

# Research Article

# Antimicrobial Activity of the Essential Oil of Plectranthus neochilus against Cariogenic Bacteria

# Eduardo José Crevelin,<sup>1</sup> Soraya Carolina Caixeta,<sup>2</sup> Herbert Júnior Dias,<sup>1</sup> Milton Groppo,<sup>3</sup> Wilson Roberto Cunha,<sup>2</sup> Carlos Henrique Gomes Martins,<sup>2</sup> and Antônio Eduardo Miller Crotti<sup>1,2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Departamento de Química, Faculdade de Filosofia, Ciências e Letras de Ribeirão Preto, Universidade de São Paulo, 14040-901 Ribeirão Preto, SP, Brazil

<sup>2</sup>Núcleo de Pesquisas em Ciências Exatas e Tecnológicas, Universidade de Franca, 14404-600 Franca, SP, Brazil
<sup>3</sup>Departamento de Biologia, Faculdade de Filosofia, Ciências e Letras de Ribeirão Preto, Universidade de São Paulo, 14040-901 Ribeirão Preto, SP, Brazil

Correspondence should be addressed to Antônio Eduardo Miller Crotti; millercrotti@ffclrp.usp.br

Received 30 April 2015; Accepted 7 June 2015

Academic Editor: Filippo Maggi

Copyright © 2015 Eduardo José Crevelin et al. This is an open access article distributed under the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

This work used the broth microdilution method to investigate the antimicrobial activity of the essential oil obtained from the leaves of *Plectranthus neochilus* (PN-EO) against a representative panel of oral pathogens. We assessed the antimicrobial activity of this oil in terms of the minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC). PN-EO displayed moderate activity against *Enterococcus faecalis* (MIC = 250 µg/mL) and *Streptococcus salivarus* (MIC = 250 µg/mL), significant activity against *Streptococcus sobrinus* (MIC = 62.5 µg/mL), *Streptococcus sanguinis* (MIC = 62.5 µg/mL), *Streptococcus sanguinis* (MIC = 62.5 µg/mL), *Streptococcus mitis* (MIC = 31.25 µg/mL), and *Lactobacillus casei* (MIC = 31.25 µg/mL), and interesting activity against *Streptococcus mutans* (MIC = 3.9 µg/mL). GC-FID and GC-MS helped to identify thirty-one compounds in PN-EO;  $\alpha$ -pinene (1, 14.1%),  $\beta$ -pinene (2, 7.1%), *trans*-caryophyllene (3, 29.8%), and caryophyllene oxide (4, 12.8%) were the major chemical constituents of this essential oil. When tested alone, compounds 1, 2, 3, and 4 were inactive (MIC > 4000 µg/mL) against all the microorganisms. These results suggested that the essential oil extracted from the leaves of *Plectranthus neochilus* displays promising activity against most of the evaluated cariogenic bacteria, especially *S. mutans*.

### 1. Introduction

Dental caries is associated with acidogenic and aciduric bacteria that adhere to the tooth surface as an oral biofilm (dental plaque) [1]. Because this pathology can destroy dental hard tissues [2–4], it has become a major public health concern worldwide. The most efficient way to prevent caries and periodontal diseases is to reduce and eliminate bacterial accumulation on the top of and between teeth by brushing the teeth on a daily basis and conducting periodic dental cleaning or prophylaxis. Unfortunately, most people fail to maintain a sufficient level of oral hygiene [5], which has called for the use of oral products containing antimicrobial ingredients as a complementary measure to diminish biofilm formation on the tooth surface [6].

Chlorhexidine has been the most effective antiplaque agent tested to date, but some reversible local side effects have led dentists to recommend its use for short periods only [7]. Several other antimicrobial agents including fluorides, phenol derivatives, ampicillin, erythromycin, penicillin, tetracycline, and vancomycin can inhibit bacterial growth [8]. Nevertheless, excessive use of these chemicals can disturb the oral and intestinal flora and cause microorganism susceptibility, vomiting, diarrhea, and tooth staining [8]. To find an alternative to the substances currently employed to prevent caries and to control plaques, researchers have investigated the antimicrobial activities of natural products, especially essential oils [1, 3, 7, 9–11].

