



Review

Apiaceae Family as a Valuable Source of Biocidal Components and their Potential Uses in Agriculture

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1. Introduction

Apiaceae (formerly Umbelliferae) is one of the largest plant families in the order Apiales. Commonly known as parsley or carrot family, it consists of nearly 3780 species belonging to 434 genera distributed throughout many regions in the world [1]. The Apiaceae family includes some of the widely used vegetables and aromatic herbs such as carrot (*Daucus carota*), parsnip (*Pastinaca sativa*), celery (*Apium graveolens*), Gotu kola (*Centella asiatica*), parsley (*Petroselinum crispum*), coriander (*Coriandrum sativum*), dill (*Anethum graveolens*), fennel (*Foeniculum vulgare*), cumin (*Cuminum cyminum*), anise (*Pimpinella anisum*), caraway (*Carum carvi*), as well as poisonous species like water hemlock (*Cicuta maculata*), northern water hemlock (*Cicuta virosa*), poison hemlock (*Conium maculatum*), *Aethusa cynapium* (fool's parsley), and hemlock water-dropwort (*Oenanthe crocata*). Plants of the Apiaceae family are grown, not only as a nutritional source, but also as a source of flavour, fragrance, and medicine. Different parts, such as the root, leaf, leaf stalk, pseudo-bulb, and seed, serve

these purposes. All parts of Apiaceae plants contain secretory glands that are important in storing essential oils (EOs), giving rise to the distinct flavour of each species [2–4]. Moreover, EO plays a vital role in plants: defence against bacteria, viruses, fungi, insects, and herbivores, and as an attractant to pollinators [5].

Agrochemicals, such as pesticides, fertilizers, and chemical growth agents are widely used to increase crop yield and manage weeds, pests, and diseases. Extensive use of these synthetic agrochemicals poses potential risks to human health and the environment, including agrochemical poisoning, negative impact on biocontrol agents, reduced biodiversity and ecosystem functions, residues in the environment and water and soil pollution, food, and drinking water, accumulation in the food chain, high and acute toxicity in humans, occupational and non-occupational health impacts, and pest-resistance development. Therefore, the development of non-toxic, biodegradable, and eco-friendly natural agrochemicals as an alternative to synthetic biocides gained much attention [6–8].

In recent years, the extraction of active compounds (secondary metabolites) from plant sources gained interest among scientists. Plants synthesize secondary metabolites in response to defence mechanisms against biotic or abiotic stress. These secondary metabolites protect plants from phytopathogens (fungi, bacteria, viruses, nematodes, protozoa), predators, UV-B radiation, and drought, and play a role in growth and development. Plants produce several secondary metabolites, such as phenolics, terpenes, carotenoids, alkaloids, and other nitrogen/sulphur-containing compounds [9,10]. Various plant extracts and secondary metabolites are known to have various bioactivities, such as herbicidal, insecticidal, and antimicrobial activities [11]. Medicinal aromatic plants contain high concentrations of these secondary metabolites or bioactive compounds and can be used in pharmaceuticals, agrochemicals, food additives, and as ingredients in cosmetics [11].

Apiaceae species are a good source of secondary metabolite compounds with diverse biological activities, such as apoptosis inducers, antibacterial, antifungal, phytotoxic activities, and cyclooxygenase inhibitory activity [12,13]. Thus, Apiaceae can be used in agriculture as a biopesticide, sprouting inhibitor, antifungal agent, and insect repellent [14]. In this respect, this current review focuses on the Apiaceae as a source of biocidal components and their potential uses in agriculture. Relevant articles published in English were searched in different databases, specifically, Google Scholar, Scopus, Wiley Online Library, Semantic Scholar, and Pub Med. This review cites data from 150 articles, published between 2005 and 2021, and compiles the biocidal potential of 54 Apiaceae species.

2. Phytochemicals in Apiaceae Extracts

Several Apiaceae species are an excellent source of EOs, which contain more than 760 different chemical components [1,2]. The chemical composition varies with the plant part used for extraction, various extraction methods, phenological stages of the plant, harvesting season, plant age, soil nature, and environmental conditions. These variations in chemical composition have a direct effect on their biological activities [15,16]. Knowledge of these chemical constituents is vital to make use of this economically important plant family, not only for medicinal benefits, but also for environmental applications. Essential oils and their components, mainly monoterpenoids and sesquiterpenoids, show antimicrobial, repellent, chemosterilant, antifeeding, and other biocidal activities [17,18]. Table 1 shows some Apiaceae species and their major components, while Figure 1 shows the chemical structure of several main components.

Table 1. Phytochemicals in Apiaceae plant extracts.

| Botanical Name | Common Name | Part | Extract | Main Compounds with Biocidal Activity | Reference |
|--------------------------------|------------------------------|--------------|--------------------------|---|-----------|
| <i>Aegopodium podagraria</i> | Goutweed Ground Elder | Leaf | Ethanolic extracts | Quercetin-3-O-glucoside (399 mg/kg), apigenin (1.3 mg/kg), rutin (0.7 mg/kg) | [19] |
| <i>Ammi visnaga</i> | Toothpick weed, Khella | Seeds | Ethanolic extracts | Quercetin-3-O-glucoside (49.5 mg/kg), rutin (24 mg/kg), kaempferol (11 mg/kg), biochanin A (40 mg/kg), genistein (23 mg/kg) | [19] |
| <i>Ammodaucus leucotrichus</i> | Woolly Cumin | Aerial parts | Essential oil | Perillaldehyde (58.3%), D-limonene (23.33%), α -pinene (5.74%), β -pinene (2.26%) | [20] |
| <i>Anethum graveolens</i> | Dill | Seeds | Essential oil | Carvone (42%), limonene (32%), dill ether, α -phellandrene (14.2%), cymene (2%) | [21] |
| <i>Angelica archangelica</i> | Garden Angelica | Root | Essential oil | Carvone (55.2%), limonene (16.6%), dill apiole (14.4%), linalool (3.7%) | [22] |
| <i>Angelica sylvestris</i> | Wild angelica | Leaf | Ethanolic extract | Quercetin 3-O-glucoside (20.5 mg/kg), rutin (136 mg/kg), formononetin (12.4 mg/kg) | [19] |
| <i>Anthriscus cerefolium</i> | Chervil | Leaf | Ethanolic extract | Naringin (6.5 mg/kg), quercetin 3-O-glucoside (5.3 mg/kg) | [19] |
| <i>Anthriscus sylvestris</i> | Cow parsley, Wild chervil | Leaf | Ethanolic extract | Rutin (8.0 mg/kg), quercetin 3-O-glucoside (3.8 mg/kg) | [19] |
| <i>Apium graveolens</i> | Celery | Leaf, Root | CO ₂ -extract | Leaf: Limonene (32.16%) Root: Limonene (21.87%), carvone (17.71%) | [24] |
| <i>Apium graveolens</i> | Celery | Leaves | Essential oil | β -Pinene (39.63%), limonene (15.11%), cis-ocimene (16.18%), γ -terpinene (7.73%), β -selinene (3.81%) | [25] |
| <i>Apium nodiflorum</i> | Water celery | Aerial parts | Essential oil | Myristicin (47.0%), limonene (16.7%), terpinolene (9.9%), (Z)- β -ocimene (6.1%) | [26] |
| <i>Azorella cryptantha</i> | | Aerial parts | Essential oil | α -Pinene (9.6–21.9%), α -thujene (5.7–12.5%), β -pinene (1.5–5.9%) | [27] |
| <i>Carum carvi</i> | Caraway | Seeds | Essential oil | Carvone (70.1%), γ -terpinene (12.6%), limonene (5.1%) | [28] |
| | | | | Carvone (66.4%), limonene (32.5%) | [29] |
| | | | | γ -Terpinene (31.03%), β -pinene (18.77%), p-cymene (17.16%), carvone (12.20%) | [30] |

Table 1. Cont.

| Botanical Name | Common Name | Part | Extract | Main Compounds with Biocidal Activity | Reference |
|---------------------------------|-----------------------------------|-------------------------|--------------------------------------|--|-----------|
| <i>Carum carvi</i> | Caraway | Fruits | Essential oil | 2-Caren-10-al (34.03%), anethole (28.46%), d-terpinene (16.06%), p-cymene (5.59%), limonene (3.55%) | [31] |
| | | | | Carvone (50.6%), limonene (46.48%) | [32] |
| | | | | (R)-Carvone (37.98%), D-limonene (26.55%), α -pinene (5.21%), cis-carveol (5.01%), β -myrcene (4.67%) | [33] |
| <i>Carum nigrum</i> | | Seeds | Essential oil | Carvone (46.62%), limonene (45.49%) | [34] |
| | | | | Dillapiole (29.9%), germacrene B (21.4%), β -caryophyllene (7.8%) | [35] |
| <i>Carum copticum</i> | Ajowan | Fruits | Essential oil | Thymol (63.17%), p-cymene (21.4%), d-terpinene (13.76%) | [31] |
| <i>Centella aciatica</i> | Gotu Kola, Centella, Indian penny | Leaves | Essential oil | α -Humulene (21.06%), β -caryophyllene (19.08%), bicyclogermacrene (11.22%), germacrene B (6.29%), myrcene (6.55%), γ -terpinene (5.77%) | [36] |
| <i>Chaerophyllum aromaticum</i> | | Root | Essential oil and methanolic extract | Viridiflorol (22.2%), germacrene d (5.1%), m-cresol (1.6%), limonene (2.1%), α -pinene (0.8%) | [37] |
| <i>Chaerophyllum aureum</i> | - | Fruits and aerial parts | Essential oil | Sabinene (18.5–31.6%), p-cymene (7.9–25.4%) and limonene (1.9–10.9%) | [38] |
| <i>Chaerophyllum crinitum</i> | - | Aerial parts | Essential oil | α -Terpinolene (20.3%), α -terpineol (7.2%), limonene (5.8%) | [39] |
| <i>Chaerophyllum macropodum</i> | - | Aerial parts | Essential oils and hexane extracts | Trans- β -ocimene (21.2–22.8%), cis- β - ocimene (8.5–10.0%), p-cymene (1.4–10.3%), β -phellandrene (5.1–7.5%), γ -terpinene (1.1–9.2%), β -pinene (2.3–7.1%), (+) spathulenol (4.4–6.0%) | [40] |
| <i>Coriandrum sativum</i> | Coriander | Seeds | Essential oil | Linalool (40.9%), geranyl acetate (12.8%), γ - terpinene (10.6%) | [28] |
| | | | | Linalool (66.8%), α -pinene (7.79%), camphor (6.46%), terpinene (3.97%), limonene (3.79%) | [41] |
| | | | | Linalool (57.57%), geranyl acetate (15.09%), Camphor (3.02%), p-cymene (2.52%) | [42] |

Table 1. Cont.

