Mélanger 100ml d'acide acétique avec 200ml du méthanol.

- Compléter à 1l avec de l'eau distillée.

E.7.7. Préparation du tampon de conservation

- Mélanger 50ml d'acide acétique avec 25ml du glycérol.
- Compléter à 550 ml avec de l'eau distillée.

E.8. Extrapolation des résultats de la qPCR

Prenant le cas des cellules A549 traitées par des NP vides, la courbe d'amplification du TNF- α obtenue après une q-PCR de l'ADNc de ces cellules est analysée à l'aide du Logiciel AriaMX et la valeur du cycle seuil (Ct) est de 28.2, comme illustré dans la **Figure A.8**.

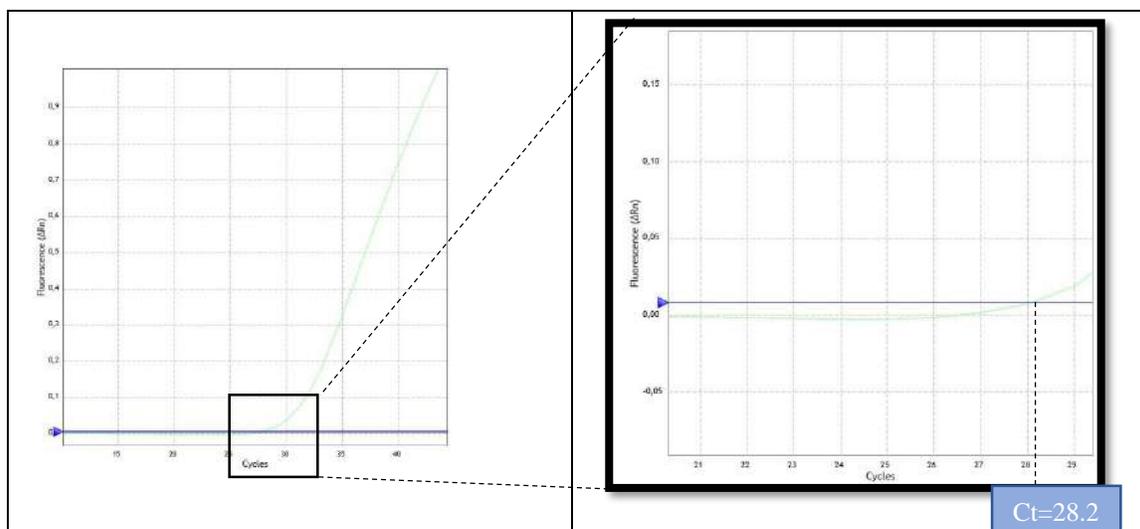


Figure A.8. Courbe d'amplification du TNF- α (cas des NP vides).

Tous les cycles seuils sont déterminés de la même façon et l'expression des gènes codant pour les différents médiateurs inflammatoires (TNF- α , GM-CSF et l'IL-1 β) est calculée en utilisant l'équation 3.3 (voir Chapitre III), comme le montre les **Tableau A.6**, **A.7** et **A.8**.

Tableau A.6. Expression de l'ARNm du médiateur inflammatoire TNF- α .

Echantillons	TBP (Ct)	TNF- α (Ct)	Δ Ct	$\Delta\Delta$ Ct	$2^{-\Delta\Delta$ Ct}
A549	24.25	31.85	7.60	0.00	1.00
LPS	24.59	29.18	4.59	-3.02	8.10
NP vides	23.65	28.23	4.58	-3.02	8.13
NP chargées	23.08	29.17	6.09	-1.51	2.85

Tableau A.7. Expression de l'ARNm du médiateur inflammatoire IL1b.

Echantillons	TBP (Ct)	IL1b (Ct)	ΔCt	$\Delta\Delta Ct$	$2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$
A549	24.25	24.25	28.9	0.00	1.00
LPS	24.59	24.59	28.29	-0.61	1.53
NP vides	23.65	23.65	27.91	-0.99	1.99
NP chargées	23.08	23.08	28.83	-0.07	1.05

Tableau A.8. Expression de l'ARNm du médiateur inflammatoire GM-CSF.

Echantillons	TBP (Ct)	GM-CSF (Ct)	ΔCt	$\Delta\Delta Ct$	$2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$
A549	24.77	30.89	6.12	0.00	1.00
LPS	24.67	29.71	5.04	-1.08	2.12
NP vides	23.00	27.98	4.98	-1.14	2.20
NP chargées	24.445	30.7	6.26	0.13	0.91

Annexe F

Activité antioxydante

F.1. Solution de DPPH

- Dissoudre 6 mg de DPPH dans un 100 ml du méthanol
- Vérifier l'absorbance à 517 nm (elle doit être comprise entre 0.4 et 0.5).
- Conserver la solution à -20°C à l'abri de la lumière.

F.2. Solution d'ABTS⁺

- Mélanger 7mM d'ABTS dans l'eau avec 2,45 mM de persulfate de potassium.
- Conserver la solution à l'abri de la lumière et à température ambiante pendant 12 h avant utilisation pour que la solution se stabilise.
- Avant utilisation, vérifier l'absorbance à 734 nm (elle doit être comprise entre 0.6 et 0.7).

F.3. Solution d'acétate d'ammonium (1M)

Dissoudre 1.927 g d'acétate d'ammonium dans 25 ml d'eau (pH 7)

F.4. Solution de chlorure de cuivre (10mM)

Dissoudre 0.0426 g du chlorure de cuivre dans 25 ml d'eau.

F.5. Solution de néocuproïne (7.5mM)

Dissoudre 0.039 g de la néocuproïne dans 25 ml du méthanol.

F.6. Préparation de Folin Ciocalteu 0.1N

1ml de la solution de Folin Ciocalteu concentré (2M) est complété à 10ml avec de l'eau distillée (9ml).

F.7. Teneur en polyphénols totaux

Le principe de la méthode adoptée est basé sur le fait qu'en présence de phénols, le réactif de Folin-Ciocalteu, constitué par un mélange d'acide phosphomolybdique et d'acide phosphotungstique est réduit en mélange d'oxydes de tungstène et de molybdène de couleur bleu et qui absorbe à 765 nm.

A. Protocole

Une solution de carbonate de sodium à 7.5% (80 µl) est mélangée avec 20 µl de l'huile de noyaux de dattes (1mg/ml) et 100µl du réactif de Folin-Ciocalteu (0.1N). Le mélange est

laissé à l'obscurité pendant 2h. Ensuite, l'absorbance est lue à l'aide d'un spectrophotomètre à une longueur d'ondes de 765 nm. Une courbe d'étalonnage de 25 à 200 µg/ml est établie avec de l'acide gallique dans les mêmes conditions que l'huile à analyser. La teneur en polyphénols totaux est exprimée en milligramme équivalent d'acide gallique par gramme d'huile (mg EAG/g d'huile).

B. Gamme d'étalonnage de l'acide gallique

Une solution mère de l'acide gallique dans du méthanol (0.2mg/ml) avec huit dilutions (25, 50, 70, 100, 125, 150, 175 et 200 µg/ml) ont été préparées. Dans une microplaque, pipetter 20µl de chaque dilution et ajouter 100µl de la solution Folin Ciocalteu (0.1N) et 80µl du carbonate de sodium (7.5%). Les absorbances sont lues à 765nm après incubation pendant 2h. La droite d'étalonnage est illustrée dans la **Figure A.9**.

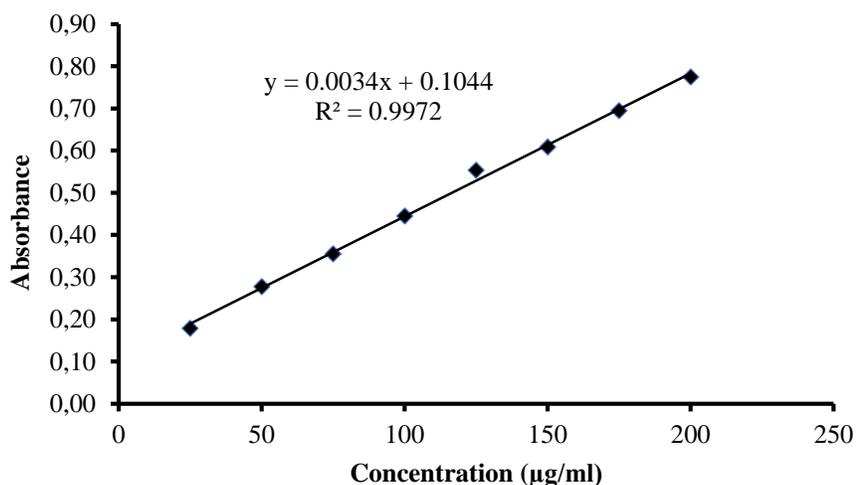


Figure A.9. Droite d'étalonnage de l'acide gallique.

Annexe G

Activité enzymatique

G.1. Solution tampon

- 1- 1.56 g de NaH_2PO_4 + 100 ml H_2O → V1
- 2- 8.890 g de Na_2HPO_4 + 500 ml H_2O → V2
- 3- V1 +V2 → Solution Tampon comme le montre le tableau ci-dessous ; on ajuste le pH avec du NaOH.

PH	5.8	6.2	6.4	6.6	6.8	7	7.2	7.4	7.6	7.8	8
Na_2HPO_4 (ml)	8	18.5	26.5	37.5	49	61	72	81	87	91.5	94.5
NaH_2PO_4 (ml)	92	81.5	73.5	62.5	51	39	28	19	13	8.5	5.3

G.2. Activité anti-cholinestérase

G.2.1. Solution d'acétylcholinestérase

- Dissoudre 0.2 mg d'acétylcholinestérase dans 4 ml du tampon (PH=8) → Solution mère
- Aliquoter chaque 20 μl de la solution mère d'enzyme dans un eppendorf
- Conserver les eppendorfs dans le congélateur à -20°C .
- Pour le test, diluer un eppendorf dans 3 ml de tampon (PH = 8).
- Contrôler l'absorbance à 412 nm (elle doit être comprise entre 0.4 et 0.5).

G.2.2. Solution de butyrylcholinestérase

- Dissoudre 0.2 mg de butyrylcholinestérase dans 1 ml du tampon (PH=8) → Solution mère
- Aliquoter chaque 20 μl de la solution mère d'enzyme dans un eppendorf
- Conserver les eppendorfs dans le congélateur à -20°C .
- Pour le test, diluer un eppendorf dans 2 ml de tampon (PH = 8).
- Contrôler l'absorbance à 412 nm (elle doit être comprise entre 0.4 et 0.5).

G.2.3. Solution d'acide 5,5'-dithiobis (2nitrobenzoïque)

- 16 mg d'acide 5,5'-dithiobis (2nitrobenzoïque) + 1 ml tampon (PH=7) → Solution A
- 7.5 mg de Bicarbonate de sodium + 1 ml tampon (PH=7) → Solution B

- Solution A + Solution B + 2 ml tampon (PH=7) + 4 ml tampon (PH=8) → volume total 8 ml

G.2.4. Solution d'iodure d'acétylthiocholine

Dissoudre 16g d'iodure d'acétylthiocholine I dans 4 ml d'eau ; puis ajouter 4 ml du tampon (PH =8).

G.2.5. Solution d'iodure de butyrylthiocholine

Dissoudre 4 mg d'iodure de butyrylthiocholine dans 4 ml d'eau, puis ajouter 4 ml du tampon (PH =8)

G.3. Activité anti-diabétique

G.3.1. Solution d' α -glucosidase

- Dissoudre 1 mg de l' α -glucosidase dans 10 ml du tampon (pH=6.9) → solution mère.
- Aliquoter chaque 1 ml de la solution mère d'enzyme dans un eppendorf
- Conserver les eppendorfs dans le congélateur à -20°C.
- Pour le test, diluer un eppendorf dans 9 ml du tampon.

G.3.2. Solution d' α -amylase

- Dissoudre 1 mg de l' α -glucosidase dans 10 ml du tampon (pH=6.9) → solution mère.
- Aliquoter chaque 1 ml de la solution mère d'enzyme dans un eppendorf
- Conserver les eppendorfs dans le congélateur à -20°C.
- Pour le test, diluer un eppendorf dans 9 ml du tampon.

G.3.3. Solution de 4-nitrophényl α -D-glucopyranoside (5mM)

Dissoudre 15.06mg de 4-nitrophényl α -D-glucopyranoside dans 10ml de solution tampon (pH 6.9).

G.3.4. Solution d'amidon 0.1%

Dissoudre 0.1mg d'amidon dans 100ml d'eau et mettre la solution dans un microonde à plusieurs cycles de 15 sec jusqu'à dissolution totale.

G.3.5. Solution d'IKI

Dissoudre 3 g de d'iodure de potassium (KI) dans 100 ml d'eau ; puis ajouter 127 mg d'iode. Agiter le mélange jusqu'à dissolution complète.

Annexe H

Liste des Productions Scientifiques

Publications Internationales

- 1- Narimane Lammari, Francesca Froiio, Mehdi Louaer, Maria Chiara Cristiano, Chawki Bensouici, Donatella Paolino, Ouahida Louaer, Abdeslam Hassen Meniai, and Abdelhamid Elaissari. Poly (ethyl acrylate-co-methyl Methacrylate-co-trimethylammoniumethyl methacrylate chloride) (Eudragit RS100) Nanocapsules as Nanovector Carriers for Phoenix dactylifera L. Seeds Oil: a Versatile Antidiabetic Agent. **Biomacromolecules**, 2020.
DOI: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1021/acs.biomac.0c00255>
- 2- Narimane Lammari, Tanguy Demautis, Ouahida Louaer, Abdeslam Hassen Meniai, Herve Casabianca, Chawki Bensouici, Gilles Devouassoux, Hatem Fessi, Abderrazzak Bentaher, Abdelhamid Elaissari. Nanocapsules Containing Saussurea lappa Essential Oil: Formulation, Characterization, Antidiabetic, Anti-Cholinesterase and Anti-Inflammatory Potentials. **International journal of pharmaceutics**, 2021, 593, 120138.
DOI: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijpharm.2020.120138>
- 3- Narimane Lammari, Ouahida Louaer, Abdeslam Hassen Meniai, Hatem Fessi, Abdelhamid Elaissari. Plant oils: From chemical composition to encapsulated form use. **International journal of pharmaceutics**, 2021, 601, 120538.
DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijpharm.2021.120538>
- 4- Narimane Lammari, Ouahida Louaer, Abdeslam Hassen Meniai, Abdelhamid Elaissari. Encapsulation of Essential Oils via Nanoprecipitation Process: Overview, Progress, Challenges and Prospects. **Pharmaceutics** 2020, 12, 431.
DOI : <https://dx.doi.org/10.3390/pharmaceutics12050431>

Chapitres dans des livres

- 1- Narimane Lammari, Mohamad Tarhini, Kaim Miladi, Wahida Louaer, Abdeslam Hassen Meniai, Souad Sfar, Hatem Fessi, Abdelhamid Elaissari. Chapter 14- Encapsulation methods of active molecules for drug delivery. In **Drug delivery devices and therapeutic systems**; Fitzpatrick, D., Ed.; Elsevier; pp. 289-306.
- 2- Francesca Froiio, Narimane Lammari, Mohamad Tarhini, Munther Alomari, Wahida Louaer, Abdeslam Hassen Meniai, Donatella Paolino, Hatem Fessi, Abdelhamid Elaissari. Chapter 16 - Polymer-based nanocontainers for drug delivery. In **Smart Nanocontainers Micro and Nano Technologies**; Nguyen, T.A., Eds.; Elsevier Science Publishing Co Inc, 2020; pp. 271–285.

Autres Publications Internationales

- 1- Firdos Alam Khan, Lammari Narimane, Siar Adeeb Shezad Muhammad, Mohammed Alkhater Khulood, Asiri Sarah, Akhtar Sultan, Almansour Iman, Alamoudi Widyana, Haroun Woroud, Louaer Wahida, Meniai Abdeslam Hassen, Elaissari Abdelhamid. Quantum dots encapsulated with curcumin inhibit the growth of colon cancer, breast cancer and bacterial cells. **Nanomedicine**, 2020, 15, 969–980. DOI: <https://doi-org/10.2217/nmm-2019-0429>

Poly(ethyl acrylate-co-methyl Methacrylate-co-trimethylammoniumethyl methacrylate chloride) (Eudragit RS100) Nanocapsules as Nanovector Carriers for *Phoenix dactylifera* L. Seeds Oil: a Versatile Antidiabetic Agent

Narimane Lammari, Francesca Froiio, Mehdi Louaer, Maria Chiara Cristiano, Chawki Bensouici, Donatella Paolino, Ouahida Louaer, Abdeslam Hassen Meniai, and Abdelhamid Elaissari*



Cite This: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1021/acs.biomac.0c00255>



Read Online

ACCESS |



Metrics & More

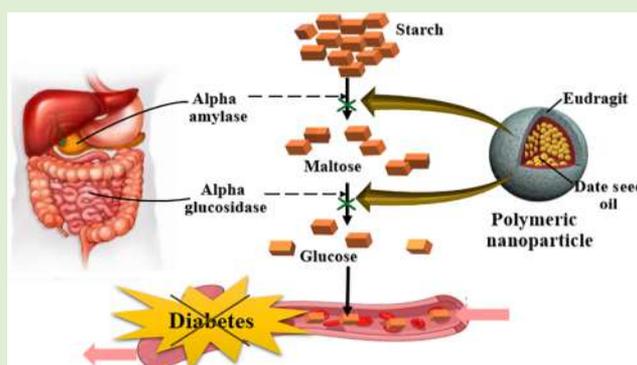


Article Recommendations



Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: Food waste valorization practices have gained considerable attention focusing on the conversion of the waste into valuable products. In this context, the present study provides an insight into a new Eudragit RS100 based nanosystem as a carrier of date palm (*Phoenix dactylifera* L.) seeds oil known for its antidiabetic activity. A priori systematic study was carried out in order to understand the individual impact of all contributing factors considered by the nanoprecipitation method. Then, date seeds oil nanoparticles were prepared, characterized and analyzed for their in vitro inhibition activity against: α -amylase and α -glucosidase. The results showed that the developed nanoparticles had an average diameter around 207 nm, a ζ -potential of +59 mV, and an encapsulation efficiency equal to $97 \pm 1\%$ with a loading capacity of $0.48 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{mg}^{-1}$. The α -amylase and α -glucosidase IC_{50} were found to be 87.6 and $155.3 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$, respectively. Therefore, this study may surely open new perspectives for the development of novel health-promoting plant oils loaded-nanocarriers for several purposes.



1. INTRODUCTION

Diabetes mellitus is a chronic endocrine disorder characterized by hyperglycemia, in which blood sugar levels are high as a result of defects in insulin action, insulin secretion, or both.¹ This metabolic disorder constitutes a major challenge with regards to the life quality and imposes a consistent economic burden on the global health care systems.² Life style management and pharmacotherapy constitute the cornerstone of preventing and controlling hyperglycemia. However, 5–10% of the diabetics complain secondary failure as a result of poor patient compliance, dietary changes, weight gain, and reduced activity or exercise.³ Additionally, treatment with oral hypoglycemic agents is generally linked to several adverse effects, including skin reactions, gastrointestinal discomfort, hematological disorders, nausea, and weight gain.^{4,5} Faced with this challenge, the scientists throughout the world turn to phytodrugs to avoid the adverse effects associated with conventional hypoglycemic drugs.^{6–8} Piero and co-workers reported that plant-derived medications are crucial in the management of diabetes.⁹ For instance, natural products have gained the attention of many researchers as alternative and complementary to chemically synthesized drugs. Besides being edible, plant oils have a variety of uses for human health.¹⁰ Indeed, the demand for plant oil has been rising in

pharmaceutical and medicinal fields thanks to their therapeutic properties. Previous published work studies highlighted the paramount role of these phytoagents in treating and preventing several diseases.^{11–16}

The date palm (*Phoenix dactylifera* L.) belongs to the Arecaceae family and is widely distributed in arid and semiarid regions of the world, particularly in the Middle East and North Africa.¹⁷ Date seeds, a byproduct of date processing and consumption, represent 10–15% of the total fruit weight and have been considered as an attractive source of carbohydrates, dietary fibers, proteins, vitamins, and fatty acids.¹⁸ Concurrently, food waste valorization is a recent approach attracting enormous concern throughout the world, leading to the production of a valuable product.¹⁹ A few published works have been reported regarding the valorization of date palm seeds, even though they have been shown to be effective as antioxidant,²⁰ hepatoprotective,²¹ and neuroprotective

Special Issue: Polymer Colloids: From Fundamentals to Application

Received: February 21, 2020

Revised: April 13, 2020

Published: April 14, 2020

agents.²² In addition, recent studies have put into evidence the antidiabetic potential of date seeds extract.^{17,23,24} To the best of our knowledge, the date seeds oil (DS oil) has never been investigated for antidiabetic activity. Recently, we have carried out the extraction of date seeds oil by supercritical carbon dioxide as an alternative to organic solvent extraction processes.²⁵ Indeed, Supercritical Fluid Extraction (SFE) is an innovative, clean, and environmentally friendly technique that has gained high concern over the traditional or conventional extraction ways like steam-distillation and solvent extraction due to the use of carbon dioxide (CO₂), an inert, nontoxic, nonflammable, and volatile solvent.²⁶ In addition, it has relatively low critical temperature and pressure (31 °C and 74 bar, respectively), making it very suitable for thermolabile compounds. It is also abundant and available in high purity at relatively low cost and the elimination of its traces from the obtained extract is easy.²⁷ Nevertheless, the use of DS oil is impeded by its poor aqueous solubility and low bioavailability.²⁸ Recently, the development of polymer-based nanocarriers has gained emergent concern thanks to their biocompatibility, biodegradability, and nonimmunogenicity properties.^{29,30} The polymeric nanoparticles (pNPs) provided a promising platform to encapsulate plant oils in the biological, medicinal, and biomedical fields due to their benefits, including (1) oil protection from degradation or loss, (2) sustained and controlled release, (3) nontoxicity, (4) passive or active targeting, (5) deep tissue penetration, and (6) enhanced biopharmaceutical profile.^{31–34} Polymeric nanoparticles include both nanospheres and nanocapsules that, according to the literature, correspond to a polymeric matrix and a polymeric wall surrounding an oil core, respectively.^{29,35,36} Natural or synthetic polymers could be used to design pNPs.³⁷ However, synthetic polymers are more advantageous than natural ones in term of purity and reproducibility.^{38,39} Among the several synthetic polymers, Eudragit RS100, a copolymer of ethyl acrylate, methyl-methacrylate, and chlorotrimethylammonio ethyl methacrylate with 4.5–6.8% of quaternary ammonium groups, has been extensively used for developing pNPs.^{40–44} Eudragit RS100 seems to be a promising polymer for drug delivery as it is insoluble in aqueous media but is permeable, biocompatible, nontoxic, nonirritant, and provides a controlled drug release.⁴⁵ As reported earlier, the topical application of ibuprofen-loaded Eudragit RS100 NPs to rabbit eyes showed no sign of toxicity or irritation with an increased corneal residence time and a better penetration into the anterior chamber of the eye.⁴⁶ Similarly, Younis and co-workers revealed the superior ability of silymarin to resolve hepatic fibrosis in bile duct ligated rats when encapsulated in Eudragit RS100 nanoparticles as compared to the free drug.⁴⁷ Consequently, the positive charge engendered by Eudragit RS polymer would be expected to facilitate the intimate electrostatic interaction with negatively charged drugs or target tissue surface resulting to maximize cellular uptake of the drug polymer complex.^{48,49} Several research works highlighted the efficiency of Eudragit RS100 to target the mucus layer due to its mucoadhesive properties, where an electrostatic interaction was expected between the ammonium groups of Eudragit and negatively charged mucin, the main component of mucosa.^{50–53} Additionally, it was reported that terbinafine hydrochloride-loaded Eudragit RS100 nanoparticles exhibit a high electrostatic interaction, with the cornea and conjunctiva having negative charge resulting in maintaining an effective drug concentration at the site of action for prolonged time

periods.⁴⁸ Similarly, an enhanced adhesion of Eudragit nanoparticles to *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* in comparison to anionic poly(lactide coglycolide) nanoparticles was proved.⁴⁹ Currently, the stability of Eudragit RS in the gastrointestinal tract and the time-dependent release characteristics allow authors to propose Eudragit RS polymer alone or associated with other polymers as a promising system for colon specific controlled delivery.^{54,55}

Among the several methods used for developing pNPs, the nanoprecipitation method is widely used due to its simplicity and reproducibility.^{56–58} It was initially patented by Fessi in 1989.⁵⁹ It involves the use of two miscible phases: an organic phase, in which the polymer and the active pharmaceutical ingredient (API) are dissolved, and an aqueous phase. Generally, both the polymer and the API must dissolve in the organic phase but not in the second one (the non-solvent).⁶⁰ The nanoprecipitation consists of the addition of one phase to the other one under magnetic stirring, causing the immediate interfacial precipitation of the polymer after diffusion of the organic solvent to the aqueous phase.³⁴

As a continuation of the previous work²⁵ and basing on the information available in literature regarding DS oil, the main objective of the present work was the investigation of the first time ever carried out encapsulation of DS oil, extracted by a supercritical carbon dioxide process, in Eudragit RS100 based-NPs using the nanoprecipitation method, and the assessment of the *in vitro* antidiabetic activity through α -amylase and α -glucosidase inhibition pathways. For this context, the influence of operating parameters such as polymer amount, organic solvent type, organic/aqueous phase volume ratio, and the stirring speed on the colloidal properties of the free pNPs was investigated. Then, DS oil was encapsulated in the optimized formulation, and the obtained particles were further characterized in terms of particle size, size distribution, zeta potential, encapsulation efficiency, morphology, and stability. Finally, *in vitro* antidiabetic activity of DS oil and its corresponding NPs was investigated against key enzymes involved in diabetes mellitus: α -amylase and α -glucosidase.

2. EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

2.1. Plant Material. The date palm seeds used in this study were from “Ghars”, an Algerian local variety, collected from the Sahara region (Biskra, Algeria). The seeds were cleaned and ground to an approximate size of 0.3 mm. The resultant granules were dried in a vacuum oven for 24 h and stored in an airtight container.

2.2. Chemical Materials. Eudragit RS100 was obtained from Pharma Polymere, Germany. Starch powder, 4-nitrophenyl α -D-glucopyranoside ($\geq 99\%$), Acarbose ($\geq 95\%$), α -glucosidase from *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* (Type I, ≥ 10 units/mg protein), and α -amylase from *Aspergillus oryzae* were all obtained from Sigma Chemical Co. (Sigma-Aldrich GmbH, Stern-heim, Germany). Potassium iodide was obtained from Biochem Chemopharma. Deionized water from a Milli-Q system was used in all experiments. All other chemicals and solvents were of analytical grade.

2.3. Supercritical Carbon Dioxide Extraction. A total of 50 g of date seed granules were used for the supercritical carbon dioxide extraction, which was performed by our team work using a dynamic pilot-plant (Separex 4343, type SF2) supplied by Separex (Champigneulle, France) and is schematically shown on Figure 1. The carbon dioxide used was of 99.5% purity and was supplied by SIDAL SPA Air liquid, Algiers, Algeria. The operating extraction parameters and chemical composition were reported in the literature²⁵ and were as follows: dynamic extraction time, 210 min; CO₂ flow rate, 50 g/min; CO₂ pressure, 250 bar; extraction temperature, 60 °C, separation temperature, 40 °C (Figure 1).

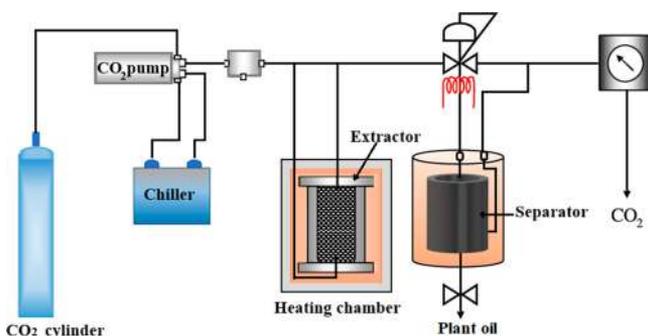


Figure 1. Supercritical carbon dioxide extraction pilot. It mainly consists of a high pressure pump, extraction vessel, pressure regulation system, and one separator vessel. The operating extraction parameters were fixed as follows: CO₂ flow rate, 50 g/min; CO₂ pressure, 250 bar; extraction temperature, 60 °C; and separation temperature, 40 °C.

2.4. Preparation of Free Eudragit-Based Nanoparticles. The pNPs were prepared by means of the nanoprecipitation technique. Three organic solvents were used, acetone, ethanol, and methanol, and the aqueous phase was water. The organic phase was obtained by dissolving Eudragit RS100 in one of the considered organic solvents. Then, it was added carefully and very slowly to the aqueous one at ambient temperature and under moderate magnetic stirring. The evaporation of the organic solvent was performed subsequently using a Buchi Rotavapor R-124.

2.4.1. Effect of Organic/Aqueous Solvent Volume Ratio. A total of 15 Eudragit RS100 organic solutions at concentrations of 16 mg/mL were prepared at different organic/aqueous volume ratios of (1/3, 2/5, 1/2, 2/3, and 1/1). The volume of the nonsolvent was kept at 30 mL for all the experiments. After that, all the prepared formulations were assessed in terms of their particle size, polydispersity index, and ζ -potential.

2.4.2. Effect of Polymer Amount. A total of 15 Eudragit RS100 organic solutions (15 mL) at different concentrations were prepared (16, 28, 40, 52, and 64 mg/mL) using the different solvents. The particle size, polydispersity index, and ζ -potential were again evaluated for all the formulations.

2.4.3. Effect of Stirring Speed. To evaluate the effect of stirring speed on the colloidal properties of the obtained NPs, five Eudragit RS100 organic solutions at concentrations of 16 mg/mL were prepared at a 1/2 volume ratio under three different agitation speeds (300, 500, and 700 rpm), and the obtained nanoparticles were further characterized.

2.5. Preparation of Date Seed Oil-Loaded Eudragit Nanoparticles. To achieve the adequate amounts of vegetable oil to be encapsulated in Eudragit RS100-based NPs through the nanoprecipitation method, different amounts (15, 30, 60, 120, 240, and 300 mg) have been dissolved in Eudragit RS100 organic solution at 16 mg/mL. Then, the organic phase was added to 30 mL of water under magnetic stirring (500 rpm) and ambient temperature.

2.6. Characterization of the Obtained Nanoparticles Dispersion. **2.6.1. Dynamic Light Scattering.** The aqueous suspension of NPs was subjected to analysis by dynamic light scattering (DLS) on a Zetasizer Nano ZS200 (Malvern Instruments, U.K.) to measure the mean particle size, polydispersity index, and ζ -potential. The NPs were dispersed in a 1 mM NaCl solution before every measure. All measurements were carried out in triplicate at ambient temperature and a pH around 6.5.

2.6.2. Transmission Electron Microscopy. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) was performed with a Philips CM120 microscope at the “Centre Technologique des Microstructures” (CT μ) at the University of Lyon (Villeurbanne, France). A total of 10 μ L of suspension was deposited on a microscope grid (copper support covered with carbon) and slowly dried in open air. The dry samples were observed by TEM under 120 kV acceleration voltage.

Absorbance was measured by Cary UV–visible spectrophotometer (Varian, Australia), and values were given according to the Beer–Lambert equation at a wavelength of 280 nm.

2.6.3. Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy. Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) was carried out to determine the chemical description of DS oil, Eudragit RS100, and oil-loaded NPs using Thermo Scientific Technologies FTIR spectrometer with IR MONIC solution software.

2.6.4. Encapsulation Efficiency. In order to determine the encapsulation efficiency, a direct method was employed, and a colloid dispersion was subjected to centrifugation at 15000 rpm for 30 min. The supernatant was removed, and the quantity of encapsulated DS oil was measured following total nanoparticles dissolution in chloroform. The resultant solution was filtrated and analyzed by ultraviolet spectrophotometer UV-1800 (Shimadzu, Japan) at $\lambda = 274.8$ nm.

The encapsulation efficiency and oil loading were determined by using the following equations:

$$\text{encapsulation efficiency (EE\%)} = \frac{\text{amount of encapsulated date seed oil}}{\text{total amount of date seed oil}} \times 100 \quad (1)$$

$$\text{oil loading (mg-mg}^{-1}\text{)} = \frac{\text{amount of encapsulated date seed oil}}{\text{total amount of polymer}} \quad (2)$$

The analytical method was subjected to validation in terms of linearity, precision and recovery. The standard curve equation was found to be $Y = 0.094X + 0.0325$ with good regression coefficient ($R^2 = 0.9992$). The relative standard deviations (RSD) for the interday and intraday precisions were below 10.0%, whereas the oil recovery at different concentrations was in range 99–100%. The limit of detection (LOD) and limit of quantification (LOQ) values were found to be as 0.13 and 0.44 mg/mL, respectively (Supporting Information).

2.7. Stability Study of Date Seed Oil-Loaded Eudragit-Based Nanoparticles. In order to assess the colloidal stability, the obtained vegetable oil-loaded NPs were stored for a period of one month at 4, 25, and 40 °C. Nanoparticles physical stability was assessed via particle size and ζ -potential measurement. The measurements were carried out after each 10 days.

2.8. In Vitro Antidiabetic Activity. The in vitro antidiabetic activity was based on the assessment of the enzymatic activity by using a 96-well microplate reader, PerkinElmer Multimode Plate Reader EnSpire (National Center of biotechnology Research, Constantine, Algeria).

2.8.1. α -Amylase Inhibition Activity. α -Amylase inhibitory activity was carried out by the Caraway–Somogyi iodine/potassium iodide method as described earlier with slight modifications.⁷ A total of 25 μ L of sample solution (4 mg/mL; DS oil solution or its corresponding NPs) was mixed in a 96-well microplate with α -amylase solution (50 μ L) in phosphate buffer (pH 6.9 with 6 mM sodium chloride) and incubated at 37 °C for 10 min. After preincubation, the reaction was started by adding starch solution (50 μ L, 0.1%). Likewise, a blank was prepared by adding sample solution to all reaction reagents without enzyme (α -amylase) solution. The reaction mixture was incubated 10 min at 37 °C. After that, the reaction was stopped by adding 25 μ L of HCl (1 M) and followed by the addition of 100 μ L of iodine–potassium iodide solution. The sample and blank absorbances were read at 630 nm by a microplate reader. Acarbose was used as a standard (4 mg/mL). The inhibition of α -amylase activity was calculated as follows:

$$\text{inhibition(\%)} = \left(1 - \frac{(A_s - A_b)}{A_{c^+} - A_{c^-}} \right) \times 100 \quad (3)$$

where A_{c^+} , A_{c^-} , A_s , and A_b are defined as the absorbance of 100% enzyme activity (only solvent with the enzyme), 0% enzyme activity (only solvent without the enzyme), a test sample (with the enzyme), and a blank (a test sample without the enzyme), respectively.

Table 1. Formulation and Process Effect on Particle Size and Zeta Potential of Free Eudragit-Based NPs^a

investigated parameter	organic phase				aqueous phase (mL)	stirring speed (rpm)	diameter (nm)	ζ-potential (mV)	
	Eudragit (mg/mL)	acetone (mL)	ethanol (mL)	methanol (mL)					
solvent type and solvent/nonsolvent volume ratio	16	10	-	-	30	500	59 ± 1	44 ± 2	
	16	12	-	-	30	500	52 ± 1	50 ± 2	
	16	15	-	-	30	500	50 ± 1	51 ± 4	
	16	20	-	-	30	500	49 ± 2	53 ± 3	
	16	30	-	-	30	500	49 ± 1	48 ± 2	
	16	-	10	-	30	500	49 ± 3	39 ± 2	
	16	-	12	-	30	500	47 ± 1	39 ± 3	
	16	-	15	-	30	500	45 ± 2	39 ± 2	
	16	-	20	-	30	500	51 ± 1	38 ± 2	
	16	-	30	-	30	500	54 ± 4	43 ± 2	
	16	-	-	10	30	500	48 ± 3	71 ± 3	
	16	-	-	12	30	500	46 ± 5	70 ± 2	
	16	-	-	15	30	500	45 ± 1	64 ± 3	
	16	-	-	20	30	500	50 ± 1	59 ± 4	
	16	-	-	30	30	500	53 ± 2	51 ± 1	
	polymer amount	28	15	-	-	30	500	51 ± 2	45 ± 2
40		15	-	-	30	500	65 ± 3	53 ± 2	
52		15	-	-	30	500	78 ± 1	53 ± 1	
64		15	-	-	30	500	88 ± 4	54 ± 3	
28		-	15	-	30	500	44 ± 2	37 ± 2	
40		-	15	-	30	500	55 ± 1	45 ± 2	
52		-	15	-	30	500	59 ± 1	47 ± 1	
64		-	15	-	30	500	63 ± 1	45 ± 6	
28		-	-	15	30	500	45 ± 1	64 ± 3	
40		-	-	15	30	500	49 ± 4	63 ± 2	
52		-	-	15	30	500	53 ± 3	73 ± 3	
64		-	-	15	30	500	54 ± 1	72 ± 2	
stirring speed		16	15	-	-	30	300	61 ± 2	48 ± 3
		16	15	-	-	30	700	42 ± 1	49 ± 5
		16	-	15	-	30	300	56 ± 2	40 ± 2
		16	-	15	-	30	700	35 ± 1	41 ± 2
	16	-	-	15	30	300	54 ± 2	62 ± 3	
	16	-	-	15	30	700	34 ± 2	66 ± 4	

^aThe "bold" values show the changed parameters. The concentration of polymer is the concentration before evaporation of organic solvent.

2.8.2. α-Glycosidase Inhibition Activity. α-Glycosidase inhibitory activity was performed by using the method described earlier with slight modifications.⁶ A total of 50 μL of sample solution (4 mg/mL; DS oil solution or its corresponding NPs) was preincubated at 37 °C for 15 min in a 96-well microplate with 100 μL of 0.1 M phosphate buffer (pH 6.9) containing α-glycosidase solution (0.1 U/mL). After that, 50 μL of 5 mM *p*-nitrophenyl α-D-glucopyranoside solution in 0.1 M phosphate buffer (pH 6.9) was added and incubated for 5 min at 37 °C. The sample and blank absorbances were read at 405 nm by a microplate reader. Acarbose was used as a standard (4 mg/mL). The α-glycosidase inhibitory activity was calculated as follows:

$$\text{inhibition(\%)} = \left(1 - \frac{A_s}{A_b}\right) \times 100 \quad (4)$$

where A_s and A_b are the absorbances of the sample and the blank, respectively.

2.9. Statistical Analysis. The study data are expressed as mean ± standard deviation (SD) and analyzed statistically. The values have been analyzed by one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and for statistical significance $p < 0.05$ was selected such as criterion.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Actually, the nanotechnology emerged its application to encapsulate natural products and especially plant oils. The

current work aims to develop for the first time DS oil-loaded Eudragit RS100 based-NPs by nanoprecipitation process. In order to optimize these nanocarriers, a series of experiments on process and formulation related variables were carried out in order to find out each parameter relation with obtained particles hydrodynamic particle size, zeta potential, and morphology. Table 1 summarizes the results of analyzing free Eudragit RS100 based NPs prepared by varying the amounts of formulation ingredients and operating conditions.

3.1. Effect of Solvent to Nonsolvent Volume Ratio.

The organic to aqueous phase ratio is among the most critical parameters for the spontaneous formation of NPs by the nanoprecipitation method.⁶¹ To assess this effect on the NPs size and zeta potential, various ratios (1/3, 2/5, 1/2, 2/3, and 1/1) of solvent to nonsolvent volume (S/NS) were carried out using three types of solvents, acetone, ethanol, and methanol, as illustrated in Table 1. Figure 2A shows the relation between NPs size and solvent/nonsolvent for the three used solvents after their evaporation. It was observed that, with an increasing in acetone/water volume ratio from 1/3 to 1/1, there was a significant decrease in particle size from 59 ± 1 to 49 ± 1 nm. This size decrease is related to the reduced viscosity of the organic phase, which facilitates acetone diffusion to the water.

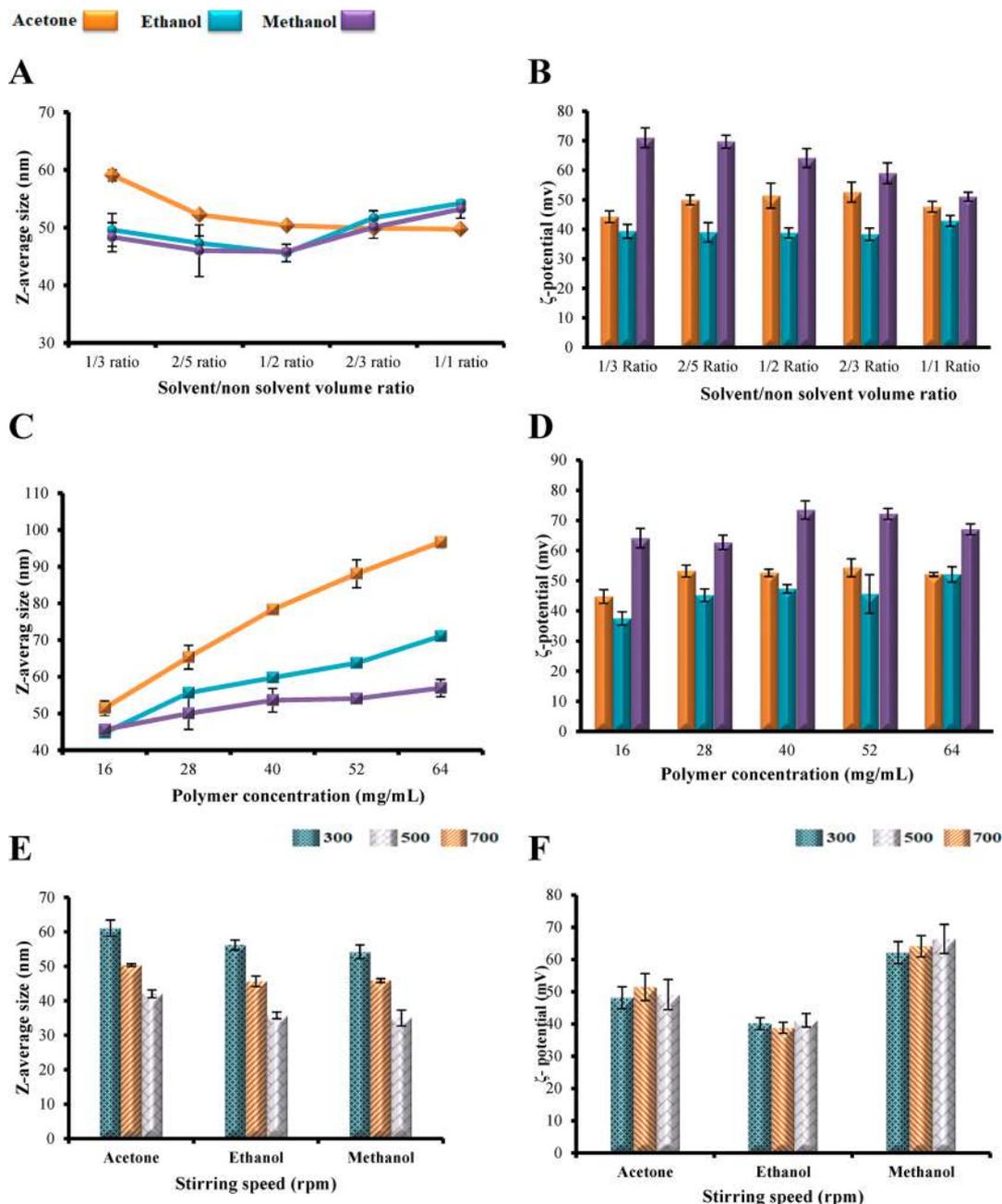


Figure 2. Effect of operating conditions on colloidal properties. The impact of the solvent to nonsolvent volume ratio on (A) Z-average size and (B) ζ -potential of Eudragit RS100 nanoparticles. The effect of polymer concentration ratio on (C) size and (D) ζ -potential of Eudragit RS100 nanoparticles. The effect of stirring speed on (E) Z-average size and (F) ζ -potential. All of the study was carried out for three types of solvents: acetone, ethanol, and methanol. Measurements from separate assays were combined ($n = 3$) and represented as mean \pm SD.

The obtained results are in agreement with those of Limayem and co-workers.⁶² Dong and Feng stated that increasing the volume of the solvent with the same amount of polymer leads to a decrease in the organic phase viscosity and, thus, a decrease in the particle size.⁶³

Figure 2A demonstrates also that, by increasing the volume ratio of ethanol to water from 1/3 to 1/2, a slight decrease in particle size was observed from 49 ± 3 to 45 ± 2 nm. However, at very high volume ratios, there was an increase in particle size from 51 ± 1 to 54 ± 1 nm for volume ratios of 2/3 and 1/1, respectively. The same trend was exhibited with methanol. By increasing methanol to water volume ratio from 1/3 to 1/2, nanoparticles decrease in size from 48 ± 3 to 45 ± 1 nm, and

bigger NPs were obtained with high volume ratios. However, the statistical analysis of these results demonstrates that the changes in particle size were not significant for methanol and ethanol and the p -values were more than 0.05. These results were related in other research work to the miscibility of the organic solvent to water.⁶⁴ In fact, they found that the size changed significantly when using partially water-soluble solvents (ethyl acetate and propylene carbonate) as the organic solvent. However, the effect of volume ratio was insignificant when using fully water-soluble solvent. In our case, acetone has a lower solubility in water than the other solvents. This is based on the values of the dielectric constant, since its measurement is often used to evaluate the polarity of

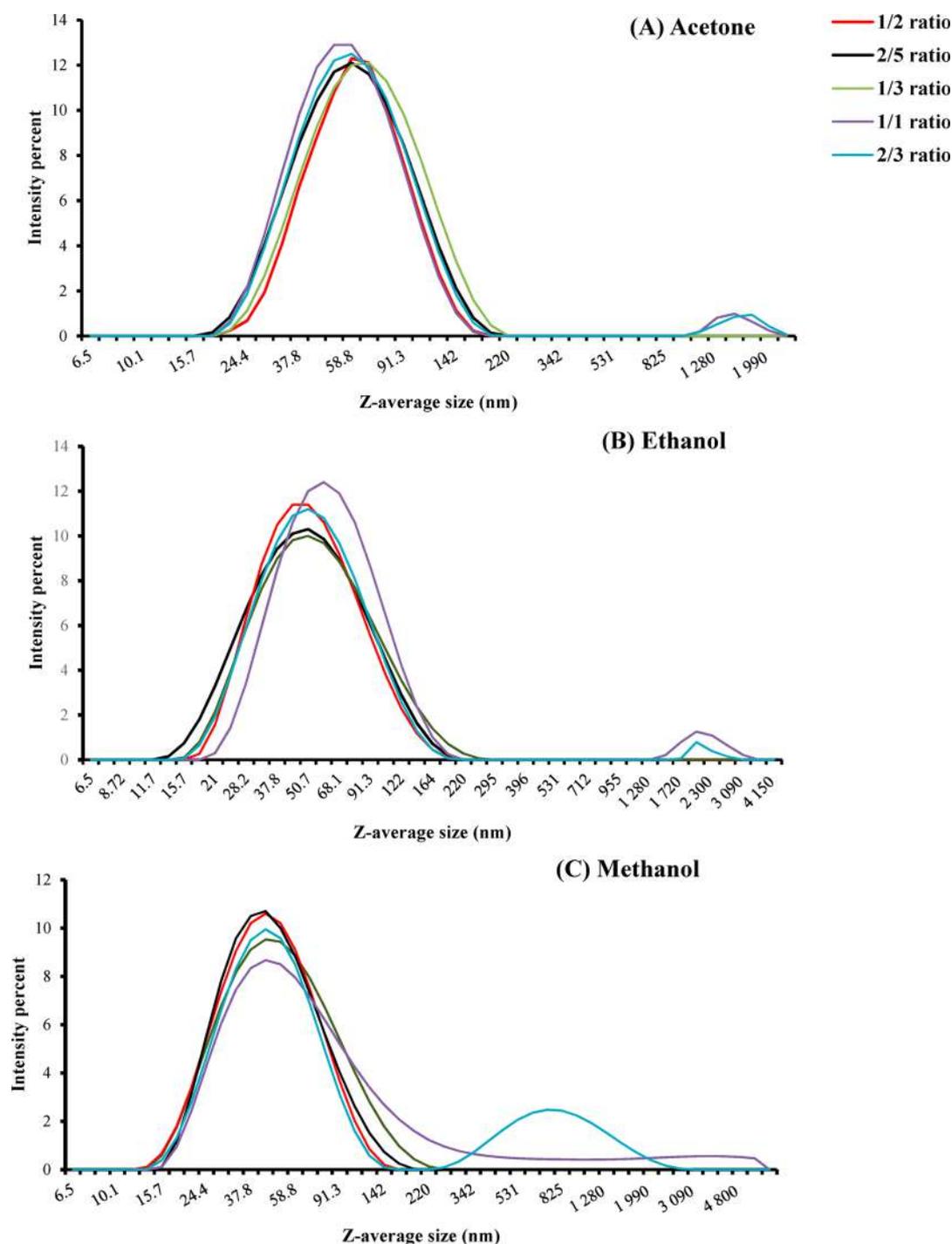


Figure 3. Particle size distribution of Eudragit-based NPs at different solvent/nonsolvent volume ratios: 1/3, 2/5, 1/2, 2/3, and 1/1 for (A) acetone, (B) ethanol, and (C) methanol.

liquids. The dielectric values of acetone, ethanol, and methanol are equal to 21.30 ± 0.02 , 25.02 ± 0.02 , and 33.30 ± 0.02 , respectively.⁶⁵ Thus, ethanol and methanol are more miscible in water, and hence, the volume ratio does not have a significant effect on particle size.

For further investigation, the variation of size dispersion was studied as a function of S/NS ratio for all the NPs. Figure 3A shows that with acetone to water volume ratios 1/3, 2/5, and 1/2, Eudragit NPs with unimodal size distribution were observed and became narrower with 1/2 volume ratio, while bimodal size distributions were assessed for 2/3 and 1/1 S/NS

volume ratios. These findings are in accordance with what Tarhini and co-workers suggested. While developing protein-based NPs by a nanoprecipitation process, they found that the size distribution was very high, with ratios above 1/2.⁶⁶ Similar results have already been found by other work studies.⁶⁷

In the case of ethanol, the NPs do not show unimodal distribution at ratios above 1/2, and a small peak was observed that indicates the presence of aggregation (Figure 3B). The same trend happened with methanol, where the NPs are polydispersed, especially at higher ratios, and the aggregation peaks were higher than those obtained with ethanol. Indeed, a

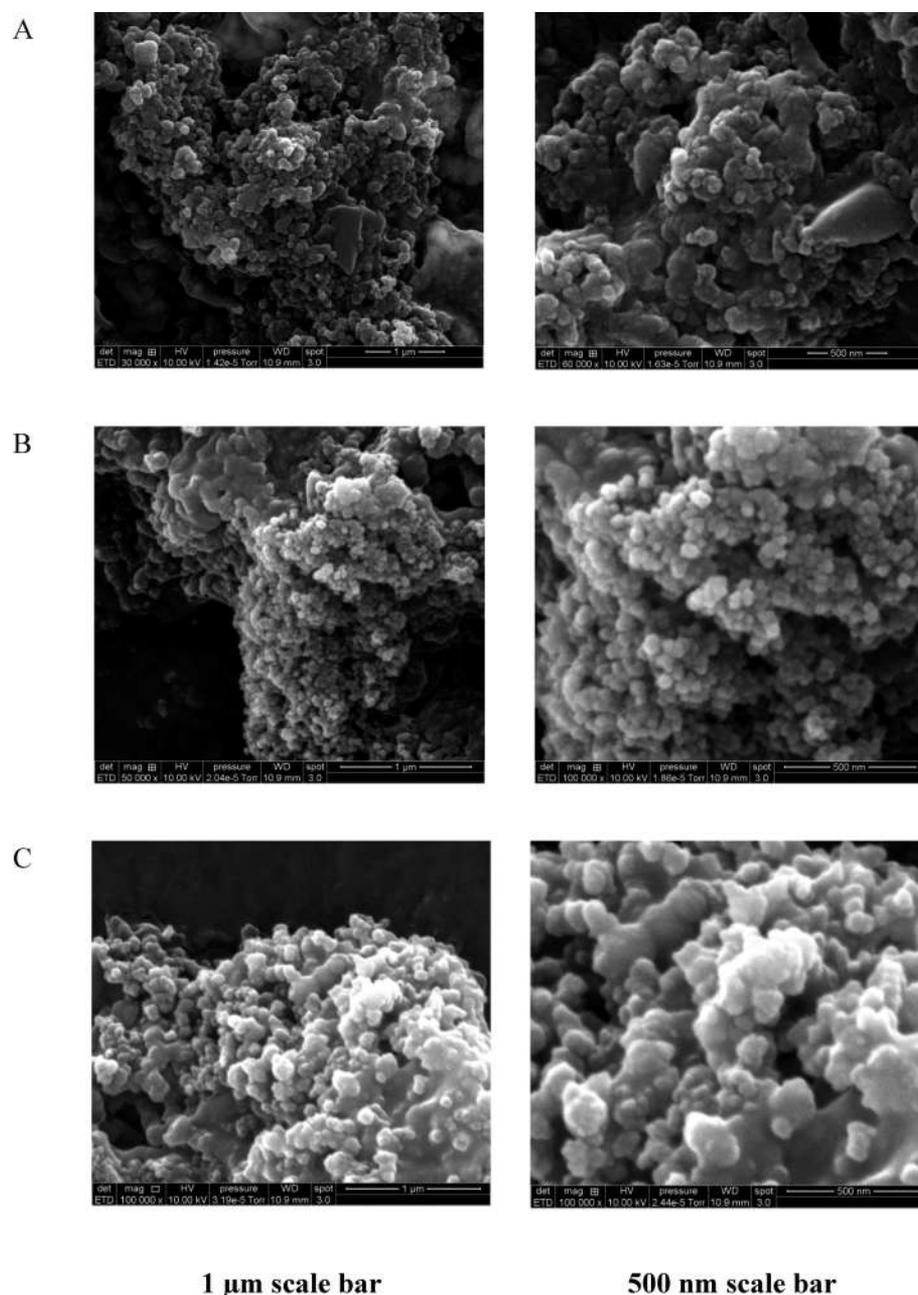


Figure 4. Scanning electron microscopy images of Eudragit RS100-based NPs prepared with acetone (A), ethanol (B), and methanol (C).

nonperfect Gaussian shape peak was observed for the S/NS volume ratio 1/1 (Figure 3C). Thus, for all the tested solvents, a narrow unimodal size distribution was observed at 1/2 S/NS volume ratio.

The influence of S/NS volume ratio on the ζ -potential was also investigated. As shown in Figure 2B, high values of zeta potential were assessed for all the formulations, indicating the high stability of the prepared NPs. The surface of the NPs is positively charged due to ammonium quaternary groups of the polymer, as previously mentioned.⁶⁸

However, the effect was only significant when using methanol as the organic solvent. As the ratio increases, the ζ -potential decreases and, thus, the NPs are less stable. This is in agreement with the results of size distribution, where the NPs prepared with methanol showed the highest aggregation at a higher volume ratio. In the case of acetone and ethanol,

the effect of volume ratio was not significant on ζ -potential. Similar results were already published, where neither the organic solvent volume nor the aqueous one affect the ζ -potential of polycaprolactone NPs prepared by a solvent displacement method.³⁹ From these results, we notice that a 1/2 S/NS volume ratio gave the best results with all the solvents, so it was retained for further experiments.

3.2. Effect of Polymer Concentration and Organic Solvent Type. The polymer concentration had a crucial effect on the size of the NPs obtained by the nanoprecipitation technique. To evaluate this parameter, 15 solutions with different concentrations (16, 28, 40, 52, and 68 mg/mL) of Eudragit RS100 were prepared using three types of organic solvents: acetone, ethanol, and methanol. The results of particle size and ζ -potential are illustrated in Figure 2, where as shown, as the Eudragit RS100 concentration increases, the

particle size increases significantly, with p value < 0.05 for all the used solvents (Figure 2C). Similar results were already discussed in the literature.^{63,64,69} As reported earlier, the increase in particle size was related to the increase in the viscosity of the organic phase, which reduced the diffusion of acetone to the aqueous phase.³⁹

Moreover, the mean particle size depends on the type of organic solvent used. The NPs obtained with acetone were larger than those obtained with ethanol and methanol (Figure 2C). As described earlier, the increase in particle size was related to the low value of solvent dielectric constant (ϵ).⁷⁰ This was confirmed in the present work since the dielectric value of acetone is lower than those of ethanol and methanol.⁶⁵ Similar results were also reported.⁷¹

Additionally, the affinity of the solvent for the nonsolvent was found crucial for final particle size⁶⁷ and it was calculated using the following equation:

$$X = V_n \times (\delta_s - \delta_{ns})^2 / RT \quad (5)$$

where V_n is the molar volume of the solvent; δ_s and δ_{ns} are Hildebrand solubility parameter for the solvent and the nonsolvent, respectively; R is the gas constant; and T is the absolute temperature.⁷⁰ The higher the value of X , the smaller the affinity of the solvent for the nonsolvent, the slower the rate of diffusion and hence the bigger are the obtained NPs.⁶⁷ The Hildebrand solubility parameters of acetone, ethanol, and methanol are 19.7, 26.2, and 29.7, respectively, while for water, it is equal to 48.⁷² Thus, the affinity of the nonsolvents to water decreased as follows: methanol $>$ ethanol $>$ acetone. Hence, the diffusion rate of acetone is slowest, and thus, the obtained NPs were the largest.

Regarding the ζ -potential of the obtained nanoparticles, Figure 2D shows high values of zeta potential for all the obtained NPs, confirming their high stability, while varying polymer concentration does not significantly affect the zeta potential of Eudragit-based NPs. Similar results were already reported.³⁹

3.3. Effect of Stirring Speed. To investigate the effect of stirring speed on the colloidal properties of the obtained NPs, nine samples under different agitation speeds (300, 500, and 700 rpm) were made using three types of organic solvents, acetone, ethanol and methanol, as mentioned in Table 1. By increasing the stirring speed from 300 to 700 rpm, the particle size decreases significantly from 61 ± 2 nm to 42 ± 1 nm, from 56 ± 2 to 35 ± 1 nm and from 54 ± 2 to 34 ± 2 nm for acetone, ethanol, and methanol, respectively (Figure 2E). Miladi and co-workers explained this by more efficient shear mixing and, thus, more rapid diffusion of the solvent to the nonsolvent.⁷³ Similar results were already found.⁷⁴ Moreover, the influence of stirring speed on ζ -potential was carried out, and the results show that the effect was insignificant (p -value > 0.05 ; Figure 2F). These findings were in concordance with those obtained earlier.³⁹ Despite this, high stirring speed (700 rpm) gave the smallest particle sizes; 500 rpm was selected as the best agitation speed due to the absence of foam, observed at 700 rpm, which hinders the solvent evaporation step.

3.4. Nanoparticles Morphology. Three types of NPs prepared with either acetone, ethanol, or methanol at 1/2 volume ratio with 16 mg/mL of Eudragit RS100 were visualized by Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) and assessed in terms of shape, surface texture, and smoothness. Figure 4 shows that all the NPs have spherical and regular form. According to the undertaken systematic study of the

nanoprecipitation method using Eudragit RS100 as polymer, the three solvents gave spherical and regular NPs with small particle size, uniformity distribution, and high zeta potential, at 1/2 S/NS volume ratio, 16 mg/mL polymer, and 500 rpm as stirring speed.

3.5. Date Seeds Oil Loaded Nanoparticles Characterization. The optimized formulation of free Eudragit RS100 based-NPs was used to encapsulate date seeds oil, extracted by a supercritical CO₂ process using the nanoprecipitation technique. To achieve the adequate amounts of vegetable oil to be encapsulated, various amounts of DS oil had been investigated (15, 30, 60, 120, 240, and 300 mg) using acetone as organic solvent, as mentioned in Table 2.

Table 2. Formulation Effect on Particles Size and Zeta Potential of DS Oil-Loaded Eudragit RS100-Based NPs^a

date seed oil amount (mg)	diameter (nm)	ζ -potential (mV)	EE (%)	oil loading (μ g/mg polymer)
15	126 \pm 2	56.6 \pm 4	99 \pm 1	62 \pm 0
30	150 \pm 1	61.5 \pm 3	98 \pm 3	123 \pm 4
60	187 \pm 2	62.1 \pm 2	99 \pm 1	248 \pm 3
120	217 \pm 3	59.0 \pm 4	97 \pm 1	485 \pm 5
240	228 \pm 3	45.6 \pm 5	92 \pm 3	920 \pm 30
300	231 \pm 3	47.9 \pm 1	85 \pm 3	1062 \pm 38

^aIn all the experiments, the operating parameters were as follows: polymer concentration (16 mg/mL); acetone volume (15 mL); water volume (30 mL); and stirring speed (500 rpm).

Free Eudragit RS100-based NPs had a transparent white color. By incorporating DS oil, the color (i.e., opacity) lost its transparency and increased as the amount of DS oil increased, as shown in Figure 5A. This was in concordance with the measurements of particle size, shown in Figure 5B, where all the samples had a particle size higher than those of free Eudragit RS100-based NPs, which had a size of about 50 ± 1 nm. It is reported that the existence of oil increases the size of nanoparticles.⁷⁵ By increasing the oil amount from 15 to 120 mg, a significant increase in particle size was observed from 126 ± 2 to 217 ± 3 nm.

Samples prepared with high amounts (more than 120 mg) did not have a homogeneous aspect and some oil drops were observed visually (Figure 5A), which means that there is an optimum quantity of vegetable oil to be encapsulated in 16 mg/mL Eudragit RS100-based NPs. In another work, the effect of argan oil concentration on particle size was investigated and the results showed that 40 mg/mL of argan oil was an appropriate quantity for the encapsulation of indomethacin; at high concentrations of argan oil, there was not an increase in particle size.⁷⁶ This was explained by the fact that the used stabilizer and surfactant were useful for the stability of the system to a specific amount of argan oil in the formulation. Figure 5B indicates also that there was a slight increase in particle size at higher amounts of vegetable oil. Indeed, the particle size values were 228 ± 3 and 231 ± 3 nm for DS oil amounts of 240 and 300 mg, respectively.

Thus, to select an adequate amount of vegetable oil to be encapsulated, further analysis was performed about the correlation between the oil amount and the cubic radius of NPs, as illustrated in Figure 6.

It was assumed that the number of nanoparticles was constant, so they only changed in size depending on the amount of polymer/oil used for the formulation.

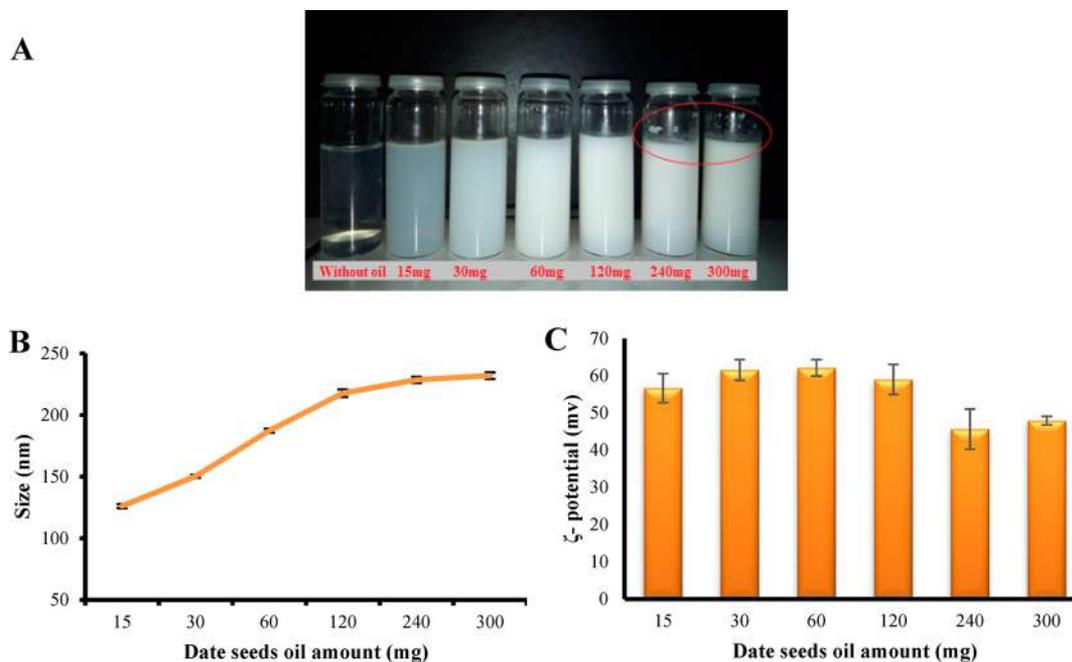


Figure 5. Variation in color of date seeds oil loaded NPs at different oil amounts (A). Effect of date seed oil amount on (B) particle size and (C) ζ -potential of Eudragit RS100-based nanoparticles using acetone as solvent. The results are the mean of three independent experiment \pm SD.

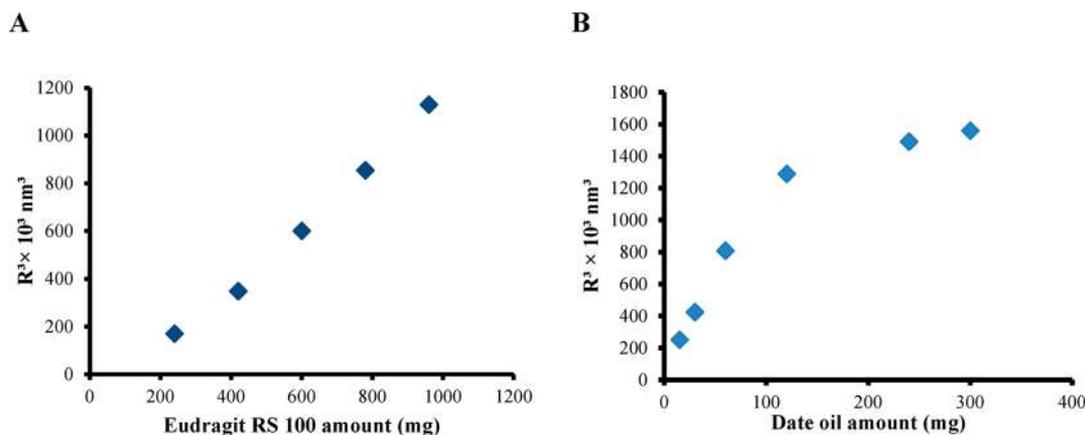


Figure 6. Correlation between Eudragit RS100 amount (A) and date seed oil amount (B) and the cubic radius of NPs. Dots represent the cube radius values of the NPs.

$$R^3 \simeq mp/Np \quad (6)$$

with R being the radius of nanoparticles, mp is the amount of polymer or of oil and Np is the number of particles.

For DS oil-loaded NPs, as the oil amount increases from 15 to 120 mg, the particle size increases, this was confirmed by the good correlation between the oil amount and the radius of NPs. While, at higher amounts (240 and 300 mg), the particles do not increase in size. Indeed, a second generation of NPs appeared. Thus, 120 mg is the adequate quantity of DS oil to be encapsulated.

Further ζ -potential measurements were carried out for all the samples and the results were mentioned in Table 2 and Figure 5C. Varying the amount of plant oil did not have a significant effect on ζ -potential (p -value > 0.05). Additionally, higher values were observed for DS oil-loaded NPs as compared to the values of free Eudragit-based NPs, where their ζ -potential was about 51 ± 4 mv. This was attributed to the addition of oils that could interact with the polymer

surface, influence the surface charge of the NPs, and thus shift the ζ -potential to higher values. While, lower values of ζ -potential were observed at higher amount of DS oil (more than 120 mg), which confirms the less stability of these NPs suspensions.

Regarding the encapsulation efficiency, low values were obtained at higher amounts of DS oil, which confirms further our results, as shown in Table 2. The optimal formulation has a high encapsulation efficiency ($EE\% = 97 \pm 1\%$) with a loading capacity of 0.48 mg/mg of polymer.

According to the images obtained through transmission electron microscopy (TEM), DS oil-loaded NPs exhibit a spherical and a regular form, as demonstrated in Figure 7.

To investigate the chemical interaction between DS oil and Eudragit RS100, Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) analysis was carried out. Generally, drug-polymer interaction leads to the formation of new absorption bands and the expansion of the absorption bands in FTIR spectra.⁴⁰ The FTIR patterns of DS oil, Eudragit, and loaded NPs were shown

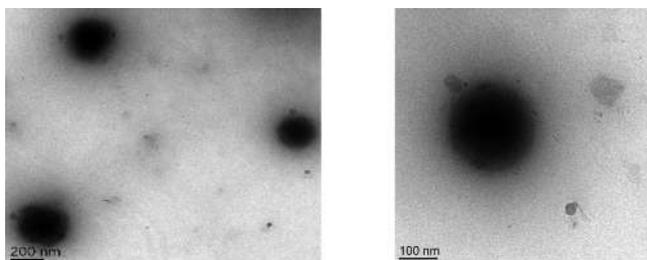


Figure 7. Transmission electron microscopy for DS oil-loaded NPs.

in Figure 8. In the DS oil spectrum, the peaks at 2921 and 2852 cm^{-1} correspond to the stretching vibrations of aliphatic C–H in CH_2 and terminal CH_3 groups, respectively. The peak at 1743 cm^{-1} is owing to the C=O stretching vibration of carboxylic acids of the ester, while the absorption bands at 1708, 1464, and 1163 cm^{-1} are assigned to C=O stretching of the carbonyl groups, C=C stretching, and C–O stretching, respectively. The peak at 721 cm^{-1} corresponds to the aromatic compounds. These results were similar to those obtained in the literature.^{77–79} The FTIR spectra of Eudragit RS100 showed characteristic peaks at 2950 cm^{-1} due to C–H aliphatic stretching, at 1722 cm^{-1} due to C=O ester stretching, and a peak at 1143 cm^{-1} that corresponds to the C–O ester group. This was in accordance with what was reported.^{80,81} Matching up to the FTIR spectrum of Eudragit with the oil-loaded nanoparticles revealed a reduction in the intensity of the peak at 1725 cm^{-1} as well as coming out of three jointed peaks in 2924, 2853, and 1466 cm^{-1} that characterize DS oil. This might be attributed to the interaction between DS oil and Eudragit RS100 in the nanoparticles. Thus, DS oil was successfully entrapped within polymeric nanoparticles.

3.6. Stability Study of Nanoparticle Dispersion. The colloidal stability of the optimized formulation of DS oil-loaded NPs was investigated by analyzing size and ζ -potential as a function of temperature (4 °C, RT and 40 °C) during one month, as demonstrated in Figure 9A. No significant changes have been observed in the prepared NPs size and ζ -potential.

Additionally, the ζ -potential values of these NPs have been determined under different pH to get crucial information about their stability for biological application. For this purpose, the ζ -

potential of the optimized formulation was determined after the addition of either diluted HCl or NaOH to get different pH values (3, 4, 5, 7, 9, 10, and 12). The results demonstrated in Figure 9B indicate a decrease in ζ -potential for all the NPs as the pH of the medium varies from pH = 3 to pH = 12. These results are in conformity with those obtained by Du and co-workers for Carboxymethyl Konjac Glucomannan–Chitosan-based NPs.⁸² In another work study, the change in the ζ -potential measurements was related to the decrease in the charge density of the chitosan provoked by the reduction of the concentration of H^+ ions.⁸³ Although the ζ -potential decreases by varying the pH, the NPs remain stable, with a zeta potential around +37 mv. This finding spotlights the reliability of these nanocarriers to protect DS oil, chosen as model, to broaden the beneficial applications of other plant oils.

3.7. In Vitro Antidiabetic Activity. Diabetes mellitus is mainly associated with hyperglycemia, which is characterized by high circulating blood glucose levels. Thus, the management of diabetes deals with decreasing postprandial hyperglycemia by the inhibition of carbohydrate hydrolyzing enzymes like α -amylase and α -glucosidase.⁸⁴ For instance, α -amylase breaks down long chain carbohydrates, while α -glucosidase is involved in the breakdown of starch and disaccharides into glucose.⁸ Actually, the health care systems rely on the “inhibition of key enzymes” approach for the treatment and management of several pathologies like diabetes.⁸⁵ In this context, the study of the antidiabetic effect of DS oil and its corresponding encapsulated form was investigated in vitro against α -amylase and α -glucosidase and compared to that of standard drug: Acarbose. The results are shown in Figure 10.

In vitro α -amylase studies revealed that DS oil in its free and encapsulated forms showed dose-dependent α -amylase inhibition better than the standard drug: acarbose. At the highest concentration (400 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$), the ranked order of inhibition was as follows: DS oil-loaded NPs (68.5%) > unencapsulated DS oil (64.6%) > acarbose (53.0%) (Figure 10A). The difference in inhibition results between DS oil-loaded NPs and free NPs (without oil) is related to the presence of DS oil, which exhibits an antidiabetic effect. The IC_{50} values were 365 \pm 10.7, 148.9 \pm 7.1, and 87.6 \pm 4.8 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ for acarbose, unencapsulated DS oil, and DS oil-loaded NPs, respectively. This result was explained by the chemical composition of DS oil. The fatty acids analysis of the present date seeds oil was

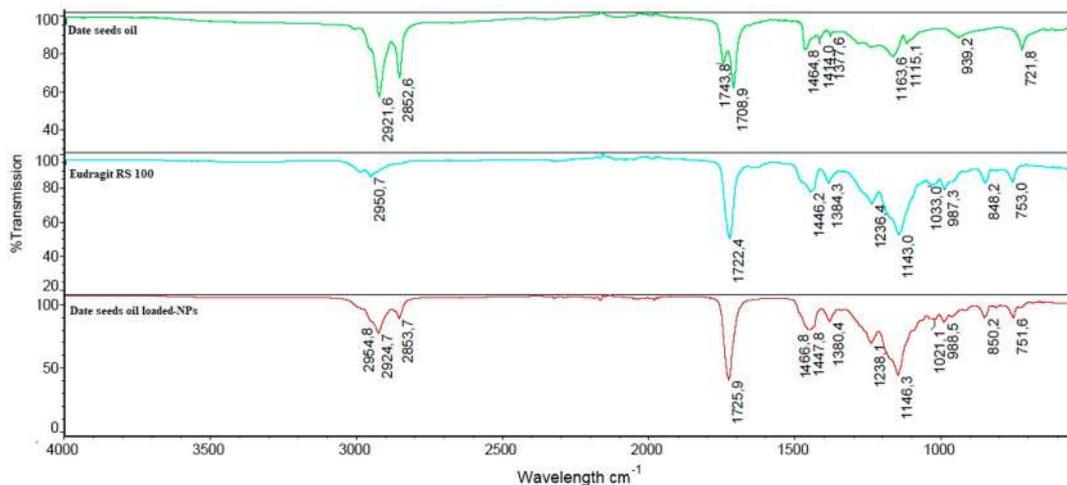


Figure 8. Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy spectra for date seeds oil, Eudragit RS100, and date seed oil-loaded NPs.