The herbaceous and aromatic plant *Plectranthus neochilus* is popularly known as *"boldo-rasteiro"* in Brazil [12]. In folk

medicine, this plant has helped to treat disturbed digestion, skin infection, respiratory ailments [13], hepatic insufficiency, and dyspepsia [14]. The essential oil of *P. neochilus* displays antischistosomal [12] and insecticidal [15] activities. Recently, researchers have applied diffusion in agar disc to assess the antimicrobial activity of the essential oil of a specimen of *P. neochilus* collected in Portugal against *Bacillus cereus*, *Bacillus subtilis*, *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Listeria monocytogenes*, *Escherichia coli*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Helicobacter pylori*, and *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* [16]. The authors reported that the activity of this essential oil against the selected microorganisms was between low and moderate.

As part of our ongoing research on the antimicrobial activities of essential oils [1, 17–19], in this work, we used the broth microdilution method to evaluate the *in vitro* antimicrobial activity of the essential oil obtained from the leaves of *Plectranthus neochilus* (Lamiaceae) against a representative panel of cariogenic bacteria.

#### 2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Plant Material. Adult P. neochilus Schltr. (Lamiaceae) leaves were collected at "May 13th Farm" (20°26'S 47°27'W 977 m) in May 2011. The collection site was located near the city of Franca, state of São Paulo, Brazil. This species was identified by Professor Dr. Milton Groppo; one voucher specimen (SPFR 12323) was deposited at the Herbarium of the Department of Biology (Herbarium SPFR), University of São Paulo, Brazil.

2.2. Essential Oil Extraction. Fresh leaves of *P. neochilus* were submitted to hydrodistillation in a Clevenger-type apparatus for 3 h. To this end, 1200 g of the plant material was divided into three samples of 400 g each, and 500 mL of distilled water was added to each sample. Condensation of the steam followed by accumulation of the essential oil/water system in the graduated receiver of the apparatus separated the essential oil from the water, which allowed for further manual collection of the organic phase. Anhydrous sodium sulfate was used to remove traces of water. Samples were stored in an amber bottle and kept in the refrigerator at 4°C until analysis. Yields were calculated from the weight of the fresh leaves.

2.3. Gas Chromatography (GC-FID) Analyses. The essential oil of *P. neochilus* (PN-EO) was analyzed by gas chromatography (GC) on a Hewlett-Packard G1530A 6890 gas chromatograph fitted with FID and a data-handling processor. An HP-5 (Hewlett-Packard, Palo Alto, CA, USA) fused-silica capillary column (length = 30 m, i.d. = 0.25 mm, and film thickness =  $0.33 \mu$ m) was employed. The column temperature was programmed to rise from 60 to 240°C at 3°C/min and then held at 240°C for 5 min. The carrier gas was H<sub>2</sub> at a flow rate of 1.0 mL/min. The equipment was set to the injection mode; the injection volume was  $0.1 \mu$ L (split ratio of 1:10). The injector and detector temperatures were 240 and 280°C, respectively. The relative concentrations of the components were obtained by peak area normalization (%). The relative areas were the average of triplicate GC-FID analyses.

2.4. Gas Chromatography-Mass Spectrometry (GC-MS) Analyses. GC-MS analyses were carried out on a Shimadzu QP2010 Plus (Shimadzu Corporation, Kyoto, Japan) system equipped with an AOC-20i autosampler. The column consisted of Rtx-5MS (Restek Co., Bellefonte, PA, USA) fused-silica capillary (length = 30 m, i.d. = 0.25 mm, and film thickness =  $0.25 \,\mu$ m). The electron ionization (EI-MS) mode at 70 eV was employed. Helium (99.999%) at a constant flow of 1.0 mL/min was the carrier gas. The injection volume was  $0.1 \,\mu$ L (split ratio of 1:10). The injector and the ion source temperatures were set at 240 and 280°C, respectively. The oven temperature program was the same as the one used for GC-FID. The mass spectra were registered with a scan interval of 0.5 s in the mass range of 40 to 600 Da.