| Botanical Name | Common Name | Part | Extract | Main Compounds with Biocidal Activity | Reference |
|----------------------------|-------------|------------------------|---------------|--|-----------|
| | | | | Linalool (58.80%), menthol (12.89%), α -pinene (5.29%), γ -terpinene (4.76%) | [43] |
| | | | | Linalool (76.41%), γ -terpinene (5.35%), α -pinene (4.44%), Camphor (2.20%) | [30] |
| <i>Coriandrum sativum</i> | Coriander | Fruits | Essential oil | Linalool (70.9%), α -pinene (4.17%), p-cymene (3.63%) | [32] |
| | | | | γ -Terpinene (33.6 %), sabinene (32.0 %), thymol methyl ether (15.7 %) | [44] |
| <i>Critchmum maritimum</i> | Sea Fennel | Aerial parts | Essential oil | β -myrcene (13.66%), p-cymene (11.67%), β -phellandrene (6.57%), α -pinene (5.51%), camphene (5.16%) | [45] |
| <i>Critchmum maritimum</i> | Sea Fennel | - | Essential oil | Sabinene (49.45%), γ -terpinene (31.37%), pinenes (9.57%), limonene (2.73%) | [46] |
| <i>Critchmum maritimum</i> | Sea fennel | Aerial parts and seeds | Essential oil | Dillapiol (55.7 and 39.9%), myristicin (4.4 and 12.8%), γ -terpinene (14.0 and 21.2%), thymol methyl ether (11.8 and 11.1%), α -pinene (2.3 and 4.7%), sabinene (4.7 and 1.6%), p-cymene (3.5 and 4.6%), respectively. | [47] |
| <i>Critchmum maritimum</i> | Sea fennel | Seeds | Essential oil | Dillapiol (39.9%), γ -terpinene (21.2%), myristicin (12.8%), thymol methyl ether (11.1%), α -pinene (4.7%), p-cymene (4.6%) | [48] |
| <i>Critchmum maritimum</i> | Sea fennel | Leaves | Essential oil | α -Phellandrene (71.05%), dill ether (10.83%), limonene (10.74%), p-cymene (2.12%) | [25] |
| | | | | β -Pinene, p-cymene, γ -terpinene, cuminal, α -terpinen-7-al and γ -terpinen-7-a | [16] |
| <i>Cuminum cyminum</i> | Cumin | Seeds | Essential oil | γ -Terpinen-7-al (35.3%), cumin aldehyde (21.8%), α -terpinen-7-al (15.4%), γ -terpinene (12.5%), β -pinene (6.4%) | [49] |
| | | | | Cuminaldehyde (30.42–33.24 %), γ -terpinen-7-al (20.54–28.36 %), α -terpinen-7-al (about 13 %), γ -terpinene (6.15–12.60 %), β -cymene (4.19–5.38 %), β -pinene (3.10–5.36 %) | [50] |

Table 1. Cont.

| Botanical Name | Common Name | Part | Extract | Main Compounds with Biocidal Activity | Reference |
|------------------------------|--------------------|-------------------|--|---|-----------|
| <i>Cuminum cyminum</i> | Cumin | Fruits | Essential oil | Cuminaldehyde (25.17%), p-cymene (17.5%), β -pinene (13.56%) | [32] |
| <i>Daucus carota</i> | Wild carrot | Leaf | Ethanolic extract | Quercetin-3-O-glucoside (68.4 mg/kg), rutin (9.5 mg/kg) | [19] |
| <i>Deverra scoparia</i> | | Aerial parts | Essential oil | α -Pinene (31.95%), sabinene (17.24%), Δ 3 -carene (16.85%), ocimene (9.75%), myrcene (3.46%), terpinene-4-ol (2.84%), eugenol (1.8%) | [51] |
| <i>Echinophora spinosa</i> | Prickly Parsnip | Air dried plants | Essential oil | δ^3 -carene (60.86%), α -phellandrene (7.12%), p-cymene (6.22%), myrcene (4.82%), β -phellandrene (2.73%) | [52] |
| <i>Eryngium alpinum</i> | Alpine Sea Holly | Aerial parts | Essential oil | Caryophyllene oxide (27.9%), bicyclogermacrene (13.2%), germacrene D (8.2%) | [53] |
| <i>Eryngium amethystinum</i> | Amethyst Sea Holly | Aerial parts | Essential oil | β -Caryophyllene (15.2%), α -pinene (10.2%), 2,3,6-trimethylbenzaldehyde (9.3%) | [53] |
| <i>Eryngium triquetrum</i> | Choukzerk | Flowers | Essential oil | Pulegone (50.6%), piperitenone (30.5%), menthone (7.0%), limonene (1.3%) | [54] |
| <i>Eryngium triquetrum</i> | Choukzerk | Aerial parts | Essential oil | Falcarinol (74.8%), octane (5.6%) | [55] |
| <i>Ferula orientalis</i> | | Aerial parts | Essential oil | α -Pinene (75.9%), camphene (3.4%), p-cymene (2.2%) | [56] |
| <i>Ferulago sandrasica</i> | | Roots | Essential oil | Limonene (28.9%), α -pinene (15.6%), terpinolene (13.9%) | [56] |
| <i>Ferulago angulata</i> | | Seeds | Essential oil | (Z)- β -Ocimene (19.93%), α -pinene (15.50%), p-cymene (7.67%), sabinene (7.49%), β -phellandrene (5.5%), α -phellandrene (4.95%), γ -terpinene (3.3%) | [57] |
| <i>Ferulago cassia</i> | | Root | Dichloromethane (CH_2Cl_2) extract | Coumarins; peucedanol, suberosin, grandivitinol, umbelliferone | [58] |
| <i>Ferulago trachycarpa</i> | | Rhizomes of plant | Dichloromethane, n-hexane, and methanolic extract | Coumarins; crenulatin, suberosin, marmesin senecioate | [59] |
| <i>Ferulago trifida</i> | | Flowers | Essential oil | (E)- β -Ocimene (37.3%), α -pinene (16.3%), bornyl acetate (9.4%), cis-verbenol (8.6%), γ -terpinene (7.5%), α -limonene (4.3%), β -myrcene (2.8%) | [60] |

Table 1. Cont.

| Botanical Name | Common Name | Part | Extract | Main Compounds with Biocidal Activity | Reference |
|-----------------------------------|-------------|---------------|-----------------|---|-----------|
| <i>Foeniculum vulgare</i> | Fennel | Stems | | α -Pinene (22.6%), (E)- β -ocimene (20.7%), trans-verbenol (22.1%), bornyl acetate (8.5%), α -limonene (3.3%) | |
| | | | | (E)- β -Ocimene (22.6%), α -pinene (19.6%), bornyl acetate (16.7%), cis-verbenol (10.4%), β -myrcene (3.2%) | |
| | | Fruits | | (E)- β -Ocimene (30.5%), α -pinene (18.0%), bornyl acetate (11.0%), α -terpinolene (9.4%) | |
| <i>Foeniculum vulgare</i> | Fennel | Seeds | Essential oil | Estragole (50.1%), limonene (20.2%) | [28] |
| | | | Essential oil | Trans-anethole (65.1%), fenchone (25.6%), methyl chavicol (3.4%), α -pinene (1.5%), limonene (1.3%) | [21] |
| | | Fruits | Essential oil | Trans-anethole, fenchone, anisketone, p-anisaldehyde, d-limonene, estragol, estragol, carvone | [61] |
| | | | Essential oil | Estragole (71.64%) | [62] |
| | | | Essential oil | E-Anethol (76.22%), estragole (9.54%), fenchone (10.91%) | [43] |
| <i>Heracleum anisactis</i> | | Aerial parts | Essential oil | Estragole (43.38%), anethole (29.34%), fenchone (15.16%), Limonene (5.02%) | [63] |
| | | | Ethanol extract | Rutin (62 mg/kg), quercetin 3-O-glucoside (60.0 mg/kg) | [19] |
| <i>Foeniculum vulgare</i> | Fennel | Fruits | Essential oil | Trans-Anethole (64.42%), fenchone (14.59%), methyl cavigol (6.62%), limonene (3.37%) | [31] |
| <i>Foeniculum vulgare</i> | Fennel | Leaves | Essential oil | E-Anethol (41.18%), z-anethol (26.49%), β -phellandrene (5.38%), fenchone (2.46%) | [25] |
| <i>Heracleum anisactis</i> | | Aerial parts | Essential oil | Myristicin (95.15%) | [64] |
| <i>Heracleum transcaucasicum</i> | | Aerial parts | Essential oil | Myristicin (96.87%) | [64] |
| <i>Hippomarathrum microcarpum</i> | | Aerial parts | Essential oil | β -Caryophyllene (31.4%), caryophyllene oxide (23.1%), β -phellandrene (4.6%), Germacrene D (4.2%), α -pinene (3.0%) | [56] |
| <i>Levisticum officinale</i> | Lovage | leaf and seed | Essential oil | γ -Terpinene (14.52% and 12.37%), β -phellandrene (13.85% and 15.54%), (Z)- β -ocimene (12.91% and 23.70%) | [65] |

Table 1. Cont.

| Botanical Name | Common Name | Part | Extract | Main Compounds with Biocidal Activity | Reference |
|-------------------------------|--------------------------|------------------------|-------------------------------|---|-----------|
| <i>Ostericum sieboldii</i> | Water Dropwort | | | Myristicin (30.31%), α -terpineol (9.92%), α -cadinol (7.29%), β -farnesene (6.26%), linalool (5.94%) | [66] |
| <i>Pastinaca sativa</i> | Wild parsnip | Leaf | Ethanol extract | Rutin (652 mg/kg), quercetin 3-O-glucoside (517 mg/kg) | [19] |
| <i>Petroselinum hortense</i> | Parsley | Seeds | Essential oil | α -Pinene (42.15%), β -pinene (30.21%), β -phellandrene (6.03%), myristicine (4.37%), limonene (2.02%), sabinene (2.26%), myrtenal (2.14%) | [43] |
| <i>Pimpinella anisum</i> | Anise | Seeds | Essential oil | E-Anethol (76.56%), estragole (13.01%), linalool (7.42%) | [43] |
| | | | Essential oil | Trans-anethole (80.8%), 1,8-cineol (4.7%), linalool (1.5%) | [21] |
| | | | Essential oil | (E)-Anethole (93%) | [49]. |
| <i>Pimpinella saxifraga</i> | Burnet saxifrage | Leaf | Ethanol extract | Rutin (13.0 mg/kg), quercetin 3-O-glucoside (6.5 mg/kg) | [19] |
| | | | | Quercetin 3-O-glucoside (421.2 mg/kg), rutin (205.2 mg/kg), apigenin (62.0 mg/kg), quercetin (20.4 mg/kg) | [19] |
| <i>Prangos peucedanifolia</i> | | Flower | Essential oil | β -pinene (35.58%), α -pinene (22.13%), β -phellandrene (12.54%), myrcene (8.27%), γ -terpinene (5.97%), α -phellandrene (3.23%) | [67] |
| | | | Essential oil | m-Cresol (50.38%), trans-p-menth-2-en-1-ol (6.63%), γ -terpineol (3.9%), α -terpinen-7-al (3.83%), and β -pinene (3.63%) | [67] |
| | | | | Chlorogenic acid (211 and 199 μ g/g), Gallic acid (37.81 and 22.27 μ g/g), p-coumaric acid (18.69 and 27.16 μ g/g), rutin (15.22 and 14.42 μ g/g) | [68] |
| <i>Seseli gummiferum</i> | Moon Carrot | Aerial parts | Methanolic and water extracts | | |
| <i>Sison amomum</i> | Stone Parsley | Flowering aerial parts | Essential oil | Sabinene (54.4%), β -phellandrene (16.6%), germacrene D (6.7%), terpinen-4-ol (3.8%), γ -terpinene (2.4%), myrcene (2.0%) | [69] |
| <i>Smyrnium olusatrum</i> | Alexander, Horse parsley | Roots | Essential oil | Furanoeeremophilone (31.5%), furanodiene (19.1%), (E)- β -caryophyllene (11%), β -pinene (3%) | [55] |
| <i>Trachyspermum ammi</i> | Ajwain, Ajowan caraway | Seeds | Essential oil | Thymol (63.4%), p-cymene (19%), γ -terpinene (16.9%) | [70] |