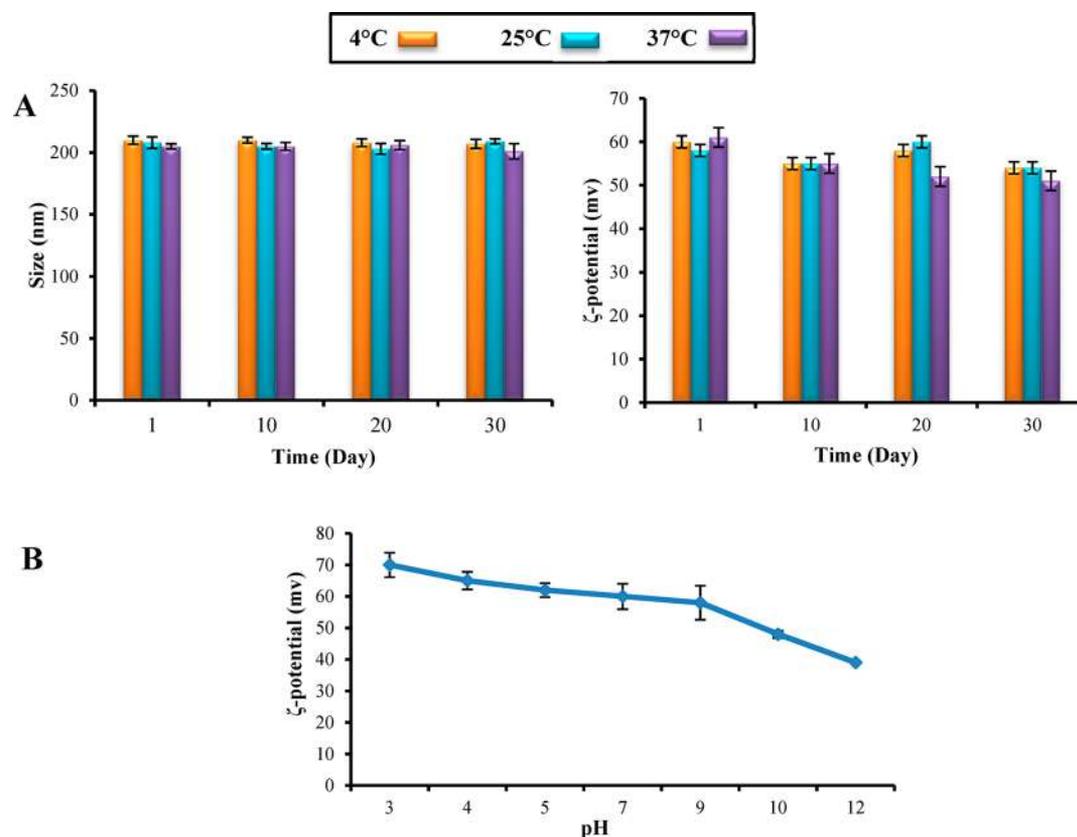


Figure 9. Stability of Eudragit RS100-based NPs containing date seed oil in terms of size, ζ -potential (A), and pH (B). Measurements from separate assays were combined ($n = 3$) and represented as mean \pm SD.

already performed and published by our team work.²⁵ Oleic acid (C18:1n9) represents the major constituent of the studied DS oil and represents 40.7–43% of the total fatty acids.²⁵ Simultaneously, several reports highlighted the impact of unsaturated fatty acid in managing type 2 diabetes.^{86–88}

The Figure 10A showed also that DS oil-loaded NPs exhibited higher inhibition activity when compared to unencapsulated oil. This result was in accordance with previous studies. In 2017, the in vitro antidiabetic activity of *Psoralea corylifolia* extract silver NPs was investigated and the results revealed that plant extracts within silver NPs were more effective than that of the free form.⁸⁹ The enhancement in antidiabetic activity of gelatin encapsulated *Nilgiranthus ciliatus* NPs when compared to the free extracts was ascribed to the sustained release property of these carriers.⁹⁰ This result further confirms the benefit of nanoencapsulation in enhancing the biological activity of bioactive agents.

Regarding α -glucosidase inhibitory activity, all the tested samples showed in vitro dose-dependent enzyme inhibition. At the highest concentration (500 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$), acarbose exhibited the highest inhibitory activity (91.05%; Figure 10B). The IC_{50} values were 27.5 ± 1.6 , 88.9 ± 2.3 , and 155.3 ± 6.6 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ for acarbose, unencapsulated DS oil, and DS oil-loaded NPs, respectively. Like in the α -amylase inhibition study, free NPs did not show any inhibition regarding α -glucosidase enzyme. The α -glucosidase inhibitory effect of DS oil-loaded NPs was related to the presence of oleic acid in DS oil. As reported earlier, kinetic assays demonstrated that oleic acid is a competitive inhibitor of α -glucosidase, and its interactions exhibited a character of static quenching, which means that it would bind to α -glucosidase and form a complex.⁹¹ Miyazawa

and co-workers stated that increasing the number of double bound would increase the α -glucosidase inhibitory effect.⁹²

Unexpectedly, unencapsulated DS oil demonstrated higher enzyme inhibition activity than the entrapped form. This may be explained by the fact that the oil needs more time to be released from Eudragit RS100-based NPs. Despite the lowest IC_{50} of acarbose, DS oil in its free and encapsulated form shows a paramount inhibition activity and could be chosen as an alternative to traditional oral hypoglycemic agents, as it is a source of unsaturated fatty acids that are crucial fatty acids to the human body, so it would not produce undesirable side effects.

4. CONCLUSION

The present study deals with the valorization of date seeds from waste to wealth using the nanoencapsulation technology. In this context, the new poly methyl methacrylate derivative-based polymeric nanoparticles were designed as nanocarriers for date seed oil, which was a priori extracted by an ecofriendly process, using a simple, fast, and reproducible technique. The proper selection of experimental parameters including, the polymer amount, the type of organic solvent, the organic to aqueous phase ratio and the stirring speed has to be taken into consideration to establish nanoparticles with the required features responsible for the attainment of the final goal. The developed date seed oil-loaded Eudragit RS100 nanoparticles formulations were in the nano size range (207 nm) with high ζ -potential value (+59 mV), an adequate encapsulating efficiency (97%), and good stability upon one-month storage at different temperatures and pH. Furthermore, in vitro antidiabetic activity of the developed particles was investigated

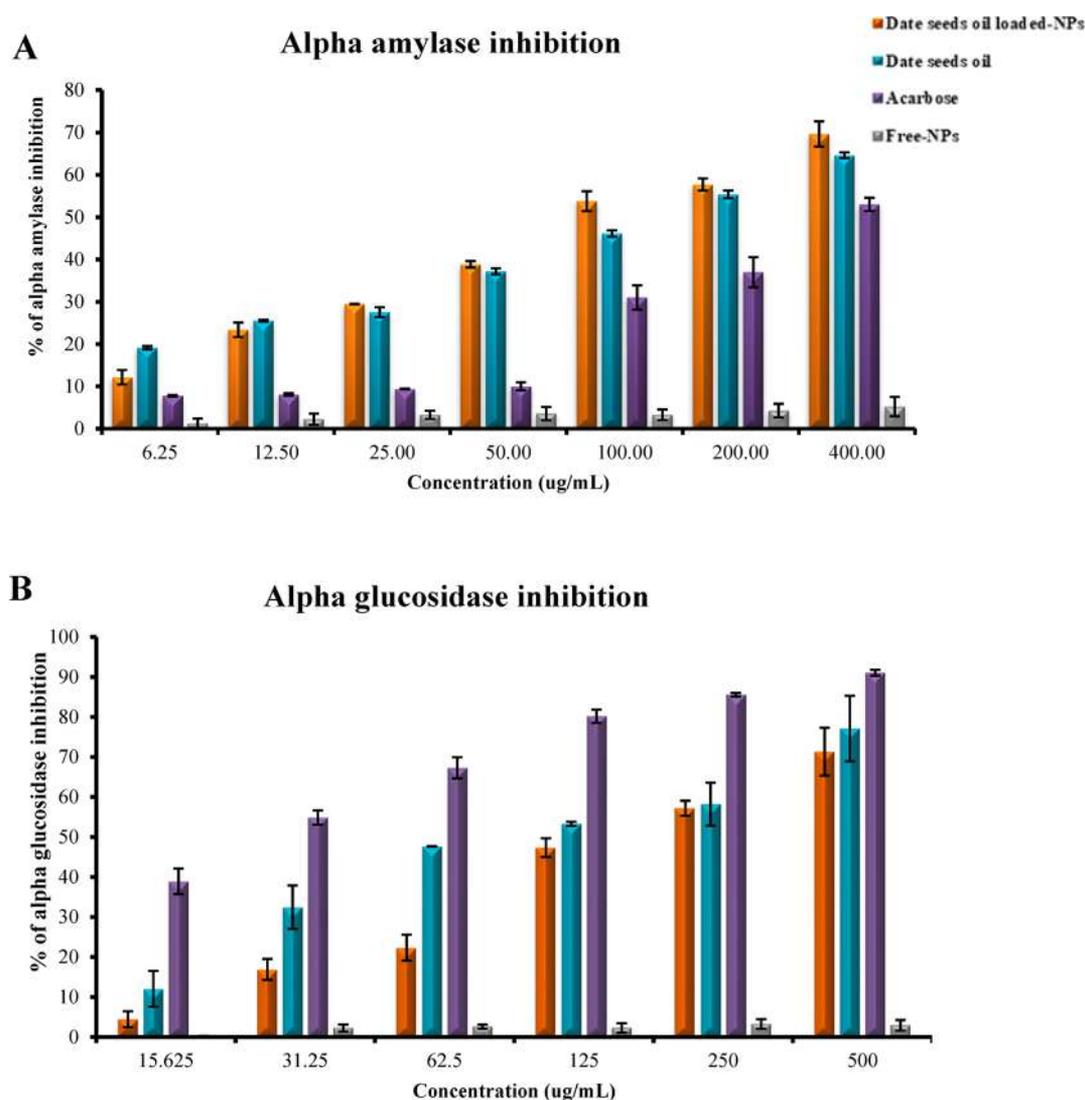


Figure 10. α -Amylase inhibition (A) and α -glucosidase inhibition (B) of unencapsulated date seed oil, free Eudragit RS100-based NPs and date seed oil-loaded Eudragit RS100-based NPs. Measurements from separate assays were combined ($n = 3$) and represented as mean \pm SD.

on α -amylase and α -glucosidase enzymes, and IC_{50} values were found to be 87.6 ± 4.8 and $155.3 \pm 6.6 \mu\text{g/mL}$, respectively.

In summary, Eudragit RS100 seems to be a promising polymer for date seed oil delivery, as it is biocompatible, nontoxic, and a nonirritant and provides a controlled plant oil release. In addition, its positive charge would be expected to facilitate the intimate electrostatic interaction with target tissues, which have negatively charged surfaces, resulting in a maximizing of the cellular uptake and maintaining effective drug concentration at the site of action for a prolonged time period. Additionally, oleic acid, the main component of date seed oil, besides being beneficial for the human body, may inhibit α -amylase and α -glucosidase enzymes and alleviate the side effects derived from conventional hypoglycemic drugs like skin reactions, gastrointestinal discomfort, nausea, and weight gain. By combining all these approaches, the developed date seed oil-loaded nanoparticles may be considered as an alternative of conventional oral hypoglycemic agents for diabetes type 2 management.

Importantly, this work has spotlighted a crucial aspect to be regarded in the perspective of diabetes management: The cytotoxicity of the developed formulation is of paramount

importance to determine the biosafety of the treatment. For instance, more biocompatibility experiments on primary and cell lines have to be carried out. In addition, this is the first study dealing with the potential use of date seed oil-derived nanoparticles in the management of diabetes. Further studies are required on the in vivo clinical application, pharmacokinetic profile, and the precise mechanism of action of date seed oil to substantiate the in vitro results by which date seed oil in its free and encapsulated form is responsible for the desired effect.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

SI Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acs.biomac.0c00255>.

The validation of the ultraviolet–visible spectroscopy method was carried out in terms of linearity, precision, and recovery. Standard curve, recovery study, and intraday/interday reproducibility measurements (PDF)

AUTHOR INFORMATION

Corresponding Author

Abdelhamid Elaissari – Univ Lyon, Université Claude Bernard Lyon-1, CNRS, LAGEPP UMR 5007, F-69622 Lyon, France;
 orcid.org/0000-0002-2151-9894;
 Email: abdelhamid.elaissari@univ-lyon1.fr

Authors

Narimane Lammari – Univ Lyon, Université Claude Bernard Lyon-1, CNRS, LAGEPP UMR 5007, F-69622 Lyon, France; Environmental Process Engineering Laboratory, University Constantine 3, 25000 Constantine, Algeria

Francesca Froiio – Univ Lyon, Université Claude Bernard Lyon-1, CNRS, LAGEPP UMR 5007, F-69622 Lyon, France; Department of Experimental and Clinical Medicine, University “Magna Græcia” of Catanzaro, I-88100 Germaneto - Catanzaro, Italy

Mehdi Louaer – Environmental Process Engineering Laboratory, University Constantine 3, 25000 Constantine, Algeria

Maria Chiara Cristiano – Department of Experimental and Clinical Medicine, University “Magna Græcia” of Catanzaro, I-88100 Germaneto - Catanzaro, Italy

Chawki Bensouici – Centre de Recherche en Biotechnologie (CRBt), Constantine, Algeria

Donatella Paolino – Department of Experimental and Clinical Medicine, University “Magna Græcia” of Catanzaro, I-88100 Germaneto - Catanzaro, Italy; orcid.org/0000-0002-5223-9879

Ouahida Louaer – Environmental Process Engineering Laboratory, University Constantine 3, 25000 Constantine, Algeria

Abdeslam Hassen Meniai – Environmental Process Engineering Laboratory, University Constantine 3, 25000 Constantine, Algeria; orcid.org/0000-0002-0357-3512

Complete contact information is available at:
<https://pubs.acs.org/10.1021/acs.biomac.0c00255>

Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

REFERENCES

- (1) Kharroubi, A. T.; Darwish, H. M. Diabetes Mellitus: The Epidemic of the Century. *World J. Diabetes* **2015**, *6* (6), 850–867.
- (2) Le Magueresse-Battistoni, B.; Vidal, H.; Naville, D. Environmental Pollutants and Metabolic Disorders: The Multi-Exposure Scenario of Life. *Front. Endocrinol. (Lausanne, Switz.)* **2018**, *9*, 1–7.
- (3) Piero, M. N.; Nzar, G. M.; Njagi, J. M. Diabetes Mellitus - a Devastating Metabolic Disorder. *Asian J. Biomed. Pharm. Sci.* **2015**, *4* (40), 1–7.
- (4) Maymone, A. C.; Baillargeon, J. P.; Ménard, J.; Ardilouze, J. L. Oral Hypoglycemic Agents for Gestational Diabetes Mellitus? *Expert Opin. Drug Saf.* **2011**, *10* (2), 227–238.
- (5) Krentz, A. J.; Bailey, C. J. Oral Antidiabetic Agents. *Drugs* **2005**, *65* (3), 385–411.
- (6) Vadivelan, R.; Krishnan, R. G.; Kannan, R. Antidiabetic Potential of *Asparagus racemosus* Wild Leaf Extracts through Inhibition of α -Amylase and α -Glucosidase. *J. Tradit. Chinese Med. Sci.* **2019**, *9* (1), 1–4.
- (7) Yang, X.; Huang, M.; Jin, Y.; Sun, L.-N.; Song, Y.; Chen, H.-S. Phenolics from *Bidens Bipinnata* and Their Amylase Inhibitory Properties. *Fitoterapia* **2012**, *83* (7), 1169–1175.
- (8) Nair, S. S.; Kavrekar, V.; Mishra, A. *In Vitro* Studies on α -Amylase and α -Glucosidase Inhibitory Activities of Selected Plant Extracts. *Eur. J. Exp. Biol.* **2013**, *3* (1), 128–132.
- (9) Piero, M. N.; Njagi, J. M.; Kibiti, C. M.; Ngeranwa, J. J. N.; Njagi, E. N. M.; Miriti, P. M. The Role of Vitamins and Mineral Elements in Management of Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus: A Review. *South Asian J. Biol. Sci.* **2012**, *2*, 107–115.
- (10) Kumar, A.; Sharma, A.; Upadhyaya, K. C. Vegetable Oil: Nutritional and Industrial Perspective. *Curr. Genomics* **2016**, *17* (3), 230–240.
- (11) Narasimhulu, C. A.; Selvarajan, K.; Litvinov, D.; Parthasarathy, S. Anti-Atherosclerotic and Anti-Inflammatory Actions of Sesame Oil. *J. Med. Food* **2015**, *18* (1), 11–20.
- (12) Moreno-Luna, R.; Muñoz-Hernandez, R.; Miranda, M. L.; Costa, A. F.; Jimenez-Jimenez, L.; Vallejo-Vaz, A. J.; Murianna, F. J.; Villar, J.; Stiefel, P. Olive Oil Polyphenols Decrease Blood Pressure and Improve Endothelial Function in Young Women with Mild Hypertension. *Am. J. Hypertens.* **2012**, *25*, 1299–1304.
- (13) Yang, P.; Cartwright, C.; Chan, D.; Ding, J.; Felix, E.; Pan, Y.; Pang, J.; Rhea, P.; Block, K.; Fischer, S. M.; Newman, R. A. Anticancer Activity of Fish Oils against Human Lung Cancer Is Associated with Changes in Formation of PGE2 and PGE3 and Alteration of Akt Phosphorylation. *Mol. Carcinog.* **2014**, *53* (7), 566–577.
- (14) Adaramola, B.; Onigbinde, A.; Shokunbi, O. Physicochemical Properties and Antioxidant Potential of *Persea Americana* Seed Oil. *Chem. International* **2016**, *2* (3), 168–175.
- (15) Ben Mohamed, H.; Duba, K. S.; Fiori, L.; Abdelgawed, H.; Tlili, I.; Tounekti, T.; Zrig, A. Bioactive Compounds and Antioxidant Activities of Different Grape (*Vitis Vinifera* L.) Seed Oils Extracted by Supercritical CO₂ and Organic Solvent. *LWT - Food Sci. Technol.* **2016**, *74* (2016), 557–562.
- (16) Hermenean, A.; Stan, M.; Ardelean, A.; Pilat, L.; Mihali, C. V.; Popescu, C.; Nagy, L.; Deák, G.; Zsuga, M.; Kéki, S.; Bácskay, I.; Fenyvesi, F.; Costache, M.; Dinischiotu, A.; Vecsernyés, M. Antioxidant and Hepatoprotective Activity of Milk Thistle (*Silybum Marianum* L. Gaertn.) Seed Oil. *Open Life Sci.* **2015**, *10* (1), 225–236.
- (17) Hasan, M. *In Vivo* Evaluation of Anti Diabetic, Hypolipidemic, Antioxidative Activities of Saudi Date Seed Extract on Streptozotocin Induced Diabetic Rats. *J. Clin. Diagnostic Res.* **2016**, *10* (3), 6–12.
- (18) Yousuf, R. G.; Winterburn, J. B. Waste Date Seed Oil Extract as an Alternative Feedstock for Poly (3-Hydroxybutyrate) Synthesis. *Biochem. Eng. J.* **2017**, *127*, 68–76.
- (19) Luque, R.; Clark, J. H. Valorisation of Food Residues: Waste to Wealth Using Green Chemical Technologies. *Sustainable Chem. Processes* **2013**, *1* (10), 2–4.
- (20) Sumathi, T.; Nathiya, V.; Sakthikumar, M. Protective Effect of Bacoside-A against Morphine-Induced Oxidative Stress in Rats. *Indian J. Pharm. Sci.* **2011**, *73* (4), 409–415.
- (21) Naskar, S.; Islam, A.; Mazumder, U. K.; Saha, P.; Haldar, P. K.; Gupta, M. *In Vitro* and *In Vivo* Antioxidant Potential of Hydro-methanolic Extract of *Phoenix Dactylifera* Fruits. *J. Sci. Res.* **2009**, *2*, 144–157.
- (22) Al-Taher, A. Anticonvulsant Effects of 3, 4-Dimethoxy Toluene, the Major Constituent of *Phoenix Dactylifera* L Spathe in Mice. *Sci. J. King Faisal Univ.* **2008**, *9*, 115–123.
- (23) Abiola, T.; Dibia, D.; Akinwale, O.; Shomuyiwa, O. Assessment of the Antidiabetic Potential of the Ethanolic Extract of Date Palm (*Phoenix Dactylifera*) Seed in Alloxan-Induced Diabetic Rats. *J. Diabetes Metab.* **2017**, *9* (1), 1–9.
- (24) Abdennabi, R.; Gaboriaud, N.; Ahluwalia, V.; Tchoumtchoua, J.; Elgheryeni, A.; Skaltsou, A. L. Microwave-Assisted Extraction of Phenolic Compounds from Date Palm Saps (*Phoenix Dactylifera* L.) and Their Antioxidant, Antidiabetic and Antibacterial Activities Evaluation. *Mathews J. Diabetes Obesity.* **2017**, *2* (2), 1–6.
- (25) Louaer, M.; Zermane, A.; Larkeche, O.; Meniai, A. Experimental Study and Optimization of the Extraction of Algerian Date Stones Oil (*Phoenix Dactylifera* L.) Using Supercritical Carbon Dioxide. *J. Food Process Eng.* **2019**, *42* (4), No. e13049.
- (26) Fornari, T.; Vicente, G.; Vázquez, E.; García-Risco, M. R.; Reglero, G. Isolation of Essential Oil from Different Plants and Herbs by Supercritical Fluid Extraction. *J. Chromatogr. A* **2012**, *1250*, 34–48.

- (27) Pourmortazavi, S. M.; Hajmirsadeghi, S. S. Supercritical Fluid Extraction in Plant Essential and Volatile Oil Analysis. *J. Chromatogr. A* **2007**, *1163* (1–2), 2–24.
- (28) Sagiri, S. S.; Anis, A.; Pal, K. Review on Encapsulation of Vegetable Oils: Strategies, Preparation Methods and Applications. *Polym.-Plast. Technol. Eng.* **2016**, *55* (3), 37–41.
- (29) Elmowafy, M.; Samy, A.; Abdelaziz, A. E.; Shalaby, K.; Salama, A.; Raslan, M. A.; Abdelgawad, M. A. Polymeric Nanoparticles Based Topical Gel of Poorly Soluble Drug: Formulation, *Ex-Vivo* and *In Vivo* Evaluation. *Beni-Suef Univ. J. Basic Appl. Sci.* **2017**, *6* (2), 184–191.
- (30) Bolhassani, A.; Javanad, S.; Saleh, T.; Hashemi, M.; Aghasadeghi, M. R.; Sadat, S. M. Polymeric Nanoparticles. *Hum. Vaccines Immunother.* **2014**, *10* (2), 321–332.
- (31) Anton, N.; Benoit, J.-P.; Saulnier, P. Design and Production of Nanoparticles Formulated from Nano-Emulsion Templates—A Review. *J. Controlled Release* **2008**, *128* (3), 185–199.
- (32) Mora-Huertas, C. E.; Fessi, H.; Elaissari, A. Polymer-Based Nanocapsules for Drug Delivery. *Int. J. Pharm.* **2010**, *385* (1–2), 113–142.
- (33) Jawahar, N.; Meyyanathan, S. Polymeric Nanoparticles for Drug Delivery and Targeting: A Comprehensive Review. *Int. J. Heal. Allied Sci.* **2012**, *1* (4), 217–223.
- (34) Miladi, K.; Ibraheem, D.; Iqbal, M.; Sfar, S.; Fessi, H.; Elaissari, A. Particles from Preformed Polymers as Carriers for Drug Delivery. *EXCLI J.* **2014**, *13*, 28–57.
- (35) Couvreur, P.; Barratt, G.; Fattal, E.; Vauthier, C. Nanocapsule Technology: A Review. *Crit. Rev. Ther. Drug Carrier Syst.* **2002**, *19* (2), 99–134.
- (36) Singh, A.; Garg, G.; Sharma, P. K. Nanospheres: A Novel Approach for Targeted Drug Delivery System. *Int. J. Pharm. Sci. Rev. Res.* **2010**, *5* (3), 84–88.
- (37) Rao, J. P.; Geckeler, K. E. Polymer Nanoparticles: Preparation Techniques and Size-Control Parameters. *Prog. Polym. Sci.* **2011**, *36* (7), 887–913.
- (38) Gültekin, H. E.; Degim, Z. Biodegradable Polymeric Nanoparticles Are Effective Systems for Controlled Drug Delivery. *FABAD J. Pharm. Sci.* **2013**, *38* (2), 107–118.
- (39) Badri, W.; Miladi, K.; Nazari, Q. A.; Fessi, H.; Elaissari, A. Effect of Process and Formulation Parameters on Polycaprolactone Nanoparticles Prepared by Solvent Displacement. *Colloids Surf., A* **2017**, *516*, 238–244.
- (40) Yenilmez, E. Desloratadine-Eudragit® RS100 Nanoparticles: Formulation and Characterization. *Turk. J. Pharm. Sci.* **2017**, *14* (2), 148–156.
- (41) Pignatello, R.; Amico, D.; Santina, C.; Giunchedi, P.; Spadaro, C.; Puglisi, G. Preparation and Analgesic Activity of Eudragit RS100® Microparticles Containing Diflunisal. *Drug Delivery* **2001**, *8* (1), 35–45.
- (42) Shaji, J.; Kumbhar, M. Formulation and Characterization of Linezolid Loaded Eudragit RS100 Polymeric Nanoparticles. *Int. J. Pharm. Sci. Res.* **2019**, *10* (4), 1944–1952.
- (43) Dillen, K.; Vandervoort, J.; Van den Mooter, G.; Ludwig, A. Evaluation of Ciprofloxacin-Loaded Eudragit® RS100 or RL100/PLGA Nanoparticles. *Int. J. Pharm.* **2006**, *314* (1), 72–82.
- (44) Bucolo, C.; Maltese, A.; Puglisi, G.; Pignatello, R. Enhanced Ocular Anti-Inflammatory Activity of Ibuprofen Carried by an Eudragit RS100® Nanoparticle Suspension. *Ophthalmic Res.* **2002**, *34* (5), 319–323.
- (45) Hani, U.; Sudeendra, R.; Shivakumar, H. G. Formulation Design and Evaluation of Metronidazole Microspheres in a Bioadhesive Gel for Local Therapy of Vaginal Candidiasis. *Lat. Am. J. Pharm.* **2011**, *30* (1), 161–167.
- (46) Pignatello, R.; Bucolo, C.; Ferrara, P.; Maltese, A.; Puleo, A.; Puglisi, G. Eudragit Rs100 Nanosuspensions for the Ophthalmic Controlled Delivery of Ibuprofen. *Eur. J. Pharm. Sci.* **2002**, *16*, 53–61.
- (47) Younis, N.; Shaheen, M. A.; Abdallah, M. H. Silymarin-Loaded Eudragit® RS100 Nanoparticles Improved the Ability of Silymarin to Resolve Hepatic Fibrosis in Bile Duct Ligated Rats. *Biomed. Pharmacother.* **2016**, *81*, 93–103.
- (48) Tayel, S. A.; El-Nabarawi, M. A.; Tadros, M. I.; Abd-Elsalam, W. H. Positively Charged Polymeric Nanoparticle Reservoirs of Terbinafine Hydrochloride: Preclinical Implications for Controlled Drug Delivery in the Aqueous Humor of Rabbits. *AAPS PharmSciTech* **2013**, *14* (2), 782–793.
- (49) Dillen, K.; Bridts, C.; Van der Veken, P.; Cos, P.; Vandervoort, J.; Augustyns, K.; Stevens, W.; Ludwig, A. Adhesion of PLGA or Eudragit/PLGA Nanoparticles to Staphylococcus and Pseudomonas. *Int. J. Pharm.* **2008**, *349* (1–2), 234–240.
- (50) Damgé, C.; Maincent, P.; Ubrich, N. Oral Delivery of Insulin Associated to Polymeric Nanoparticles in Diabetic Rats. *J. Controlled Release* **2007**, *117* (2), 163–170.
- (51) Lopodota, A.; Trapani, A.; Cutrignelli, A.; Chiarantini, L.; Pantucci, E.; Curci, R.; Manuali, E.; Trapani, G. The Use of Eudragit RS 100/Cyclodextrin Nanoparticles for the Transmucosal Administration of Glutathione. *Eur. J. Pharm. Biopharm.* **2009**, *72* (3), 509–520.
- (52) Trapani, A.; Laquintana, V.; Denora, N.; Lopodota, A.; Cutrignelli, A.; Franco, M.; Trapani, G.; Liso, G. Eudragit RS 100 Microparticles Containing 2-Hydroxypropyl- β -Cyclodextrin and Glutathione: Physicochemical Characterization, Drug Release and Transport Studies. *Eur. J. Pharm. Sci.* **2007**, *30* (1), 64–74.
- (53) Lamprecht, A.; Koenig, P.; Ubrich, N.; Maincent, P.; Neumann, D. Low Molecular Weight Heparin Nanoparticles: Mucoadhesion and Behaviour in Caco-2 Cells. *Nanotechnology* **2006**, *17*, 3673–3680.
- (54) Cortesi, R.; Ravani, L.; Menegatti, E.; Esposito, E.; Ronconi, F. Eudragit Microparticles for the Release of Budesonide: A Comparative Study. *Indian J. Pharm. Sci.* **2012**, *74* (5), 415–421.
- (55) Lee, S. H.; Bajracharya, R.; Min, J. Y.; Han, J.-W.; Park, B. J.; Han, H.-K. Strategic Approaches for Colon Targeted Drug Delivery: An Overview of Recent Advancements. *Pharmaceutics* **2020**, *12*, 68.
- (56) Khayata, N.; Abdelwahed, W.; Chehna, M. F.; Charcosset, C.; Fessi, H. Preparation of Vitamin E Loaded Nanocapsules by the Nanoprecipitation Method: From Laboratory Scale to Large Scale Using a Membrane Contactor. *Int. J. Pharm.* **2012**, *423* (2), 419–427.
- (57) Rosset, V.; Ahmed, N.; Zaanoun, I.; Stella, B.; Fessi, H.; Elaissari, A. Elaboration of Argan Oil Nanocapsules Containing Naproxen for Cosmetic and Transdermal Local Application. *J. Colloid Sci. Biotechnol.* **2012**, *1*, 218–224.
- (58) Badri, W.; El Asbahani, A.; Miladi, K.; Baraket, A.; Agusti, G.; Nazari, Q. A.; Errachid, A.; Fessi, H.; Elaissari, A. Poly(ϵ -Caprolactone) Nanoparticles Loaded with Indomethacin and Nigella Sativa L. Essential Oil for the Topical Treatment of Inflammation. *J. Drug Delivery Sci. Technol.* **2018**, *46*, 234–242.
- (59) Fessi, H.; Puisieux, F.; Devissaguet, J. P.; Ammoury, N.; Benita, S. Nanocapsule Formation by Interfacial Polymer Deposition Following Solvent Displacement. *Int. J. Pharm.* **1989**, *55* (1), R1–R4.
- (60) Govender, T.; Stolnik, S.; Garnett, M.; Illum, L.; Davis, S. PLGA Nanoparticles Prepared by Nanoprecipitation: Drug Loading and Release Studies of a Water Soluble Drug. *J. Controlled Release* **1999**, *57* (2), 171–185.
- (61) Quintanar-Guerrero; Allémann, E.; Fessi, H.; Doelker, E. Preparation Techniques and Mechanisms of Formation of Biodegradable Nanoparticles from Preformed Polymers. *Drug Dev. Ind. Pharm.* **1998**, *24* (12), 1113–1128.
- (62) Limayem Blouza, L.; Charcosset, C.; Sfar, S.; Fessi, H. Preparation and Characterization of Spironolactone-Loaded Nanocapsules for Pediatric Use. *Int. J. Pharm.* **2006**, *325* (1–2), 124–131.
- (63) Dong, Y.; Feng, S. Methoxy Poly(Ethylene Glycol)-Poly-(Lactide) (MPEG-PLA) Nanoparticles for Controlled Delivery of Anticancer Drugs. *Biomaterials* **2004**, *25*, 2843–2849.
- (64) Song, K. C.; Lee, H. S.; Choung, I. Y.; Cho, K. I.; Ahn, Y.; Choi, E. J. The Effect of Type of Organic Phase Solvents on the Particle Size of Poly(D,L-lactide-co-glycolide) Nanoparticles. *Colloids Surf., A* **2006**, *276*, 162–167.
- (65) Mohsen-Nia, M.; Amiri, H.; Jazi, B. Dielectric Constants of Water, Methanol, Ethanol, Butanol and Acetone: Measurement and Computational Study. *J. Solution Chem.* **2010**, *39*, 701–708.

- (66) Tarhini, M.; Benlyamani, I.; Hamdani, S.; Agusti, G.; Fessi, H.; Greige-Gerges, H.; Bentaher, A.; Elaissari, A. Protein-Based Nanoparticle Preparation Via Nanoprecipitation Method. *Materials* **2018**, *11* (3), 1–18.
- (67) Stainmesse, S.; Orecchioni, A. -M.; Nakache, E.; Puisieux, F.; Fessi, H. Formation and Stabilization of a Biodegradable Polymeric Colloidal Suspension of Nanoparticles. *Colloid Polym. Sci.* **1995**, *273*, 505–511.
- (68) Froiio, F.; Ginot, L.; Paolino, D.; Lebaz, N.; Bentaher, A.; Fessi, H.; Elaissari, A. Essential Oils-Loaded Polymer Particles: Preparation, Characterization and Antimicrobial Property. *Polymers (Basel, Switz.)* **2019**, *11* (6), 1017.
- (69) Chorny, M.; Fishbein, I.; Danenberg, H. D.; Golomb, G. Lipophilic Drug Loaded Nanospheres Prepared by Nanoprecipitation: Effect of Formulation Variables on Size, Drug Recovery and Release Kinetics. *J. Controlled Release* **2002**, *83*, 389–400.
- (70) Bilati, U.; Allemann, E.; Doelker, E. Development of a Nanoprecipitation Method Intended for the Entrapment of Hydrophilic Drugs into Nanoparticles. *Eur. J. Pharm. Sci.* **2005**, *24* (1), 67–75.
- (71) Guhagarkar, S. A.; Malshe, V. C.; Devarajan, P. V. Nanoparticles of Polyethylene Sebacate: A New Biodegradable Polymer. *AAPS PharmSciTech* **2009**, *10* (3), 935–942.
- (72) Khan, M. R.; Sayed, E. Sulfur Removal from Heavy and Light Petroleum Hydrocarbon by Selective Oxidation. In *Advances in Clean Hydrocarbon Fuel Processing: Science and Technology*; Khan, M. R., Ed.; Woodhead Publishing: Sawston, U.K., 2011; pp 243–261.
- (73) Miladi, K.; Sfar, S.; Fessi, H.; Elaissari, A. Nanoprecipitation Process: From Particle Preparation to In Vivo Applications. In *Polymer Nanoparticles for Nanomedicines*; Vauthier, C., Ponchel, G., Eds.; Springer: Cham, 2016; pp 17–53.
- (74) Asadi, H.; Rostamizadeh, K.; Salari, D.; Hamidi, M. Preparation of Biodegradable Nanoparticles of Tri-Block PLA-PEG-PLA Copolymer and Determination of Factors Controlling the Particle Size Using Artificial Neural Network. *J. Microencapsulation* **2011**, *28* (5), 406–416.
- (75) Rosset, V.; Ahmed, N.; Zaanoun, I.; Stella, B.; Fessi, H.; Elaissari, A. Elaboration of Argan Oil Nanocapsules Containing Naproxen for Cosmetic and Transdermal Local Application. *J. Colloid Sci. Biotechnol.* **2012**, *1* (2), 218–224.
- (76) Badri, W.; Miladi, K.; Eddabra, R.; Fessi, H.; Elaissari, A. Elaboration of Nanoparticles Containing Indomethacin: Argan Oil for Transdermal Local and Cosmetic Application. *J. Nanomater.* **2015**, *2015*, 1–9.
- (77) Jahangirian, H.; Haron, M. J.; Yusof, N. A.; Silong, S.; Kassim, A.; Rafiee-Moghaddam, R.; Peyda, M.; Gharayebi, Y. Enzymatic Synthesis of Fatty Hydroxamic Acid Derivatives Based on Palm Kernel Oil. *Molecules* **2011**, *16* (8), 6634–6644.
- (78) Olowokere, J.; Onen, A.; Odineze, M.; B'aga, I.; Kefas, E. Extraction and Characterization of Oil from Date Palm (*Phoenix Dactylifera*) Seed. *Asian J. Appl. Chem. Res.* **2019**, *3* (4), 1–9.
- (79) Ali, M. A.; Al-Hattab, T. A.; Al-hydary, I. A. Extraction of Date Palm Seed Oil (*Phoenix dactylifera*) by Soxhlet Apparatus. *Int. J. Adv. Eng. Technol.* **2015**, *8* (3), 261–271.
- (80) Sibokoza, S. B.; Moloto, M. J.; Mtunzi, F.; Moloto, N. Diphenyldiselenide Mediated Synthesis of Copper Selenide Nanoparticles and Their Poly(Methyl Methacrylate) Nanofibers. *Asian J. Chem.* **2018**, *30* (7), 1455–1459.
- (81) Khurshid, M. F.; Hussain, T.; Masood, R.; Hussain, N. Development and Evaluation of a Controlled Drug Delivery Wound Dressing Based on Polymeric Porous Microspheres. *J. Ind. Text.* **2016**, *46* (3), 986–999.
- (82) Du, J.; Sun, R.; Zhang, S.; Govender, T.; Zhang, L.; Xiong, C.; Peng, Y. Novel Polyelectrolyte Carboxymethyl Konjac Glucomannan-Chitosan Nanoparticles for Drug Delivery. *Macromol. Rapid Commun.* **2004**, *25*, 954–958.
- (83) Boddohi, S.; Killingsworth, C. E.; Kipper, M. J. Polyelectrolyte Multilayer Assembly as a Function of PH and Ionic Strength Using the Polysaccharides Chitosan and Heparin. *Biomacromolecules* **2008**, *9*, 2021–2028.
- (84) Agarwal, P.; Gupta, R. α -Amylase Inhibition Can Treat Diabetes Mellitus. *Res. Rev. J. Med. Heal. Sci.* **2016**, *5* (4), 1–8.
- (85) Zengin, G.; Locatelli, M.; Carradori, S.; Mocan, A. M.; Aktumsek, A. Total Phenolics, Flavonoids, Condensed Tannins Content of Eight Centaurea Species and Their Broad Inhibitory Activities against Cholinesterase, Tyrosinase, α -Amylase and α -Glucosidase. *Not. Bot. Horti Agrobot. Cluj-Napoca* **2016**, *44* (1), 195–200.
- (86) Teng, H.; Chen, L. α -Glucosidase and α -Amylase Inhibitors from Seed Oil: A Review of Liposoluble Substance to Treat Diabetes. *Crit. Rev. Food Sci. Nutr.* **2017**, *57* (16), 3438–3448.
- (87) Vassiliou, E. K.; Gonzalez, A.; Garcia, C.; Tadros, J. H.; Chakraborty, G.; Toney, J. H. Oleic Acid and Peanut Oil High in Oleic Acid Reverse the Inhibitory Effect of Insulin Production of the Inflammatory Cytokine TNF- Both In Vitro and In Vivo Systems. *Lipids Health Dis.* **2009**, *8*, 1–10.
- (88) Nguyen, T.; Um, B.; Kim, S. Two Unsaturated Fatty Acids with Potent Alpha-Glucosidase Inhibitory Activity Purified from the Body Wall of Sea Cucumber (*Stichopus japonicus*). *J. Food Sci.* **2011**, *76*, 208–214.
- (89) Shanker, K.; Mohan, G. K.; Hussain, M. A.; Jayarambabu, N.; Pravallika, P. L. Green Biosynthesis, Characterization, In Vitro Antidiabetic Activity, and Investigational Acute Toxicity Studies of Some Herbal-Mediated Silver Nanoparticles on Animal Models. *Pharmacogn. Mag.* **2016**, *13* (49), 188–192.
- (90) Kavitha, K.; Sujatha, K.; Manoharan, S. Development, Characterization and Antidiabetic Potentials of *Nilgiranthus ciliatus* Nees Derived Nanoparticles. *J. Nanomed. Biother. Discovery* **2017**, *7* (2), 152.
- (91) Su, C. H.; Hsu, C. H.; Ng, L. T. Inhibitory Potential of Fatty Acids on Key Enzymes Related to Type 2 Diabetes. *BioFactors.* **2013**, *39* (4), 415–421.
- (92) Miyazawa, M.; Yagi, N.; Taguchi, K. Inhibitory Compounds of Alpha-Glucosidase Activity from *Arctium Lappa* L. *J. Oleo Sci.* **2005**, *54*, 589–594.



Nanocapsules containing *Saussurea lappa* essential oil: Formulation, characterization, antidiabetic, anti-cholinesterase and anti-inflammatory potentials

Narimane Lammari^{a,b}, Tanguy Demautis^c, Ouahida Louaer^b, Abdeslam Hassen Meniai^b, Herve Casabianca^d, Chawki Bensouici^e, Gilles Devouassoux^c, Hatem Fessi^a, Abderrazzak Bentaher^c, Abdelhamid Elaissari^{a,*}

^a Univ Lyon, Université Claude Bernard Lyon-1, CNRS, LAGEPP UMR 5007, F-69622 Lyon, France

^b Environmental Process Engineering Laboratory, University Constantine 3, Salah Bounbider, 25000 Constantine, Algeria

^c Inflammation and Immunity of the Respiratory Epithelium – EA7426 (PI3) – South Medical University Hospital - Lyon 1 Claude Bernard University, Pierre-Bénite, France

^d Univ Lyon, University Claude Bernard Lyon-1, CNRS, ISA-UMR 5280, 69622 Villeurbanne, France

^e Centre de Recherche en Biotechnologie (CRBT), 25000 Constantine, Algeria

ARTICLE INFO

Keywords:

Saussurea lappa
Essential oil
Nanoparticles
Antidiabetic
Anti-Alzheimer
Anti-inflammatory

ABSTRACT

Plant-based remedies have been widely used for the management of variable diseases due to their safety and less side effects. In the present study, we investigated *Saussurea lappa* CB. Clarke. (SL) given its largely reported medicinal effects. Specifically, our objective was to provide an insight into a new polymethyl methacrylate based nanocapsules as carriers of SL essential oil and characterize their biologic functions. The nanoparticles were prepared by nanoprecipitation technique, characterized and analyzed for their cytotoxicity, anti-inflammatory, anti-Alzheimer and antidiabetic effects. The results revealed that the developed nanoparticles had a diameter around 145 nm, a polydispersity index of 0.18 and a zeta potential equal to +45 mV and they did not show any cytotoxicity at 25 $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$. The results also showed an anti-inflammatory activity (reduction in metalloprotease MMP-9 enzyme activity and RNA expression of inflammatory cytokines: TNF- α , GM-CSF and IL1 β), a high anti-Alzheimer's effect (IC50 around 25.0 and 14.9 $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$ against acetylcholinesterase and butyrylcholinesterase, respectively), and a strong antidiabetic effect (IC50 were equal to 22.9 and 75.8 $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$ against α -amylase and α -glucosidase, respectively). Further studies are required including the *in vivo* studies (e.g., preclinical), the pharmacokinetic properties, the bioavailability and the underlying associated metabolic pathways.

1. Introduction

Nature is an inexhaustible source of molecular varieties with a great therapeutic potential, representing nowadays a valuable pool for the identification of novel drug leads (Calixto, 2019; Koparde et al., 2019). In the past decades, pharmaceutical industry has shifted its main focus toward the synthetic products due to their easy quality control, production and time effectiveness (David et al., 2015). However, their cost, safety and efficiency remained always questionable, resulting in the dependence on the plant-based drug discovery by more than 80% of the total population in developed countries (Veeresham, 2012). Since a long time plant-based drug discovery had been the basis in the medical

management of a great number of known diseases and body malfunction (Atanasov et al., 2015). *Saussurea lappa* CB. Clarke. known as costus, belongs to the Asteraceae family and is well known for its enormous medicinal effects. Ethnopharmacological surveys have pointed that the roots and leaves of the plant are used in the traditional treatment of several diseases like throat infection, cough, asthma, leprosy, tuberculosis, malaria, inflammation, convulsion, helminthic infestation and rheumatism (Gautam and Asrani, 2018; Kaur et al., 2019; Madhuri et al., 2012; Singh et al., 2017; Zahara et al., 2014). *Saussurea lappa* (SL) is considered as a rich source of triterpenoids, flavonoids, steroids and sesquiterpene lactones (Singh et al., 2017), and is reported to have several biological potentials including antimicrobial (Abdelwahab et al.,

* Corresponding author.

E-mail address: abdelhamid.elaissari@univ-lyon1.fr (A. Elaissari).

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijpharm.2020.120138>

Received 25 September 2020; Received in revised form 26 November 2020; Accepted 27 November 2020

Available online 3 December 2020

0378-5173/© 2020 Published by Elsevier B.V.

2019), larvicide (Liu et al., 2012), antioxidant (Sadik et al., 2017), antihepatotoxic (Ansari et al., 2018), anti-inflammatory (Tag et al., 2016), anticancerous (Tian et al., 2017), antiulcerous (Sutar et al., 2011), anticonvulsant (Dhar et al., 2016) and antidiabetic activities (Raafat et al., 2019). A literature survey revealed that most of the studies dealt with the investigation of the biological effects of the SL extracts, which were obtained by using the conventional organic solvent extraction processes.

Simultaneously with the emergence of plant-based drug formulations, the pharmaceutical field has known during the last era a steady growth in investment in nanotechnology in order to improve existing treatments and develop novel therapies (Matteucci et al., 2018). Polymeric nanoparticles (NP) have been proposed as a novel approach to overcome difficulties encountered in traditional drug delivery such as poor aqueous solubility, low bioavailability, poor stability and bitter taste (Giaretta et al., 2019; Ma and Williams, 2018; Umerska et al., 2018). Sonaje et al. (2010) noticed an enhanced intestinal absorption of insulin, a prolonged reduction in blood glucose levels and an increased bioavailability upon insulin encapsulation in chitosan/ poly(γ -glutamic acid) based NP. Moreover, Huh et al. (2005) demonstrated that encapsulation of paclitaxel upsurge dramatically its water solubility by a factor of 1000 and ensure its long-term stability. Additionally, these nanocarriers (nanospheres or nanocapsules) may provide preferential accumulation of bioactive agents at a specific tissue or cell (Lombardo et al., 2019).

Poly (ethyl acrylate-co-methyl methacrylate-co-trimethylammoniumethyl methacrylate chloride) (PMMA), a synthetic polymer known as Eudragit® RS100, was widely used for developing polymeric NP due to its crucial features including biocompatibility, permeability, non-toxicity, non-irritancy and controlled drug release profile (Hani et al., 2011). In addition, PMMA was known for its mucoadhesive property. For instance, an electrostatic interaction would be expected between its ammonium groups and negatively charged chemical groups of bioactive agents or target tissue surface (i.e. mucin) resulting in boosting cellular uptake (Dillen et al., 2008; Tayel et al., 2013).

The last decade had seen the integration of nanotechnology and herbal medicine to overcome the limitations of using herbal formulations in a scientific way in the aim to promote an efficient therapeutic action (Pattabhiramaiah et al., 2020). The expected benefits from the encapsulation of plant-based products included an enhanced aqueous solubility and bioavailability, a better protection from the environment (pH, temperature, humidity and oxygen) and a persistent delivery (Bilia et al., 2014). Several studies have been dedicated to the encapsulation of plant derived-metabolites such as essential oil (EO) (Chifiriuc et al., 2017; El-Asbahani et al., 2015; Froiio et al., 2019; Herculano et al., 2015; Jummes et al., 2020; Partheniadis et al., 2020; Pina-Barrera et al., 2019; Timbe et al., 2020), vegetable oils (Contri et al., 2013, 2016; Lammari et al., 2020a; Sousa et al., 2013), plants extracts (Azeez et al., 2020; Ma et al., 2018; Mughees et al., 2020; Servat-Medina et al., 2015), etc. However, to the best of our knowledge, neither the extract nor the EO of costus roots have been previously encapsulated in polymeric nanoparticles.

In this study, we report for the first time, the encapsulation of SL-EO in PMMA based-NP and the investigation of the cytotoxicity, anti-inflammatory, anti-Alzheimer and antidiabetic potentials of such formulation. First and contrary to the majority of previously reported studies to extract SL-EO, an innovative and environmentally friendly technique (supercritical CO₂ extraction process) was used to obtain an extract free of any traces of organic solvents. Then, gas chromatography coupled to mass spectrometry (GC-MS) was carried out in order to characterize the obtained SL-EO before its encapsulation in PMMA-NP. The obtained particles were then characterized by dynamic light scattering, Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) and transmission electron microscopy. Finally, *in vitro* cytotoxicity, anti-Alzheimer, antidiabetic and anti-inflammatory activities were investigated for SL-EO in its free and encapsulated form.

2. Material and methods

2.1. Plant material

The dried roots of Indian *Saussurea lappa* CB. Clarke. were purchased from herb store (Bordj Bou Arreridj, Algeria). The roots were washed with water, air dried, ground to an approximate size of 0.3 mm and stored in air-tight bottles ready for further analysis.

2.2. Chemical reagents

Eudragit RS®100 was purchased from EVONIK (EVONIK, Germany). Carbon dioxide (99.5%) was supplied by SIDAL SPA Air liquid, Algiers, Algeria. Acarbose ($\geq 95\%$), *p*-nitrophenyl- α -D-glucopyranoside ($\geq 99\%$), starch powder, acetylthiocholine iodide, S-butyrylthiocholine iodide, 5,5'-dithiobis(2-nitrobenzoic) acid (DTNB), galantamine, *Aspergillus oryzae*-derived α -amylase, *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*-derived α -glucosidase (Type I, ≥ 10 units/mg protein), electric eel-derived acetylcholinesterase (AChE, Type-VI-S, EC 3.1.1.7, 827.84 U/mg) and horse serum-derived butyrylcholinesterase (BChE, EC 3.1.1.8, 7.8 U/mg) were all obtained from Sigma Chemical Co. (Sigma-Aldrich GmbH, Sternheim, Germany). Potassium iodide was obtained from Biochem Chemopharma. Deionized water from Milli-Q system was used in all experiments. All other chemicals and solvents were of analytical grade.

2.3. Extraction of essential oil

The dried powder (80 g) of SL was subjected to the supercritical carbon dioxide extraction using a dynamic pilot-plant (Separex 4343, type SF2) supplied by Separex (Champigneulle, France). The operating extraction parameters were as follow: dynamic extraction time: 180 min; CO₂ flow rate: 50 g/min; CO₂ pressure: 100 bar; extraction temperature: 40 °C and separation temperature: 30 °C (Fig. 1). The oil yield value was determined around 23%.

2.4. Gas chromatography analysis of *Saussurea lappa* EO

Analysis of SL-EO was performed at the Institut des Sciences analytiques (ISA), CNRS, at Villeurbanne, France, using two GC systems, equipped with two kinds of capillary columns:

2.4.1. Gas chromatography – Flame ionization detector (GC-FID)

The analysis was carried out on an Agilent 6890 N apparatus equipped with a split / splitless injection and a FID detector. SL-EO (1 μ L volume) was firstly injected in split mode (1/60) to an INNOWAX column (60 m \times 0.32 mm, 0.50- μ m film thickness) under a constant flow (1.3 mL/min rate) of helium used as gas carrier. The initial temperature of the column was maintained constant at 60 °C for 2 min and then programmed to 245 °C at a rate of 2 °C/min and then held isothermally for 30 min. A second injection was conducted on a HP-1 (Agilent) column (50 m \times 0.32 mm, 0.50- μ m film thickness) with a temperature program as follow: 8 min at 80 °C, increased to 220 °C at a rate of 2 °C/min and then increased to 310 °C at 10 °C/min and finally held isothermally 20 min at 310 °C. Helium was used as the carrier gas at a constant pressure (13psi). In both cases, the analyses were performed with injector and detector temperatures maintained at 250 °C.

2.4.2. Gas Chromatography-Mass Spectrometry (GC-MS)

The EO components were identified by mass spectrometry 6890 N gas chromatography coupled to Agilent 5973 N mass selective detector. SL-EO (1 μ L volume) was injected in a split mode (1/60) at 250°C to an HP-5MS capillary column (0.25 mm \times 30 m, 0.25- μ m film thickness). The operating conditions were as follows: the GC temperature program was held at 60°C for 2 min, then increased at 3°C/min from 60°C to 250°C, held at 250°C for 2 min, increased to 325°C at 10°C /min, and then held isothermally for 15 min; helium flow rate was maintained at

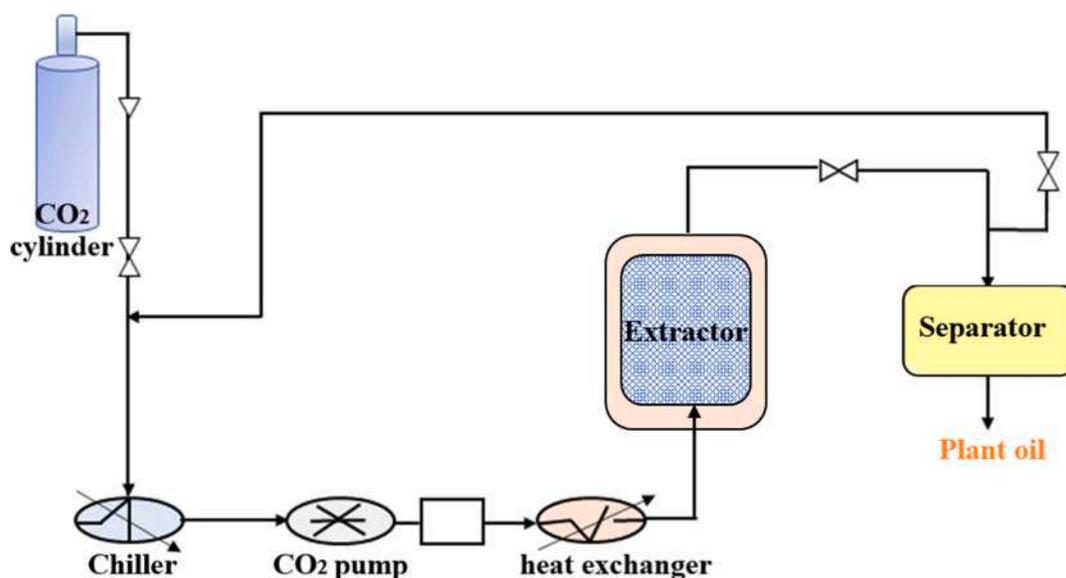


Fig. 1. Supercritical carbon dioxide extraction pilot.

1.0 mL/min; the MS energy ionization was set at 70 eV; electron ionization mass spectra were acquired in scan mode over the mass ranged 35–350 Daltons.

2.4.3. Identification of *Saussurea lappa* EO components

Relative percentages of SL-EO components were determined basing on their GC peak areas without using correction factors. The retention indices were determined by linear interpolation in relation to a homologous series of n-alkanes (C₅–C₃₀) injected on the two capillary columns under the same operating conditions with that of literature data and those of the add-in-house database available in the ISA laboratory. Further identification was made by computer matching with two commercial mass spectral libraries (NIST data gateway database 2005 and Wiley).

2.5. Preparation of PMMA loaded nanoparticles

PMMA-NP were prepared by means of the nanoprecipitation technique (Fessi et al., 1989) using a protocol that was already described and studied systematically throughout the blank nanoparticles preparation (Lammari et al., 2020a) and according to which 240 mg of PMMA was dissolved in 15 mL of ethanol and then mixed with 120 mg SL-EO. Consecutively the prepared organic phase was added carefully and very slowly to the aqueous phase consisting of 30 mL water at ambient temperature and under moderate magnetic stirring. The evaporation of the organic solvent was performed subsequently using Buchi Rotavapor R-124®. For blank nanoparticles, the same step was repeated without EO.

2.6. Characterization of PMMA loaded nanoparticles

2.6.1. Size distribution, polydispersity index, and zeta potential

In order to determine the average diameter, polydispersity index and zeta (ζ)-potential, the aqueous suspension of PMMA-NP was subjected to an analysis by dynamic light scattering (DLS) technique using a Zetasizer Nano ZS200 (Malvern Instruments, UK). Previous to each size measurement, nanoparticles were diluted in 1 mL of distilled water. While measuring the ζ -potential of prepared nanoparticles, a colloidal dispersion was made in 1 mM NaCl solution. All the measurements were performed in triplicate at ambient temperature and pH around 6.5 and the results were expressed as means and standard deviations.

2.6.2. Transmission electron microscopy

The morphology of the NP was investigated immediately after preparation, using a Philips CM120 microscope operated at 120 kV, at the “Centre Technologique des Microstructures” (CTμ) at the University of Lyon (Villeurbanne, France). Drops of the nanoparticle suspensions were placed on microscope grid (copper support covered with carbon) and the grids were analyzed after being allowed to dry by evaporation.

2.6.3. Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy

The infrared spectra of PMMA, un-encapsulated SL-EO and SL-EO loaded-NP were investigated using an FTIR spectrometer (Thermo Scientific Technologies FTIR spectrometer with IR MONIC Solution software). In this study, the oil loaded NP were freeze dried then analyzed; while, no initial preparation was taken place for SL-EO and PMMA. All spectra were recorded from 400 to 4000 cm⁻¹ wavenumber range. Prior to each acquisition, blank background had been adjusted.

2.7. Stability study of *Saussurea lappa* EO-loaded PMMA nanoparticles

In order to assess the colloidal stability, the obtained EO-loaded NP were stored for a period of one month at 4, 25 and 40 °C. Nanoparticles physical stability was assessed via particle size and ζ -potential measurements which were carried out after each 10 days.

2.8. Cell and culture conditions

Human adenocarcinomic alveolar epithelial cells (A549), supplied by American Type Culture Collection LGC Standard, Molsheim, France, were cultured in DMEM/F-12 (Gibco®, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) enriched with 10% FBS (Gemini® Bio-Products, West Sacramento, CA) and 1% penicillin/streptomycin (Life Technologies®, Grand Island, USA). Cells were grown in a humidified 5% CO₂ incubator at 37 °C.

2.9. Cytotoxicity test

At 80% of confluence, A549 cells were treated with SL-EO-solution (SL-EO dissolved in dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO)), blank NP (non-loaded) and SL-EO loaded-NP formulations using different concentrations (12.5, 25, 50, 75, 100 and 200 µg/mL of oil content) for 24 h. After treatment, culture supernatants were harvested and released LDH was measured using Pierce LDH cytotoxicity assay kit (Thermo Fisher

Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) according to the manufacturer's protocol.

2.10. Microscopy

After cell treatments, changes in morphology of A549 cells were observed through optical microscope after fixation and coloration with Kwik-Diff kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA).

2.11. Anti-inflammatory activity

A549 cells were treated, when they reach 80% of confluence, with SL-EO loaded-NP at the concentration of 25 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ of oil content 1 h prior to lipopolysaccharides (LPS) (1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$) stimulation. After 1 h post LPS exposure, cells were lysed and processed for total RNA extraction and mRNA expression analysis.

2.11.1. Total RNA extraction

Total cellular RNA was isolated using EZ-10 DNAaway RNA Miniprep Kit (Biobasic) according to manufacturer instructions. Quality and quantity RNA were controlled with a Nanodrop spectrophotometer (ThermoScientific).

2.11.2. Real-Time PCR

The expression of mRNA was determined using Taqman quantitative Real-Time PCR on cDNA acquired from Reverse Transcriptase-PCR using Superscript TM IV (Thermo Fischer Scientific), following manufacturer specifications. Product was amplified with commercially available Taqman primers and Taqman Mastermix (Life Technologies) on AriaMx Real-time PCR system. The product reference for Taqman primers were the following: hTBP (Hs99999910_m1), hCSF2 (Hs00929873_m1), hTNF α (Hs00174128_m1) and hIL1 β (Hs 01555410_m1). Real-Time PCR data was analyzed using the comparative Ct ($\Delta\Delta\text{CT}$) method.

2.11.3. Gelatin zymography

Gelatin zymography to detect active proteases namely metalloproteases (MMP) was performed using cell culture supernatants of untreated and treated cells. Briefly, the samples were subjected to sodium dodecyl sulphate-poly acrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) on 10% polyacrylamide containing 0.1% SDS and 1.5 mg/mL gelatin under non-reducing conditions without prior boiling. After electrophoresis, gels were washed in 2% Triton X-100 for 30 min to remove SDS, and subsequently immersed in a mixture containing Tris-HCl (50 mM) (pH 7.6), CaCl_2 (5 mM) and ZnCl_2 (0.5 μM) for 24 h at 37 °C. The gels were then stained (5 g Coomassie Brilliant Blue, 200 mL methanol, 50 mL acetic acid, 500 mL distilled deionized water) for 10 min at room temperature on a rocker and then destained in 20% methanol /10% acetic acid. Enzymatic activities were detected as clear bands of gelatin lysis against the blue background. Gels were scanned using ChemidocXRS BIORAD and analyzed with FIJI software. Densitometric analysis was performed on captured images, using ImageJ software.

2.12. In vitro cholinesterase activity assay

Cholinesterase activities of SL-EO loaded-NP, un-encapsulated oil and free NP were evaluated *in vitro* against Acetyl and Butyryl cholinesterase enzymes based on Ellman's method (Ellman et al., 1961) using a 96-well microplate reader, PerkinElmer Multimode Plate Reader EnSpire (National Center of biotechnology Research, Constantine, Algeria). Different concentrations of sample solution (10 μL) were mixed and incubated for 15 min at 25 °C with 150 μL of sodium phosphate buffer (100 mM, pH 8.0) and 20 μL of acetylcholinesterase or butyrylcholinesterase solution. Then, 10 μL of 0.5 mM DTNB was added along with 10 μL of acetylthiocholine iodide or butyrylthiocholine iodide. Galantamine hydrobromide was used as positive control. The absorbance was read at 412 nm utilizing a 96-well microplate reader. The

IC50 (the concentration providing 50% enzyme inhibition) was calculated by plotting inhibition percentage against sample concentration.

2.13. In vitro alpha-amylase and alpha-glucosidase activity assay

The study of the antidiabetic activity of SL-EO loaded-NP, un-encapsulated oil and free NP was evaluated *in vitro* through the inhibition of two key enzymes (α -amylase and α -glucosidase) based on quantitative colorimetric assays using a 96-well microplate reader, PerkinElmer Multimode Plate Reader EnSpire (National Center of biotechnology Research, Constantine, Algeria).

2.13.1. Alpha amylase activity

Alpha amylase inhibitory activity was investigated using Caraway-Somogyi iodine/potassium iodide method as previously described with slight modifications (Yang et al., 2012). Different concentrations of sample (25 μL) were mixed with α -amylase solution (50 μL) and incubated at 37 °C for 10 min. Then, the reaction was started by adding starch solution (50 μL , 0.1%). Similarly, a blank was prepared by adding sample solution to all reaction reagents without enzyme solution. After incubation (10 min at 37 °C), the reaction was stopped by adding 25 μL HCl (1 M) and 100 μL iodine-potassium iodide solution. Acarbose was used as standard. The sample and blank absorbances were read at 630 nm by micro plate reader and the IC50 of all the formulations was calculated.

2.13.2. Alpha glucosidase activity

Alpha glucosidase inhibitory activity was measured using a method previously described with slight modifications (Vadivelan et al., 2019). In 96-well microplate, different concentration of sample solution (50 μL) were mixed with 100 μL of 0.1 M phosphate buffer (pH 6.9) containing α -glucosidase solution and incubated at 37 °C for 15 min. Next, 50 μL of 5 mM *p*-nitrophenyl- α -D-glucopyranoside solution was added. After incubation (5 min at 37 °C), the sample and blank absorbances were read at 405 nm and the IC50 of all the formulations was determined. Acarbose was used as standard.

2.14. Statistical analysis

The data values are expressed as mean \pm standard deviation (SD). The statistical significance of the differences between samples was determined using XLSTAT software with one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Tukey post-test; $p < 0.05$ was selected such as criterion for significant differences.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Gas chromatography analysis

To illustrate the chemical composition of SL-EO, two complementary methods were used: GC-FID and GC-MS. Two different kinds of capillary columns were used as well: the polar HP-Innowax and the apolar HP-1 in the aim of facilitating the separation and resolving the problem of co-elution of some compounds. The relative percentages of SL-EO components were depicted in Table 1. A total of 21 components of the EO were identified, accounting for 82.75% of the total oil. The principal compounds in SL-EO were dehydrocostus lactone as the major compound (55.39%) followed by costunolide (8.87%), dehydrosaussurea lactone (6.55%) and aploxene (4.73%). Oxygenated sesquiterpenes represented 13 out of the 21 compounds, corresponding to 75.92% of the whole EO, while 8 out of the 21 constituents were hydrocarbons sesquiterpenes, corresponding to 5.94% of the crude EO. The chemical composition of EO was in a good agreement with that reported in previous works (Chen et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2012; Zahara et al., 2014). Chen et al. reported that the EO extracted from costus roots collected from seven producing areas (provinces) all contained the two main

Table 1

Saussurea lappa essential oil chemical composition as determined by gas chromatography - flame ionization detector (GC - FID) and gas chromatography - mass spectrometry (GC-MS).

No	Component	Formula	RI-HP-1	RI-WAX	Content (%)
1	Beta elemene	C ₁₅ H ₂₄	1388	1808	0.288
2	Dihydroionone	C ₁₃ H ₂₂ O	1396	–	0.088
3	Alpha ionone	C ₁₃ H ₂₀ O	1406	1876	0.147
4	Trans Beta Caryophyllene	C ₁₅ H ₂₄	1419	1628	0.288
5	Neryl acetone	C ₁₅ H ₂₂ O	1428	–	0.029
6	Alpha humulene	C ₁₅ H ₂₄	1452	1704	0.033
7	Beta ionone	C ₁₃ H ₂₀ O	1464	1946	0.093
8	Alpha + Gamma curcumene	C ₁₅ H ₂₂ /C ₁₅ H ₂₄	1471	1801/ 1719	0.06
9	Pentadecene-1	C ₁₅ H ₃₀	1474	1539	0.06
10	Beta selinene	C ₁₅ H ₂₄	1482	1750	0.308
11	Alpha selinene	C ₁₅ H ₂₄	1493	1758	0.17
12	Alpha elemol	C ₁₅ H ₂₆ O	1534	2108	0.085
13	Elemal- 1,3,11(13)-Trien-12-al	C ₁₅ H ₂₂ O	1555	–	0.206
14	Oxyde Caryophyllene	C ₁₅ H ₂₄ O	1570	2024	0.291
15	Beta Eudesmol	C ₁₅ H ₂₆ O	1636	2268	1.256
16	Aplotaxene	C ₁₇ H ₂₈	1660	2623	4.734
17	Beta costol	C ₁₅ H ₂₄ O	1748	2532	1.865
18	Alpha costol	C ₁₅ H ₂₄ O	1754	2607	1.034
19	Dehydrosaussurea lactone	C ₁₅ H ₂₀ O ₂	1861	–	6.556
20	Costunolide	C ₁₅ H ₂₀ O ₂	1891	–	8.874
21	Dehydrocostus lactone	C ₁₅ H ₁₈ O ₂	1962	–	55.399
22	Unknown	–	2118	–	0.446
23	Unknown	–	2146	–	0.44
	Total				82.75

Sesquiterpene hydrocarbons: 5.94%; Sesquiterpene oxygenated: 75.92%; Unknown: 0.89.

components, dehydrocostus lactone (ranging from 16.30 to 25.36%) and costunolide (ranging from 4.28 to 8.32%) (Chen et al., 2011). Variation in EO composition may be ascribed to climatic and seasonal factors, harvest time and local as well as storage duration of medicinal plants. Dehydrocostus lactone and costunolide, are sesquiterpenes lactones, very known for their anticancer (Lin et al., 2015; Peng et al., 2017), anti-inflammatory (Park et al., 2014; Scarponi et al., 2014), gastro-protective (Zheng et al., 2016), anti-osteoclastogenic (Cheon et al., 2014; Li et al., 2019), antibacterial (Negi et al., 2014) and larvicidal (Liu et al., 2012) activities. Dehydrosaussurea lactone (8.87%) is very similar structurally to costunolide and has been previously shown to exhibit an anticancer activity by inducing cell cycle arrest against various cell lines (Chang et al., 2010), while, aplotaxene has been recently regarded as a bioactive agent in the treatment of autoimmune and inflammatory diseases due to its immunosuppressive effect on T cells (Na et al., 2013).

Other compounds of significant medicinal and biological interests were identified in trace amounts in SL-EO (Table 1) and these include: β -eudesmol, a sesquiterpene, which was recently shown as an effective inhibitor of SARS-CoV-2 main protease (Aanouz et al., 2020), caryophyllene oxide as an analgesic and anti-inflammatory agent (Chavan et al., 2010), β -ionone as antioxidant and anticancer agent (Asokkumar et al., 2012) and α -humulene which was found as effective bioactive agent to inhibit drug-metabolizing enzymes in human liver (Nguyen et al., 2017).

3.2. Nanoparticles characterization

3.2.1. Dynamic light scattering measurements

According to Table 2, the average size (Z-average) of the PMMA-NP entrapped with SL-EO was significantly higher than that of blank NP ($p < 0.05$). Similar results were already reported in the literature (Lammari et al., 2020a; Rosset et al., 2012). Jummes et al. (2020) noticed larger sizes for palmarosa EO loaded poly- ϵ -caprolactone NP compared to the

Table 2

Particle size, polydispersity index and ζ -potential of blank and loaded PMMA nanoparticles.

	Z-average (nm)	PDI	ζ -potential (mV)
Blank NP	45 \pm 2	0.19 \pm 0.01	+39 \pm 2
Saussurea lappa EO loaded-NP	145 \pm 1	0.18 \pm 0.01	+45 \pm 2

unloaded NP. They related the smallest particle size of empty NP to their empty interior. With respect to the PDI, low values were shown in this study (< 0.2) with no significant difference ($p > 0.05$) between free and loaded-NP. Apparently, the PDI value reflected the aggregation level of NP (Jummes et al., 2020); thus, in the current study, the low PDI value reflected an homogeneous distribution of all particles.

The ζ -potential represents the overall surface charge that a particle acquires in a particular medium and it serves as a key indicator of the dispersion stability. Particles exhibiting ζ -potential values greater than + 30 mV or less than – 30 mV are colloidally stable due to repulsive electrostatic interactions (Barhoum et al., 2018). In this study, PMMA-NP exhibited a good colloidal stability since no aggregation has been observed and confirmed by the measured ζ -potential values ranging from + 39 to + 45 mV for free and loaded-NP, respectively. The positive charge of PMMA-NP was attributed to the ammonium quaternary groups of the polymer as previously described (Froio et al., 2019). Higher ζ -potential values were found for SL-EO loaded-NP as compared to free NP due to the interaction of the EO with PMMA polymer. This result was in accordance with our previous study when encapsulating *Phoenix dactylifera* seeds oil (Lammari et al., 2020a).

3.2.2. Nanoparticle morphology

Morphological characterization of the NP containing SL-EO by transmission electron microscopy showed that the NP exhibited spherical and regular form, as depicted in Fig. 2.

3.2.3. Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy analysis

Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy analysis was carried out to investigate the chemical interaction between SL-EO and PMMA. Apparently, drug-polymer interaction resulted in changes in FTIR spectra (Yenilmez, 2017). The FTIR patterns of SL-EO, PMMA and loaded-NP were shown in Fig. 3. In PMMA spectrum, the peak at 2950 corresponded to the stretching vibration of C-H aliphatic groups. The peaks at 1722 cm^{-1} and 1143 cm^{-1} were assigned to the stretching vibrations of C = O and C-O ester group, respectively; while the band at 1446 cm^{-1} referred to the bending vibration of C-H aliphatic groups. This was in agreement with what was reported in the literature (Khurshid et al., 2016; Sibokoza et al., 2018). In SL-EO spectrum, the broad band at 3419 cm^{-1} was correlated to O-H group of α -elemol, β -eudesmol, α - and β -costol. The small peaks at 2925 and 1439 cm^{-1} were due to C-H symmetrical stretching and bending vibrations of saturated hydrocarbons, respectively (Riaz et al., 2018). The strong absorption band at 1762 cm^{-1} indicated a five membered lactone present in dehydrosaussurea lactone, dehydrocostus lactone and costunolide (Zaghloul et al., 2014). Band at 1640 cm^{-1} and those between 649 and 998 cm^{-1} were referred to the C = C stretching and bending of alkene, respectively, present in all the EO constituents.

The superposition of SL-EO and PMMA FTIR spectrums on that of EO loaded-nanoparticles revealed an increase in the peak intensity in 1724 cm^{-1} as well as coming out of peaks in 2927, 2856, 1764 and 650 cm^{-1} which characterized SL-EO. This might be attributed to the interaction between SL-EO and PMMA in the nanoparticles. Therefore, SL-EO was efficiently encapsulated within the polymeric nanoparticles.

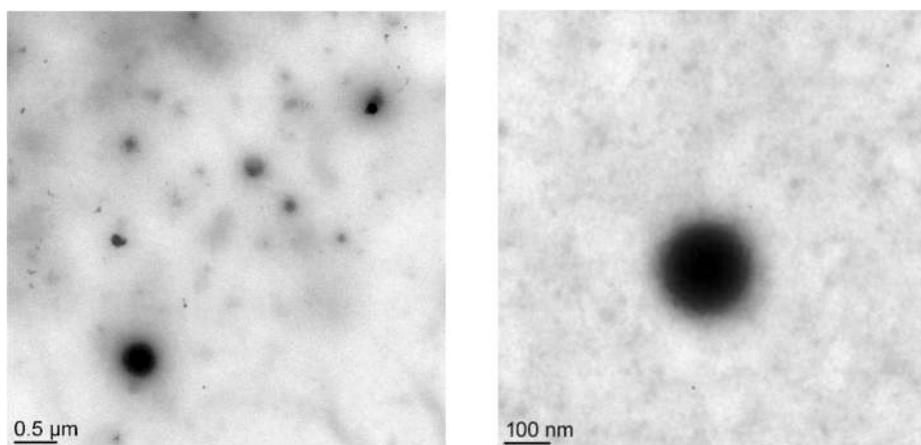


Fig. 2. Transmission Electron Microscopy images of *Saussurea lappa* EO loaded PMMA nanoparticles at 0.5 and 0.1 μm scale bar.

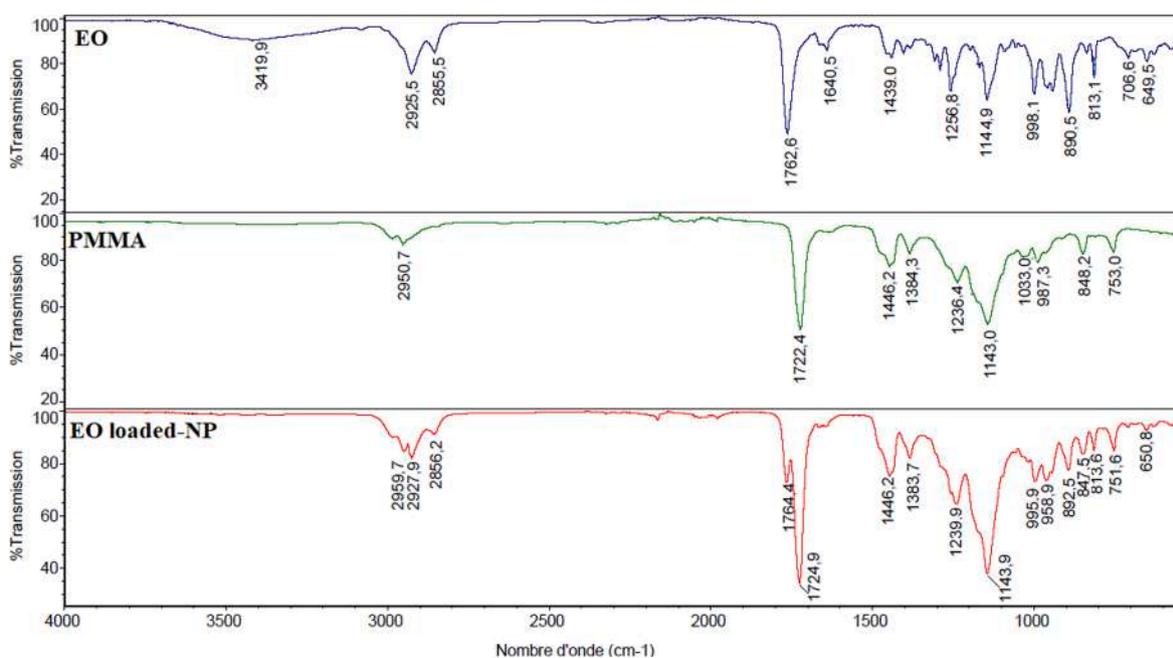


Fig. 3. Fourier transformed infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) spectrum noted between 650 cm^{-1} and 4000 cm^{-1} for unencapsulated *Saussurea lappa* EO, PMMA and EO loaded-Nanoparticles.