2.5. Identification of the PN-EO Constituents. PN-EO components were identified on the basis of their retention indices relative to a homologous series of *n*-alkanes ( $C_8-C_{24}$ ). To this end, an Rtx-5MS capillary column was employed under the same operating conditions as in the case of GC. The retention index (RI) of each PE-EO constituent was determined as described previously [20]. The chemical structures were computer-matched with the Wiley 7, NIST 08, and FFNSC 1.2 spectral libraries of the GC-MS data system; their fragmentation patterns were compared with the literature data [21].

2.6. Bacterial Strains and Antimicrobial Assays. The in vitro antimicrobial activity of PN-EO and its major constituents was assessed by minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) values calculated by means of the broth microdilution method accomplished in 96-well microplates. The following standard ATCC strains were used: Streptococcus salivarius (ATCC 25975), Streptococcus sanguinis (ATCC 10556), Streptococcus mitis (ATCC 49456), Streptococcus mutans (ATCC 25175), Streptococcus sobrinus (ATCC 33478), Enterococcus faecalis (ATCC 4082), and Lactobacillus casei (ATCC 11578). Individual 24-h colonies from blood agar (Difco Labs, Detroit, MI, USA) were suspended in 10.0 mL of tryptic soy broth (Difco). Standardization of each microorganism suspension was carried out on a spectrophotometer (Femto, São Paulo, Brazil) operating at a wavelength ( $\lambda$ ) of 625 nm, to match the transmittance of 81 (equivalent to 0.5 McFarland scale or  $1.5 \times 10^8$  CFU/mL). The microorganism suspension was diluted to a final concentration of  $5 \times 10^5$  CFU/mL. PN-EO was dissolved in DMSO (Merck, Darmstadt, Germany) at 16.0 mg/mL and diluted in tryptic soy broth (Difco), to yield concentrations between 4000 and  $3.9 \,\mu g/mL$ . Compounds 1 ( $\alpha$ -pinene), 2 ( $\beta$ -pinene), 3 (*trans*-caryophyllene), and 4 (caryophyllene oxide) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MA) and evaluated by means of the same methodology and at the same concentrations as PN-EO. A  $1\,\mu\text{M}$  solution of each compound was tested individually. In the case of the mixture 1 + 2 + 3 + 4, the constituents were mixed in the same proportion that they occurred in PN-EO. After dilutions, the DMSO concentrations were between 4% and 0.0039% (v/v). Three inoculated wells containing DMSO at concentrations ranging from 4% to 1% were used as negative controls. One inoculated well was included to control

Microorganisms	PN-EO	CHD <sup>a</sup>	$1^{\mathrm{b}}$	<b>2</b> <sup>b</sup>	<b>3</b> <sup>b</sup>	$4^{\mathrm{b}}$	$1 + 2 + 3 + 4^{c}$
E. faecalis	250.0	14.8	>4000	>4000	>4000	>4000	>4000
S. salivarius	250.0	7.4	4000	4000	4000	4000	4000
S. mutans	3.9	1.8	>4000	>4000	>4000	>4000	1000
S. mitis	31.3	14.8	4000	4000	4000	4000	4000
S. sobrinus	62.5	1.8	>4000	>4000	>4000	>4000	4000
S. sanguinis	62.5	7.4	4000	>4000	>4000	>4000	>4000
L. casei	31.3	3.7	4000	4000	4000	4000	500

TABLE 1: Minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) values ( $\mu$ g/mL) obtained for the essential oil of *P. neochilus* (PN-EO), compounds 1, 2, 3, and 4, and the mixture 1 + 2 + 3 + 4 against selected cariogenic bacteria.