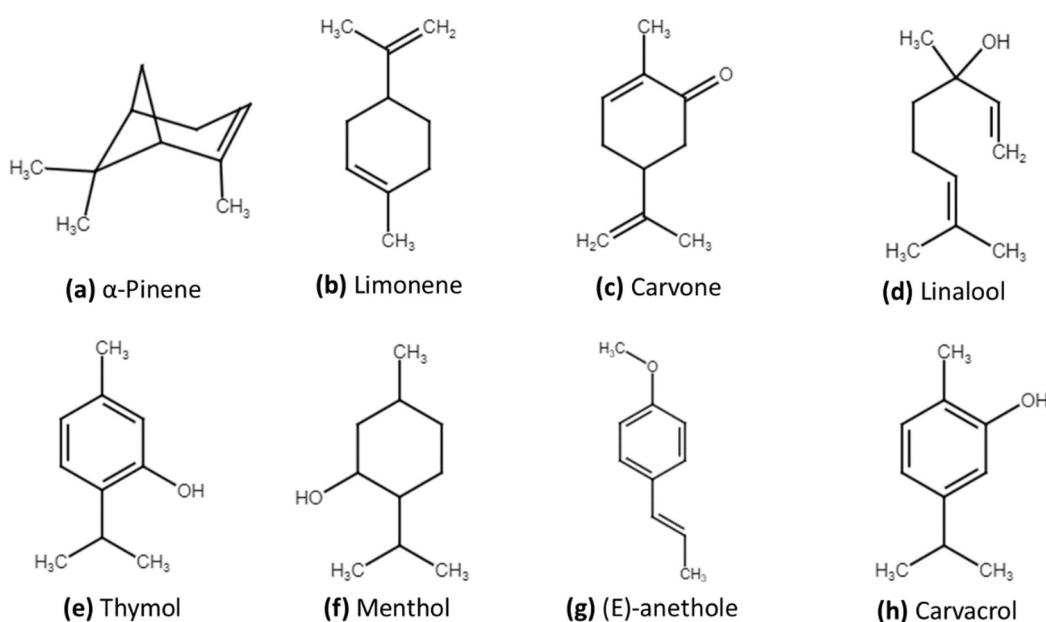


Figure 1. Chemical structure of several major components with potential biocidal activity;

3. Biocidal Effects of Apiaceae Extracts

The biocidal activities of phytochemicals, such as monoterpenes, phthalides, terpenoids, phenylpropanoids (coumarins and phenylpropenes), and polyacetylenes, are commonly found in Apiaceae plants [4,5]. Compared with single components, oil in its complete composition showed high antimicrobial activity due to the synergistic effect of minor and major constituents of oil [21]. Table 2 highlights the biocidal potential of several Apiaceae species.

Table 2. Phytochemical constituents of Apiaceae plant extracts.

| Botanical Name | Common Name | Biocidal Effect | Results/Mechanisms | References |
|------------------------------|--------------------------|--|--|------------|
| <i>Actinolema macrolema</i> | | Antibacterial activity (<i>Staphylococcus epidermidis</i>) Antifungal activity (<i>Candida albicans</i>) | MIC using microdilution broth assay 62.5 (<i>S. epidermidis</i>) 125 (<i>C. albicans</i>) μ g/mL. | [71] |
| <i>Aegopodium podagraria</i> | Goutweed Ground Elder | Antibacterial activity (<i>Enterobacter cloacae</i> , <i>Klebsiella pneumonia</i> , <i>Pseudomonas fluorescens</i> , <i>Bacillus subtilis</i> , <i>Bacillus mycoides</i> , <i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>) | MIC using tube dilution method 1.25–5.00 mg/mL (in ethanol extract). | [72] |
| <i>Ammi visnaga</i> | Toothpick Weed, Khella | Larvicidal activity (<i>Culex quinquefasciatus</i>) | LD ₅₀ = 9 ppm. | [73] |
| | | Insecticidal activity (<i>Toxoptera auranti</i>) | LD ₅₀ of seed extract 0.054 ng/aphids | [74] |
| | | Larvicidal activity (<i>Aedes aegypt</i>) | Khellin, a major compound showed 100% and 93% mortality at 1 μ g/ μ L and at 0.5 μ g/ μ L. | [75] |
| | | Insecticidal activity (<i>Schistocerca gregaria</i>) | LC ₅₀ of ethanol, petroleum ether and n-butanol extracts (21.0, 12.0 and 22.5%, respectively). | [76] |

Table 2. Cont.

| Botanical Name | Common Name | Biocidal Effect | Results/Mechanisms | References |
|--------------------------------|-----------------|---|---|------------|
| <i>Ammodaucus leucotrichus</i> | Wooly Cumin | Antibacterial (<i>Klebsilla pneumonia</i>) and Antifungal (<i>Trichophyton rubrum</i> , <i>Candida albicans</i>) activities | Inhibition zones in disc diffusion method 6–20 mm. | [77] |
| | | Insecticidal activity (<i>Tribolium castaneum</i>) | Fumigant toxicity (LC_{50} 14.78 μ L), repellency, and reduces oviposition potential. | [78] |
| | | Insecticidal activity (<i>Lymantria dispar</i>) | Antifeedant activity at concentration of 0.5 and 1% of EO (Tot = 59.18 and 56.12, respectively). | [79] |
| <i>Anethum graveolens</i> | Dill | Antifungal activity (<i>Candida</i> spp.) | MIC and MFC were 0.63–2.5 mg/mL and 1.25–5 mg/mL, respectively. | [21] |
| | | Antifungal activity (<i>Penicillium citrinum</i> , <i>Penicillium veridicatum</i> , <i>Aspergillus flavus</i> , <i>Aspergillus terreus</i> , <i>Aspergillus niger</i> , <i>Fusarium graminearum</i>), antibacterial activity (<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i> , <i>Bacillus subtilis</i> , <i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i> , <i>Salmonella typhi</i> , <i>Escherichia coli</i> , <i>Bacillus cereus</i>) | Antifungal activity by inverted petri dish method 27.5–100% at 6 μ L. Inhibition zones determined by agar well diffusion method 13.2–25.3 mm (bacteria). | [22] |
| <i>Angelica archangelica</i> | Garden Angelica | Antibacterial activity against <i>Staphylococcus aureus</i> and <i>Escherichia coli</i> | MIC using broth microdilution method = 14.2 μ L/mL (<i>S. aureus</i>) and 28.4 μ L/mL (<i>E. coli</i>). | [23] |
| <i>Angelica sylvestris</i> | Wild Angelica | Larvicidal activity (<i>Culex pipiens</i>) | $LC_{50} > 150$ mg/L. | [80] |
| <i>Anthriscus cerefolium</i> | Chervil | Insecticidal activity (wheat granary weevil <i>Sitophilus granaries</i>) | Repellent (62%) and lethal activity (54%). | [81] |
| | | Antibacterial activity (<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i> , <i>Salmonella typhi</i>) | MIC 0.12 μ g/mL (<i>S. aureus</i>) and 0.5 μ g/mL (<i>S. typhi</i>). | [82] |
| <i>Apium graveolens</i> | Celery | Insecticidal activity against <i>Pseudaletia unipuncta</i> (Armyworm) | Antifeedant/feeding deterrence index (84%), growth inhibitory (91%), fumigant and contact toxicant action (100% after 24 h). | [83] |
| | | Antibacterial activity against <i>Bacillus cereus</i> , <i>Staphylococcus aureus</i> , <i>Listeria monocytogenes</i> , <i>Enterococcus faecalis</i> | 11.5–40 mm inhibition zone in agar diffusion method. | [24] |
| <i>Azilia eryngioides</i> | | Insecticidal activity (<i>Sitophilus granaries</i> , <i>Tribolium castaneum</i>) | Fumigant toxicity 24- LC_{50} were 20.05 μ L/L (<i>S. granaries</i>) and 46.48 μ L/L (<i>T. castaneum</i>). | [84] |

Table 2. Cont.

| Botanical Name | Common Name | Biocidal Effect | Results/Mechanisms | References |
|----------------------------|-------------|--|---|------------|
| <i>Azorella cryptantha</i> | | Repellent activity on <i>Triatoma infestans</i> , insecticidal activity against <i>Ceratitis capitata</i> , antifungal (dermatophytes <i>Microsporum gypseum</i> , <i>Trichophyton rubrum</i> , <i>Trichophyton mentagrophytes</i>), antibacterial (<i>Escherichia coli</i> and <i>Yersinia enterocolitica</i>) | Repellent activity (92–100%), insecticidal contact toxicity (LD_{50} at 72 h <11 mg/fly), MIC (microbroth dilution method) of dermatophytes and bacteria 125–1000 μ g/mL. | [27] |
| | | Antibacterial activity (<i>Escherichia coli</i> , <i>Salmonella enteritidis</i>) | MIC (microbroth dilution method) values of <i>S. enteritidis</i> and <i>E. coli</i> 125–250 μ g/mL and 500 μ g/mL, respectively. | [85] |
| | | Antifungal activity (<i>Aspergillus flavus</i>) and inhibition of aflatoxin production | Complete inhibition of <i>A. flavus</i> growth and aflotoxin B ₁ production at 1000 ppm caraway EO. | [28] |
| | | Insecticidal activity (African cotton leafworm <i>Spodoptera littoralis</i>) | Fumigant toxicity LD_{50} 41.45 μ L/L air. | [86] |
| <i>Carum carvi</i> | Caraway | Insecticidal activity against <i>Sitophilus zeamais</i> and <i>Tribolium castaneum</i> | Contact (LD_{50} 3.07 and 3.39 μ g/adult) and fumigant (LC_{50} 3.37 and 2.53 mg/L air) toxicity against <i>S. zeamais</i> and <i>T. castaneum</i> , respectively, and may be attributed to strong contact and fumigant toxicity of (R)-carvone and D-limonene. | [33] |
| | | Herbicidal activity against barnyard grass <i>Echinochloa crus-galli</i> | Causing leaf injuries and reduction in biomass, impaired photosynthetic activity and plant metabolism. | [29] |
| | | Antibacterial (<i>S. epidermidis</i> , <i>S. aureus</i> , <i>M. luteus</i> , <i>E. faecalis</i> , <i>B. cereus</i> , <i>E. coli</i> , <i>L. monocytogenes</i> , <i>S. typhimurium</i>) Antifungal (<i>C. albicans</i> , <i>C. glabrata</i> , <i>C. parapsilosis</i> , <i>C. krusei</i> , <i>S. cerevisiae</i>) | Inhibition zone 11.00 to 25.00 mm diameter in disc-diffusion assay. MIC = 0.059 to 1.875 mg/mL (bacteria), 0.029–0.059 mg/mL (fungi). AChE inhibition (IC_{50} = 0.82 mg/mL) α -Glucosidase inhibition (IC_{50} = 6.83 mg/mL). | [30] |
| <i>Carum copticum</i> | Ajowan | Antifungal activities against <i>Penicillium digitatum</i> and <i>Alternaria alternata</i> | Mycelial growth inhibition 67.78% (<i>A. alternata</i>) and 44.88% (<i>P. digitatum</i>). Thymol may cause severe damage to cell walls, cell membranes and cellular organelles, such as mitochondria in fungi. | [31] |