3.3. Stability study

The colloidal stability of SL-EO loaded-NP formulation was investigated by analyzing the size and the ζ -potential as a function of temperature ($4\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, RT and $40\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$) during one month. As demonstrated in Fig. 4A, the average diameter of the prepared PMMA loaded-NP throughout the period of stability study was not changed significantly (ranging size was from 140 to 148 nm). The ζ -potential was found to be almost constant and in the vicinity of $45\text{ mV} \pm 5\text{ mV}$ at pH 6.

Moreover, the ζ -potential values of these NPs have been determined under different pH to get an idea about their stability upon biological applications. In this context, the ζ -potential was determined after the addition of either diluted HCl or NaOH to have different pH (3, 4, 5, 7, 9, 10 and 12) and the results are shown in Fig. 4B. By increasing the pH from 3 to 12, the ζ -potential decreased from $+45$ to $+32\text{ mV}$. These results were in conformity with those obtained by Du and coworkers (2004) for carboxymethyl konjac glucomannan-chitosan based-NP. In another study, the change in the ζ -potential measurements was related to the decrease in the charge density of the chitosan induced by the

reduction of the concentration of H^+ ions (Boddohi et al., 2008). Although the ζ -potential decreased by varying pH, the NP remained stable with a ζ -potential around $+32\text{ mV}$.

3.4. In vitro cytotoxicity

The human lung epithelial A549 cell line is derived from an alveolar adenocarcinoma and has an epithelial like-morphology and is commonly used as *in vitro* model for cytotoxicity screening of formulations (Carterson et al., 2005). In the current study, LDH cytotoxicity test was used to determine the cell viability. LDH test is an indirect and colorimetric method to check cellular cytotoxicity. It measures the concentration of LDH enzyme released from the damaged cells. Released LDH catalyzes lactate oxidation to pyruvate with simultaneous reduction of NAD^+ to NADH/H^+ that in turn reduces tetrazolium salt to a red colored formazan that can be detected by spectrophotometry. The intensity of formed color reflects the amount of released LDH (Aslantürk, 2017).

In this study, A549 cells were first treated in a concentration-

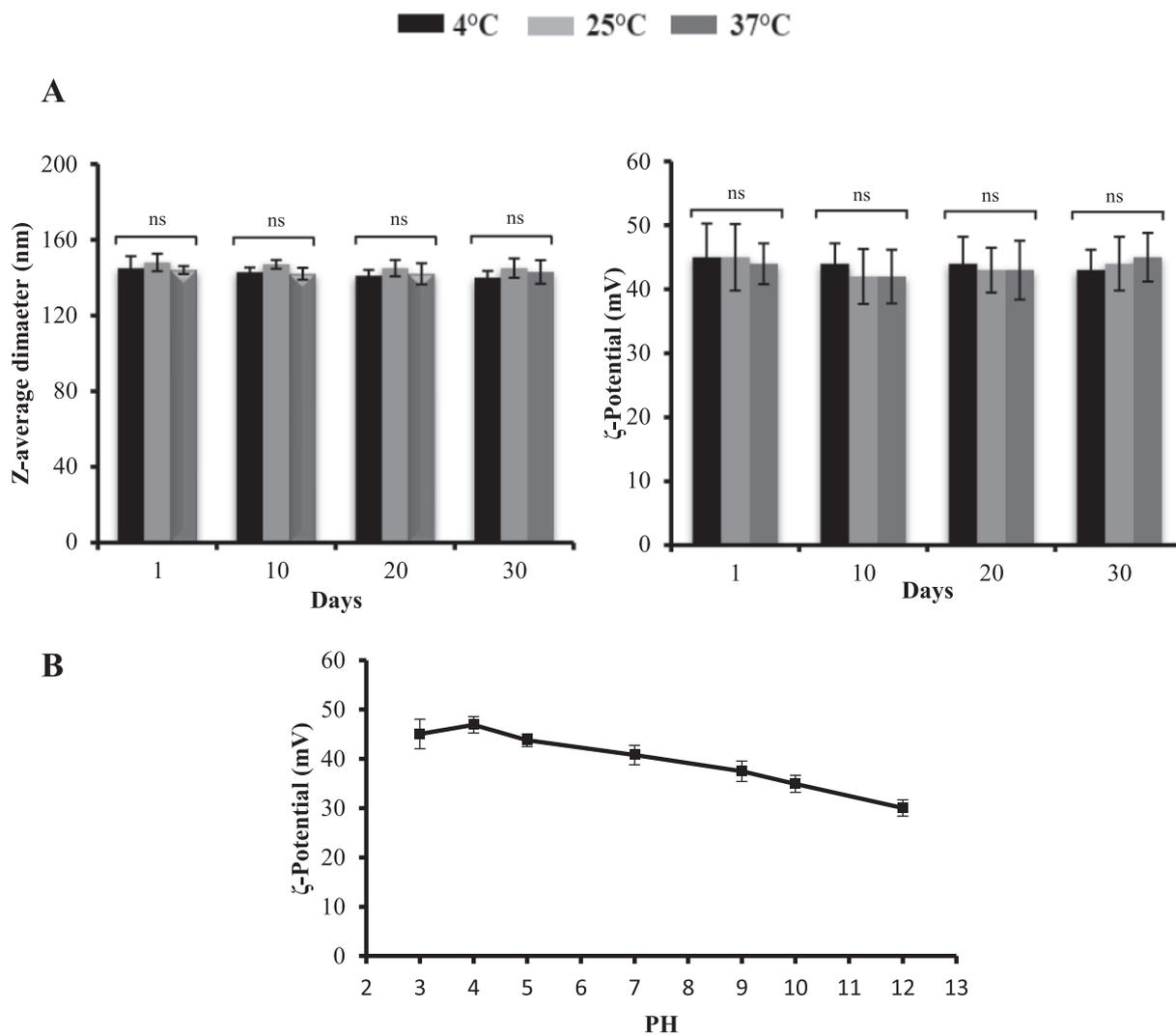


Fig. 4. Stability of PMMA based nanoparticles containing *Saussurea lappa* EO in terms of size, ζ -potential (A) and pH (B). Measurements from separate tests were combined (n = 3) and represented as mean \pm SD; ns indicates non-significant difference (p-value > 0.05).

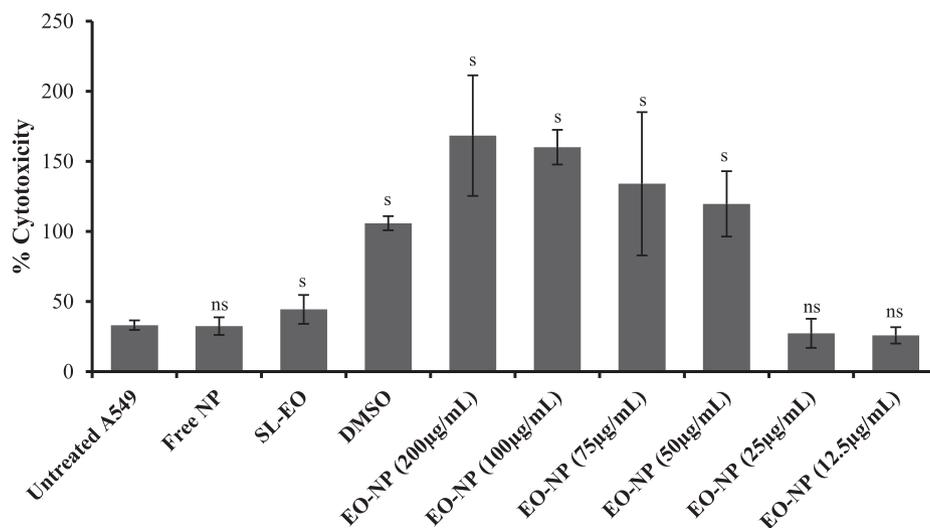


Fig. 5. Cytotoxic effect of *Saussurea lappa* EO in its free and encapsulated form; s: significantly different from the control cells; ns: not significantly different from the control cells.

dependent manner with SL-EO loaded-NP formulations at different concentrations (12.5, 25, 50, 75, 100 and 200 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ of oil content). Similarly, the effect of un-encapsulated SL-EO along with DMSO and blank NP on cell viability was investigated and the results are shown in Fig. 5. The non-cytotoxicity of free NP confirms the biocompatibility of the used polymer. Several works reported no detectable cytotoxicity after PMMA-NP treatment on many cell lines including HaCaT (human keratinocyte), RAW264 (monocyte/macrophage-like cells), MDA-MB231 (invasive human breast adenocarcinoma), FaDu (pharynx carcinoma cells), MCF-7 (non-invasive human breast adenocarcinoma) (Gargouri et al., 2009), NR8383 macrophages (Eidi et al., 2010), CAM (chorioallantoic membrane) and rabbit corneal epithelial cell lines (Katzner et al., 2014). Moreover, SL-EO loaded-NP exhibit a dose-dependent cytotoxic effect. For instance, NP at higher concentrations (≥ 50 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$) were considered as cytotoxic whereas NP containing both 25 and 12.5 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ were shown as non-cytotoxic. This result was in agreement with what Nayal et al. reported when they investigated the *in vitro* cytotoxicity of *Lippia dulcis* Trev. EO on Hep G2 cells (Nayal et al., 2009). They found that the EO reduced cells viability in a concentration and time-dependent manner. Similar results were also reported in the literature (Montero-Villegas et al., 2018). Moreover, the encapsulated -EO is more cytotoxic than its un-encapsulated form (especially at higher concentration) which can be attributed to the nanoencapsulation concept. As reported earlier, the nanoencapsulation may increase the cellular uptake and the bioavailability of essential oils as compared to their free form (Lammari et al., 2020b).

Interestingly, these findings corroborate cell morphologic changes. Fig. 6 shows micrographs of untreated and treated A549 cells. Light microscopic observation shows that cells changed their morphology when cultured in the presence of SL-EO loaded-NP at concentrations more than 50 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ (Fig. 6. d, e and f). Contrary in A549 control cells, structural alterations, reduction of A549 cell populations, and destruction of the cytoplasm could be observed. However, cells treated with SL-EO loaded-NP at 12.5 and 25 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ were similar to control cells where higher confluency, bigger nuclei and intact cytoplasm were visualized (Fig. 6. b and c). This finding confirms the non-cytotoxicity of the developed nanoparticles at these two concentrations (12.5 and 25 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$).

3.5. Anti-inflammatory effect

Among the characteristic features of host inflammatory response to an insulting agent (e.g., bacteria, viruses, toxins) the production and

release of pro-inflammatory mediators, including cytokines such as interleukin (IL)-1, IL-6 and IL-10 and tumor necrosis factor-alpha (TNF- α). This latter induces in turn the production of other inflammatory cytokines like granulocyte-macrophage colony-stimulating factor (GM-CSF) and potentiate the inflammation (Kany et al., 2019).

In addition to cytokines, increased production of matrix-degrading proteases has been associated with inflammation. These include the matrix metalloproteinases (MMP) such as MMP-9 and MMP-2, a family of proteolytic enzymes involved in tissue remodeling (Shoshani et al., 2005) and inflammation modulation (Manicone and Mcguire, 2008). Literature survey revealed that both costus root extract and its main sesquiterpene lactones were widely studied for their anti-inflammatory effects; while, a formulation of such extract employing nanoparticles has never been studied for this context.

To address this aspect, A549 cells were incubated with SL-EO loaded nanoparticles (25 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$) for 1 h prior to LPS treatment. This latter is known to trigger inflammatory-mediators expression and release by A549 cells. After the end of the treatments, mRNA expression of TNF- α , IL-1 β and GM-CSF was investigated using RT-qPCR. The stimulation of A549 with LPS resulted in a strong increase of mRNA expression of the inflammatory factors (Fig. 7). Similar results were obtained with free nanoparticles treatment (without EO) especially for TNF- α and GM-CSF. Interestingly, a high reduction of all the cytokines was observed upon treatment with SL-EO loaded-NP (Fig. 7) suggesting strongly the anti-inflammatory effect mediated by SL-EO. Both dehydrocostuslactone and costunolide were reported as potential inhibitors of the expression of TNF- α (Choodej et al., 2018; Seo et al., 2015) (Rayan et al., 2011) and IL-1 β (Kang et al., 2004; Rayan et al., 2011) (He et al., 2019). The activity of these two constituents was not limited on these two cytokines. In a recent study carried by Zhou et al. (Zhou et al., 2020), dehydrocostus lactone extracted from the roots of SL reduced the expression of other inflammatory mediators like myeloperoxidase (MPO), superoxide dismutase (SOD), MCP-1, IL-17, IL-6 and IL-23, inflammatory signaling pathway (those associated with COX2, IL-6, IL-23, iNOS, GP130 and L-17), and colorectal mucosal barrier-related regulatory factors (XBP1s and MUC2). Subsequently, costunolide was shown to negatively regulates the expression of IL-6, MCP-1, Cox2, iNOS and NF- κB nuclear translocation in activated murine BV-2 microglia (Rayan et al., 2011). Li et al. related the biological effect of costunolide and dehydrocostus lactone to their α -methylene- γ -butyrolactone ring which is the key moiety of these two sesquiterpenes (Li et al., 2020). Further LDH cytotoxicity assay was used to determine the cell viability upon LPS treatment and results confirm the non-cytotoxicity of all the

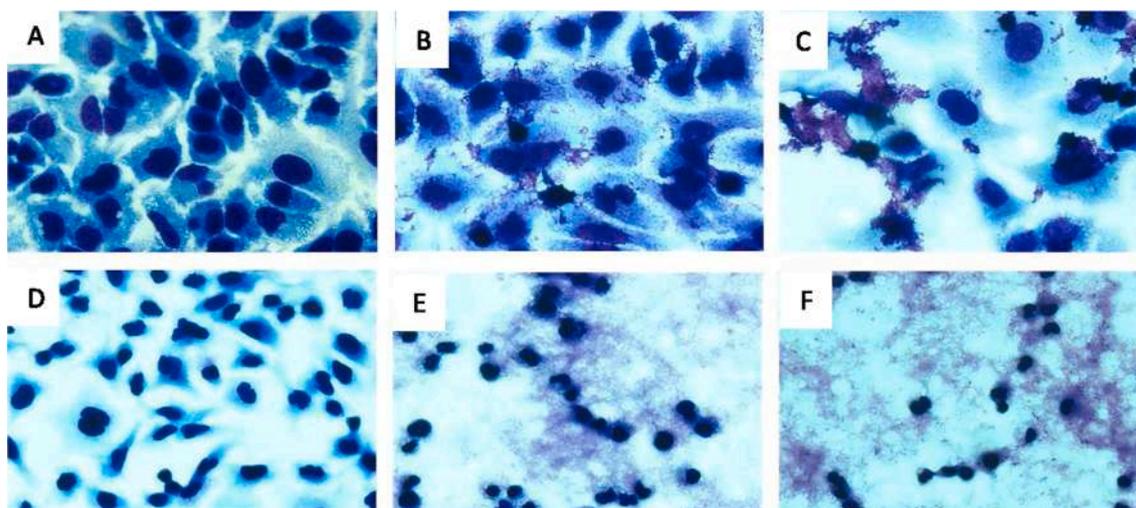


Fig. 6. Representative micrographs of cell morphology after various treatments: a) Untreated cells; b) Cells treated with EO-loaded NP (12.5 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$); c) Cells treated with EO-loaded NP (25 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$); d) Cells treated with EO-loaded NP (75 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$); e) Cells treated with EO-loaded NP (100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$) and f) Cells treated with EO-loaded NP (200 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$). Magnification x400.

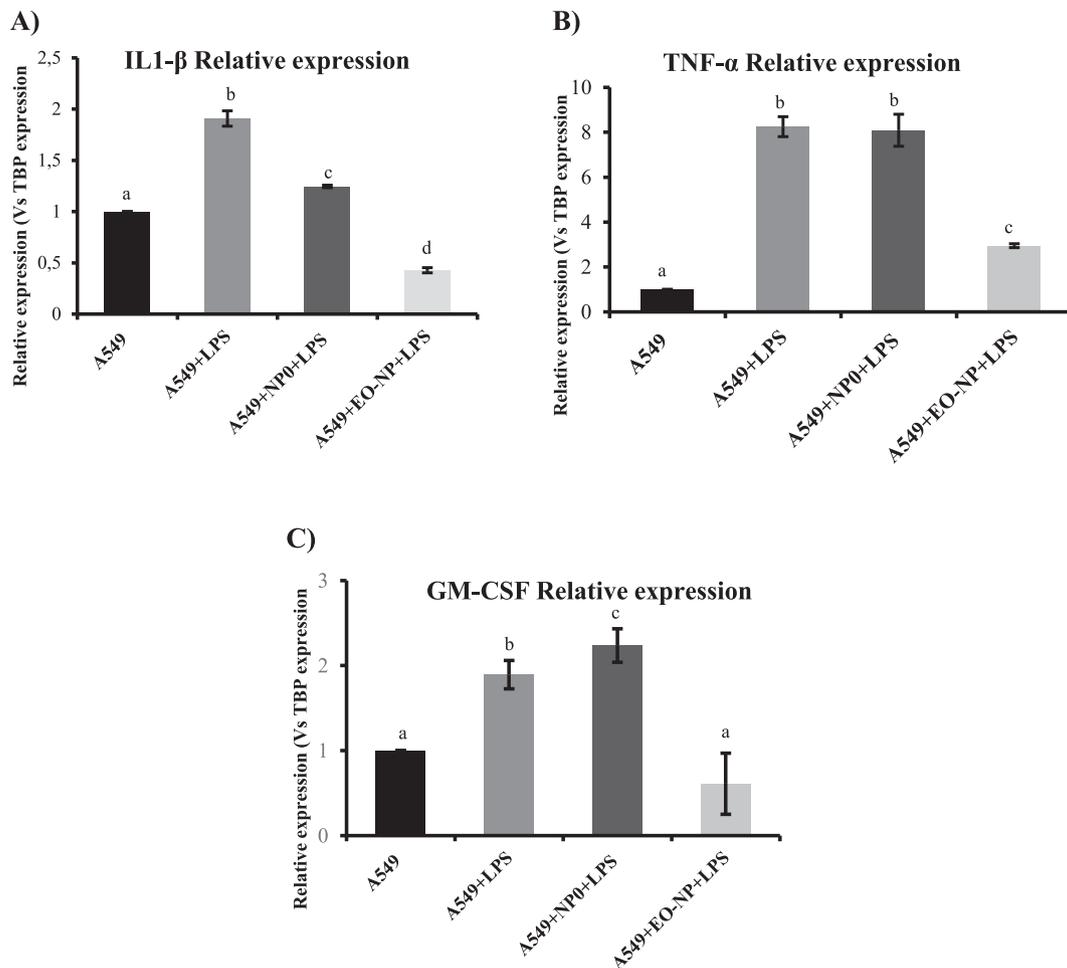


Fig. 7. RNA expression of LPS-induced IL-1β (A), TNF-α (B) and GM-CSF (C) after A549 treatment with free PMMA-based NP and SL-EO loaded PMMA-based NP 25 µg/mL. Measurements from independent wells and reproducible, represented as mean ± SD. Different letters indicate significant difference (p-value < 0.05).

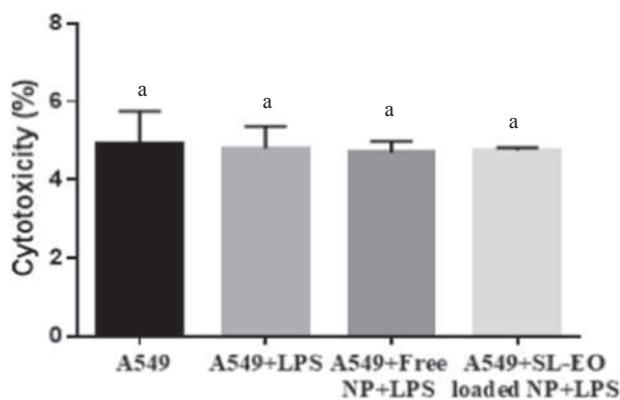


Fig. 8. Cytotoxic effect of *Saussurea lappa* EO in its free and encapsulated form (25 µg/mL) upon LPS stimulation. Different letters indicate significant difference (p-value < 0.05).

formulations (Fig. 8).

Furthermore, a gelatin zymography was performed to assess the level of MMP in the medium released from all the treated A549 cells and the results are reported in Fig. 9. In this study, we focused on MMP-9. MMP-9 is implicated in the degradation of gelatin and collagen type IV, major components of the basement membrane and extracellular matrix (Kim et al., 2012). It is also of particular interest for inflammation because of its role in neutrophil infiltration and cytokine cleavage (Bradley et al.,

2012; Sorokin, 2010). Our data show that LPS stimulates MMP-9 enzyme production, while a reduction was noticed after SL-EO loaded-NP treatment (Fig. 9). This results was in accordance with previous work studies where both costunolide (He et al., 2019) and dihydrocostus lactone (Kim et al., 2012) exhibited remarkable inhibition of MMP-9. Altogether, our data demonstrate that SL-EO possesses anti-inflammatory properties.

3.6. In vitro anticholinesterase activity

Alzheimer's disease is among the major global public health priority and recently its prevalence has been increasing at an alarming rate. It is a chronic neurodegenerative disorder of the brain characterized by progressive decline of activities of daily living, behavior, and cognition. Alzheimer's disease is secondary to deficits in central cholinergic neurotransmission resulting from a loss of the neurotransmitter (acetylcholine) (Grossberg, 2003; Znati et al., 2020). Cholinesterase inhibitors seem to be a promising strategy to manage Alzheimer's disease by inhibiting the enzymes that degrade acetylcholine (i.e. acetylcholinesterase and butyrylcholinesterase), thereby increasing the availability of acetylcholine to stimulate the receptors within the brain (Lane et al., 2005; Mesulam et al., 2002). In this study, we addressed for the first time the anticholinesterase activity of free SL-EO, unloaded-NP and SL-EO loaded-NP and compared it to that of the standard drug: Galantamine. The results are illustrated in Fig. 10.

All the tested samples inhibited acetylcholinesterase and butyrylcholinesterase activities *in vitro* in a dose dependent manner.

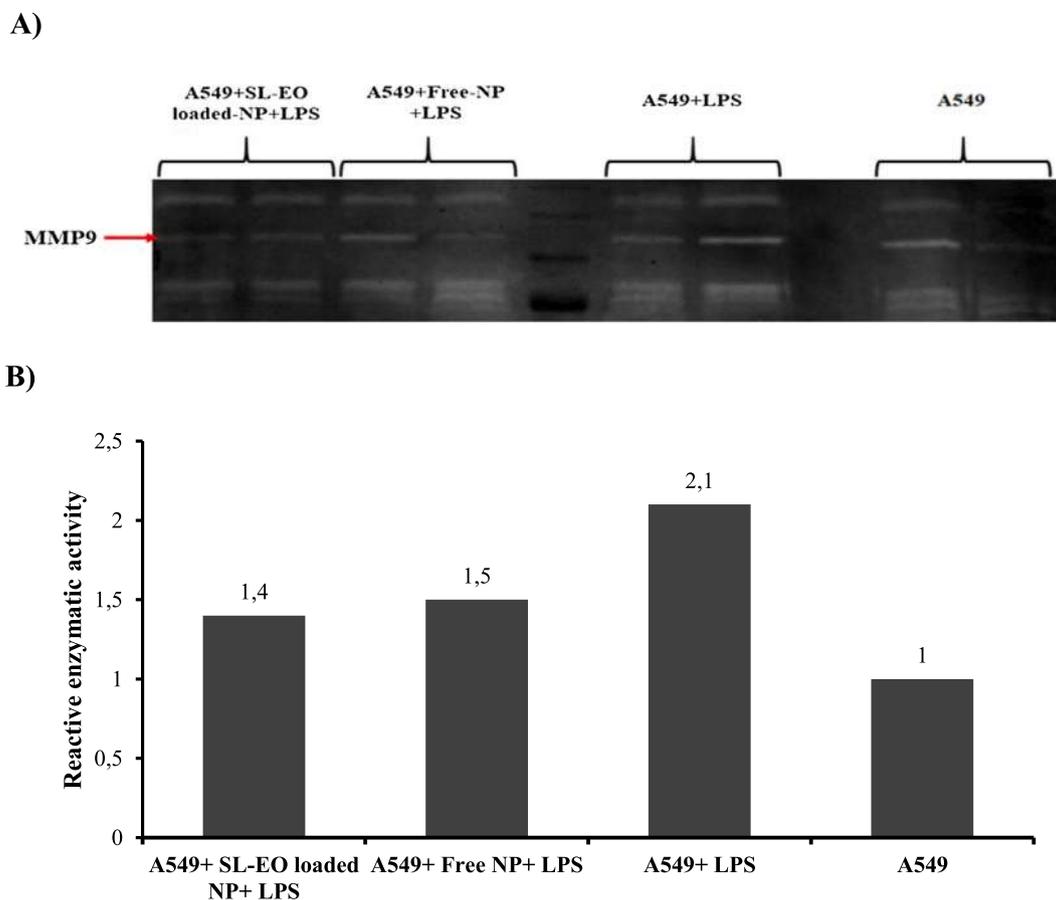


Fig. 9. Gelatin zymography for MMP9 (A) and densitometry (B) after A549 treatment with free PMMA-based NP and SL-EO loaded PMMA-based NP 25 $\mu\text{g/mL}$.

Regarding butyrylcholinesterase, SL-EO loaded-NP showed an inhibition better than the standard drug: Galantamine. At the highest concentration (200 $\mu\text{g/mL}$), the ranked order of inhibition was as follow: SL-EO loaded-NP (101.6%) > un-encapsulated SL-EO (93.2%) > galantamine (78.9%), while with respect to acetylcholinesterase, the inhibition order at the highest concentration was as follow: galantamine (94.8%) > SL-EO loaded-NP (90.6%) > un-encapsulated SL-EO (72.6%). When comparing the inhibition of the unloaded-PMMA-NP (free-NP) with that of SL-EO loaded-NP against both enzymes, our data suggests that SL-EO exhibits an anti-Alzheimer property. This result was in agreement with a report by Ponnusankar et al. (2014) when they tested the *in vitro* acetyl- and butyrylcholinesterase inhibition of the methanolic extract of costus roots. Literature survey revealed also that sesquiterpene lactones have been previously reported as cholinesterase inhibitors (Hajimehdipoor et al., 2014; Hegazy et al., 2015; Ibrahim et al., 2013). Li et al. reported that the biological effect of costunolide and dehydrocostus lactone which are the main constituents of the SL-EO, is related to their α -methylene- γ -butyrolactone skeleton. For instance, the double bond of α -methylene- γ -butyrolactone produces an electrophilic entity capable of engaging in Michael-type reactions with nucleophilic groups of some essential groups of the active sites in the human body like amino acids or peptides (L-cysteine, glutathione) and enzymes containing sulfhydryl groups (Fig. 11) (Li et al., 2020; Padilla-Gonzalez et al., 2016). It was reported that the presence of free sulfhydryl groups in human cholinesterase enzymes molecules induced an irreversible inhibition in the micromolar range (Frasco et al., 2007). In the present study, the *in vitro* anti-Alzheimer activity was performed on horse serum-derived butyrylcholinesterase and *Electrophorus electricus*-derived acetylcholinesterase. The horse serum-derived butyrylcholinesterase showed 90.1% similarity with the human serum butyrylcholinesterase (Moorad et al., 1999), so it could be assumed that

it contains sulfhydryl groups capable to react with the α -methylene- γ -butyrolactone of costunolide and dehydrocostus lactone. In support of this assumption, the high inhibitory effect of SL-EO against butyrylcholinesterase; the IC₅₀ values were 17.4 ± 1.1 and 34.7 ± 2.0 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ for un-encapsulated SL-EO and the standard drug, respectively, as illustrated in Table 3.

With respect to acetylcholinesterase, it was reported that free sulfhydryl groups were absent in *Electrophorus electricus* acetylcholinesterase and the enzyme inhibition occurred in the millimolar range (Frasco et al., 2007). This explained the high IC₅₀ value of SL-EO (67.4 ± 3.7 $\mu\text{g/mL}$) when compared to that against butyrylcholinesterase (IC₅₀ = 17.4 ± 1.1 $\mu\text{g/mL}$) or to that of standard drug (IC₅₀ = 6.3 ± 1.2 $\mu\text{g/mL}$).

Fig. 10 shows also that SL-EO in its encapsulated form showed better anti-cholinesterase activity than the un-encapsulated oil. A decrease in IC₅₀ values was noticed for both enzymes, as depicted in Table 3. The IC₅₀ values were 25.0 ± 2.0 and 67.4 ± 3.7 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ against acetylcholinesterase; and 14.9 ± 1.9 and 17.4 ± 1.1 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ against butyrylcholinesterase for SL-EO loaded-NP and un-encapsulated SL-EO, respectively. This was in accordance with previous reports where they asserted an enhancement in the biological activity upon EO encapsulation (Froio et al., 2019)

It was reported earlier that the methanolic extract of the roots of SL inhibited acetyl- and butyrylcholinesterase with an IC₅₀ equal to 58.68 ± 0.86 and 94.46 ± 0.5 $\mu\text{g/mL}$, respectively (Ponnusankar et al., 2014). These values were higher than those obtained in the present study. Thus, the developed NP may represent a promising formulation system for enhancing inhibition of Alzheimer-associated enzymes and potentially disease management. Of note, in addition to its lowest IC₅₀ for both enzymes inhibition, the EO investigated in this study was extracted by a green process that provides credence to health claims and for quality

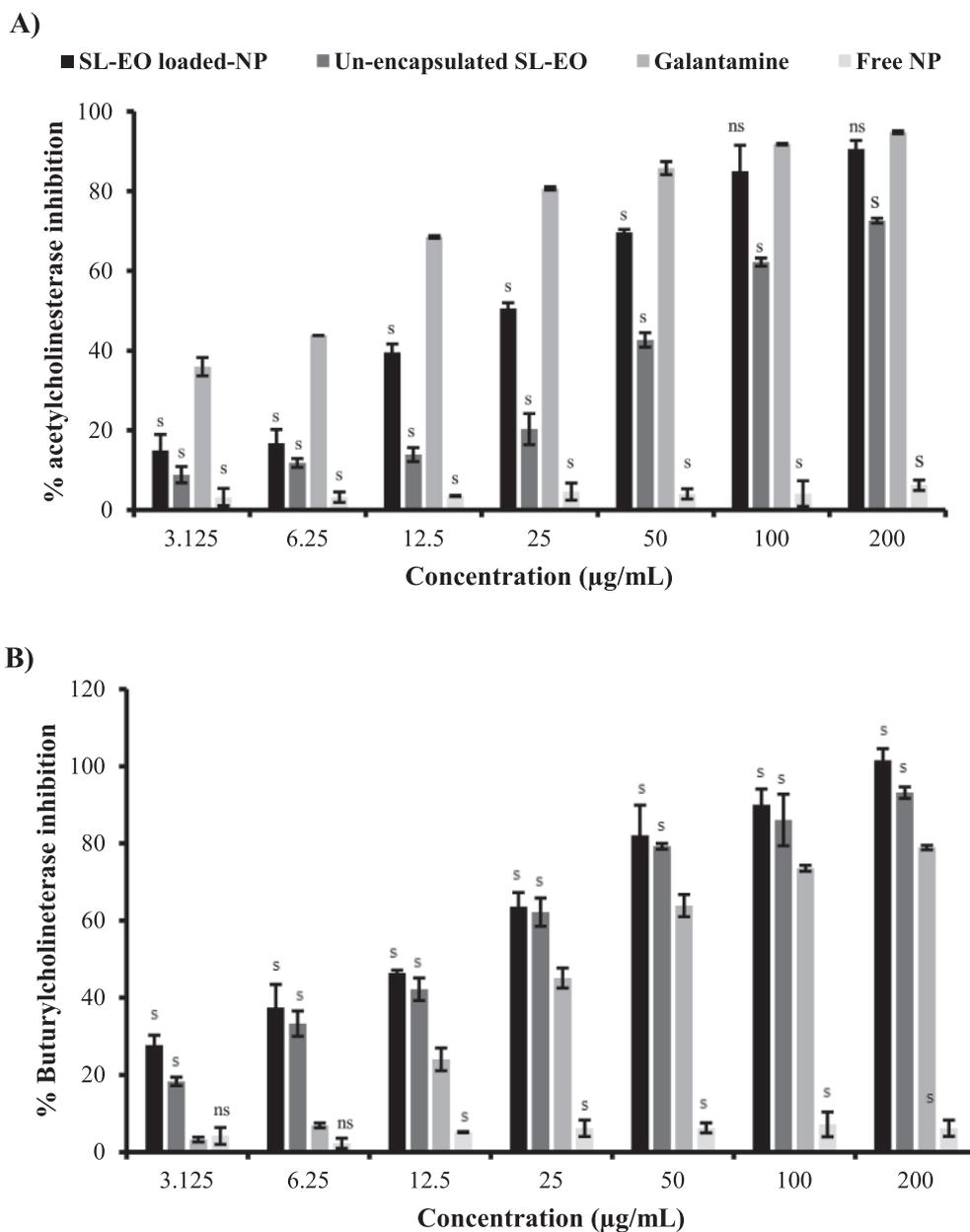


Fig. 10. Acetylcholinesterase inhibition (A) and Butyrylcholinesterase inhibition (B) of unencapsulated SL-EO, free PMMA-based NP, SL-EO loaded PMMA-based NP and galantamine. Measurements from separate tests were combined (n = 3) and represented as mean ± SD; s: significantly different from the standard; ns: not significantly different from the standard.

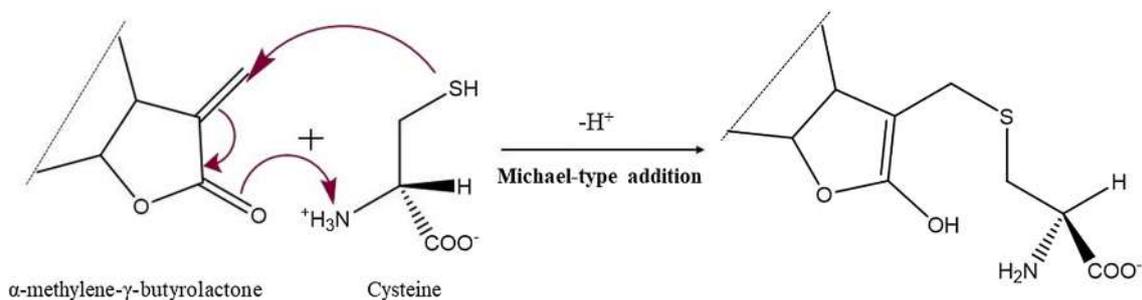


Table 3

IC50 of α -amylase, α -glucosidase, acetylcholinesterase and butyrylcholinesterase for unencapsulated SL-EO, SL-EO loaded PMMA-based NP and the reference compounds: Acarbose and Galantamine.

Sample	IC50 ($\mu\text{g/mL}$)			
	α -amylase	α -glucosidase	AChE	BChE
SL-EO	65.9 \pm 1.7*	42.1 \pm 3.0*	67.4 \pm 3.7*	17.4 \pm 1.1*
SL-EO loaded-NP	22.9 \pm 0.3*	75.8 \pm 4.4*	25.0 \pm 2.0*	14.9 \pm 1.9*
Acarbose	365.3 \pm 10.7	271.7 \pm 7.1	–	–
Galantamine	–	–	6.3 \pm 1.2	34.7 \pm 2.0

IC50, is the concentration of samples required for 50% inhibition.

Each value is expressed as mean \pm SD.

* Value is significantly different from the positive control, acarbose or galantamine ($p < 0.005$). AChE, Acetylcholinesterase; BChE, Butyrylcholinesterase.

assurance.

3.7. *In vitro* α -amylase and α -glucosidase activity

Diabetes mellitus, a metabolic disorder characterized by hyperglycemia over a prolonged period of time, has emerged as an important cause of mortality and morbidity on a global scale. It is caused by either deficiency or impairment in the effectiveness of pancreatic insulin (Kharroubi and Darwish, 2015). One of the greatest challenges in diabetes management is the effective and consistent control of postprandial hyperglycemia. The healthy diet of diabetic people is an area of much

debate. Currently, most experts agree that the total carbohydrate intake is a relatively reliable factor in predicting postprandial blood glucose (Sheard et al., 2004). The inhibition of α -amylase and α -glucosidase, enzymes involved in the digestion of carbohydrates, can significantly reduce the postprandial hyperglycemia (Agarwal and Gupta, 2016; Naquvi et al., 2011). In fact, α -amylase breaks down long chain carbohydrates; while α -glucosidase converts starch and disaccharides into simple sugar (glucose) (Nair et al., 2013). Therefore, the inhibition of these two enzymes seems to be an important strategy in the management of diabetes mellitus. In this context, the study of the antidiabetic effect of free SL-EO, unloaded-NP and SL-EO loaded-NP through inhibition of α -amylase and α -glucosidase was investigated, for the first time, *in vitro* and compared to that of standard drug: Acarbose. The results are shown in Fig. 12.

All the samples inhibited α -amylase and α -glucosidase activities *in vitro* in a dose dependent manner. Fig. 12 shows that SL-EO exhibited inhibitory effect since the unloaded-PMMA-NP (free-NP) did not show any enzyme inhibition. This result confirms the fact that costus species may reduce the blood glucose level. Raafat et al. reported that costus infrared extract has shown superiority in controlling gestational diabetes for pregnant groups with high safety profile on the offspring (Raafat et al., 2019). Fig. 12 reflects also that SL-EO showed better inhibition than the standard drug: acarbose against α -amylase and α -glucosidase. The IC50 values were 65.9 \pm 1.7 and 365.3 \pm 10.7 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ against α -amylase; and 42.1 \pm 3.0 and 271.7 \pm 7.1 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ against α -glucosidase for, un-encapsulated SL-EO and acarbose, respectively

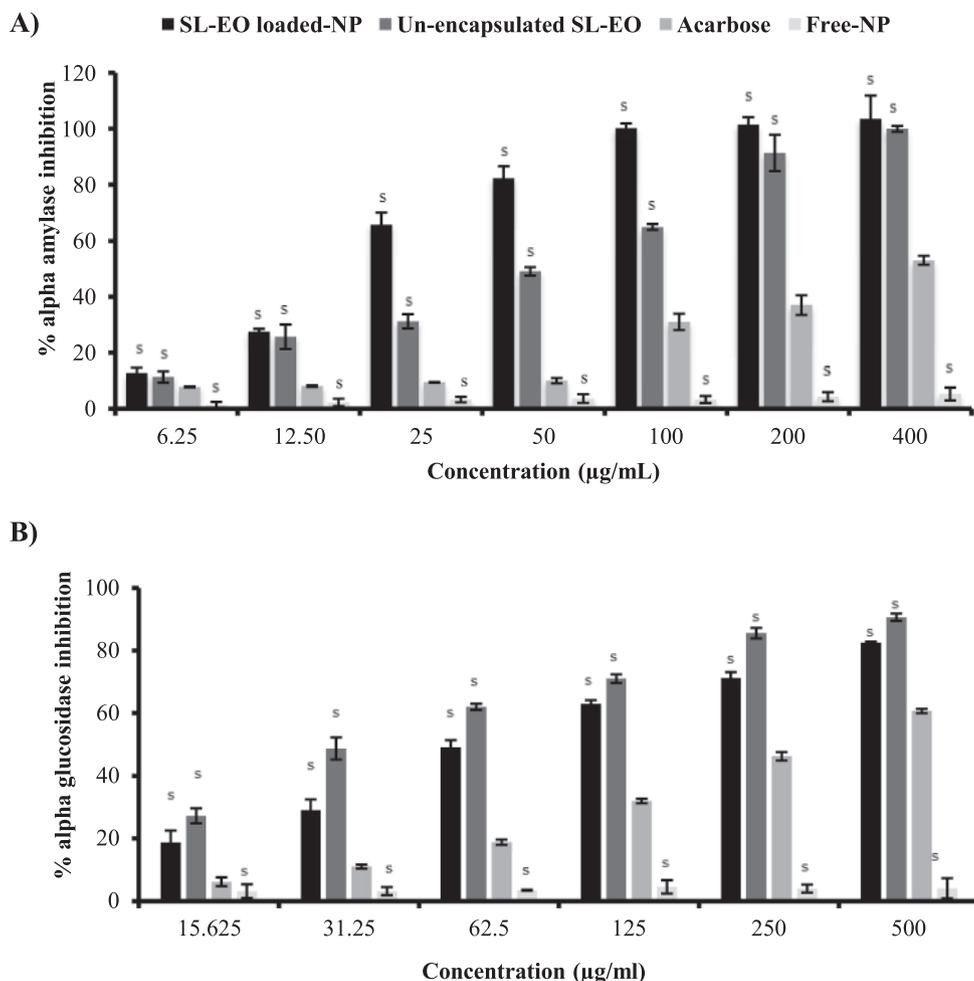


Fig. 12. α -Amylase inhibition (A) and α -glucosidase inhibition (B) of unencapsulated SL-EO, free PMMA-based NP, SL-EO loaded PMMA-based NP and acarbose. Measurements from separate tests were combined ($n = 3$) and represented as mean \pm SD; s: significantly different from the standard; ns: not significantly different from the standard.

(Table 3). According to the literature, the antidiabetic effect of costus oil may be related to the presence of costunolide. Eliza et al. suggested that costunolide could effectively manage the glycemic control (Eliza et al., 2009). It was found that plasma glucose was significantly ($p < 0.05$) reduced in a dose-dependent manner upon costunolide administration to streptozotocin-induced diabetic rats when compared to the control. Additionally, the oral administration of costunolide (20 mg/kg bw) significantly decreased glycosylated hemoglobin (HbA1c) and increased plasma insulin and tissue glycogen (Eliza et al., 2009). In a subsequent study, the increased sensitivity of insulin to uptake glucose by costunolide was ascribed to the stimulation of the beta islets to secrete insulin (Li et al., 2004). Regarding the chemical structure of diabetes controlling key enzymes, almost all α -glucosidases are reported to be highly inhibited by sulfhydryl-binding reagents (El-Shora et al., 2009; Faridmoayer and Scaman, 2005). This may explain the potent inhibitory activity of SL-EO against this enzyme. Alpha-amylases were also reported to possess sulfhydryl groups, but the inhibitory effect of SL-EO was not similar to that against α -glucosidase. It was noticed in an ancient work study that sulfhydryl groups were not absolutely required in α -amylase inhibition reaction since their complete oxidation coincided with 80% inactivation of the enzyme (Schramm, 1964). Padilla-Gonzalez et al. reported that the therapeutic effect of sesquiterpenes lactone did not restrict to the lactone moiety, although other structural moieties like epoxy, peroxy or aldehyde groups should not be ruled out (Padilla-Gonzalez et al., 2016).

In respect to α -amylase, SL-EO in its encapsulated form exhibited better inhibition when compared to the un-encapsulated form. IC50 values were 65.9 ± 1.7 and 22.9 ± 0.3 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ for un-encapsulated SL-EO and SL-EO loaded-NP, respectively (Table 3). Similar results were reported earlier. *Psoralea corylifolia* extract loaded-NP exhibited better antidiabetic effect as compared to the free form (Shanker et al., 2017). Kavitha and coworkers (2017) related the enhancement in the antidiabetic activity of *Nilgiranthus ciliatus* NP to the encapsulation of the plant extract. On the other hand, unexpected results were shown with respect to α -glucosidase where SL-EO loaded-NP exhibited lower inhibition activity than the un-encapsulated form. The IC50 values were 42.1 ± 3.0 and 75.8 ± 4.4 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ for un-encapsulated SL-EO and SL-EO loaded-NP, respectively (Table 3). This could be related to the fact that the oil needed more time to be released from PMMA-NP. In overall, SL-EO may be used as alternative for conditional oral hypoglycemic drugs in diabetes 2 managements known for their adverse effects like diarrhea, gastrointestinal discomfort, nausea, flatulence, cramping and weight gain (Fujisawa et al., 2005).

4. Conclusion

Inched the present study confirmed the important medicinal potential of *Saussurea lappa* CB. Clarke, known as costus, particularly with the extraction of its essential oil by means of supercritical fluid extraction, an innovative, a clean, and an environmentally friendly technique. Beneficial properties due to the anti-inflammatory, anti-Alzheimer and antidiabetic potentials of the extracted essential oil with dehydrocostus lactone (55.39%) and costunolide (8.87%) as the major constituents, are reinforced by its encapsulation in PMMA based-NP of sizes order of 145 nm, a high ζ -potential value of + 45 mV and a good stability upon one-month storage at different temperatures and pH. The *in vitro* cytotoxicity studies were performed on A549 cell lines and the loaded nanoparticles at 25 $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$ did not exhibit any cytotoxic effect and significant alterations on cells cytoplasm and nuclei were observed microscopically at higher essential oil concentration (≥ 50 $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$). The obtained results did also confirm the better efficiency of the designed nanoparticles in the treatment of diabetes type 2 than that of acarbose. The IC50 were equal to 22.9 and 75.8 $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$ against α -amylase and α -glucosidase, respectively. A high anti-Alzheimer's effect was noticed also with IC50 values around 25.0 and 14.9 $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$ against acetylcholinesterase and butyrylcholinesterase, respectively. The qRT-PCR and gelatin zymography

experiments demonstrated a significant diminution of inflammatory cytokines gene expression (TNF- α , GM-CSF and IL1 β) and matrix metalloprotease-9 activity in LPS-induced inflammatory A549 cell line. Moreover, evidence that α -amylase, α -glucosidase, acetyl- and butyrylcholinesterase inhibitory activities might be related to the α -methylene- γ -butyrolactone moiety of dehydrocostus lactone and costunolide of the studied essential oil was shown. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first report of the *in vitro* α -amylase, α -glucosidase and anticholinesterase inhibitory effects of *Saussurea lappa* essential oil loaded nanoparticles along with their anti-inflammatory activity. Based on the reported enzymes inhibition activities and biologically metalloproteases and decreased expression of inflammatory cytokines, *Saussurea lappa* essential oil loaded nanoparticles could pave the way to the development of new bioactive formulations or dietary supplements for potential management of Alzheimer, diabetes or inflammatory diseases without or with adverse effects by comparison to those generally produced by conventional synthetic drugs. Further investigations are warranted including *in vivo* studies (e.g., preclinical), pharmacokinetic properties, bioavailability and the underlying associated metabolic pathways before any firm conclusion can be drawn on the efficacy of *Saussurea lappa* essential oil on the pharmacological activities reported in this study.

Funding

This research did not receive any specific grant from funding agencies in the public, commercial, or not-for-profit sectors.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

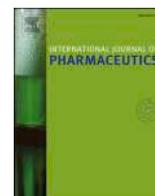
References

- Aanouz, I., Belhassan, A., El-Khatibi, K., Lakhlifi, T., El-Idrissi, M., Bouachrine, M., 2020. Moroccan medicinal plants as inhibitors against SARS-CoV-2 main protease: Computational investigations. *J. Biomol. Struct. Dyn.* 1–9 <https://doi.org/10.1080/07391102.2020.1758790>.
- Abdelwahab, S.L., Taha, M.M.E., Alhazmi, H.A., Ahsan, W., Rehman, Z., Bratty, M. Al, Makeen, H., 2019. Phytochemical profiling of Costus (*Saussurea lappa* Clarke) root essential oil, and its antimicrobial and toxicological effects. *Trop. J. Pharm. Res.* 18, 2155–2160. <https://doi.org/10.4314/tjpr.v18i10.22>.
- Agarwal, P., Gupta, R., 2016. Alpha-amylase inhibition can treat diabetes mellitus. *Res. Rev. J. Med. Heal. Sci.* 5, 1–8.
- Ansari, S., Siddiqui, M.A., Maaz, M., 2018. Hepatocurative effect of *Saussurea lappa* C.B Clarke and artemisia absinthium, linn in chronic hepatitis B. *J. Young Pharm.* 10, 354–357. <https://doi.org/10.5530/jyp.2018.10.78>.
- Aslantürk, Ö.S., 2017. *In Vitro* cytotoxicity and cell viability assays: Principles, advantages, and disadvantages. In: Larramendy, M.L., Soloneski, S. (Eds.), *Genotoxicity - A Predictable Risk to Our Actual World*. IntechOpen, Madrid, pp. 1–18.
- Asokkumar, S., Naveenkumar, C., Raghunandhakumar, S., Kamaraj, S., Anandakumar, P., Jagan, S., Devaki, T., 2012. Antiproliferative and antioxidant potential of beta-ionone against benzo(a)pyrene-induced lung carcinogenesis in Swiss albino mice. *Mol. Cell. Biochem.* 363, 335–345.
- Atanasov, A.G., Waltenerberger, B., Pferschy-Wenzig, E.M., Linder, T., Wawrosch, C., Uhrin, P., Temml, V., Wang, L., Heiss, S.S.H., Rollinger, J.M., Schuster, D., Breuss, J. M., Bochkov, V., Mihovilovic, M.D., Kopp, B., Bauer, R., Dirsch, V.M., Stuppner, H., 2015. Discovery and resupply of pharmacologically active plant-derived natural products: A review. *Biotechnol. Adv.* 33, 1582–1614.
- Azeez, L., Lateef, A., Ayoade, L., Joshua, T., Rasheed, O., Mustapha, Z., 2020. Adsorption behaviour of rhodamine B on hen feather and corn starch functionalized with green synthesized silver nanoparticles (AgNPs) mediated with cocoa pods extracts. *Chem. Africa* 3, 237–250.
- Barhoum, A., García-Betancourt, M.L., Rahier, H., Assche, G. Van, 2018. Physicochemical characterization of nanomaterials: polymorph, composition, wettability, and thermal stability. In: Barhoum, A., Makhlof, A.S.H. (Eds.), *Emerging Applications of Nanoparticles and Architecture Nanostructures*. Elsevier Science Publishing Co Inc., New-York, pp. 255–278.
- Bilia, A.R., Guccione, C., Isacchi, B., Righeschi, C., Firenzuoli, F., Bergonzi, M.C., 2014. Essential oils loaded in nanosystems: A developing strategy for a successful therapeutic approach. *Evidence-Based Complement. Altern. Med.* 2014, 1–14.

- Boddhi, S., Killingsworth, C.E., Kippe, M.J., 2008. Polyelectrolyte multilayer assembly as a function of pH and ionic strength using the polysaccharides chitosan and heparin. *Biomacromolecules* 9, 2021–2028.
- Bradley, L.M., Douglass, M.F., Chatterjee, D., Akira, S., Baaten, B.J.G., 2012. Matrix metalloproteinase 9 mediates neutrophil migration into the airways in response to influenza virus-induced toll-like receptor signaling. *PLoS Pathog.* 8, e1002641 <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.ppat.1002641>.
- Calixto, J.B., 2019. The role of natural products in modern drug discovery. *An. Acad. Bras. Cienc.* 91, 3. <https://doi.org/0001-3765201920190105>.
- Carterson, A.J., Bentrup, K.H. zu, Ott, M., Clarke, M.S., Pierson, D.L., Vanderburg, C.R., Buchanan, K.L., Nickerson, C.A., Schurr, M.J., 2005. A549 lung epithelial cells grown as three-dimensional aggregates: Alternative tissue culture model for *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* pathogenesis. *Infect. Immun.* 73, 1129–1140.
- Chang, H.S., Lee, S.J., Yang, C.W., Chen, I.S., 2010. Cytotoxic sesquiterpenes from *Magnolia kachirachirai*. *Chem. Biodivers.* 7, 2737–2747. <https://doi.org/10.1002/cbdv.200900418>.
- Chavan, M.J., Wakte, P.S., Shinde, D.B., 2010. Analgesic and anti-inflammatory activity of Caryophyllene oxide from *Annona squamosa* L. bark. *Phytomedicine* 17, 149–151. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.phymed.2009.05.016>.
- Chen, F., Tan, X., Tang, Q., Xing, X., 2011. GC-MS analysis of volatile oil from *Aucklandia lappa* from different producing areas. *China Pharm.* 22, 2187–2189.
- Cheon, Y.H., Song, M.J., Kim, J.Y., Kwak, S.C., Park, J.H., Lee, C.H., Kim, J.J., Choi, M. K., Oh, J., Kim, Y.C., Yoon, K.H., Kwak, H.B., Lee, M.S., 2014. Costunolide inhibits osteoclast differentiation by suppressing c-Fos transcriptional activity. *Phyther. Res.* 28, 586–592. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ptr.5034>.
- Chifiriuc, M.C., Kamerzan, C., Lazar, V., 2017. Essential oils and nanoparticles: New strategy to prevent microbial biofilms. In: Fica, A., Grumezescu, A.M. (Eds.), *Nanostructures for Antimicrobial Therapy*, first ed. Elsevier Science Publishing Co Inc., New-York, pp. 279–291.
- Choodej, S., Pudhom, K., Mitsunaga, T., 2018. Inhibition of TNF- α -induced inflammation by sesquiterpene lactones from *Saussurea lappa* and semi-synthetic analogues. *Planta Med.* 84, 329–335. <https://doi.org/10.1055/s-0043-120115>.
- Contri, R.V., Ribeiro, K.L.F., Fiel, L.A., Pohlmann, A.R., Guterres, S.S., 2013. Vegetable oils as core of cationic polymeric nanocapsules: Influence on the physicochemical properties. *J. Exp. Nanosci.* 8, 913–924. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17458080.2011.620019>.
- Contri, R.V., Kulkamp-guerreiro, I.C., Janine, S., Frank, L.A., Pohlmann, A.R., Guterres, S.S., 2016. Nanoencapsulation of Rose-Hip oil prevents oil oxidation and allows obtainment of gel and film topical formulations. *AAPS PharmSciTech* 17, 863–871. <https://doi.org/10.1208/s12249-015-0379-9>.
- David, B., Wolfender, J.-L., Dias, D.A., 2015. The pharmaceutical industry and natural products: historical status and new trends. *Phytochem. Rev.* 14, 299–315.
- Dhar, A., Maurya, S., Mishra, A., Singh, G., Singh, M., Seth, A., 2016. Preliminary screening of a classical Ayurvedic formulation for anticonvulsant activity. *Anc. Sci. Life* 36, 28. <https://doi.org/10.4103/0257-7941.195410>.
- Dillen, K., Bridts, G., Veken, P. Van der, Cos, P., Vandervoort, J., Augustyns, K., Stevens, W., Ludwig, A., 2008. Adhesion of PLGA or Eudragit®/PLGA nanoparticles to *Staphylococcus* and *Pseudomonas*. *Int. J. Pharm.* 349, 234–240.
- Du, J., Sun, R., Zhang, S., Govender, T., Zhang, L., Xiong, C., Peng, Y., 2004. Novel polyelectrolyte carboxymethyl konjac glucomannan–chitosan nanoparticles for drug delivery. *Macromol. rapid communication* 25, 954–958. <https://doi.org/10.1002/marc.200300314>.
- Eidi, J., Joubert, O., Attik, G., Duval, R., Bottin, M., Hamouia, A., Maincent, P., Rihh, B., 2010. Cytotoxicity assessment of heparin nanoparticles in NR8383 macrophages. *Int. J. Pharm.* 396, 156–165.
- El-Asbahani, A., Miladi, K., Addi, H., Bitar, A., Casabianca, H., Abdelhamid, E.M., Hartmann, D., Jilale, A., Renaud, F., Elaissari, A., 2015. Antimicrobial activity of nano-encapsulated essential oils: comparison to non-encapsulated essential oils. *J. Colloid Sci. Biotechnol.* 4, 39–48.
- El-Shora, H.M., Metwally, M.A., Khlaf, S.A., 2009. Essential groups and stability of α -glucosidase of *Penicillium notatum*. *Ann. Microbiol.* 59, 285–291.
- Eliza, J., Daisy, P., Ignacimuthu, S., Durairampanian, V., 2009. Normo-glycemic and hypolipidemic effect of costunolide isolated from *Costus speciosus* (Koen ex. Retz.) Sm. in streptozotocin-induced diabetic rats. *Chem. Biol. Interact.* 179, 329–334. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cbi.2008.10.017>.
- Ellman, G., Courtney, K., Andres, V., Featherston, R., 1961. A new and rapid colorimetric determination of acetylcholinesterase activity. *Biochem. Pharmacol.* 7, 88–95.
- Faridmoayer, A., Scaman, C.H., 2005. Binding residues and catalytic domain of soluble *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* processing alpha-glucosidase I. *Glycobiology* 15, 1341–1348. <https://doi.org/10.1093/glycob/cwj009>.
- Fessi, H., Puiusieux, F., Devissaguet, J.P., Ammoury, N., Benita, S., 1989. Nanocapsule formation by interfacial polymer deposition following solvent displacement. *Int. J. Pharm.* 55, R1–R4.
- Frasco, M.F., Colletier, J.P., Weik, M., Carvalho, F., Guilhermino, L., Stojan, J., Fournier, D., 2007. Mechanisms of cholinesterase inhibition by inorganic mercury. *FEBS J.* 274, 1849–1861. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1742-4658.2007.05732.x>.
- Froio, F., Ginot, L., Paolino, D., Lebaz, N., Bentafer, A., Fessi, H., Elaissari, A., 2019. Essential oils-loaded polymer particles: Preparation, characterization and antimicrobial property. *Polymers (Basel)*. 11, 1017. <https://doi.org/10.3390/polym11061017>.
- Fujisawa, T., Ikegami, H., Inoue, K., Kawabata, Y., Oghihara, T., 2005. Effect of two α -glucosidase inhibitors, voglibose and acarbose, on postprandial hyperglycemia correlates with subjective abdominal symptoms. *Metabolism* 54, 387–390. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.metabol.2004.10.004>.
- Gargouri, M., Sapin, A., Bouli, S., Becuwe, P., Merlin, J., Maincent, P., 2009. Optimization of a new non-viral vector for transfection: Eudragit nanoparticles for the delivery of a DNA plasmid. *Technol. Cancer Res. Treat.* 8, 433–444.
- Gautam, H., Asrani, R.K., 2018. Phytochemical and pharmacological review of an ethno medicinal plant : *Saussurea Lappa*. *Vet. Res. Int.* 6, 1–9.
- Giaetta, M., Bianchin, M.D., Kanis, L.A., Contri, R.V., Küllkamp-Guerreiro, I.C., 2019. Development of innovative polymer-based matricular nanostructures for Ritonavir oral administration. *J. Nanomater.* 2019, 1–10. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2019/8619819>.
- Grossberg, G.T., 2003. Cholinesterase inhibitors for the treatment of Alzheimer's disease. *Curr. Ther. Res.* 64, 216–235. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0011-393X\(03\)00059-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0011-393X(03)00059-6).
- Hajimehdipoor, H., Mossadegh, M., Naghibi, F., Haeri, A., Hamzeloo-Moghadam, M., 2014. Natural sesquiterpene lactones as acetylcholinesterase inhibitors. *An. Acad. Bras. Cienc.* 86, 801–806. <https://doi.org/10.1590/0001-3765201420130005>.
- Hani, U., Sudeendra, R., Shivakumar, H.G., 2011. Formulation design and evaluation of Metronidazole microspheres in a bioadhesive gel for local therapy of vaginal candidiasis. *Lat. Am. J. Pharm.* 30, 161–167.
- He, Y., Moqbel, S., Xu, L., Ran, J., Ma, C., Xu, K., Bao, J., Jiang, L., Chen, W., Xiong, Y., Wu, L., 2019. Costunolide inhibits matrix metalloproteinases expression and osteoarthritis via the NF- κ B and Wnt/ β -catenin signaling pathways. *Mol. Med. Rep.* 20, 312–322. <https://doi.org/10.3892/mmr.2019.10239>.
- Hegazy, M.-E., Ibrahim, A., Mohamed, T., Shahat, A., El Halawany, A., Abdel-Azim, N., Alsaid, M., Paré, P., 2015. Sesquiterpene lactones from *Cynara cornigera*: Acetyl cholinesterase inhibition and in silico ligand docking. *Planta Med.* 82, 138–146. <https://doi.org/10.1055/s-0035-1558088>.
- Herculano, E.D., Paula, H.C.B. De, Dias, F.G.B., Pereira, V.D.A., 2015. Physicochemical and antimicrobial properties of nanoencapsulated *Eucalyptus staigeriana* essential oil. *LWT - Food Sci. Technol.* 61, 484–491. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lwt.2014.12.001>.
- Huh, K.M., Lee, S.C., Cho, Y.W., Lee, J., Jeong, J.H., Park, K., 2005. Hydrotropic polymer micelle system for delivery of paclitaxel. *J. Control. Release* 101, 59–68. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jconrel.2004.07.003>.
- Ibrahim, M., Farooq, T., Hussain, N., Hussain, A., Gulzar, T., Hussain, I., Akash, M.S.H., Rehmani, F.S., 2013. Acetyl and butyryl cholinesterase inhibitory sesquiterpene lactones from *Amberboa ramosa*. *Chem. Cent. J.* 7, 116. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1752-153X-7-116>.
- Jummes, B., Sganzerla, W.G., da Rosa, C.G., Noronha, C.M., Nunes, M.R., Bertoldi, F.C., Barreto, P.L.M., 2020. Antioxidant and antimicrobial poly- ϵ -caprolactone nanoparticles loaded with *Cymbopogon martinii* essential oil. *Biocatal. Agric. Biotechnol.* 23, 101499. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cbab.2020.101499>.
- Kang, J.S., Yoon, Y.D., Lee, K.H., Park, S.K., Kim, H.M., 2004. Costunolide inhibits interleukin-1 β expression by down-regulation of AP-1 and MAPK activity in LPS-stimulated RAW 264.7 cells. *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun.* 313, 171–177. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbrc.2003.11.109>.
- Kany, S., Vollrath, J.T., Relja, B., 2019. Cytokines in inflammatory disease. *Int. J. Mol. Sci.* 20, 6008. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms20236008>.
- Katzer, T., Chaves, P., Bernardi, A., Pohlmann, A., Guterres, S., Beck, R.R., 2014. Prednisolone-loaded nanocapsules as ocular drug delivery system: development, in vitro drug release and eye toxicity. *J. Microencapsul.* 31, 519–528.
- Kaur, L., Singh, A., Kaur, J., 2019. A brief review of remedial uses of *Saussurea lappa*. *J. Pharmacogn. Phytochem.* 8, 4423–4430.
- Kavitha, K., Sujatha, K., Manoharan, S., 2017. Biotherapeutic discovery development, characterization and antidiabetic potentials of *Nilgiranthus ciliatus* nees derived nanoparticles. *J. Nanomed. Biother. Discov.* 7, 152. <https://doi.org/10.4172/2155-983X.1000152>.
- Kharroubi, A.T., Darwish, H.M., 2015. Diabetes mellitus: The epidemic of the century. *World J. Diabetes* 6, 850–867. <https://doi.org/10.4239/wjcd.v6.i6.850>.
- Khurshid, M.F., Hussain, T., Masood, R., Hussain, N., 2016. Development and evaluation of a controlled drug delivery wound dressing based on polymeric porous microspheres. *J. Ind. Text.* 46, 986–999. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1528083715612231>.
- Kim, E.J., Hong, J.E., Lim, S.S., Kwon, G.T., Kim, J., Kim, J.S., Lee, K.W., Park, J.H.Y., 2012. The hexane extract of *Saussurea lappa* and its active principle, dehydrocostus lactone, inhibit prostate cancer cell migration. *J. Med. Food* 15, 24–32. <https://doi.org/10.1089/jmf.2011.1735>.
- Koparde, A., Dojjad, R., Magdum, C., 2019. Natural products in drug discovery. In: Perveen, S., Al-Taweel, A. (Eds.), *Pharmacognosy - Medicinal Plants*. IntechOpen, Madrid, pp. 1–19.
- Lammari, N., Froio, F., Louaer, M., Cristiano, M.C., Bensouici, C., Paolino, D., Louaer, W., Meniai, A.H., Elaissari, A., 2020a. Poly (ethyl acrylate-co-methyl methacrylate-co-trimethylammoniumethyl methacrylate chloride) (Eudragit RS 100) nanocapsules as nanovector carriers for Phoenix dactylifera L. seeds oil: a versatile antidiabetic agent. *Biomacromolecules* <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.biomac.0c00255>.
- Lammari, N., Louaer, O., Meniai, A.H., Elaissari, A., 2020. Encapsulation of essential oils via nanoprecipitation process : Overview, progress, challenges and prospects. *Pharmaceutics* 12, 431.
- Lane, R.M., Potkin, S.G., Enz, A., 2005. Targeting acetylcholinesterase and butyrylcholinesterase in dementia. *Int. J. Neuropsychopharmacol.* 9, 101. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S1461145705005833>.
- Li, Q., Wang, Z., Xie, Y., Hu, H., 2020. Antitumor activity and mechanism of costunolide and dehydrocostus lactone: Two natural sesquiterpene lactones from the Asteraceae family. *Biomed. Pharmacother.* 125, 109955. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biopha.2020.109955>.
- Li, W., Zheng, H., Bukuru, J., De Kimpe, N., 2004. Natural medicines used in the traditional Chinese medical system for therapy of diabetes mellitus. *J. Ethnopharmacol.* 92, 1–21. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jep.2003.12.031>.

- Li, Z., Yuan, G., Lin, X., Liu, Q., Xu, J., Lian, Z., Song, F., Zheng, J., Xie, D., Chen, L., Wang, X., Feng, H., Zhou, M., Yao, G., 2019. Dehydrocostus lactone (DHC) suppresses estrogen deficiency-induced osteoporosis. *Biochem. Pharmacol.* 163, 279–289. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bcp.2019.02.002>.
- Lin, X., Peng, Z., Su, C., 2015. Potential anti-cancer activities and mechanisms of costunolide and dehydrocostuslactone. *Int. J. Mol. Sci.* 16, 10888–10906. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms160510888>.
- Liu, Z.L., He, Q., Chu, S.S., Wang, C.F., Du, S.S., Deng, Z.W., 2012. Essential oil composition and larvicidal activity of *Saussurea lappa* roots against the mosquito *Aedes albopictus* (Diptera: Culicidae). *Parasitol. Res.* 110, 2125–2130. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00436-011-2738-0>.
- Lombardo, D., Kiselev, M.A., Caccamo, M.T., 2019. Smart nanoparticles for drug delivery application: Development of versatile nanocarrier platforms in biotechnology and nanomedicine. *J. Nanomater.* 2019, 1–26.
- Ma, Q., Liang, T., Cao, L., Wang, L., 2018. Intelligent poly (vinyl alcohol)-chitosan nanoparticles-mulberry extracts films capable of monitoring pH variations. *Int. J. Biol. Macromol.* 108, 576–584. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijbiomac.2017.12.049>.
- Ma, X., Williams, R.O., 2018. Polymeric nanomedicines for poorly soluble drugs in oral delivery systems: an update. *J. Pharm. Investig.* 48, 61–75.
- Madhuri, K., Elango, K., Ponnusankar, S., 2012. *Saussurea lappa* (Kuth root): review of its traditional uses, phytochemistry and pharmacology. *Orient. Pharm. Exp. Med.* 12, 1–9.
- Manicone, A., Mcguire, J., 2008. Matrix metalloproteinases as modulators of inflammation. *Semin. Cell Dev. Biol.* 19, 34–41. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.semcdb.2007.07.003>.
- Matteucci, F., Giannantonio, R., Calabi, F., Agostiano, A., Gigli, G., Rossi, M., 2018. Deployment and exploitation of nanotechnology nanomaterials and nanomedicine, in: AIP Conference Proceedings. p. 0200001. <https://doi.org/10.1063/1.5047755>.
- Mesulam, M., Guillozet, A., Shaw, P., Quinn, B., 2002. Widely spread butyrylcholinesterase can hydrolyze acetylcholine in the normal and alzheimer brain. *Neurobiol. Dis.* 9, 88–93. <https://doi.org/10.1006/nbdi.2001.0462>.
- Montero-Villegas, S., Crespo, R., Rodenak-Kladniew, B., Castro, M.A., Galle, M., Ciccio, J. F., De-Bravo, M.G., Polo, M., 2018. Cytotoxic effects of essential oils from four *Lippia alba* chemotypes in human liver and lung cancer cell lines. *J. Essent. Oil Res.* 30, 167–181.
- Moorad, D.R., Luo, C., Saxena, A., Doctor, B.P., Garcia, G.E., 1999. Purification and determination of the amino acid sequence of equine serum butyrylcholinesterase. *Toxicol. Methods* 9, 219–227. <https://doi.org/10.1080/105172399242573>.
- Mughees, M., Wajid, S., Samim, M., 2020. Cytotoxic potential of *Artemisia absinthium* extract loaded polymeric nanoparticles against breast cancer cells: Insight into the protein targets. *Int. J. Pharm.* 586, 119583 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijpharm.2020.119583>.
- Na, B.R., Kim, H.R., Kwon, M.S., Lee, H.S., Piragyte, I., Choi, E.J., Choi, H.K., Han, W.C., Lee, S.H., Jun, C.D., 2013. Aplotaxene blocks T cell activation by modulation of protein kinase C- θ -dependent pathway. *Food Chem. Toxicol.* 62, 23–31. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fct.2013.08.016>.
- Nair, S.S., Kavrekar, V., Mishra, A., 2013. *In vitro* studies on alpha amylase and alpha glucosidase inhibitory activities of selected plant extracts. *Eur. J. Exp. Biol.* 3, 128–132.
- Naquvi, K.J., Ahamad, J., Mir, S.R., Ali, M., Shuaib, M., 2011. Review on role of natural alpha-glucosidase inhibitors for management of diabetes mellitus. *Int. J. Biomed. Res.* 2, 374–380. <https://doi.org/10.7439/ijbr.v2i6.121>.
- Nayal, R., Abajy, M.Y., Melzig, M.F., 2009. Comparison of essential oil composition and cytotoxicity of *Lippia dulcis* Trev. from Mexico and Panama. *Int. J. Essent. Oil Ther.* 3, 91–100.
- Negi, J.S., Bisht, V.K., Bhandari, A.K., Kuniyal, C.P., Bhatt, V.P., Bisht, R., 2014. Chemical fingerprinting and antibacterial activity of *Saussurea lappa* clarke. *Appl. Biochem. Microbiol.* 50, 588–593.
- Nguyen, L.T., Myslivečková, Z., Szoťáková, B., Špičáková, A., Lněničková, K., Ambrož, M., Kubíček, V., Krasulová, K., Anzenbacher, P., Skálková, L., 2017. The inhibitory effects of β -caryophyllene, β -caryophyllene oxide and α -humulene on the activities of the main drug-metabolizing enzymes in rat and human liver *in vitro*. *Chem. Biol. Interact.* 278, 123–128. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cbi.2017.10.021>.
- Padilla-Gonzalez, G.F., dos Santos, F.A., Da Costa, F.B., 2016. Sesquiterpene lactones: More than protective plant compounds with high toxicity. *CRC. Crit. Rev. Plant Sci.* 35, 18–37. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07352689.2016.1145956>.
- Park, E.J., Park, S.W., Kim, H.J., Kwak, J.-H., Lee, D.-U., Chang, K.C., 2014. Dehydrocostuslactone inhibits LPS-induced inflammation by p38MAPK-dependent induction of hemoxygenase-1 *in vitro* and improves survival of mice in CLP-induced sepsis *in vivo*. *Int. Immunopharmacol.* 22, 332–340. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.intimp.2014.07.012>.
- Partheniadis, I., Zarafidou, E., Litinas, K.E., Nikolakakis, I., 2020. Enteric release essential oil prepared by co-spray drying methacrylate/polysaccharides—influence of starch type. *Pharmaceutics* 12, 571. <https://doi.org/10.3390/pharmaceutics12060571>.
- Pattabhiramaiah, M., Rajarathinam, B., Shanthala, M., 2020. Nanoparticles and their application in folkore medicine as promising biotherapeutics. In: Prasad, D., Jeyabalan, T., Ram, S. (Eds.), *Functional Bionanomaterials*. Springer International Publishing, Berlin/Heidelberg, pp. 73–110.
- Peng, Z., Wang, Y., Fan, J., Lin, X., Liu, C., Xu, Y., Ji, W., Yan, C., Su, C., 2017. Costunolide and dehydrocostuslactone combination treatment inhibit breast cancer by inducing cell cycle arrest and apoptosis through c-Myc/p53 and AKT/14-3-3 pathway. *Sci. Rep.* 7, 41254.
- Pina-Barrera, A.M., Alvarez-Roman, R., Baez-Gonzalez, J.G., Amaya-Guerra, C.A., Rivas-Morales, C., Gallardo-Rivera, C.T., Galindo-Rodriguez, S.A., 2019. Application of a multisystem coating based on polymeric nanocapsules containing essential oil of *Thymus vulgaris* L. to increase the shelf life of table grapes (*Vitis vinifera* L.). *IEEE Trans. Nanobioscience* 18, 549–557. <https://doi.org/10.1109/TNB.2019.2941931>.
- Ponnusankar, S., Elango, K., Kadiyala, M., 2014. Screening of siddha medicinal plants for its *in-vitro* acetylcholinesterase and butyrylcholinesterase inhibitory activity. *Pharmacogn. Mag.* 10, 294. <https://doi.org/10.4103/0973-1296.133281>.
- Raafat, K., El-Darra, N., Saleh, F., Rajha, H., Louka, N., 2019. Optimization of infrared-assisted extraction of bioactive lactones from *Saussurea lappa* L. and their effects against gestational diabetes. *Pharmacogn. Mag.* 15, 208–218. <https://doi.org/10.4103/pm.pm.380.18>.
- Rayan, N.A., Baby, N., Pitchai, D., Indraswari, F., Ling, E.A., Lu, J., Dheen, T., 2011. Costunolide inhibits proinflammatory cytokines and iNOS in activated murine BV2 microglia. *Front. Biosci.* 3, 1079–1091. <https://doi.org/10.2741/e312>.
- Riaz, M., Altaf, M., Faisal, A., Shekheli, M.A., Miana, G.A., Khan, M.Q., Shah, M.A., Ilyas, S.Z., Khan, A.A., 2018. Biogenic synthesis of AgNPs with *Saussurea lappa* C.B. Clarke and studies on their biochemical properties. *J. Nanosci. Nanotechnol.* 18, 8392–8398. <https://doi.org/10.1166/jnn.2018.16414>.
- Rosset, V., Ahmed, N., Zaanoun, I., Stella, B., Fessi, H., Elaissari, A., 2012. Elaboration of argan oil nanocapsules containing Naproxen for cosmetic and transdermal local application. *J. Colloid Sci. Biotechnol.* 1, 218–224.
- Sadik, I., Abd Allah, A., Abdulhameed, M., Abdelkader, M., Sayed, N., Nour, A., Algard, A., 2017. Antioxidant activity and *in-vitro* potential inhibition of *Nigella sativa* and *Saussurea lappa* against LDL oxidation among sundance. *E3. J. Med. Res.* 6, 22–26. [https://doi.org/10.18685/ejmr\(6\)3_ejmr-17-013](https://doi.org/10.18685/ejmr(6)3_ejmr-17-013).
- Scarponi, C., Butturini, E., Sestito, R., Madonna, S., Cavani, A., Mariotto, S., Albanesi, C., 2014. Inhibition of inflammatory and proliferative responses of human keratinocytes exposed to the sesquiterpene lactones dehydrocostuslactone and costunolide. *PLoS One* 9, e107904. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0107904>.
- Schramm, M., 1964. Unmasking of sulfhydryl groups in pancreatic α -amylase. *Biochemistry* 3, 1231–1234. <https://doi.org/10.1021/bi00897a008>.
- Seo, C.S., Lim, H.S., Jeong, S.J., Shin, H.K., 2015. Anti-allergic effects of sesquiterpene lactones from the root of *Aucklandia lappa* Decne. *Mol. Med. Rep.* 12, 7789–7795. <https://doi.org/10.3892/mmr.2015.4342>.
- Servat-Medina, L., González-Gómez, A., Reyes-Ortega, F., Sousa, I.M.O., Queiroz, N. de C.A., Zago, P.M.W., Jorge, M.P., Monteiro, K.M., Carvalho, J.E., San Román, J., Foglio, M.A., 2015. Chitosan-tripolyphosphate nanoparticles as *Arrabidaea chica* standardized extract carrier: synthesis, characterization, biocompatibility, and anticarcinogenic activity. *Int. J. Nanomed.* 10, 3897–3909. <https://doi.org/10.2147/IJN.S83705>.
- Shanker, K., Mohan, G.K., Hussain, M.A., Jayarambabu, N., Pravalika, P.L., 2017. Green biosynthesis, characterization, *in vitro* antidiabetic activity, and investigational acute toxicity studies of some herbal-mediated silver nanoparticles on animal models. *Pharmacogn. Mag.* 13, 188–192.
- Sheard, N.F., Clark, N.G., Brand-Miller, J.C., Franz, M.J., Pi-Sunyer, F.X., Mayer-Davis, E., Kulkarni, K., Geil, P., 2004. Dietary carbohydrate (amount and type) in the prevention and management of diabetes: a statement by the american diabetes association. *Diabetes Care* 27, 2266–2271. <https://doi.org/10.2337/diacare.27.9.2266>.
- Shoshani, Y., Pe'er, J., Doviner, V., Frucht-Pery, J., Solomon, A., 2005. Increased expression of inflammatory cytokines and matrix metalloproteinases in pseudophakic corneal edema. *Investig. Ophthalmol. Vis. Sci.* 46, 1940. <https://doi.org/10.1167/iovs.04.1203>.
- Sibokozza, S.B., Moloto, M.J., Mtunzi, F., Moloto, N., 2018. Diphenyldiselenide mediated synthesis of copper selenide nanoparticles and their poly(methyl methacrylate) nanofibers. *Asian J. Chem.* 30, 1455–1459. <https://doi.org/10.14233/ajchem.2018.21166>.
- Singh, R., Chahal, K.K., Singla, N., 2017. Chemical composition and pharmacological activities of *Saussurea lappa*: A review. *J. Pharmacogn. Phytochem.* 6, 1298–1308.
- Sonaje, K., Chen, Y.-J., Chen, H.-L., Wey, S.-P., Juang, J.-H., Nguyen, H.-N., Hsu, C.-W., Lin, K.-J., Sung, H.-W., 2010. Enteric-coated capsules filled with freeze-dried chitosan/poly(γ -glutamic acid) nanoparticles for oral insulin delivery. *Biomaterials* 31, 3384–3394. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biomaterials.2010.01.042>.
- Sorokin, L., 2010. The impact of the extracellular matrix on inflammation. *Nat. Rev. Immunol.* 10, 712–723. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nri2852>.
- Sousa, V.P. de, Crean, J., Borges, V.R. de A., Rodrigues, C.R., Tajber, L., Boylan, F., Cabral, L.M., 2013. Nanostructured systems containing babassu (*Orbignya speciosa*) oil as a potential alternative therapy for benign prostatic hyperplasia. *Int. J. Nanomed.* 8, 3129–3139.
- Sutar, N., Garai, R., Sharma, U.S., Singh, N., Roy, S.D., 2011. Anticarcinogenic activity of *Saussurea lappa* root. *Int. J. Pharm. Life Sci.* 2, 516–520.
- Tag, H.M., Khaled, H.E., Ismail, H.A.A., El-Shenawy, N.S., 2016. Evaluation of anti-inflammatory potential of the ethanolic extract of the *Saussurea lappa* root (costus) on adjuvant-induced monoarthritis in rats. *J. Basic Clin. Physiol. Pharmacol.* 27, 71–78. <https://doi.org/10.1515/jbcp-2015-0044>.
- Tayel, S.A., El-Nabarawi, M.A., Tadros, M.I., Abd-Elasalim, W.H., 2013. Positively charged polymeric nanoparticle reservoirs of Terbinafine hydrochloride: Preclinical implications for controlled drug delivery in the aqueous humor of rabbits. *AAPS PharmSciTech* 14, 782–793.
- Tian, X., Song, H.S., Cho, Y.M., Park, B., Song, Y.-J., Jang, S., Kang, S.C., 2017. Anticancer effect of *Saussurea lappa* extract via dual control of apoptosis and autophagy in prostate cancer cells. *Medicine (Baltimore)* 96, e7606 <https://doi.org/10.1097/MD.00000000000007606>.
- Timbe, P.P.R., Motta, A. de S., Isaia, H.A., Brandelli, A., 2020. Polymeric nanoparticles loaded with *Baccharis dracunculifolia* DC essential oil: Preparation, characterization, and antibacterial activity in milk. *J. Food Process. Preserv.* 44. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jfpp.14712>.