<sup>a</sup>Chlorhexidine dihydrochloride.

<sup>b</sup>For compounds 1, 2, 3, and 4, the concentration of 4000  $\mu$ g/mL corresponds to 29.4, 29.4, 19.6, and 18.1 mM, respectively.

<sup>*c*</sup>1 + 2 + 3 + 4: mixture of  $\alpha$ -pinene,  $\beta$ -pinene, *trans*-caryophyllene, and caryophyllene oxide.

the adequacy of the broth for organism growth. One noninoculated well free of antimicrobial agent was also included to assess the medium sterility. Twofold serial dilutions of chlorhexidine dihydrochloride (CHD) (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis) were performed in tryptic soy broth (Difco) to achieve concentrations ranging from 5.9 to 0.115  $\mu$ g/mL. These dilutions were used as positive control. The microplates (96-well) were sealed with parafilm and incubated at 37°C for 24 h. After that, 30 mL of 0.02% resazurin (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) aqueous solution was poured into each microplate reservoir to indicate microorganism viability [22]. The MIC value (i.e., the lowest concentration of a sample capable of inhibiting microorganism growth) was determined as the lowest concentration of the essential oil and or major constituents capable of preventing a colour change of the resazurin solution [23]. Three replicates were conducted for each microorganism.

#### 3. Results and Discussion

This work relied on minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) values to evaluate the antimicrobial activity of the essential oil of *P. neochilus* (PN-EO) against a panel of cariogenic bacteria; chlorhexidine dihydrochloride (CHD) was the positive control. Samples with MIC values lower than  $100 \,\mu$ g/mL, between 100 and  $500 \,\mu$ g/mL, and between 500 and  $1000 \,\mu$ g/mL were considered to be promising, moderately active, and weak antimicrobials, respectively. Samples with MIC values greater than  $1000 \,\mu$ g/mL were deemed inactive [11, 24–26].

Table 1 summarizes the MIC values. PN-EO displayed moderate activity against *S. salivarius* (MIC =  $250 \mu g/mL$ ) and *S. faecalis* (MIC =  $250 \mu g/mL$ ) and significant antimicrobial activity against *Streptococcus sobrinus* (MIC =  $62.5 \mu g/mL$ ), *Streptococcus sanguinis* (MIC =  $62.5 \mu g/mL$ ), *Streptococcus mitis* (MIC =  $31.25 \mu g/mL$ ), *Lactobacillus casei* (MIC =  $31.25 \mu g/mL$ ), and *Streptococcus mutans* (MIC =  $3.9 \mu g/mL$ ). The antimicrobial activity of PN-EO against *S. mutans* was an interesting result: this microorganism is considered to be the main cariogenic agent [10, 27], and very few natural compounds can inhibit it [26].

Hydrodistillation of P. neochilus leaves afforded PN-EO in  $0.03\% \pm 0.01$  (w/w) yield. Gas chromatography revealed the presence of 31 compounds in PN-EO, namely, fifteen monoterpenes (36.0%), fifteen sesquiterpenes (63.5%), and aliphatic alcohol (0.2%). The major PN-EO constituents were  $\alpha$ -pinene (1; 14.1%),  $\beta$ -pinene (2; 7.1%), *trans*-caryophyllene (3; 29.8%), and caryophyllene oxide (4; 12.8%), as shown in Table 2. The chemical composition of PN-EO differed significantly from the chemical composition of P. neochilus specimens collected in South Africa, whose major constituents were citronellol (29.0%), citronellyl formate (11.0%), linalool (9.8%), and isomenthone (9.2%) [28], but it resembled the chemical composition previously reported for *P. neochilus* specimens collected in Brazil [12, 15]. These different chemical compositions may be associated with environmental factors or growing conditions, which can greatly affect the chemical composition of volatile oils [29, 30].