Table 2. Cont.

| Botanical Name | Common Name | Biocidal Effect | Results/Mechanisms | References |
|---------------------------------|-----------------------------------|--|--|------------|
| <i>Carum nigrum</i> | | Antifungal activity (<i>Penicillium citrinum</i> , <i>Penicillium purpurogenum</i> , <i>Aspergillus flavus</i> , <i>Aspergillus terreus</i> , <i>Aspergillus niger</i> , <i>Fusarium graminearum</i>), antibacterial activity (<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i> , <i>Bacillus subtilis</i> , <i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i> , <i>Salmonella typhimurium</i> , <i>Escherichia coli</i> , <i>Bacillus cereus</i>) | Antifungal activity by inverted petri dish method 34–100% at 3000 ppm. Inhibition zones determined by agar well diffusion method 17.9 mm to complete inhibition at 3000 ppm (bacteria). | [35] |
| | | Larvicidal activity (<i>Culex quinquefasciatus</i>) | Larvicidal activity (24 h-LC ₅₀) was 1.12–6.84 ppm at the temperatures of 31–19 °C and acts as adult emergence inhibitor. | |
| <i>Centella asiatica</i> | Gotu Kola, Centella, Indian penny | Antibacterial activity (<i>Bacillus subtilis</i> , <i>Staphylococcus aureus</i> , <i>Escherichia coli</i> , <i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i> , <i>Shigella sonnei</i>) | MIC using microplate dilution method ranging from 1.25 to 0.039 mg/mL. | [36] |
| | | Antifungal (<i>Aspergillus niger</i>) and Antibacterial (<i>Bacillus subtilis</i>) activity | 6.3–15.4 mm (<i>A. niger</i>) and 8.4–16.4 mm (<i>B. subtilis</i>) inhibition zone in disc diffusion method. | |
| <i>Chaerophyllum aromaticum</i> | | Antibacterial activity | Bactericidal activity of Root EO against <i>Bacillus spizizenii</i> and <i>Staphylococcus aureus</i> (diameter of zone of inhibition 17 mm and 35 mm). BChE inhibitory activity of EO from root (47.65%) and aerial (50.88%). | [37] |
| | | Antibacterial activity (<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i> , <i>Staphylococcus epidermidis</i> , <i>Micrococcus luteus</i> , and <i>Escherichia coli</i>) | 10.0–22.3 mm inhibition zone in agar diffusion method. Mechanisms of inhibition may be attributed to cell membrane damage due to hydrophobicity and impairment of bacterial enzyme. | |
| <i>Chaerophyllum aureum</i> | | Antifungal (<i>Candida tropicalis</i>) and antibacterial (<i>Acinetobacter baumannii</i> , <i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>) activities | Inhibition zone 16–10 mm diameter in disc diffusion method. | [38] |
| <i>Chaerophyllum crinitum</i> | | Antibacterial activity (<i>Escherichia coli</i> , <i>Salmonella typhi</i>) | Inhibition zone 6–12 mm diameter in disc diffusion method. | [39] |
| <i>Chaerophyllum macropodum</i> | | | | [89] |

Table 2. Cont.

| Botanical Name | Common Name | Biocidal Effect | Results/Mechanisms | References |
|---------------------------|-------------|--|--|------------|
| <i>Coriandrum sativum</i> | Coriander | Antibacterial activity against <i>Staphylococcus epidermidis</i> , <i>Bacillus subtilis</i> , <i>Staphylococcus aureus</i> , <i>Escherichia coli</i> | Inhibition zone 10.7–18.1 mm diameter in agar disc diffusion method. | [40] |
| | | Antifungal activity (<i>Aspergillus flavus</i>) and inhibition of aflatoxin production | Complete inhibition of <i>A. flavus</i> growth and aflatoxin B ₁ production at 1000 ppm coriander EO. | [28] |
| | | Acaricidal and insecticidal activities (<i>Plodia interpunctella</i> , <i>Sitotroga cerealella</i> and <i>Tyrophagus putrescentiae</i>) | Fumigant toxicity (LD ₅₀ 4.19–18.76 µg/cm ³), contact toxicity (LD ₅₀ 19.29 µg/cm ² for <i>T. putrescentiae</i>). | [41] |
| | | Insecticidal activity (<i>Callosobruchus maculatus</i> , <i>Tribolium confusum</i>) | Insect mortality LC ₅₀ of <i>C. maculatus</i> and <i>T. confusum</i> were 1.34 and 318.02 µL/L air, respectively. | [42] |
| | | Antibacterial activity (<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i> , <i>Bacillus spp.</i> , <i>Escherichia coli</i> , <i>Salmonella typhi</i> , <i>Klebsiella pneumonia</i> , <i>Proteus mirabilis</i>) | MIC 108–217 mg/mL. | [90] |
| | | Antibacterial (<i>S. epidermidis</i> , <i>S. aureus</i> , <i>M. luteus</i> , <i>E. faecalis</i> , <i>B. cereus</i> , <i>E. coli</i> , <i>L. monocytogenes</i> , <i>S. typhimurium</i>) Antifungal (<i>C. albicans</i> , <i>C. glabrata</i> , <i>C. parapsilosis</i> , <i>C. kruse</i> , <i>S. cerevisiae</i>) | Inhibition zone 8.33 to 21.66 mm diameter in disc diffusion assay. MIC = 0.234 to 1.875 mg/mL (bacteria), 0.234–0.469 mg/mL (fungi). AChE inhibition (IC ₅₀ = 0.68 mg/mL) α-Glucosidase inhibition (IC ₅₀ = 6.24 mg/mL). | [30] |
| <i>Crithmum maritimum</i> | Sea Fennel | Antiparasitic activity (<i>Trypanosoma cruzi</i>) | EC ₅₀ = 17.7 µg/mL. | [91] |
| | | Antifungal properties against <i>Candida albicans</i> , <i>Cryptococcus neoformans</i> and several dermatophytes and <i>Aspergillus spp.</i> | <i>C. neoformans</i> 260 µg/mL (MIC), <i>C. albicans</i> (Inhibition of biofilm formation and germ tube formation). | [44] |
| | | Larvicidal (<i>Spodoptera littoralis</i> ; tobacco cut worm), AChE inhibitory activities | Toxicity 62.3–71.7 µg/larva (LD ₅₀). AChE inhibitory activity 7.4 mg/mL (IC ₅₀). | [47] |
| <i>Cuminum cyminum</i> | Cumin | Insecticidal activity (<i>Sitophilus zeamais</i>) | Contact (LC ₅₀ 0.246 µL/cm ² area) and fumigant (LC ₅₀ 0.346 µL/cm ³ air) toxicity, inhibition of AChE activity. | [92] |
| | | Antifungal activity (<i>Candida albicans</i> , <i>Lachancea thermotolerans</i> , <i>Metschnikowia pulcherrima</i>) | MIC ≤ 0.5 mg/mL. | [16] |

Table 2. Cont.

| Botanical Name | Common Name | Biocidal Effect | Results/Mechanisms | References |
|------------------------------|---|--|---|------------|
| | | Insecticidal activity against peach-potato aphid (<i>Myzus persicae</i>), tobacco cutworm/cotton leaf worm (<i>Spodoptera littoralis</i>), and two insect vectors, common housefly (<i>Musca domestica</i>) and lymphatic filariasis and Zika virus vector <i>Culex quinquefasciatus</i> | LD ₅₀ = 3.2 mL/L (<i>M. persicae</i>), 100 µg/larva (<i>S. littoralis</i>), 31.8 µg/adult (<i>M. domestica</i>), 40.5 µL/L (<i>C. quinquefasciatus</i>). | [49] |
| | | Insecticidal activity (<i>Tribolium confusum</i>) | 100% efficacy in dose of 1 mL. | [93] |
| <i>Daucus carota</i> | Wild Carrot | Antibacterial activity (<i>Agrobacterium tumefaciens</i> , <i>Erwinia carotovora</i> , <i>Pseudomonas fluorescens</i> , <i>Pseudomonas glycinea</i>) | 28.66–100% of antibacterial activities in disc diffusion method. | [13] |
| <i>Deverra scoparia</i> | | Acaricidal activity against <i>Tetranychus urticae</i> (two-spotted spider mite) | Toxicity LD ₅₀ 1.79 mg/L and decreased fecundity. | [51] |
| | | Antibacterial (<i>Escherichia coli</i> , <i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>) and antifungal activity (<i>Trichoderma viride</i>) | MIC in microdilution technique were 0.0625 (<i>E. coli</i>), 0.25 (<i>P. aeruginosa</i>), and 0.0625 (<i>T. viride</i>) mg/mL. | [52] |
| <i>Echinophora spinosa</i> | Prickly Parsnip | Antibacterial (<i>Bacillus subtilis</i> , <i>Escherichia coli</i> , <i>Proteus mirabilis</i>) and antifungal activity (<i>Candida albicans</i> , <i>Aspergillus niger</i>) | Inhibition zone 2–30.5 mm diameter in disc diffusion assay. | [94] |
| | | Insecticidal activity (<i>Culex quinquefasciatus</i> , <i>Spodoptera littoralis</i> , <i>Musca domestica</i>) | Toxicity LC ₅₀ 15.7 mg/L (<i>C. quinquefasciatus</i>), LD ₅₀ 38.3 µg/adult (<i>M. domestica</i>), 86.3 µg/larva (<i>S. littoralis</i>). | [95] |
| <i>Eryngium alpinum</i> | Alpine Sea Holly | Antibacterial (<i>Escherichia coli</i> , <i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>), antifungal (<i>Candida albicans</i> , <i>Microsporum gypseum</i>) | MIC 0.08–1.94 mg/mL using microdilution assay. | [53] |
| <i>Eryngium amethystinum</i> | Amethyst sea holly | Antibacterial (<i>Escherichia coli</i> , <i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>), antifungal (<i>Candida albicans</i>) | MIC 0.06–1.94 mg/mL using microdilution assay. | [53] |
| <i>Eryngium foetidum</i> | Culantro, Mexican coriander, long coriander | Antibacterial activity against <i>Bacillus subtilis</i> , <i>Staphylococcus aureus</i> , <i>Escherichia coli</i> , <i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i> , antifungal activity against <i>Candida albicans</i> | Inhibition zone 12–28 mm in agar well diffusion method MIC 1.56–200 µg/mL in microbroth dilution method. | [96] |
| | | Larvicidal activity (<i>Aedes albopictus</i>) | 24 h-LC ₅₀ s 33.3 ppm. | [97] |
| <i>Eryngium triquetrum</i> | Choukzerk | Antibacterial (<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i> , <i>Staphylococcus epidermidis</i> , <i>Bacillus subtilis</i>) and antifungal (<i>Candida albicans</i>) activities | MIC using broth dilution method = 6.25–25 µg/mL. | [54] |