- Umerska, A., Gaucher, C., Oyarzun-Ampuero, F., Fries-Raeth, I., Colin, F., Villamizar-Sarmiento, M., Maincent, P., Sapin-Minet, A., 2018. Polymeric nanoparticles for increasing oral bioavailability of curcumin. *Antioxidants* 7, 46. <https://doi.org/10.3390/antiox7040046>.
- Vadivelan, R., Krishnan, R.G., Kannan, R., 2019. Antidiabetic potential of *Asparagus racemosus* willd leaf extracts through inhibition of α -amylase and α -glucosidase. *J. Tradit. Chinese Med. Sci.* 9, 1–4. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jtcme.2017.10.004>.
- Veeresham, C., 2012. Natural products derived from plants as a source of drugs. *J. Adv. Pharm. Technol. Res.* 3, 200. <https://doi.org/10.4103/2231-4040.104709>.
- Yang, X., Huang, M., Jin, Y., Sun, L.-N., Song, Y., Chen, H.-S., 2012. Phenolics from *Bidens bipinnata* and their amylase inhibitory properties. *Fitoterapia* 83, 1169–1175. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fitote.2012.07.005>.
- Yenilmez, E., 2017. Desloratadine-Eudragit® RS100 nanoparticles: Formulation and characterization. *Turkish J. Pharm. Sci.* 14, 148–156. <https://doi.org/10.4274/tjps.52523>.
- Zaghloul, A.M., Yusufoglu, H.S., Salkini, M.A.A., Alam, A., 2014. New cytotoxic sesquiterpene lactones from *Anthemis scrobicularis*. *J. Asian Nat. Prod. Res.* 16, 922–929. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10286020.2014.931377>.
- Zahara, K., Tabassum, S., Sabir, S.S., Arshad, M., Qureshi, R., Amjad, M., Chaudhari, S., 2014. A review of therapeutic potential of *Saussurea lappa*-An endangered plant from Himalaya. *Asian Pac. J. Trop. Biomed.* 7, S60–S69.
- Zheng, H., Chen, Y., Zhang, J., Wang, L., Jin, Z., Huang, H., Man, S., Gao, W., 2016. Evaluation of protective effects of costunolide and dehydrocostuslactone on ethanol-induced gastric ulcer in mice based on multi-pathway regulation. *Chem. Biol. Interact.* 250, 68–77. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cbi.2016.03.003>.
- Zhou, Q., Zhang, W., He, Z., Wu, B., Shen, Z., Shang, H., Chen, T., Wang, Q., Chen, Y., Han, S., 2020. The possible anti-inflammatory effect of dehydrocostus lactone on DSS-induced colitis in mice. *Evidence-Based Complement. Altern. Med.* 2020, 1–8. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2020/5659738>.
- Znati, M., Zardi-Bergaoui, A., Daami-Remadi, M., Ben Jannet, H., 2020. Semi-synthesis, antibacterial, anticholinesterase activities, and drug likeness properties of new analogues of coumarins isolated from *Ferula lutea* (Poir.) Maire. *Chem. Africa.* <https://doi.org/10.1007/s42250-020-00145-4>.



Review

Plant oils: From chemical composition to encapsulated form use



Narimane Lammari^{a,b}, Ouahida Louaer^b, Abdeslam Hassen Meniai^b, Hatem Fessi^c,
Abdelhamid Elaissari^{a,*}

^a Univ Lyon, University Claude Bernard Lyon-1, CNRS, ISA-UMR 5280, 69622 Villeurbanne, France

^b Environmental Process Engineering Laboratory, University Constantine 3, Salah Bounider, Constantine, Algeria

^c Univ Lyon, Université Claude Bernard Lyon-1, CNRS, LAGEP UMR 5007, F-69622 Lyon, France

ARTICLE INFO

Keywords:

Essential oil
Vegetable oil
Encapsulation
Polymeric nanoparticle
Liposome
Solid lipid nanoparticle

ABSTRACT

The last decade has witnessed a burgeoning global movement towards essential and vegetable oils in the food, agriculture, pharmaceutical, cosmetic, and textile industries thanks to their natural and safe status, broad acceptance by consumers, and versatile functional properties. However, efforts to develop new therapy or functional agents based on plant oils have met with challenges of limited stability and/or reduced efficacy. As a result, there has been increased research interest in the encapsulation of plant oils, whereby the nanocarriers serve as barrier between plant oils and the environment and control oil release leading to improved efficacy, reduced toxicity and enhanced patient compliance and convenience. In this review, special concern has been addressed to the encapsulation of essential and vegetable oils in three types of nanocarriers: polymeric nanoparticles, liposomes and solid lipid nanoparticles. First, the chemical composition of essential and vegetable oils was handled. Moreover, we gather together the research findings reported by the literature regarding the different techniques used to generate these nanocarriers with their significant findings. Finally, differences and similarities between these nanocarriers are discussed, along with current and future applications that are warranted by their structures and properties.

1. Introduction

The last decade has evidently witnessed a tremendous surge in the use of herbal medicine as a form of complementary or replacement therapy (Mainardi et al., 2009). The global acceptance and public concern in the use of herbal medicines, phytonutrients or nutraceuticals continue to assume exponential increase. It has been estimated that up to 80% of people worldwide relying on them as a primary source of healthcare (Ekor, 2013). This concern in drugs of natural origin is related to numerous reasons, namely, the traditional medicine is more affordable, closer to the patient's ideology and receives greater public access than chemical synthesized treatment. Furthermore, abusive and/or incorrect use of conventional medicines results in some cases in harmful side effects (Wachtel-Galor and Benzie, 2011). The use of aromatic and medicinal plants is incessantly expanding due to increasing consumers demand and concern in these plants for several applications.

In fact, consumers are becoming more and more aware of the benefits of inherent practice of medicinal and aromatic plants and their metabolites (Chikezie et al., 2015; Rates, 2001). These plants produce a large variety of secondary metabolites; among them, essential and vegetable oils deserve particular attention (Dhifi et al., 2016; Kumar et al., 2016; Pandey et al., 2016; Yara-Varón et al., 2017).

Essential oils (EO) comprised volatile and semi-volatile organic compounds determining the specific aroma, flavor and fragrance of plants. They are volatile and instable at room-temperature. In the other hand, vegetable oils (VO) consist of esters of glycerol and fatty acids and are nonvolatile and stable at room temperature (Moghaddam and Mehdizadeh, 2017; Sagiri et al., 2016). Besides being edible in their refined or virgin form, VO play a crucial role in therapeutic and prophylactic prevention of diseases such as inflammation, diabetes, cancer and atherosclerosis (Ganesan et al., 2018; Kochikuzhyil et al., 2010; Saha and Ghosh, 2011; Yu et al., 2004). Subsequently, EO received

Abbreviations: EO, Essential oil; VO, Vegetable oil; pNPs, Polymeric nanoparticles; SLN, Solid lipid nanoparticles; EE%, Encapsulation efficiency; HLB, Hydrophilic lipophilic balance; SUV, Small unilamellar vesicles; LUV, Large unilamellar vesicles; MLV, Multilamellar vesicles; NLC, Nanostructured lipid carriers; MIC, Minimum inhibitory concentration; AUC, Area under the curve.

* Corresponding author.

E-mail address: abdelhamid.elaissari@univ-lyon1.fr (A. Elaissari).

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijpharm.2021.120538>

Received 4 February 2021; Received in revised form 5 March 2021; Accepted 22 March 2021

Available online 27 March 2021

0378-5173/© 2021 Published by Elsevier B.V.

significant attention in food, agricultural and pharmaceutical fields due to their antioxidant, antibacterial, antiviral and antifungal properties. The diverse health benefits associated with the consumption of EO constitute an area of intense research (Ali et al., 2015; Dhifi et al., 2016; Elshafie and Ippolito, 2017). Meantime, the benefits linked to these bioactive agents is generally hampered by several obstacles. For instance, the oxidation is the main problem limiting the use of VO in several fields. The unsaturated fatty acids present in VO lead to increase the risk of lipid oxidation which in turn result in producing numerous free radical species, primary oxidation products such as lipid hydroperoxides and secondary oxidation products such as hydrocarbons, epoxides, ketones and aldehydes that negatively impact aroma. Moreover, VO oxidation can generate toxic products that can largely affect biological tissues (Chen et al., 2011; Matthäus, 2010). At the same time, numerous studies have evidenced that EO are unstable and degraded easily if they are not protected from external factors like oxidation, volatilization, heat and light (Turek and Stintzing, 2013). Besides all these, the low water solubility, low permeation and low bioavailability of plant oils in biological fluids and tissues constitute other factors that limit their rational use (Dima et al., 2020; Rein et al., 2013). Therefore, designing suitable carriers by using nanoencapsulation approach is crucial to overcome restrictions outlined (El-Asbahani et al., 2015a,b; Sagiri et al., 2016). Hoyos-leyva et al. (2019) revealed that the encapsulation of almond oil in starch microcapsules conferred more protection against oxidation when compared to unencapsulated oil. Similar results were already reported when investigating the stability of linseed, jasmine and holy basil oils-loaded nanoparticles against heat, oxidation and volatilization as compared to the free oils (Lv et al., 2014; Rubilar et al., 2012; Sutaphanit and Chitprasert, 2014). Moreover, several studies have evidenced the amelioration of plant oils biological performance after being incorporated in nanosystems. Alaarg et al. (2016) depicted that the encapsulation of docosahexaenoic acid in liposomes improve its anticancer activity. Zhavah et al. (2015) related the superior performance of *Cuminum cyminum* EO nanogels against *Aspergillus flavus* as compared to the free oil to the increased surface area of the nanoparticles.

Depending on the preparation method, nanocarriers can be mainly classified into two main groups: polymer-based nanocarriers and lipid-based nanocarriers. Among the several colloidal systems investigated in drug delivery, polymeric nanoparticles (pNPs), liposomes and solid lipid nanoparticles (SLN) gained more interest (Allen and Cullis, 2013; El-say and El-sawy, 2017; Geszke-Moritz and Moritz, 2016; Immordino et al., 2006; Mehnert and Mäder, 2012; Rani et al., 2017). In this context, the present review covers literature data summarizing the current development of nanocarrier systems for plant oils delivery with a focus on the main properties and preparation technique of pNPs, liposomes and SLN. In addition, the chemical composition of both essential and vegetable oils along with the emerging and potential applications of plant oils loaded nanocarriers in several fields were explored.

2. Chemical composition of vegetable oils

Vegetable oils, also named non-essential or fixed oils, are fats usually extracted from plant seeds (e.g., soybean oil, rapeseed oil, sesame oil, etc.), or less often from other parts of fruits (e.g., olive oil, palm oil, etc.), by simple pressing and/or solvent extraction process (Yara-Varón et al., 2017). Depending on the origin, the crop, the season, and the producing methods, their composition is highly variable and complex (Lligadas et al., 2010).

2.1. Triglycerides

The main components of VO are triglycerides; they represent 95 to 98% of the global constituents depending on the source of oil (Yara-Varón et al., 2017). The word 'oil' hereby refers to triglycerides that are

liquid at room temperature (Guner et al., 2006). Triglycerides are composed of three fatty acid molecules esterified to one glycerol molecule, as demonstrated in Fig. 1 (Miao et al., 2014). Depending on the saturation degree of fatty acids, triglycerides are classified into saturated, mono- and poly-unsaturated fatty acids. The characteristics of VO depend on several parameters including; i) fatty acid chain length, ii) the degree of unsaturation, and iii) the stereochemistry of the double bonds (Meier et al., 2007). Additionally, varieties in climatic, agronomic and cultivation may engender difference in fatty acid composition of triglycerides (Yara-Varón et al., 2017).

2.2. Minor components

Apart of triglycerides, VO contain also a diversity of non-triglyceride minor compounds (<5%) which present crucial biological properties and nutritional values for nutraceutical and pharmaceutical industries (Fig. 2) (Yara-Varón et al., 2017). They comprised two types: glycerolipids including monoglycerides, diglycerides and phospholipids; and non-glycerolipids such as tocopherols/tocotrienols, sterols, free fatty acids, pigments, vitamins, phenolic compounds, proteins and water (Xenakis et al., 2010).

3. Chemical composition of essential oils

Essential oils are oily aromatic liquids extracted from different plant organs as secondary metabolites like, leaves (eucalyptus, thym, salvia), zest (citrus), flowers (lavender, rose, jasmine), fruits (citrus), seeds (sesame), roots (ginger) and wood (sandal) (El-Asbahani et al., 2015a, b). The EO are generally complex mixtures of individual aroma compounds. Even they are not strictly oils, they are poorly soluble in water (Calo et al., 2015). In last decades, innovative methods have been emerged to extract EO from plant raw materials (Boukroufa et al., 2015; Gavahian et al., 2015; Sodeifian et al., 2016; Zermane et al., 2016). The constituents of plant EO comprise mainly four main groups: terpenes, phenylpropanoids, straight-chain compounds and miscellaneous groups.

3.1. Terpenes

Terpenes are the most abundant compounds found in plant EO (Chizzola, 2013). They are synthesized via the mevalonic acid pathway in the cytoplasm of plant cells (Morsy, 2017). Terpene compounds can be divided into two main categories: terpene hydrocarbons and oxygenated compounds (Moghaddam and Mehdizadeh, 2017).

3.1.1. Terpenes hydrocarbon

The essential building block of terpenes is the isoprene unit joined in a head-to-tail manner. Basing on the number of isoprene units, different terpenes can be found in EO, as demonstrated in Fig. 3 (El-Asbahani et al., 2015a,b; Morsy, 2017). Terpenes hydrocarbons are the first main group of components composed completely of carbon and hydrogen atoms and varied significantly in size and complexity (Moghaddam and Mehdizadeh, 2017). Monoterpenes and sesquiterpenes are the dominant terpenes found in plant EO. They are built up by two and three isoprene units, respectively. These terpenes could present acyclic, cyclic or aromatic structures. Cyclic terpenes can be classified depending on their ring size into monocyclic, bicyclic or tricyclic terpenes. These compounds oxidize rapidly due to their fast reaction to heat and air sources (George et al., 2015). Diterpenes result by the combination of four isoprene units in a head-to-tail manner; they are essential constituents of plant resins (Langenheim, 2003). Commonly, diterpenes, triterpenes and tetraterpenes are present in EOs at a very low concentration. Their content may vary with the extraction method (Morsy, 2017).

3.1.2. Terpenoids

Terpene can be changed by adding functional groups and become terpenoid. When a monoterpene or a sesquiterpene has a functional

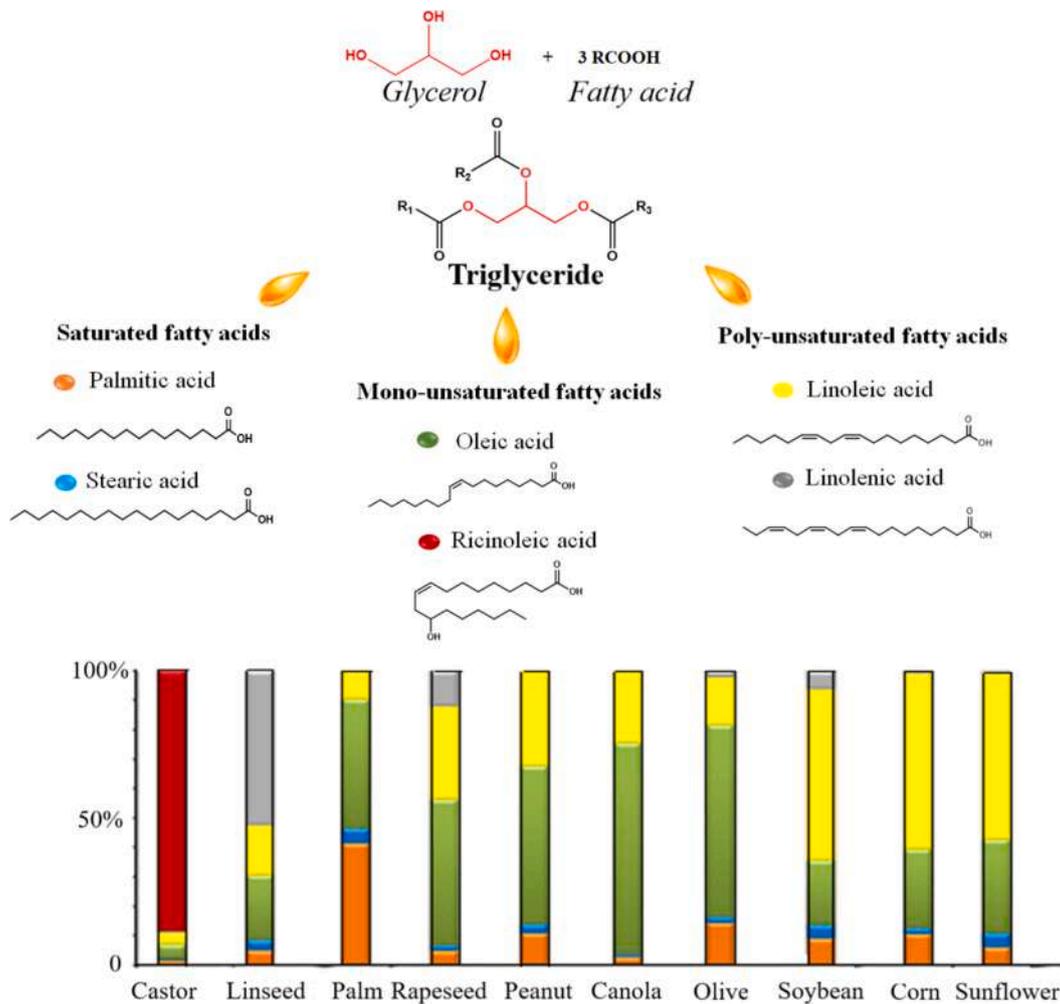


Fig. 1. Triglycerides composition of different vegetable oils.

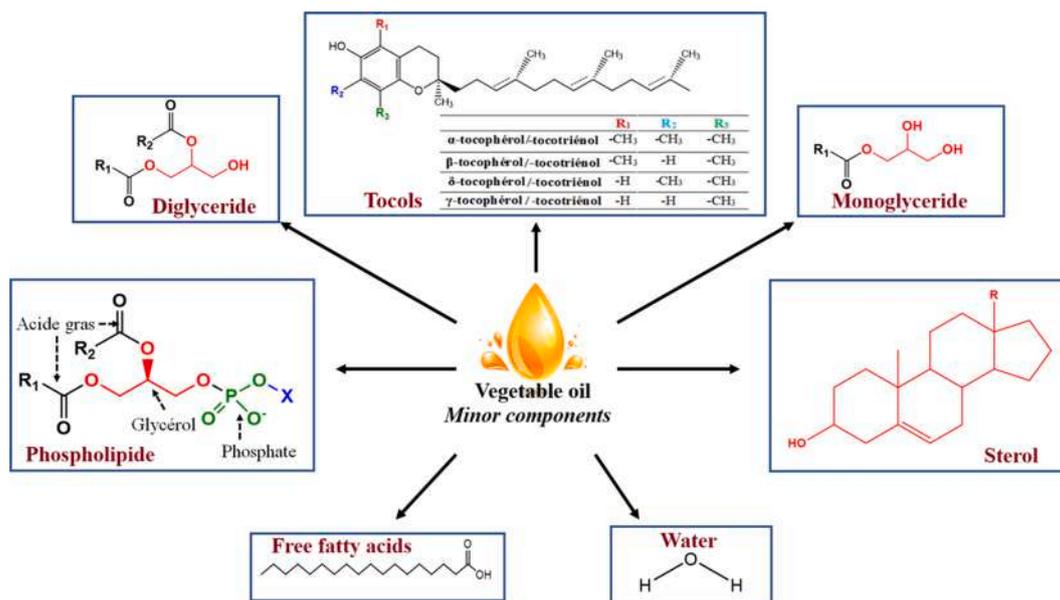


Fig. 2. Minor components of vegetable oils.

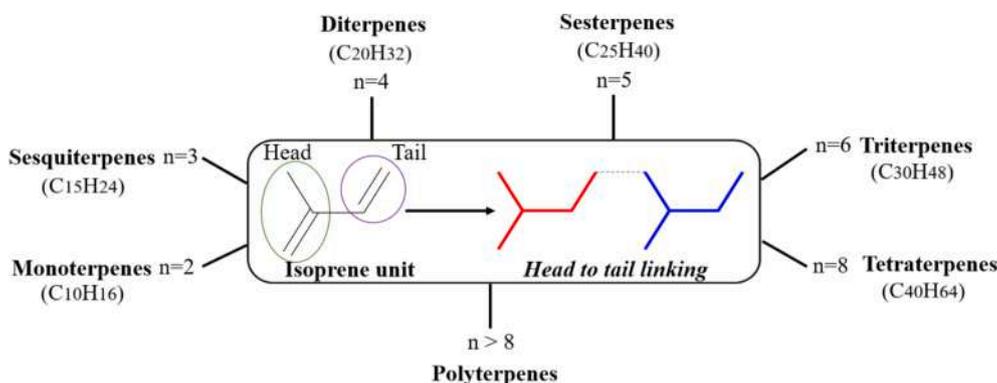


Fig. 3. Composition of terpenes.

group added to it, it is known as a monoterpene or sesquiterpene; respectively. The suffix “oid” means “derived from” or “like” therefore “terpenoid” can refer to all molecules with a terpene-like structure (Moghaddam and Mehdizadeh, 2017). They are classified into carboxylic acids, alcohols, aldehydes, esters, ethers, ketones, phenols, lactones, oxides, etc.

3.2. Phenylpropanoid

This class of compounds, derived from phenylpropene, is synthesized from the amino acid phenylalanine and l-tyrosine via the shikimic acid pathway. Their name is derived from the aromatic phenyl group and the propene tail. The propyl side chain may contain hydroxyl or carboxyl group; while the aromatic ring may carry methoxy, hydroxyl and methylene dioxy groups (Morsy, 2017). Phenylpropanoids give a specific flavor and odor to the plant when they are present (Moghaddam and Mehdizadeh, 2017). Eugenol and cinnamaldehyde are example of this group of constituents (Fig. 4).

3.3. Straight-chain compounds

This group contains only straight-chain compounds, not containing any side branches. They range from n-heptane, to compounds with 35 carbon atoms. The leaf alcohol (3(Z)-hexen-1-ol) (Fig. 4) represents an example of this class; it gives an intense grassy-green odor upon cutting green grass and leaves (Morsy, 2017).

3.4. Miscellaneous group

They issue from the degradation of unsaturated fatty acids, lactones,

terpenes, glycosides and represent sulfur- and nitrogen-containing compounds. Diallyl disulfide and indole are example of this class of compounds (Fig. 4) (Morsy, 2017).

4. Limitation in clinical use of plant oils

Since ancient times, EO have been recommended all over the world for a variety of health problems and diseases (Moghaddam and Mehdizadeh, 2017). Enormous studies have investigated the biological properties of EO, including antimicrobial, antifungal (Ceole et al., 2017; Garcia-Rellán et al., 2016), antiviral (Zeghib et al., 2017), insecticidal (Chen et al., 2016; Jassbi et al., 2017), antioxidant (Hassanen et al., 2015; Limaverde et al., 2017), anticancer (Carneiro et al., 2017; Thakre et al., 2016), antidiabetic (Tahir et al., 2016), anti-inflammatory (Chansang et al., 2018; Nonato et al., 2012), antihypertensive (Cherkaoui-Tangi et al., 2016) and immunomodulatory (Orhan et al., 2016; Ozek et al., 2017). In medical field, EO have been used against nosocomial infections, as a cleaning liquid for disinfection of medical equipment and surfaces (Warnke et al., 2009) or as an aerosol in operating blocks and waiting rooms for air cleaning to limit contaminations (De Billerbeck, 2007). The application of EO has emerged to food and agriculture fields. They are used as antioxidants and preservatives in food (Khosravi, 2013; Pandey et al., 2016), as plant and crop protectants (Abdullah et al., 2018) and incorporated into foodstuff packaging (Ribeiro-Santos et al., 2017).

In the other side, VO is a source of everlasting components which are responsible of pertinent biological properties. Many of the fatty acids and other compounds present in VO have long been known to benefit our health. Numerous experimental studies approved that a dietary intake of omega-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids can reduce inflammation

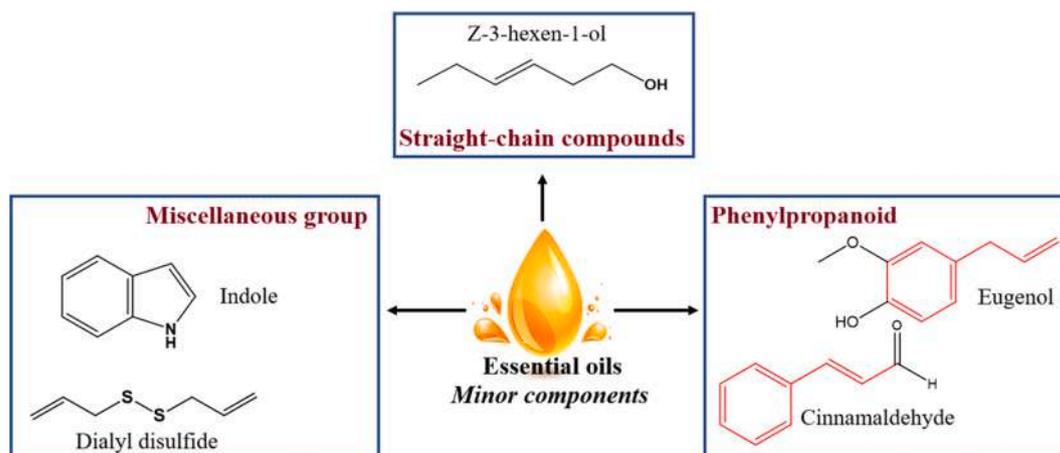


Fig. 4. Examples of phenylpropanoids, straight chain compounds and miscellaneous groups.

and may prevent the risk of chronic diseases like heart disease, cancer, and arthritis (Gammone et al., 2019; Hardman and Fakas, 2016; Kris-Etherton et al., 2003). In addition, polyphenols, medium chain fatty acids and tocopherol present in some VO were the reason of their antioxidant and antistress activities (Duthie et al., 2016; Yaep et al., 2015). Current animal studies have indicated that palmitic acid had a potent antiviral property against HIV-1 and HIV-2 (Özçelik et al., 2005). Linoleic and oleic acids were considered as effective antibacterial agents (Dilika et al., 2000). Further experimental studies highlighted other biological benefits of VO such as anti-inflammatory (Hsu and Parthasarathy, 2017), analgesic and antipyretic (Intahphuak et al., 2010), hypolipidemic (Ali and El-Anany, 2017), antibacterial (Tabassum and Vidyasagar, 2014), antiviral (Orhan et al., 2011), hepatoprotective and gastroprotective properties (Cheng et al., 2015).

In the pharmaceutical field, plant oils entered in the composition of many dosage forms through several pathways, including the cutaneous route (creams, ointments, massage oils, gels), the oral route (tablets, syrup, capsules), the rectal route (suppositories) and the pulmonary route (aerosols, nasal drops, sprays) (El-Asbahani et al., 2015a,b). Despite that, the preparations based on plant oil have some important constraints. The VO oral delivery is always confronted to their low solubility in biological fluids, low permeation and poor bioavailability because of their possible oxidation in the gastrointestinal tract (Márquez-Ruiz et al., 2008). For instance, Kanner and Lapidot (2001) suggested that the adsorbed oxygen and low pH of the human gastric fluid may enhance the oxidation of VO in the presence of catalysts found in foods. Moreover, it was reported that hydroperoxide resulted from the hydrolysis of triacylglycerol contained in VO by pancreatic lipase are not likely to be absorbed in their intact form (Suomela et al., 2004).

Additionally, the toxicity and irritation effects of EO on the oesophageal and gastro intestinal mucosa limit also their uses. EO could be the reason of potential allergic reactions of the skin if they are undiluted or insufficiently diluted (Pedro et al., 2013; Warshaw et al., 2015). For instance, applying excessive amounts of cinnamaldehyde rich-EO to a large surface of the skin can result in significant allergic reaction and anaphylactic shock, which in turn may be fatal (Diba and Statham, 2003). Some oils like those extracted from cumin, bergamot, verbena and lemon can cause photosensitization and induce malignant skin changes like redness, itching, burns, hyperpigmentation, pigmentary changes or berloque dermatitis (Zammit, 2010). Moreover, the high volatility and the high risk of deterioration of EO upon their direct exposure to heat, humidity, light, or oxygen discourages their free use, i. e. without a pharmaceutical vehicle (Turek and Stintzing, 2013). Therefore, the nanocapsulation has been considered as a key to overcome the mentioned limitations (El-Asbahani et al., 2015a,b; Sagiri et al., 2016).

Encapsulation strategies help in converting oils into several dosage forms including, liquid, solid or semi-solid dosage forms and thus enables retention of their activity for longer periods of time (Sagiri et al., 2016). Nanocarriers protect plant oils from environmental factors such as pH, oxygen, light etc., serving as barrier between the molecule and the environment. They also shield the oils from oxidative degradation, evaporation and photo-degradation (Bilia et al., 2014). Their ability to control oil release confers improved efficacy, reduced toxicity, improved patient compliance and convenience (El-Asbahani et al., 2015a,b; Zhao et al., 2017).

5. Plant oils-loaded nanodelivery systems

Nanodelivery systems is an area of intense research as they provide a number of benefits for therapy, such as (i) high drug efficacy, specificity and tolerability, (ii) sustained and controlled release of drugs (iii) less risk of toxicity (iv) deep tissue diffusion due to the nanometric size, and (iv) protection of drugs at both extracellular and intracellular levels (Bilia et al., 2014; Kumari et al., 2010). In this paper, we highlighted the different experimental strategies designed to encapsulate plants oils into

two main groups of organic nanocarriers; polymer based-nanocarriers (including polymeric nanoparticles) and lipid based-nanocarriers (including liposomes and solid lipid nanoparticles).

5.1. Encapsulation in polymer-based nanocarriers

Polymeric nanoparticles (pNP) are submicronic core-shell spherical systems prepared from natural or synthetic polymers (Mattheolabakis et al., 2012). Depending on the nanoparticle preparation process, nanocapsule or nanosphere can be obtained. Nanospheres have a matrix-like form in which the drug is evenly distributed. Nanocapsules are, however, vesicular structures in which the drug is confined in an inner core surrounded by a polymeric membrane (Crucho and Barros, 2017) (Fig. 5). Many polymers were used for this purpose, notably, biodegradable polyesters like poly(lactide-co-glycolide), polylactide and poly(ϵ -caprolactone) were widely used (Froio et al., 2020). Recently, pNP are extensively studied for plant oil delivery in view of their ability to entrap and protect oils, biodegradability, bioavailability and their high stability. The plant oil may be conjugated with the polymer (matrix or wall) or entrapped in the oily core (Bilia et al., 2014). Several methods have been reported for developing pNP while the nanoprecipitation, the ionic gelation, the emulsification/solvent evaporation and spray drying methods, are extensively used and Fig. 5 demonstrates the principle of each technique.

5.1.1. Spray drying

Spray-drying technique has been used for decades to encapsulate plant oils in micro- and nano polymeric particles. It is based on the conversion of an infeed (solution, emulsion or suspension) into a dry powder in a single and continuous step. With respect to the encapsulation of plant oil, oil in water emulsion was atomized into fine drops in a drying chamber where hot air is passed (150–250 °C). A fast evaporation of water occurred leading to the instantaneous formation of powder (Fig. 5.d) (Encina et al., 2016; Matos et al., 2019). Spray drying technique is extensively used to encapsulate both essential and vegetable oils in micro and nanoparticles, as illustrated in Table 1.

Regarding the particle size and the encapsulation efficiency (EE%) of the particles produced by spray drying technique, high average diameter with moderate oil entrapment amount have been reported by numerous work studies, as depicted in Table 1. Hoyos-leyva et al. (2019) reported that almond oil loaded taro starch particles had an average size ranging from 1.4 to 31.1 μm with an EE% of 37.5%. In addition, De-Oliveira et al. (2014) found that *Lippia sidoides* EO loaded alginate : cashew gum nanoparticles exhibited a spherical shape with size ranging from 223 to 399 nm, zeta potential values in range of –30 to –36 mV and EE% of about 50%. In another work, the same EO was encapsulated in chitosan : cashew gum based nanoparticles owning an EE% of 70% with an average particle sizes in the range 335–558 nm (Abreu et al., 2012). Furthermore, the mixture maltodextrin : soy protein was used to encapsulate walnut oil and the resultant particles showed an average diameter of 4–10 μm with an EE% equal to 60% (González et al., 2016).

The main feature of spray drying method is the formation of special particles. Indeed, the scanning electron microscopy carried by Tonon et al. (2011) on flaxseed oil loaded microparticles revealed the formation of hollow particles, i.e. particles with concave and shriveled surfaces. Same images were found by Gallardo et al. when visualizing linseed oil-loaded gum arabic microcapsules. They ascribed this form to vacuoles formation inside the particles after the crust development. The magnitude of this process is inversely related to solid concentration in the emulsion (Gallardo et al., 2013). Moreover, Wang et al. (2018) carrying out confocal scanning laser microscopy on peony seed oil microparticles stated that the spray dried particles had a complete core-shell structure with smooth surface and no apparent fissures or cracks.

In vitro release profile of plant oils from particles prepared by spray drying technique generally exhibit a controlled manner. In a study carried out by De-Oliveira et al. (2014) the nanoparticles have reached a

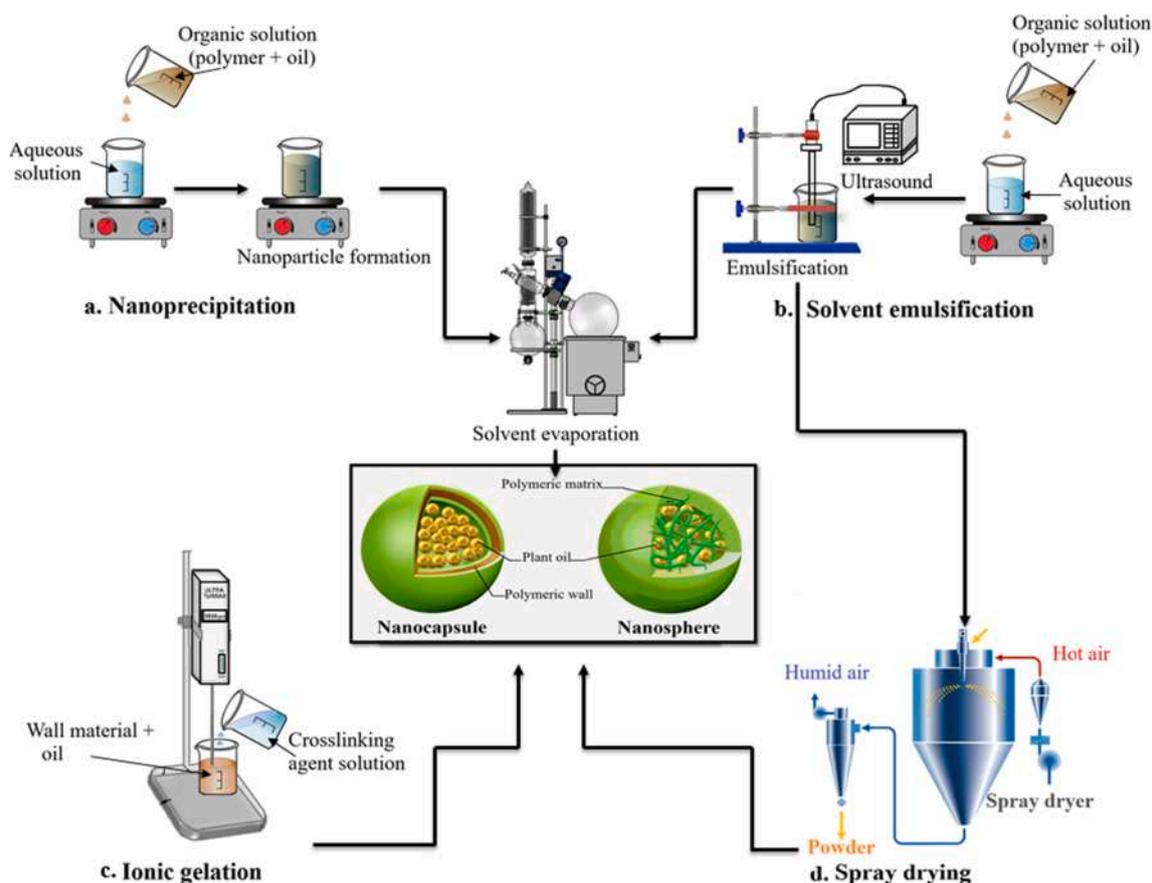


Fig. 5. Schematic illustration of the techniques used to produce polymeric nanoparticles.

level of maximal release around 30–50 h. In that time, the content of *Lippia sidoides* EO from alginate : cashew gum particles varied from 45 and 95% depending on the ratio of used polymers. Higher and faster release rate was achieved with high amount of cashew gum due to its greater hydrophilic character which allows greater diffusion of EO through the polymeric wall. Conversely, a smaller and more controlled release was assessed when increasing alginate content; after 50 h, only 45% of oil was released. This was related to the formation of compact network which in turn slow down the diffusion of EO to the external medium (De-Oliveira et al., 2014).

Particles produced by spray drying process provides a high stability for encapsulated oils. In this context, Hoyos-leyva et al. (2019) investigated the oxidative stability of almond oil before and after encapsulation into taro starch microcapsules. They found that these systems conferred more protection against oxidation when compared to unencapsulated almond oil due to the relatively reduced porosity of the material, which in turn limits the exposure of the oil to stress conditions during storage.

Several parameters have to be taken into consideration to efficiently entrap plant oils in polymeric micro- and nanoparticles by spray drying technique. The influence of type and amount of wall material on plant oils-loaded particles characteristics has been extensively studied in the literature (Bae and Lee, 2008; Chin et al., 2018; Gallardo et al., 2013; Laohasongkram et al., 2011; Lozano et al., 2012; Rodea-gonzález et al., 2012; Rubilar et al., 2012; Shamaei et al., 2017). Carneiro et al. (2013) investigated the microencapsulation of flaxseed oil by spray drying technique. They studied the potential of maltodextrin mixed with different wall materials: arabic gum, whey protein concentrate and two types of modified starch (Hi-Cap 100TM and Capsul TA) on droplets size. Results showed that the highest viscosity presented by maltodextrin : arabic gum emulsion implies a higher resistance to droplets movement, thus preventing coalescence and leading to smaller droplets size.

Shamaei et al. (2017) related the differences in the mean droplet size of the emulsions using different wall material to the surface activity and molecular weight of wall material constituents. They found that as the ratio of tween 80 to skim milk powder increases, the mean droplet size decreases. This in turn was attributed to the fact that tween 80 mitigated droplet coalescence and Ostwald ripening phenomena in the emulsion by reducing the surface tension and interfacial free energy of the emulsion. In another study, emulsion droplet size was found to decrease as the ratio of wall to core material increases due to the fact that at low ratio, there may not be enough coating materials to cover the whole surface of the droplets in order to prevent them from coalescence which in turn increases the droplet size (Rodea-gonzález et al., 2012). Same result was also reported for chia seed oil-loaded microcapsules prepared by spray drying process (Laohasongkram et al., 2011). Moreover, Chew et al. (2018) spotlighted that adding β -cyclodextrin to the wall matrix increases the EE% of refined kenaf seed oil due to its host-guest character. In fact, its interior cavity acts as a host which can fix the guest (hydrophobic oil), while the exterior surface can bind with water or hydrophilic head of other wall materials. Furthermore, Us-medina et al. (2018) stated that adding chia mucilage to sodium caseinate : maltodextrin wall matrix increases the EE% of chia seed oil from 71.26 to 86.65%. They attributed this result to the fact that chia mucilage, used as thickener agent, increases the viscosity of the system which in turn promotes a greater physical stability of the emulsion during the spray drying process.

With respect to the oil content, Rubilar et al. (2012) revealed that increasing the oil concentration provokes a significant increase in droplet emulsion size and viscosity, which in turn reduces the EE% and increases the surface oil content of the powder leading to potential lipid oxidation. Similar result was already published (Tonon et al., 2012).

Air inlet temperature is another factor to take into account for the

Table 1
Preparation methods for plant oils encapsulation in polymeric nanoparticles and fine applications.

Encapsulated oil	Plant (origin)	Wall material	Physicochemical properties			Biological properties	Application	Ref.
			Size (nm)	Z.pot (mv)	EE (%)			
Nanoprecipitation method								
Costus	<i>Saussurea lappa</i>	Eudragit RS 100	145	+45	/	Anticholinesterase, anti-inflammatory	Medicine	(Lammari et al., 2021)
Baccharis dracunculifolia	<i>Baccharis dracunculifolia</i> DC	Eudragit RS 100	151.6	+51.7	99.4	Antibacterial	Food	(Timbe et al., 2020)
Oregano	<i>Origanum vulgare</i> L.	PCL	158–300	−13.8 to −28.5	/	Antibacterial	Food	(Souza et al., 2020)
Palmarosa	<i>Cymbopogon martini</i> Roxb.	PCL	282.1	−27.2	99.54	Antioxidant, antimicrobial	Cosmetic	(Jummes et al., 2020)
Geraniol	/	PCL	289.3	−26.6	99.88	Antioxidant, antimicrobial	Cosmetics	(Jummes et al., 2020)
Zataria	<i>Zataria multiflora</i> Boiss.	PCL	192–398	+13.9 to +29.2	75–79	Insecticide	Agriculture	(Ahsaei et al., 2020)
Thyme	<i>Thymus vulgaris</i> L.	Eudragit L 100–55	153.9	−4.11	52.81	Antioxidant	Food	(Pina-Barrera et al., 2019)
	<i>Thymus leptobotrys</i> L.	Eudragit RS 100	144	+80.9	/	Bacteriostatic, fungistatic	Medicine	(El-Asbahani et al., 2015a,b)
	<i>Thymus satureoides</i> L.	Eudragit RS 100	132	81.6	/	Bacteriostatic, fungistatic	Medicine	(El-Asbahani et al., 2015a,b)
	<i>Thymus serpyllum</i> L.	Chitosan	117–226	+27	/	Antimicrobial	Agriculture	(Sotelo-Boyás et al., 2015)
		Chitosan	/	/	68	Antimicrobial	Agriculture	(Sotelo-Boyás et al., 2017a)
Sweet orange	<i>Citrus sinensis</i> L.	Eudragit RS100	57–208	+39 to +74	56–96	Antimicrobial	Food	(Froio et al., 2019)
Bergamot	<i>Citrus bergamia</i> Risso.	Eudragit RS100	57–208	+39 to +74	28–84	Antimicrobial	Food	(Froio et al., 2019)
Rosemary	<i>Rosmarinus officinalis</i> L.	PCL	181–407	+11.6 to +28.3	82.9–84.3	Insecticide	Agriculture	(Ahsaei et al., 2020)
		Eudragit EPO	200	/	59	Antioxidant	Cosmetics	(Silva-Flores et al., 2019)
		PCL	145	−11.0	78.2	Insecticide	Agriculture	(Khoobdel et al., 2017)
		PCL	220	−19.9	99	Antioxidant, antimicrobial	Medicine	(Ephrem et al., 2014)
Lavender	<i>Lavandula dentata</i> L.	Eudragit EPO	200	/	41	Antioxidant	Cosmetics	(Silva-Flores et al., 2019)
		PEO-b-PLA	10–75	/	70–75	Antimicrobial	Textile	(Popiolski et al., 2016)
Peppermint	<i>Mentha piperita</i> L.	Cellulose acetate	180	−38	/	Antimicrobial	Medicine	(Liakos et al., 2018)
Cinnamon	<i>Cinnamomum cassia</i> persl.	Cellulose acetate	150	−40	/	Antimicrobial	Medicine	(Liakos et al., 2018)
Lemongrass	<i>Cymbopogon citratus</i> DC.	PLA	96.4	/	99	Antifungal	Medicine	(Antonioni et al., 2020)
		Cellulose acetate	200	−36	/	Antimicrobial	Medicine	(Liakos et al., 2018)
		PLA	300	−6	/	Antimicrobial	Medicine	(Liakos et al., 2016)
Black seed oil + Indometacin	<i>Nigella sativa</i> L.	PCL	230–260	−20 to −30	Oil = 84 Drug = 70	Anti-inflammatory	Cosmetics	(Badri et al., 2018)
Lime	<i>Citrus aurantiifolia</i> Christm.	Chitosan	100–300	+57	/	Antimicrobial	Food	(Sotelo-Boyás et al., 2017b)
		Chitosan	250–1000	+20.2	/	Antimicrobial	Agriculture	(Sotelo-Boyás et al., 2015)
Pepper tree	<i>Schinus molle</i> L.	Chitosan	754	+9.1	/	Antifungal	Food	(Luque-Alcaraz et al., 2016)
<i>Zanthoxylum rhoifolium</i>	<i>Zanthoxylum rhoifolium</i> L.	PCL	500	−20	96	Insecticide	Agriculture	(Christofoli et al., 2015)
Argan oil + Indometacin	<i>Argania spinosa</i> L.	PCL	290–350	−40 to −50	65–75	Anti-inflammatory	Cosmetics	(Badri et al., 2015)
<i>Pelargonium graveolens</i>	<i>Pelargonium graveolens</i> L.	Eudragit RS 100	113	+80.6	/	Bacteriostatic, fungistatic	Medicine	(El-Asbahani et al., 2015a,b)
<i>Eugenia caryophyllata</i>	<i>Eugenia caryophyllata</i> C.	Eudragit RS 100	131	+80.7	/	Bacteriostatic, fungistatic	Medicine	(El-Asbahani et al., 2015a,b)
Carvacrol	/	PLA	114.7	+54.7	53.9	Antimicrobial	Food	(Niza et al., 2020)
		PHB	146	−26	21	Antimicrobial	/	(Shakeri et al., 2014)
		PLGA	209.8	/	26	Antimicrobial	Medicine	(Iannitelli et al., 2011)
Carvone	/	PLGA	126	/	/	Antimicrobial	Food	(Esfandyari-Manesh et al., 2013)
Anethole	/	PLGA	158	/	/	Antimicrobial	Food	

(continued on next page)

Table 1 (continued)

Encapsulated oil	Plant (origin)	Wall material	Physicochemical properties			Biological properties	Application	Ref.
			Size (nm)	Z.pot (mv)	EE (%)			
Date seed	<i>Phoenix dactylifera</i> L.	Eudragit RS 100	207	+59	97	Antidiabetic	Medicine	(Esfandyari-Manesh et al., 2013)
Pomegranate oil + Silibinin	<i>Punica granatum</i> L.	Ethylcellulose	/	/	/	Anti-inflammatory for skin damage UVB	Cosmetics	(Lammari et al., 2020)
Rosehip	<i>Rosa rugosa</i> Thunb.	Eudragit RS100	158	+9.8	/	Accelerate the skin regenerating process	Cosmetics	(Marchiori et al., 2017)
Castor	<i>Ricin commun</i> L.	TAD	260–150	/	/	Source of PUFA	/	(Contri et al., 2016)
Olive	<i>Olea europaea</i> L.	TAD	185	-30	/	Source of PUFA	/	(Chattopadhyay and Prez, 2016)
Pumpkin	<i>Cucurbita pepo</i> L.	TAD	172	-35	/	Source of PUFA	/	(Chattopadhyay and Prez, 2016)
Sunflower	<i>Helianthus annuus</i> L.	TAD	178	-33	/	Source of PUFA	/	(Chattopadhyay and Prez, 2016)
Hazelnut	<i>Corylus avellana</i> L.	TAD	175	-35	/	Source of PUFA	/	(Chattopadhyay and Prez, 2016)
Borage oil + Betamethasone dipropionate	<i>Borago officinalis</i> L.	PCL	210	-16.6	100	Treatment of atopic dermatitis	Cosmetics	(Weber et al., 2016)
Rice bran	<i>Oryza sativa</i> L.	PCL	200	-9	/	Sunscreen (treatment of inflammatory disorders of skin)	Cosmetics	(Rigo et al., 2015)
Pine seed Free fatty acid	<i>Pinus pinea</i> L.	Eudragit L 100–55 / Eudragit L100 / Eudragit S100	236–296 / 260–319	/ /	85–91 / 83–99	Source of PUFA	Medicine	(Averina and Allémann, 2013)
Babassu	<i>Attalea speciosa</i> Mart.	PLGA	209.2	-15.8	/	Treatment of benign prostatic hyperplasia	Medicine	(Sousa et al., 2013)
Emulsion evaporation method								
Mastic tree of Chios	<i>Pistacia lentiscus</i> L. var. chia	PLA	239–286	-29.1 to -34.5	9–37	Antimicrobial	Cosmetic	(Vrouvaki et al., 2020)
Clove	<i>Syzygium aromaticum</i> L.	PLGA	237.6	-40	93.95	Antimicrobial	Medicine	(Priyadarshini et al., 2018)
Eugenol	/	PLGA	179.3	/	98	Antimicrobial	Food	(Gomes et al., 2011a)
Trans-cinnamaldehyde	/	PLGA	173.8	/	92	Antimicrobial	Food	(Gomes et al., 2011a)
Chia seed	<i>Salvia hispanica</i> L.	Chia seed mucilage	205	-11.58	82.8	Source of PUFA	/	(Campo et al., 2017)
Coffee	<i>Coffea arabica</i> L..	PLA	263	/	112.7	Flavoring agent	Food	(Freiberger et al., 2015)
		PHBV	271	/	94.5	Flavoring agent	Food	(Freiberger et al., 2015)
Ionic gelation method								
Homalomena pineodora	<i>Homalomena pineodora</i> L.	Chitosan	70	+24.1		Wound healing	Medicine	(Rozman et al., 2020)
Piper nigrum	<i>Piper nigrum</i> L.	Chitosan	527.5	-5.3	35–40	Pesticide	Agriculture	(Rajkumar et al., 2020)
Nettle	<i>Urtica dioica</i> L.	Chitosan	208.3–369.4	/	59.5–68.2	Antimicrobial	Food; Medicine	(Bagheri et al., 2020)
Tarragon	<i>Artemisia dracunculus</i> L.	Gelatin + Chitosan	246–505	27.1–37.1	9.8–35.6	Preservative	Food	(Zhang et al., 2020)
Camelthorn	<i>Alhagi maurorum</i> L.	Chitosan	172	+28.6	/	Antimicrobial	Medicine	(Hassanshahian et al., 2020)
Great morinda	<i>Morinda citrifolia</i> L.	Chitosan	1006	+43.5	/	Anticancer	Medicine	(Rajivgandhi et al., 2020)
Clove	<i>Syzygium aromaticum</i> L.	Chitosan	268.5	+22.4	/	Antifungal	Agriculture; Food	(Hasheminejad et al., 2019)
Pepper tree	<i>Schinus molle</i> L.	Chitosan	516.9	+40.2	26.6	Antifungal, anti-aflatoxicogenic	Medicine	(López-meneses et al., 2018)
Cinnamon	<i>Cinnamomum cassia</i> persl.	Chitosan	80–100	-11.2 to -22.4	47.67–55.64	Antimicrobial	Food	(Liu et al., 2017)
		Chitosan	215	/	/	Antimicrobial	Food	(Hu et al., 2015)
Cardamon	<i>Elettaria cardamomum</i> L.	Chitosan	50–100	>+50	>90	Antimicrobial	Medicine	(Jamil et al., 2016)
		Chitosan	135.5–237.4	-9.68 to -21.12	35.1–40.7	Antioxidant, antimicrobial	Food	(Fezyioglu and Tornuk, 2016)
	<i>Carum copticum</i>	Chitosan	/	/	36.2	Antioxidant, antimicrobial	Cosmetics; Medicine	(Esmaili and Asgari, 2015)
Tumeric	<i>Curcuma longa</i> L.	Alginate + Chitosan	<300	/	71	Anticancer	Medicine	(Natrajan et al., 2015)

(continued on next page)

Table 1 (continued)

Encapsulated oil	Plant (origin)	Wall material	Physicochemical properties			Biological properties	Application	Ref.
			Size (nm)	Z.pot (mv)	EE (%)			
Lemongrass	<i>Cymbopogon citratus</i> DC.	Chitosan	58	/	/	Antimicrobial	Food	(Sameen et al., 2020)
		Alginate + Chitosan	<300	/	86.9	Anticancer	Medicine	(Natrajan et al., 2015)
Jasmine	<i>Jasminum polyanthum</i> L.	Gelatin + Gum arabic	/	/	/	Flavor agent	Food; Textile	(Lv et al., 2014)
Holy basil	<i>Ocimum tenuiflorum</i> L.	Gelatin	392.30 .10 ³	/	95.41	Antioxidant	Medicine	(Sutaphanit and Chitprasert, 2014)
Pimenta Eugenol	<i>Pimenta dioica</i> L.	Chitosan +k-carrageenan	/	/	/	Antioxidant, antifungal	Food	(Dima et al., 2014)
		Chitosan	80–100	+16.2 to + 33.5	1.1–20.2	Antioxidant	Food	(Woranuch and Yoksan, 2013)
Oregano	<i>Origanum vulgare</i> L.	Chitosan	40–80	/	/	Antioxidant, antimicrobial	/	(Hosseini et al., 2013)
Poppy seed	<i>Papaver somniferum</i> L.	Gelatin + arabic gum	<5000	/	76.8	Anti-cancer, anti-tumor, anti-diabetic	Medicine	(Yang et al., 2015b)
Vanilla	<i>Vanilla planifolia</i> L.	Chitosan + arabic gum	7500	/	94.2	Flavor agent	Food	(Yang et al., 2014)
Olive	<i>Olea europaea</i> L.	Gelatin +Sodium alginate	/	/	/	Source of vitamins and fatty acids	Medicine	(Devi et al., 2012)
Peppermint	<i>Mentha piperita</i> L.	Gelatin + Arabic gum	/	/	/	/	/	(Dong et al., 2011)
Spray drying method								
Carvacrol	/	Pectin + sodium alginate	2580–5300	/	/	Antioxidant, antimicrobial	/	(Sun et al., 2020)
Black seed	<i>Nigella sativa</i> L.	Sodium caseinate + maltodextrin DE10	18,500	/	95.4	Antioxidant	Medicine	(Mohammed et al., 2017)
Eucalyptus	<i>Eucalyptus staigeriana</i> L.	Cashew gum	27.7–432.6	+24.5 to +10.4	24.89–26.80	Antimicrobial	Food	(Herculano et al., 2015)
<i>Lippia sidoides</i>	<i>Lippia sidoides</i> L.	Alginate:cashew gum	223–399	–30 to –36	50	Larvicide	Agriculture	(De-Oliveira et al., 2014)
		Chitosan + cashew gum	335–558	/	70	Larvicide	Agriculture	(Abreu et al., 2012)
Oregano	<i>Origanum vulgare</i> L.	Chitosan	25	–17.3	77.8	Larvicide	Agriculture	(Paula et al., 2010)
		Inulin	3000–4500	/	/	Antioxidant	Food	(Beirão da costa et al., 2013)
		Rice starch	3000–4500	/	/	Antioxidant, antimicrobial	Food	(Beirão da costa et al., 2012)
Soybean	<i>Glycine max</i> L.	Kafirin + sodium caseinate	10,450	/	/	Source of PUFA	Food	(Bai et al., 2019b)
		Taro starch	1600–31.1.10 ³	/	37.5	Prevention of colon cancer and cardiovascular diseases	Medicine	(Hoyos-leyva et al., 2019)
Almond	<i>Prunus dulcis</i> L.							
Peony	<i>Paeonia lactiflora</i> L.	Whey protein + Corn syrup + Lecithin	/	/	93.6	Source of PUFA	Food	(Wang et al., 2018)
Refined kenaf seed	<i>Hibiscus cannabinus</i> L.	β-cyclodextrin + gum arabic + sodium caseinate	/	/	/	Source of MUFA and PUFA	/	(Chew et al., 2020)
		β-cyclodextrin + Arabic gum	(25.4–37.3). 10 ³	/	90.0–95.3	Source of MUFA and PUFA	/	(Chew et al., 2018)
		β-cyclodextrin + sodium caseinate						
Chia seed	<i>Salvia hispanica</i> L.	β-cyclodextrin + gum arabic + sodium caseinate	/	/	53.4–96.2	Source of omega 3	Food	(Us-medina et al., 2018)
		Sodium caseinate + maltodextrin + chia protein rich fraction + chia mucilage	/	/				
Walnut	<i>Juglans cinerea</i> L.	Maltodextrin + soy protein	4000–10000	/	≈ 60	Source of omega 3	Food	(González et al., 2016)
		Skim milk powder + Tween 80	/	/	/	Source of PUFA, tocopherols and phytosterols.	Food; Medicine	(Shamaei et al., 2017)
Sunflower	<i>Helianthus annuus</i> L.	Maltodextrin + HPMC	/	/	79.43	Source of PUFA	/	(Roccia et al., 2014)
Linseed	<i>Linum usitatissimum</i> L.	Alginate + whey protein	/	–44	84	Source of omega 3	Food	(Fioramonti et al., 2019)
		Maltodextrin +Gum arabic	600–26000		62.3–95.7	Source of omega 3	Food	(Carneiro et al., 2013)
		Gum arabic	/	/	≈ 90	Source of omega 3	Food	(Gallardo et al., 2013)
		Gum arabic +Maltodextrin + whey protein	/	/	≈ 90	Source of omega 3	Food	(Gallardo et al., 2013)
		Maltodextrin +methylcellulose	/	/	≈ 90	Source of omega 3	Food	(Gallardo et al., 2013)
		Gum arabic	/	/	54.9–90.7	Source of omega 3	Food	

(continued on next page)

Table 1 (continued)

Encapsulated oil	Plant (origin)	Wall material	Physicochemical properties			Biological properties	Application	Ref.
			Size (nm)	Z.pot (mv)	EE (%)			
		Gum arabic + Maltodextrin	/	/	54.9 – 90.7	Source of omega 3	Food	(Rubilar et al., 2012)
	<i>Macadamia integrifolia</i>	Sodium caseinate + maltodextrin	9750	/	88.75	Source of MUFA	Medicine	(Rubilar et al., 2012)
Coffee	<i>Coffea arabica</i> L.	Arabic gum	4000–11.10 ³	/	10–30	Antioxidant	Cosmetic	(Laohasongkram et al., 2011)
		Arabic gum	7880–13.10 ³	/	48–88	Flavoring agent	Food	(Nosari et al., 2015)
								(Frascareli et al., 2011)

PLGA: Polylactic glycolic acid; PCL: Polycaprolactone; PLA: Poly lactic acid; PHB: Poly(3-hydroxybutyrate); PEO: poly (ethylene oxide); TAD: 1,2,4-Triazoline-3,5-dione; PHBV: Poly(3-hydroxybutyrate-co-3-hydroxyvalerate).

HPC: Hydroxypropylcellulose; HPMC: Hydroxypropylmethylcellulose; PVA: Poly vinyl alcohol; PUFA: Poly unsaturated fatty acids; MUFA: Mono unsaturated fatty acids.

development of plant oil-loaded particles; and it was widely investigated in the literature (Frascareli et al., 2011; Laohasongkram et al., 2011; Roccia et al., 2014; Shamaei et al., 2017). Frascareli et al. (2011) studied the encapsulation of coffee oil and observed that as the air flow temperature increases the EE% decreases due to the fact that higher temperature leads to faster drying of the external phase which creates cracks in the particle wall, resulting in oil loss. Moisture content is an important variable for the shelf life of powders. It was reported that increasing the inlet temperature reduced the moisture content (Mohammed et al., 2017). However, higher values (more than 175 °C) resulted in an increase in moisture content due to the formation of rapid crust which hampered the water evaporation leading to particles with more moisture content. The particle size is another parameter which vary when modifying the air inlet temperature. In 2017, Mohammed and coworkers pointed out that an increased inlet air temperature produced larger-sized *Nigella sativa* EO particles and ascribed this result to the microcapsule structure. Indeed, high temperature enable the particles to form early which in turn prevents the shrinkage of particles during drying (Mohammed et al., 2017).

To sum up, despite of the high temperature required, the spray drying method is widely used to encapsulate either essential or vegetable oils. This was related to the fact that short time of contact between hot air and plant oil occurred, and thus the evaporation happens between 15 and 30 s and takes place at the surface of the particle; hence, the oils never reach the inlet temperature of drying gas (Fang and Bhandari, 2012). According to Table 1, natural polymers like maltodextrin, gums and chitosan are the mostly used wall materials. Currently, this technique is widely used in nutraceutical and food industry due to its benefits including i) ease of scaling up, ii) simplicity, iii) low production costs, and iv) ability to produce microparticles facile to the transport and storage. Many drawbacks are associated to the use of this process including the lack of uniformity; high particle size, low oil loading and possibility of oil loss. Moreover, the wall material used must have good water solubility as most formulations used by the food industry are aqueous-based and simultaneously impart a suitable viscosity in order to enable the drying process (Correa-Filho et al., 2019).

5.1.2. Emulsion evaporation

Emulsion evaporation method has been proposed by Vanderhoff and Asser (1979) to develop pNPs. In this process, an organic solution consisting of polymer and oil is emulsified with a non-solvent mixture under a high shear stress (e.g. by high-shear homogenization or ultrasonication). After that, the organic solvent is evaporated either by continuous magnetic stirring at room temperature or under reduced pressure leading to nanoparticles formation (Fig. 5.b) (Rao and Geckeler, 2011; Rodríguez et al., 2016). This technique has been used to encapsulate both essential and vegetable oils in pNPs, as depicted in Table 1.

The emulsion evaporation technique produces nanoparticles with

higher EE% and smaller average diameter, as compared to the spray drying technique. In this context, Gomes et al. (2011a) reported a particle size of 179.3 and 173.8 nm with an EE% of 98 and 92% for eugenol- and *trans*-cinnamaldehyde loaded poly (lactide-co-glycolide) nanoparticles, respectively. Similarly, chia seed oil loaded nanoparticles using chia mucilage as wall material exhibited a small particle size (205 nm) with negative zeta potential (−11.58 mv) and high EE% (82.8%) (Campo et al., 2017). Moreover, poly (lactide-co-glycolide) nanoparticles were prepared to encapsulate clove EO, rich in eugenol which has potent antimicrobial activities (Priyadarshini et al., 2018). The average size of the resultant nanoparticles was about 237 nm with negative zeta potential of −40 mv and an EE% equal to 93%.

The nanoparticles prepared by emulsion evaporation process exhibited *in vitro* release pattern similar to that of particles produced by spray drying. In 2018, Priyadarshini et al. pointed out that *in vitro* cumulative clove EO release from poly (lactide-co-glycolide) nanoparticles followed a biphasic profile with an initial burst release at the first 4 h due to the release of clove EO found near the nanoparticles surface (Priyadarshini et al., 2018). A cumulative amount of 75% was progressively released up to ~15 days. Similar *in vitro* release kinetics were governed by eugenol and *trans*-cinnamaldehyde from poly (lactide-co-glycolide) nanoparticles where 64 and 87% of the initial load was released in the medium within 72 h, respectively (Gomes et al., 2011a).

The stability of the pNPs formulated by this technique was investigated in the literature. In 2017, Campo et al. studied the oxidation of chia seed oil by gas chromatography with flame ionization detector in both emulsions and chia seed mucilage based-nanoparticles at accelerated conditions (40 ± 1 °C) during 28 days of storage (Campo et al., 2017). No significant change was shown in term of particle size, zeta potential or polydispersity index. However, the fatty acid methyl esters content reduction in pNPs was smaller than in emulsions; therefore, the chia seed mucilage provided a high protection against oil oxidation (Campo et al., 2017).

With respect to the emulsification evaporation process, several parameters may affect the nanoparticles properties. Freiberger et al. (2015) investigated the effect of polymer type (poly(3-hydroxybutyrate-co-3-hydroxyvalerate)/polylactide); dispersion mechanism (ultrasonication / high shear homogenization) and polymer : oil ratio on the average size and oil recovery of biocompatible nanoparticles containing coffee oil. The statistical analysis showed non-significant effect of the experimental factors on the nanoparticle size within the experimental range. While for the coffee oil recovery, regression analysis produced a significant model. Less oil was lost by volatilization when sonication was used, because the required dispersion time (3 min) was smaller when compared to the ultraturax time (10 min). Results showed also that less coffee oil loss was pronounced when using poly(3-hydroxybutyrate-co-3-hydroxyvalerate) combined to the high shear homogenization as well as using polylactide combined with sonication. This was explained by the high viscosity of poly(3-hydroxybutyrate-co-3-hydroxyvalerate)-

dichloromethane solution which could avoid oil volatilization even with high shear homogenization (Freiberger et al., 2015). Regarding the polymer:oil ratio, an increase in polymer amount lead to increase the viscosity of the solution resulting in efficient oil protection from the heat generated by the homogenizer.

To sum up, the emulsification evaporation method can be used to encapsulate both essential and vegetable oils. Although it provides high EE%, this method is less used to encapsulate plant oils, as compared to the spray drying technique. The possible reason behind this is the possible coalescence of droplets during evaporation which may lead to polydisperse particles and the need for a high shear process.

5.1.3. Nanoprecipitation

Nanoprecipitation is a simple, fast and increasingly trending technique for nanoparticles preparation (Almoustafa et al., 2017). It was firstly reported by Fessi et al. (1989) and it is based on the interfacial deposition of polymers as a result of the displacement of a water miscible solvent from a lipophilic solution (Fig. 5.a) (Miladi et al., 2016). This method has been widely used to encapsulate plants oils in pNPs and Table 1 summarizes some work studies using the nanoprecipitation process to encapsulate either essential or vegetable oils during the last decade.

According to Table 1, the nanoparticles produced by nanoprecipitation process owned small particle size, narrow distribution with high EE%. Iannitelli et al. (2011) developed carvacrol loaded poly (lactide-co-glycolide) based-nanocapsules with a spherical shape, small particle size (209.8 nm) and regular distribution (poly dispersibility index = 0.26). Similarly, *Cymbopogon martini* EO was efficiently entrapped in poly (ϵ -caprolactone) based-nanoparticles with an average size of 282.1 nm, zeta potential equal to -27.2 mV and EE% of about 99.54% (Khoobdel et al., 2017). Furthermore, Babassu tree nut oil loaded- poly (lactide-co-glycolide) nanoparticles exhibited an average diameter about 209.2 nm with a negative zeta potential of -15.8 mV (Sousa et al., 2013).

In term of particle size, Esfandyari-Manesh et al. (2013) compared the nanoprecipitation to the emulsification solvent evaporation method to design carvone/anethole loaded poly (lactide-co-glycolide) nanoparticles and found that the particles produced by nanoprecipitation had smaller average diameter (158 and 126 nm for anethole and carvone, respectively) and narrower size distribution (0.08). Additionally, the amount of carvone and anethole were determined respectively by HPLC and UV analysis and results showed higher oil loading for the particles produced by nanoprecipitation (14.73 and 12.32% for anethole and carvone, respectively). The authors related the low EO loading for the emulsification method to its loss during the evaporation step which has taken a long time (about 3 h). In addition, the high particle diameter of the nanoparticles prepared by this method was attributed to the difficulty for the mutual dispersion of the phase which is viscous due to the presence of high amount of oil and polymer.

According to the literature, to develop pNPs with suitable physicochemical properties, numerous factors had to be taken into consideration. The polymer type and amount have a critical effect on nanoparticles average size. In 2017, Khoobdel et al. (2017) developing poly (ϵ -caprolactone) -based nanoparticles loaded with rosemary EO reported that increasing polymer quantity, leads in increasing the thickness of the particles shell and thus increasing their mean diameter, instead of increasing their number. Moreover, low values of EE% were observed when using Eudragit L100 as polymer for the encapsulation of *Siberian cedar* seed oil or free fatty acids due to its porous structure which enabled oil leakage (Averina and Allémann, 2013). Regarding the type of the EO, Liakos et al. (2018) studied the influence of EO chemical composition on the particle size of three types of pNPs: Peppermint, cinnamon and lemongrass EOs loaded-cellulose acetate nanocapsules. The average size was increasing as follow: Cinnamon-pNPs < Peppermint-pNPs < Lemongrass pNPs. The larger pNPs were those containing lemongrass EO, due to the presence of high percentage of geranial and

neral which have long carbon chains (≈ 10 C atoms) leading to larger pNPs when attached to cellulose acetate. While, peppermint contains mainly 35% menthol and 27% menthone leading to the creation of less uniform, complex and large nanoparticles. In the other hand, cinnamon EO consists essentially of cinnamaldehyde which reacts with hydroxyl group of cellulose acetate giving hemiacetal bound and hence combats the nanocapsules. Liakos and his coworkers assessed also in their study higher zeta-potential upon increasing lemongrass EO concentration, suggesting that some EO molecules are present onto the outer surface of the particles (Liakos et al., 2018). Similarly, it was reported that the presence of lime EO decreased the zeta potential and the values were 61.1 and 57.0 mV for free- and loaded- chitosan nanocapsules, respectively. They attributed this result to the diminution of free NH_3^+ groups of chitosan following their interaction with lime EO (Sotelo-Boyás et al., 2017b). However, in another work study, the presence of rosemary EO did not affect the zeta potential of poly (ϵ -caprolactone) nanoparticles which confirm its presence in the core of the nanoparticles instead of being adsorbed on their surface (Khoobdel et al., 2017).

In term of surfactant type and amount, Badri et al. (2015) pointed out that the amount of polyvinyl alcohol used as surfactant had no significant effect on the average diameter of poly (ϵ -caprolactone) nanoparticles but at higher concentration (more than 0.1 mg/mL), a significant increase was assessed due to the deposition of extra polyvinyl alcohol on the nanoparticle surface. Furthermore, it was reported that the use of span 20 instead of tween 20 gave smaller rosemary EO-loaded nanocapsules, lower polydispersity index and limited loss of the oil during the solvent evaporation step. In the presence of span 20, the hydrophilic lipophilic balance (HLB) was between 12 and 15 (14.3), which was in the range of HLB necessary for rosemary EO nanoemulsion stability (Ephrem et al., 2014). Furthermore, the effect of the ratio between organic and aqueous phase may affect the particle size. Indeed, an increase in argan oil loaded nanoparticles was assessed when increasing the organic to aqueous phase ratio due to the slow diffusion of the organic solvent (acetone) to water resulting slow polymer precipitation and thus, larger pNPs were obtained (Badri et al., 2015).

Regarding the effect of operating conditions, Badri et al. (2015) investigated the effect of stirring speed and organic phase addition rate consisting of poly (ϵ -caprolactone), acetone, argan oil, indomethacin and span20 on the physicochemical properties of the obtained pNPs. Results revealed a decrease in particle size by increasing the stirring speed. While, it increases when decreasing the organic phase addition speed due to the difficulty to get a homogenous mixture of phases. Furthermore, Ephrem et al. (2014) studied the influence of the evaporation method on the pNPs properties and rosemary EO loss and found that the evaporation of acetone under normal pressure at room temperature was the best since it avoided heat and low pressure, giving negligible loss of the encapsulated EO.

Recently, a novel form of pNPs was developed called lipid-core nanocapsules which is composed of a mixture of oil and solid lipid surrounded by a polymeric wall (Ourique et al., 2010). For instance, the oily core of pNP may consist of a liquid lipid, a mixture of liquid lipids, or a mixture of liquid lipid and solid lipid. The latter concerns a specific form of nanocapsules called lipid-core nanocapsules (Frank et al., 2015). Several research works have been already published investigated the feasibility to entrap VO into lipid core NPs (Almeida et al., 2009; Drozdek and Bazyli, 2016; Friedrich et al., 2008; Marchiori et al., 2017; Rigo et al., 2013; Weber et al., 2016). In this context, nanoprecipitation technique was efficiently carried out to develop borage oil : betamethasone co-loaded lipid-core nanocapsules with a mean size around 210 nm, negative zeta potential (-16.6 mv), low polydispersity index (<0.05) and high EE% (up to 100%) (Weber et al., 2016). Furthermore, Rigo et al. (2013) studied the influence of the type of VO on the release kinetic of clobetasol propionate, selected as model drug, from the lipid core nanoparticles. Results revealed a biphasic drug release profiles for all the formulations. After 168 h, the concentration of clobetasol propionate released from the formulation was in the following order: Sunflower oil-

pNPs < Soybean oil-pNPs < Rice bran-pNPs. The authors related these results to the consistency indices of the mixture oil : sorbitan monostearate, used as solid lipid; and a greater control of the drug release was observed with higher consistency index of the VO-sorbitan monostearate.