The antimicrobial activity of essential oils has been associated with the lipophilicity of their chemical constituents, mainly monoterpenes and sesquiterpenes, which are often the main chemicals thereof [31]. The hydrophobicity of terpenoids would allow these compounds to diffuse across the cell membranes easily and to kill microorganisms by affecting the metabolic pathways or organelles of the pathogen. In addition, synergistic interactions between essential oil components could enhance their activity [31]. For this reason, the major chemical constituents of some essential oils deserve antimicrobial evaluation alone or as a mixture [32-34]. This study evaluated the individual antimicrobial activity of  $\alpha$ -pinene (1),  $\beta$ -pinene (2), *trans*-caryophyllene (3), and caryophyllene oxide (4). Alone, all of these compounds were much less effective against the selected cariogenic bacteria than PN-EO; their MIC values were higher than  $4000 \,\mu\text{g/mL}$  (Table 1). The antimicrobial activity of a mixture containing compounds 1 + 2 + 3 + 4 in the same relative proportion compared to their relative areas in the CG-FID chromatogram of PN-EO displayed moderate activity against L. casei (MIC =  $500 \,\mu\text{g/mL}$ ) and weak activity against S. mutans (MIC =  $1000 \,\mu\text{g/mL}$ ), but it was inactive against the other bacteria (MIC > 4000  $\mu$ g/mL). Although the MIC values obtained for the mixture suggested a very discrete

Chemical compound	RT [min] <sup>a</sup>	RI <sub>exp</sub> <sup>b</sup>	RI <sub>lit</sub> <sup>c</sup>	Content [%] <sup>d</sup>	Identification <sup>e</sup>
α-Thujene	5.00	921	924	6.3	RL MS
$\alpha$ -Pinene (1)	5.19	929	932	14.1	RL MS
Thuja-2,4(10)-diene	5.43	939	941	0.2	RL MS
Camphene	5.62	943	947	0.1	RL MS
Sabinene	6.21	966	971	1.9	RL MS
$\beta$ -Pinene (2)	6.37	975	977	7.1	RL MS
β-Myrcene	6.65	985	988	0.3	RL MS
Octan-3-ol	6.90	993	996	0.2	RL MS
<i>α</i> -Terpinene	7.53	1015	1016	0.5	RL MS
o-Cymene	7.79	1022	1023	0.3	RL MS
Limonene	7.94	1026	1027	0.2	RL MS
$(Z)$ - $\beta$ -Ocimene	8.14	1030	1033	0.4	RL MS
( <i>E</i> )- $\beta$ -Ocimene	8.50	1040	1043	1.8	RL MS
γ-Terpinene	8.94	1052	1055	1.4	RL MS
α-Terpinolene	9.94	1080	1084	0.2	RL MS
4-Terpineol	13.75	1177	1179	1.2	RL MS
α-Cubebene	20.78	1341	1344	0.5	RL MS
α-Copaene	21.97	1366	1372	1.2	RL MS
$\beta$ -Bourbonene	22.29	1380	1379	1.1	RL MS
$\beta$ -Cubenene	22.50	1378	1384	0.3	RL MS
trans-Caryophyllene (3)	23.80	1412	1415	29.8	RL MS
α-Humulene	25.25	1448	1450	1.5	RL MS
Germacrene D	26.30	1470	1476	6.2	RL MS
Eremophilene	27.51	1504	1505	3.9	RL MS
α-Amorphene	27.61	1506	1508	0.4	RL MS
$\delta$ -Cadinene	27.83	1514	1513	1.9	RL MS
(E)-Nerolidol	29.63	1554	1559	0.3	RL MS
Caryophyllene oxide (4)	30.26	1571	1575	12.8	RL MS
Unknown	32.06	—	1622	0.3	_
<i>epi-α</i> -Cadinol	32.62	1634	1637	1.5	RL MS
$\delta$ -Cadinol	32.70	1636	1639	0.8	RL MS
α-Cadinol	33.12	1647	1650	1.3	RL MS
Monoterpenes hydrocarbons				34.8	
Oxygenated monoterpenes				1.2	
Sesquiterpenes hydrocarbons				46.8	
Oxygenated sesquiterpenes				16.7	
Others				0.2	
Not identified				0.3	

TABLE 2: Chemical composition of the essential oil from the leaves of *P. neochilus* as identified by GC/MS.