Table 2. Cont.

| Botanical Name | Common Name | Biocidal Effect | Results/Mechanisms | References |
|------------------------------|-------------|--|--|------------|
| | | Herbicidal activity (<i>Lepidium sativum</i>), antibacterial activities against <i>Pectobacterium atrosepticum</i> (potato blackleg disease), and Gram-negative soil bacterium (<i>Pseudomonas cichorii</i>) | Inhibition of germination, growth, and photosynthesis (43%) of <i>L. sativum</i> , inhibition of 85% <i>Pectobacterium</i> , 100% <i>Pseudomonas</i> , fumigant toxicity with lack of growth on <i>F. graminearum</i> and moderate inhibition (43%) on <i>B. cinerea</i> . | [55] |
| <i>Falcaria vulgaris</i> | | Antifungal (<i>Aspergillus fumigatus</i>) | 0.140 mg/mL (MIC using microdilution method). Cholinesterase inhibition (AChE and BChE). | [98] |
| <i>Ferula caspica</i> | | Antibacterial activity (<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i> , <i>Enterococcus faecalis</i>) | MIC in broth microdilution method 32–64 µg/mL. | [99] |
| <i>Ferula orientalis</i> | | Antibacterial (<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>) and antifungal (<i>Candida albicans</i>) activities | Determined by direct bioautography | [56] |
| <i>Ferula pseudalliiacea</i> | | Insecticidal activity (<i>Varroa destructor</i>) | Highest (30.72%) mortality was at 36 h. | [100] |
| <i>Ferula rigidula</i> | | Antifungal activity (<i>Aspergillus ochraceus</i> , <i>Trichoderma viride</i>), Antibacterial (<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>) | MIC determined by microdilution method were 0.27 (bacteria) and 0.10 (fungi) mg/mL. Enzymatic inhibitory activities against AChE, BChE, tyrosinase, α-amylase, and α-glucosidase. | [101] |
| <i>Ferulago angulata</i> | | Antibacterial activity against <i>Bacillus thuringiensis</i> , <i>Erwinia amylovora</i> , <i>Xanthomonas oryzae</i> Antifungal activity against <i>Colletotrichum tricellulatum</i> , <i>Fusarium oxysporum</i> | MIC = 8 (<i>B. thuringiensis</i>), 12.5 (<i>E. amylovora</i>), and 12 (<i>X. oryzae</i>) µL/mL. 47.8–100% fungal growth inhibition in agar dilution method 52.5–100% in disc diffusion method at concentration of 800 µL/L. | [57] |
| <i>Ferulago cassia</i> | | Anticholinesterase activity | Cholinesterase inhibition (AChE and BChE). | [58] |
| <i>Ferulago sandrasica</i> | | Antibacterial (<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>) and antifungal (<i>Candida albicans</i>) activity | Determined by direct bioautography. | [56] |

Table 2. Cont.

| Botanical Name | Common Name | Biocidal Effect | Results/Mechanisms | References |
|-----------------------------|-----------------|---|--|------------|
| <i>Ferulago trachycarpa</i> | | Antibacterial activity against <i>Staphylococcus aureus</i> and <i>E. faecalis</i> (dichloromethane and n-hexane extract), Antifungal activity against <i>Candida albicans</i> , <i>Candida tropicalis</i> , <i>Candida parapsilosis</i> (all extracts) | MIC in microdilution method 3.9–625 mg/L. | [59] |
| <i>Ferulago trifida</i> | | Larvicidal activity (<i>Anopheles stephensi</i>) cytotoxic activity and inhibition of AChE activity | LC ₅₀ = 116.54 ppm. | [60,102] |
| | | Insecticidal activity (<i>Sitophilus granaries</i> , <i>Sitophilus oryzae</i>) | Fumigation toxicity 27.3 µL/L air (<i>S. granaries</i>) and 44.16 µL/L air (<i>S. oryzae</i>) (LC ₅₀). | [103] |
| | | Insecticidal activity (African cotton leafworm <i>Spodoptera littoralis</i>) | Fumigant toxicity LD ₅₀ 51.2 µL/L air. | [86] |
| | | Larvicidal, pupicidal, and insecticidal activity (<i>Culex quinquefasciatus</i>) | Larvicidal activity with LC ₅₀ = 0.10 mg/mL, LD ₅₀ = 7.52/min. | [104] |
| | | Larvicidal and ovicidal activities (<i>Culex pipiens</i>) | Larvicidal activity with 24 h-LC ₅₀ = 148.3 µg/mL. | [105] |
| <i>Foeniculum vulgare</i> | Fennel | Insecticidal activity (<i>Lymantria dispar</i>) | Antifeedant activity at concentration of 1% EO (77.68 Tot). | [79] |
| | | Insecticidal activity (<i>Sitophilus granaries</i> , <i>Tribolium castaneum</i>) | 100% (<i>T. castaneum</i>) and 43.58% (<i>S. granaries</i>) fumigant toxicity. | [62] |
| | | Antifungal activities against <i>Penicillium digitatum</i> and <i>Alternaria alternata</i> | Mycelial growth inhibition 13.94% (<i>A. alternata</i>) and 55.39% (<i>P. digitatum</i>). | [31] |
| | | Insecticidal activity against <i>Tribolium castaneum</i> and <i>Sitophilus oryzae</i> | Fumigant toxicity [91.28 and 254.71 µL/L air, respectively (LC ₅₀)] and repellency effects. | [43] |
| | | Herbicidal activity against weeds of wheats (<i>Phalaris minor</i> , <i>Avena ludoviciana</i> , broad-leaved weeds, <i>Rumex dentatus</i> , and <i>Medicago denticulata</i>) | Inhibition of germination and seedling. | [63] |
| <i>Heracleum anisactis</i> | | Antibacterial activity (<i>Escherichia coli</i> , <i>Staphylococcus epidermidis</i> , <i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>) | 11–13 mm inhibition zone in agar disc diffusion method, MIC in broth dilution method 1.1–1.5 v/v. | [106] |
| <i>Heracleum persicum</i> | Persian Hogweed | Larvicidal activity (<i>Anopheles stephensi</i>) | 24 h-LC ₅₀ = 26–336 ppm | [107] |

Table 2. Cont.

| Botanical Name | Common Name | Biocidal Effect | Results/Mechanisms | References |
|-----------------------------------|----------------|---|---|------------|
| | | Insecticidal (<i>Callosobruchus maculatus</i>) | Fumigant toxicity 24 h-LC ₅₀ = 136.4 µL/L air and higher oviposition deterrence property. | [108] |
| <i>Hippomarathrum microcarpum</i> | | Antibacterial (<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>) and antifungal (<i>Candida albicans</i>) activity | Determined by direct bioautography. | [56] |
| <i>Levisticum officinale</i> | Lovage | Insecticidal activity (<i>Tribolium confusum</i>) | 100% efficacy in dose of 2 mL. | [93] |
| <i>Myrrhis odorata</i> | Sweet Cicely | Antifungal activity (<i>Cladosporium cladosporioides</i> , <i>Aspergillus niger</i> , <i>Aspergillus flavus</i> , <i>Trichoderma viride</i>) | MIC for fungi were 0.5–1.0 mg/mL in microdilution test. | [109] |
| <i>Ostericum sieboldii</i> | Water Dropwort | Insecticidal activity against the red flour beetle (<i>Tribolium castaneum</i>) and maize weevil (<i>Sitophilus zeamais</i>) | Contact toxicity against <i>T. castaneum</i> and <i>S. zeamais</i> with LD ₅₀ values of 8.47 and 13.82 µg/adult, respectively. Fumigant toxicity LC ₅₀ values of 20.92 and 27.39 mg/L air, respectively. | [66] |
| <i>Pastinaca sativa</i> | Parsnip | Antibacterial activity (<i>Bacillus cereus</i>) | MIC in microwell dilution assay 0.72 mg/mL. | [110] |
| <i>Petroselinum crispum</i> | Parsley | Insecticidal activity against <i>Pseudaletia unipuncta</i> (Armyworm) | Antifeedant/feeding deterrence index (99.7%), and contact toxicant action (93% after 48 h). | [83] |
| <i>Peucedanum ostruthium</i> | Masterwort | Phytotoxic activity (<i>Lolium multiflorum</i> , <i>Echinochloa oryzoides</i>), nematicidal (<i>Panagrolaimus rigidus</i>) | Decreased germination and significant impact on <i>L. multiflorum</i> root and shoot growth. Nematicidal activity of leaves extract: 85.6% and 90.5% mortality of larvae and adults of <i>P. rigidus</i> . | [111] |
| | | Insecticidal activity (<i>Lymantria dispar</i>) | Antifeedant activity at concentration of 1% EO (Tot 119.26). | [79] |
| <i>Pimpinella anisum</i> | Anise | Antibacterial (<i>Bacillus subtilis</i> , <i>Klebsiella pneumonia</i>) and antifungal (<i>Aspergillus niger</i> , <i>Candida albicans</i>) activities | 11–40 mm inhibition in cup plate–agar diffusion method. | [112] |
| | | Insecticidal activity against <i>Tribolium castaneum</i> and <i>Sitophilus oryzae</i> | Fumigant toxicity [43.75 and 292.04 µL/L air, respectively (LC ₅₀), and repellency effects. | [43] |

Table 2. Cont.