Regarding the nanoparticles stability, Badri et al. (2018) investigated the stability of poly (ϵ -caprolactone) based nanoparticles containing *Nigella sativa* EO coupled with indomethacin during one month under three different conditions (4 °C, 25 °C and 40 °C). The samples were analyzed at predefined times and results demonstrated no significant change in either size or zeta potential for all the tested particles. Similarly, the photodegradation study of the lipid-core nanocapsules containing borage oil and betamethasone was carried out to demonstrate the ability of nanocapsules in the photoprotection of the drug. In brief, nanoparticles suspensions were placed in transparent quartz cell and exposed to UVC radiation and the total concentration of drug was quantified. Results revealed a degradation of 61% from the nanocapsules suspension at the end of the experiment (10 h), while 58% of drug was degraded in 2 h from drug solution. This confirmed the property of polymeric wall to protect the bioactive molecules (Weber et al., 2016).

Regarding the scalability and reproducibility of the nanoprecipitation process, it was noticed no significant difference between rosemary EO loaded poly (ϵ -caprolactone) nanocapsules prepared at small and large scales in term of shape, particle size, polydispersity index zeta potential and EE% (Ephrem et al., 2014).

Overall, the nanoprecipitation or solvent displacement method is widely used to develop pNPs for plants oils encapsulation. According to the Table 1, the polymers commonly used to design the polymeric matrix are synthetic polyesters like poly (lactide-co-glycolide) (Esfandiyari-Manesh et al., 2013; Iannitelli et al., 2011; Sousa et al., 2013), poly (ϵ -caprolactone) (Badri et al., 2018; Christofoli et al., 2015; Ephrem et al., 2014; Jummes et al., 2020; Khoobdel et al., 2017), polylactide (Liakos et al., 2016), Eudragit®L100 (Averina and Allémann, 2013), S100 (Averina and Allémann, 2013), L100-55 (Pina-Barrera et al., 2019) and RS100 (El-Asbahani et al., 2015a,b; Froiio et al., 2019). Synthetic polymers are more used than natural ones like chitosan (Luque-Alcaraz et al., 2016; Sotelo-Boyás et al., 2015, 2017a, 2017b) and cellulose derivatives (Liakos et al., 2018; Marchiori et al., 2017) because they have higher purity and better reproducibility. The benefits associated to this encapsulation method are rapidity, simplicity, reproducibility, and scalability. Moreover, NPs with narrow size distribution, high EE% and high stability could be obtained. In addition, the use of surfactant or high production energy is avoided. The main drawback of this method in encapsulating plant oils is the use of organic solvents which may be toxic for health.

5.1.4. Ionic gelation

In order to avoid the use of toxic organic solvent or high shear forces, Calvo et al. (1997) proposed a novel approach called ionic gelation or coacervation. Alginate, an anionic polysaccharide, and chitosan, a cationic polyelectrolyte, are extensively used for ionic gelation purpose. These polyelectrolytes can interact with crosslinking agents like tripolyphosphate having an opposite charge via electrostatic interaction and aggregate into nanoparticles (Yang et al., 2015a). The coacervation consists on the transition from liquid to gel state upon complexation between the oppositely charged molecules at determined pH values leading to the formation of nano-sized particles (Nagavarma et al., 2012) (Fig. 5c). A number of studies have been carried out using this technique to encapsulate plant oils, as displayed in Table 1.

Recently, cinnamon EO-loaded chitosan nanoparticles crosslinked with tripolyphosphate were prepared by using coacervation method and the obtained particles owned small average diameter (80–100 nm) with good zeta potential values (−11.2 to −22.4 mV) (Liu et al., 2017). In addition, cardamom EO was successfully entrapped into chitosan based nanoparticles with an average particle size ranging between 50 and 100

nm, zeta potential more than +50 mV and a high EE% which was more than 90% (Jamil et al., 2016). Furthermore, Woranuch and Yoksan (2013) reported that the thermal stability of eugenol was enhanced by encapsulation in chitosan: tripolyphosphate- nanoparticles. According to some research works depicted in Table 2, the ionic gelation technique may produce microparticles with moderate EE% as compared to the nanoprecipitation process (Feyzioğlu and Tornuk, 2016; López-meneses et al., 2018; Sutaphanit and Chitprasert, 2014; Yang et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2012b).

Currently, several research works have been reported to investigate the effect of pNPs composition and operating conditions on physico-chemical properties of particles prepared by ionic gelation method. The optimization of the type and amount of polymer and crosslinking agent is crucial to develop pNPs with suitable characteristics. In this approach, *Carum copticum* EO-loaded chitosan nanoparticles were prepared by ionic gelation method using two types of crosslinking agents: tripolyphosphate and hexametaphosphate (Esmaili and Asgari, 2015). The efficacy of crosslinking agent type and tripolyphosphate concentration on the EE% were evaluated. The particles prepared using hexametaphosphate (0.5% (w/v)) had significantly lower loading capacity and EE% than those prepared using tripolyphosphate (0.5% (w/v)). This was attributed to the ring structure and bigger size of hexametaphosphate which in turn lead to decrease the crosslinking phenomenon. In the same work, different nanoparticles were prepared using different tripolyphosphate concentrations (0.25, 0.5, 0.75 and 1% (w/v)) and results indicated that maximum EE% was obtained with the concentration of 0.5% (w/v). The low value of EE% obtained with the concentration of 0.25% (w/v) was explained by the shortage of tripolyphosphate concentration to crosslink the nanoparticles; while the low values shown with 0.75 and 1% (w/v) tripolyphosphate concentrations were related to the particle shrinkage (Esmaili and Asgari, 2015).

With respect to the polymer effect, the viscosity of chitosan was optimized for fabrication of vanilla oil loaded microcapsules using the coacervation method (Yang et al., 2014). Results showed that at low chitosan viscosity, no microcapsules were formed because chitosan at low viscosity could not form hard membrane wall. On the other hand, when using high viscosity chitosan, aggregation problem was observed (Yang et al., 2014).

Regarding the EO concentration, Hasheminejad et al. (2019) stated that both particle size and zeta potential decreased significantly when increasing clove EO concentration. The reduction in particle size was explained by the great packing of polymer chains, due to the high number of amino groups in chitosan responsible for the interaction with the oil. Additionally, the thermogravimetric analysis performed by Hosseini et al. (2013) on oregano EO loaded- chitosan nanoparticles demonstrated that as the initial EO content increases from 0.1 to 0.8 g/g chitosan, loading capacity increases too from 3 to 8%, but the EE% decreases from 47 to 21%. This was explained by the saturation of oregano EO loaded into chitosan nanoparticles. The EO concentration was found to affect also the *in vitro* release profile. Indeed, Hosseini and his coworkers reported that low concentration of oregano EO (0.1 g/g chitosan) leads to burst release (82% of encapsulated EO was released from the nanoparticles within 3 h). While, as oregano EO amount increased, the burst effect was dramatically alleviated and the cumulative release was reduced from 82 to 12% after 3 h. This phenomenon was attributed to the fact that chitosan nanoparticles with smaller particle size would have bigger surface-to-volume ratio which may result in fast release of oregano EO adsorbed on their surfaces (Hosseini et al., 2013). Another factor affecting the release profile was found to be the composition of the encapsulated material. In 2014, Dima et al. investigating the release of *Pimenta dioica* EO found that chitosan microspheres covered with k-carrageenan are more fragile and exhibit higher swelling degree with zero order release kinetics, as compared to the chitosan : k-carrageenan microspheres hardened by glutaraldehyde crosslinking which show non-Fickian release mechanism (Dima et al., 2014).

Numerous research works noticed the stability of pNPs produced by

Table 2
Preparation methods for plant oils encapsulation in liposomes with their fine applications.

Encapsulated oil	Plant (origin)	Phospholipid used	Physicochemical properties			Biological properties	Application	Ref.
			Size (nm)	Z.pot (mV)	EE (%)			
Thin hydration method								
Myristica	<i>Myristica fragrans</i> Houtt.	Soybean phospholipid	/	/	/	Antimicrobial, antioxidant	Food	(Zhu et al., 2020)
<i>Ferula gummosa</i>	<i>Ferula gummosa</i> Boiss.	Phospholipid	74.3–99.9	/	/	Antibacterial		(Najafi et al., 2020)
Laurel	<i>Laurelia sempervirens</i> Tul.	L- α -PCH	200	/	/	Antibacterial, antioxidant	Food	(Wu et al., 2020)
Cardamon	<i>Elettaria cardamomum</i> L.	Phospholipid	71.8–147.9	–17.4 to –10.7	< 60	Antimicrobial, antioxidant	Food	(Nahr et al., 2019)
Chrysanthemum	<i>Chrysanthemum pacificum</i> L.	Soybean phospholipid	132.4	–37.6	42.7	Antibacterial	Food	(Lin et al., 2019b)
Sage	<i>Salvia triloba</i> L.	Phospholipon 90G	≈200	–20 to –35	57	Antioxidant, antibacterial Anti-inflammatory	Medicine	(Risaliti et al., 2019)
Rosemary	<i>Rosmarinus officinalis</i> L.	Soybean phospholipid	188.5	–48.38	46.5	Antibacterial	Food	(Cui et al., 2016b)
		L- α -PEA dioleoyl	79	–2.77	45	Anticancer	Medicine	(Salari and Salari, 2019)
		Phospholipon 90G	≈200	–20 to –35	65	Antioxidant; antibacterial Anti-inflammatory	Medicine	(Risaliti et al., 2019)
Garlic	<i>Allium sativum</i> L.	PCH	/	/	/	Preservative	Food	(Alikhani-Koupaei, 2015)
		Soybean PCH	115	–12.36	86.00	Antibacterial, antioxidant	Food	(Nazari et al., 2019)
		Soybean PCH	58	/	97.18	Antimicrobial	/	(Ge & Ge, 2015)
Tea tree	<i>Melaleuca alternifolia</i> Cheel.	Soybean PCH	50–100	/	98.49	Antimicrobial	/	(Ge et al., 2019)
Ajwain	<i>Trachyspermum copticum</i> L.	Soybean PCH	75	–7.45	96.08	Antimicrobial	/	(Ge and Ge, 2016)
		Soybean PCH	170.8	/	85.9	Antimicrobial	Cosmetics	(Tabatabai et al., 2018)
		Soybean phospholipid	182.60	–40.90	35.35	Antibacterial	Food	(Lin et al., 2018)
Thyme	<i>Thymus vulgaris</i> L.	Soybean phospholipid	208.1	–52.2	38.16	Antibacterial	Food	(Cui et al., 2017b)
Eucalyptus	<i>Eucalyptus globulus</i> L'Hér.	Soybean phospholipid	/	/	97.35	Antimicrobial	Medicine	(Tang and Ge, 2017)
	<i>Eucalyptus citriodora</i> L.	Soybean phospholipid	266.56	–33.73	22.47	Antimicrobial	/	(Lin et al., 2019a)
Cineole	/	Egg yolk PCH	128	6.8	67.7	Permeation enhancers	Medicine	(Saffari et al., 2016)
Thymol + Carvacrol	/	Soybean PCH	270.20	+39.99	/	Antibacterial	Food	(Engel et al., 2017)
		L- α -PCH	/	/	/	Antimicrobial	Food	(Lioliou et al., 2009)
<i>Zataria multiflora</i>	<i>Zataria multiflora</i> Boiss.	Soybean PCH	99.9	/	18.4	Antimicrobial	Food Cosmetics	(Khatibi et al., 2017)
Curry	<i>Helichrysum italicum</i> G.	Soybean phospholipid	196.6	–31.1	56.3	Antibacterial	Food	(Cui et al., 2017a)
Limonene	/	Egg yolk PCH	102	6.1	71.0	Permeation enhancers	Medicine	(Saffari et al., 2016)
Cinnamon	<i>Cinnamomum cassia</i> persl.	Soybean phospholipid	144.3	–54.7	29.2	Antibacterial	Medicine	(Cui et al., 2016a)
Clove	<i>Syzygium aromaticum</i> L.	Soybean phospholipid	149	–24.5	20.4	Antibacterial	Food	(Cui et al., 2015)
<i>Bergamot</i>	<i>Monarda didyma</i> L.	Phospholipid	185.1	–2.95	75.0	Anticancer	Medicine	(Celia et al., 2013)
Bergapten	/	Phospholipid	185.1	–2.95	75.0	Anticancer	Medicine	(Celia et al., 2013)
Macassar kernels	<i>Brucea javanica</i> L.	Phospholipid	108.2	–57.0	92.4	Anticancer	Medicine	(Cui et al., 2010)
Dill	<i>Anethum graveolens</i> L.	PCH	/	/	98	Antimicrobial	/	(Ortan et al., 2009)
<i>Zanthoxylum tingoassuiba</i>	<i>Zanthoxylum tingoassuiba</i> L.	1,2-Dipalmitoyl PCH	210–3630	/	68.5–79.2	Anticancer	Medicine	(Detoni et al., 2012)
Sterol	/	PCH	< 200	–9 to –14	>89	Antioxidant	Food	(Poudel et al., 2019)
DHA	/	1,2-Dipalmitoyl PCH	99	–15.7	81.4	Anticancer; anti-inflammatory	Medicine	(Alaarg et al., 2016)
		/	/	/	38.6	Anticancer; anti-inflammatory	Medicine	(Hadian et al., 2014)
EPA	/	1,2-Dipalmitoyl PCH	/	/	56.9	Anticancer; anti-inflammatory	Medicine	(Hadian et al., 2014)
EPA + DHA	/	/	<100	–48.4	/	/	Medicine	

(continued on next page)

Table 2 (continued)

Encapsulated oil	Plant (origin)	Phospholipid used	Physicochemical properties			Biological properties	Application	Ref.
			Size (nm)	Z.pot (mV)	EE (%)			
		Soybean phospholipid				Anticancer; anti-inflammatory		(Rasti et al., 2012)
Solvent injection method								
Anethole	/	Lipoid S100	/	/	/	Antibacterial	/	(Auezova et al., 2020)
Cinnamaldehyde	/	Egg yolk phospholipid	1000–2500	/	/	Antimicrobial	/	(Wang et al., 2019)
Isoeugenol	/	Lipoid S100	/	/	96.4	/	/	(Hammoud et al., 2019)
Pulegone	/	Lipoid S100	/	/	90.5	/	/	(Hammoud et al., 2019)
Terpineol	/	Lipoid S100	/	/	73.7	/	/	(Hammoud et al., 2019)
Thymol	/	Lipoid S100	/	/	79.1	/	/	(Hammoud et al., 2019)
Estragole	/	Lipoid S100	/	/	90.9	/	/	(Hammoud et al., 2019)
Eucalyptol	/	Lipoid S100	/	/	61.9	/	/	(Hammoud et al., 2019)
Black seed	<i>Nigella sativa</i> L.	Egg yolk PCH	50–900	/	34–87	Analgesic	Medicine	(Rushmi et al., 2017)
Garlic	<i>Allium sativum</i> L.	Phospholipid	131.7	/	64.3	Antimicrobial	Food	(Zabihhi et al., 2017)
Galangal	<i>Alpinia officinarum</i> L.	Phospholipid	61.9	–16	/	Antimicrobial; antioxidant	Medicine	(Liu et al., 2016)
		Phospholipid	125.6	–35.5	35.6	Antimicrobial; antioxidant	Medicine	(Cao et al., 2016)
Clove	<i>Syzygium aromaticum</i> L.	Phospholipon 90H	/	/	54.2–59.7	Anti-inflammatory	Medicine	(Sebaaly et al., 2016a)
		Phospholipid	/	/	/	Anti-inflammatory	Medicine	(Sebaaly et al., 2015b)
Eugenol	/	Lipoid S100	74.6	/	24.2	Anti-cancer	Medicine	(Mishra et al., 2019)
		Phospholipon 90H	/	/	63.1–63.5	Anti-inflammatory	Medicine	(Sebaaly et al., 2016a)
		Phospholipid S75	58.6	/	59.2	Antibacterial	Food	(Peng et al., 2015)
		Phospholipid	/	/	/	Anti-inflammatory	Medicine	(Sebaaly et al., 2015b)
Linseed oil + quercetin	<i>Linum usitatissimum</i> L.	Soybean phospholipid	262.2	/	/	Source of PUFA	Food	(Huang et al., 2020)
Coix seed oil + B-carotene	<i>Coix lacryma-jobi</i> L.	Egg yolk PCH	156.7–193.1	–47.8 to –32.4	80.8 – 83.8	Anticancer	Medicine	(Bai et al., 2019a)
Linoleic acid	/	Soybean PCH	266	/	83.3	/	Food	(Vélez et al., 2019)
Heating method								
Sterol	/	Soybean phospholipid	>200	–9 to –14	>89	Antioxidant	Food	(Poudel et al., 2019)
EPA + DHA	/	Soybean phospholipid	<200	–48.3	/	/	/	(Rasti et al., 2012)

EPA: Eicosapentaenoic acid; DHA: Docosahexaenoic acid; PUFA: Polyunsaturated fatty acids; PCH: phosphatidylcholine; PEA: phosphatidylethanolamine.

ionic gelation method. In 2014, Sutaphanit et al. reported that the encapsulation of holy basil EO into gelatin by simple coacervation method could prevent its volatility and oxidation (Sutaphanit and Chitprasert, 2014). Indeed, the particles stored under accelerated conditions at 60 °C for 49 days exhibited small decreases in the holy basil EO retention rate and antioxidant activity (Sutaphanit and Chitprasert, 2014). Moreover, the stability studies performed on peppermint oil loaded capsules showed that only 7% of the oil was released during the storage of 40 days in cold water (Dong et al., 2011). In another work study, jasmine EO nanoparticles exhibited high heat-stability against humid heat (80 °C for 7 h) (Lv et al., 2014).

On the whole, ionic gelation method is broadly used to encapsulate plants oils when compared to simple emulsion evaporation method. Gelatin (Devi et al., 2012; Dong et al., 2011; Sutaphanit and Chitprasert, 2014; Zhang et al., 2012b), arabic gum (Dong et al., 2011; Lv et al., 2014; Yang et al., 2015b; Zhang et al., 2012b), alginate (Devi et al., 2012; Natrajan et al., 2015) and chitosan (Feysioglu and Tornuk, 2016; Hosseini et al., 2013; Jamil et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2017; López-meneses

et al., 2018) are the most commonly used wall materials. In addition, tripolyphosphate (Hasheminejad et al., 2019; Hosseini et al., 2013; Hu et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2017; Woranuch and Yoksan, 2013) and glutaraldehyde (Devi et al., 2012; Dima et al., 2014; Natrajan et al., 2015; Sutaphanit and Chitprasert, 2014) are widely used as crosslinking agents. The main advantages of ionic gelation method are, in particular; the avoidance of high shear forces and the use of aqueous solvents instead of organic ones. Moreover, ionic gelation is simple, economic and reproducible. However, moderate EE% and larger particle size were assessed using this method as compared to the nanoprecipitation technique.

5.2. Encapsulation in lipid based nanocarriers

5.2.1. Liposomes

Liposomes were first developed for drug delivery purposes by Bangham et al. in 1965 (1965). Liposomes are vesicles formed by one or more lipid bilayers defining one or several aqueous compartments. They

can be classified depending on their size and lamellarity to: i) small unilamellar vesicles (SUV) with a size between 20 nm and 100 nm, ii) large unilamellar vesicles (LUV) with a size greater than 100 nm and iii) multilamellar vesicles (MLV) with a size greater than 0.5 μm , as demonstrated in Fig. 6 (El-Asbahani et al., 2015a,b). Generally, the liposome bilayer consists of natural and/or synthetic phospholipids like phosphatidylcholine, phosphatidylethanolamine, phosphatidylserine, phosphatidylglycerol and phosphatidylinositol. Cholesterol may also be incorporated to the lipidic bilayer to reduce the permeability of water-soluble molecules through the membrane and improve its fluidity, and stability (Laouini et al., 2012). Due to the lipophilic character of the liposome bilayer, plant oils like essential or vegetable oils are highly entrapped to enhance their bioavailability and hurdle their physico-chemical instability upon exposure to light, oxygen and temperature (El-Asbahani et al., 2015a,b). Several methods have been used to develop liposomes containing plants oils, while the thin film hydration, solvent injection and heating methods were widely used in the last decade.

5.2.1.1. Thin lipid film hydration. Thin lipid film hydration or thin membrane hydration is the first process which was initially used for liposomes production (Bangham et al., 1965). A mixture of lipid ingredients was dispersed in organic solvent in a round-bottom flask. Subsequent evaporation of the organic solvent was performed using a rotary evaporator at reduced pressure. Finally, the hydration of the formed lipid film by water or buffer solution under agitation at temperature above the lipid transition temperature allows the formation of MLVs dispersion (Fig. 6a) (Laouini et al., 2012). Liposome size reduction techniques, such as sonication or extrusion were applied to ensure size

reduction and particles uniformity (Patil and Jadhav, 2014). Thin hydration method was extensively used to develop plant oils-loaded liposomes, as illustrated in Table 2.

Regarding the size of liposomes prepared by this method, several work studies reported a small average diameter with a spherical shape. Cui et al. (2015) revealed that clove EO loaded-liposomes had small size of 149.2 nm, a high zeta potential (-24.5 mV) with an entrapment efficiency of 20.41%, for 5.0 mg/mL clove oil concentration. Accordingly, Cui et al. (2016a,b) used the same method to limit the volatility of salvia EO by encapsulation in soy lecithin/cholesterol based liposomes. Atomic force microscopy images showed that the obtained liposomes were spherical in shape, uniformly dispersed without any aggregation with an average size ranging from 100 to 700 nm. Furthermore, bergamot EO and its fraction (bergapten) were entrapped in phospholipids based-liposomes using thin lipid hydration process (Celia et al., 2013). The prepared liposomes had an average size of 188.25 and 185.14 nm, a zeta potential of -2.95 and -2.57 mV and a high EE% of 75.0 and 77.0% for bergamot EO and its fraction, respectively (Celia et al., 2013).

Several authors have compared the size of empty liposomes to EO-loaded liposomes prepared by thin hydration method. Ge and his coworker (2016) revealed a significant difference in the average size between empty- and *Melaleuca alternifolia* EO loaded-liposomes. Empty liposomes had an average size of 142 nm, while loaded liposomes were smaller with size around 75 nm. Similar results were found by Yoshida et al. (Yoshida et al., 2010). Risaliti et al. (2019) attributed this to the high cohesion package of oil components to the bilayer constituents. On the other hand, Detoni et al. (2012) reported no difference in liposomes size between empty and *Zanthoxylum tingoassuiba* EO-loading MLVs and

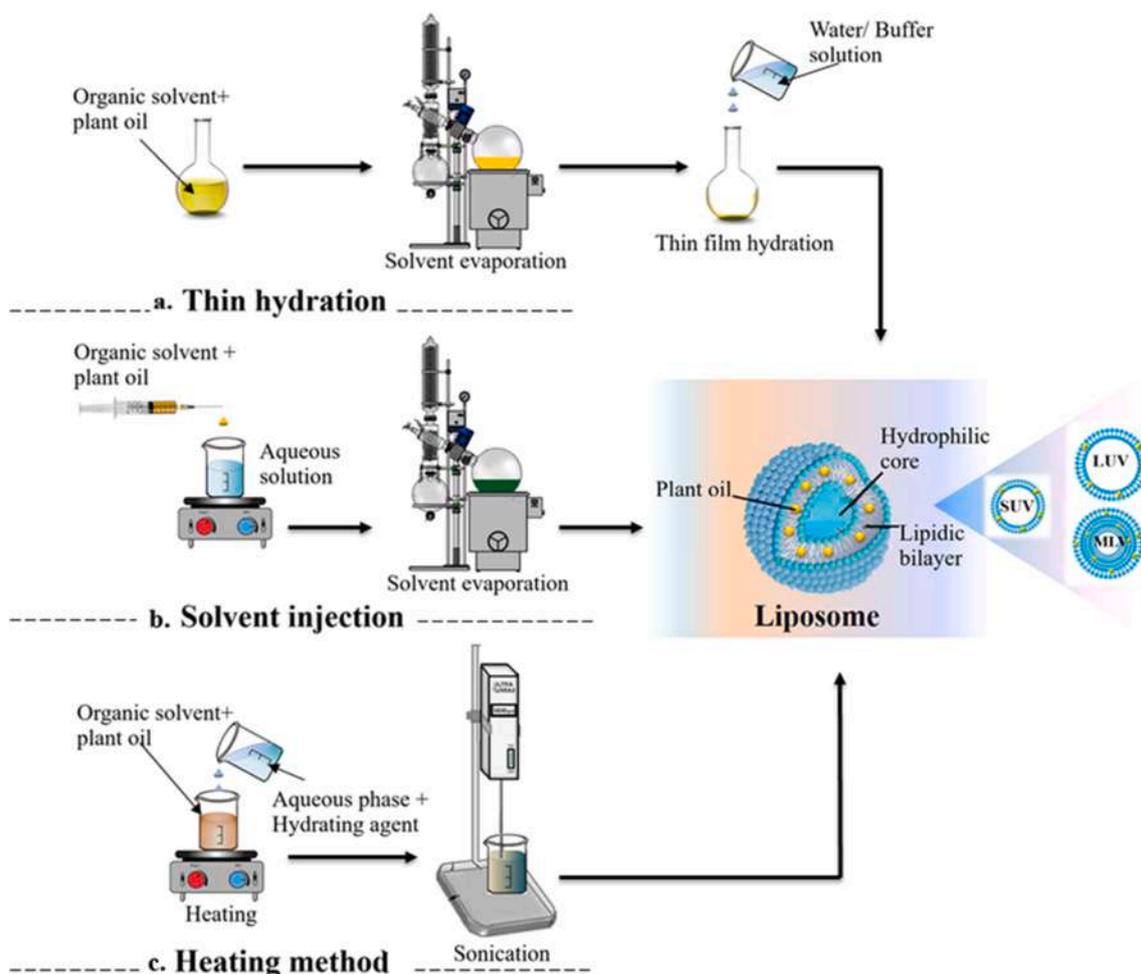


Fig. 6. Schematic illustration of the techniques used to produce liposomes.

SUVs, respectively. Moreover, nerolidol- and cyclodextrin/nerolidol-loaded liposomes prepared by thin lipid hydration method showed larger mean particle size than blank liposomes (Azzi et al., 2018). Cui et al. studying the encapsulation of curry EO in liposomes, revealed that the oil concentration had a positive effect on vesicles size (Cui et al., 2017a). For instance, the vesicles size was increased from 103.86 to 257.36 nm as a consequence of an increase in the oil concentration from 2.0 to 6.0 mg/ml. Similar behavior was pointed for the encapsulation of cinnamon EO in soy lecithin/cholesterol based liposomes prepared by thin hydration method (Cui et al., 2016a). Accompanying the increase of cinnamon oil concentration from 3.0 to 6.0 mg/mL, the vesicles size was progressively increased from 133 to 157 nm. Similar results were also reported when increasing cardamom EO (Nahr et al., 2019), thyme EO (Cui et al., 2017b) and chrysanthemum EO (Lin et al., 2019b).

The liposome size was not only affected by the EO concentration. In fact, Nazari et al., (2019) developing garlic EO nanophytosomes by thin hydration method, investigated the effect of the preparation method. For instance, nanophytosomes were a novel lipid based vesicular delivery systems where stable hydrogen bonds are formed between the phosphatidylcholine molecules and nutraceuticals leading to the formation of stable complex (Ghanbarzadeh et al., 2016). In this study, MLVs reduction size was performed using three different types of methods: sonication, homogenization and the combination of sonication and homogenization. Results showed that the combination of two methods produced the smallest liposomes (115 nm) with transparent suspension view. Homogenization produced larger particles than probe sonication method and the average size was around 161 and 135 nm, respectively. Considering the zeta potential, all the prepared phytosomes had lower values (−12.36 to −3.86 mV) than the expected and reported values for soy bean phosphatidylcholine made nanovesicular systems (around −26 mV). This was linked to the interaction between the positively charged alliin (the main component of garlic EO) and the negatively charged phosphate group of phosphatidylcholine (Nazari et al., 2019). In another work study, Salari and Salari (2019) developing rosemary EO loaded- L- α -phosphatidylethanolamine dioleoyl : cholesterol hemisuccinate liposomes found that sonication method produced smaller liposome than filtration method. The average sizes were 142.5 and 437.2 nm, respectively. Results showed also that increasing the lipid ratio of L- α -phosphatidylethanolamine dioleoyl to cholesterol hemisuccinate from 3:2 to 7:3 resulted in much larger liposomes with more negative zeta potential.

As there are several types of phospholipids, it is reliable to alter the size, charge and EE%, upon variation of type or addition of new ingredients to the lipid mixture. In this approach, the effect of lipid composition on the EE% of *Anethum graveolens* EO-loaded liposomes was investigated by Ortan et al., 2009. Liposomes with different lipids; fresh egg yolk, dimiristroylphosphatidyl choline, dipalmitoylphosphatidyl choline, dimiristroylphosphatidyl glycerol and dioleoylphosphatidyl choline, were prepared by thin hydration method. Results showed that oil entrapment varied in this way: dimiristroylphosphatidyl glycerol (55.2%) < dimiristroylphosphatidyl choline (58.9%) < dioleoylphosphatidyl choline (77%) < dipalmitoylphosphatidyl choline (97%) < fresh egg yolk (98%). Although dipalmitoylphosphatidyl choline showed good entrapment efficiency, its use was difficult as it required high temperature due to its high transition temperature. The authors related the low values of EE% of dioleoylphosphatidyl choline, dimiristroylphosphatidyl glycerol and dimiristroylphosphatidyl choline to their unsaturation.

In addition to the factors mentioned above, other parameters may affect the physicochemical properties of liposomes prepared by thin hydration process. In this context, Plackett–Burman design was applied in order to investigate the effect of the mass ratio of phosphatidylcholine and cholesterol, tree tea EO concentration, tween 80 concentration, hydration medium pH, temperature, sonication time and power on physicochemical properties of tree tea EO-loaded liposomes (Ge & Ge, 2015). Results revealed that only three factors (the ratio of

phosphatidylcholine and cholesterol, EO concentration and tween 80) exhibited a significant impact on the entrapment efficiency of tree tea EO. Increasing the lipid ratio with EO amount and decreasing tween 80 had a positive effect on EO encapsulation efficiency. Good EE% (97.18%) was obtained with the following parameters: the mass ratio of fresh egg yolk and cholesterol (5:51); EO concentration (1.21%); tween 80 concentration (0.79%); pH 7.4; temperature (55 °C); sonication time (15 min) and sonication power (300w) (Ge & Ge, 2015).

Regarding the stability of EO loaded in liposomes, Liolios et al. (2009) investigated the oxidative stability of carvacrol and thymol isolated from *Origanum dictamnus* L. EO and their mixtures, before and after their encapsulation in egg L- α phosphatidylcholine/cholesterol-based liposomes by differential scanning calorimetry analysis. Results showed the appearance of exothermic peaks related to the auto-oxidation process of the samples. The onset temperatures at which the auto-oxidation process starts were in the following order: Carvacrol (258 °C) < Thymol (273 °C) < Carvacrol : Thymol (302 °C) < Empty liposomes (362 °C) < Liposomes + Carvacrol : Thymol (392 °C). One can conclude that carvacrol and thymol presented better antioxidant action when encapsulated than when in pure form. The antioxidant activity of empty liposomes is lower than that of oil loaded- liposome, suggesting that the liposome membranes were stabilized by the link of the lipophilic compounds with lipid bilayers (Liolios et al., 2009).

Beyond EO, liposomes can potentially enable the encapsulation of VO and their derivatives, as illustrated in Table 3. Recently, numerous studies have been investigated to encapsulate fatty acids in liposomes. Among the several polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs), dietary ω 3 like eicosapentaenoic and docosahexaenoic acids have been extensively investigated for their beneficial effects (Hadian, 2016). Alaarg et al. (2016) developed docosahexaenoic acid- loaded liposomes by thin hydration method. The obtained liposomes exhibited small average diameter around 100 nm, narrow size distributions, negative zeta potential (15.7 \pm 2.5mv) and high EE% of 81.35%. Moreover, eicosapentaenoic and docosahexaenoic acids were entrapped in nanoliposomes (i.e. nanoscale lipid vesicles) developed by thin hydration followed by either extrusion ultrasonic irradiation; bath sonication; probe sonication; or combined probe and bath sonication (Hadian et al., 2014). Results showed that probe sonication produced liposomes with higher EE% for both investigated fatty acids. Results displayed also that EE% differs from a VO to another for liposomes prepared in the same experimental conditions. Indeed, the EE% value was higher for docosahexaenoic acid than for eicosapentaenoic acid. This was ascribed to the fact that docosahexaenoic acid may change the physical properties of 1, 2-dipalmitoyl-*sn*-glycero-3-phosphocholine bilayer, as it would provide a tightly pack conformation because of the coiled configuration (Hadian et al., 2014).

In overall, thin hydration method is widely employed to develop plant oils loaded liposomes due to its simplicity. Several phospholipids are used in the literature including soybean phosphatidylcholine (Ge & Ge, 2016; Ge & Ge, 2015; Khatibi et al., 2017; Nazari et al., 2019; Rasti et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2015), dipalmitoyl phosphatidylcholine (Detoni et al., 2012), egg phosphatidylcholine (Saffari et al., 2016), phospholipon®90G (Risaliti et al., 2019). Cholesterol is the most used fluidifying agent (Alikhani-Koupaei, 2015; Cui et al., 2017b; Cui et al., 2010; Ge & Ge, 2016; Ge & Ge, 2015; Khatibi et al., 2017; Lin et al., 2018; Lin et al., 2019a; Wang et al., 2015); in other cases, tween 80 (Ge et al., 2019; Ge & Ge, 2016; Ge & Ge, 2015; Lin et al., 2019a) and poly vinyl pyrrolidone (Cui et al., 2017a, 2017b, 2016a, 2016b, 2015; Lin et al., 2019b, 2018) were incorporated as surfactants.

Using this method, heterogeneous vesicles of large sizes may be produced which requires additional steps like sonication and extrusion to reduce and homogenize the vesicle size and thus, the process consumes more time. Besides, thin hydration method is difficult to scale up and requires organic solvents which in turn represent the major drawback. In fact, their residues may remain in the final liposome preparation resulting in potential toxicity and reduced stability of the lipid vesicles

Table 3

Preparation methods for plant oils encapsulation in solid lipid nanoparticles and nanostructured lipid carriers with their fine applications.

Encapsulated oil	Plant (origin)	Lipid used	Physicochemical properties			Biological properties	Application	Ref.
			Size (nm)	Z.pot (mV)	EE (%)			
Solid lipid nanoparticles								
High pressure homogenization								
Carvacrol	/	Cocoa butter	/	/	/	Antioxidant	Medicine	(Carvalho et al., 2020)
Geranial	/	Monoterpene Imwitor® 900 K	120.1	0	/	/	/	(Zielińska et al., 2020)
Ziziphora	<i>Ziziphora clinopodioides</i>	Perciol ATO5 Campritol 888	241.1	-22.6	93	Insecticide	Agriculture	(Jajarm et al., 2020)
Eugenol	/	Caprylic triglyceride	332	-18.7	91.8	Anticancer	Medicine	(Garg and Singh, 2011)
	/	Stearic acid						
	/	Hydrogenated palm oil	164.5–172.9	/	/	Antifungal	Food	(McDaniel et al., 2019)
	/	Coconut oil						
Thymol	/	Hydrogenated palm oil	166.4–170.5	/	/	Antifungal	Food	(McDaniel et al., 2019)
Cinnamaldehyde	/	Coconut oil	198.0–202.1					
Sclareol	/	Compritol	128	-29.3	/	Treatment of metabolic disorder	Medicine	(Cerri et al., 2019)
Chamomile	<i>Matricaria chamomilla</i> L.	Stearic acid	542	-35.9	/	Wound healing	Cosmetics	(Gad et al., 2019)
α-pinene	/	Imwitor® 900 K	136.7	/	/	Antimicrobial, antioxidant	/	(Zielińska et al., 2019)
		Monoterpene Imwitor® 900 K	89.7	0	/	/	/	(Zielińska et al., 2020)
Citral	/	Glyceryl monostearate	215.4	/	/	Flavoring agent	Food	(Tian et al., 2018)
		Monoterpene Imwitor® 900 K	125.4	0	/	/	/	(Zielińska et al., 2020)
Gac fruit EO	<i>Momordica cochinchinensis</i> L.	Emulgade	200	/	90	Antioxidant; Anti-aging Skin tanning, skin care and skin protection	Cosmetics	(Mai et al., 2018)
Frankincense + Myhrr oil	<i>Commiphora myrrha</i> L.	Compritol888 ATO	113.3	-16.8	80–60	Antitumor	Medicine	(Wang, 2012)
Copaiba oil	<i>Copaifera officinalis</i> L.	Cetyl palmitate	126.06	/	/	Antifungal	Cosmetics	(Svetlichny et al., 2015)
Copaiba oil + Allantoin	<i>Copaifera officinalis</i> L.	Cetyl palmitate	118.63	/	/	Antifungal	Cosmetics	(Svetlichny et al., 2015)
Ultrasonication method								
Zataria multiflora	<i>Zataria multiflora</i> Boiss.	Precirol ATO 5 Stearic acid	220–486	-37.8 to	85.3–95.2	Fungicide Pesticide	Food	(Nasseri et al., 2020)
		Glyceryl monostearate		-27.2			Medicine	
		Glyceryl monostearate	255.5	-37.8	84	Antifungal	Medicine	(Nasseri et al., 2016)
β-elemene	/	Precirol®ATO 5						
		Glyceryl monostearate	128.4	-3.07	/	Antitumor	Medicine	(He et al., 2019)
		Glyceryl tristearate						
Clove	<i>Syzygium aromaticum</i> L.	Precirol®ATO 5 Stearic acid	397.2	-20.9	/	Antimicrobial	Medicine	(Bazzaz et al., 2018)
		Glyceryl monostearate						
Linalool	/	Myristyl myristate Cetyl esters Cetyl palmitate	90–130	-4	>80	Anticancer	Medicine	(Rodenak-Kladniew et al., 2017)
Eugenol	/	Stearic acid/Compritol	363– 423	/	/	Antifungal	Medicine	(Garg and Singh, 2013)
		Stearic acid Caprylic triglyceride	87.7	-19.2	98.5	Antifungal	Medicine	(Garg and Singh, 2011)
Coconut	<i>Cocos nucifera</i> L.	Stearic acid	608	-47.5	99.9	Moisturizing lotion	Cosmetics	(Noor et al., 2013)
Nanostructured lipid carriers								
High pressure homogenization								
Cinnamon	<i>Cinnamomum cassia</i> persl.	Cocoa butter Almond oil	100–120	-14.9 to	>82.1	Antimicrobial, antioxidant	Food	(Bashiri et al., 2020b)
				-17.5				
Sucupira	<i>Pterodon emarginatus</i> L.	Imwitor® 900 K	148.1	/	99.9	Antidiabetic	Medicine	(Vieira et al., 2020)
Squaw mint	<i>Mentha pulegium</i> L.	Tripalmitin						
		Precirol®ATO 5	40–250	-10 to	/	Wound healing	Cosmetics	(Khezri et al., 2020)
		Miglyol®812		-15				
Rosemary	<i>Rosmarinus officinalis</i> L.	Precirol®ATO 5	100–250	-15.7	92.1	Wound healing	Cosmetics	(Khezri et al., 2019)
		Miglyol®812						
Peppermint	<i>Mentha piperita</i> L.	Precirol®ATO 5	40–250	-10 to	/	Wound healing	Cosmetics	(Ghodrati et al., 2019)
		Miglyol®812		-15				
Clove	<i>Syzygium aromaticum</i> L.	Beeswax Coconut oil	121–367	/	≈60	Cholinesterase enzyme inhibition	Medicine	(de Meneses et al., 2019)
<i>Ridolfia segetum</i>	<i>Ridolfia segetum</i> L.	Precirol®ATO 5	143	16.3	100		Medicine	

(continued on next page)

Table 3 (continued)

Encapsulated oil	Plant (origin)	Lipid used	Physicochemical properties			Biological properties	Application	Ref.
			Size (nm)	Z.pot (mV)	EE (%)			
B-elemene	/	Glycerol monostearate Glyceryl monolinoleate Oleoyle macroglycerides	138.9	-20.2	82.11	Antioxidant; anti-inflammatory Antitumor	Medicine	(Miranda et al., 2019) (Shi et al., 2013)
Thymoquinone	/	Hydrogenated palm oil Olive oil Lipoid®S100	75	-31	/	Antiulcer	Medicine	(Sidding et al., 2013)
Sunflower Crambe Canola	<i>Helianthus annuus</i> L. <i>Crambe maritima</i> L. <i>Brassica napus</i> L.	Sunflower oil Crambe oil Canola oil	48.23–342.10	-22.3 to – 29.7	/	Source of phytosterols	Food	(Santos et al., 2019)
Pomegranate seed Wheat germ Blackcurrant seed Sesame Carrot root	<i>Punica granatum</i> L. <i>Triticum aestivum</i> L. <i>Ribes nigrum</i> L. <i>Sesamum indicum</i> L. <i>Daucus carota</i> subsp. Sativus	Glycerol monostearate Emulgade	108–145	34.4 to – 44.3	51 – 70	Antioxidant UVA protector	Cosmetics	(Badea et al., 2015)
Raspberry seed Rice bran Olive	<i>Rubus idaeus</i> L. <i>Oryza sativa</i> L. <i>Olea europaea</i> L.	Hydrogenated palm oil	61.14	-25.4	/	Source of PUFA	Medicine	(How et al., 2013)
Grape seed + Laurel	<i>Vitis vinifera</i> L.	n-Hexadecyl palmitate Glycerol monostearate Myritol®318	< 150	/	/	Antitumor; antioxidant	Medicine	(Lacatusu et al., 2015)
Ultrasonication method								
Cinnamon	<i>Cinnamomum cassia</i> persl.	Cocoa butter	119.4	+21.4	84.6	Antioxidant	Food	(Bashiri et al., 2020a)
<i>Lippia sidoides</i>	<i>Lippia sidoides</i> L.	Gelucire® Labrasol®	214.4–423.2	-40.6 to – 23.0	/	Antifungal	/	(Baldim et al., 2019)
Carvacrol + Astaxanthin Eucalyptus	/	Lecithin Beeswax Olive oil	58.8 50 – 60	-36 -22.07	Asta = 95 Car = 88 101.7	Antioxidant Antibiofilm Wound healing	Medicine Cosmetics	(Shakeri et al., 2019) (Saporito et al., 2018)
Peppermint	<i>Mentha piperita</i> L.	Miglyol-812 Precirol-ATO 5	40–250	-10 to -15	93.2	Wound healing	Cosmetics	(Ghodrati et al., 2019)
Cardamon	<i>Elettaria cardamomum</i> L.	Cocoa butter Olive oil	<150	/	>90	Antimicrobial	Food	(Nahr et al., 2018)
Thymol	/	Illipe butter Calendula oil	107.7	-11.6	89.1	Anti-inflammatory Antipsoriatic	Cosmetics	(Pivetta et al., 2018)
Houttuynia cordata	<i>Houttuynia cordata</i> Thunb.	Glyceryl behenate	171	-19.3	90.20	Treatment of pneumonia, respiratory and urinary tract infections	Medicine	(Zhao et al., 2017)
Pomegranate seed	<i>Punica granatum</i> L.	Propolis Beeswax	71.4–366.3	-18.3 to – 27.2	96–99	Antioxidant	Food	(Soleimani et al., 2018)
Blackcurrant Blackberry Raspberry Strawberry Plum	<i>Ribes nigrum</i> L. <i>Rubus fruticosus</i> L. <i>Rubus idaeus</i> L. <i>Fragaria ananassa</i> Duchesne. <i>Prunus domestica</i> L.	Myverol RX GMS 95P Chemal EO-20	/	/	/	Source of PUFA	Medicine	(Krasodomka et al., 2016)

(Cortesi et al., 1999; Vemuri and Rhodes, 1995).

5.2.1.2. Solvent injection. The solvent injection method, firstly described in 1973 (Batzri and Korn, 1973), implies the dissolution of the lipid into an organic phase such as ethanol or ether, followed by the injection of the lipid solution into aqueous solution resulting in liposomes dispersion (Laouini et al., 2012). After that, the organic solvent was evaporated under reduced pressure (Fig. 6b). This technique is widely used for plant oil encapsulation, as demonstrated in Table 2. The solvent injection' main feature is that narrow size distribution of sub-micron liposomes (under 100 nm) could be produced without extrusion or sonication (Stano et al., 2004). Moreover, compared with thin hydration method, the ethanol injection technique was found to be scalable. In fact, clove EO-liposomes were successfully scaled-up using a membrane contactor (600 mL) and a pilot plant (3L) (Sebaaly et al.,

2015a). Furthermore, various eugenol- and clove EO-liposomes were prepared at laboratory (ethanol injection) and large scale (membrane contactor): free hydroxypropyl- β -cyclodextrin loaded liposomes; drug in hydroxypropyl- β -cyclodextrin in liposomes (DCL) and DCL₂ obtained by double loading technique, where the drug is added in the organic phase and the inclusion complex in the aqueous phase (Sebaaly et al., 2016a). Results showed that eugenol and clove EO loaded DCL and DCL₂ developed at large scale had a mean size similar to those obtained by laboratory scale. Besides, Eugenol and clove EO loaded DCL and DCL₂ had a mean particle size significantly smaller than that of free hydroxypropyl- β -cyclodextrin liposomes containing either eugenol or clove EO at both laboratory and large scales. This was explained by the complete incorporation of the aromatic cycle of eugenol inside the hydrophobic cavity of hydroxypropyl- β -cyclodextrin, resulting in limit interaction between eugenol and lipidic bilayers. Regarding the polydispersity

index and zeta potential, no difference was assessed between all the tested liposomes.

Currently, several studies have been reported to investigate the effect of liposome composition and operating conditions on physicochemical properties of liposomes prepared by ethanol injection method (Hammoud et al., 2019; Rushmi et al., 2017; Sebaaly et al., 2016b). The effect of oil concentration, injection rate, stirring speed on the average diameter of black seed oil-liposomes was studied (Rushmi et al., 2017). Results showed that liposomes decrease in size from 520.70 to 51.48 nm after oil incorporation. As the concentration of oil increases from 0.17 to 0.67% v/v, liposomes size reduced significantly due to the antioxidant activity of the oil which could decrease phospholipid bilayer oxidation, preventing liposomes growth; while, no change in average size of liposomes was noticed upon further increase in oil (0.67% v/v). Thus, the oil concentration of 0.67% v/v was found to be optimum for its antioxidant activity. Results showed also that small sized liposomes were formed under 1 mL/min injection rate and 2200 rpm stirring speed. Low injection rates result in faster lipids oxidation while high rates may cause a variable distribution of particle size. Similar results were already reported (Sebaaly et al., 2016b). In regards of the phospholipid:cholesterol ratio effect, the EE% was improved from 39.8 to 49.9% after increasing the ratio of egg extract to cholesterol from 3:1 to 3:2 (Rushmi et al., 2017). This was related to the fact that cholesterol may reduce the flexibility and mobility of lipidic layer which in turn lead to enhance liposomes stability. Moreover, another study performed by Hammoud et al. (2019) spotlighted that the type of encapsulated EO affects significantly the phospholipid and cholesterol incorporation rates into the lipid layer. Lower phospholipids incorporation rates were observed when encapsulating isoeugenol, pulegone or thymol. While, high cholesterol incorporation rates were measured in presence of estragole or terpineole. Additionally, the oil entrapment efficiency was found to be affected by the chemical structure of encapsulated EO. In fact, EO bearing hydroxyl groups in their structure are more greatly to fluidize the lipid layer than those without a hydroxyl group leading to higher EE%. The authors concluded that EO bearing hydroxyl groups had low aqueous solubility with low Henry constant value and higher liposomal EE% (Hammoud et al., 2019).

Regarding the stability of liposomes prepared by ethanol injection process, Liu et al. (2016) investigated the stability of galanga EO-loaded liposomes at low temperature (4 °C) and dark conditions and results revealed minor change in mean particle size and polydispersity index. Furthermore, the photostability of eugenol in aqueous solution and in liposome formulations (Phospholipon 80H, Phospholipon 90H and Lipoid S100) was investigated under UV light irradiation for 96 h (Sebaaly et al., 2015b). Results revealed that liposomes formulations protect eugenol more than aqueous solutions. The percentages of remaining eugenol were 58, 82, 91 and 95% for aqueous solution, Phospholipon 80H-, 90H- and S100-liposomes, respectively. The highest value of remaining eugenol for lipoid S100 was related to the flexibility of the membrane resulting in a deep insertion of eugenol into the lipid bilayer leading to better protection from any UV light effect (Sebaaly et al., 2015b).

Despite using ethanol injection for EO encapsulation in liposomes, a few reports have been published during the last decade regarding the encapsulation of VO. Recently, Huang et al. (2020) developed co-loaded linseed oil with quercetin in liposomes with the aim of enhancing their solubility and stability. The produced liposomes owned a spherical shape with a small average size (262.2 nm). In 2019, Bai and his co-workers investigated the effect of different coix seed oil: β -carotene ratios on the physicochemical properties, stability and antioxidant activity of coix seed oil : β -carotene co-loaded-liposomes (Bai et al., 2019a). Results showed that by increasing coix seed oil, the EE% of β -carotene in the liposomes decreased. The values of EE% for 1:1, 1:5, and 1:10, β -carotene:coix seed oil liposomes were 83.8, 81.3, and 80.8%, respectively, which were slightly lower than that of liposomes containing β -carotene alone (86.0%). This was ascribed to the ability of coix seed oil

to compete for the available hydrophobic domains within the phospholipid bilayers.

To sum up, ethanol injection method is widely employed for plant oils encapsulation as it is simple, easy to scalable and it does not require any additional process for vesicle size reduction. According to the previous work studies, phospholipon ®90H (Sebaaly et al., 2016a, 2016b), phospholipon ®80H (Sebaaly et al., 2016b), lipoid ® S100 (Hammoud et al., 2019; Sebaaly et al., 2016b) and egg phospholipids (Bai et al., 2019a; Rushmi et al., 2017) are widely used as bilayer forming lipids. Ethanol injection method suffers from several drawbacks including continuous exposure of plant oils to high temperature and organic solvents which may affect both the safety and stability of the liposomes (Nkanga et al., 2019).

5.2.1.3. Heating method. The heating method, called also Mozafari method, was first developed in 2005. It is known to be the most attractive method for liposomes preparation due to its organic solvent/detergents free characteristics (Mozafari & Mortazavi, 2005). In this technique, lipids are hydrated in the presence of hydrating agent (glycerin or propylene glycol) and heated at 40–120 °C (at the temperature which is above the transition temperature of the phospholipids) depending on the properties of the ingredients, the presence or absence of cholesterol, and the type of material to be entrapped (Fig. 6c) (Mozafari et al., 2008).

Currently, Mozafari method is widely used to encapsulate VO and polyunsaturated fatty acids (Table 2). When compared to thin hydration process, Mozafari method produce liposomes with higher stability. Rasti et al. (2012) investigated the difference between the oxidative stability of liposomes (before sonication) and nanoliposomes (after sonication) produced by Mozafari and conventional thin hydration techniques. For both methods, polyunsaturated fatty acids entrapment efficiency values of nanoliposomes were higher than those of liposomes. Authors related this result to the fact that size reduction increases the surface area of the liposomes resulting in increasing the contact and bond between the fatty acids and phospholipids in the bilayers. Moreover, liposomes prepared by Mozafari process showed higher physical stability than those prepared by conventional method (Rasti et al., 2012). In another work study, the effect of formulation strategies on phytosterol, extracted from canola oil, loaded-liposomes was investigated (Poudel et al., 2019). The results showed that Mozafari method produce liposomes with high average size (260 nm) as compared to those obtained by thin film hydration homogenization (186 nm) and thin film hydration ultrasonication (196 nm). This result was attributed to the high shear force and cavitation involved in size reduction during the ultrasonication and homogenization process; while in Mozafari method, less intense magnetic stirring will probably yield to larger particles. In term of polydispersity index and zeta potential, no difference was found for all the formulations (Poudel et al., 2019).

Like the methods discussed above, Mozafari method was affected by several operating conditions. In 2013, Rasti et al. investigated the effect of shear rate, mixing and sonication times on colloidal properties of polyunsaturated fatty acids (docosahexaenoic acid and eicosapentaenoic acid) nanoliposomes (Rasti et al., 2013). In their study, response surface methodology was applied to predict the optimum levels of liposome preparation condition producing maximum EE% and minimum average size. According to ANOVA analysis, all the independent variables and their interactions were found significant; while, the main significant effect on liposome size and EE% was found to be the shear rate. After optimizing the operating parameters; shear rate (795 rpm), mixing time (60 min) and sonication time (10 min), the nanoliposome exhibited an average diameter of 81.4 nm with an EE% of 100% (Rasti et al., 2013).

Besides using heating method to encapsulate VO in liposomes, no report was found regarding the encapsulation of EO maybe due to their high sensitivity and volatility upon exposure at high temperature. Thus,

this technique is not suitable for thermosensitive bioactive agents. In closing, Mozafari method showed to be a fast, simple, scalable, and non-toxic technique for liposome preparation with high EE%. In addition, the obtained liposomes can be freely used without any further sterilization treatments as they were prepared under heating conditions which in turn could minimize both formulation timing and complexity (Nkanga et al., 2019).

5.2.2. Solid lipid nanoparticles and nanostructured lipid carriers

Solid lipid nanoparticles (SLN) are other lipid-based carriers that have emerged as they combine the benefits of liposomes and polymeric nanoparticles (Sarangi and Padhi, 2016). Solid lipid nanoparticles, developed since 1990, are suspensions of nanosized solid lipid particles dispersed in an aqueous media (Patel, 2013). There are composed of surfactants and a lipid matrix that acquires a solid-state lipid at ambient temperature (Bayón-Cordero et al., 2019). The commonly used materials to structure the lipid core are fatty acids (stearic acid, palmitic acid, decanoic acid and benzoic acid), triacylglycerols (trimyristin, trilaurin, tristearin and tripalmitin) and acyl glycerols (glycerol monostearate, glycerol palmitostearate and glycerol benzoate). These lipids are characterized by their purity, low price, safety and biodegradability. In the other hand, phospholipids (phosphatidylcholine, soy and egg lecithins), poloxamer, pluronic®F127, bile salts, tween 80 and polyvinyl alcohol are example of commonly used surfactants (Kaliyamurthi and Selvaraj, 2016).

In the aim of enhancing the loading capacity of SLN, a second generation of lipid nanoparticles was developed in 1999; so called nanostructured lipid carriers (NLC) in which the matrix is composed not only of a solid lipid, but of a blend of a solid and a liquid lipid oil, as illustrated in Fig. 7. These carriers may provide an additional space for the loading of bioactive agents, improving in this way the amount of the active compounds entrapped and minimizing the probability of expulsion from the lipid phase (Patel, 2013).

Considering the delivery of plant oil, the main reason to use SLN or

NLC as nanocarriers is the improvement of entrapment efficiency. Since the oils are mostly lipophilic, they present a good miscibility with the lipid matrix, resulting high amount of oil could be entrapped (Falcao et al., 2015). In addition, these lipid-based carriers protect the labile and sensitive oil components from chemical, photochemical or oxidative degradation, due to the immobilization by solid lipids. Different methods are employed to produce SLN, however, high pressure homogenization and high-speed homogenization (ultrasonication) are commonly used due to their simplicity and facility of scaling up.

5.2.2.1. High pressure homogenization. The high-pressure homogenization method was extensively used to encapsulate plant oils in SLN since it produces particles with small size and higher homogeneity. Using a high-pressure homogenizer, liquids were pushed with high pressure (100–2000 bar) through a narrow gap (micron size) creating fluid acceleration over a very short distance at very high viscosity of over 1000 km/h which in turn result in disrupting the particles down to submicron range (Garud et al., 2012).

Using the high-pressure homogenization to encapsulate plants oils, the lipid is heated at 5 to 10 °C above its melting point, and the oil is dissolved within (Fig. 7a). After that two approaches are involved: hot or cold homogenization. In hot homogenization, hot aqueous surfactant solution is dispersed with the plant oil-lipid melt under stirring at the same temperature creating the pre-emulsion. The resultant pre-emulsion was pushed through a piston-gap homogenizer creating a hot oil-in-water (O/W) nanoemulsion which is cooled after at room temperature allowing the crystallization of the lipid and the formation of SLN.

Using the cold homogenization approach the oil-lipid melt was cooled down creating solid lipid microparticles that are dispersed after in a cold aqueous surfactant solution forming a pre-suspension. The subsequent homogenization of this pre-suspension creates SLN (Fig. 7b). Several studies have been already published investigating the use of high-pressure homogenization process to encapsulate plant oils (see Table 3).

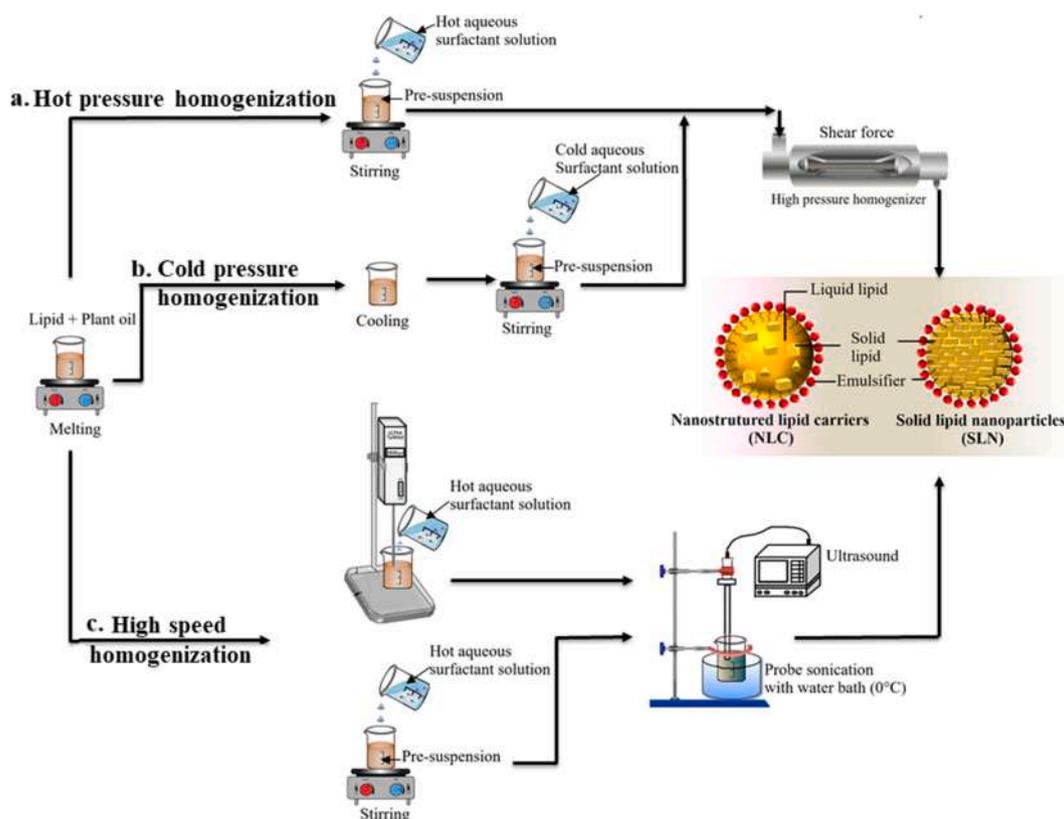


Fig. 7. Schematic illustration of solid lipid nanoparticles and nanostructured lipid carriers' preparation methods.

Regarding the size of SLN prepared by this technique, numerous research works reported a small average diameter with good stability and high EE%. For example, SLN containing frankincense and myrrh EO in a ratio 1:1 were developed using hot homogenization process by Wang et al. (Wang, 2012). An average mean size of 113.3 nm, a zeta potential of -16.8 mV and an EE% of 80.60% were assessed for the obtained SLN. The same process was used to prepare SLN encapsulating the VO: copaiba oil with and without allantoin which is widely used in cosmetology for its keratolytic, moisturizing, soothing and wound healing properties (Svetlichny et al., 2015). The dynamic light scattering analysis revealed an average particle size of 126.06 nm and 118.63 nm for the copaiba oil-loaded SLN and copaiba oil: allantoin-co-loaded SLN, respectively.

Concerning the stability of SLN, previous works highlighted their efficiency in preserving the quality of encapsulated oil during long-term storage as compared to un-encapsulated-form (Tian et al., 2018; Zielinska et al., 2019). Tian et al. (2018) reported that SLN can enhance the stability of citral in acidic surroundings. Gas-chromatography analysis showed that after 12 days storage, 67% of citral remained in the citral loaded-SLN formulations, while only 8% remained in the control. In addition, the overall flavour of the degradation products generated from citral-SLN were assessed and results demonstrated that the off-flavours had little effect on the whole flavour of citral-SLN in the system sample as compared with the control (Tian et al., 2018).

Several factors such as the kind of lipid, surfactant and the operating process conditions could influence the physicochemical properties of the particles obtained by high-pressure homogenization. In this context, Mai et al. (2018) investigated the influence of homogenization conditions on gac fruit EO-loaded SLN prepared by hot and cold homogenization. Results showed that increasing hot homogenization speed from 5000 to 10000 rpm was accompanied with a decrease in particle size from 3297 to 201 nm. However, further increase in speed leads to increase the particle size due to the fact that the oil particles are more likely to collide and aggregate with others. Concerning hot homogenization time, short time was found not enough for active ingredient encapsulation while more homogenization time result in small particles which in turn lead to reduce the volume containing active ingredients (Mai et al., 2018).

In another work study, the impact of the surfactant content, the ratio of citral to lipid, and their total content on the physicochemical characteristics of citral-loaded SLN has been explored (Tian et al., 2018). As the surfactant amount increases the EE% decreases due to the fact that the surface of the formed SLN was not large enough to absorb the excess of surfactant which in turn form micelles, resulting a partitioning phenomenon of citral between micelles and SLN; therefore, a decrease in entrapment efficiency was noticed. Results revealed also an increase in particle size and a decrease in EE% when increasing the content of the mixture citral : glyceryl monostearate, used as lipid matrix, from 1 to 5%. The increase in the content of citral : lipid leads to increase the viscosity of the system which in turn reduce the efficiency of the high-pressure homogenization process to decrease the particle size. Additionally, too much citral and lipid cannot be emulsified when the surfactant content is kept constant this is why the EE% decreased. The same behavior of EE% was observed when increasing the ratio of citral to glycerol monostearate. In fact, the excess of citral cannot be entrapped when the content of the mixture citral : lipid was kept constant (Tian et al., 2018).

In recent years, NLC were introduced to bypass the potential problems associated with the use of SLN. They were widely used for plant oils encapsulation, as depicted in Table 3. The main feature of these nanocarriers is to enhance the drug loading and prevent drug expulsion during long term storage (Sailaja et al., 2011) and this was confirmed by several research works. In 2019, using the high-pressure homogenization technique, Miranda and his colleagues developed *Ridolfia segetum* EO loaded-NLC with a small particle size (148.1 nm), a high zeta potential (16.3 mV) with excellent loading capacity (EE%=100%) (Miranda et al., 2019). In another research work, NLC containing

sucupira EO produced by hot homogenization process owning an average diameter of 143 nm with an EE% of 99.98% (Vieira et al., 2020).

Another characteristic intended by using either SLN or NLC as plant oils carrier is providing a controlled released pattern. For this context, *in vitro* release profile of sucupira oil from NLC was assessed by means of Franz glass diffusion cells and the recorded release profile was fitted into four mathematical models i.e., zero order, first order, Higuchi and Korsmeyer-Peppas (Vieira et al., 2020). Results showed that the release profile of sucupira oil followed a sustained manner over the course of 8 h. About 17.5% was released within the first hour, while the cumulative amount reached 30% at the end of the 8 h (Vieira et al., 2020). Results showed also that the best model describing the release of sucupira oil from NLC was the first order with a regression coefficient close to 1. In contrary to SLN, the release profile of plant oils from NLC does not follow Higuchi or Korsmeyers–Peppas model. Indeed, the release was governed by sucupira oil concentration inside the particles rather than the physicochemical properties of the carriers and this was expected as NLC are made of blend of solid and liquid lipids. Higuchi and Korsmeyers–Peppas are typically followed in the case of SLN formulations as these have a higher degree of crystallinity which controls better the release profile.

With respect to vegetable oils, NLC were employed for co-delivery of VO with another bioactive molecule (Badea et al., 2015; Lacatusu et al., 2015; Rahman et al., 2013, 2014; Sidding et al., 2013). The benefit of these nanocarriers is that the VO can complement or even enhance the biological activity of the synthetic drug (Lacatusu et al., 2015). For this context, diethylamino hydroxybenzoyl hexyl benzoate used as UVA filter was co-encapsulated with various vegetable oils and their combinations (pomegranate seed oil, wheat germ oil, blackcurrant seed oil, sesame seed oil, carrot root oil, raspberry seed oil and rice bran oil) in NLC by high pressure homogenization method in order to enhance its antioxidant activity and UV protection performance (Badea et al., 2015). All the prepared NLC owned a mean particle size in the range of 108 to 145 nm with narrow size distribution, high zeta potential ranging from -34.4 to -44.3 mV and an entrapment efficiency between 51 and 70% (Badea et al., 2015). In another work study, in the aim of enhancing the anti-inflammatory properties, olive oil was co entrapped with thymoquinone in NLC and the resultant particles owned an average diameter around 75 nm with negative zeta potential of -31 mV (Sidding et al., 2013). Olive oil was further encapsulated in hydrogenated palm oil-NLC for co-delivery with synthetic drug purpose. The resultant particles had a mean diameter, polydispersity index, zeta potential, specific surface area, and crystallinity index of 61.14 nm, 0.461, -25.4 mV, 49.07 m² and 27.12% respectively (How et al., 2013).

Besides the synthesized drugs, VO may be co-encapsulated with EO in NLC. For instance, Lacatusu et al. (2015) highlighted the possible blend of plant and animal oils – grape seed oil or fish oil with laurel leaf EO in NLC. The mean average diameter of obtained NLC reduces after increase of grape seed oil or fish oil content. This was ascribed to the role of the long fatty chains of these oils which lead to a more confined lipid core.

On the whole the high-pressure homogenization technique is largely employed thanks to its benefits including low cost, good scalability and high stability of particles. While, with respect to the encapsulation of plant oils hot homogenization is more used as compared to the cold homogenization method. Lipids like tristearin (Salminen et al., 2017), n-hexadecyl palmitate (Lacatusu et al., 2015), myritol®318 (caprylic/capric triglyceride) (Lacatusu et al., 2015), compritol®888 ATO (Wang, 2012), glyceryl monolinoleate (Shi et al., 2013; Tian et al., 2018), oleoyl macroglycerides (Shi et al., 2013), lipid®S100 (Sidding et al., 2013), cetyl palmitate (Svetlichny et al., 2015) and glycerol monostearate (Shi et al., 2013) are usually used to structure either SLN or NLC. Soybean lecithin (Salminen et al., 2017; Wang, 2012), tween 80 (Shi et al., 2013; Sidding et al., 2013; Svetlichny et al., 2015; Wang, 2012), tween 20 (Badea et al., 2015; Lacatusu et al., 2015), span 80 (Mai et al., 2018; Tian et al., 2018) poloxamer (Badea et al., 2015) and

sodium taurodeoxycholate hydrate (Salminen et al., 2017) are example of used emulsifiers.

The use of high-speed homogenization process is often limited by the need of high energy input and the high temperature which cause oil loss.

5.2.2.2. Ultrasonication / high speed homogenization. Solid lipid nanoparticles may also be prepared by ultrasonication or high-speed homogenization technique. In brief, the heated aqueous phase was added to the melted lipid phase and emulsified by high speed stirrer, probe sonication or by adding the aqueous phase drop by drop to the lipid phase under magnetic stirring. The obtained pre-emulsion was ultrasonicated using probe sonicator with water bath (Fig. 7c). In order to prevent re-crystallization during the process, the production temperature was kept at least 5 °C above the lipid melting point (Ramteke et al., 2012; Yadav et al., 2013).

With respect to the encapsulation of plant oils, the ultrasonication technique is widely used, as described in Table 3. *Zataria multiflora* EO-loaded SLN were developed using Precirol® ATO 5 (Glyceryl monostearate) as lipidic matrix and tween 80 with poloxamer 188 as surfactants (Nasseri et al., 2016). The obtained SLN owned a particle size around 255.5 nm with zeta potential of -37.8 mV and high EE% of 84%. The same technique was used to develop cardamom EO loaded-NLC using cocoa butter (as solid lipid), olive oil (as liquid lipid) and tween 80 (as surfactant); and the resultant particles had round shape, smooth surface with particle size less than 100 nm (Nahr et al., 2018). Similarly, NLC were developed using palm stearin as solid lipid and lecithin as emulsifier and the resultant particles were physically and chemically stable during 70-day storage at room temperature and 4 °C (Zhu et al., 2015). Furthermore, Noor et al. (2013) successfully loaded coconut VO into SLN by the same process and reported high EE% (99.97%).

Like all the colloidal formulations discussed above, both SLN and NLC prepared by high-speed homogenization provide a controlled release profile of plant oils (Pivetta et al., 2018; Zhao et al., 2017). The release profile of EO from these nanocarriers may be affected by several factors such as the particle size and the composition of lipidic matrix. In 2011, Garg and his coworkers compared the release profile of eugenol from SLN and NLC formulations made from stearic acid and the mixture stearic acid: caprylic triglyceride, respectively (Garg and Singh, 2011). Results revealed a biphasic release pattern from both nanocarriers. After initial burst release, the cumulative amounts of eugenol released within 12 h were 65 and 78% from SLN and NLC, respectively. This was related to the structure of the nanocarrier's matrix. The addition of liquid lipid in the case of NLC provides fewer barriers to partitioning of eugenol to the dissolution media. The authors ascribed also this result to the small particle size of NLC (87.7 nm) as compared to that of SLN (332 nm). Indeed, the addition of liquid lipid decreases the viscosity of the organic phase (lipid solution) to be dispersed in the aqueous one resulting in smaller particles. Moreover, liquid lipid may inhibit the crystallization of solid lipid leading to smaller particle size (Garg and Singh, 2011). One may conclude that the incorporation of liquid lipid improves the EE% but decreases the barrier provided by lipid matrix for the diffusion of bioactive molecule in the dissolution medium.

The particle size and zeta potential of NLC were influenced by several parameters including solid lipid composition, oil and surfactant (type and concentration), lipid:surfactant ratio, etc. The impact of these factors was extensively studied in the literature (Krasodomska et al., 2016; Lacatusu et al., 2013; Soleimani et al., 2018). It was found that increasing stearic acid concentration results in increasing the size of *Eugenia caryophyllata* EO-loaded SLN prepared by ultrasonication method (Bazzaz et al., 2018). Moreover, Soleimani et al. (2018) developing pomegranate seed oil-loaded NLC using two types of natural waxes: beeswax and propolis wax, investigated the influence of solid lipid composition, surfactant blend concentration and oil content on NLC physicochemical properties. Results demonstrated that increasing oil amount resulted in a decrease in particle size of beeswax NLC. This

was related to the reduction of core viscosity and enhancement of fluidity which results in a decrease in particle size. The opposite behavior was observed in the case of propolis wax NLC. The particle size increases by increasing the oil content. The authors ascribed that to enhanced interfacial tension or swelling rate of the core as result of greater oil concentration. Concerning the impact of solid lipid type, Soleimani et al. (2018) reported that small differences in the lipid composition (particularly, the melting point) might have considerable impact on size and quality of nano lipid carriers. Beeswax consisting of a longer series of carboxylic acid homologues, alcohols and hydrocarbons exhibits higher melting point, leading to higher viscosity of the dispersed phase which in turn results in increasing particle size (203 nm). On the other hand, propolis wax having lower proportion of components produced smaller NLC (143 nm). Regarding the zeta potential, the same authors reported that increasing the concentration of surfactant mixture (Lecithin:Tween 80) results in decreasing the zeta potential of NLC. They related this result to the differences in mobility and redistribution of used surfactants. In fact, high amounts of surfactant decrease the surface tension and enhance the particle partition during homogenization, resulting to a decrease in particle size and thus new NLC appear. The time required for the redistribution of surfactant molecules to cover the new surfaces differ. Indeed, low molecular weight surfactants such as tween 80 adsorb rapidly at the interface, while lecithin, as high molecular weight surfactant, needs more time to be adsorbed. Therefore, tween 80, external hydrophilic non-ionic surfactant, will cover the internal lipophilic surfactant (i.e. lecithin), and thus the zeta potential decreases (Soleimani et al., 2018).

In summary, the ultrasonication is chosen by scientists to design both SLN and NLC systems to entrap plant oils. The commonly used lipid are glyceryl behenate (Zhao et al., 2017), stearic acid (Bazzaz et al., 2018; Garg and Singh, 2013, 2011), carnauba wax (Lacatusu et al., 2013), whey protein isolate (Azizi et al., 2019), glycerol stearate (Lacatusu et al., 2013), palmitic acid (Azizi et al., 2019), propolis (Soleimani et al., 2018), palm stearin (Zhu et al., 2015), beeswax (Shakeri et al., 2019; Soleimani et al., 2018), illipe butter (Pivetta et al., 2018), cocoa butter (Nahr et al., 2018), Precirol® ATO 5 (glyceryl palmitostearate) (Ghodrati et al., 2019), miglyol®812 (caprylic/capric triglycerides) (Ghodrati et al., 2019) and myverol® RX GMS 95P (mixture of glycerol palmitic (57.8%) stearic (37.3%) and myristic (1.3%) acid) (Krasodomska et al., 2016). Lecithin (Soleimani et al., 2018; Zhu et al., 2015), poly vinyl alcohol (Zhao et al., 2017), tween 80 (Lacatusu et al., 2013; Nahr et al., 2018; Noor et al., 2013), poloxamer (Ghodrati et al., 2019; Lacatusu et al., 2013) and pluronic® F68 (Pivetta et al., 2018) are example of used emulsifiers. The main features of the ultrasonication process including facility, simplicity and reduced high shear. However, it is limited by the high metal contamination potential, unproven scalability and high energy requirement.

6. Application

6.1. Agriculture field

The indiscriminate use of chemicals in field as well as during post-harvest poses serious problems for the environment and the human health. The excessive application of synthetic fungicides can also have other negative side effects. The appearance of resistance in the pathogen populations has been notified for many fungi (Saharan et al., 2013). In addition, over the last few years increasing consumers concern regarding contamination of crops with fungicidal residues has been reported (Shukla, 2018). Therefore, low toxicity and more environmentally friendly compounds as an alternative to chemical fungicides was brought to the forefront. Among them, GRAS (generally regarded as safe) antifungal compounds such as EO have been reported (Shukla, 2018; Sotelo-Boyas et al., 2015). Due to their broad spectrum of activity against plant pathogenic fungi and insects-pests, EO have been used as antifungal, insecticidal, repellent, antifeedant and oviposition deterrent

(De Souza et al., 2005; Shukla, 2018). However, the replacement of synthetic compounds is not easy due to the poor stability shown by EOs during the processing steps. Therefore, nanoencapsulation has been proposed for this purpose (Maryam et al., 2015). According to the literature, pNPs are widely used for EO encapsulation in agriculture industry.