<sup>a</sup>RT: retention time determined on the Rtx-5MS capillary column.

 ${}^{b}\text{RI}_{exp}$ : retention index determined on the Rtx-5MS column relative to *n*-alkanes (C<sub>8</sub>-C<sub>20</sub>).

<sup>c</sup>RI<sub>lit</sub>: retention index.

<sup>d</sup>Calculated from the peak area relative to the total peak area.

<sup>e</sup>RL: comparison of the retention index with the literature [21]; MS: comparison of the mass spectrum with the literature.

synergism between compounds 1, 2, 3, and 4, the mixture 1 + 2 + 3 + 4 was much less active than PN-EO. Hence, only the presence of compounds 1, 2, 3, and 4 does not account for the antimicrobial activity of PN-EO. In fact, the antimicrobial activity of PN-EO may also be related to the other minor chemical constituents identified in the oil, which may underlie or even increase the activity of the major chemical constituents of this essential oil.

## 4. Conclusions

The essential oil of *P. neochilus* (PN-EO) displays promising antimicrobial activity against some cariogenic bacteria, including *Streptococcus mutans*, which is one of the main causative agents of dental caries. Taken together, our results suggest that this essential oil might be promising for the development of new oral care products. Further studies to identify the active chemical constituents of PN-EO are underway.

### **Conflict of Interests**

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interests regarding the publication of this paper.

#### Acknowledgments

The authors are grateful to the Brazilian Foundations FAPESP (Proc. 2008/54241-8), for financial support, and CNPq, for fellowships.

## References

- G. P. Aguiar, C. E. Carvalho, H. J. Dias et al., "Antimicrobial activity of selected essential oils against cariogenic bacteria," *Natural Product Research*, vol. 27, no. 18, pp. 1668–1672, 2013.
- [2] B. R. da Silva, V. A. A. de Freitas, V. A. Carneiro et al., "Antimicrobial activity of the synthetic peptide Lys-al against oral streptococci," *Peptides*, vol. 42, no. 4, pp. 78–83, 2013.
- [3] B. Kouidhi, T. Zmantar, and A. Bakhrouf, "Anticariogenic and cytotoxic activity of clove essential oil (*Eugenia caryophyllata*) against a large number of oral pathogens," *Annals of Microbiol*ogy, vol. 60, no. 4, pp. 599–604, 2010.
- [4] W. G. Wade, "Characterisation of the human oral microbiome," *Journal of Oral Biosciences*, vol. 55, no. 3, pp. 143–148, 2013.
- [5] J. J. Jardim, L. S. Alves, and M. Maltz, "The history and global market of oral home-care products," *Brazilian Oral Research*, vol. 23, supplement 1, pp. 17–22, 2009.
- [6] A. Furiga, A. Lonvaud-Funel, G. Dorignac, and C. Badet, "In vitro anti-bacterial and anti-adherence effects of natural polyphenolic compounds on oral bacteria," *Journal of Applied Microbiology*, vol. 105, no. 5, pp. 1470–1476, 2008.
- [7] K. W. Albertsson, A. Persson, and J. W. V. van Dijken, "Effect of essential oils containing and alcohol-free chlorhexidine mouthrinses on cariogenic micro-organisms in human saliva," *Acta Odontologica Scandinavica*, vol. 71, no. 3-4, pp. 883–891, 2013.
- [8] S. E. Moon, H. Y. Kim, and J. D. Cha, "Synergistic effect between clove oil and its major compounds and antibiotics against oral bacteria," *Archives of Oral Biology*, vol. 56, no. 9, pp. 907–916, 2011.
- [9] T. Oyanagi, J. Tagami, and K. Matin, "Potentials of mouthwashes in disinfecting cariogenic bacteria and biofilms leading to inhibition of caries," *Open Dentistry Journal*, vol. 6, no. 1, pp. 23–30, 2012.
- [10] B. Kim, S. Park, M. Kim et al., "Inhibitory effects of *Chrysanthe-mum boreale* essential oil on ibofilm formation and virulence factor expression of *Streptococcus mutans*," *Evidence-Based Complementary and Alternative Medicine*, vol. 2015, Article ID 616309, 11 pages, 2015.
- [11] W. S. Alviano, R. R. Mendonça-Filho, D. S. Alviano et al., "Antimicrobial activity of *Croton cajucara* Benth linalool-rich essential oil on artificial biofilms and planktonic microorganisms," *Oral Microbiology and Immunology*, vol. 20, no. 2, pp. 101– 105, 2005.
- [12] S. C. Caixeta, L. G. Magalhães, N. I. de Melo et al., "Chemical composition and in vitro schistosomicidal activity of the essential oil of plectranthus neochilus grown in southeast Brazil," *Chemistry & Biodiversity*, vol. 8, no. 11, pp. 2149–2157, 2011.