| Botanical Name | Common Name | Biocidal Effect | Results/Mechanisms | References |
|-------------------------------|---------------------------|--|--|------------|
| | | Insecticidal activity against peach-potato aphid (<i>Myzus persicae</i>), tobacco cutworm/cotton leaf worm (<i>Spodoptera littoralis</i>), and two insect vectors, common housefly (<i>Musca domestica</i>) and lymphatic filariasis and Zika virus vector <i>Culex quinquefasciatus</i> | <i>M. persicae</i> (4.3 mL/L), <i>S. littoralis</i> (57.3 µg/larva), <i>M. domestica</i> (54.8 µg/adult), <i>C. quinquefasciatus</i> (25.4 µL/L) (LD ₅₀). | [49] |
| | | Antifungal (<i>Trichophyton rubrum</i>) and antibacterial activities (<i>Streptococcus mutans</i> , <i>Streptococcus pyogenes</i> , and <i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>) | MIC determined by twofold serial broth dilution method were 2000 (<i>T. rubrum</i>) and ≤1.19 (bacteria) µg/mL. | [67] |
| <i>Prangos peucedanifolia</i> | | Antibacterial activity (<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i> , <i>Escherichia coli</i> , <i>Bacillus cereus</i> , <i>Listeria monocytogenes</i> , <i>Salmonella typhimurium</i>), Antifungal activity (<i>Aspergillus ochraceus</i> , <i>Trichoderma viride</i> , <i>Aspergillus versicolor</i>), inhibition of α-glucosidase | MIC determined by microdilution method were 0.27–0.56 (bacteria) and 0.22–0.27 (fungi) mg/mL. Enzymatic inhibitory activities against AChE, tyrosinase, α-amylase, and α-glucosidase. | [101] |
| <i>Seseli gummiferum</i> | Moon Carrot | Antibacterial action against <i>Staphylococcus lugdunensis</i> | Enzymatic inhibitory activities against AChE, BChE, tyrosinase, and α-amylase MIC = 0.025–0.5 mg/mL. | [68] |
| <i>Sison amomum</i> | Stone Parsley | Antibacterial (<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i> , <i>Klebsiella pneumonia</i> , <i>Acinetobacter baumannii</i>) | MIC using microdilution method = 2.0–4.1 mg/mL. | [69] |
| <i>Smyrnium olusatrum</i> | Alexanders, Horse Parsley | Herbicidal activity (<i>Lepidium sativum</i>) Antifungal activity against <i>Fusarium graminearum</i> and <i>Zymoseptoria tritici</i> Fumigant toxicity (<i>Fusarium graminearum</i> , <i>Botrytis cinerea</i>) | Inhibition of germination, growth, and photosynthesis (74%) of <i>L. sativum</i> , lack of growth on <i>F. graminearum</i> and 83% inhibition on <i>Z. tritici</i> mycelial growth at low concentration 0.142 µL/mL air. Fumigant toxicity with lack of growth on <i>F. graminearum</i> and 48% inhibition on <i>B. cinerea</i> at 0.142 µL/mL air. | [55] |
| <i>Trachyspermum ammi</i> | Ajwain, Ajowan caraway | Antibacterial activity (<i>Bacillus cereus</i> , <i>Staphylococcus aureus</i> , <i>Listeria monocytogenes</i> , <i>Salmonella typhimurium</i> , <i>Escherichia coli</i>), Antifungal activity (<i>Penicillium citrinum</i> , <i>Penicillium chrysogenum</i> , <i>Aspergillus flavus</i> , <i>Aspergillus niger</i> , <i>Aspergillus parasiticus</i>) | Inhibition zone in disc diffusion method = 34–39 mm (bacteria) and >80 mm (fungi). MIC using broth microdilution method = 500 ppm (bacteria) and 1000–2000 ppm (fungi). | [70] |

Table 2. Cont.

| Botanical Name | Common Name | Biocidal Effect | Results/Mechanisms | References |
|----------------|-------------|---|--|------------|
| | | Insecticidal activity (<i>Tribolium castaneum</i>) | Fumigant toxicity (LC ₅₀ 11.6 µL), repellency, and reduces oviposition potential. | [78] |
| | | Insecticidal activity against rice weevil (<i>Sitophilus oryzae</i>), | Repellent activity (95% at 1.2% EO), fumigant toxicity [0.37 µL/cm ³ (LC ₅₀)], AChE inhibition. | [15] |
| | | Insecticidal activity (<i>Plodia interpunctella</i>) Antibacterial activity <i>S. aureus</i> , <i>E. coli</i> , <i>P. vulgaris</i> , <i>B. subtilis</i> , <i>K. pneumoniae</i> , and <i>B. megaterium</i> | Fumigant toxicity (LC ₅₀ 4.33 µL/L air) MIC (dilution method) = 8–14 µL at 25% v/v EO. | [113] |
| | | Insecticidal activity (maize weevil <i>Sitophilus zeamais</i>) | Repellent activity, fumigation (LC ₅₀ 0.385 µL/cm ³ air), contact toxicity (0.317 µL/cm ²), and oviposition inhibitory effect. | [114] |
| | | Insecticidal activity (<i>Aethina tumida</i>) | Contact (LD ₅₀ 66.64 µg/adult) and fumigant (LC ₅₀ 89.03 mg/L air) toxicity may be attributed to the presence of thymol compound. | [115] |

AChE, acetylcholinesterase; BChE, butyrylcholinesterase; LC₅₀, median lethal concentrations; LD₅₀, median lethal doses; MIC, minimum inhibitory concentration; EC₅₀, half maximal effective concentration or concentration that reduces the infection in 50%; IC₅₀, 50% inhibition of the AChE activity; Tot, total deterrence coefficients; MFC, minimum fungicidal concentration.

Botanical insecticides affect the pest with little or no side effects. These botanical insecticides kill the insects or affect their physiology in various ways, such as survival, behaviour, development, reproduction, and metabolic pathways [7].

The mechanism of insecticidal activity in secondary metabolites, including EOs, occurs via fumigant, contact, repellent, antifeedant, ovicidal, oviposition deterrent and larvical activity, and by inhibiting/altering neurotransmitters [acetylcholinesterase enzymes (AChE) and octopamine] and the neurotransmitter inhibitor (γ -aminobutyric acid (GABA)], impairment of the antioxidative defence systems, and cellular respiration [116–119]. Several earlier studies reported the inhibition of AChE by plant EOs. EOs components such as α -pinene and β -pinene, β -phellandrene, carvacrol, limonene, menthol, menthone, 1,8-cineole, cis-ocimene, niloticin, and (L)-fenchone inhibited the AChE of insect pests [7,117]. Thymol and eugenol disrupt the functions of GABA and octopamine [118].

Phytotoxic plant extracts or metabolites delay or inhibit seed germination, as well as retarding the growth of weeds. The phytotoxic or herbicidal effect of EOs is associated with various mechanisms, including inhibition of DNA synthesis and cell proliferation, decreasing mitochondrial respiration, inducing reactive oxygen species (ROS) production, inhibition of enzymes, photosynthesis, seed germination, and seedling growth, altering membrane permeability and respiration. Oxygenated monoterpenes play a major role in most of the mechanisms. Monoterpenes, 1,8-cineole and camphor inhibit DNA synthesis, cell proliferation, and elongation [120–122].

The common antimicrobial mechanism of many EOs is attributed to the effect of membrane permeability or functioning, leading to cell death in fungi or bacteria. Other

than these, antifungal mechanisms of secondary metabolites, including EOs, involve inhibiting the fungi cell wall formation, inhibiting the mitochondrial electron transport, cell division, RNA or DNA and/or protein synthesis, and efflux pumps [123]. The sites and number of hydroxyl groups on the phenolic compounds (simple phenols, phenolic acids, quinones, flavones, flavonoids, flavonols, tannins, and coumarins) may be related to their relative toxicity to fungi. The antifungal mechanism of terpenoids (diterpenes, triterpenes, tetraterpenes, hemiterpenes, and sesquiterpenes) is related to membrane disruption by the lipophilic compounds, while the mechanisms of alkaloids (heterocyclic nitrogen compounds) are attributed to their ability to intercalate with DNA [12].

4. Potential Use of Apiaceae Extracts as Agrochemicals

Synthetic agrochemicals are used to manage weeds, pests, and phytopathogens, thus increasing productivity and food safety. However, long-time usage of these synthetic chemicals may lead to environmental contamination, accumulation of toxic residues and biomagnification through the food chain, development of insect resistance, and threats to humans and non-target organisms [9,103]. These synthetic chemicals produce acute or chronic toxicity in living beings, depending on physicochemical characteristics, concentration and exposure time, route of entry, toxicodynamics and toxicokinetics (absorption, distribution, half-life, metabolism, and elimination), a combination of various pesticides, and the components of their formulation [9]. Secondary metabolites, including EOs, from aromatic plants, drew much attention due to their low toxicity to animals and non-target insects, fast degradation in the environment, and local availability. Other than the many health benefits, the biocidal potential of Apiaceae has great importance in agriculture for use as a natural pesticide, herbicide or phytotoxin, and antimicrobial [124].

4.1. Insecticidal Activity for Crops and Stored Products Protection

4.1.1. Insecticidal Activity to Protect Crops

Several Apiaceae genera are toxic to various insects [124]. *Tuta absoluta*, a major pest of tomato cropping, can be controlled by the EO of *Carum capticum* (Ajwain) [7]. Thymol, γ -terpinene, and ρ -cymene are the major components of *C. capticum* oil that showed AChE inhibition [7].

Ammi visnaga (toothpick-plant) seeds possess acaricidal activity against *Tetranychus urticae* Koch, which is a polyphagous species causing damage to numerous plants (around 1200 species), including major food crops and ornamental plants [125].

Cotton leafworm, *Spodoptera littoralis*, causes serious damage to important economic crops, such as maize, cotton, cereals, potatoes, tobacco, tomato, vegetables, and ornamental plants [47,86]. Apiaceae species, *C. carvi*, *F. vulgare*, *C. cuminum*, *C. caraway*, *C. sativum*, *D. carota* [86], *Helosciadium nodiflorum* (water celery) [126], and *Crithmum maritimum* [47] were demonstrated to possess toxicity against *S. littoralis* larvae. Benelli et al. [49] also suggest that cumin (*C. cuminum*) and anise (*P. anisum*) EOs can be used to protect crops from pests or to control insect vectors, as they have potential insecticidal activity against the peach-potato aphid (*Myzus persicae*) and the tobacco cutworm/cotton leafworm (*S. littoralis*), and insect vectors, such as the common housefly (*Musca domestica*). The crop pest *Spodoptera litura* is a threat to many crops and develops resistance to synthetic pesticides. This pest can be counteracted by sea fennel (*C. maritimum*) EOs [48].

4.1.2. Insecticidal Activity to Protect Stored Products

Several species of storage insect pests infest agricultural products and stored granaries, causing substantial weight losses (around 10%) and quality [15]. They may carry pathogens and contaminate food [127]. *Sitophilus oryzae* (rice weevil), *Sitophilus zeamais* (maize weevil), *Tyrophagus putrescentiae* (mould or cheese mite), *Tribolium confusum* (confused flour beetle), *Callosobruchus maculatus* (cowpea weevil), *Periplaneta americana* (American cockroach), *Tribolium castaneum* (red flour beetle) are some of the pests that affect stored cereals, grains, flour, and other dried products [127]. Research is focused on producing safe and low-risk

natural compounds for pest control [43]. Several Apiaceae species were reported to carry insecticidal activities and have potential to protect stored grains from insect infestation.

Monoterpenes, such as (S)-(-)-linalool and (S)-(-)-menthone showed the most contact toxicity and fumigant activities, respectively, while α -pinene, menthone, citronellal, and linalool exhibited repellent activities against the rice weevil (*S. oryzae*) [128]. Cuminaldehyde and (S)-carvone showed strong repellent activities, fumigation toxicity, and AChE inhibition [129].

Apiaceae species were demonstrated to possess insecticidal and repellent activity. EOs from *F. vulgare*, *Petroselinum hortense*, *C. sativum*, and *P. anisum* showed stronger fumigant toxicity against the storage pest, red flour beetle (*T. castaneum*) than against the rice weevil (*S. oryzae*) [43]. *C. carvi* EO and two isolated main compounds, (R)-carvone and D-limonene, exhibited strong contact and fumigant toxicity against the maize weevil (*S. zeamais*) and the red flour beetle (*T. castaneum*) [33]. *A. graveolens* (dill), *C. cuminum* (cumin), and *P. crispum* (parsley) EOs were reported as having contact toxicity, fumigant, and repellent activities against the stored grain pest *S. zeamais*. Moreover, AChE inhibition was also reported with *P. crispum* and *C. cuminum* EOs [129]. *Trachyspermum ammi* EO also showed repellent and fumigant activity against the rice weevil (*S. oryzae*). In addition, *T. ammi* EO showed significant inhibition of AChE activity in rice weevils [15].