Recently, Khoobdel et al. (2017) investigated the insecticidal activity of *Rosmarinus officinalis* EO-loaded pNPs against the red flour beetle, *Tribolium castaneum*. Fumigant and contact toxicity assays revealed that the developed particles had significant increase in fumigant and contact toxicity as compared to the pure EO. At the 72 h exposure for fumigant toxicity, the mortality of *Tribolium castaneum* adults was 83.3% for free EO at a concentration of 27.76 $\mu\text{L/L}$ air and 100% for EO-loaded nanoparticles at concentration of 19.12 $\mu\text{L/L}$ air (Khoobdel et al., 2017). Moreover, Zhavah et al. (2015) related the superior performance of *Cuminum cyminum* EO nanogels against *Aspergillus flavus* as compared to the free oil to the encapsulation in chitosan: caffeic acid nanoparticles. Similar results were already reported when investigating insecticidal activity against *Bemisia tabaci* for *Zanthoxylum rhoifolium* EO-loaded nanoparticles as compared to the free oil (Christofoli et al., 2015). Therefore, the nanoencapsulation can enhance the insecticidal potential of EO due to the controlled and slow release of EO and increased surface area of the nanoparticles.

Sotelo-Boyás et al. (2015) combined the bacterial efficiency of chitosan with those of lime and thyme EO in pNPs to eradicate *Pectobacterium carotovorum*, plant phytopathogenic bacteria, involved in the decay of fresh vegetables and fruits like radishes, onions, potatoes, cucumbers, carrots, eggplant, squash, peppers, tomato and cabbage. For instance, chitosan was highly used for its potential effect in the control of phytopathogenic fungi Gram-negative and Gram positive bacteria (Benhabiles et al., 2012; Kaur et al., 2012; Zhu et al., 2016). The antibacterial study demonstrated that thyme based-nanoparticles showed the highest inhibitory effect on the growth of *Pectobacterium carotovorum* than free chitosan nanoparticles and lime based- nanoparticles. The inhibition halo diameters were found 15, 13 and 24 mm for chitosan free nanoparticles, lime-chitosan nanoparticles and Thyme-chitosan nanoparticles, respectively. Moreover, the number of colonies forming units (CFU) could not be determined (countless colonies) for chitosan free nanoparticles. While for lime- and thyme-chitosan nanoparticles, CFU were found 450 and 240, respectively (Sotelo-Boyás et al., 2015). Furthermore, the results of antifungal assay carried out on chitosan: pepper tree EO nanoparticles revealed that higher activity was assessed for the nanoparticles on the viability of *Aspergillus parasiticus* spores as compared to that of chitosan and pepper tree oil present individually. One may conclude that the antifungal effect of chitosan nanoparticles was attributed to two reasons: 1) the small size of nanoparticles will increase the contact area with fungus; 2) The cationic nature of chitosan allows electrostatic interaction with proteins and phospholipids of the plasmatic membrane of the microorganism which in turn cause membrane destabilization and death.

With respect to the use of lipid based-nanocarriers in agriculture industry, few reports have been investigated in the last decade. Liposomes were used for the first time for rosemary EO encapsulation to inhibit the seed germination of invasive alien species (*Acacia saligna*) (Maccioni et al., 2019). The incorporation of rosemary EO in liposomes limited the loss of EO volatile components and delivering them into the seed resulting in enhancing EO efficacy. Similarly, Adel et al. (2015) pointed out that *Pelargonium graveolens* EO loaded-SLN were stable under field conditions and exhibit higher larvicidal activity against *Phthorimaea operculella* as compared to the free oil.

6.2. Food field

In recent years, consumer demands in eating healthy and less processed foods have boosted remarkably. Functional foods play a pivotal role in promoting health and preventing degenerative diseases such as

heart disease, cancer and diabetes, which account for almost two thirds of deaths in the world (de Conto et al., 2012; Rubilar et al., 2012). Foods enriched with long chain omega-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids are classified as functional foods by acting on human health. The ingestion of omega-3 fatty acids is accompanied with a prevention of cardiovascular diseases, a decreased risk of cancer, autoimmune and inflammatory diseases (Azizi et al., 2019; de Conto et al., 2012; Gallardo et al., 2013). However, polyunsaturated fatty acids are very susceptible to oxidation during processing and storage resulting in decreased nutritional value and sensory quality. Thus, micro and nanoencapsulation of lipids have been used in this concern (Gökmen et al., 2011).

Currently, several nanocarriers have been designed in the literature to encapsulate several healthful oils like chia seed oil (Campo et al., 2017), walnut oil (Shamaei et al., 2017), flaxseed oil (Carneiro et al., 2013; Gallardo et al., 2013; Pu et al., 2010), pomegranate oil (Solimanian et al., 2018), roasted coffee oil (Freiberger et al., 2015) and fruit seed oil (blackcurrant, blackberry, raspberry, strawberry and plum) (Krasodomska et al., 2016). In 2012, Rubilar et al. developed a soup fortified with linseed oil microcapsules and depicted that microencapsulation protected linseed oil from oxidation with respect to free oil (Rubilar et al., 2012). Similarly, Gökmen et al. (2011) demonstrated the feasibility to include flaxseed oil nanoparticles in bread without affecting the sensorial properties.

At the same time, foods are paramount carriers of many damaging agents like virus, bacteria, parasites, and toxins which can cause food-borne diseases (Dussault et al., 2014). Every year, around 30% of people suffer from foodborne diseases in developed countries (Lee et al., 2014). Meanwhile, due to the increased consumer awareness to the use of synthetic food preservatives or aromatic agents, the tendency toward natural ones is gaining more and more attention (Alikhani-Koupaei, 2015). In light of that, using EO with antioxidant, antibacterial and antifungal properties and applying nanoparticulate systems are effective approaches in this regard (Bazzaz et al., 2018; Khatibi et al., 2017). In 2017, Cui and his coworkers developed thyme EO-loaded liposomes to treat salmonellosis, an important food-borne disease, usually associated with direct consumption or cross contamination of animal origin foods, especially poultry, and poultry related products (Cui et al., 2017b). They investigated in their study the time-kill analysis of liposome-encapsulated thyme oil on fresh chicken contaminated with *Salmonella enteritidis*. Results demonstrated that *Salmonella enteritidis* colonies reduced by 71.16, 90.45, 83.02, 89.53 and 97.71% after exposure to 300 mg/mL liposomes for 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7 days, respectively (Cui et al., 2017b). In another work study, the antimicrobial activity of curry plant EO loaded-liposomes against *Bacillus cereus* in rice flour was investigated (Cui et al., 2017a). Results showed that the antibacterial activity and active time of curry plant EO loaded-liposomes were significantly boosted when compared to the free EO. For instance, the population of *Bacillus cereus* in rice flour was almost unchanged or even increased after EO treatment. However, it reduced significantly after 4 days liposomes treatment (Cui et al., 2017a). Gomes et al. (2011b) related the boosting in trans cinnamaldehyde or -eugenol against both *Salmonella* and *Listeria Spp* activity to three reasons: the improved hydrophilicity, the sustained release, and the small size of pNPs. In 2018, Lin et al. investigated the antimicrobial activity of thyme EO-loaded liposomes against *Escherichia coli* O157:H7 in four vegetable juices: tomato, carrot, cucumber and lettuce juices (Lin et al., 2018). Indeed, Enterohaemorrhagic *Escherichia coli* serotype O157:H7 as a main human pathogen may cause food borne outbreaks, bloody diarrhea, hemorrhagic colitis and hemolytic uremic syndrome and even death (Khatibi et al., 2017). Results showed that solid liposomes exhibited significant reduction in *Escherichia coli* O157:H7 when compared to group control. For instance, no bacterial growth was observed on nutrient agar plate in the case of cucumber juice and lettuce juice treated with 5 mg/mL liposomes. While, treating tomato juice and carrot juice with the same concentration of liposomes lead to 99.99 and 99.80% reduction of *Escherichia coli* O157:H7 (Lin et al., 2018). Moreover, Khatibi et al. (2017) found that the

relative transcriptional level of Stx2A gene of *Escherichia coli* O157:H7 was decreased from 0.721 to 0.646 when using 75% minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) of *Zataria multiflora* EO loaded-nanoliposomes.

The antibacterial mechanism of EOs loaded-nanocarriers has been investigated. In 2015, Cui et al. investigated the antibacterial mechanism of liposomes containing clove EO against *Staphylococcus aureus* in Tofu (Cui et al., 2015). A selective antimicrobial activity for *Staphylococcus aureus* by means of pore-forming toxins to activate clove oil release from liposomes was noticed. In fact, the liposomes did not fuse with biological membranes but release clove oil after toxins secretion by the bacteria. About 99.87% reduction in population was observed in *Staphylococcus aureus* after 24 h of liposome treatment. However, no reduction was observed in *Escherichia coli* population after liposome treatment due to the fact that these bacteria did not secrete toxins and therefore clove oil could not reach them (Cui et al., 2015).

The antioxidant and antimicrobial activities of EO-loaded nanocarriers were found to be conserved for long period. In this context, the physicochemical qualities of fresh-cut bananas in contact with free rosemary EO, rosemary oil plus mucilage and rosemary oil liposomes were evaluated during 9 days storage at 5 °C (Alikhani-Koupaei, 2015). Sensory analysis revealed that liposomal formulations was more efficient in enhancing the quality of fresh-cut bananas and extending their shelf life (Alikhani-Koupaei, 2015). Likewise, the conversion of cardamom EO to NLC (Nahr et al., 2018) and nanoliposomes (Nahr et al., 2019) greatly conserves its antioxidant and antimicrobial activities for long period. The NLC showed MIC values around 1100 µg/ml for both bacteria after 30 days compared to that of cardamom oil emulsion. The MIC values were around 4400 and 2200 µg/ml for *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Escherichia coli*, respectively (Nahr et al., 2018).

The biological activity of nanocarriers encapsulated plant oils was affected by operating parameters and particles ingredients. In 2017, Mohammed and his coworkers depicted that a high antioxidant efficiency of *Nigella sativa* EO-loaded microparticles prepared by spray drying process was associated with high ratio of wall material (30%), medium of oil concentration (10%) and low inlet temperature (160 °C) (Mohammed et al., 2017). Furthermore, Bazzaz et al. (2018) investigated the antimicrobial activity of SLN encapsulated *Eugenia caryophyllata* EO against *Salmonella typhi*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Candida albicans* using time-kill methods. Results demonstrated that the SLN formulations were effective in Gram negative bacteria and fungi killing, especially those containing stearic acid compared to glycerol monostearate (Bazzaz et al., 2018).

In recent years, the use of EO has emerged to the food packaging industry as reported by several work studies (Cui et al., 2016a, 2016b; Engel et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2017). Cinnamon EO, known for its antimicrobial properties, has been formulated in chitosan/poly lactic acid fibers for food packaging application as an alternative for synthetic chemicals due to consumer concerns over food safety (Liu et al., 2017). Results showed high long-term inactivation rates against *Escherichia coli* and *Staphylococcus aureus* (Liu et al., 2017). Cinnamon EO was further formulated in liposomes and tested for its Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* antibiofilm properties on the surfaces of different materials like stainless steel, gauze, nylon membrane, and non-woven fabrics (Cui et al., 2016a). Results revealed a significant enhancement of the anti-biofilm activities and active time for liposome-encapsulated cinnamon EO when compared to the free oil. For instance, the counts of viable *Staphylococcus aureus* in biofilms formed were reduced by 2.08 and 2.82 logs on gauze and 4.55 and 5.42 logs on non-woven fabrics after five days treatment with free cinnamon oil and liposome containing cinnamon oil, respectively (Cui et al., 2016a). Additionally, the antibacterial effect of salvia EO nanoliposomes against *Staphylococcus aureus* biofilms attached on milk container was explored by scanning electron microscopy and confocal laser scanning microscopy and results revealed that salvia EO nanoliposomes have high anti-biofilm activity against *Staphylococcus aureus* biofilms on milk container (Cui et al., 2016b). Furthermore, Engel et al. (2017) noticed the antimicrobial

potential of liposome-encapsulated thymol and carvacrol against pools of *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Salmonella* adhered to stainless steel.

6.3. Medicinal field

6.3.1. Antimicrobial activity

The management of bacterial infection is raising serious concern across the globe. The emergence of multi-drug-resistant bacterial pathogens and the ability of microorganisms to form biofilms result high tolerance to high amounts of antibiotics and to all host defense mechanisms (Mandal et al., 2014). Faced with this challenge, the scientists throughout the world search for new antimicrobial agents, such as plant oils based formulations which are economic and ecologic antimicrobial agents; and combine them with nanotechnology (Liakos et al., 2018). In this context, Iannitelli et al. (2011) investigated the effects of carvacrol-loaded poly (lactide-co-glycolide)-nanocapsules on the viscoelastic features of *Staphylococcus epidermidis* biofilms by rheological measurements. Results revealed the ability of carvacrol loaded nanoparticles to reduce the elasticity and mechanical stability of preformed biofilms which in turn enable the penetration of antimicrobial agents into the deep core of biofilms (Iannitelli et al., 2011). Liakos et al. (2016) tested the antibiofilm activity of poly lactide nanoparticles encapsulating lemongrass EO against *Candida albicans*, *Escherichia coli*, *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. Results showed higher anti-biofilm effect for *Candida albicans* and *Escherichia coli* tested strains. The cytotoxicity of the prepared nanoparticles was further analyzed and results revealed a high cell viability and good growth of human cells (Liakos et al., 2016). Subsequently, in 2018, the same research team tested the antibiofilm activity of cellulose acetate pNPs containing either lemon-grass, peppermint or cinnamon EO and the results showed high anti-biofilm activity against *Candida albicans* and *Staphylococcus aureus* (Liakos et al., 2018). Manconi et al. (2018) proposed the use of liposomes containing *Thymus capitatus* EO as antibacterial-antioxidant mouthwash for the treatment of oral cavity diseases. The liposomes were biocompatible, able to prevent oxidative stress and favor wound repair in keratinocytes. Their antibacterial activity was evidenced against commensal *Streptococcus sanguinis* and cariogenic *Streptococcus mutans* and *Lactobacillus acidophilus* (Manconi et al., 2018). Similarly, Priyadarshini et al. (2018) proposed the use of poly (lactide-co-glycolide)-nanoparticles containing clove EO as antibacterial systems for dental purposes by removing bacterial plaque and reducing dental diseases. Confocal microscopy demonstrated successful delivery and position of clove oil loaded-nanoparticles inside dentinal tubules. In another work study, the antiviral activity of *Santolina insularis* EO loaded-liposomes against Herpes simplex virus-type 1 was investigated (Valenti et al., 2001). Although the *in vitro* activity of free oil was higher than liposomal oil, the high stability of liposomes make them an interesting delivery system for antiviral treatment; they could be administered in drops for ocular herpetic infection, parenterally for diffused systemic infections or topically on lips and mucosae from gel or cream formulations (Valenti et al., 2001). Furthermore, Zhao et al. (2017) highlighted the use of SLN as a carrier for the encapsulation and sustained inhalation delivery of yuxingcago EO for the treatment of respiratory infectious diseases. Besides prolonging pulmonary retention up to 24 h after intratracheal administration to rats, yuxingcago EO loaded-SLN enhance the area under the curve (AUC) values by 4.5–7.7 folds compared to the intratracheally dosed EO solution and by 257–438 folds to the intravenously dosed EO solution (Zhao et al., 2017).

6.3.2. Antifungal activity

Considering the antifungal properties of *Zataria multiflora* EO, Naseri et al. developed *Zataria multiflora* EO loaded-SLN to enhance its activity against *Aspergillus ochraceus*, *Aspergillus niger*, *Aspergillus flavus*, *Alternaria solani*, *Rhizoctonia solani*, and *Rhizopus stolonifera* (Naseri et al., 2016). Results showed that the encapsulated oil was more efficient than the free one. For instance, the MIC for the encapsulated oil on the

fungal pathogens of *Aspergillus ochraceus*, *Aspergillus niger*, *Aspergillus flavus*, *Alternaria solani*, *Rhizoctonia solani*, and *Rhizopus stolonifer* was 200, 200, 200, 100, 50 and 50 ppm, respectively; while for un-encapsulated oil, it was 300, 200, 300, 200, 200 and 200 ppm (Nasari et al., 2016). Furthermore, the nanoencapsulation enhanced the antifungal properties of copaiba oil against *Candida krusei*, *Microsporium canis*, *Candida parapsilosis* and *Trichophyton rubrum* with MIC₉₀ values of 250, 1.95, 7.8 and 1.95 µg/mL, respectively. In another work study, microparticles encapsulating *Lippia sidoides* EO were found more efficient than ketoconazole, used as positive control, in eradicating *Candida albicans*, *Candida glabrata*, *Candida krusei* and *Candida parapsilosis* (Fernandes et al., 2008).

Recently, many studies related the occurrence of some diseases like teratogenesis, mutation and hepatocellular carcinoma to the high exposure to aflatoxin which is secondary metabolites synthesized by toxigenic fungi: *Aspergillus flavus*, *Aspergillus parasiticus* and *Aspergillus nomius*. López-meneses et al. (2018) investigated the antifungal and anti-aflatoxigenic activities against *Aspergillus parasiticus* of *Shinus molle* EO-loaded chitosan nanoparticles. Results showed that the prepared nanoparticles affected the spore's germination and viability, delayed mycelial growth and reduced aflatoxin production.

6.3.3. Larvicidal activity

Currently, several reports has demonstrated the larvicidal activity of *Lippia sidoides* EO against larvae of *Aedes (Stegomyia aegypti)*, the dengue vector which is responsible for many diseases, and even deaths, in tropical countries like Brazil (Carvalho et al., 2003). In order to boost its larvicidal effect, Paula et al. (2010) developed angico gum : chitosan nanoparticles containing *Lippia Sidoides* EO and investigated the *in vivo* activity on 20 third instar *Stegomyia aegypti* larvae. Results demonstrated that the larval mortality was proportional to the oil loading. For instance, the sample oil: angico gum-chitosan 1:20 showed the lowest loading (3.3%) and consequently the lowest mortality, with 52% after 24 h and 60% after 48 h. Sample oil: angico gum-chitosan 1:10 showed 85 and 92% mortality after 24 and 48 h, respectively (Paula et al., 2010). Similar results were found by Abreu et al. when studying the larvicidal activity of *Lippia Sidoides* EO loaded-cashew gum : chitosan nanoparticles (Abreu et al., 2012).

6.3.4. Antitumor activity

The antitumor activity of frankincense and myrrh oil loaded-SLN was assessed on H22 tumor-bearing mice and results revealed an enhancement in antitumor efficiency of SLN when compared to that of suspension and cyclodextrine inclusion (Wang, 2012). The inhibition rates were 31.23, 34.81 and 43.66% for oil suspension, oil-β-cyclodextrin and oil-SLN, respectively. Similarly, Celia et al. (2013) found that liposomal formulations encapsulating bergamot EO showed a greater reduction in human SH-SY5Y neuroblastoma cells viability and a greater increase in cell mortality at various concentrations and time points as compared to their free drug counterparts. Same results were also reported by Detoni et al. (2012) where MLVs and SUVs containing *Zanthoxylum tingoassuiba* EO were more efficient in reducing the viability of glioma cells than free EO. In another work study, docosahexaenoic acid was encapsulated in liposomes and investigated for its anticancer activity and results showed a strong inhibition of FaDu head, neck squamous carcinoma and 4 T1 breast cancer cells in *in vitro* cultures (Alaarg et al., 2016). In 2013, Shi and his coworkers developed NLC containing β-elemene and investigated their pharmacokinetics, anti-tumor effects, and venous irritation (Shi et al., 2013). In this study, β-elemene-NLC suspensions were injected in an ear vein test, and compared with elemene injection and saline solution used as positive and negative controls, respectively. Results demonstrated no obvious discoloration or damage at the injection site in either β-elemene-NLC groups or saline solution group, two days after the injection. However, un-encapsulated β-elemene caused macroscopic edema and erythema at the injection site. Additionally, the pharmacokinetic study revealed that the availability of the β-elemene

was increased by formulation into NLC since they showed higher AUC and slower clearance as compared to elemene injection. Furthermore, the anti-tumor efficacy of β-elemene-NLC was significantly higher than that of elemene injections with inhibition rates of 34.36 and 24.11%, respectively (Shi et al., 2013).

6.4. Cosmetic field

Wound healing is one of the most complicated physiological processes. Indeed, tissue regeneration enhancement and infection prevention are key factors to reduce pain, discomfort, and scar formation (Jahromi et al., 2018). Several chemical products have been proposed for wound repair; however, their uses are limited due to the complications and side effects (Purohit et al., 2012). Recently, researchers have paid great attention to the effectiveness of plant oils thanks to their antioxidant, antimicrobial, and anti-inflammatory properties (Raut and Karuppaiyil, 2014). In this context, Ghodrati et al. (2019) investigated the therapeutic effect of NLC containing peppermint EO on infected wound. For *in vivo* study, two full-thickness wounds with the size of 5 mm were created in each mouse and inoculated with *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and *Staphylococcus aureus*. Results showed that peppermint EO-NLC could accelerate wound healing in the infected wound model by reducing the total bacterial count, and increasing neovascularization, fibroblast infiltration, collagen deposition, re-epithelization, and levels of FGF-2 and EGF mRNA expressions when compared to control group. Similarly, Zhang et al. reported a decrease in TGF-β1, MMP-1, collagen I and collagen III levels and an increase in apoptosis cells, caspase -3 and -9 levels after application of *Ligusticum chuanxiong* EO-loaded liposomes on formed hypertrophic scars in the rabbit ear model (Zhang et al., 2012a). Furthermore, NLC based on olive oil and loaded with eucalyptus oil promote wound healing in rat burn model by cell proliferation enhancement, good bioadhesion, cell biocompatibility and antimicrobial properties (Saporito et al., 2018). In 2018, Pivetta et al. prepared carbopol-gels containing thymol loaded-NLC as promising approach for treating skin inflammatory disorders (Pivetta et al., 2018). In their study, they investigated the anti-inflammatory effects of thymol-NLC gel on two mouse models: the cutaneous acute inflammation model induced by croton oil and ear edema model induced by anthralin. Results showed that thymol encapsulated in NLC provided better anti-inflammatory effect than free thymol (Pivetta et al., 2018).

Chronic skin infections in immunocompromised patients has become an important public health issue because they can become serious, resulting in invasive infections (Svetlichny et al., 2015). In this context, Ortan et al. (2013) developed hydrogels containing *Anethum graveolens* oil entrapped in liposomes to treat fungal infections in skin. The *in vitro* release kinetics study using Franz diffusion cell showed that the designed hydrogels follow a zero order kinetic model after a period of three hours from the beginning of the experiment (Ortan et al., 2013). Moreover, hydrogel containing eugenol entrapped in either stearic acid or Compritol-SLN were designed for epidermal targeting to treat fungal infections in skin (Garg and Singh, 2013). *Ex vivo* permeation and retention studies for almond oil solution of eugenol and three types of hydrogels containing: eugenol-stearic acid-SLN, eugenol-compritol-SLN or eugenol-hydroxypropyl-β-cyclodextrin complex; were established with full thickness human cadaver skin using Franz diffusion cell. Results revealed higher accumulation of eugenol in the epidermis (62.65 and 52.86 µg/cm² for eugenol-stearic acid-SLN and eugenol-compritol-SLN, respectively) when compared to that of almond oil solution of eugenol (3.45 µg/cm²) and eugenol-hydroxypropyl-β-cyclodextrine complex (9.77 µg/cm²) (Garg and Singh, 2013).

Currently, VO exhibit a great concern as raw materials in the development of natural and eco-friendly cosmetics due to their benefits including antioxidant, moisturizers and emollients properties. In addition, they provide skin protection against reactive oxygen species and prevent oxidative stress (Dhavamani et al., 2014; Saraf et al., 2010). In order to obtain efficient formulations with UV protection performance

and antioxidant activity, Badaea et al. (2015) formulated creams containing NLC entrapping various VO and their combinations (pomegranate seed oil, wheat germ oil, blackcurrant seed oil, sesame seed oil, carrot root oil, raspberry seed oil and rice bran oil) with a synthetic UVA filter (diethylamino hydroxy benzoyl hexyl benzoate). The UV protection factors were evaluated on the individual VO and on cream formulations based on NLC and results showed that the best UV protection was assured by pomegranate seed oil combined with wheat germ-loaded NLC based cream resulting in a SPF of 5.1 and an UVAPF of 9.5 (Badaea et al., 2015).

6.5. Textiles

Nowadays, functional textiles fascinated consumers interest due to their crucial benefits as they enhance the native properties and promote new functions in the textile products like flame retardancy, UV resistance, photo-catalytic, antimicrobial, antibiotic and wrinkle recovery to the fabrics (Javid et al., 2014). In medical field, textile consumers are becoming more aware and conscious of the deleterious effect that microorganisms may have upon textile materials like drapes, bed sheets, pillow cases, gowns and masks which are frequently used in hospitals (Thelagavath and Kannaian, 2008). In this context, Li et al. (2013a,b) grafted moxa oil microcapsules made with gelatin and arabic gum on cotton fabric and investigated their antibacterial activity against *Staphylococcus aureus* and the results showed strong antibacterial effect. Similarly, ozonated red pepper seed oil antimicrobial microcapsules were applied on 100% polypropylene non-woven fabric and showed good antimicrobial activity against *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Escherichia coli* and *Candida albicans* (Ozyildiz et al., 2012). Furthermore, Rajendran et al. (2013) reported that *Ocimum sanctum* oil loaded alginate-nanoparticles possessed remarkable antibacterial activities with excellent wash durability. After 20 washes, the inhibition percentage was 100% for *Bacillus cereus*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and *Staphylococcus aureus* except for *Escherichia coli* (90%). After 30 washes, the bacterial inhibition was reduced to 95, 87, 98 and 98% for *Bacillus cereus*, *Escherichia coli*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and *Staphylococcus aureus*, respectively (Rajendran et al., 2013). In 2013, Javid et al. reported that antibacterial activity of cotton fabric grafted with chitosan capsules containing eucalyptus and sandal wood oils increased with the increase in chitosan and EO concentrations (Javid et al., 2014).

Recent developments in textile industry were conducted to perfumed textiles in jackets, sweaters, T-shirts and undershirts to meet consumers' needs for comfort and wellbeing. During wearing, the mechanical forces on the capsules result in opening of the capsules and releasing of the designed aroma and deodorant (Ghayempour and Montazer, 2016). In this context, Liu et al. (2015) treated methyl methacrylate-styrene nanoparticles containing cologne EO on the cotton fabric through immersion and the release study revealed that 6.8% cologne EO remained in fabrics after being washed 15 times. In another work, Wang et al. reported that ethyl cellulose microcapsule can retain 50% of the lavender oil after 2 months, while almost no EO persisted on the direct sprayed fabric after 7 days (Wang et al., 2009). Additionally, Li et al. (2013a,b) found that orange oil retention of microcapsules on the cotton and polyester fabrics was 8 days longer than free oil.

7. Conclusion and perspectives

In the last two decades, the growing demand for natural bioactive products especially essential and vegetable oils with the same efficiency or even more than chemical synthesized drugs has urged researchers to focalize most of their efforts on developing new approaches of extending the shelf life of these bioactive agents. In fact, plant oils are very sensitive to external factors when used as such. The encapsulation of these bioactive agents represents a relevant alternative to extend their physical stabilities, protecting them from oxidation and other deleterious environmental factors like light, heat, oxygen and humidity, besides

improving their efficacy mainly owing to their nanometer size range. In this bibliographic paper, we emphasize recent advances of both polymer and lipid based-nanocarriers including polymeric nanoparticles, liposomes and solid lipid nanoparticles in the emergence of new concepts for the effective use of plant oils. A number of benefits and drawbacks are linked to each carrier. For instance, both solid lipid nanoparticles and polymeric nanoparticles have more oil stability and prolonged release than liposomes; while liposomes offer wide application spectrum especially to the skin delivery thanks to their chemical nature which is very close to that of the skin layers. Although solid lipid nanoparticles are safer than polymeric nanoparticles since the avoidance of organic solvents, they were less used to encapsulate both essential and vegetable oils, according to the investigations discussed above. This was may be related to the high temperature requirements which in turn cause oil loss and thus decrease the encapsulation efficiency. Several preparation methods have been reported for each nanocarrier; they are differentiated by the complexity of their execution and the characteristic of their final product; nonetheless, the right selection of the suitable carrier with the appropriate preparation method is the crucial key to determine the carrier features responsible for the best attainment of the final goal. The discussed nanostructured systems provide pertinent perspectives for applications in several fields like medicinal, cosmetic, culinary, agriculture and textiles. Nowadays, the association of plants oils and active molecules is attracting special attention. Lipid core nanocapsules and nanostructured lipid carriers represent promising carriers to entrap both plant oil and synthetic drugs. The appropriate selection of plant oil is very important for achieving the high loading capacity and physical stability of the hydrophobic drugs. In addition, the oil may complement or even enhance the biological activities of these drugs. Hence, the research in the field of plants oils encapsulation can make an important contribution to the development of new methodologies in the treatment and diagnosis of major chronic diseases.

Experimental advances are necessary in engineering plant oils loaded nanocarriers with broader applications and functionalities. Some techniques discussed in this review provide poor control over the final structure and stability of the obtained colloidal systems. Others lack from scalability and reproducibility; therefore, new techniques with improved control and reproducibility are crucial to design nanocarriers with predictable properties.

Even if several advances have been already reported in the literature regarding the application of plants oils nanocarriers for pharmaceutical and cosmetics purposes, more *in vivo* studies are required to provide reliable results. Additionally, plant oils mechanism of action, toxic effects, pharmacokinetic parameters, biodistribution in biological systems and removal mechanisms must be investigated. Moreover, with the aim of improving the biodistribution of colloidal systems, scientists throughout the world are currently focalizing their efforts on the functionalization of the particle surface with special ligands to target specific organs and tissues. However, to our knowledge, there are no reports in the literature that deal with targeting delivery of plant oils loaded nanocarriers. Such demonstrations would provide a blueprint for the development of new concepts and products in large-scale for broader application.

Funding

This research did not receive any specific grant from funding agencies in the public, commercial, or not-for-profit sectors.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Narimane Lammari: Conceptualization, Writing - original draft, Investigation, Visualization. **Ouahida Louaer:** Supervision, Writing - review & editing. **Abdeslam Hassen Meniai:** Writing - review & editing. **Hatem Fessi:** Conceptualization. **Abdelhamid Elaissari:** Supervision, Writing - review & editing, Conceptualization.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

References

- Abdullah, S.W., Ahmed, K.S.D., Khidher, K.Q., 2018. Plant essential oils as grain protectants against *Rhizopertha dominica* (Coleoptera:Bostrichidae) during storage. *Tikrit J. Pure Sci.* 23, 41–44.
- Abreu, F.O.M.S., Oliveira, E.F., Paula, H.C.B., Paula, R.C.M., 2012. Chitosan/cashew gum nanogels for essential oil encapsulation. *Carbohydr. Polym.* 89, 1277–1282. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.carbpol.2012.04.048>.
- Adel, M., Atwa, W., Hassan, M., Salem, N., Farghaly, D.S., Ibrahim, S., 2015. Biological activity and field persistence of *Pelargonium graveolens* (Geraniales : Geraniaceae) loaded solid lipid nanoparticles (SLNs) on *Phthorimaea operculella* (Zeller) (PTM) (Lepidoptera : Gelechiidae). *Int. J. Sci. Res.* 4, 514–520.
- Ahsaei, S.M., Talebi-Jahromi, K., Amoabediny, G., 2020. Insecticidal activity of polycaprolactone nanoparticles decorated with chitosan containing two essential oils against *Tribolium confusum*. *Int. J. Pest Manag.* <https://doi.org/10.1080/09670874.2020.1825875>.
- Alaarg, A., Jordan, N.Y., Verhoef, J.J.F., Metselaar, J.M., Storm, G., Kok, R.J., 2016. Docosahexaenoic acid liposomes for targeting chronic inflammatory diseases and cancer : an in vitro assessment. *Int. J. Nanomedicine* 11, 5027–5040.
- Ali, B., Al-Wabel, N.A., Shams, S., Ahamad, A., Khan, S.A., Anwar, F., 2015. Essential oils used in aromatherapy: A systematic review. *Asian Pac. J. Trop. Biomed.* 5, 601–611.
- Ali, F.R., El-Anany, A.M., 2017. Hypolipidemic and hypocholesterolemic effect of roselle (*Hibiscus sabdariffa* L.) seeds oil in experimental male rats. *J. Oleo Sci.* 66, 41–49.
- Alikhani-Koupaei, M., 2015. Liposomal and edible coating as control release delivery systems for essential oils : comparison of application on storage life of fresh-cut banana. *Qual. Assur. Saf. Crop. Foods* 7, 175–185. <https://doi.org/10.3920/QAS2013.0297>.
- Allen, T.M., Cullis, P.R., 2013. Liposomal drug delivery systems: from concept to clinical applications. *Adv. Drug Deliv. Rev.* 65, 36–48.
- Almeida, J.S., Jezur, L., Fontana, M.C., Paese, K., Silva, C.B., Pohlmann, A.R., Guterres, S. S., Beck, R.C.R., 2009. Oil-based nanoparticles containing alternative vegetable oils (grape seed oil and almond kernel oil): Preparation and characterization. *Lat. Am. J. Pharm.* 28, 165–172.
- Almoustafa, H.A., Alshawsh, M.A., Chik, Z., 2017. Technical aspects of preparing PEG-PLGA nanoparticles as carrier for chemotherapeutic agents by nanoprecipitation method. *Int. J. Pharm.* 533, 275–284.
- Antonoli, G., Fontanella, G., Echeverrigaray, S., Delamare, A.P.L., Pauletti, G.F., Barcellos, T., 2020. Poly(lactic acid) nanocapsules containing lemongrass essential oil for postharvest decay control: *In vitro* and *in vivo* evaluation against phytopathogenic fungi. *Food Chem.* 326, 126997.
- Auezova, L., Najjar, A., Kfoury, M., Fourmentin, S., Greige-Gerges, H., 2020. Antibacterial activity of free or encapsulated selected phenylpropanoids against *Escherichia coli* and *Staphylococcus epidermidis*. *J. Appl. Microbiol.* 128, 710–720.
- Averina, E., Allémann, E., 2013. Encapsulation of alimentary bioactive oils of the Baikal Lake area into pH-sensitive micro- and nanoparticles. *LWT - Food Sci. Technol.* 53, 271–277. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lwt.2013.01.020>.
- Azizi, M., Li, Y., Kaul, N., Abbaspour, A., 2019. Study of the physicochemical properties of fish oil solid lipid nanoparticle in the presence of palmitic acid and quercetin. *J. Agric. Food Chem.* 67, 671–679. <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.jafc.8b02246>.
- Azzi, J., Auezova, L., Danjou, P., Fourmentin, S., Greige-Gerges, H., 2018. First evaluation of drug-in-cyclodextrin-in-liposomes as an encapsulating system for nerolidol. *Food Chem.* 255, 399–404. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2018.02.055>.
- Badea, G., Ioana, L., Badea, N., Ott, C., Meghea, A., 2015. Use of various vegetable oils in designing photoprotective nanostructured formulations for UV protection and antioxidant activity. *Ind. Crop. Prod.* 67, 18–24. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.indcrop.2014.12.049>.
- Badri, W., Asbahani, A. El, Miladi, K., Baraket, A., Agustí, G., Agha, Q., Errachid, A., Fessi, H., Elaissari, A., 2018. Poly (ϵ -caprolactone) nanoparticles loaded with indomethacin and *Nigella Sativa* L. essential oil for the topical treatment of inflammation. *J. Drug Deliv. Sci. Technol.* 46, 234–242. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jddst.2018.05.022>.
- Badri, W., Miladi, K., Eddabra, R., Fessi, H., Elaissari, A., 2015. Elaboration of nanoparticles containing indomethacin: Argan oil for transdermal local and cosmetic application. *J. Nanomater.* 2015, 1–9. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2015/935439>.
- Bae, E.K., Lee, S.J., 2008. Microencapsulation of avocado oil by spray drying using whey protein and maltodextrin. *J. Microencapsul.* 25, 549–560. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02652040802075682>.
- Bagheri, R., Ariai, P., Motamedzadegan, A., 2020. Characterization, antioxidant and antibacterial activities of chitosan nanoparticles loaded with nettle essential oil. *Food Meas.* <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11694-020-00738-0>.
- Bai, C., Zheng, J., Zhao, L., Chen, L., Xiong, H., McClements, D.J., 2019a. Development of oral delivery systems with enhanced antioxidant and anticancer activity : coix seed oil and β -carotene co-loaded liposomes. *J. Agric. Food Chem.* 67, 406–414. <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.jafc.8b04879>.
- Bai, X., Li, C., Yu, L., Jiang, Y., Wang, M., Lang, S., Liu, D., 2019b. Development and characterization of soybean oil microcapsules employing kafirin and sodium caseinate as wall materials. *LWT* 111, 235–241. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lwt.2019.05.032>.
- Baldini, L., Tonani, L., von Zeska Kress, M.R., Pereira Oliveira, W., 2019. *Lippia sidoides* essential oil encapsulated in lipid nanosystem as an anti-candida agent. *Ind. Crops Prod.* 127, 73–81. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.indcrop.2018.10.064>.
- Bangham, A.D., Standish, M.M., Watkins, J.C., 1965. Diffusion of univalent ions across the lamellae of swollen phospholipids. *J. Mol. Biol.* 13, 238–252.
- Bashiri, S., Ghanbarzadeh, B., Ayaseh, A., Dehghannya, J., Ehsani, A., 2020a. Preparation and characterization of chitosan-coated nanostructured lipid carriers (CH-NLC) containing cinnamon essential oil for enriching milk and anti-oxidant activity. *LWT - Food Sci. Technol.* 119, 108836.
- Bashiri, S., Ghanbarzadeh, B., Ayaseh, A., Dehghannya, J., Ehsani, A., Adun, P., 2020b. Essential oil-loaded nanostructured lipid carriers: The effects of liquid lipid type on the physicochemical properties in beverage models. *Food Biosci.* 35, 100526 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fbio.2020.100526>.
- Batzri, S., Korn, E.D., 1973. Single bilayer liposomes prepared without sonication. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta - Biomembr.* 298, 1015–1019.
- Bayón-Cordero, L., Alkorta, I., Arana, L., 2019. Application of solid lipid nanoparticles to improve the efficiency of anticancer drugs. *Nanomaterials* 9, 474.
- Bazzaz, B.S.F., Khameneh, B., Namazi, N., Iranshahi, M., Davoodi, D., Golmohammadzadeh, S., 2018. Solid lipid nanoparticles carrying *Eugenia caryophyllata* essential oil : the novel nanoparticulate systems with broad-spectrum antimicrobial activity. *Lett. Appl. Microbiol.* 66, 506–513. <https://doi.org/10.1111/lam.12886>.
- Beirão da costa, S., Duarte, C., Bourbon, A.I., Pinheiro, A.C., Januário, M.I.N., Vicente, A. A., Beirão-da-costa, M.L., Delgado, I., 2013. Inulin potential for encapsulation and controlled delivery of oregano essential oil. *Food Hydrocolloids* 33, 199–206. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodhyd.2013.03.009>.
- Beirão da costa, S., Duarte, Claudia, Bourbon, A.I., Pinheiro, A.C., Teresa, A., Moldão, M., Isabel, M., Januário, N., Vicente, A.A., Delgado, I., Duarte, Catarina, Luísa, M., 2012. Effect of the matrix system in the delivery and *in vitro* bioactivity of microencapsulated oregano essential oil. *J. Food Eng.* 110, 190–199. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jfoodeng.2011.05.043>.
- Benhabiles, M.S., Salah, R., Lounici, H., Drouiche, N., Goosen, M.F.A., Mameri, N., 2012. Antibacterial activity of chitin, chitosan and its oligomers prepared from shrimp shell waste. *Food Hydrocoll.* 29, 48–56.
- Bilia, A.R., Guccione, C., Isacchi, B., Righeschi, C., Firenzuoli, F., Bergonzi, M.C., 2014. Essential oils loaded in nanosystems : A developing strategy for a successful therapeutic approach. *Evidence-Based Complement. Altern. Med.* 2014, 1–14.
- Boukroufa, M., Boutekdjiret, C., Petigny, L., Rakotomanomana, N., Chemat, F., 2015. Bio-refinery of orange peels waste: A new concept based on integrated green and solvent free extraction processes using ultrasound and microwave techniques to obtain essential oil, polyphenols and pectin. *Ultras. Sonochem.* 24, 72–79.
- Calo, J.R., Crandall, P.G., O'Bryan, C.A., Ricke, S.C., 2015. Essential oils as antimicrobials in food systems – A review. *Food Control* 54, 111–119.
- Calvo, P., Remunan Lopez, J.L., Vila-Jato, Alonso, M.J., 1997. Novel hydrophilic chitosan – polyethylene oxide nanoparticles as protein carriers. *J. Appl. Polym. Sci.* 63, 125–132.
- Campo, C. De, Pereira, P., Maria, T., Costa, H., Guterres, S.S., Rios, A.D.O., Flôres, H., 2017. Nanoencapsulation of chia seed oil with chia mucilage (*Salvia hispanica* L.) as wall material: characterization and stability evaluation. *Food Chem.* 234, 1–9. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2017.04.153>.
- Cao, Y., Zhou, W., Li, J., Huang, X., Yuan, Y., Lin, L., 2016. Preparation and stability evaluation of pectin coated galanga essential oil liposomes. In: 2nd International Conference on Architectural, Civil and Hydraulics Engineering (ICACHE 2016) Preparation. pp. 285–290.
- Carneiro, H.C.F., Tonon, R.V., Grosso, C.R.F., Hubinger, M.D., 2013. Encapsulation efficiency and oxidative stability of flaxseed oil microencapsulated by spray drying using different combinations of wall materials. *J. Food Eng.* 115, 443–451. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jfoodeng.2012.03.033>.
- Carneiro, N.S., Alves, C.C., Alves, J.M., Egea, M.B., Martins, C.H., Silva, T.S., Bretanha, L.C., Balleste, M.P., Mlicke, G.A., Silveira, E. V., Miranda, M.L., 2017. Chemical composition, antioxidant and antibacterial activities of essential oils from leaves and flowers of *Eugenia klotzschiana* Berg (Myrtaceae). *An. Acad. Bras. Cienc.* 89.
- Carvalho, A., Melo, V., Craveiro, A., Machado, M., Bantim, M., Rabelo, E., 2003. Larvicidal activity of the essential oil from *Lippia sidoides* Cham. against *Aedes aegypti* Linn. *Mem. Inst. Oswaldo Cruz* 98, 569–571.
- Carvalho, F.O., Silva, É.R., Nunes, P.S., Felipe, F.A., Ramos, K.P.P., Ferreira, L.A.S., Lima, V.N.B., Shanmugam, S., Oliveira, A.S., Guterres, S.S., Camargo, E.A., Cravalho Olivera, T.V., de Albuquerque Júnior, R.L.C., de Lucca Junior, W., Quintans-Júnior, L.J., Araújo, A.A.S., 2020. Effects of the solid lipid nanoparticle of carvacrol on rodents with lung injury from smoke inhalation. *Naunyn. Schmiedeberg's Arch. Pharmacol.* 393, 445–455. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00210-019-01731-1>.
- Celia, C., Trapasso, E., Locatelli, M., Navarra, M., Anna, C., Wolfram, J., Carafa, M., Maria, V., Britti, D., Di, L., Paolino, D., 2013. Anticancer activity of liposomal bergamot essential oil (BEO) on human neuroblastoma cells. *Colloids Surfaces B Biointerfaces* 112, 548–553. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.colsurfb.2013.09.017>.
- Ceole, L.F., Cardoso, M.D.G., Soares, M.J., 2017. Nerolidol, the main constituent of *Piper aduncum* essential oil, has anti-Leishmania braziliensis activity. *Parasitology* 144, 1179–1190.
- Cerri, G.C., Lima, L.C.F., Lelis, D. de F., Barcelos, L. da S., Feltenberger, J.D., Mussi, S.V., Monteiro-Junior, R.S., Santos, R.A.S. dos, Ferreira, L.A.M., Santos, S.H.S., 2019. Sclareol-loaded lipid nanoparticles improved metabolic profile in obese mice. *Life Sci.* 218, 292–299. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lfs.2018.12.063>.
- Chansang, A., Champakaew, D., Junkum, A., Amornlerdpison, D., Chaithong, U., Jitpakdi, A., Riyong, D., Wannas, A., Intirach, J., Muangmoon, R., Pitasawat, B.,

2018. Potential of natural essential oils and cinnamaldehyde as insecticides against the dengue vector *Aedes Aegypti* (Diptera: Culicidae). *Southeast Asian. J. Trop. Med. Public Health* 49, 6–22.
- Chattopadhyay, S., Prez, F.Du., 2016. Simple design of chemically crosslinked plant oil nanoparticles by triazolinedione- ene chemistry. *Eur. Polym. J.* 81, 77–85. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eurpolymj.2016.05.022>.
- Chen, B., McClements, D.J., Decker, E.A., 2011. Minor components in food oils : A critical review of their roles on lipid oxidation chemistry in bulk oils and emulsions. *Crit. Rev. Food Sci. Nutr.* 51, 901–916. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10408398.2011.606379>.
- Chen, Y.-F., Wang, Y.-W., Huang, W.-S., Lee, M.-M., Wood, W.G., Leung, Y.-M., Tsai, H.-Y., 2016. Trans-cinnamaldehyde, an essential oil in cinnamon powder, ameliorates cerebral ischemia-induced brain injury via inhibition of neuroinflammation through attenuation of iNOS, COX-2 expression and NF- κ -B signaling pathway. *NeuroMolecular Med.* 18, 322–333.
- Cheng, Y.-T., Lu, C.-C., Yen, G. chin, 2015. Beneficial effects of camellia oil (Camellia oleifera Abel.) on hepatoprotective and gastroprotective activities. *J. Nutr. Sci. Vitaminol.* 61, S100–S102.
- Cherkaoui-Tangi, K., Israïli, Z.H., Lyoussi, B., 2016. Vasorelaxant effect of essential oil isolated from *Nigella sativa* L. seeds in rat aorta: Proposed mechanism. *Pak. J. Pharm. Sci.* 29, 1–8.
- Chew, S.-C., Tan, C.-P., Tan, C.-H., Nyam, K.-L., 2020. *In vitro* bioaccessibility of spray dried refined kenaf (*Hibiscus cannabinus*) seed oil applied in coffee drink. *J. Food Sci. Technol.* 57, 2507–2515. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13197-020-04286-9>.
- Chew, S.C., PingTan, C., Nyam, K.L., 2018. Microencapsulation of refined kenaf (*Hibiscus cannabinus* L.) seed oil by spray drying using β -cyclodextrin / gum arabic / sodium caseinate. *J. Food Eng. J.* 237, 78–85. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jfoodeng.2018.05.016>.
- Chikezie, P.C., Ibegbulem, C.O., Mbagwu, F.N., 2015. Bioactive principles from medicinal plants. *Res. J. Phytochem.* 9, 88–115. <https://doi.org/10.3923/rjphyto.2015.88.115>.
- Chin, S., Ping, C., Lin, K., 2018. Microencapsulation of refined kenaf (*Hibiscus cannabinus* L.) seed oil by spray drying using β -cyclodextrin / gum arabic / sodium caseinate. *J. Food Eng.* 237, 78–85. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jfoodeng.2018.05.016>.
- Chizzola, R., 2013. Regular monoterpenes and sesquiterpenes (essential oils). In: Ramawat, K.G., Mérillon, J.M. (Eds.), *Natural products*. Springer-Verlag, Berlin Heidelberg, pp. 2973–3008. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-22144-6>.
- Christofoli, M., Cristina, E., Costa, C., Bicalho, K.U., Cássia, V. De, Fernandes, M., Cristina, C., Alves, F., Araújo, W.L., Melo, C. De, 2015. Insecticidal effect of nanoencapsulated essential oils from *Zanthoxylum rhoifolium* (Rutaceae) in *Bemisia tabaci* populations. *Ind. Crop. Prod.* 70, 301–308. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.indcrop.2015.03.025>.
- de Conto, L.C., Oliveira, R.S.P., Martin, L.G.P., Chang, Y.K., Steel, C.J., 2012. Effects of the addition of microencapsulated omega-3 and rosemary extract on the technological and sensory quality of white pan bread. *LWT - Food Sci. Technol.* 45, 103–109.
- Contri, R.V., Kulkamp-guerreiro, I.C., Janine, S., Frank, L.A., Pohlmann, A.R., Guterres, S.S., 2016. Nanoencapsulation of Rose-Hip oil prevents oil oxidation and allows obtention of gel and film topical formulations. *AAPS PharmSciTech* 17, 863–871. <https://doi.org/10.1208/s12249-015-0379-9>.
- Corrêa-Filho, L.C., Moldao-Martins, M., Alves, V.D., 2019. Advances in the application of microcapsules as carriers of functional compounds for food products. *Appl. Sci.* 9, 571. <https://doi.org/10.3390/app9030571>.
- Cortesi, R., Esposito, E., Gambarin, S., Telloli, P., Menegatti, E., Nastruzzi, C., 1999. Preparation of liposomes by reverse-phase evaporation using alternative organic solvents. *J. Microencapsul.* 16, 251–256.
- Cruchó, C.I.C., Barros, M.T., 2017. Polymeric nanoparticles: A study on the preparation variables and characterization methods. *Mater. Sci. Eng. C* 80, 771–784.
- Cui, H., Li, W., Li, C., Vittayapadung, S., Lin, L., 2016a. Liposome containing cinnamon oil with antibacterial activity against methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* biofilm. *Biofouling.* 32, 215–225. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08927014.2015.1134516>.
- Cui, H., Li, W., Lin, L., 2017a. Antibacterial activity of liposome containing curry plant essential oil against *Bacillus cereus* in rice. *J. food Saf.* 37, 3–7. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jfs.12302>.
- Cui, H., Yuan, L., Ma, C., Li, C., Lin, L., 2017b. Effect of nianoliposome-encapsulated thyme oil on growth of *Salmonella enteritidis* in chicken. *J. food Process. Preserv.* 41, 1–9. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jfpp.13299>.
- Cui, H., Zhao, C., Lin, L., 2015. The specific antibacterial activity of liposome-encapsulated clove oil and its application in tofu. *Food Control* 56, 128–134. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodcont.2015.03.026>.
- Cui, H., Zhou, H., Lin, L., 2016b. The specific antibacterial effect of the salvia oil nanoliposomes against *Staphylococcus aureus* bio films on milk container. *Food Control* 61, 92–98. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodcont.2015.09.034>.
- Cui, Y., Wu, Z., Liu, X., Ni, R., Zhu, X., Ma, L., Liu, J., 2010. Preparation, safety, pharmacokinetics, and pharmacodynamics of liposomes containing Brucea javanica oil. *AAPS PharmSciTech* 11, 878–884. <https://doi.org/10.1208/s12249-010-9454-4>.
- De-Oliveira, E.F., Paula, H.C.B., De Paula, R.C.M., 2014. Alginate / cashew gum nanoparticles for essential oil encapsulation. *Colloids Surfaces B Biointerfaces.* 113, 146–151. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.colsurfb.2013.08.038>.
- De Billerbeck, V., 2007. Huiles essentielles et bactéries résistantes aux antibiotiques. *Phytothérapie* 5, 249–253.
- De Meneses, A.C., Marques, E.B.P., Leimann, F.V., Gonçalves, O.H., Ineu, R.P., de Araújo, P.H.H., de Oliveira, D., Sayer, C., 2019. Encapsulation of clove oil in nanostructured lipid carriers from natural waxes: Preparation, characterization and *in vitro* evaluation of the cholinesterase enzymes. *Colloids Surfaces A Physicochem. Eng. Asp.* 583, 123879 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.colsurfa.2019.123879>.
- De Souza, E., De Lima, K.L., Freire, K., De Sousa, C., 2005. Inhibitory action of some essential oils and phytochemicals on the growth of various moulds isolated from foods. *Brazilian Arch. Biol. Technol.* 48, 245–250.
- Detoni, C.B., Oliveira, D.M. De, Santo, I.E., São Pedro, A., El-bacha, R., Vellozo, E. da S., Ferreira, D., Elaine, C., Cabral-albuquerque, D.M., 2012. Evaluation of thermal-oxidative stability and antiangioma activity of Zanthoxylum tingoassuba essential oil entrapped into multi- and unilamellar liposomes. *J. Liposome Res.* 22, 1–7. <https://doi.org/10.3109/08982104.2011.573793>.
- Devi, N., Deka, C., Hazarika, D., Kakati, D., 2012. Study of complex coacervation of gelatin A and sodium alginate for microencapsulation of olive oil. *J. Macromol. Sci. Part A* 49, 936–945. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10601325.2012.722854>.
- Dhavamani, S., Rao, Y.P.C., Lokesh, B.R., 2014. Total antioxidant activity of selected vegetable oils and their influence on total antioxidant values in vivo. *Food Chem.* 164, 551–555.
- Dhifi, W., Bellili, S., Jazi, S., Bahloul, N., Mnif, W., 2016. Essential oils' chemical characterization and investigation of some biological activities: A critical review. *Med.* 3, 25.
- Diba, V.C., Statham, B.N., 2003. Contact urticaria from cinnamal leading to anaphylaxis. *Contact Dermatitis* 48, 119.
- Dilika, F., Bremner, P., Meyer, J., 2000. Antibacterial activity of linoleic and oleic acids isolated from *Helichrysum pedunculatum*: a plant used during circumcision rites. *Fitoterapia* 71, 450–452.
- Dima, C., Assadpour, E., Dima, S., Jafari, S.M., 2020. Bioavailability and bioaccessibility of food bioactive compounds; overview and assessment by *in vitro* methods. *Compr. Rev. Food Sci. Food Saf.* 19, 2862–2884. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1541-4337.12623>.
- Dima, C., Cotărel, M., Alexe, P., Dima, S., 2014. Reprint of “ Microencapsulation of essential oil of pimento [Pimenta dioica (L) Merr.] by chitosan / k-carrageenan complex coacervation method”. *Innov. Food Sci. Emerg. Technol.* 25, 97–105. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ifset.2014.07.008>.
- Dong, Z., Ma, Y., Hayat, K., Jia, C., Xia, S., Zhang, X., 2011. Morphology and release profile of microcapsules encapsulating peppermint oil by complex coacervation. *J. Food Eng.* 104, 455–460. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jfoodeng.2011.01.011>.
- Drozdek, S., Bazyli, U., 2016. Biocompatible oil core nanocapsules as potential co-carriers of paclitaxel and fluorescent markers : preparation, characterization and bioimaging. *Colloid Polym. Sci.* 294, 225–237. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00396-015-3767-5>.
- Dussault, D., Vu, K.D., Lacroix, M., 2014. *In vitro* evaluation of antimicrobial activities of various commercial essential oils, oleoresin and pure compounds against food pathogens and application in ham. *Meat Sci.* 96, 514–520.
- Duthie, G.G., Gardner, P.T., Morrice, P.C., McPhail, D.B., 2016. The Contribution of α -tocopherol and δ γ -tocopherol to the antioxidant capacity of several edible plant oil. *Nat. Sci.* 8, 41–48.
- Ekor, M., 2013. The growing use of herbal medicines: issues relating to adverse reactions and challenges in monitoring safety. *Front. Pharmacol.* 4, 177.
- El-Asbahani, Abdelhafed, Miladi, K., Addi, H., Bitar, A., Casabianca, H., Abdelhamid, E. M., Hartmann, D., Jilale, A., Renaud, F., Elaissari, A., 2015a. Antimicrobial activity of nano-encapsulated essential oils: comparison to non-encapsulated essential oils. *J. Colloid Sci. Biotechnol.* 4, 39–48.
- El-Asbahani, A., Miladi, K., Badri, W., Sala, M., Addi, E.H.A., Casabianca, H., Mousadik, A. El, Hartmann, D., Jilale, A., Renaud, F.N.R., Elaissari, A., 2015b. Essential oils: From extraction to encapsulation. *Int. J. Pharm.* 483, 220–243. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijpharm.2014.12.069>.
- El-say, K.M., El-sawy, H.S., 2017. Polymeric nanoparticles : Promising platform for drug delivery. *Int. J. Pharm.* 528, 675–691. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijpharm.2017.06.052>.
- Eshafie, H.S., Ippolito, C., 2017. An overview of the biological effects of some mediterranean essential oils on human health. *Biomed Res. Int.* 2017, e9268468.
- Encina, C., Vergara, C., Gimenez, B., Oyarzún-ampuero, F., Robert, P., 2016. Conventional spray-drying and future trends for the microencapsulation of fish oil. *Trends Food Sci. Technol.* 56, 46–60. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tifs.2016.07.014>.
- Engel, J.B., Heckler, C., Tondo, E.C., Daroit, D.J., Malheiros, P. ia da S., 2017. Antimicrobial activity of free and liposome-encapsulated thymol and carvacrol against *Salmonella* and *Staphylococcus aureus* adhered to stainless steel. *Int. J. Food Microbiol.* 252, 18–23. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijfoodmicro.2017.04.003>.
- Ephrem, E., Greige-Gerges, H., Fessi, H., Charcosset, C., 2014. Optimisation of rosemary oil encapsulation in polycaprolactone and scale-up of the process. *J. Microencapsul.* 31, 746–753. <https://doi.org/10.3109/02652048.2014.918669>.
- Esfandiyari-Manesh, M., Ghaedi, Z., Asemi, M., Khanavi, M., Manayi, A., Jamalifar, H., Atyabi, F., Dinarvand, R., 2013. Study of antimicrobial activity of anethole and carvone loaded PLGA nanoparticles. *J. Pharm. Res.* 7, 290–295. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jopr.2013.04.019>.
- Esmaeili, A., Asgari, A., 2015. *In vitro* release and biological activities of *Carum copticum* essential oil (CEO) loaded chitosan nanoparticles. *Int. J. Biol. Macromol.* 81, 283–290. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijbiomac.2015.08.010>.
- Falcao, D.Q., Mourao, S.C., de Araujo, J.L., Pereira, P.A.K., Cardoso, A.C.A., de Almeida, K.B., Zibetti, F.M., Lima, B.G., 2015. Chapter 23: Challenges in development of essential oil nanodelivery systems and future prospects. In: Naik, J. (Ed.), *Nano Based Drug Delivery*. Zagreb, IAPC, pp. 557–578.
- Fang, Z., Bhandari, B., 2012. Spray drying , freeze drying and related processes for food ingredient and nutraceutical encapsulation. In: Garti, N., McClements, D.J., (Eds.), *Encapsulation technologies and delivery systems for food ingredients and nutraceuticals*. Oxford: WP Woodhead Publishing, pp. 73–109. <https://doi.org/10.1533/9780857095909.2.73>.

- Fernandes, L.P., Turatti, I.C.C., Lopes, N.P., Ferreira, J.C., Candido, R.C., Oliveira, W.P., Fernandes, L.P., Turatti, I.C.C., Lopes, N.P., Ferreira, J.C., 2008. Volatile retention and antifungal properties of spray-dried microparticles of *Lippia sidoides* essential oil. *Dry. Technol.* 26, 1534–1542. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07373930802464034>.
- Fessi, H., Puisieux, F., Devissaguet, J.P., Ammoury, N., Benita, S., 1989. Nanocapsule formation by interfacial polymer deposition following solvent displacement. *Int. J. Pharm.* 55, R1–R4.
- Feyzioglu, G.C., Tornuk, F., 2016. Development of chitosan nanoparticles loaded with summer savory (*Satureja hortensis* L.) essential oil for antimicrobial and antioxidant delivery applications. *LWT - Food Sci. Technol.* 70, 104–110. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lwt.2016.02.037>.
- Fioramonti, S.A., Stepanic, E.M., Tibaldo, A.M., Pavón, Y.L., Santiago, L.G., 2019. Spray dried flaxseed oil powdered microcapsules obtained using milk whey proteins-alginate double layer emulsions. *Food Res. Int.* 119, 931–940. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodres.2018.10.079>.
- Frank, L.A., Contri, R.V., Beck, R.C.R., Pohlmann, A.R., Guterres, S.S., 2015. Improving drug biological effects by encapsulation into polymeric nanocapsules. *Adv. Rev.* 7, 623–639. <https://doi.org/10.1002/wnan.1334>.
- Frascarelli, E.C., Silva, V.M., Tonon, R.V., Hubinger, M.D., 2011. Effect of process conditions on the microencapsulation of coffee oil by spray drying. *Food Bioprod. Process.* 90, 413–424. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fbp.2011.12.002>.
- Freiberger, E.B., Kaufmann, K.C., Bona, E., de Araújo, P.H.H., Sayer, C., Leimann, F.V., Gonçalves, O.H., 2015. Encapsulation of roasted coffee oil in biocompatible nanoparticles. *LWT - Food Sci. Technol.* 64, 381–1359. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lwt.2015.05.039>.
- Friedrich, R.B., Fontana, M.C., Beck, R.C.R., 2008. Development and physicochemical characterization of dexamethasone-loaded polymeric nanocapsule suspensions. *Quim. Nova* 31, 1131–1136.
- Froio, F., Ginot, L., Paolino, D., Lebaz, N., Bentaher, A., Fessi, H., Elaissari, A., 2019. Essential oils-loaded polymer particles: Preparation, characterization and antimicrobial property. *Polymers (Basel)*. 11, 1017. <https://doi.org/10.3390/polym11061017>.
- Froio, F., Lammari, N., Tarhini, M., Alomari, M., Louaer, W., Meniai, A.H., Paolino, D., Fessi, H., Elaissari, A., 2020. Chapter 16 - Polymer-based nanocontainers for drug delivery. In: Tri, P.N., Do, T.O., Nguyen, T.A. (Eds.), *Smart Nanocontainers Micro and Nano Technologies*. Elsevier Science Publishing Co Inc., New York, USA, pp. 271–285.
- Gad, H.A., Abd El-Rahman, F.A.A., Hamdy, G.M., 2019. Chamomile oil loaded solid lipid nanoparticles: A naturally formulated remedy to enhance the wound healing. *J. Drug Deliv. Sci. Technol.* 50, 329–338. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jddst.2019.01.008>.
- Gallardo, G., Guida, L., Martínez, V., López, M.C., Bernhardt, D., Blasco, R., Pedrozaislas, R., Hermida, L.G., 2013. Microencapsulation of linseed oil by spray drying for functional food application. *Food Res. Int.* 52, 473–482. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodres.2013.01.020>.
- Gammone, M.A., Riccioni, G., Parrinello, G., D'Orazio, N., 2019. Omega-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids: Benefits and endpoints in Sport. *Nutrients* 11, 1–16.
- Ganesan, K., Sukalingam, K., Xu, B., 2018. Impact of consumption and cooking manners of vegetable oils on cardiovascular diseases-A critical review. *Trends Food Sci. Technol.* 71, 132–154.
- García-Rellán, D., Verdeguer, M., Salamone, A., Blázquez, M.A., Boira, H., 2016. Chemical composition, herbicidal and antifungal activity of *Satureja cuneifolia* essential oils from Spain. *Nat. Prod. Commun.* 2, 11–19.
- Garg, A., Singh, S., 2013. Targeting of eugenol-loaded solid lipid nanoparticles to the epidermal layer of human skin. *Nanomedicine* 9, 1223–1238.
- Garg, A., Singh, S., 2011. Enhancement in antifungal activity of eugenol in immunosuppressed rats through lipid nanocarriers. *Colloids Surfaces B Biointerfaces* 87, 280–288. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.colsurfb.2011.05.030>.
- Garud, A., Singh, D., Garud, N., 2012. Solid lipid nanoparticles (SLN): Method, characterization and applications. *Int. Curr. Pharm. J.* 1, 384–393.
- Gavahian, M., Farahnaky, A., Farhoosh, R., Javidnia, K., Shahidi, F., 2015. Extraction of essential oils from *Mentha piperita* using advanced techniques: Microwave versus ohmic assisted hydrodistillation. *Food Bioprod. Process.* 94, 50–58.
- Ge, Y., Ge, M., 2016. Distribution of Melaleuca alternifolia essential oil in liposomes with Tween 80 addition and enhancement of *in vitro* antimicrobial effect. *J. Exp. Nanosci.* 11, 345–358. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17458080.2015.1065013>.
- Ge, Y. of tea tree oil-loaded liposomal formulation using response surface methodology D. of tea tree oil-loaded liposomal formulation using response surface methodology, Ge, M., 2015. Development of tea tree oil-loaded liposomal formulation using response surface methodology. *J. Liposome Res.* 25, 222–231. <https://doi.org/10.3109/08982104.2014.987786>.
- Ge, Y., Tang, J., Fu, H., Fu, Y., Wu, Y., 2019. Characteristics, controlled-release and antimicrobial properties of Tea tree oil liposomes-incorporated chitosan-based electrospun nanofiber mats. *Fibers Polym.* 20, 698–708. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12221-019-1092-1>.
- George, K.W., Alonso-gutierrez, J., Keasling, J.D., Lee, T.S., 2015. Isoprenoid drugs, biofuels, and chemicals — Artemisinin, Farnesene and Beyond. *Adv. Biochem. Eng. Biotechnol.* 148, 355–389. <https://doi.org/10.1007/10>.
- Geszke-Moritz, M., Moritz, M., 2016. Solid lipid nanoparticles as attractive drug vehicles: Composition, properties and therapeutic strategies. *Mater. Sci. Eng. C* 68, 982–1944.
- Ghanbarzadeh, B., Babazadeh, A., Hamishehkar, H., 2016. Nano-phytosome as a potential food-grade delivery system. *Food Biosci.* 15, 126–135.
- Ghayempour, S., Montazer, M., 2016. Micro/nanoencapsulation of essential oils and fragrances: Focus on perfumed, antimicrobial, mosquito-repellent and medical textiles. *J. Microencapsul.* 33, 497–510. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02652048.2016.1216187>.
- Ghodrati, M., Reza, M., Hamishehkar, H., 2019. Encapsulation of Peppermint essential oil in nanostructured lipid carriers : *In vitro* antibacterial activity and accelerative effect on infected wound healing. *Colloids Surfaces A* 564, 161–169. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.colsurfa.2018.12.043>.
- Gökmen, V., Ataç, B., Barone, R., Fogliano, V., Kaplun, Z., Shimoni, E., 2011. Development of functional bread containing nanoencapsulated omega-3 fatty acids. *J. Food Eng.* 105, 585–591. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jfoodeng.2011.03.021>.
- Gomes, C., Moreira, R.G., Castell-perez, E., 2011a. Nanoparticles with entrapped trans-cinnamaldehyde and eugenol for antimicrobial delivery applications. *J. Food Sci.* 76, 16–24. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1750-3841.2010.01985.x>.
- Gomes, C., Moreira, R.G., Castell-perez, E., 2011b. Poly (DL-lactide-co-glycolide) (PLGA) nanoparticles with entrapped trans-cinnamaldehyde and eugenol for antimicrobial delivery applications. *J. Food Sci.* 76, 16–24.
- González, A., Martínez, M.L., Paredes, A.J., León, A.E., Ribotta, P.D., 2016. Study of the preparation process and variation of wall components in chia (*Salvia hispanica* L.) oil microencapsulation. *Powder Technol.* 301, 868–875. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.powtec.2016.07.026>.
- Guner, S.F., Yagci, Y., Erciyes, T.A., 2006. Polymers from triglyceride oils 31, 633–670. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.progpolymsci.2006.07.001>.
- Hadian, Z., 2016. A review of nanoliposomal delivery system for stabilization of bioactive omega-3 fatty acids. *Electron. Physician* 8, 1776–1785.
- Hadian, Z., Ali, M., Moghimi, H.R., Barzegar, M., 2014. Formulation, characterization and optimization of liposomes containing eicosapentaenoic and docosahexaenoic acids: A methodology approach. *Iran. J. Pharm. Res.* 13, 393–404.
- Hammoud, Z., Gharib, R., Fourmentin, S., Elaissari, A., Greige-Gerges, H., 2019. New findings on the incorporation of essential oil components into liposomes composed of lipid S100 and cholesterol. *Int. J. Pharm.* 561, 161–170. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijpharm.2019.02.022>.
- Hardman, D., Fakas, S., 2016. Polyunsaturated fatty acids as dietary supplements: Biological activities and sources. *Int. J. Clin. Nutr. Diet.* 2, 2.
- Hasheminejad, N., Khodaiyan, F., Safari, M., 2019. Improving the antifungal activity of clove essential oil encapsulated by chitosan nanoparticles. *Food Chem.* 275, 113–122. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2018.09.085>.
- Hassan, N.H.M., Eissa, A.M.F., Sa'eb A. M Hafez, Mosa, E.A.M., 2015. Antioxidant and antimicrobial activity of celery (*Apium graveolens*) and coriander (*Coriandrum sativum*) herb and seed essential oils. *Int. J. Curr. Microbiol. Appl. Sci.* 4, 284–296.
- Hassanshahian, M., Saadatfar, A., Masoumpour, F., 2020. Formulation and characterization of nanoemulsion from *Alhagi maurorum* essential oil and study of its antimicrobial, antibiofilm, and plasmid curing activity against antibiotic-resistant pathogenic bacteria. *J. Environ. Heal. Sci. Eng.* 18, 1015–1027.
- He, H., Yao, J., Zhang, Y., Chen, Y., Wang, K., Lee, R.J., Yu, B., Zhang, X., 2019. Solid lipid nanoparticles as a drug delivery system to across the blood-brain barrier. *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun.* 519, 385–390. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbrc.2019.09.017>.
- Herculano, E.D., Paula, H.C.B. De, Dias, F.G.B., Pereira, V.D.A., 2015. Physicochemical and antimicrobial properties of nanoencapsulated *Eucalyptus staigeriana* essential oil. *LWT - Food Sci. Technol.* 61, 484–491. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lwt.2014.12.001>.
- Hosseini, S.F., Zandi, M., Rezaei, M., Farahmandghavi, F., 2013. Two-step method for encapsulation of oregano essential oil in chitosan nanoparticles : Preparation, characterization and *in vitro* release study. *Carbohydr. Polym.* 95, 50–56. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.carbpol.2013.02.031>.
- How, C.W., Rasedee, A., Abbasalipourkabir, R., 2013. Characterization and cytotoxicity of nanostructured lipid carriers formulated with olive oil, hydrogenated palm oil, and polysorbate 80. *IEEE Trans. Nanobiosci.* 12, 72–78.
- Hoyos-leyva, J.D., Bello-perez, L.A., Agama-acevedo, J.E., Alvarez-ramirez, J., Jaramillo-Echeverry, L.M., 2019. Characterization of spray drying microencapsulation of almond oil into taro starch spherical aggregates. *LWT - Food Sci. Technol.* 101, 526–533. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lwt.2018.11.079>.
- Hsu, E., Parthasarathy, S., 2017. Anti-inflammatory and antioxidant effects of sesame oil on atherosclerosis: A descriptive literature review. *Cureus* 9, 1438.
- Hu, J., Wang, X., Xiao, Z., Bi, W., 2015. Effect of chitosan nanoparticles loaded with cinnamon essential oil on the quality of chilled pork. *LWT - Food Sci. Technol.* 63, 519–526. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lwt.2015.03.049>.
- Huang, J., Wang, Q., Chu, L., Xia, Q., 2020. Liposome-chitosan hydrogel bead delivery system for the encapsulation of linseed oil and quercetin: Preparation and *in vitro* characterization studies. *LWT - Food Sci. Technol.* 117, 108615.
- Iannitelli, A., Grande, R., di Stefano, A., di Giulio, M., Sozio, P., Bessa, L.J., Laserra, S., Paolini, C., Protasi, F., Cellini, L., 2011. Potential antibacterial activity of carvacrol-loaded poly(DL-lactide-co-glycolide) (PLGA) nanoparticles against microbial biofilm. *Int. J. Mol. Sci.* 12, 5039–5051. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms12085039>.
- Immordino, M.L., Dosio, F., Cattel, L., 2006. Stealth liposomes: Review of the basic science, rationale, and clinical applications, existing and potential. *Int. J. Nanomedicine* 1, 297–315.
- Intahphuak, S., Khonsung, P., Panthong, A., 2010. Anti-inflammatory, analgesic, and antipyretic activities of virgin coconut oil. *Pharm. Biol.* 48, 151–157.
- Jahromi, M.M., Zangabad, P.S., Basri, S.M., Zangabad, M.S., Ghamarypour, A., Aref, A., Karimi, M., Hamblin, M., 2018. Nanomedicine and advanced technologies for burns: preventing infection and facilitating wound healing. *Adv. Drug Deliv. Rev.* 123, 33–64.
- Jajarm, F.H., Moravvej, G., Awal, M.M., Golmohammadzadeh, S., 2020. Insecticidal activity of solid lipid nanoparticle loaded by *Ziziphora clinopodioides* Lam. against *Tribolium castaneum* (Herbst, 1797) (Coleoptera: Tenebrionidae). *Int. J. Pest Manag.* <https://doi.org/10.1080/09670874.2020.1713420>.
- Jamil, B., Abbasi, R., Abbasi, S., Imran, M., Khan, S.U., Ihsan, A., Javed, S., Bokhari, H., Imran, M., 2016. Encapsulation of cardamom essential oil in chitosan nano-composites : *In-vitro* efficacy on antibiotic-resistant bacterial pathogens and