- [13] C. W. Lukhoba, M. S. J. Simmonds, and A. J. Paton, "Plectranthus: a review of ethnobotanical uses," Journal of Ethnopharmacology, vol. 103, no. 1, pp. 1–24, 2006.
- [14] M. F. Duarte and J. F. Lopes, "Stem and leaf anatomy of *Plectranthus neochilus* Schltr., Lamiaceae," *Revista Brasileira de Farmacognosia*, vol. 17, no. 4, pp. 549–556, 2007.
- [15] E. L. L. Baldin, A. E. M. Crotti, K. A. L. Wakabayashi et al., "Plant-derived essential oils affecting settlement and oviposition of *Bemisia tabaci* (Genn.) biotype B on tomato," *Journal of Pest Science*, vol. 86, no. 2, pp. 301–308, 2013.
- [16] L. Mota, A. C. Figueiredo, L. G. Pedro et al., "Volatile-oils composition, and bioactivity of the essential oils of *Plectranthus barbatus*, *P. neochilus*, and *P. ornatus* grown in Portugal," *Chemistry* & *Biodiversity*, vol. 11, no. 5, pp. 719–732, 2014.
- [17] J. A. Alves, A. L. L. Mantovani, M. H. G. Martins et al., "Antimycobacterial activity of some commercially available plantderived essential oils," *Chemistry of Natural Compounds*, vol. 51, no. 2, pp. 353–355, 2015.
- [18] M. A. Ferreira, T. C. Carvalho, I. C. C. Turatti et al., "Antimicrobial activity of *Aegiphila sellowiana* Cham., Lamiaceae, against oral pathogens," *Brazilian Journal of Pharmacognosy*, vol. 20, no. 2, pp. 246–249, 2010.
- [19] L. C. Keles, F. M. Gianasi, R. C. Souza et al., "Antibacterial activity of 15-deoxygoyazensolide isolated from the stems of *Minasia alpestris* (Asteraceae) against oral pathogens," *Natural Product Research*, vol. 25, no. 4, pp. 326–331, 2011.
- [20] H. Vandendool and P. D. Kratz, "A generalization of the retention index system including linear temperature programmed gas-liquid partition chromatography," *Journal of chromatography*, vol. 11, pp. 463–471, 1963.
- [21] R. P. Adams, Identification of Essential Oils Components by Gas Chromatography/Mass Spectrometry, Allured Publishing, Carol Stream, Ill, USA, 4th edition, 2007.
- [22] J.-C. Palomino, A. Martin, M. Camacho, H. Guerra, J. Swings, and F. Portaels, "Resazurin microtiter assay plate: simple and inexpensive method for detection of drug resistance in *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*," *Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy*, vol. 46, no. 8, pp. 2720–2722, 2002.
- [23] S. D. Sarker, L. Nahar, and Y. Kumarasamy, "Microtitre platebased antibacterial assay incorporating resazurin as an indicator of cell growth, and its application in the *in vitro* antibacterial screening of phytochemicals," *Methods*, vol. 42, no. 4, pp. 321– 324, 2007.
- [24] J. L. Ríos and M. C. Recio, "Medicinal plants and antimicrobial activity," *Journal of Ethnopharmacology*, vol. 100, no. 1-2, pp. 80– 84, 2005.
- [25] M. A. Botelho, R. A. dos Santos, J. G. Martins et al., "Comparative effect of an essential oil mouthrinse on plaque, gingivitis and salivary *Streptococcus mutans* levels: a double blind randomized study," *Phytotherapy Research*, vol. 23, no. 9, pp. 1214– 1219, 2009.
- [26] M. Saleem, M. Nazir, M. S. Ali et al., "Antimicrobial natural products: an update on future antibiotic drug candidates," *Natural Product Reports*, vol. 27, no. 2, pp. 238–254, 2010.
- [27] D. Kalemba, D. Kusewicz, and K. Świąder, "Antimicrobial properties of the essential oil of *Artemisia asiatica* Nakai," *Phytotherapy Research*, vol. 16, no. 3, pp. 288–291, 2002.
- [28] O. A. Lawal, A. H. Hutchings, and O. Oyedeji, "Chemical composition of the leaf oil of *Plectranthus neochilus* Schltr," *Journal of Essential Oil Research*, vol. 22, no. 6, pp. 546–547, 2010.