Insecticidal activity of EO derived from *A. graveolens* (dill) seeds was reported against *T. confusum* (confused flour beetle), *C. maculatus* (cowpea weevils), *M. domestica*, *P. americana* (American cockroach), and *T. castaneum* (red flour beetles) [130].

Plodia interpunctella (Indian meal moth), *Sitotroga cerealella* (grain moth), and *T. putrescentiae* (mould or cheese mite) affecting stored products, such as grains, flours, feeds, dried nuts, and fruits, globally. *P. interpunctella* moth continuously produces a silken web on the food; *S. cerealella* larvae invade grains and complete the larval and pupal stages within the grains, thus decreasing grain weight and nutritional value; and *T. putrescentiae* mites disseminate toxic fungi and induce allergic reactions among workers engaged in agriculture and food industries. Camphor and linalool found in *C. sativum* EO, extracted by steam distillation, exhibited acaricidal and insecticidal properties against *P. interpunctella*, *S. cerealella*, and *T. putrescentiae* [41].

4.2. Herbicidal/Phytotoxic Activity against Weeds

Many studies were undertaken to investigate the herbicidal potential of Apiaceae species against weeds. Enzymes such as α -amylase, catalase, and peroxidase enzymes play a key role in the physiological functions of the seeds and plants. Application of EOs increases oxidative stress in plant cells, which inhibits these enzymes and causes subsequent cell death. Moreover, the detrimental effect on the DNA and RNA of the cell results in decreased cell division, growth, and elongation [63].

Herbicidal effects of EOs derived from *C. sativum*, *C. carvi*, *F. vulgare*, and *P. anisum* were reported against various weeds [122]. *Eryngium triquetrum* EO and its major constituent falcarinol showed strong herbicidal activity against *Lepidium*, while *Smyrnium olusatrum* EO showed moderate herbicidal activity. Therefore, *E. triquetrum* and *S. olusatrum* EOs can be used in crop protection to inhibit photosynthesis in weeds [55].

Caraway (*C. carvi*) EO (oil in water emulsion) are rich in oxygenated monoterpenes and exhibited herbicidal activity against *Echinochloa crus-galli* (barnyard grass, a typical maize weed) [29]. *C. carvi* EO was found to inhibit the germination of seeds of common weeds, including *Amaranthus retroflexus*, *Centaurea salsotitialis*, *Raphanus raphanistrum*, *Rumex nepalensis*, *Sonchus oleraceus*, and *Sinapis arvensis* [131].

Fennel (*F. vulgare*) EO strongly inhibited the seed germination and seedling growth of grass weeds, *Phalaris minor*, *Avena ludoviciana*, broad-leaved weeds, *Rumex dentatus* and *Medicago denticulata*, and can, therefore, be used in the biological management of weeds in wheat (*Triticum aestivum*) crops [63]. Fennel (*F. vulgare*) EO was also reported for its phytotoxic activity against field bindweed (*Convolvulus arvensis*) with significant inhibition of germination and early growth in field bindweed seedlings [132].

4.3. Antimicrobial Activity against Phytopathogens

Plant pathogens, including fungi, bacteria, viruses, oomycetes, and nematodes, can cause diseases or damage to plants and result in significant crop yield and quality losses, of which fungi are the predominant pathogens, causing almost 30% of crop diseases during their cultivation or after harvest. Fungal disease symptoms on fruits, leaves, stems, and other plant parts include scabs, mouldy coatings, rust, smuts, powdery mildew, blotches, and rotted tissues. Plant diseases caused by phytopathogenic bacteria and fungi threaten human health and food security [13,120,133,134].

Various phytopathogenic bacteria, including *Xanthomonas* spp. (bacterial spots and blights), *Erwinia* spp. (soft rot, fire blight), *Pseudomonas* spp. (soft rot, bacterial canker), *Agrobacterium* spp. (crown gall), as well as *Ralstonia solanacearum* (bacterial wilt in banana), affect various agricultural plants [123].

Moreover, *Fusarium oxysporum* (vascular wilt of the banana tree), *Macrophomina phaseolina* (damping-off, seedling blight, and rot in peanuts, cabbage, pepper, chickpeas, soybeans, sweet potatoes, sesame, potatoes, sorghum, wheat, corn, etc.), *Alternaria alternata* (rot), *Penicillium digitatum* (green mould in citrus), and *Aspergillus flavus* (damping-off in peanut) are some of the fungi responsible for many diseases in various plants [134,135].

Apiaceae family plants were widely investigated for their potential biocidal activity against phytopathogens.

Apiaceae, such as *Torilis anthriscus*, *Aegopodium podagraria*, *D. carota*, *Heracleum sphondylium*, *Pimpinella saxifrage*, *P. sativa*, *Angelica silvestris*, and *F. vulgare* exhibited antimicrobial activity against phytopathogenic bacteria *Agrobacterium radiobacter* pv *tumefaciens*, *Erwinia carotovora*, *Pseudomonas fluorescens*, and *Pseudomonas glycinea* [13]. The EO of *C. maculatum* (poison hemlock), a poisonous Apiaceae species, has antibacterial activity against *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* [136].

E. triquetrum EO exhibited strong antibacterial activities against potato blackleg disease, *Pectobacterium atrosepticum*, and the soil bacterium *Pseudomonas cichorii*, which is responsible for disease in lettuce, celery, and chrysanthemum, while *S. olusatrum* EO showed moderate antibacterial activity [55].

The Apiaceae *Ferulago angulata* exhibited toxicity in variable degrees against phytopathogenic bacteria (*Erwinia amylovora*, *Xanthomonas oryzae*, *Pseudomonas syringae*, *Pectobacterium carotovorum*, *R. solanacearum*, *Bacillus thuringiensis*), and fungi (*A. alternata*, *Culvularia fallax*, *M. phaseolina*, *F. oxysporum*, *Cytospora sacchari*, *Colletotrichum tricellulatum*) [57].

A. alternata and *P. digitatum* are two postharvest pathogens in tomato fruits. Based on in vivo studies, *Carum copticum* and *F. vulgare* EOs have the potential to control postharvest decay in tomatoes caused by *A. alternata* and *P. digitatum* [31].

E. triquetrum and *S. olusatrum* EOs have potent antifungal and fumigant activity against *Fusarium graminearum* (cereal fusarium) and moderate activity against *Botrytis cinerea* (grey rot on tomatoes, strawberries). *S. olusatrum* EO showed strong antifungal activity against *F. graminearum* and *Zymoseptoria tritici*, which are responsible for the septoria blight [55].

A. graveolens (dill) seeds EO mainly consists of carvone, limonene, α -phellandrene, β -phellandrene and p-cymene and were proved to have antifungal (*Aspergillus niger*, *Aspergillus oryzae*, *A. flavus*, *A. alternata*) and antibacterial (*Escherichia coli*, *P. aeruginosa*, *Bacillus subtilis*, *Staphylococcus aureus*) activities [130].

Food poisoning is the most common cause of illness and death in both developed and developing countries. Most food poisoning diseases are caused by bacterial contamination. Pathogenic and food spoilage bacteria, such as *Salmonella typhi*, *E. coli*, *P. aeruginosa*, *S. aureus*, *Listeria monocytogenes*, and *Bacillus cereus* are the causal agents of foodborne diseases or food spoilage. Plant extracts are a good source of antimicrobial agents that can be used as food preservatives [137,138].

Apiaceae *C. cyminum* was reported to be effective against *S. aureus* [138]. Coriander (*C. sativum*) EO and its major compound linalool showed antibacterial activity against *Campylobacter jejuni* and *Campylobacter coli*, pathogens that cause foodborne diseases [139].

Coriander (*C. sativum*) was also reported to have strong antimicrobial activity against bacteria, *B. subtilis*, followed by *Stenotropomonas maltophilia*, and *Penicillium expansum* (fungi producing mycotoxin). Moreover, the strongest antibiofilm activity of coriander EO was also reported against *S. maltophilia* [140].

Carum nigrum (black caraway) seed EO has antibacterial activity against foodborne bacteria, *B. cereus* and *P. aeruginosa*, and antifungal activity against foodborne fungi, such as *P. purpurogenum*, *Acrophialophora fusispora*, *A. flavus*, and *A. niger* [35].

The antimicrobial activity of *T. ammi* (Ajwain) EO was demonstrated against various food spoilage and foodborne bacteria (*B. cereus*, *S. aureus*, *L. monocytogenes*, *Salmonella typhimurium*, *E. coli*) and fungi (*Penicillium citrinum*, *Penicillium chrysogenum*, *A. flavus*, *A. niger*, *Aspergillus parasiticus*) [70].

Moreover, certain fungi, including *Aspergillus* spp., *Fusarium* spp., and *Alternaria* spp., produce mycotoxins that can be harmful to human health due to hepatotoxic, nephrotoxic, and carcinogenic effects, or even cause death [120]. Mycotoxins are toxic secondary metabolites produced by certain fungal species in various agricultural and other food products, either in the field or during storage. Mycotoxin contamination in crops is potentially harmful to animals and human health. Aflatoxins B1, B2, G1, and G2 are the four major toxins generated in foods, of which the aflatoxin B1, secreted by *A. flavus*, *A. parasiticus* and *Aspergillus nomius*, is the most toxic and has potent teratogenic, mutagenic, hepatotoxic, and immune suppressive activities [141–143].

Apiaceae, *F. vulgare* EO extracted from flowers and roots, significantly inhibited the growth of *A. parasiticus* and the production of aflatoxins B1 and G1 [144]. Carvone and linalool compounds found in *C. carvi* and *C. sativum* seed EOs, respectively, showed an antifungal and aflatoxin-inhibition ability against *A. flavus*. Thus, they can be used as a preservative, particularly in post-harvest processing and the storage of agricultural products that are susceptible to aflatoxin contamination, such as cereals, dried fruits, and spices [143]. EOs of other Apiaceae plants, including *C. cyminum* [145], *C. carvi* [28,146], *C. sativum* [28], and *C. copticum* (*T. ammi*) were also reported to inhibit both growth and/or mycotoxin production. Table 3 summarizes the potential use of Apiaceae extracts as agrochemicals.