- cytotoxicity studies. *Front. Microbiol.* 7, 1–10. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2016.01580>.
- Jassbi, A.R., Zare, M., Jamebozorgi, F.H., 2017. Chemical composition and biological activity of the essential oil and solvent extracts of *Scaligeria nodosa*. *Open Bioact. Compd. J.* 5, 16–22.
- Javid, A., Raza, Z.A., Hussain, T., Rehman, A., Javid, A., Raza, Z.A., Hussain, T., Rehman, A., 2014. Chitosan microencapsulation of various essential oils to enhance the functional properties of cotton fabric chitosan microencapsulation of various essential oils to enhance the functional properties of cotton fabric. *J. Microencapsul.* 31, 461–468. <https://doi.org/10.3109/02652048.2013.879927>.
- Jummes, B., Sganzerla, W.G., da Rosa, C.G., Noronha, C.M., Nunes, M.R., Bertoldi, F.C., Barreto, P.L.M., 2020. Antioxidant and antimicrobial poly-ε-caprolactone nanoparticles loaded with *Cymbopogon martinii* essential oil. *Biocatal. Agric. Biotechnol.* 23, 101499 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bcab.2020.101499>.
- Kaliyamurthi, S., Selvaraj, G., 2016. Insight on solid lipid nanoparticles: characterization and application in diabetes mellitus. *J. Crit. Rev.* 3, 11–16.
- Kanner, J., Lapidot, T., 2001. The stomach as a bioreactor: dietary lipid peroxidation in the gastric fluid and the effects of plant-derived antioxidants. *Free Radic. Biol. Med.* 31, 1388–1395. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0891-5849\(01\)00718-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0891-5849(01)00718-3).
- Kaur, P., Thakur, R., Choudhary, A., 2012. An in vitro study of the antifungal activity of silver/chitosan nanoformulations against important seed borne pathogens. *Int. J. Sci. Technol. Res.* 1, 83–86.
- Khatibi, S.A., Misaghi, A., Moosavy, M.H., Basti, A.A., Mohamadian, S., Khanjari, A., 2017. Effect of nanoliposomes containing *Zataria multiflora* Boiss. essential oil on gene expression of Shiga toxin 2 in *Escherichia coli* O157: H7. *J. Appl. Microbiol.* 124, 389–397. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jam.13641>.
- Khezri, K., Farahpour, M.R., Mounesi Rad, S., 2020. Efficacy of *Mentha pulegium* essential oil encapsulated into nanostructured lipid carriers as an in vitro antibacterial and infected wound healing agent. *Colloids Surfaces A Physicochem. Eng. Asp.* 589, 124414 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.colsurfa.2020.124414>.
- Khezri, K., Farahpour, M.R., Rad, S.M., 2019. Accelerated infected wound healing by topical application of encapsulated rosemary essential oil into nanostructured lipid carriers. *Artif. Cells, Nanomedicine, Biotechnol.* 47, 980–988.
- Khoobdel, M., Ahsaei, S.M., Farzaneh, M., 2017. Insecticidal activity of polycaprolactone nanocapsules loaded with *Rosmarinus officinalis* essential oil in *Tribolium castaneum* (Herbst). *Entomol. Res.* 47, 175–184.
- Khosravi, K., 2013. Essential oils as natural food preservatives: Antimicrobial and antioxidant applications. In: Doughari, J.H. (Ed.), *Antimicrobials from nature: effective control agents for drug resistant pathogens*. Transworld Research Network, India, pp. 15–37.
- Kochikuzhyil, B.M., Devi, K., Fattapur, S.R., 2010. Effect of saturated fatty acid-rich dietary vegetable oils on lipid profile, antioxidant enzymes and glucose tolerance in diabetic rats. *Indian J. Pharmacol.* 42, 142–145.
- Krasodomska, O., Paolicelli, P., Cesa, S., Antonietta, M., Jungnickel, C., 2016. Protection and viability of fruit seeds oils by nanostructured lipid carrier (NLC) nanosuspensions. *J. Colloid Interface Sci.* 479, 25–33. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcis.2016.06.041>.
- Kris-Etherton, P.M., Harris, W.S., Appel, L.J., 2003. Omega-3 fatty acids and cardiovascular diseases: New recommendations from the American heart association. *J. Am. Heal. Assoc.* 23, 151–152.
- Kumar, A., Sharma, A., Upadhyaya, K.C., 2016. Vegetable oil: Nutritional and industrial perspective. *Curr. Genomics* 17, 230–240.
- Kumari, A., Yadav, S.K., Yadav, S.C., 2010. Biodegradable polymeric nanoparticles based drug delivery systems. *Colloids Surfaces B Biointerfaces* 75, 1–18.
- Lacatusu, I., Badea, N., Badea, G., Oprea, O., Mihaila, M.A., Kaya, D.A., Stan, R., Meghea, A., 2015. Lipid nanocarriers based on natural oils with high activity against oxygen free radicals and tumor cell proliferation. *Mater. Sci. Eng. C* 56, 88–94. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.msec.2015.06.019>.
- Lacatusu, I., Mitrea, E., Badea, N., Stan, R., Oprea, O., Meghea, A., 2013. Lipid nanoparticles based on omega-3 fatty acids as effective carriers for lutein delivery. Preparation and in vitro characterization studies. *J. Funct. Foods* 5, 1260–1269. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jff.2013.04.010>.
- Lammari, N., Demautis, T., Louaer, O., Hassen, A., Bentaheer, A., Elaissari, A., 2021. Nanocapsules containing *Saussurea lappa* essential oil: Formulation, characterization, antidiabetic, anti-cholinesterase and anti-inflammatory potentials. *Int. J. Pharm.* 593, 120138 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijpharm.2020.120138>.
- Lammari, N., Froio, F., Louaer, M., Cristiano, M.C., Bensouici, C., Paolino, D., Louaer, W., Meniai, A.H., Elaissari, A., 2020. Poly (ethyl acrylate-co-methyl methacrylate-co-trimethylammoniumethyl methacrylate chloride) (Eudragit RS 100) nanocapsules as nanovector carriers for Phoenix dactylifera L. seeds oil: a versatile antidiabetic agent. *Biomacromolecules* DOI: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1021/acs.biomac.0c00255>. <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.biomac.0c00255>.
- Langenheim, J.H., 2003. *Plant resins: chemistry, evolution, ecology and ethnobotany*. Timber Press, Portland, OR.
- Laohasongkram, K., Mahamaktudsanee, T., Chaiwanichsiri, S., 2011. Microencapsulation of macadamia oil by spray drying. *Ital. Oral Surg.* 1, 1660–1665. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.profoo.2011.09.245>.
- Laouini, A., Jafer-Maalej, C., Limayem-Blouza, I., Sfar, S., Charcosset, C., Fessi, H., 2012. Preparation, characterization and applications of liposomes: State of the art. *J. Colloid Sci. Biotechnol.* 1, 147–168. <https://doi.org/10.1166/jcsb.2012.1020>.
- Lee, S.Y., Kim, K.B.W.R., Lim, S.I., Ahn, D.H., 2014. Antibacterial mechanism of *Myagropsis myagroides* extract on *Listeria monocytogenes*. *Food Control* 42, 23–28.
- Li, L., Au, W., Hua, T., Zhao, D., Wong, K., 2013a. Improvement in antibacterial activity of moxa oil containing gelatin-arabic gum microcapsules. *Text. Res. J.* 83, 1236–1241.
- Li, Y., Ai, L., Yokoyama, W., Shoemaker, C., Wei, D., Ma, J., Zhong, F., 2013b. Properties of chitosan-microencapsulated orange oil prepared by spray-drying and its stability to detergents. *J. Agric. Food Chem.* 61, 3311–3319.
- Liakos, I.L., Grumezescu, A.M., Holban, A.M., Florin, I., D’Autilia, F., Carzino, R., Bianchini, P., Athanassiou, A., 2016. Poly(lactic acid)-lemongrass essential oil nanocapsules with antimicrobial properties. *Pharmaceuticals* 9, 42. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ph9030042>.
- Liakos, I.L., Iordache, F., Carzino, R., Scarpellini, A., Oneto, M., Bianchini, P., Grumezescu, A.M., Holban, A.M., Mihai, A., Maria, A., 2018. Cellulose acetate - essential oil nanocapsules with antimicrobial activity for biomedical applications. *Colloids Surfaces B Biointerfaces* 172, 471–479. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.colsurfb.2018.08.069>.
- Limaverde, P.W., Campina, F.F., Cunha, F.A., da, Crispim, F.D., Figueredo, F.G., Lima, L. F., Oliveira-Tintino, C.D. de M., Matos, Y.M.L.S. de, Morais-Braga, M.F.B., Menezes, I.R., Balbino, V.Q., Coutinho, H.D., Siqueira-Júnior, J.P., Almeida, J.R.G., Tintino, S.R., 2017. Inhibition of the TetK efflux-pump by the essential oil of *Chenopodium ambrosioides* L. and α-terpinene against *Staphylococcus aureus* IS-58. *Food Chem. Toxicol.* 109, 957–961.
- Lin, L., Chen, W., Li, C., Cui, H., 2019a. Enhancing stability of *Eucalyptus citriodora* essential oil by solid nanoliposomes encapsulation. *Ind. Crops Prod.* 140, 111615 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.indcrop.2019.111615>.
- Lin, L., Gu, Y., Sun, Y., Cui, H., 2019b. Characterization of chrysanthemum essential oil triple-layer liposomes and its application against *Campylobacter jejuni* on chicken. *LWT - Food Sci. Technol.* 107, 16–24. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lwt.2019.02.079>.
- Lin, L., Zhu, Y., Thangaraj, B., Abdel-samie, M.A.S., Cui, H., 2018. Improving the stability of thyme essential oil solid liposome by using β-cyclodextrin as a cryoprotectant. *Carbohydr. Polym.* 188, 243–251. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.carbpol.2018.02.010>.
- Lioliou, C.C., Gortzi, O., Lalas, S., Tsaknis, J., Chinou, I., 2009. Liposomal incorporation of carvacrol and thymol isolated from the essential oil of *Origanum dictamnus* L. and in vitro antimicrobial activity. *Food Chem.* 112, 77–83. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2008.05.060>.
- Liu, C., Liang, B., Shi, G., Li, Z., Zheng, X., 2015. Preparation and characteristics of nanocapsules containing essential oil for textile application. *Flavour Fragr. J.* 30, 295–301. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ffj.3245>.
- Liu, N., Guan, T., Zhou, W., Li, J., Cao, Y., Lin, L., 2016. Preparation and characterization of Galanga essential oil liposomes. In: The 2016 International Conference on Advances in Energy, Environment and Chemical Science (AECS 2016). pp. 99–105.
- Liu, Y., Wang, S., Zhang, R., Lan, W., Qin, W., 2017. Development of poly (lactic acid)/chitosan fibers loaded with essential oil for antimicrobial applications. *Nanomaterials* 7, 194. <https://doi.org/10.3390/nano7070194>.
- Lligadas, G., Ronda, J.C., Galia, M., Cadiz, V., 2010. Plant oils as platform chemicals for polyurethane synthesis: current state-of-the-art. *Biomacromolecules* 11, 2825–2835.
- López-meneses, A.K., Plascencia-jatomea, M., Lizardi-mendoza, J., Fernández-quiroz, D., 2018. Schinus molle L. essential oil-loaded chitosan nanoparticles: Preparation, characterization, antifungal and anti-aflatoxinigenic properties. *LWT - Food Sci. Technol.* 96, 597–603. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lwt.2018.06.013>.
- Lozano, M., Gonza, D., Calvo, P., Herna, T., 2012. Microencapsulation of extra-virgin olive oil by spray-drying: Influence of wall material and olive quality. *Eur. J. Lipid Sci. Technol.* 112, 852–858. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ejlt.201000059>.
- Luque-Alcaraz, A.G., Cortez-Rocha, M.O., Velázquez-Contreras, C.A., Acosta-Silva, A.L., Santacruz-Ortega, H.D.C., Burgos-Hernández, A., Argüelles-Monal, W.M., Plascencia-Jatomea, M., 2016. Enhanced antifungal effect of chitosan/Pepper tree (*Schinus molle*) essential oil bionanocomposites on the viability of *Aspergillus parasiticus* spores. *J. Nanomater.* 2016, 6060137. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2016/6060137>.
- Lv, Y., Yang, F., Li, X., Zhang, X., Abbas, S., 2014. Formation of heat-resistant nanocapsules of jasmine essential oil via gelatin / gum arabic based complex coagulation. *Food Hydrocolloids* 35, 305–314. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodhyd.2013.06.003>.
- Maccioni, A., Santo, A., Falconieri, D., Piras, A., Manconi, M., Maxia, A., Bacchetta, G., 2019. Inhibitory effect of rosemary essential oil, loaded in liposomes, on seed germination of *Acacia saligna* (Labill.) Wendl., an invasive species in Mediterranean ecosystems. *Botany* 97, 283–291.
- Mai, C.H., Le, T.T.T., Diep, T.T., Le, T.H.N., Nguyen, D.T., Bach, L.G., 2018. Development of solid lipid nanoparticles of Gac (Momordica cochinchinensis Spreng) oil by nano-emulsion technique. *Asian J. Chem.* 30, 293–297. <https://doi.org/10.14233/ajchem.2018.20902>.
- Mainardi, T., Kapoor, S., Bielory, L., 2009. Complementary and alternative medicine: herbs, phytochemicals and vitamins and their immunologic effects. *J. Allergu Clinical Immunol.* 123, 283–294.
- Manconi, M., Petretto, G., Guy, D., Escribano, E., Milia, E., Pinna, R., Palmieri, A., Firoznejad, M., Peris, J.E., Usach, I., Fadda, A.M., Caddeo, C., Manca, M.L., 2018. Thymus essential oil extraction, characterization and incorporation in phospholipid vesicles for the antioxidant / antibacterial treatment of oral cavity diseases. *Colloids Surfaces B Biointerfaces* 171, 115–122. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.colsurfb.2018.07.021>.
- Mandal, S.M., Roy, A., Ghosh, A.K., Hazra, T.K., Basak, A., Franco, O.L., 2014. Challenges and future prospects of antibiotic therapy: from peptides to phages utilization. *Front. Pharmacol.* 5, 105.
- Marchiori, M.C.L., Rigon, C., Camponogara, C., Oliveira, S.M., Cruz, L., 2017. Hydrogel containing silibinin-loaded pomegranate oil based nanocapsules exhibits anti-inflammatory effects on skin damage UVB radiation-induced in mice. *J. Photochem. Photobiol. B Biol.* 170, 25–32. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jphotobiol.2017.03.015>.
- Márquez-Ruiz, G., García-Martínez, M.C., Holgado, F., 2008. Changes and effects of dietary oxidized lipids in the gastrointestinal tract. *Lipids insights* 11–19.

- Maryam, I., Huzaifa, U., Hindatu, H., Zubaida, S., 2015. Nanoencapsulation of essential oils with enhanced antimicrobial activity : A new way of combating antimicrobial Resistance. *J. Pharmaceut. Phytochem.* 4, 165–170.
- Matos, S.P. De, Lucca, L.G., Koester, L.S., 2019. Essential oils in nanostructured systems : Challenges in preparation and analytical methods. *Talanta* 195, 204–214. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.talanta.2018.11.029>.
- Matthäus, B., 2010. Oxidation of edible oils. In: Decker, E.A., Elias, R.J., McClements, D. J. (Eds.), *Oxidation in foods and beverages and antioxidant applications*. Woodhead Publishing Limited, pp. 183–283.
- Mattheolabakis, G., Rigas, B., Constantinides, P.A., 2012. Nanodelivery strategies in cancer chemotherapy: biological rationale and pharmaceutical perspectives. *Nanomedicine* 10, 1577–1590.
- McDaniel, A., Tonyali, B., Yucel, U., Trinetta, V., 2019. Formulation and development of lipid nanoparticle antifungal packaging films to control postharvest disease. *J. Agric. Food Res.* 1, 100013 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jafr.2019.100013>.
- Mehner, W., Mäder, K., 2012. Solid lipid nanoparticles: Production, characterization and applications. *Adv. Drug Deliv. Rev.* 64, 83–101.
- Meier, M.A.R., Jurgen, M.O., Schubert, U.S., 2007. Plant oil renewable resources as green alternatives in polymer science. *Chem. Soc. Rev.* 36, 1788–1802. <https://doi.org/10.1039/b703294c>.
- Miao, S., Wang, P., Su, Z., Zhang, S., 2014. Vegetable-oil-based polymers as future polymeric biomaterials. *Acta Biomater.* 10, 1692–1704. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.actbio.2013.08.040>.
- Miladi, K., Sfar, S., Fessi, H., Elaissari, A., 2016. Nanoprecipitation process : From particle preparation to in vivo applications. In: Vauthier, C., Ponchel, G. (Eds.), *Polymer Nanoparticles for Nanomedicines*. Springer, Cham, Switzerland, pp. 17–53. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-41421-8>.
- Miranda, M., Cruz, M.T., Vitorino, C., Cabral, C., 2019. Nanostructuring lipid carriers using *Ridolfia segetum* (L.) Moris essential oil. *Mater. Sci. Eng. C* 103, 109804 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.msec.2019.109804>.
- Mishra, H., Mishra, P.K., Iqbal, Z., Jaggi, M., Madaan, A., Bhuyan, K., Gupta, Namita, Gupta, Neha, Vats, K., Verma, R., Talegaonkar, S., 2019. Co-delivery of eugenol and dacarbazine by hyaluronic acid-coated liposomes for targeted inhibition of survivin in treatment of resistant metastatic melanoma. *Pharmaceutics* 11, 163.
- Moghaddam, M., Mehdizadeh, L., 2017. Chemistry of essential oils and factors influencing their constituents. In: Grumezescu, A.M., Holban, A.M. (Eds.), *Soft Chemistry and Food Fermentation*. Elsevier Science Publishing Co Inc., New York, pp. 379–419. <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-811412-4.00013-8>.
- Mohammed, N.K., Tan, C., Manap, Y.A., Alhelli, A.M., Hussin, A.S.M., 2017. Process conditions of spray drying microencapsulation of *Nigella sativa* oil. *Powder Technol.* 315, 1–14. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.powtec.2017.03.045>.
- Morsy, N.F.S., 2017. Chemical structure, quality indices and bioactivity of essential oil constituents. In: El-Shemy, H. (Ed.), *Active Ingredients from Aromatic and Medicinal Plants*. IntechOpen, Spain, pp. 175–206.
- Mozafari, M.R., Khosravi-Darani, K., Borazan, G.G., Cui, J., Pardakhty, A., Yurdugul, S., 2008. Encapsulation of food ingredients using nanoliposome technology. *Int. J. Food Prop.* 11, 833–844.
- Mozafari, M.R., Mortazavi, S.M., 2005. A new technique for the preparation of non-toxic liposomes and nanoliposomes: The heating method. In: *Nanoliposomes: From Fundamentals to Recent Developments*. Trafford Publishing Ltd., Oxford, UK, pp. 91–98.
- Nagavarma, B.V.N., Yadav, H.K.S., Ayaz, A., Vasudha, L.S., Shivakumar, H.G., 2012. Different techniques for preparation of polymeric nanoparticles-A review. *Asian J. Pharm. Clin. Res.* 5, e33413145.
- Nahr, F.K., Ghanbarzadeh, B., Hamishehkar, H., Kafil, H.S., 2018. Food grade nanostructured lipid carrier for cardamom essential oil : Preparation, characterization and antimicrobial activity. *J. Funct. Foods* 40, 1–8. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jff.2017.09.028>.
- Nahr, F.K., Ghanbarzadeh, B., Hamishehkar, H., Samadi, H., Hoseini, M., Esmailnejad, B., 2019. Investigation of physicochemical properties of essential oil loaded nanoliposome for enrichment purposes. *LWT - Food Sci. Technol.* 105, 282–289. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lwt.2019.02.010>.
- Najafi, M.N., Arianmehr, A., Sani, A.M., 2020. Preparation of Barije (*Ferula gummosa*) essential oil-loaded liposomes and evaluation of physical and antibacterial effect on *Escherichia coli* O157:H7. *J. Food Prot.* 83, 511–517.
- Nasser, M., Golmohammadzadeh, S., Arouiee, H., Jaafari, M.R., Neamati, H., 2020. Preparation and comparison of various formulations of solid lipid nanoparticles (SLNs) containing the essential oil of *Zataria multiflora*. *J. Hortic. Postharvest Res.* 3, 73–84.
- Nasser, M., Golmohammadzadeh, S., Arouiee, H., Reza, M., Neamati, H., 2016. Antifungal activity of *Zataria multiflora* essential oil-loaded solid lipid nanoparticles *in-vitro* condition. *Iran. J. Basic Med. Sci.* 19, 1231–1237.
- Natrajan, D., Srinivasan, S., Sundar, K., Ravindran, A., 2015. Formulation of essential oil-loaded chitosan alginate nanocapsules. *J. Food Drug Anal.* 23, 560–568. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jfda.2015.01.001>.
- Nazari, M., Ghanbarzadeh, B., Kafil, H.S., Zeinali, M., 2019. Garlic essential oil nanophytosomes as a natural food preservative : Its application in yogurt as food model. *Colloid Interface Sci. Commun.* 30, 1–7. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.colcom.2019.100176>.
- Niza, E., Božik, M., Bravo, I., Clemente-Casares, P., Lara-Sanchez, A., Juan, A., Klouček, P., Alonso-Moreno, C., 2020. PEI-coated PLA nanoparticles to enhance the antimicrobial activity of carvacrol. *Food Chem.* 328, 127131.
- Nkanga, C.I., Bapolisi, A.M., Okafor, N.I., Krause, R.W.M., 2019. General perception of liposomes : Formation, manufacturing and applications. In: Catala, A. (Ed.), *Liposomes - Advances and Perspectives*. IntechOpen, Spain, pp. 1–24.
- Nonato, F.R., Santana, D.G., Melo, F.M. de, Santos, G.G.L. dos, Brustolim, D., Camargo, E. A., Sousa, D.P. de, Soares, M.B.P., Villarreal, C.F., 2012. Anti-inflammatory properties of rose oxide. *Int. Immunopharmacol.* 14, 4(4):779-84.
- Noor, N.M., Aziz, A.A., Sarmidi, M.R., Aziz, R., 2013. The effect of virgin coconut oil loaded solid lipid particles (VCO-SLPs) on skin hydration and skin elasticity. *J. Teknol.* 62, 39–43.
- Nosari, A.B.F.L., Lima, J.F., Serra, O.A., Alexandre, L., Freitas, P., 2015. Improved green coffee oil antioxidant activity for cosmetic purpose by spray drying microencapsulation. *Rev. Bras. Farmacogn.* 25, 307–311. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bjp.2015.04.006>.
- Orhan, I.E., MESAİK, M.A., Jabeen, A., Kan, Y., 2016. Immunomodulatory properties of various natural compounds and essential oils through modulation of human cellular immune response. *Ind. Crops Prod.* 81, 117–122.
- Orhan, I.R., Özçelik, B., Şener, B., 2011. Evaluation of antibacterial, antifungal, antiviral, and antioxidant potentials of some edible oils and their fatty acid profiles. *Turkish J. Biol.* 35, 251–258.
- Ortan, A., Câmpeanu, G., Dinu-Pîrvu, C., Popescu, L., 2009. Studies concerning the entrapment of *Anethum graveolens* essential oil in liposomes. *Roum. Biotechnol. Lett.* 14, 4411–4417.
- Ortan, A., Ferdes, M., Rodino, S., Pîrvu, C.D., Dragănescu, D., 2013. Topical delivery system of liposomally encapsulated volatile oil of *Anethum Graveolens*. *Farmacia* 61, 361–370.
- Ourique, A., Azoubel, S., Ferreira, C., Silva, C., Marchiori, M., Pohlmann, A., Guterres, S., Beck, R., 2010. Lipid-core nanocapsules as a nanomedicine for parenteral administration of tretinoin: development and in vitro antitumor activity on human myeloid leukaemia cells. *J. Biomed. Nanotechnol.* 6, 214–223.
- Özçelik, B., Aslan, M., Orhan, I., Karaoglu, T., 2005. Antibacterial, antifungal, and antiviral activities of the lipophylic extracts of *Pistacia vera* L. *Microbiol. Res.* 160, 159–164.
- Ozek, G., Schepetkin, I.A., Utegenova, G.A., Kirpotina, L.N., Andrei, S.R., Ozek, T., Baser, K.H.C., Abidkulova, K.T., Kushnarenko, S.V., Khlebnikov, A.I., Damron, D.S., Quinn, M.T., 2017. Chemical composition and phagocyte immunomodulatory activity of *Ferula iliensis* essential oils. *J. Leukoc. Biol.* 101, 1361–1371.
- Ozyıldız, F., Karagönlü, S., Basal, G., Uzel, A., Bayraktar, O., 2012. Micro-encapsulation of ozonated red pepper seed oil with antimicrobial activity and application to nonwoven fabric. *Lett. Appl. Microbiol.* 56, 168–179. <https://doi.org/10.1111/lam.12028>.
- Pandey, A.K., Kumar, P., Singh, P., Tripathi, N.N., Bajpai, V.K., 2016. Essential oils: Sources of antimicrobials and food preservatives. *Front. Microbiol.* 7, 1–14.
- Patel, D., 2013. Development & screening approach for lipid nanoparticle: A review. *Int. J. Innov. Pharm. Sci.* 2, 27–32.
- Patil, Y., Jadhav, S., 2014. Novel methods for liposome preparation. *Chem. Phys. Lipids* 177, 8–18.
- Paula, H.C.B., Sombra, F.M., Abreu, F.O.M.S., Paula, R.C.M., 2010. *Lippia sidoides* essential oil-encapsulation by angico gum/chitosan nanoparticles. *J. Braz. Chem. Soc.* 21, 2359–2366.
- Pedro, A.S., Santo, I.E., Silva, C. V., Detoni, C., Albuquerque, E., 2013. The use of nanotechnology as an approach for essential oil-based formulations with antimicrobial activity. In: Méndez-vilas, A. (Ed.), *Microbial pathogens and strategies for combating them: science, technology and education*. Badajoz : Formatex Research Center, pp. 1364–1374.
- Peng, S., Zhou, L., Liu, Wei, Gan, L., Liu, Weilin, Liang, R., Liu, C., Niu, J., Cao, Y., Liu, Z., Chen, X., 2015. Strage stability and antibacterial activity of eugenol nanoliposomes prepared by an ethanol injection-dynamic high pressure microfluidization method. *J. of Food Prot.* 78, 22–30. <https://doi.org/10.4315/0362-028X>.
- Pina-Barrera, A.M., Alvarez-Roman, R., Baez-Gonzalez, J.G., Amaya-Guerra, C.A., Rivas-Morales, C., Gallardo-Rivera, C.T., Galindo-Rodríguez, S.A., 2019. Application of a multisystem coating based on polymeric nanocapsules containing essential oil of *Thymus vulgaris* L. to increase the shelf life of table grapes (*Vitis vinifera* L.). *IEEE Trans. Nanobioscience* 18, 549–557. <https://doi.org/10.1109/TNB.2019.2941931>.
- Pivetta, T.P., Simões, S., Araújo, M.M., Carvalho, T., Arruda, C., Marcato, P.D., 2018. Development of nanoparticles from natural lipids for topical delivery of thymol : Investigation of its anti-inflammatory properties. *Colloids Surfaces B Biointerfaces* 164, 281–290. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.colsurfb.2018.01.053>.
- Popielski, T.M., Otsuka, I., Halila, S., Muniz, E.C., Soldi, V., Borsali, R., Catarina, F.D.S., 2016. Preparation of polymeric micelles of poly (Ethylene oxide- b -lactic acid) and their encapsulation with lavender oil. *Mater. Res.* 19, 1356–1365.
- Poudel, A., Gachumi, G., Wasan, K.M., Bashi, Z.D., El Anead, A., Badea, I., 2019. Development and characterization of liposomal formulations containing phytosterols extracted from canola oil deodorizer distillate along with tocopherols as food additives. *Pharmaceutics* 11, 185. <https://doi.org/10.3390/pharmaceutics11040185>.
- Priyadarshini, B.M., Antipina, M.N., Fawzy, A.S., 2018. Formulation and characterisation of poly (lactic-co-glycolic acid) encapsulated clove oil nanoparticles for dental applications. *Inst. Eng. Technol.* 12, 311–317. <https://doi.org/10.1049/iet-nbt.2017.0141>.
- Pu, J., Bankston, J.D., Sathivel, S., 2010. Developing microencapsulated flaxseed oil containing shrimp (*Litopenaeus setiferus*) astaxanthin using a pilot scale spray. *Biosyst. Eng.* 108, 121–132. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biosystemseng.2010.11.005>.
- Purohit, S., Solanki, R., Soni, M., 2012. Experimental evaluation of *Aloe vera* leaves pulp as topical medicament on wound healing. *Int. J. Pharmacol. Res.* 2, 110–112.
- Rahman, H.S., Rasedee, A., How, C.W., Abdul, A.B., Zeenathul, A.N., Othman, H.H., Saeed, M.I., Yeap, S.K., 2013. Zerubone-loaded nanostructured lipid carriers : preparation, characterization, and antileukemic effect. *Int. J. Nanomedicine* 8, 2769–2781.

- Rahman, H.S., Rasedee, A., Othman, H.H., Chartrand, M.S., Namvar, F., Yeap, S.K., Samad, N.A., Andas, R.J., Nadzri, N.M., Anasamy, T., Ng, K., How, C.W., 2014. Acute toxicity study of zerumbone-loaded nanostructured lipid carrier on BALB/c mice model. *Biomed Res. Int.* 2014, 1–15.
- Rajendran, R., Radhai, R., Kotresh, T.M., Csiszar, E., 2013. Development of antimicrobial cotton fabrics using herb loaded nanoparticles. *Carbohydr. Polym.* 91, 613–617. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.carbpol.2012.08.064>.
- Rajivgandhi, G., Saravanan, K., Ramachandran, G., Li, J., Yin, L., Quero, F., Alharbi, N.S., Kadaikunnan, S., Khaled, J.M., Manoharan, N., Li, W., 2020. Enhanced anti-cancer activity of chitosan loaded *Morinda citrifolia* essential oil against A549 human lung cancer cells. *Int. J. Biol. Macromol.* 164, 4010–4021.
- Rajkumar, V., Gunasekaran, C., Dharmaraj, J., Chinnaraj, P., Paul, C.A., Kanithachristy, I., 2020. Structural characterization of chitosan nanoparticle loaded with *Piper nigrum* essential oil for biological efficacy against the stored grain pest control. *Pestic. Biochem. Physiol.* 166, 104566.
- Ramteke, K.H., Joshi, S.A., Dhole, S.N., 2012. Solid lipid nanoparticle : A review. *IOSR J. Pharm.* 2, 34–44.
- Rani, S., Sharma, A.K., Khan, I., Gothwal, A., 2017. Polymeric nanoparticles in targeting and delivery of drugs, in *Nanotechnology-Based Approaches for Targeting and Delivery of Drugs and Genes*. Elsevier Science Publishing Co Inc.: New York, USA. <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-809717-5.00008-7>.
- Rao, J.P., Geckeler, K.E., 2011. Polymer nanoparticles : Preparation techniques and size-control parameters. *Prog. Polym. Sci.* 36, 887–913. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.progpolymsci.2011.01.001>.
- Rasti, B., Jinap, S., Mozafari, M.R., 2013. Optimization on preparation condition of polyunsaturated fatty acids nanoliposome prepared by Mozafari method. *J. Liposome Res.* 2104, 1–7. <https://doi.org/10.3109/08982104.2013.839702>.
- Rasti, B., Jinap, S., Mozafari, M.R., Yazid, A.M., 2012. Comparative study of the oxidative and physical stability of liposomal and nanoliposomal polyunsaturated fatty acids prepared with conventional and Mozafari methods. *Food Chem.* 135, 2761–2770. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2012.07.016>.
- Rates, S.M.K., 2001. Plants as source of drugs. *Toxicol.* 39, 603–613.
- Raut, J.S., Karuppaiyil, S.M., 2014. Experimental evaluation of *Aloe vera* leaves pulp as topical medicament on wound healing. *Ind. Crop. Prod.* 62, 250–264.
- Rein, M.J., Renouf, M., Cruz-Hernandez, C., Actis-Goretta, L., Thakkar, S.K., da Silva Pinto, M., 2013. Bioavailability of bioactive food compounds: a challenging journey to bioefficacy. *Br. J. Clin. Pharmacol.* 75, 588–602. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2125.2012.04245.x>.
- Ribeiro-Santos, R., Andrade, M., de Melo, N.R., Sanches-Silva, A., 2017. Use of essential oils in active food packaging: Recent advances and future trends. *Trends Food Sci. Technol.* 61, 132–140.
- Rigo, L.A., Frescura, V., Fiel, L., Coradini, K., Ourique, A.F., Emanuelli, T., Tedesco, S., Silva, C.B., Stanic, S., Pohlmann, A.R., Carlos, R., Beck, R., 2013. Influence of the type of vegetable oil on the drug release profile from lipid-core nanocapsules and in vivo genotoxicity study. *Pharm. Technol. Dev.* 1–10. <https://doi.org/10.3109/10837450.2013.829097>.
- Rigo, L.A., Silva, C.R., Oliveira, S.M., Cabreira, T.N., Silva, C.B., Ferreira, J., Beck, R.C.R., 2015. Nanoencapsulation of rice bran oil increases its protective effects against UVB radiation-induced skin injury in mice. *Eur. J. Pharm. Biopharm.* 93, 11–17. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ejpb.2015.03.020>.
- Risaliti, L., Kehagia, A., Daouliti, E., Lazari, D., Bergonzi, M.C., Vergkizi-nikolakaki, S., Hadjipavlou-litina, D., Bilia, A.R., 2019. Liposomes loaded with *Salvia triloba* and *Rosmarinus officinalis* essential oils : In vitro assessment of antioxidant, antiinflammatory and antibacterial activities. *J. Drug Deliv. Sci. Technol.* 51, 493–498. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jddst.2019.03.034>.
- Roccia, P., Martínez, M.L., Llabot, J.M., Ribotta, P.D., 2014. Influence of spray-drying operating conditions on sunflower oil powder qualities. *Powd. 254*, 307–313. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.powtec.2014.01.044>.
- Rodea-gonzález, D.A., Cruz-olivares, J., Román-guerrero, A., Rodríguez-huezo, M.E., Vernon-carter, E.J., Pérez-alonso, C., 2012. Spray-dried encapsulation of chia essential oil (*Salvia hispanica* L.) in whey protein concentrate-polysaccharide matrices. *J. Food Eng.* 111, 102–109. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jfoodeng.2012.01.020>.
- Rodenak-Kladniew, B., Islan, G.A., de Bravo, M.G., Durán, N., Castro, G.R., 2017. Design, characterization and *in vitro* evaluation of linalool-loaded solid lipid nanoparticles as potent tool in cancer therapy. *Colloids Surfaces B Biointerfaces* 154, 123–132. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.colsurfb.2017.03.021>.
- Rodríguez, J., Martín, M.J., Ruiz, M.A., Clares, B., 2016. Current encapsulation strategies for bioactive oils : From alimentary to pharmaceutical perspectives. *Food Research Int.* 83, 41–59. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodres.2016.01.032>.
- Rozman, N.A.S., Tong, W.Y., Leong, C.R., Anuar, M.R., Karim, S., Ong, S.K., Yusof, F.A.M., Tan, W.-N., Sulaiman, B., Ooi, M.L., Lee, K.C., 2020. *Homalomena pincodora* essential oil nanoparticle inhibits diabetic wound pathogens. *Sci. Rep.* 10, 3307.
- Rubilar, M., Morales, E., Contreras, K., Ceballos, C., Acevedo, F., Villarroel, M., Shene, C., 2012. Development of a soup powder enriched with microencapsulated linseed oil as a source of omega-3 fatty acids. *Eur. J. Lipid Sci. Technol.* 114, 423–433. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ejlt.201100378>.
- Rushmi, Z.T., Akter, N., Mow, R.J., Afroz, M., Kazi, M., Matas, M. De, Rahman, M., Shariare, M.H., 2017. The impact of formulation attributes and process parameters on black seed oil loaded liposomes and their performance in animal models of analgesia. *Saudi Pharm. J.* 25, 404–412. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsps.2016.09.011>.
- Saffari, M., Shirazi, F.H., Moghimi, H.R., 2016. Terpene-loaded liposomes and isopropyl myristate as chemical permeation enhancers toward liposomal gene delivery in lung cancer cells; A comparative study. *Iran. J. Pharm. Res.* 15, 261–267.
- Sagiri, S.S., Anis, A., Pal, K., 2016. A Review on encapsulation of vegetable oils : Strategies, preparation methods and application. *Polym. Plast. Technol. Eng.* 55, 37–41. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03602559.2015.1050521>.
- Saha, S., Ghosh, M., 2011. Antioxidant effect of vegetable oils containing conjugated linolenic acid isomers against induced tissue lipid peroxidation and inflammation in rat model. *Chem. Biol. Interact.* 190, 109–120.
- Saharan, V., Mehrotra, A., Khatik, R., Rawal, P., Sharma, S.S., Pal, A., 2013. Synthesis of chitosan based nanoparticles and their *in vitro* evaluation against phytopathogenic fungi. *Int. J. Biol. Macromol.* 62, 677–683.
- Sailaja, A.K., Amareshwar, P., Chakravarty, P., 2011. Formulation of solid lipid nanoparticles and their applications. *Curr. Pharma Res.* 1, 197–203.
- Salari, S., Salari, R., 2019. Nanoliposomal system of rosemary essential oil made by specific human cell phospholipids and evaluation of its anti-cancer properties. *Appl. Nanosci.* 9, 2085–2089. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13204-019-01009-1>.
- Salminen, H., Helgason, T., Kristinsson, B., Kristbergsson, K., Weiss, J., 2017. Tuning of shell thickness of solid lipid particles impacts the chemical stability of encapsulated x-3 fish oil. *J. Colloid Interface Sci.* 490, 207–216. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcis.2016.11.063>.
- Sameen, D.E., Ahmed, S., Qin, W., Zhang, Q., Chen, H., Dai, J., He, L., Liu, Y., 2020. Preparation and characterization of grass carp collagen-chitosan-lemon essential oil composite films for application as food packaging. *Int. J. Biol. Macromol.* 160, 340–351.
- Santos, V. da S., Braz, B.B., Silva, A.Á., Cardoso, L.P., Ribeiro, A.P.B., Santana, M.H.A., 2019. Nanostructured lipid carriers loaded with free phytosterols for food applications. *Food Chem.* 298, 125053. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2019.125053>.
- Saporito, F., Sandri, G., Bonferoni, M.C., Rossi, S., Boselli, C., Cornaglia, A.I., Mannucci, B., Grisoli, P., Viganò, B., Ferrari, F., 2018. Essential oil-loaded lipid nanoparticles for wound healing. *Int. J. Nanomedicine* 13, 175–186.
- Saraf, S., Sahu, S., Kaur, C., Saraf, S., 2010. Comparative measurement of hydration effects of herbal moisturizers. *Pharmacognosy Res.* 2, 146–151.
- Sarang, M.K., Padhi, S., 2016. Solid lipid nanoparticles- A review. *J. Critica Rev.* 3, 5–12. <https://doi.org/10.5958/0975-4377.2016.00030.6>.
- Sebaaly, C., Charcosset, C., Stainmesse, S., Fessi, H., Greige-gerges, H., 2016a. Clove essential oil-in-cyclodextrin-in-liposomes in the aqueous and lyophilized states : From laboratory to large scale using a membrane contactor. *Carbohydr. Polym.* 138, 75–85.
- Sebaaly, C., Greige-Gerges, H., Agusti, G., Fessi, H., Charcosset, C., 2015a. Large-scale preparation of clove essential oil and eugenol-loaded liposomes using a membrane contactor and a pilot plant. *J. Liposome Res.* 26, 126–138. <https://doi.org/10.3109/08982104.2015.1057849>.
- Sebaaly, C., Greige-gerges, H., Stainmesse, S., Fessi, H., Charcosset, C., 2016b. Effect of composition, hydrogenation of phospholipids and lyophilization on the characteristics of eugenol-loaded liposomes prepared by ethanol injection method. *Food Biosci.* 15, 1–10. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fbio.2016.04.005>.
- Sebaaly, C., Jraji, A., Fessi, H., Charcosset, C., Greige-gerges, H., 2015b. Preparation and characterization of clove essential oil-loaded liposomes. *Food Chem.* 178, 52–62. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2015.01.067>.
- Shakeri, F., Shakeri, S., Hojjatoleslami, M., 2014. Preparation and characterization of carvacrol loaded polyhydroxybutyrate nanoparticles by nanoprecipitation and dialysis methods. *J. Food Sci.* 79, 697–705. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1750-3841.12406>.
- Shakeri, M., Hadi, S., Shakeri, S., 2019. Carvacrol and astaxanthin co-entrainment in beeswax solid lipid nanoparticles as an efficient nano-system with dual antioxidant and anti-biofilm activities. *LWT - Food Sci. Technol.* 107, 280–290. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lwt.2019.03.031>.
- Shamaei, S., Sadegh, S., Aghbashlo, M., Tsotsas, E., Kharaghani, A., 2017. Microencapsulation of walnut oil by spray drying : Effects of wall material and drying conditions on physicochemical properties of microcapsules. *Innov. Food Sci. Emerg. Technol.* 39, 101–112. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ifset.2016.11.011>.
- Shi, F., Yang, G., Ren, J., Guo, T., Du, Y., Feng, N., 2013. Formulation design, preparation, and *in vitro* and *in vivo* characterizations of β -elemene-loaded nanostructured lipid carriers. *Int. J. Nanomedicine* 8, 2533–2541.
- Shukla, A.C., 2018. Essential oils as green pesticides for postharvest disease management. *Acta Hort.* 1210, 199–206.
- Siddiq, Abdelwahab, I., Sheikh, B.Y., Taha, M.M.E., How, C.W., Abdullah, R., Yagoub, U., El-sunousi, R., Eid, E.E., 2013. Thymoquinone-loaded nanostructured lipid carriers : preparation, gastroprotection, *in vitro* toxicity, and pharmacokinetic properties after extravascular administration. *Int. J. Nanomedicine* 8, 2163–2172.
- Silva-Flores, P.G., Opez, L.A.P.-L., Rivas-Galindo, V.M., Paniagua-Vega, D., Galindo-Rodríguez, S.A., Alvarez-Roman, R., 2019. Simultaneous GC-FID quantification of main components of *Rosmarinus officinalis* L. and *Lavandula dentata* essential oils in polymeric nanocapsules for antioxidant application. *J. Anal. Methods Chem.* 2019, 1–9.
- Sodeifian, G., hossein, Nedasadat, S., Seyed, Sajadian, A.A., Ghorbandoost, S., 2016. Application of supercritical carbon dioxide to extract essential oil from *Cleome coluteoides* Boiss: Experimental, response surface and grey wolf optimization methodology. *J. Supercrit. Fluids* 114, 55–63.
- Soleimani, Y., Amir, S., Goli, H., Varshosaz, J., Sahafi, S.M., 2018. Formulation and characterization of novel nanostructured lipid carriers made from beeswax, propolis wax and pomegranate seed oil. *Food Chem.* 244, 83–92. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2017.10.010>.
- Sotelo-Boya, M., Valverde-Aguilar, G., Plascencia-Jatomea, M., Correa Pacheco, Z., Jiménez-Aparicio, A., Solorza-Feria, J., Barrera-Necha, L., Bautista-Baños, S., 2015. Characterization of chitosan nanoparticles added with essential oils. *In vitro* effect on *Pectobacterium carotovorum*. *Rev. Mex. Ing. química* 14, 589–599.

- Sotelo-Boyás, M.E., Correa-Pacheco, Z., Bautista-Banos, S., Gómez, Y.G.Y., 2017a. Release study and inhibitory activity of thyme essential oil-loaded chitosan nanoparticles and nanocapsules against foodborne bacteria. *Int. J. Biol. Macromol.* 103, 409–414. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijbiomac.2017.05.063>.
- Sotelo-Boyás, M.E., Correa-Pacheco, Z.N., Bautista-Banos, S., Corona-Rangel, M.L., 2017b. Physicochemical characterization of chitosan nanoparticles and nanocapsules incorporated with lime essential oil and their antibacterial activity against food-borne pathogens. *LWT - Food Sci. Technol.* 77, 15–20. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lwt.2016.11.022>.
- Sousa, V.P. de, Crean, J., Borges, V.R. de A., Rodrigues, C.R., Tajber, L., Boylan, F., Cabral, L.M., 2013. Nanostructured systems containing babassu (*Orbignya speciosa*) oil as a potential alternative therapy for benign prostatic hyperplasia. *Int. J. Nanomedicine* 8, 3129–3139.
- Souza, J.R., Bonfim, K.S., Lorevice, M.V., Correa, D.S., Mattoso, L.H.C., de Moura, M.R., 2020. Antibacterial properties of oregano essential oil encapsulated in poly (ϵ -Caprolactone) nanoparticles. *Adv. Sci. Eng. Med.* 12, 7.
- Stano, P., Bufali, S., Pisano, C., Bucci, F., Barbarino, M., Santaniello, M., Carminati, P., Luisi, P.L., 2004. Novel camptothecin analogue (gimatecan)-containing liposomes prepared by the ethanol injection method. *J. Liposome Res.* 14, 87–109.
- Sun, X., Cameron, R.G., Bai, J., 2020. Effect of spray-drying temperature on physicochemical, antioxidant and antimicrobial properties of pectin/sodium alginate microencapsulated carvacrol. *Food Hydrocoll.* 100, 105420 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodhyd.2019.105420>.
- Suomela, J.-P., Ahotupa, M., Sjövall, O., Kurvinen, J.-P., Kallio, H., 2004. Diet and liprotein oxidation: Analysis of oxidized triacylglycerols in pig lipoproteins. *Lipids* 39, 639–647. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11745-004-1277-4>.
- Sutaphanit, P., Chitprasert, P., 2014. Optimisation of microencapsulation of holy basil essential oil in gelatin by response surface methodology. *Food Chem.* 150, 313–320. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2013.10.159>.
- Svetlichny, G., Kulkamp-Guerreiro, I.C., Cunha, S.L., Silva, F.E.K., Bueno, K., Pohlmann, A.R., Fuentesfria, A.M., Guterres, S.S., 2015. Solid lipid nanoparticles containing copaiba oil and allantoin: development and role of nanoencapsulation on the antifungal activity. *Pharmazie* 70, 155–164. <https://doi.org/10.1691/ph.2015.4116>.
- Tabassum, N., Vidyasagar, G., 2014. *In vitro* antimicrobial activity of edible oils against human pathogens causing skin infections. *Int. J. Pharm. Sci. Res.* 5, 4493–4498. [https://doi.org/10.13040/IJPSR.0975-8232.5\(10\).4493-98](https://doi.org/10.13040/IJPSR.0975-8232.5(10).4493-98).
- Tabatabai, M.B., Mirjalili, M., Yazdian, F., Hekmatimoghaddam, S., 2018. Antibacterial activity and cytotoxicity of nanoliposomes and nanoniosomic essential oil of *Trachyspermum copticum*. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. India Sect. B - Biol. Sci.* 89, 1109–1116. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40011-018-1025-6>.
- Tahir, H.U., Sarfraz, R.A., Ashraf, A., Adil, S., 2016. Chemical composition and anti-diabetic activity of essential oils obtained from two spices (*Syzygium aromaticum* and *Cuminum cyminum*). *Int. J. Food Prop.* 19, 2156–2164.
- Tang, J., Ge, Y., 2017. Development and evaluation of novel eucalyptus essential oil liposomes /chitosan composite sponges for medical use. *Fibers Polym.* 18, 424–433. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12221-017-6983-4>.
- Thakre, A.D., Mulange, S.V., Kodgire, S.S., Zore, G.B., Karuppaiyl, S.M., 2016. Effects of cinnamaldehyde, ocimene, camphene, curcumin and farnesene on *Candida albicans*. *Adv. Microbiol.* 6, 627–643.
- Thelagavath, G., Kannaian, T., 2008. Dual antimicrobial and blood repellent finishes for cotton hospital fabrics. *Ind J. Fibre Text. Res.* 33, 23–29.
- Tian, H., Lu, Z., Li, D., Hu, J., 2018. Preparation and characterization of citral-loaded solid lipid nanoparticles. *Food Chem.* 248, 78–85. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2017.11.091>.
- Timbe, P.P.R., Motta, A. de S., Isaia, H.A., Brandelli, A., 2020. Polymeric nanoparticles loaded with *Baccharis dracunculifolia* DC essential oil: Preparation, characterization, and antibacterial activity in milk. *J. Food Process. Preserv.* 44, e14712. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jfpp.14712>.
- Tonon, R.V., Grosso, C.R.F., Hubinger, M.D., 2011. Influence of emulsion composition and inlet air temperature on the microencapsulation of flaxseed oil by spray drying. *Food Res. Int.* 44, 282–289. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodres.2010.10.018>.
- Tonon, R.V., Pedro, R.B., Grosso, C.R.F., Hubinger, M.D., 2012. Microencapsulation of flaxseed oil by spray drying: Effect of oil load and type of wall material. *Dry. Technol.* 30, 1491–1501. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07373937.2012.696227>.
- Turek, C., Stintzing, F.C., 2013. Stability of essential oils: A review. *Compr. Rev. Food Sci. Food Saf.* 12, 40–53.
- Us-medina, U., Julio, L.M., Segura-campos, M.R., Ixtaina, V.Y., Tomás, M.C., 2018. Development and characterization of spray-dried chia oil microcapsules using by-products from chia as wall material. *Powder Technol.* 334, 1–8. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.powtec.2018.04.060>.
- Valenti, D., Logu, A. De, Loy, G., Sinico, C., Bonsignore, L., Cottiglia, F., Grarau, D., Fadda, A.M., 2001. Liposome-incorporated *Santolina insularis* essential oil: Preparation, characterization and *in vitro* antiviral activity. *J. Liposome Res.* 11, 73–90.
- Vanderhoff, J.W., Asser, M.S. El, 1979. Polymer emulsification process.
- Vélez, M.A., Perotti, M.C., Hynes, E.R., Gennaro, A.M., 2019. Effect of lyophilization on food grade liposomes loaded with conjugated linoleic acid. *J. Food Eng.* 240, 199–206. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jfoodeng.2018.07.033>.
- Vemuri, S., Rhodes, C.T., 1995. Preparation and characterization of liposomes as therapeutic delivery systems: a review. *Pharm. Acta Helv.* 70, 95–111.
- Vieira, R., Severino, P., Nalone, L.A., Souto, S.B., Silva, A.M., Lucarini, M., Durazzo, A., Santini, A., Souto, E.B., 2020. Sucupira oil-loaded nanostructured lipid carriers (NLC): Lipid screening, factorial design, release profile, and cytotoxicity. *Molecules* 25, 1–22. <https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules25030685>.
- Vrouvaki, I., Koutra, E., Kornaros, M., Avgoustakis, K., Lamari, F.N., Hatziantoniou, S., 2020. Polymeric nanoparticles of *Pistacia lentiscus* var. chia essential oil for cutaneous applications. *Pharmaceutics* 12, 353.
- Wachtel-Galor, S., Benzie, I.F.F., 2011. Herbal medicine: An introduction to its history, usage, regulation, current trends, and research needs. In: Benzie, I.F.F., Wachtel-Galor, S. (Eds.), *Herbal Medicine: Biomolecular and Clinical Aspects*. CRC Press, pp. 1–10.
- Wang, J.M., Zheng, W., Song, Q.W., Zhu, H., Zhou, Y., 2009. Preparation and characterization of natural fragrant microcapsules. *J. Fiber Bioeng. Informatics* 1, 293–300.
- Wang, Q., Lv, S., Lu, J., Jiang, S., Lin, L., 2015. Evaluation of carboxymethyl chitosan coated liposomes containing fish oil. *J. Food Sci.* 80, 1460–1467. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1750-3841.12929>.
- Wang, S., Shi, Y., Han, L., 2018. Development and evaluation of microencapsulated peony seed oil prepared by spray drying: Oxidative stability and its release behavior during *in-vitro* digestion. *J. Food Eng.* 231, 1–9. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jfoodeng.2018.03.007>.
- Wang, X., Liu, L., Xia, S., Muhoza, B., Cai, J., Zhang, X., Duhoranimana, E., Su, J., 2019. Sodium carboxymethyl cellulose modulates the stability of cinnamaldehyde-loaded liposomes at high ionic strength. *Food Hydrocoll.* 93, 10–18.
- Wang, Z., 2012. Preparation and characterization of solid lipid nanoparticles loaded with frankincense and myrrh oil. *Int. J. Nanomedicine* 7, 2033–2043. <https://doi.org/10.2147/IJN.S30085>.
- Warnke, P., Becker, S., Podschun, R., Sivananthan, S., Springer, I., Russo, P., Wiltfang, J., Fickenscher, H., Sherry, E., 2009. The battle against multi-resistant strains: Renaissance of antimicrobial essential oils as a promising force to fight hospital-acquired infections. *J. Craniomaxillofac. Surg.* 37, 392–397.
- Warshaw, E.M., Maibach, H.I., Taylor, J.S., Sasseville, D., DeKoven, F., Zirwas, M., Fransway, A., Mathias, C., Zug, K., DeLeo, V., Fowler, J., Marks, J., Pratt, M., Storrs, F., Belsito, D., 2015. North American contact dermatitis group patch test results: 2011–2012. *Dermatitis* 26, 49–59.
- Weber, J., Funk, N.L., Motta, M.H., Guedes, A.M., Visintainer, A.P.C., Tedesco, S.B., Silva, C.D.B., Chalmers, H., 2016. Association of borage oil and betamethasone dipropionate in lipid-core nanocapsules: characterization, photostability and *in vitro* irritation test. *J. Nanosci. Nanotechnol.* 16, 1354–1362. <https://doi.org/10.1166/jnn.2016.11674>.
- Woranuch, S., Yoksan, R., 2013. Eugenol-loaded chitosan nanoparticles: I. Thermal stability improvement of eugenol through encapsulation. *Carbohydr. Polym.* 96, 578–585. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.carbpol.2012.08.117>.
- Wu, Z., Zhou, W., Pang, C., Deng, W., Xu, C., Wang, X., 2020. Multifunctional chitosan-based coating with liposomes containing laurel essential oils and nanosilver for pork preservation. *Food Chem.* 295, 16–25.
- Xenakis, A., Papadimitriou, V., Sotiroidis, T.G., 2010. Colloidal structures in natural oils. *Curr. Opin. Colloid Interface Sci.* 15, 55–60. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cocis.2009.11.007>.
- Yadav, N., Khatak, S., Sara, U.V.S., 2013. Solid lipid nanoparticles- A review. *Int. J. Appl. Pharm.* 5, 8–18.
- Yaep, S., Beh, B., Ali, N., Yusof, H., 2015. Antistress and antioxidant effects of virgin coconut oil *in vivo*. *Exp. Ther. Med.* 9, 39–42.
- Yang, J., Han, S., Zheng, H., Dong, H., Liu, J., 2015a. Preparation and application of micro/nanoparticles based on natural polysaccharides. *Carbohydr. Polym.* 123, 53–66.
- Yang, X., Gao, N., Hu, L., Li, J., Sun, Y., 2015b. Development and evaluation of novel microcapsules containing poppy-seed oil using complex coacervation. *J. Food Eng.* 161, 87–93. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jfoodeng.2015.03.027>.
- Yang, Z., Peng, Z., Li, J., Li, S., Kong, L., Li, P., Wang, Q., 2014. Development and evaluation of novel flavour microcapsules containing vanilla oil using complex coacervation approach. *Food Chem.* 145, 272–277. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2013.08.074>.
- Yara-Varón, E., Li, Y., Balcells, M., Canela-Garayoa, R., Fabiano-Tixier, A.-S., Chemat, F., 2017. Vegetable oils as alternative solvents for green oleo-extraction, purification and formulation of food and natural products. *Molecules* 22, 1474. <https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules22091474>.
- Yoshida, P.A., Yokota, D., Foglio, M.A., Rodrigues, R.A.F., Pinho, S.C., 2010. Liposomes incorporating essential oil of Brazilian cherry (*Eugenia uniflora* L.): Characterization of aqueous dispersions and lyophilized formulations. *J. Microencapsul.* 27, 416–425. <https://doi.org/10.3109/02652040903367327>.
- Yu, F.L., Greenlaw, R., Fang, Q., Bender, W., Yamaguchi, K., Xue, B.H., Yu, C.C., 2004. Studies on the chemopreventive potentials of vegetable oils and unsaturated fatty acids against breast cancer carcinogenesis at initiation. *Eur. J. Cancer Prev.* 13, 239–248.
- Zabihi, A., Basti, A.A., Amoabediny, G., Khanjari, A., Bazzaz, J.T., Mohammadkhan, F., Bargh, A.H., Vanaki, E., 2017. Physicochemical characteristics of nanoliposome garlic (*Allium sativum* L.) essential oil and its antibacterial effect on *Escherichia coli* O157: H7. *J. Food Qual. Hazards Control* 4, 24–28.
- Zammit, M.L., 2010. Photosensitivity: Light, sun and pharmacy. *J. Malta Coll. Pharm. Pract.* 16, 12–17.
- Zeghib, A., Kabouche, A., Laggoune, S., Calliste, C.-A., Simon, A., Bressolier, P., Aouni, M., Duroux, J.-L., Kabouche, Z., 2017. Antibacterial, antiviral, Antioxidant and antiproliferative activities of Thymus guyonii essential oil. *Nat. Prod. Commun.* 12, 1651–1654.
- Zermene, A., Larkeche, O., Meniai, A.-H., Crampon, C., Badens, E., 2016. Optimization of Algerian rosemary essential oil extraction yield by supercritical CO2 using response surface methodology. *Comptes Rendus Chim.* 19, 538–543.

- Zhang, H., Li, X., Liang, Y., Kang, H., 2020. Effect of chitosan-gelatin coating containing nano-encapsulated tarragon essential oil on the preservation of pork slices. *Meat Sci.* 166, 108137.
- Zhang, H., Ran, X., Hu, C., Qin, L., Lu, Y., Peng, C., 2012a. Therapeutic effects of liposome-enveloped *Ligusticum chuanxiong* essential oil on hypertrophic scars in the rabbit ear model. *PLoS One* 7, 1–8. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0031157>.
- Zhang, K., Zhang, H., Hu, X., Bao, S., Huang, H., 2012b. Synthesis and release studies of microalgal oil-containing microcapsules prepared by complex coacervation. *Colloids Surfaces B Biointerfaces* 89, 61–66. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.colsurfb.2011.08.023>.
- Zhao, Y., Chang, Y.-X., Hu, X., Liu, C.-Y., Quan, L.-H., Liao, Y.-H., 2017. Solid lipid nanoparticles for sustained pulmonary delivery of Yuxingcao essential oil: Preparation, characterization and *in vivo* evaluation. *Int. J. Pharm.* 516, 364–371.
- Zhaveh, S., Mohsenifar, A., Beiki, M., Tahereh, S., Abdollahi, A., Rahmani-cherati, T., Tabatabaei, M., 2015. Encapsulation of *Cuminum cyminum* essential oils in chitosan-caffeic acid nanogel with enhanced antimicrobial activity against *Aspergillus flavus*. *Ind. Crop. Prod.* 69, 251–256. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.indcrop.2015.02.028>.
- Zhu, D., Chenga, H., Li, J., Zhang, W., Shen, Y., Chen, Shaojun, Ge, Z., Chen, Shiguo, 2016. Enhanced water-solubility and antibacterial activity of novel chitosan derivatives modified with quaternary phosphonium salt. *Mater. Sci. Eng. C* 61, 79–84.
- Zhu, J., Zhuang, P., Luan, L., Sun, Q., Cao, F., 2015. Preparation and characterization of novel nanocarriers containing krill oil for food application. *J. Funct. Foods* 19, 902–912. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jff.2015.06.017>.
- Zhu, Y., Li, C., Cui, H., Lin, L., 2020. Plasma enhanced-nutmeg essential oil solid liposome treatment on the gelling and storage properties of pork meat batters. *J. Food Eng.* 266, 109696.
- Zielińska, A., Ferreira, N.R., Icon, A.F.-G., Nowak, I., Souto, E.B., 2020. Loading, release profile and accelerated stability assessment of monoterpenes-loaded solid lipid nanoparticles (SLN). *Pharm. Dev. Technol.* 25, 832–844.
- Zielinska, A., R.Ferreira, N., Durazzo, A., Lucarini, M., Ciero, N., Mamouni, S. El, Silva, A. M., Nowak, I., Santini, A., Souto, E.B., 2019. Alpha-Pinene-loaded solid lipid nanoparticles dispersion analysis. *Molecules* 24, 2683.

Review

Encapsulation of Essential Oils via Nanoprecipitation Process: Overview, Progress, Challenges and Prospects

Narimane Lammari ^{1,2} , Ouahida Louaer ², Abdeslam Hassen Meniai ² and Abdelhamid Elaissari ^{1,*}

¹ Univ Lyon, University Claude Bernard Lyon-1, CNRS, LAGEPP-UMR 5007, F-69622 Lyon, France; nanjbba@hotmail.com

² Environmental Process Engineering Laboratory, University Constantine 3, Salah Boubnider, 25000 Constantine, Algeria; wlouaer@yahoo.fr (O.L.); meniai@yahoo.fr (A.H.M.)

* Correspondence: abdelhamid.elaissari@univ-lyon1.fr

Received: 20 March 2020; Accepted: 5 May 2020; Published: 7 May 2020



Abstract: Essential oils are of paramount importance in pharmaceutical, cosmetic, agricultural, and food areas thanks to their crucial properties. However, stability and bioactivity determine the effectiveness of essential oils. Polymeric nanoencapsulation is a well-established approach for the preservation of essential oils. It offers a plethora of benefits, including improved water solubility, effective protection against degradation, prevention of volatile components evaporation and controlled and targeted release. Among the several techniques used for the design of polymeric nanoparticles, nanoprecipitation has attracted great attention. This review focuses on the most outstanding contributions of nanotechnology in essential oils encapsulation via nanoprecipitation method. We emphasize the chemical composition of essential oils, the principle of polymeric nanoparticle preparation, the physicochemical properties of essential oils loaded nanoparticles and their current applications.

Keywords: essential oils; nanoencapsulation; polymeric nanoparticle; nanoprecipitation

1. Introduction

For millennia, nature has been considered a valuable source of medicinal agents and an exciting number of modern drugs have been derived from natural sources [1]. Recently, scientists throughout the world have shifted their main focus toward herbal medicine as a form of complementary or replacement therapy [2]. In fact, the World Health Organization (WHO) estimated that between 70 and 95% of the world's inhabitants rely mainly on herbal medicines as their primary source of medication [3]. Among the vastness of plant products, essential oils (EO) earn particular attention [4].

Essential oils are generally complex mixtures of volatile organic compounds biosynthesized as secondary metabolites determining the specific aroma, flavor and fragrance of plants [5,6]. Essential oils could be extracted from different plant organs by different extraction methods [7,8]. In recent decades, investigations in new technologies have led to the emergence of new innovative and more efficient extraction processes [9–11]. Essential oils have been used since ancient times in various cultures for medicinal and health purposes such as antibacterial, antiviral, antifungal, anticarcinogenic, antimutagenic, anti-inflammatory and antioxidant. The diverse health benefits associated to the consumption of EO or their derivatives have been extensively documented [12–14]. In parallel with medicinal and health purposes, the application of EO is widening to the food industry, food packaging and agriculture [15–17]. In each case, EO are replacing synthetic chemical products that are more toxic, or to which pests or bacteria have shown resistance [18]. Several reports highlighted the efficiency of EO over chemical preservatives in preventing the growth of pathogens and delaying food spoilage [19,20]. Moreover, they do not exhibit the harmful health risks associated with the

use of synthetic pesticides. Thus, EO are today at the forefront of food and agriculture fields [21]. However, their use is always confronted by several factors including their high volatility and high risk of deterioration upon direct exposure to heat, humidity, light, or oxygen [22]. Recently, polymeric nanoparticles (NP) have been developed to encapsulate EO, shielding them with good stability, controlled delivery, enhanced bioavailability and improved efficacy [5,23,24]. Almeida et al. revealed the superior anti-herpetic activity with a controlled release of *Cymbopogon citratus* DC. EO when encapsulated by poly (lactide-co-glycolide)-NP as compared to the free oil [25]. Moreover, Choi et al. found that encapsulation of eugenol into poly- ϵ -caprolactone nanoparticles could improve its stability against light oxidation [26]. In another work study, the heat resistance of *Jasminum officinale* L. EO was increased after encapsulation in gelatin and arabic gum nanoparticles [27].

Among the several methods used for developing polymeric NP, the nanoprecipitation method (or solvent displacement) seems to be the most simple and reproducible [28,29]. In this review, we focus on the nanoprecipitation process to develop EO encapsulating polymeric NP, give a scope about the mechanism of nanoparticle formation, the most used raw materials, the physicochemical properties of EO loaded-NP and their application in several fields.

2. Essential Oils

2.1. Chemical Composition of Essential Oils

According to the French Agency for Normalization (AFNOR) [30], an essential oil is “the product obtained from a vegetable raw material, either by steam distillation or by mechanical processes from the epicarp of Citrus, or “dry distillation””. According to the European Pharmacopoeia [31], an essential oil is defined as an “odorous product, usually of complex composition, obtained from a botanically defined plant raw material by steam distillation, dry distillation, or a suitable mechanical process without heating”.

Essential oils could be obtained from flowers (*Citrus sinensis* L., *Lavandula dentata* L.), leaves (*Eucalyptus globulus* L., *Thymus vulgaris* L., *Mentha piperita* L., *Satureja hortensis* L.), rhizomes (*Zingiber officinale* L., *Acorus calamus* L.), seeds (*Carum carvi* L., *Coriandrum sativum* L.), fruits (*Foeniculum vulgare* L., *Pimpinella anisum* L., *Citrus limon* L.) and woods (*Cinnamomum Cassia* presl., *Santalum album* L.) [32]. Generally, EO represent less than 5% of the vegetal dry matter. Their composition may vary with the part of the plant used as raw material, the cultivation, the soil and climatic conditions and the harvesting time [33]. Essential oils are soluble in organic solvents (alcohol, ether, and fixed oils), while insoluble in inorganic ones (water). They are volatile, liquid and colorless at room temperature; having a characteristic odor with a density less than unity except for EO extracted from *Cinnamomum Cassia* presl., *Sassafras albidum* Nutt., and *Vetiveria zizanioides* L. [32].

Essential oils are basically a complex mixture of terpenic hydrocarbons, especially monoterpenes and sesquiterpenes, and oxygenated derivatives like aldehydes (citronellal, sinensal), ketones (menthone, p-vetivone), alcohols (geraniol, α -bisabolol), phenols (thymol) and esters (γ -terpinyl acetate, cedryl acetate) [32]. Essential oils contain also non terpenic compounds known as phenylpropanoids which give a specific flavor and odor when they are present. Eugenol and cinnamaldehyde are examples of this group of constituents [6]. Figure 1 demonstrates the chemical structure of some constituents of essential oils.

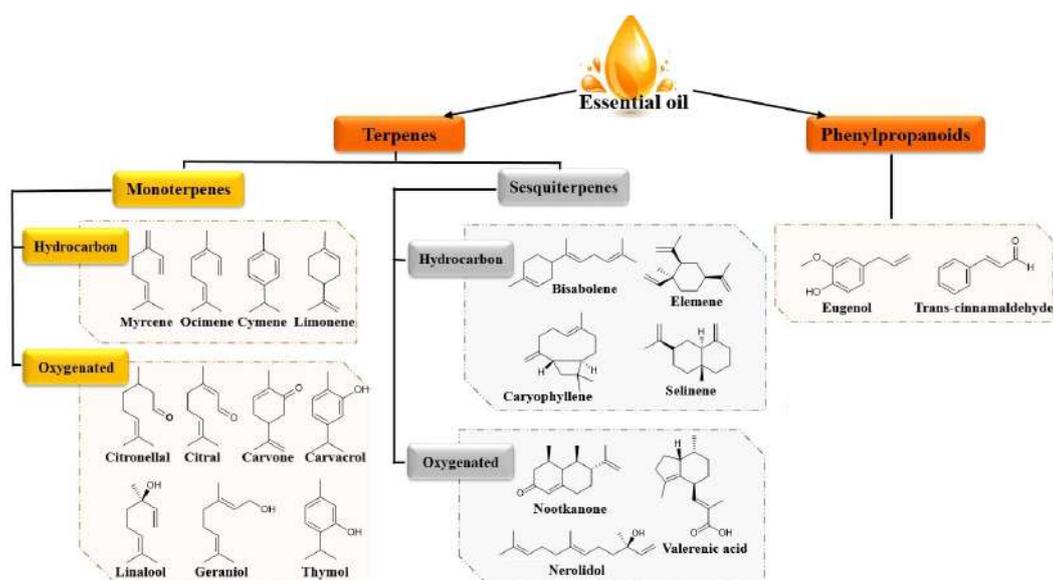


Figure 1. Chemical structures of some constituents of essential oils.

2.2. Challenges in Rational Use of Essential Oils

Essential oils derived from different parts of aromatic plants have been extensively researched for their nutritional health benefits. Essential oils exhibit excellent antimicrobial properties and the mechanism of action has been studied in detail [34]. The main feature of EO is their hydrophobicity which allows their partition into lipids of bacterial cell membrane, leading to disrupt the structure, and make it more permeable. Several works describe even broadly known EO, like, *Syzygium aromaticum* L. [35], *Mentha piperita* L. [36], *Origanum vulgare* L. [37,38], *Cinnamomum cassia* Persl. [35], *Rosmarinus officinalis* L. [38], *Cymbopogon citratus* DC. [37] and *Thymus vulgaris* L. EO [39] as large spectrum antimicrobial agents. In 2019, Malik reported that EO obtained from *Thymus vulgaris* L., *Origanum vulgare* L., *Syzygium aromaticum* L., *Ocimum basilicum* L., *Myristica fragrans* Houtt. and *Petroselinum crispum* Mill. show remarkable antioxidant activities due to their phenolic structure which neutralize free radicals and decompose peroxides [40]. Essential oils are also used as potential anti-inflammatory agents in the treatment of arthritis, allergies and rheumatism [41,42]. Moreover, other work studies reported that EO extracted from *Melissa officinalis* L. [43], *Saussurea lappa* L. [44], *Artemisia herba-alba* Asso. [45], *Melaleuca alternifolia* Cheel. [46], and *Comptonia peregrina* L. [47] show excellent anticancer properties. Currently, the use of EO has broadened to the food packaging and agriculture fields. For instance, numerous studies have demonstrated that EO, as well as their blends, possess excellent repellent and insecticidal activities [48,49]. Furthermore, EO have shown more efficiency over chemical preservatives in preventing the growth of pathogens and delaying food spoilage [19,20].

The use of EO or their derivatives is always confronted by their volatility, chemical un-stability upon exposure to air, light, moisture and heat [22]. Hădăruță et al. reported that thermal and/or oxidative labile EO can be degraded during the processing, transportation, storage and even consumption of products containing such substances to the point that they are ineffective, or even dangerous with the formation of toxic derivatives [50]. Several examples are related to these aspects, like the degradation of safrole to carcinogenic metabolites [51], the oxidation of pinene to harmful oxidized derivatives, the diepoxidation of limonene to the carcinogenic diepoxylimonene [52], or the formation of oxygenated derivatives of linalool or caryophyllene causing allergenic and skin sensitization properties [53]. Additionally, the poor aqueous solubility of EO discourage their free use for clinical purposes [23].

Nanocapsulation has been proposed as a novel approach to overcome the mentioned limitations [5,54]. Several nanostructured systems have been designed intending EO encapsulation as approach to enhance their bioavailability and bioefficacy as a result of high cellular uptake and

controlled release delivery [5,23,24] According to the literature, polymer-based nanocarriers are extensively used for this purpose [55–60].

3. Polymeric Nanoparticle

Polymeric nanoparticles are solid colloidal particles with a diameter ranging from 1 to 1000 nm. They are comprised of nanocapsules and nanospheres. Nanospheres have a monolithic-type structure (matrix) in which active pharmaceutical ingredients (API) are encapsulated within the particles or adsorbed onto their surfaces. While, Nanocapsules are the vesicular system in which the API is confined to a cavity consisting of an inner liquid core surrounded by a polymeric membrane. In this case, the API is usually dissolved in the inner core, and may also be adsorbed to the capsule surface [61] (Figure 2). With respect to EO, polymeric NP have created a tremendous interest due to their advantages over other particulate systems. For instance, they act as carriers enabling to EO a high protection against the hazardous environment, an improved stability, a reduced tissue and skin irritation and enhanced biopharmaceutical properties [23]. The use of these nanocarriers in several fields is continuously rising [62–64].

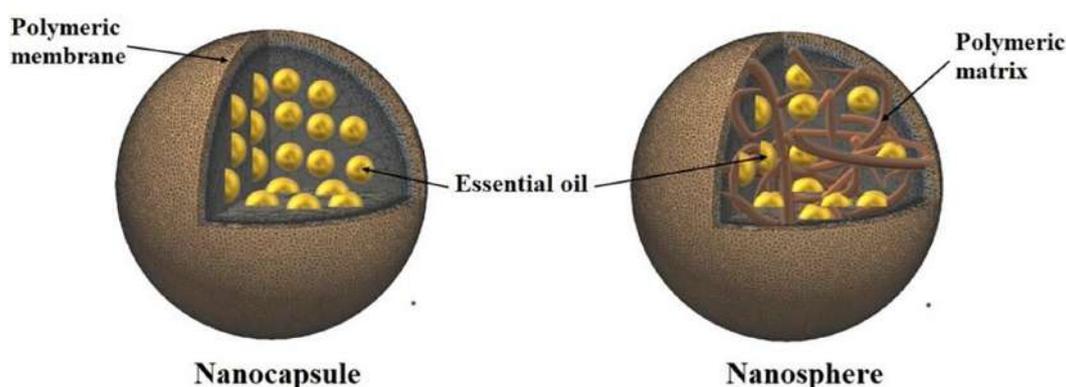


Figure 2. Different types of polymeric nanoparticles.

4. Nanoprecipitation Process to Encapsulate Essential Oils

4.1. Principle

Several preparation methods have been reported in the literature to develop polymeric NP, while the nanoprecipitation is extensively employed [55,65–75]. The nanoprecipitation, also called solvent displacement or interfacial deposition; was patented by Fessi et al [76]. This method involves the use of two miscible phases: an organic phase (the solvent) in which the polymer and the API are dissolved and an aqueous phase (the non-solvent). Ideally, both the polymer and the API must dissolve in the first one (the solvent) but not in the second system (the non-solvent) [29]. As a general tendency, the solvent is an organic medium, while the non-solvent is mainly water. However, it is possible to use either two organic phases or two aqueous phases as long as solubility, insolubility and miscibility conditions are satisfied [77].

Generally, to produce EO based-nanoparticles by nanoprecipitation method, the polymer and the EO are solubilized in an organic solvent or mixture of solvents. The organic solution is then added to water, with or without a hydrophilic surfactant under moderate magnetic stirring which causes the interfacial deposition of a polymer after displacement of the organic solvent (Figure 3). After that, the organic solvent was evaporated at ambient temperature or with a rotavapor allowing the formation of nanoparticles suspension in water [28]. The water may also be partially [78] or completely removed; rendering films [79] or powders [80].

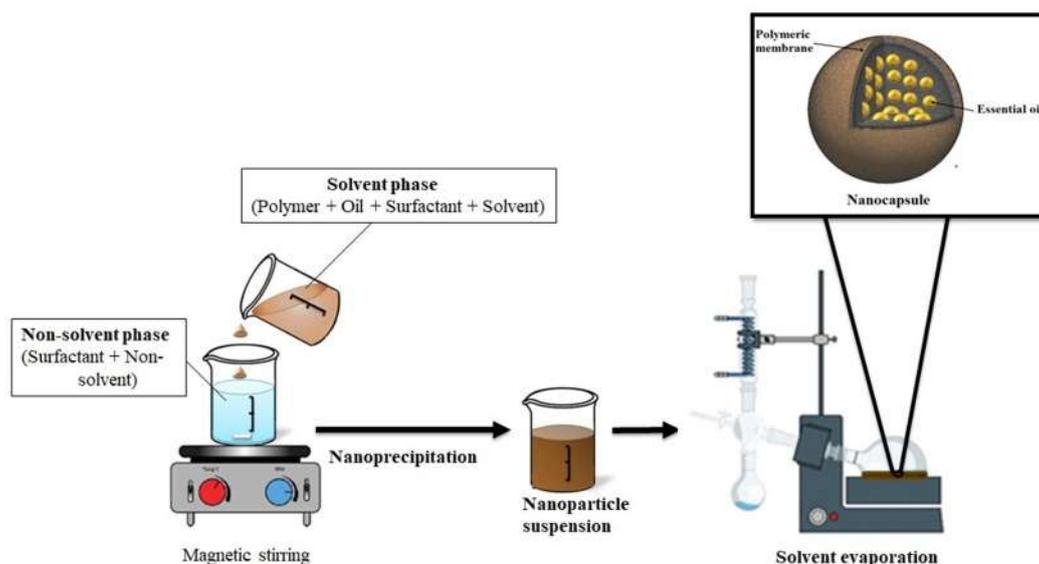


Figure 3. Nanoprecipitation Method.

Recently, several EO loaded-NP were developed by a modified nanoprecipitation process developed by Luque-Alcaraz et al. [74]. In this method, the aqueous phase was prepared by dissolving chitosan in acetic acid. Then, the solvent phase was added to the non-solvent phase composed of EO and methanol under moderate magnetic stirring [73,74,81,82].

4.2. Mechanism of Nanoparticle Formation

To explain the particle formation in the nanoprecipitation method, Joye and McClements pointed that this phenomenon includes four steps: supersaturation, nucleation, growth, and coagulation [83] (Figure 4). This explanation was based on the theory of Sugimoto concerning the polymer precipitation [84]. The controlling force of these phenomena is supersaturation, which is defined as the ratio of polymer concentration to its solubility in the solvent mixture. As shown in Figure 4, the addition of solvent to non-solvent decreases solvent potency to dissolve polymer, generating supersaturation, which in turn leads to polymer precipitation. After that, in order to gain thermodynamic stability, polymer particles associate and form primary nuclei; this step is known as nucleation. The formed nuclei increase in size by the association of solute molecules until it reaches a critical dimension that is stable against dissolution [83]. The fluid dynamics and mixing of phases play an important role. In fact, they influence supersaturation and owing to the rapidity of particle formation process, also determine the nucleation rate. Consequently, poor mixing produces few big nanoparticles (low nucleation rate) while good mixing conditions give birth to high nucleation rate and larger population of small particles will be formed [29].