- [29] C. M. O. Simões and V. Spitzer, "Óleos voláteis," in Farmacognosia: Da Planta ao Medicamento, C. M. O. Simões, E. P. Schenkel, G. Gosmman, J. C. P. Mello, L. A. Mentz, and P. R. Petrovick, Eds., pp. 467–495, Editora da UFRGS, Porto Alegre, Brazil, 2003.
- [30] K. B. G. Torsell, Natural Product Chemistry: A Mechanistic, Biosynthetic and Ecological Approach, Swedish Pharmaceutical Press, Stockholm, Sweden, 2nd edition, 1997.
- [31] A. E. Edris, "Pharmaceutical and therapeutic potentials of essential oils and their individual volatile constituents: a review," *Phytotherapy Research*, vol. 21, no. 4, pp. 308–323, 2007.
- [32] M. A. Botelho, N. A. P. Nogueira, G. M. Bastos et al., "Antimicrobial activity of the essential oil from *Lippia sidoides*, carvacrol and thymol against oral pathogens," *Brazilian Journal of Medical and Biological Research*, vol. 40, no. 3, pp. 349–356, 2007.
- [33] H. J. D. Dorman and S. G. Deans, "Antimicrobial agents from plants: antibacterial activity of plant volatile oils," *Journal of Applied Microbiology*, vol. 88, no. 2, pp. 308–316, 2000.
- [34] G. Işcan, N. Kirimer, M. Kürkcüoğlu, K. H. C. Başer, and F. Demirci, "Antimicrobial screening of *Mentha piperita* essential oils," *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, vol. 50, no. 14, pp. 3943–3946, 2002.



**The Scientific** World Journal



Gastroenterology Research and Practice





Journal of Diabetes Research



**Disease Markers** 



Immunology Research









BioMed **Research International** 



Journal of Ophthalmology



Computational and Mathematical Methods in Medicine



Stem Cells International



Behavioural Neurology



Complementary and Alternative Medicine



Journal of Obesity







Oxidative Medicine and Cellular Longevity