Table 3. Potential use of Apiaceae extracts as agrochemicals.

| Insects/Weeds/Phytopathogens | Effects | Apiaceae | References |
|---|--|--|------------|
| Insecticidal activity to protect crops | | | |
| <i>Myzus persicae</i> (Peach-potato aphid) | Agricultural pest | <i>C. cyminum</i> , <i>P. anisum</i> | [49] |
| <i>Spodoptera littoralis</i> (Tobacco cutworm/cotton leafworm) | Affects maize, cotton, cereals, potatoes, tobacco, tomato, vegetables, and ornamental plants. | <i>C. carvi</i> , <i>F. vulgare</i> , <i>C. cyminum</i> , <i>C. caraway</i> , <i>C. sativum</i> , <i>D. carota</i> , <i>P. anisum</i> , <i>C.</i> <i>maritimum</i> , <i>H. nodiflorum</i> | [47,49,86] |
| <i>Spodoptera litura</i> (Tobacco cutworm/cotton leafworm/armyworm) | Agricultural pest, affecting many crops. | <i>C. maritimum</i> | [48]. |
| <i>Tetranychus urticae</i> | Affects numerous plants (around 1200 species), including major food crops and ornamental plants. | <i>A. visnaga</i> | [125] |
| <i>Tuta absoluta</i> | Tomato | <i>C. capticum</i> | [7] |
| Insecticidal activity to protect stored products | | | |
| <i>Culex quinquefasciatus</i> | Lymphatic filariasis and Zika virus vector | <i>P. anisum</i> | [49] |

Table 3. Cont.

| Insects/Weeds/Phytopathogens | Effects | Apiaceae | References |
|--|--|--|-------------|
| <i>Musca domestica</i> (Common housefly) | Storage pests, Insect vectors | <i>C. cuminum</i> , <i>P. anisum</i> | [49,130] |
| <i>Sitophilus oryzae</i> (Rice weevil) | Storage pests | <i>F. vulgare</i> , <i>P. hortense</i> , <i>C. sativum</i> , <i>P. anisum</i> , <i>T. ammi</i> | [15,43] |
| <i>Sitophilus zeamais</i> (Maize weevils) | Stored grain pest | <i>C. carvi</i> , <i>A. graveolens</i> , <i>C. cuminum</i> , <i>P. crispum</i> | [33,129] |
| <i>Tribolium castaneum</i> (Red flour beetles) | Storage pests | <i>F. vulgare</i> , <i>P. hortense</i> , <i>C. sativum</i> , <i>P. anisum</i> , <i>C. carvi</i> , <i>A. graveolens</i> | [33,43,130] |
| <i>Tyrophagus putrescentiae</i> (Mould or cheese mite) | Storage pests, disseminate toxic fungi and induce allergic reactions among workers engaged in agriculture and food industries. | <i>C. sativum</i> | [41] |
| <i>Callosobruchus maculatus</i> (Cowpea weevils) | | | |
| <i>Tribolium confusum</i> (Confused flour beetle) | Storage pests | <i>A. graveolens</i> | [130] |
| <i>Periplaneta americana</i> (American cockroach) | | | |
| <i>Plodia interpunctella</i> (Indian meal moth) | Affect stored products, such as grains, flours, feeds, dried nuts, and fruits. | <i>C. sativum</i> | [41] |
| <i>Sitotroga cerealella</i> (Grain moth) | | | |
| Herbicidal/phytotoxic activity against weeds | | | |
| <i>Convolvulus arvensis</i> (Field bindweed) | Common weed over the world | <i>F. vulgare</i> | [132]. |
| <i>Echinochloa crus-galli</i> (Barnyard grass, a typical maize weed) | Maize weed | <i>C. carvi</i> | [29] |
| <i>Lepidium sativum</i> (watercress) | | <i>E. triquetrum</i> , <i>S. olusatrum</i> | [55] |
| <i>Amaranthus retroflexus</i> , <i>Centaurea salsolitialis</i> , <i>Raphanus raphanistrum</i> , <i>Rumex nepalensis</i> , <i>Sonchus oleraceus</i> , and <i>Sinapis arvensis</i> | Common weeds | <i>C. carvi</i> | [131] |
| Grass weeds, <i>Phalaris minor</i> and <i>Avena ludoviciana</i> , broad-leaved weeds, <i>Rumex dentatus</i> and <i>Medicago denticulata</i> | Weeds of wheat (<i>Triticum aestivum</i>) | <i>F. vulgare</i> | [63] |
| Antimicrobial activity against phytopathogens | | | |
| <i>Alternaria alternata</i> | Phytopathogens; postharvest pathogens in tomato fruits | <i>C. copticum</i> , <i>F. vulgare</i> , <i>A. graveolens</i> , <i>F. angulata</i> | [31,57,130] |
| <i>Penicillium digitatum</i> | Postharvest pathogens in tomato fruits | <i>C. copticum</i> , <i>F. vulgare</i> | [31] |
| <i>Pectobacterium atrosepticum</i> | Potato blackleg disease | | |
| <i>Pseudomonas cichorii</i> | Soil bacterium causing disease of lettuce, celery, and chrysanthemum | <i>E. triquetrum</i> , <i>S. olusatrum</i> | [55] |

Table 3. Cont.

| Insects/Weeds/Phytopathogens | Effects | Apiaceae | References |
|---|--|--|-----------------|
| Bacteria (<i>Erwinia amylovora</i> , <i>Xanthomonas oryzae</i> , <i>Pseudomonas syringae</i> , <i>Pectobacterium carotovorum</i> , <i>Ralstonia solanacearum</i> , <i>Bacillus thuringiensis</i>), and fungi (<i>Culvularia fallax</i> , <i>Macrophomina phaseolina</i> , <i>Fusarium oxysporum</i> , <i>Cytospora sacchari</i> , <i>Colletotrichum tricbellum</i>) | Phytopathogens | <i>F. angulata</i> | [57] |
| Bacteria; <i>Agrobacterium radiobacter</i> pv <i>tumefaciens</i> , <i>Erwinia carotovora</i> , <i>Pseudomonas fluorescens</i> , and <i>Pseudomonas glycinea</i> | Phytopathogenic bacteria | <i>T. anthriscus</i> , <i>A. podagraria</i> , <i>D. carota</i> , <i>H. sphondylium</i> , <i>P. saxifrage</i> , <i>P. sativa</i> , <i>A. silvestris</i> , <i>F. vulgare</i> | [13] |
| <i>Fusarium graminearum</i> | Cereal fusarium/wheat head blight fungus | | |
| <i>Botrytis cinerea</i> | Grey rot on tomatoes, strawberries | <i>E. triquetrum</i> , <i>S. olusatrum</i> | [55] |
| <i>Zymoseptoria tritici</i> | Septoria blight | | |
| <i>Aspergillus flavus</i> | Food spoilage and foodborne fungi, production of aflatoxins in cereals, dried fruits, and spices | <i>C. carvi</i> , <i>C. sativum</i> , <i>T. ammi</i> , <i>C. nigrum</i> , <i>A. graveolens</i> | [35,70,130,143] |
| <i>Aspergillus niger</i> | Food spoilage and foodborne fungus | <i>A. graveolens</i> , <i>C. nigrum</i> , <i>T. ammi</i> | [35,70,130] |
| <i>Aspergillus oryzae</i> | Foodborne pathogens | <i>A. graveolens</i> | [130] |
| <i>Aspergillus parasiticus</i> | Food spoilage and foodborne fungus, Production of aflatoxins B1 and G1 | <i>F. vulgare</i> , <i>T. ammi</i> | [70,144] |
| <i>Bacillus cereus</i> | Food spoilage and foodborne pathogenic bacteria | <i>C. nigrum</i> , <i>T. ammi</i> | [35,70] |
| <i>Bacillus subtilis</i> | Foodborne pathogenic bacteria | <i>A. graveolens</i> , <i>C. sativum</i> | [130,140] |
| <i>Campylobacter jejuni</i> and <i>Campylobacter coli</i> | Foodborne pathogens | <i>C. sativum</i> | [139] |
| <i>Escherichia coli</i> | Food spoilage and foodborne bacteria | <i>T. ammi</i> , <i>A. graveolens</i> | [70,130] |
| <i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i> | Foodborne pathogens | <i>C. maculatum</i> , <i>A. graveolens</i> , <i>C. nigrum</i> | [35,130,136] |
| <i>Staphylococcus aureus</i> | Food spoilage and foodborne pathogenic bacteria | <i>C. cynamoides</i> , <i>A. graveolens</i> , <i>T. ammi</i> | [70,130,138] |
| <i>Stenotropomonas maltophilia</i> (Bacteria), <i>Penicillium expansum</i> (fungi-producing mycotoxin) | Foodborne pathogens | <i>C. sativum</i> | [140] |
| <i>Penicillium purpurogenum</i> , <i>Acrophialophora fusispora</i> | Foodborne pathogenic fungi | <i>C. nigrum</i> | [35] |
| Bacteria (<i>Listeria monocytogenes</i> , <i>Salmonella typhimurium</i>), Fungi (<i>Penicillium citrinum</i> , <i>Penicillium chrysogenum</i>) | Food spoilage and foodborne bacteria and fungi | <i>T. ammi</i> | [70] |

5. Future Trends

Although EOs are an excellent alternative for synthetic chemicals, low water solubility, low persistence in the environment, chemical variability, low yield, and easy degradation under heat, humidity, light, and oxygen may limit the application of essential oils as biocides. To overcome these drawbacks, nanotechnologies are modern and eco-friendly approaches that enhance the effectiveness of natural products [48,63,118].

Nanoemulsion is a novel approach that increases the physical stability of active substances, decreases volatility, enhances solubility, and prevents interactions with the environment [48,63]. Nanoemulsions are oil-in-water dispersions with extremely small droplet diameters in the range of 10–100 nm and extended stability [48]. Size reduction to a nanoscale can improve the properties of materials, such as enhanced infusibility, effective release of the active ingredient, rapid interaction, enhanced bioactivity towards the target, and physical stability [63,147]. In agricultural applications, nanoemulsions have significant herbicidal and antimicrobial potential against weeds and pathogens that are resistant to synthetic biocides. This may be attributed to increased chemical stability and solubility, decreased evaporation, and the degradation of active essential oil components [63,148]. Nanotechnology also enhances efficacy and reduces the number of active ingredients currently employed [149].

The germination of *P. minor*, *A. ludoviciana*, *R. dentatus*, and *Medicago denticulate* was completely suppressed by nanoemulsions of *F. vulgare* EO at low concentrations. Further, the storage stability of *F. vulgare* nanoemulsion at ambient temperature was increased [63]. Significant antimicrobial activity of cumin (*C. cyminum*) and fennel (*F. vulgare*) EO nanoemulsions showed antibacterial/anti-biofilm properties against the foodborne pathogens *K. pneumoniae*, *C. violaceum*, and *S. typhimurium* [150]. Repellent activity by aniseed oil against *Rhopalosiphum padi* was also reported [149].

Other than nanotechnology, advanced extraction techniques, chemical synthesis of novel compounds, metabolic engineering, biotechnology, DNA sequencing, and recombinant DNA technologies can also enhance plant product effectiveness and commercial applications [118].

6. Conclusions

In conclusion, plant-based biocides can be a suitable candidate to substitute synthetic chemicals as they are cheap, safe, sustainable, eco-friendly, and biodegradable substances. In this context, secondary metabolites of Apiaceae species are widely used to control most agricultural pests, weeds, pathogenic foodborne, and food spoilage microbes to increase agriculture production and ensure food security. Several studies on various Apiaceae species for their potential biocidal activity proved their potent insecticidal, herbicidal, antibacterial, and antifungal activities. Therefore, Apiaceae-derived secondary metabolites, including EOs, can be used as a natural source in biocontrol products in agriculture, biopesticide, bio-herbicide, bio-fungicide, and antibacterial agents in organic farming and crop protection. However, there are several limitations in the application of secondary metabolites, including EOs, mainly due to their fast degradation and low stability in heat, light, or oxygen. Recently, nanotechnology research has attempted to overcome these limitations of natural products used as biocides.

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