When the solute concentration is reduced below the critical supersaturation concentration, nuclei growth for condensation or coagulation begins. Condensation is the addition of single molecules to the particles surface. This phase stops when solute concentration is reduced below the equilibrium saturation concentration. Coagulation is another major driving force for particle growth. It consists on the adhesion of particles to each other's and happens when the attractive forces (Van Der Waals, hydrophobic interactions, etc.) dominate the repulsive ones (steric or electrostatic repulsion). By applying mechanical forces like stirring, homogenization, or ultrasound, the particles within the aggregate may be released. On the other hand, the nanoparticles may coalesce via aggregation process leading to the formation of stable particles. The coagulation step depends on collision frequency and efficiency. The collision frequency is the number of collisions per unit time per unit volume, and vary with the variation of particle concentration, particle size, and particle motion. Whereas, the collision efficiency represents the number of collisions which lead to coagulation, and depends on the balance

of attractive and repulsive forces between the particles. To stabilize particles against coagulation, stabilizing agents could be added during the process [85].

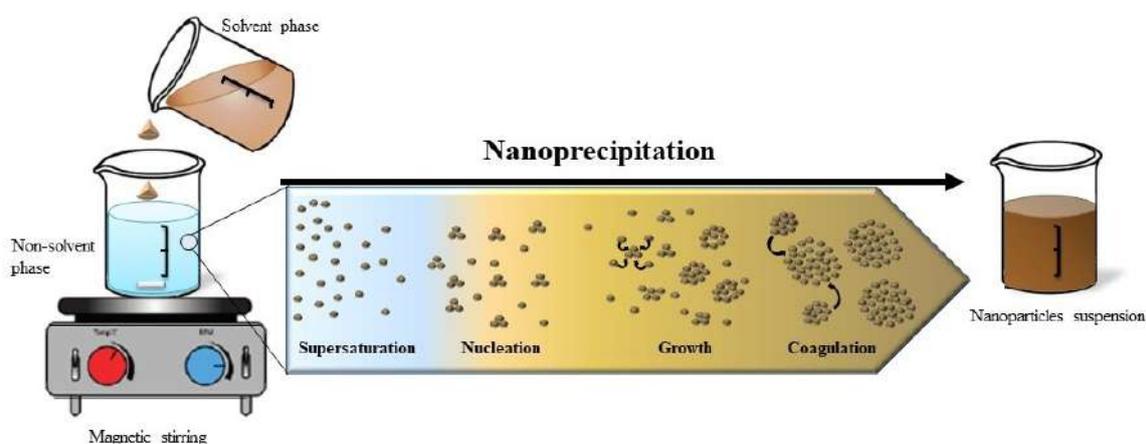


Figure 4. Illustration of the precipitation mechanism.

4.3. Raw Materials

4.3.1. The Solvent Phase

The nanoprecipitation method involves the use of an organic solvent, which is completely soluble in the external aqueous phase, inducing immediate polymer precipitation. According to the Table 1, several organic solvents could be used like, dimethyl sulfoxide [67], ethanol [75], acetic acid [72–74,81,82], isopropanol:acetone [68,70], tetrahydrofuran [86]; while acetone is the mostly used [55,57,65,66,71,87,88].

The polymers used could be biodegradables and biocompatibles; synthetics or naturals. Synthetic polymers like Eudragit®RS100 [69,75], Eudragit®L100-55 [68], Eudragit®EPO [70], poly- ϵ -caprolactone [65,66,89], polylactide [55] and poly(lactide-co-glycolide) [57,67] showed good results. Several natural polymers could be used to develop pNPs, among which chitosan was extensively used in encapsulating EO [72,73,82]. In other work study, cellulose acetate was used as wall forming material [71].

Hydrophobic surfactants (W/O) could be added to the nanocapsule core to hinder the particle 'aggregation. Sorbitan esters, like span 20 [66] and phospholipids like Epikuron®200 [57] and lecithin [65] are commonly used.

4.3.2. The Non-Solvent Phase

It could consist of mixture of surfactants, used for avoiding particle 'aggregation; dissolved in the non-solvent. Pluronic®F68 [57,65], Tween 80 [66,87] and polyvinyl alcohol [68] are examples of used surfactants. While, water was the most used non-solvent [55,57,66–68,71,75,87,88,90]. Methanol was also used by other work studies [73,74,81,82].

4.4. Physicochemical Properties of Nanoparticles Produced by Nanoprecipitation

The solvent displacement technique has been extensively used to encapsulate essential oils in polymeric NP, as illustrated in Table 1. In term of particle size, size distribution and encapsulation efficiency, the nanoparticles produced by nanoprecipitation technique owned small particle size, narrow distribution with high encapsulation efficiency. For instance, Jummes et al. developed *Cymbopogon martini* Roxb. EO loaded poly- ϵ -caprolactone based-nanocapsules with small particle size (282.1 nm), narrow size distribution (poly dispersibility index less than 0.14) and high encapsulation efficiency (99.54%) [65]. Similarly, *Rosmarinus officinalis* L. EO was efficiently entrapped in poly- ϵ -caprolactone based-NP with an average size of 220 nm, zeta potential equal to -19.9 mV and an encapsulation efficiency of about 99% [66]. Furthermore, carvacrol loaded-poly (lactide-co-glycolide)

based-nanocapsules exhibited a spherical shape, small particle size (209.8 nm) and regular distribution (poly dispersibility index around 0.26) [57].

According to the literature, several works reported the effectiveness of the nanoprecipitation over other methods in term of particle size and oil entrapment efficiency. Shakeri et al. reported that using the nanoprecipitation technique to develop carvacrol loaded-poly (3-hydroxybutyrate) nanocapsules allowed significantly improvement in oil loading (21%) and particles stability (zeta potential of -26 mV) as compared to the dialysis method [91]. Furthermore, Esfandyari-Manesh and coworkers compared the average diameter, size distribution and oil loading of poly (lactide-co-glycolide) carvone/anethole-NP prepared by either solvent displacement or emulsification solvent evaporation techniques. Results revealed that particles produced by nanoprecipitation process had smaller particle size (126 and 158 nm for carvone and anethole, respectively), narrower size distribution (poly dispersibility index about 0.08) with higher oil loading (12.32% and 14.73% for carvone and anethole, respectively). The low EO loading for the emulsification method was attributed to its loss during the evaporation phase which has taken a long time (≈ 3 h). Additionally, the difficulty for the mutual dispersion of the organic phase using this method results in larger particles [67]. Fraj et al. reported similar results in term of particle size, zeta potential and encapsulation efficiency of *Origanum vulgare* L. EO loaded- poly- ϵ -caprolactone NP prepared by two methods: nanoprecipitation and double emulsion [92]. For instance, the particle size, zeta potential and encapsulation efficiency values were 181.6 nm, -40.9 mV, 85.89% and 1759 nm, -15.7 mV, 47.5% for nanoprecipitation and double emulsion, respectively. Moreover, long-term stability study carried out for a period of 60 days at 4, 25 and 40 °C revealed that particles produced by nanoprecipitation were physically stable with high carvacrol retention; whereas, those produced by double emulsion method exhibited an increase in particle size and a decrease in carvacrol retention when treated at 25 and 40 °C [92].

Currently, several reports have been investigated to determine the effect of raw materials on the physicochemical properties of the NP prepared by solvent displacement method. In this context, the impact of poly- ϵ -caprolactone amount on the average diameter of *Rosmarinus officinalis* L. EO loaded-nanoparticles was studied. Results showed that large particles have been produced when increasing poly- ϵ -caprolactone quantity. Apparently, high polymer amount results in increasing the thickness of the polymeric shell and thus increasing the particles size instead of their number [66]. With regards to the effect of the type of EO, Liakos et al. encapsulated peppermint, cinnamon and lemongrass EO extracted from *Mentha piperita* L., *Cinnamomum Cassia* presl. and *Cymbopogon citratus* DC., respectively in cellulose acetate based-NP and studied the variation in the particle size. Results revealed that the particle size was in the following order: Cinnamon EO-NP < Peppermint EO-NP < Lemongrass EO-NP [71]. This finding was attributed to the chemical structure of the encapsulated EO. It seems that geraniol and nerol, the main components of lemongrass EO, have long carbon chains (≈ 10 C atoms) resulting in an increase in nanoparticle size when attached to cellulose acetate. While for cinnamon EO, its main component (cinnamaldehyde) will react with hydroxyl group of cellulose acetate creating hemiacetal bound which is responsible to combat the nanocapsules; thus, a small particle size was assessed [71]. With respect to the surface charge of NP, an increase in lemongrass EO lead to increase the zeta potential of cellulose acetate NP [71]. Authors linked the variation in zeta potential to the presence of some EO molecules onto the outer surface of the particles. In another work study, the presence of lime EO extracted from the peels of *Citrus aurantifolia* Christm. on the surface of chitosan-NP decreased the zeta potential from $+61.1$ to $+57.0$ mV after EO encapsulation [82]. This finding was attributed to the diminution of free NH_3^+ groups of chitosan following their interaction with lime EO [82]. In other cases, the zeta potential did not change after *Rosmarinus officinalis* L. EO encapsulation due to its presence in the core of the NP instead of being adsorbed on their surface, as previously reported [93]. By the means of the nanoprecipitation technique, polymeric nanoparticles with sufficient colloidal stability may be produced without any need for chemical surfactant. Currently, several reports highlighted the negligible effect of surfactant on the physicochemical properties of the developed NP. In this context, several EO have been efficiently entrapped in polymeric NP without

adding any surfactant to stabilize the system [55,67,69–72,74,75,81,82,86,88]. In some cases, some EO played the role of surfactant-like substance facilitating the formation of NP [55,71]. As reported earlier, since peppermint, cinnamon and lemongrass EOs extracted from *Mentha piperita* L., *Cinnamomum Cassia* presl. and *Cymbopogon citratus* DC., respectively; have in their chemical structure long hydrocarbon tails and heads with functional groups, it is expected that they can act also as a surfactant for the preparation of NP [71]. Additionally; the presence of aldehydes in lemongrass oil can create aldol reactions with polylactic acid esters and thus lead to stabilize the formulation [55].

In addition to the factors mentioned above, operating conditions may affect the physicochemical properties of the NP prepared by nanoprecipitation process. In this context, Qiu and coworkers studied the effect of the complexation temperature of starch (30, 60 and 90 °C) on the colloidal properties of methone-loaded starch NP [58]. Results showed that the mean diameter of nanoparticles formed at 30, 60, and 90 °C was 112, 104 and 93 nm, respectively. Authors related the small diameter at high temperature to the slow nucleation rate which in turn led to a more ordered crystalline structure [58]. In another research work, the influence of the organic solvent elimination method on the NP properties and *Rosmarinus officinalis* L. EO loss was investigated [66]. In this study, three evaporation methods were carried out: i) Evaporation under reduced pressure at 40 °C, ii) Evaporation under reduced pressure at room temperature and iii) Evaporation under normal pressure at room temperature. Results revealed that the first method was very fast (30 min) and led to a loss of nearly 50% of the amount of the encapsulated EO due to its volatility at this temperature. In addition, the evaporation under reduced pressure at room temperature spent more time (60 min) and 50% of encapsulated EO was lost since it is evaporated at low pressure with acetone. Even though the evaporation of acetone under normal pressure at room temperature lasted longer than the first two methods (120 min), it was selected as the best method since it avoided heat and low pressure, leading to negligible loss of the EO [66]. Similar results were already described [55,67,71,93]. In parallel, for other EO the evaporation under reduced pressure at high temperature was found efficient to eliminate the organic solvent; and the developed NP showed high oil entrapment efficiency [81,82,87,90,94]. In other research work, the evaporation under low temperature and reduced pressure conditions seems efficient for acetone elimination [69]. One may conclude that the choice of the evaporation method depends on the nature of the encapsulated EO.

In vitro release of EO from particles prepared by nanoprecipitation technique generally exhibits a controlled manner. In a study carried out by Christofoli and coworkers, *Zanthoxylum rhoifolium* L. EO from poly- ϵ -caprolactone-NP have reached a level of maximal release (81.9%) at 72 h [87]. The release kinetic profile of *Zanthoxylum rhoifolium* L. EO showed an initial burst effect, followed by a slow release after 12 h. Similar biphasic release profile was already described [57,73,88]. As reported earlier, the initial burst release was related to the molecules that are adsorbed to the polymeric wall, while the second release phase was attributed to the EO molecules present in the core of the nanocapsules which make more time to diffuse through the polymeric wall [57]. Several factors like the types of polymeric wall and encapsulated oil were found to affect the in vitro release profile. From chitosan based-NP, more release of carvacrol was found as compared to thymol [73]. The maximum release times were 540 and 630 min for 100% release of carvacrol and thymol, respectively. This was explained by the fact that carvacrol is more hydrophilic than thymol, thus in contact with water, more release is expected for carvacrol [73]. Moreover, Popielski and coworkers reported that *Lavandula dentata* L. EO release from polyethylene oxide-b-polylactic acid (PEO-b-PLA) copolymers based-NP depends on polylactide molecular weight [88]. For instance, the release of *Lavandula dentata* L. EO from PEO5KDa-b-PLA10KDa nanoparticles was about 40% and this percentage remained the same for 24 h of releasing process. While, for PEO5KDa-b-PLA4.5KDa nanoparticles, only 5% was released. This difference in release amount was related to the nanoparticle average size. In fact, the nanoparticles produced from PEO5KDa-b-PLA10KDa copolymer were significantly smaller than those produced from the PEO5KDa-b-PLA4.5KDa copolymer. Apparently, small nanoparticles favored the diffusion

of lavender EO from the inner core to the external medium, leading to increase the amount of EO released [88].

The great challenge that hinders the feasibility of biological applications of EO in several fields is their instability in the presence of light, heat and humidity [22]. Hence, the encapsulation of EO in NP seems to be a promising approach. The stability of the NP produced by nanoprecipitation technique was widely investigated in the literature. In 2018, Badri et al. investigated the stability of *Nigella sativa* L. EO co-loaded with indomethacin in poly- ϵ -caprolactone -NP during one month under three different temperatures (4, 25 and 40 °C) [90]. No significant change was assessed in term of size or zeta potential for all the tested particles. Similarly, the protection provided by poly- ϵ -caprolactone nanospheres in terms of the stability for *Zanthoxylum rhoifolium* L. EO against photodegradation (UV-A and UV-C radiations) was investigated [87]. Results revealed that un-encapsulated EO suffered 94.33% photodegradation after 7 h of exposure to light, while the nanospheres degradation was only 44.76%. This was explained by the property of polymeric wall to protect the plant oils [87].

With the development of nanocarriers design strategies, scalability and reproducibility remain crucial in the choice of a suitable technique to produce plant oils loaded nanocarriers with predictable properties. With regards to the nanoprecipitation process, Ephrem and coworkers compared the colloidal properties of *Rosmarinus officinalis* L. EO loaded-nanocapsules prepared by this technique at small and large scales [66]. Results revealed that NP prepared at both scales were spherical in shape with an average diameter around 230 nm, polydispersity index less than 0.25, negative zeta potential around -20 mV with an encapsulation efficiency higher than 99% and good stability over time [66].

Overall, based on the literature discussed above, the extensive use of nanoprecipitation process for essential oil encapsulation purpose was related to its benefits including (i) rapidity [28], (ii) simplicity [29], (iii) good reproducibility [66], (iv) scalability [66] (v) no need for using high energy input [67], and (vi) the instantaneous formation of submicron nanoparticles, with narrow size distribution and high encapsulation efficiency [57,91,93].

Table 1. Nanoprecipitation method for encapsulating essential oils in polymeric nanocapsules.

Essential Oil	Source of Essential oil	Part of the Plant	Solvent Phase			Non Solvent Phase				Biological Properties	Application	Ref.	
			Polymer	Surfactant	Solvent	Surfactant	Solvent	Size (nm)	Z. Pot (mV)				EE (%)
Palmarosa	<i>Cymbopogon martini</i> Roxb.	Leaves	PCL	Lecithin	Acetone	Pluronic F68	Water	282.1	-27.2	99.54	Antioxidant Antimicrobial	Cosmetic	[65]
Thyme	<i>Thymus vulgaris</i> L.	Stem + leaves	Eudragit®L100-55	/	Acetone: Isopropanol	PVA	Water	153.9	-4.11	52.81	Antioxidant	Food	[68]
	<i>Thymus serpyllum</i> L.	Stem + leaves	Chitosan	/	Acetic acid	/	Methanol	/	/	68	Antimicrobial	Agriculture	[73]
			Chitosan	/	Acetic acid	/	Methanol	117–226	+27	/	Antimicrobial	Agriculture	[81]
	<i>Thymus leptobotrys</i> L.	Aerial part	Eudragit RS 100	/	Ethanol	/	Water	144	+80.9	/	Bacteriostatic Fungistatic	Medicine	[75]
	<i>Thymus satureoides</i> L.	Aerial part	Eudragit RS 100	/	Ethanol	/	Water	132	81.6	/	Bacteriostatic Fungistatic	Medicine	[75]
Bergamot	<i>Citrus bergamia</i> Risso.	Peels of fruit	Eudragit®RS100	/	Acetone	/	Water	57 to 208	39 to 74	28–84	Antimicrobial	Food	[69]
Sweet orange	<i>Citrus sinensis</i> L.	Peels of fruit	Eudragit®RS100	/	Acetone	/	Water	57 to 208	39 to 74	56–96	Antimicrobial	Food	[69]
Oregano	<i>Origanum Vulgare</i> L.	Leaves	PCL	Span 80	Acetone	Tween 80	Water	181.6	-40.7	85.9	Antimicrobial	Textile	[95]
Rosemary	<i>Rosmarinus officinalis</i> L.	Aerial parts	Eudragit®EPO	/	Acetone: Isopropanol	/	Water	200	/	59	Antioxidant	Cosmetic	[70]
		Leaves	PCL	Span 20	Acetone	Tween 80	Water	145	-11	78.2	Insecticide	Agriculture	[93]
			PCL	Span 20	Acetone	Tween 80	Water	220	-19.9	99	Antioxidant Analgesic Antimicrobial	Medicine	[66]
Lavender	<i>Lavandula dentata</i> L.	Aerial parts	Eudragit®EPO	/	Acetone: isopropanol	/	Water	200	/	41	Antioxidant	Cosmetic	[70]
			PEO-B-PLA	/	Acetone	/	Water	10–75	/	70–75	Antimicrobial Sedative	Textile	[88]
Nigella	<i>Nigella sativa</i> L.	Seeds	PCL	/	Acetone	PVA Tween 80	Water	230–260	-30 to -20	/	Anti-inflammatory	Cosmetic	[90,96]
Peppermint	<i>Mentha piperita</i> L.	Aerial parts	Cellulose acetate	/	Acetone	/	Water	180	-38	/	Antimicrobial	Medicine	[71]
Cinnamon	<i>Cinnamomum Cassia</i> presl.	Bark	Cellulose acetate	/	Acetone	/	Water	150	-40	/	Antimicrobial	Medicine	[71]
Lemongrass	<i>Cymbopogon citratus</i> DC.	Leaves	Cellulose acetate	/	Acetone	/	Water	200	-36	/	Antimicrobial	Medicine	[71]
		Leaves	PLA	/	Acetone	/	Water	300	-6	/	Antimicrobial	Medicine	[55]
Pepper tree	<i>Shinus mole</i> L.	Leaves	Chitosan	/	Acetic acid	/	Methanol	355.3	/	/	Antifungal	Food	[72]
		Leaves	Chitosan	/	Acetic acid	/	Methanol	754	+9.1	/	Antifungal	Agriculture	[74]
Lime	<i>Citrus aurantiifolia</i> Christm.	Peels of fruit	Chitosan	/	Acetic acid	/	Methanol	/	+10	/	Antimicrobial	Food	[82]
		Peels of fruit	Chitosan	/	Acetic acid	/	Methanol	250	+10	/	Antimicrobial	Agriculture	[81]
Geraniol	/	/	PluronicF-127	/	THF	/	Water	26–412	/	/	Antimicrobial	Food	[86]
			PCL	Lecithin	Acetone	Pluronic F68	Water	289.3	-26.6	99.88	Antioxidant Antimicrobial	Cosmetic	[65]

Table 1. Cont.

Essential Oil	Source of Essential oil	Part of the Plant	Solvent Phase		Non Solvent Phase			Size (nm)	Z. Pot (mV)	EE (%)	Biological Properties	Application	Ref.
			Polymer	Surfactant	Solvent	Surfactant	Solvent						
<i>Zanthoxylum rhoifolium</i>	<i>Zanthoxylum rhoifolium</i> L.	Leaves	PCL	Span 60	Acetone	Tween 80	Water	<500	−20	96	Pesticide	Agriculture	[87]
<i>Pelargonium graveolens</i>	<i>Pelargonium graveolens</i> L'Hér.	Aerial part	Eudragit RS 100	/	Ethanol	/	Water	113	+80.6	/	Bacteriostatic Fungistatic	Medicine	[75]
<i>Eugenia Caryophyllata</i>	<i>Eugenia Caryophyllata</i> C.	Buds	Eudragit RS 100	/	Ethanol	/	Water	131	+80.7	/	Bacteriostatic Fungistatic	Medicine	[75]
Carvone	/	/	PLGA	/	DMS	/	Water	126	/	61	Antimicrobial	Food	[67]
Anethole	/	/	PLGA	/	DMS	/	Water	158	/	87	Antimicrobial	Food	[67]
Thymol	/	/	Ethyl cellulose Methyl cellulose	/	Ethanol	/	Water	420	/	77	Antimicrobial	Cosmetic	[97]
Carvacrol	/	/	PLGA	Epikuron 200	acetone	Pluronic F68	Water	209	−19	26	Antimicrobial	Medicine	[57]

PCL, Poly- ϵ -caprolactone; PVA, Polyvinyl alcohol; PEO-b-PLA, Polyethylene oxide-b-Polylactic acid) copolymers; PLA, Polylactide; THF, Tetrahydrofuran; PLGA, Poly(lactide-co-glycolide); DMS, Dimethyl sulfate.

5. Applications

Essential oils have conquered space in several fields due to their pertinent properties. Currently, the biological effects of EO have been widely documented [32,98]. The Table 1 summarizes some work studies concerning the application of EO-loaded polymeric NP prepared by nanoprecipitation process.

5.1. Agriculture Field

During the last few decades, environmental risks to humans, flora, and fauna and the development of resistance in species of pathogenic microorganisms have increased significantly due to the indiscriminate use of synthetic agrochemicals such as pesticides, herbicides and insecticides. Today, the use of natural compounds especially EO in the agriculture field has brought to the forefront [87,99,100]. *Aspergillus flavus* and *Aspergillus parasiticus* are widely involved in food spoilage producing secondary metabolites or mycotoxins that are carcinogenic and cause fatal diseases in both animals and humans. Recently, Luque-Alcaraz et al. investigated the inhibitory effect of *Schinus molle* L. EO loaded chitosan NP against the filamentous fungi *Aspergillus parasiticus* involved in spoilage of fruits, vegetables or other substrates rich in carbon sources [74]. Apparently, chitosan is a biologically compatible polymer having a significant effect in the control of phytopathogenic fungi, Gram positive and Gram-negative bacteria [101–103]. The developed NP exhibited a large decrease (40–50%) in *Aspergillus parasiticus* viability. Similarly, Sotelo-Boyas et al. reported that the inclusion of thyme EO extracted from the stem and leaves of *Thymus serpyllum* L. in chitosan NP is a feasible alternative to obtain antibacterial nanoparticles, where the activity that each compound presents individually is strengthened [73]. The highest inhibitory activity was observed against *Staphylococcus aureus* (Inhibition halo = 4.3 cm) for 40 μ L of minimum inhibitory volume [73]. Sotelo-Boyas et al. in another work study, developed chitosan nanoparticles embedding two types of EO: Thyme and lime EO, extracted from *Thymus serpyllum* L. and *Citrus aurantifolia* Christm., respectively; to eradicate *Pectobacterium carotovorum*, plant phytopathogenic bacteria, involved in the decay of fresh fruits and vegetables like potatoes, carrots, radishes, onions, cucumbers, squash, eggplant, peppers, cabbage and tomato [81]. Thyme EO based-NP showed the highest inhibitory effect on the growth of *Pectobacterium carotovorum* than free chitosan NP and lime EO based-NP. For chitosan free nanoparticles, the number of colonies forming units (CFU) could not be determined (countless colonies). While for chitosan-lime EO- and chitosan-thyme EO- based NP, CFU were found 450 and 240 respectively. The inhibition halo diameter of free chitosan-NP, chitosan-lime EO-NP and chitosan- thyme EO-NP were found 15.0 ± 0.2 , 13.0 ± 0.1 and 24.0 ± 0.1 mm, respectively [81]. Furthermore, Christofoli et al. developed a promising pesticide based on *Zanthoxylum rhoifolium* L. EO loaded in poly- ϵ -caprolactone nanospheres and investigated *in vivo* activity against *Bemisia tabaci* populations using tomato as host plant [87]. The biological assays revealed that the developed NP significantly reduce the number of eggs and nymphs in a dose-dependent manner. Indeed, the nymphs number reduction was about 83, 89, 92, and 98% for the concentrations of 0.5, 1, 2 and 5%, respectively. While, the egg-laying was about 71, 77, 83 and 96% for the same concentrations [87]. In another work study, Khoobdel et al. reported that the encapsulation of *Rosmarinus officinalis* L. EO in poly- ϵ -caprolactone NP enhances its insecticidal activity against the red flour beetle, *Tribolium castaneum* [93]. One may conclude that the biological effect of EO was enhanced upon nanoencapsulation in polymeric NP due to the increased surface area of the nanoparticles and the controlled release of EO.

5.2. Food Field

The use of synthetic food preservatives is the most common method of postharvest disease control; however, due to the high consumer awareness to the use of synthetic additives, formulations based on low toxicity and more environmentally friendly compounds are more desirable. In light of that, natural extracts like EO or their main components, which are considered as Generally Recognized as Safe (GRAS) are effective alternatives to synthetic products. Currently, several works have evidenced

the application of EO as antimicrobial and antioxidant in food packaging [104]. In 2017, Sotelo-Boyás and coworkers developed *Citrus aurantifolia* Christm. EO loaded-NP by nanoprecipitation technique and tested their antibacterial activity against four food-borne bacteria: *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Listeria monocytogenes*, *Shigella dysenteriae* and *Escherichia coli* [82]. The highest inhibition was found against *Shigella dysenteriae*, with an inhibition halo diameter of 3.5 cm for 40 mL of minimum inhibitory volume [82]. Furthermore, the encapsulation of anethole and carvone in poly (lactide-co-glycolide)-NP improved their antimicrobial activity against *Salmonella typhi*, *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Enterococcus coli* with minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) ranging from 182 to 374 mg/mL [67]. The enhancement in antimicrobial activity was explained by the sustained release, the improved hydrophilicity, and the better penetration resulted from small size [67]. Similarly, the antioxidant and antimicrobial activities of several EO including menthone, oregano, cinnamon, lavender, and citral were improved upon encapsulation in starch nanoparticles, as previously reported [58].

Other examples of foodborne microbial pathogens which continue to impose significant health burden even in developed countries are *Salmonella enterica* and the Shiga toxin-producing *Escherichia coli* (STEC), including *Escherichia coli* O157:H7. This pathogen can be transmitted to consumers by a variety of food vehicles such as poultry, meat and fresh and dairy products, causing harmful diseases. In 2016, Yegin et al. investigated the inhibition of *Salmonella enterica* and *Escherichia coli* O157:H7 *in vitro* on spinach surfaces by geraniol loaded-pluronic F127 nanoparticles [86]. For both *Salmonella enterica* and *Escherichia coli* O157:H7, a decrease in MIC of geraniol following nano-encapsulation was reported. For *Salmonella enterica*, the MIC values were 0.25 and 0.70 wt.% with encapsulated and un-encapsulated geraniol, respectively; while for *Escherichia coli* O157:H7, the MIC values were 0.2 and 0.4 wt.%. The type of NP application onto spinach inoculated with pathogens was investigated and results showed that the immersion was more effective than the spraying technique due to the high contact between pathogen cells attached to spinach surfaces and EO loaded-NP. In this study, more experiments were carried out to investigate the NP absorption and interaction with bacterial membrane lipids. In this context, confocal microscopy was used to characterize the interaction of fluorescent geraniol NP with *Escherichia coli* O157:H7 cells. Results showed that un-encapsulated Nile Red, used as fluorescent agent, was not absorbed into cell membranes and no fluorescent signal from cells was detected. While, nanoparticles co-encapsulated geraniol and Nile Red were taken up into the internal compartments of *Escherichia coli* O157:H7 cells as fluorescence was detected from these cells. This finding was attributed to the fact that encapsulation of EO enhances their bio-availability and transport to targeted cells [86].

In another work study, Chavez-Magdaleno and coworkers developed *Schinus molle* L. EO-loaded chitosan nanoparticles to eradicate *Colletotrichum gloeosporioides*, a phytopathogen fungus responsible for the anthracnose of avocado (i.e. a disease that causes loss close to 20% of the annual production) [72]. In this study, a synergic effect between chitosan and *Schinus molle* L. EO was shown; and the developed particles demonstrated a high inhibitory effect upon the *in vitro* viability of *Colletotrichum gloeosporioides* and low mutagenicity and toxicity. Additionally, authors reported that the inhibitory effect increased proportionally to the used concentration. At a concentration of 0.160 mg/mL, the developed particles exhibited a greater inhibitory effect on radial growth, spore germination and viability of the spores [72]. Besides chitosan, another positively charged polymer (i.e. Eudragit®RS100) was found to exhibit an antibacterial activity. In 2019, Froiio et al. pointed out a synergetic effect between Eudragit®RS100 and sweet orange EO, extracted from the peels of *Citrus sinensis* L., to preserve the fresh orange juice against foodborne bacteria: *Escherichia coli* [69]. Chavez-Magdaleno et al. related this effect to the electrostatic interactions between positive charge of the polymer and the negative charge of the membrane's phospholipids [72].

Currently, several reports carried out *in situ* assays by applying coating formulations containing EO-loaded nanosystems on fresh fruits to investigate their shelf life and to evaluate any damage caused by microorganisms. In this context, Piña-Barrera et al. proposed a promising food packaging system for the preservation of grape against foodborne bacteria basing on *Thymus vulagris* L. EO loaded-Eudragit

L 100-55 nanoparticle [68]. The antioxidant activity and the effect of the loaded NP on postharvest quality and shelf life of grapes (*Vitis Vinifera* L.) were carried out. The 2,2-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH) assay revealed that the radical scavenging activity was higher for encapsulated EO ($73.50 \pm 0.76\%$) as compared to that of un-encapsulated oil ($59.62 \pm 1.77\%$). Additionally, the shelf life study demonstrated that grapes treated with EO-loaded-NP maintained their characteristics of color, firmness, titratable acidity, and total soluble solid content for longer time than those without any treatment [68]. Furthermore, control grapes and groups of grapes with several coating systems (i.e. un-encapsulated EO, free-NP and EO loaded-NP) were stored for 6 months at 4 °C in order to evaluate any macroscopic damage caused by microorganisms. Results showed that all groups of grapes showed damage caused by microorganisms except of grapes treated with *Thymus vulgaris* L. EO loaded nanosystem [68]. In another research work, the efficacy of coating formulations containing *Thymus vulgaris* L. EO loaded chitosan-NP at different concentrations for controlling *Colletotrichum gloeosporioides* in vitro and in situ was investigated [94]. Results revealed a concentration-dependent effect of oil on mycelial growth and spore germination. In situ analysis showed that the disease incidence for the uncoated avocado was 84.6% which was higher than the value obtained for the coated avocado (54.0%) at the end of the storage period. Approximately, for uncoated avocado almost 50% of the fruit surface was rotten compared with coated fruit which showed less than 25% of disease symptoms. Results showed also that incorporation of *Thymus vulgaris* L. EO loaded chitosan-NP did not affect fruit quality since weight loss, dry matter content, total soluble solids and acidity were similar to that of the control fruit [94].

5.3. Medicinal Field

The ability to form biofilms contributes significantly to the pathogenesis of many microbial diseases [105,106] and medical device-related infections [107]. In parallel, the indiscriminate use of antibiotics has resulted in the emergence of multi-drug-resistant bacterial pathogens [108]. Therefore, growing concern about the management of bacterial infection is propelling the urgent replacement of existing antibiotics. Essential oils seem to be efficient to overcome such problems [109]. Carvacrol, the main component of several EO, has gained considerable interest due to its wide spectrum of antimicrobial activity and his ability in inhibiting the growth of preformed biofilms and interfering with biofilm formation. It has been encapsulated in poly (lactide-co-glycolide) nanocapsules using the solvent displacement technique [57]. The produced NP showed a considerable reduction in the elasticity and mechanical stability of preformed biofilms of *Staphylococcus epidermidis* [57]. Furthermore, Liakos et al. pointed out the efficacy of polylactide nanocapsules containing *Cymbopogon citratus* DC. EO to reduce the ability of *Escherichia coli* and *Candida albicans* to develop biofilms in a dose and strain dependent manner as compared to the un-encapsulated EO [55]. In addition, MTT assay carried out on the developed particles demonstrated their biocompatibility since the human amniotic fluid stem cells presented a normal metabolism and growth [55]. Afterwards, in 2018, the same research team investigated the cytotoxicity and antibacterial activity of cellulose acetate NP containing either *Mentha piperita* L., *Cinnamomum Cassia* presl. or *Cymbopogon citratus* DC. EO and results revealed no significant cytotoxicity on the normal growth and the development of cultured diploid human cells [71]. Additionally, all the NP presented a high antimicrobial effect against all the tested microbial strains (*Staphylococcus aureus*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Escherichia coli* and *Candida albicans*).

5.4. Cosmetic Field

Nowadays, EO are remarkably incorporated in cosmetic products due to their ability to enhance the product' properties and preservation, and to give a marketing image to the final product. Several work studies have been elaborated to incorporate EO in cosmetics and personal care products. Recently, Jummes et al. developed *Cymbopogon Martinii* Roxb. EO loaded-NP as an alternative to synthetic antioxidants for cosmetic application [65]. The developed particles showed high antioxidant activity against DPPH free radical and an improved antibacterial activity against *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Escherichia coli* as compared to free EO emulsion [65]. Furthermore, Badri et al. co-encapsulated

Nigella sativa L. EO to indomethacin in order to boost the anti-inflammatory and analgesic effects of indomethacin [96]. Skin penetration on the ex vivo human skin model and in vivo study on mice were carried out. Confocal laser scanning microscopy images revealed that the developed particles showed penetrability across stratum corneum to dermis layer. Additionally, the co-encapsulated nanoparticles demonstrated highest anti-inflammatory effect compared to indomethacin particles; and the inflamed ear continued to show reduction in thickness over 8 hours of observation. This finding confirmed the synergistic and prolonged effect contributed by *Nigella sativa* L. EO [96]. In another work study, lotion, gel and cream formulations containing thymol loaded spheres were found as an effective preservative, as good as the conventionally used preservative (methylparaben), even when used at 12–52-fold lower concentrations [97]. Although the MIC and minimal bactericidal concentration (MBC) values of thymol loaded nanospheres against *Escherichia coli*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and *Staphylococcus aureus* were in the same range as that of the unencapsulated thymol, encapsulated thymol formulation was selected as the optimal formulation since it provided an antibacterial activity for a long period. For instance, cosmetic lotion formulations containing encapsulated thymol provided total suppression of viable bacteria growth over the three months test period, while free thymol showed effective suppression for only 2–4 weeks [97].

5.5. Textiles

During recent decades, the use of EO has emerged to the textile domain and a considerable amount of research has been conducted concerning the benefits of aromatherapeutic textiles [110]. *Lavandula dentata* L. oil, widely used for its sedative effect, was efficiently entrapped in NP prepared from the diblock copolymer (PEO-b-PLA) for application as antibacterial agent in textiles components used in the footwear industry [88]. Various parameters have to be taken into account for the functionalization of textiles, among which the affinity between the active agent and the textile is to be considered during the application process. In light of that, Fraj et al. formulated oregano EO extracted from the leaves of *Origanum Vulgare* L., loaded poly- ϵ -caprolactone NP to functionalize medical devices for antibacterial activity [95]. In this study, the impregnation of the NP was performed in either synthetic polyamide or natural cotton and the amount of carvacrol, the main component of oregano EO, was quantified at the end of the padding treatment. Results revealed that cotton fabric absorbed less carvacrol than polyamide. This finding was attributed to the polyamide-poly- ϵ -caprolactone interaction which helps to achieve the adhesiveness of particles through textiles. It seems that the interaction was due to the hydrogen bond between the C=O present in poly- ϵ -caprolactone receptor and the H donor polyamide from the NH group [95].

On the whole, the polymeric NP have created a tremendous interest regarding the encapsulation of EO due to their inherent features including, (1) nanometric size which enhances cellular uptake [67,86], (2) high encapsulation efficiency [66,93], (3) high stability as compared to simple essential oil solutions, (4) protection by the polymeric wall from environmental factors (e.g. light and temperature) [87,90], and (5) bioavailability enhancement [68,111]. The main disadvantage of polymeric nanoparticles is that some traces of toxic organic solvent may remain after evaporation. However, to our knowledge no reports have been investigated regarding the toxicity of EO-loaded NP nor the quantification of the solvent traces. In recent years, several methods have been developed to produce the polymeric nanoparticles with high purity and without any trace of organic solvent [112]. In addition, when using natural polymers, the high degree of variability, the complexity and the difficulty of extraction process are the main factors that limit the use polymeric NP [113].

6. Conclusions

Currently, growing concern for essential oils with the same efficiency or even more than chemical synthesized drugs has prompted scientists to focalize most of their efforts on developing new approaches to preserve the stability, bioactivity and bioavailability of these bioactive agents. The occurrence of oil nanoencapsulation has been noticed as efficient approach to resolve such restrictions. In this

bibliographic paper, we emphasize an overview, recent advances, challenges and applications of essential oils loaded polymeric nanoparticles prepared via nanoprecipitation process.

According to the literature discussed above, the nanoprecipitation technique represents an easier, less energy consuming, more reproducible, as well as a widely valid method for the encapsulation of essential oils when compared to other preparation methods. For instance, it provides most suitable nanoparticles in term of size and encapsulation efficiency. Operating conditions management and raw materials selection are key points to obtain formulations bearing suitable characteristics for the in vitro and in vivo applications. Important activities, like antimicrobial, antioxidant, antifungal, anti-inflammatory, pesticidal and insecticidal were enhanced upon the encapsulation of essential oils in polymeric nanoparticles.

Although several advances have been reported in the literature, more in vivo studies are needed to provide reliable results. Additionally, toxic effects, accumulation in biological systems and removal mechanisms must be established. Scale-up the nanoprecipitation in industries constitute another important aspect to be taken into consideration due to the fact that using polymeric nanoparticles for the delivery of essential oils is one of the newest approaches in the pharmaceutical technology.

Author Contributions: Conceptualization, A.E.; Methodology, O.L. and A.H.M.; Visualization, N.L.; Writing original draft—Review & Editing, N.L.; Supervision, O.L.; A.H.M. and A.E. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

Funding: This research received no external funding.

Conflicts of Interest: The authors declare no conflict of interest.

References

1. Atanasov, A.G.; Waltenberger, B.; Pferschy-Wenzig, E.-M.; Linder, T.; Wawrosch, C.; Uhrin, P.; Temml, V.; Wang, L.; Heiss, S.S.H.; Rollinger, J.M.; et al. Discovery and resupply of pharmacologically active plant-derived natural products: A review. *Biotechnol. Adv.* **2015**, *33*, 1582–1614. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
2. Mohamed, I.; Shuid, A.; Borhanuddin, B.; Fozzi, N. The application of phytomedicine in modern drug development. *Internet J. Herb. Plant. Med.* **2012**, *1*, 2.
3. Robinson, M.M.; Xiaorui, Z. *The World Medicines Situation (Traditional Medicines: Global Situation, Issues Andchallenges)*; World Heal Organization: Geneva, Switzerland, 2011.
4. Sharifi-Rad, J.; Sureda, A.; Tenore, G.C.; Daglia, M.; Sharifi-Rad, M.; Valussi, M.; Tundis, R.; Sharifi-Rad, M.; Loizzo, M.R.; Ademiluyi, A.O.; et al. Biological activities of essential oils: From plant chemoecology to traditional healing systems. *Molecules* **2017**, *22*, 70. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
5. El-Asbahani, A.; Miladi, K.; Badri, W.; Sala, M.; Addi, E.H.A.; Casabianca, H.; Mousadik, A.E.; Hartmann, D.; Jilale, A.; Renaud, F.N.R.; et al. Essential oils: From extraction to encapsulation. *Int. J. Pharm.* **2015**, *483*, 220–243. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
6. Moghaddam, M.; Mehdizadeh, L. Chemistry of essential oils and factors influencing their constituents. In *Soft Chemistry and Food Fermentation*; Grumezescu, A.M., Holban, A.M., Eds.; Academic Press: London, UK, 2017; pp. 379–419.
7. Pires, V.P.; Almeida, R.N.; Wagner, V.M.; Lucas, A.M.; Vargas, R.M.F.; Cassel, E. Extraction process of the *Achyrocline satureioides* (Lam) DC. essential oil by steam distillation: Modeling, aromatic potential and fractionation. *J. Essent. Oil Res.* **2019**, *31*, 286–296. [[CrossRef](#)]
8. Vega, A.F.; Corona, N.R.; Palou, E.; Malo, A.L. Estimation of mass transfer coefficients of the extraction process of essential oil from orange peel using microwave assisted extraction. *J. Food Eng.* **2016**, *170*, 136–143. [[CrossRef](#)]
9. Hashemi, S.M.B.; Nikmaram, N.; Esteghlal, S.; Khaneghah, A.M.; Niakousari, M.; Barba, F.J.; Roohinejad, S.; Koubaa, M. Efficiency of ohmic assisted hydrodistillation for the extraction of essential oil from oregano (*Origanum vulgare* subsp. *viride*) spices. *Innov. Food Sci. Emerg. Technol.* **2017**, *41*, 172–178. [[CrossRef](#)]
10. Hernández, L.A.C.; Victoria, J.R.E.; Trejo, A.; Beltrán, J.Á.G. CO₂-supercritical extraction, hydrodistillation and steam distillation of essential oil of rosemary (*Rosmarinus Off. Spenn.*). *J. Food Eng.* **2017**, *200*, 81–86.

11. Sodeifian, G.H.; Sajadian, S.A.; Ardestani, N.S. Optimization of essential oil extraction from *Launaea acanthodes* Boiss.: Utilization of supercritical carbon dioxide and cosolvent. *J. Supercrit. Fluids* **2016**, *116*, 46–56. [[CrossRef](#)]
12. Adorjan, B.; Buchbauer, G. Biological properties of essential oils: An updated review. *Flavour Fragr. J.* **2010**, *25*, 407–426. [[CrossRef](#)]
13. Bakkali, F.; Averbeck, S.; Averbeck, D.; Idaomar, M. Biological effects of essential oils—A review. *Food Chem. Toxicol.* **2008**, *46*, 446–475. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
14. Raut, J.S.; Karuppayil, S.M. A status review on the medicinal properties of essential oils. *Ind. Crop. Prod.* **2014**, *62*, 250–264. [[CrossRef](#)]
15. Mihai, A.L.; Popa, M.E. Essential oils utilization in food industry—A literature review. *Sci. Bull. Ser. F Biotechnol.* **2013**, *17*, 187–192.
16. Ribeiro-Santos, R.; Andrade, M.; de Melo, N.R.; Sanches-Silva, A. Use of essential oils in active food packaging: Recent advances and future trends. *Trends Food Sci. Technol.* **2017**, *61*, 132–140. [[CrossRef](#)]
17. Isman, M.B.; Miresmailli, S.; MacHial, C. Commercial opportunities for pesticides based on plant essential oils in agriculture, industry and consumer products. *Phytochem. Rev.* **2011**, *10*, 197–204. [[CrossRef](#)]
18. Tisserand, R.; Young, R. *Essential Oil Safety—E-Book: A Guide for Health Care Professionals*, 2nd ed.; Elsevier: Amsterdam, The Netherlands, 2014.
19. Shukla, A.C. Essential oils as green pesticides for postharvest disease management. *Acta Hort.* **2018**, *1210*, 199–206. [[CrossRef](#)]
20. Debonne, E.; van Bockstaele, F.; Samapundo, S.; Eeckhout, M.; Devlieghere, F. The use of essential oils as natural antifungal preservatives in bread products. *J. Essent. Oil Res.* **2018**, *30*, 309–318. [[CrossRef](#)]
21. Preedy, V.R. *Essential Oils in Food Preservation, Flavor and Safety*; Elsevier Science Publishing Co Inc.: New York, NY, USA, 2016.
22. Turek, C.; Stintzing, F.C. Stability of essential oils: A review. *Compr. Rev. Food Sci. Food Saf.* **2013**, *12*, 40–53. [[CrossRef](#)]
23. Bilia, A.R.; Guccione, C.; Isacchi, B.; Righeschi, C.; Firenzuoli, F.; Bergonzi, M.C. Essential oils loaded in nanosystems: A developing strategy for a successful therapeutic approach. *Evid. Based Complement. Altern. Med.* **2014**, *2014*, 1–14. [[CrossRef](#)]
24. Pedro, A.S.; Santo, I.E.; Silva, C.V.; Detoni, C.; Albuquerque, E. The use of nanotechnology as an approach for essential oil-based formulations with antimicrobial activity. In *Microbial Pathogens and Strategies for Combating Them: Science, Technology And Education*; Méndez-Vila, A., Ed.; Formatex Research Center: Badajoz, Spain, 2013; Volume 2, pp. 1364–1374.
25. Almeida, K.B.; Araujo, J.L.; Cavalcanti, J.F.; Romanos, M.T.V.; Mourão, S.C.; Amaral, A.C.F.; Falcão, D.Q. In vitro release and anti-herpetic activity of *Cymbopogon citratus* DC. volatile oil-loaded nanogel. *Rev. Bras. Farm.* **2018**, *28*, 498–502.
26. Choi, M.; Soottitawat, A.; Nuchuchua, O.; Min, S.; Ruktanonchai, U. Physical and light oxidative properties of eugenol encapsulated by molecular inclusion and emulsion-diffusion method. *Food Res. Int.* **2009**, *42*, 148–156. [[CrossRef](#)]
27. Lv, Y.; Yang, F.; Li, X.; Zhang, X.; Abbas, S. Formation of heat-resistant nanocapsules of jasmine essential oil via gelatin/gum arabic based complex coacervation. *Food Hydrocoll.* **2014**, *35*, 305–314. [[CrossRef](#)]
28. Miladi, K.; Sfar, S.; Fessi, H.; Elaissari, A. Nanoprecipitation process: From particle preparation to in vivo applications. In *Polymer Nanoparticles for Nanomedicines*; Vauthier, C., Ponchel, G., Eds.; Springer: Cham, Switzerland, 2016; pp. 17–53.
29. Martínez Rivas, C.J.; Tarhini, M.; Badri, W.; Miladi, K.; Greige-Gerges, H.; Nazari, Q.A.; Galindo-Rodríguez, S.A.; Román, R.Á.; Fessi, H.; Elaissari, A. Nanoprecipitation process: From encapsulation to drug delivery. *Int. J. Pharm.* **2017**, *532*, 66–81. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
30. AFNOR. *Huiles Essentielles, Tome 2, Monographies Relatives Aux Huiles Essentielles*, 6th ed.; AFNOR, Association Francaise de Normalisation: Paris, France, 2000.
31. European Pharmacopeia. *European Directorate for the Quality of Medicines and Health Care*, 9th ed.; European Pharmacopeia: Strasbourg, France, 2018.
32. Dhifi, W.; Bellili, S.; Jazi, S.; Bahloul, N.; Mnif, W. Essential oils' chemical characterization and investigation of some biological activities: A critical review. *Medicines* **2016**, *3*, 25. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]

33. Fornari, T.; Vicente, G.; Vázquez, E.; García-risco, M.R.; Reglero, G. Isolation of essential oil from different plants and herbs by supercritical fluid extraction. *J. Chromatogr. A* **2012**, *1250*, 34–48. [[CrossRef](#)]
34. Faleiro, M. The mode of antibacterial action of essential oils. In *Science Against Microbial Pathogens: Communicating Current Research and Technological Advances*; Méndez-Vilas., Ed.; Formatex Research Center: Badajoz, Spain, 2011; pp. 1143–1156.
35. Cava, R.; Nowak, E.; Taboada, A.; Marin-Iniesta, F. Antimicrobial activity of clove and cinnamon essential oils against *Listeria monocytogenes* in pasteurized milk. *J. Food Prot.* **2007**, *70*, 2757–2763. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
36. Singh, R.; Shushni, M.A.; Belkheir, A. Antibacterial and antioxidant activities of *Mentha piperita* L. *Arab. J. Chem.* **2015**, *8*, 322–328. [[CrossRef](#)]
37. Choi, J.; Damte, D.; Lee, S.; Kim, J.; Park, S. Antimicrobial activity of lemongrass and oregano essential oil against standard antibiotic resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* and field isolates from chronic mastitis cow. *Int. J. Phytomed.* **2012**, *4*, 134–139.
38. Mathlouthi, N.; Bouzaienne, T.; Oueslati, I.; Recoquillay, F.; Hamdi, M.; Urdaci, M.; Bergaoui, R. Use of rosemary, oregano, and a commercial blend of essential oils in broiler chickens: In vitro antimicrobial activities and effects on growth performance. *J. Anim. Sci.* **2012**, *90*, 813–823. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
39. Sienkiewicz, M.; Lysakowska, M.; Denys, P.; Kowalczyk, E. The antimicrobial activity of thyme essential oil against multidrug resistant clinical bacterial strains. *Microb. Drug Resist.* **2012**, *18*, 137–148. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
40. Hanif, M.A.; Nisar, S.; Khan, G.S.; Mushtaq, Z.; Zubair, M. Essential oils. In *Essential Oil Research: Trends in Biosynthesis, Analytics, Industrial Applications and Biotechnological Production*; Malik, S., Ed.; Springer International Publishing: Berlin/Heidelberg, Germany, 2019; pp. 3–17.
41. Caldefie-Chézet, F.; Fusillier, C.; Jarde, T.; Laroye, H.; Damez, M.; Vasson, M. Potential antiinflammatory effects of *Malaleuca alternifolia* essential oil on human peripheral blood leukocytes. *Phyther. Res.* **2006**, *20*, 364–370. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
42. Koh, K.; Pearce, A.; Marshman, G.; Finlay-Jones, J.; Hart, P. Tea tree oil reduces histamine-induced skin inflammation. *Br. J. Derm.* **2002**, *147*, 1212–1217. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
43. De Sousa, A.; Alviano, A.; Blank, A.; Alves, P.; Alviano, C.; Gattass, C. *Melisa officinalis* L. essential oil: Antitumoral and antioxidant activities. *J. Pharm. Pharm.* **2004**, *56*, 677–681. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
44. Lin, X.; Peng, Z.; Fu, X.; Liu, C.; Xu, Y.; Ji, W.; Fan, J.; Chen, L.; Fang, L.; Huang, Y.; et al. Volatile oil from *Saussurea lappa* L. exerts antitumor efficacy by inhibiting epithelial growth factor receptor tyrosine kinase-mediated signaling pathway in hepatocellular carcinoma. *Oncotarget* **2016**, *7*, 79761–79773. [[CrossRef](#)]
45. Tilaoui, M.; Mouse, H.A.; Jaafari, A.; Aboufatima, R.; Abderrahman, C.; Zyad, A. Chemical composition and antiproliferative activity of essential oil from aerial parts of a medicinal herb *Artemisia herba-alba* Asso. *Rev. Bras. Farm.* **2011**, *21*, 781–785. [[CrossRef](#)]
46. Calcabrini, A.; Stringaro, A.; Toccaceli, L.; Meschini, S.; Marra, M.; Colone, M.; Salvatore, G.; Mondello, F.; Arancia, G.; Molinari, A. Terpinen-4-ol, the main component of *Melaleuca aitemifolia* L. (tea tree) oil inhibits the in vitro growth of human melanoma cells. *J. Invest. Derm.* **2004**, *122*, 349–360. [[CrossRef](#)]
47. Sylvestre, M.; Pichette, A.; Lavoie, S.; Longtin, A.; Legault, J. Composition and cytotoxic activity of the leaf essential oil of *Comptonia peregrina* L. coulter. *Phyther. Res.* **2007**, *6*, 536–540. [[CrossRef](#)]
48. Ríos, N.; Stashenko, E.E.; Duque, J.E. Evaluation of the insecticidal activity of essential oils and their mixtures against *Aedes aegypti* (Diptera: Culicidae). *Rev. Bras. Entomol.* **2017**, *61*, 307–311. [[CrossRef](#)]
49. Ebadollahi, A.; Nouri-Ganbalani, G.; Hoseini, S.A.; Sadeghi, G.R. Insecticidal activity of essential oils of five aromatic plants against *Callosobruchus maculatus* F. (Coleoptera: Bruchidae) under laboratory conditions. *J. Essent. Oil Bear. Plants* **2012**, *15*, 256–262. [[CrossRef](#)]
50. Hădăruță, D.I.; Hădăruță, N.G.; Costescu, C.I.; David, I.; Gruia, A.T. Thermal and oxidative stability of the *Ocimum basilicum* L. essential oil/ β -cyclodextrin supramolecular system. *Beilstein J. Org. Chem.* **2014**, *10*, 2809–2820.
51. Bogusz, M.J.; Al-Tufail, M. Chapter 18 toxicological aspects of herbal remedies. In *Handbook of Analytical Separations*; Hempel, G., Ed.; Elsevier: Oxford, UK, 2008; Volume 6, pp. 589–610.
52. Sarigiannis, D.; Karakitsios, S.; Gotti, A.; Liakos, I.; Katsoyiannis, A. Exposure to major volatile organic compounds and carbonyls in European indoor environments and associated health risk. *Environ. Int.* **2011**, *37*, 743–765. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
53. Sköld, M.; Karlberg, A.-T.; Matura, M.; Börje, A. The fragrance chemical β -caryophyllene-air oxidation and skin sensitization. *Food Chem. Toxicol.* **2006**, *44*, 538–545. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]

54. Sagiri, S.S.; Anis, A.; Pal, K. A review on encapsulation of vegetable oils: Strategies, preparation methods and applications. *Polym. Plast. Technol. Eng.* **2016**, *55*, 37–41. [[CrossRef](#)]
55. Liakos, I.L.; Grumezescu, A.M.; Holban, A.M.; Florin, I.; D'Autilia, F.; Carzino, R.; Bianchini, P.; Athanassiou, A. Polylactic acid-lemongrass essential oil nanocapsules with antimicrobial properties. *Pharmaceutics* **2016**, *9*, 42. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
56. Feyzioglu, G.C.; Tornuk, F. Development of chitosan nanoparticles loaded with summer savory (*Satureja hortensis* L.) essential oil for antimicrobial and antioxidant delivery applications. *LWT Food Sci. Technol.* **2016**, *70*, 104–110. [[CrossRef](#)]
57. Iannitelli, A.; Grande, R.; di Stefano, A.; di Giulio, M.; Sozio, P.; Bessa, L.J.; Laserra, S.; Paolini, C.; Protasi, F.; Cellini, L. Potential antibacterial activity of carvacrol-loaded poly (DL-lactide-co-glycolide) (PLGA) nanoparticles against microbial biofilm. *Int. J. Mol. Sci.* **2011**, *12*, 5039–5051. [[CrossRef](#)]
58. Qiu, C.; Chang, R.; Yang, J.; Ge, S.; Xiong, L.; Zhao, M.; Li, M.; Sun, Q. Preparation and characterization of essential oil-loaded starch nanoparticles formed by short glucan chains. *Food Chem.* **2017**, *221*, 1426–1433. [[CrossRef](#)]
59. Paula, H.C.B.; Sombra, F.M.; Abreu, F.O.M.S.; Paula, R.C.M. *Lippia sidoides* essential oil encapsulation by angico gum/chitosan nanoparticles. *J. Braz. Chem. Soc.* **2010**, *21*, 2359–2366. [[CrossRef](#)]
60. Hasheminejad, N.; Khodaiyan, F.; Safari, M. Improving the antifungal activity of clove essential oil encapsulated by chitosan nanoparticles. *Food Chem.* **2019**, *275*, 113–122. [[CrossRef](#)]
61. Zohri, M.; Gazori, T.; Mirdamadi, S.; Asadi, A.; Haririan, I. Polymeric nanoparticles: Production, applications and advantage. *Internet J. Nanotechnol.* **2009**, *3*, 217–223.
62. Rai, M.; Paralikar, P.; Jogee, P.; Agarkar, G.; Ingle, A.P.; Derita, M.; Zacchino, S. Synergistic antimicrobial potential of essential oils in combination with nanoparticles: Emerging trends and future perspectives. *Int. J. Pharm.* **2017**, *519*, 67–78. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
63. Froiio, F.; Mosaddik, A.; Morshed, M.T.; Paolino, D.; Fessi, H.; Elaissari, A. Edible polymers for essential oils encapsulation: Application in food preservation. *Ind. Eng. Chem. Res.* **2019**, *58*, 46. [[CrossRef](#)]
64. González, J.O.W.; Jesser, E.N.; Yeguerman, C.A.; Ferrero, A.A.; Band, B.F. Polymer nanoparticles containing essential oils: New options for mosquito control. *Environ. Sci. Pollut. Res.* **2017**, *24*, 17006–17015. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
65. Jummes, B.; Sganzerla, W.G.; da Rosa, C.G.; Noronha, C.M.; Nunes, M.R.; Bertoldi, F.C.; Barreto, P.L.M. Antioxidant and antimicrobial poly- ϵ -caprolactone nanoparticles loaded with *Cymbopogon martinii* Roxb. essential oil. *Biocatal. Agric. Biotechnol.* **2020**, *23*, 101499. [[CrossRef](#)]
66. Ephrem, E.; Greige-Gerges, H.; Fessi, H.; Charcosset, C. Optimisation of rosemary oil encapsulation in polycaprolactone and scale-up of the process. *J. Microencapsul.* **2014**, *31*, 746–753. [[CrossRef](#)]
67. Esfandyari-Manesh, M.; Ghaedi, Z.; Asemi, M.; Khanavi, M.; Manayi, A.; Jamalifar, H.; Atyabi, F.; Dinarvand, R. Study of antimicrobial activity of anethole and carvone loaded PLGA nanoparticles. *J. Pharm. Res.* **2013**, *7*, 290–295. [[CrossRef](#)]
68. Pina-Barrera, A.M.; Alvarez-Roman, R.; Baez-Gonzalez, J.G.; Amaya-Guerra, C.A.; Rivas-Morales, C.; Gallardo-Rivera, C.T.; Galindo-Rodriguez, S.A. Application of a multisystem coating based on polymeric nanocapsules containing essential oil of *Thymus vulgaris* L. to increase the shelf life of table grapes (*Vitis vinifera* L.). *IEEE Trans. Nanobiosci.* **2019**, *18*, 549–557. [[CrossRef](#)]
69. Froiio, F.; Ginot, L.; Paolino, D.; Lebaz, N.; Bentaher, A.; Fessi, H.; Elaissari, A. Essential oils-loaded polymer particles: Preparation, characterization and antimicrobial property. *Polymers* **2019**, *11*, 1017. [[CrossRef](#)]
70. Silva-Flores, P.G.; Opez, L.A.P.-L.; Rivas-Galindo, V.M.; Paniagua-Vega, D.; Galindo-Rodriguez, S.A.; Alvarez-Roman, R. Simultaneous GC-FID quantification of main components of *Rosmarinus officinalis* L. and *Lavandula dentata* L. essential oils in polymeric nanocapsules for antioxidant application. *J. Anal. Methods Chem.* **2019**, *2019*, 1–9. [[CrossRef](#)]
71. Liakos, I.L.; Iordache, F.; Carzino, R.; Scarpellini, A.; Oneto, M.; Bianchini, P.; Grumezescu, A.M.; Holban, A.M.; Mihai, A.; Maria, A. Cellulose acetate-essential oil nanocapsules with antimicrobial activity for biomedical applications. *Colloids Surf. B Biointerfaces* **2018**, *172*, 471–479. [[CrossRef](#)]
72. Chavez-Magdaleno, M.E.; Luque-Alcaraz, A.G.; Gutierrez-Martinez, P.; Cortez-Rocha, M.O.; Burgos-Hernandez, A.; Lizardi-Mendoza, J.; Plascencia-Jatomea, M. Effect of chitosan-pepper tree (*Schinus molle* L.) essential oil biocomposites on the growth kinetics, viability and membrane integrity of *Colletotrichum gloeosporioides*. *Rev. Mex. Ing. Química* **2018**, *17*, 29–45. [[CrossRef](#)]

73. Sotelo-Boyás, M.E.; Correa-Pacheco, Z.; Bautista-Banos, S.; Gómez, Y.G. Release study and inhibitory activity of thyme essential oil-loaded chitosan nanoparticles and nanocapsules against foodborne bacteria. *Int. J. Biol. Macromol.* **2017**, *103*, 409–414. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
74. Luque-Alcaraz, A.G.; Cortez-Rocha, M.O.; Velázquez-Contreras, C.A.; Acosta-Silva, A.L.; Santacruz-Ortega, H.D.C.; Burgos-Hernández, A.; Argüelles-Monal, W.M.; Plascencia-Jatomea, M. Enhanced antifungal effect of chitosan/pepper tree (*Schinus molle* L.) essential oil bionanocomposites on the viability of *Aspergillus parasiticus* spores. *J. Nanomater.* **2016**, *2016*, 10. [[CrossRef](#)]
75. El-Asbahani, A.; Miladi, K.; Addi, H.; Bitar, A.; Casabianca, H.; Abdelhamid, E.M.; Hartmann, D.; Jilale, A.; Renaud, F.; Elaissari, A. Antimicrobial activity of nano-encapsulated essential oils: Comparison to non-encapsulated essential oils. *J. Colloid Sci. Biotechnol.* **2015**, *4*, 39–48. [[CrossRef](#)]
76. Fessi, H.; Puisieux, F.; Devissaguet, J.P.; Ammoury, N.; Benita, S. Nanocapsule formation by interfacial polymer deposition following solvent displacement. *Int. J. Pharm.* **1989**, *55*, R1–R4. [[CrossRef](#)]
77. Mora-Huertas, C.E.; Fessi, H.; Elaissari, A. Polymer-based nanocapsules for drug delivery. *Int. J. Pharm.* **2010**, *385*, 113–142. [[CrossRef](#)]
78. Flores, F.C.; De Lima, J.A.; Ribeiro, R.F.; Alves, S.H.; Rolim, C.M.B.; Beck, R.C.R.; Silva, C.B. Antifungal activity of nanocapsule suspensions containing tea tree oil on the growth of *Trichophyton rubrum*. *Mycopathologia* **2013**, *175*, 281–286. [[CrossRef](#)]
79. Li, K.; Yin, S.; Ynag, X.; Tang, C.; Wei, Z. Fabrication and characterization of novel antimicrobial films derived from thymol-loaded zein–sodium caseinate (SC) nanoparticles. *J. Agric. Food Chem.* **2012**, *60*, 11592–11600. [[CrossRef](#)]
80. Gomes, C.; Moreira, R.G.; Castell-Perez, E. Nanoparticles with entrapped trans-cinnamaldehyde and eugenol for antimicrobial delivery applications. *J. Food Sci.* **2011**, *76*, 16–24. [[CrossRef](#)]
81. Sotelo-Boyás, M.; Valverde-Aguilar, G.; Plascencia-Jatomea, M.; Correa Pacheco, Z.; Jiménez-Aparicio, A.; Solorza-Feria, J.; Barrera-Necha, L.; Bautista-Baños, S. Characterization of chitosan nanoparticles added with essential oils. In vitro effect on *Pectobacterium carotovorum*. *Rev. Mex. Ing. Química* **2015**, *14*, 589–599.
82. Sotelo-Boyás, M.E.; Correa-Pacheco, Z.N.; Bautista-Baños, S.; Corona-Rangel, M.L. Physicochemical characterization of chitosan nanoparticles and nanocapsules incorporated with lime essential oil and their antibacterial activity against food-borne pathogens. *LWT Food Sci. Technol.* **2017**, *77*, 15–20. [[CrossRef](#)]
83. Joye, I.J.; McClements, D.J. Production of nanoparticles by anti-solvent precipitation for use in food systems. *Trends Food Sci. Technol.* **2013**, *34*, 109–123. [[CrossRef](#)]
84. Sugimoto, T. Preparation of monodispersed colloidal particles. *Adv. Colloid Interface Sci.* **1987**, *28*, 65–108. [[CrossRef](#)]
85. Belda-Galbis, C.M.; Pina-Pérez, M.C.; Leufvén, A.; Martínez, A.; Rodrigo, D. Impact assessment of carvacrol and citral effect on *Escherichia coli* K12 and *Listeria innocua* growth. *Food Control.* **2013**, *33*, 536–544. [[CrossRef](#)]
86. Yegin, Y.; Perez-Lewis, K.L.; Zhang, M.; Akbulut, M.; Taylor, T.M. Development and characterization of geraniol-loaded polymeric nanoparticles with antimicrobial activity against foodborne bacterial pathogens. *J. Food Eng.* **2016**, *170*, 64–71. [[CrossRef](#)]
87. Christofoli, M.; Costa, E.C.C.; Bicalho, K.U.; de Cássia-Domingues, V.; Peixoto, M.F.; Alves, C.C.F.; Araújo, W.L.; de Melo-Cazal, C. Insecticidal effect of nanoencapsulated essential oils from *Zanthoxylum rhoifolium* L. (*Rutaceae*) in *Bemisia tabaci* populations. *Ind. Crop. Prod.* **2015**, *70*, 301–308. [[CrossRef](#)]
88. Popielski, T.M.; Otsuka, I.; Halila, S.; Muniz, E.C.; Soldi, V.; Borsali, R.; Catarina, F.D.S. Preparation of polymeric micelles of poly (ethylene oxide-b-lactic acid) and their encapsulation with lavender oil. *Mater. Res.* **2016**, *19*, 1356–1365. [[CrossRef](#)]
89. Zhang, Y.; Liu, X.; Wang, Y.; Jiang, P.; Quek, S. Antibacterial activity and mechanism of cinnamon essential oil against *Escherichia coli* and *Staphylococcus Aureus*. *Food Control* **2016**, *59*, 282–289. [[CrossRef](#)]
90. Badri, W.; El Asbahani, A.; Miladi, K.; Baraket, A.; Agusti, G.; Agha, Q.; Errachid, A.; Fessi, H.; Elaissari, A. Poly (ϵ -caprolactone) nanoparticles loaded with indomethacin and *Nigella Sativa*, L. essential oil for the topical treatment of inflammation. *J. Drug Deliv. Sci. Technol.* **2018**, *46*, 234–242. [[CrossRef](#)]
91. Shakeri, F.; Shakeri, S.; Hojjatolslami, M. Preparation and characterization of carvacrol loaded polyhydroxybutyrate nanoparticles by nanoprecipitation and dialysis methods. *J. Food Sci.* **2014**, *79*, 697–705. [[CrossRef](#)]
92. Fraj, A.; Jaâfar, F.; Marti, M.; Coderch, L.; Ladhari, N. A comparative study of oregano (*Origanum vulgare* L.) essential oil-based polycaprolactone nanocapsules/microspheres: Preparation, physicochemical characterization, and storage stability. *Ind. Crop. Prod.* **2019**, *140*, 111669. [[CrossRef](#)]

93. Khoobdel, M.; Ahsaei, S.M.; Farzaneh, M. Insecticidal activity of polycaprolactone nanocapsules loaded with *Rosmarinus officinalis* L. essential oil in *Tribolium castaneum* (Herbst). *Entomol. Res.* **2017**, *47*, 175–184. [[CrossRef](#)]
94. Correa-Pacheco, Z.N.; Bautista-Baños, S.; Valle-Marquina, M.Á.; Hernández-López, M. The effect of nanostructured chitosan and chitosan-thyme essential oil coatings on *Colletotrichum gloeosporioides* growth in vitro and on cv hass avocado and fruit quality. *J. Phytopathol.* **2017**, *165*, 297–305. [[CrossRef](#)]
95. Fraj, A.; Jaâfar, F.; Marti, M.; Coderch, L.; Ladhari, N. Antimicrobial finishing of cotton and polyamide with nano-microparticles. In Proceedings of the International Conference of Applied Research On Textile, CIRAT-8, Monastir, Tunisia, 9–10 November 2018; pp. 2286–5659.
96. Badri, W.; Mohamed, F.; Affendi, M.; Asbahani, A.; Miladi, K.; Nazari, Q.; Viennet, C.; Robin, S.; Fessi, H.; Elaissari, A. Topical co-delivery of indomethacin and *Nigella sativa* L. essential oil in poly-caprolactone nanoparticles: In vivo study of anti-inflammatory activity. *Int. J. Adv. Res.* **2018**, *6*, 801–816. [[CrossRef](#)]
97. Wattanasatcha, A.; Rengpipat, S.; Wanichwecharungruang, S. Thymol nanospheres as an effective anti-bacterial agent. *Int. J. Pharm.* **2012**, *434*, 360–365. [[CrossRef](#)]
98. Dagli, N.; Dagli, R.; Mahmoud, R.S.; Baroudi, K. Essential oils, their therapeutic properties, and implication in dentistry: A review. *J. Int Soc. Prev. Community Dent.* **2015**, *5*, 338–340. [[CrossRef](#)]
99. Mohammadi, A.; Hashemi, M.; Hosseini, S.M. Nanoencapsulation of *Zataria multiflora* L. essential oil preparation and characterization with enhanced antifungal activity for controlling *Botrytis cinerea*, the causal agent of gray mould disease. *Innov. Food Sci. Emerg. Technol.* **2015**, *28*, 73–80. [[CrossRef](#)]
100. Aloui, H.; Khwaldia, K.; Licciardello, F.; Mazzaglia, A.; Muratore, G.; Hamdi, M.; Restuccia, C. Efficacy of the combined application of chitosan and locust bean gum with different citrus essential oils to control postharvest spoilage caused by *Aspergillus flavus* in dates. *Int. J. Food Microbiol.* **2014**, *170*, 21–28. [[CrossRef](#)]
101. Kaur, P.; Thakur, R.; Choudhary, A. An in vitro study of the antifungal activity of silver/chitosan nanoformulations against important seed borne pathogens. *Int. J. Sci. Technol. Res.* **2012**, *1*, 83–86.
102. Benhabiles, M.S.; Salah, R.; Lounici, H.; Drouiche, N.; Goosen, M.F.A.; Mameri, N. Antibacterial activity of chitin, chitosan and its oligomers prepared from shrimp shell waste. *Food Hydrocoll.* **2012**, *29*, 48–56. [[CrossRef](#)]
103. Zhu, D.; Chenga, H.; Li, J.; Zhang, W.; Shen, Y.; Chen, S.; Ge, Z.; Chen, S. Enhanced water-solubility and antibacterial activity of novel chitosan derivatives modified with quaternary phosphonium salt. *Mater. Sci. Eng. C* **2016**, *61*, 79–84. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
104. Blanco-Padilla, A.; Soto, K.M.; Mendoza, S. Food antimicrobials nanocarriers. *Sci. World J.* **2014**, *2014*, 1–11. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
105. Parsek, M.R.; Singh, P.K. Bacterial biofilms: An emerging link to disease pathogenesis. *Annu. Rev. Microbiol.* **2003**, *57*, 677–701. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
106. Jamal, M.; Ahmad, W.; Andleeb, S.; Jalil, F.; Imran, M.; Nawaz, M.A.; Hussain, T.; Ali, M.; Rafiq, M.; Kamil, M.A. Bacterial biofilm and associated infections. *J. Chin. Med. Assoc.* **2018**, *81*, 7–11. [[CrossRef](#)]
107. Mack, D.; Rohde, H.; Harris, L.; Davies, A.; Horstkotte, M.; Knobloch, J. Biofilm formation in medical device-related infection. *Int. J. Artif. Organs* **2006**, *29*, 343–359. [[CrossRef](#)]
108. Jousset, A.; Dortet, L.; Naas, T. Multidrug resistant bacteria and emerging antibiotic resistance traits. *Rev. Prat.* **2017**, *67*, 211–217.
109. Reichling, J.; Schnitzler, P.; Suschke, U.; Saller, R. Essential oils of aromatic plants with antibacterial, antifungal, antiviral, and cytotoxic properties—An overview. *Komplementmed* **2009**, *16*, 79–90. [[CrossRef](#)]
110. Wang, C.X.; Chen, S.L. Aromachology and its application in the textile field. *Fibres Text. East. Eur.* **2005**, *13*, 41–44.
111. Andonova, V. Synthetic polymer-based nanoparticles: Intelligent drug delivery systems. In *Acrylic Polymers in Healthcare*; Reffy, B.S.R., Ed.; Intech Open: Madrid, Spain, 2017; pp. 101–125.
112. Martín, Á.; Varona, S.; Navarrete, A.; Cocero, M.J. Encapsulation and co-precipitation processes with supercritical fluids: Applications with essential oils. *Open Chem. Eng. J.* **2010**, *4*, 31–41. [[CrossRef](#)]
113. Aravamudhan, A.; Ramos, D.M.; Nada, A.A.; Kumbar, S.G. Natural polymers: Polysaccharides and their derivatives for biomedical applications. In *Natural and Synthetic Biomedical Polymers*; Kumbar, S.G., Laurencin, C.T., Deng, M., Eds.; Newnes: Oxford, UK, 2014; pp. 67–89.



Résumé

Le recours aux plantes à des fins médicinales est connu depuis la nuit des temps dans différentes cultures. Au cours de ces dernières années, des efforts ont été consacrés à la pratique de la phytothérapie en tant que médecine alternative ou complémentaire dans le but d'éviter les effets indésirables liés aux médicaments d'origine synthétiques. Parmi la diversité des constituants de plante utilisés en phytothérapie, les huiles essentielles et végétales continuent à être utilisées en première intention. L'utilisation des huiles est souvent confrontée par leur dégradation et leur biodisponibilité réduite dans le corps humain. Par conséquent, des systèmes de la nanoencapsulation sont conçus pour surmonter les contraintes physicochimiques susmentionnés.

L'objectif de cette étude est la nanoencapsulation de l'huile essentielle des racines du costus indien (*Saussurea lappa* CB. Clarke.) et l'huile végétale des noyaux de dattes (*Phoenix dactylifera* L.) extraites par un procédé innovant et respectueux de l'environnement (extraction par dioxyde de carbone supercritique) dans des nanoparticules polymères et l'étude de leurs performances thérapeutiques.

Trois axes ont été abordés dans ce travail. Le premier a porté sur l'extraction des huiles ainsi que leur analyse qualitative et quantitative par chromatographie en phase gazeuse couplée à la spectrométrie de masse. Le deuxième a porté sur l'encapsulation des huiles dans des nanoparticules polymères à base de dérivés de poly (méthyl méthacrylate) (Eudragit® RS100) par la technique de la nanoprecipitation après avoir été optimisée et la caractérisation des nanocapsules obtenues. Le dernier axe a porté sur l'étude de l'activité anti-inflammatoire, anti-Alzheimer, antidiabétique et antioxydante.

Les résultats de l'analyse des huiles ont montré la prédominance de l'acide oléique (47.7%) et du dehydrocostus lactone (55.4%) pour l'huile végétale et essentielle, respectivement. L'Eudragit RS®100 est capable d'encapsuler avec succès les deux types d'huiles dans des particules de taille comprise entre 145 et 217 nm avec un potentiel ζ de +45 à +59mV et une excellente stabilité à différentes températures et pH. De plus, les nanoparticules chargées d'huile des noyaux de dattes ont montré une activité antidiabétique supérieure à celle du médicament standard, une activité anti-Alzheimer modérée et une faible activité antioxydante. Celles chargées d'huile de costus ont révélé des activités anti-inflammatoire, antidiabétique et anti-Alzheimer pertinentes.

A travers cette thèse, nous avons mis en évidence le potentiel prometteur des nanoparticules polymères à améliorer les performances biologiques des huiles naturelles et qu'elles constituent des alternatives intéressantes par rapport aux différents médicaments d'origine synthétique dans la prise en charge de la maladie d'Alzheimer, du diabète et des maladies inflammatoires.

Mots clés : Encapsulation, huile de costus indien, huile des noyaux de dattes, nanoparticules polymères, Eudragit® RS100, nanoprecipitation

Directrice de thèse : Ouahida LOUAER - Université Constantine 3

Directeur de thèse : Abdelhamid ELAISSARI - Université Claude Bernard Lyon 1