

Essential Oils As Eco-Friendly Biocontrol Agents: A Comprehensive Review On Their Efficacy Against Phytopathogens

Nandha Abhijeeta¹, Suchitra Panigrahy²

^{1,2}Assistant Professor, Department of Biotechnology, Kalinga University

Abstract

Phytopathogens including fungi, bacteria, viruses, and oomycetes are major contributors to global agricultural losses, threatening food security and economic sustainability. Conventional chemical pesticides, while effective, pose serious environmental and health risks, and their overuse has led to the development of resistant pathogen strains. In response to these challenges, essential oils (EOs), derived from aromatic plants, have emerged as promising biocontrol agents due to their potent antimicrobial properties, biodegradability, and compatibility with integrated pest management (IPM) systems. This review presents a comprehensive examination of the role of essential oils in controlling phytopathogens. It explores their botanical origins, bioactive chemical constituents (such as thymol, eugenol, carvacrol, and citronellal), and common extraction methods including hydrodistillation and cold pressing. The paper delves into their mechanisms of action, which include disruption of microbial membranes, inhibition of spore germination and mycelial growth, interference with quorum sensing in bacteria, and antiviral or antioomycete effects. The synergistic potential of EOs with other natural agents is also discussed. A critical assessment of experimental findings from both *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies highlights the efficacy of specific EOs—such as those from *Melaleuca alternifolia*, *Thymus vulgaris*, *Origanum vulgare*, *Syzygium aromaticum*, and *Cymbopogon citratus* against major plant pathogens. However, the review also identifies key limitations, including variability in EO composition, lack of field validation, scalability issues, and regulatory constraints.

Keywords: Essential oils, phytopathogens, biocontrol, antimicrobial mechanisms, sustainable agriculture, integrated pest management, natural pesticides, plant-derived compounds.

1. INTRODUCTION

Phytopathogens—including fungi, bacteria, viruses, and oomycetes—pose a significant threat to global agriculture, causing severe yield losses, reducing crop quality, and jeopardizing food security. Each year, an estimated 20–40% of global crop production is lost due to plant diseases, representing a major economic burden for both developing and developed agricultural economies [1]. Fungal pathogens, in particular, are among the most destructive, with genera such as *Fusarium*, *Alternaria*, *Botrytis*, and *Colletotrichum* causing widespread devastation across diverse crop systems [2]. To mitigate the impact of these pathogens, the agricultural industry has long relied on synthetic chemical pesticides.

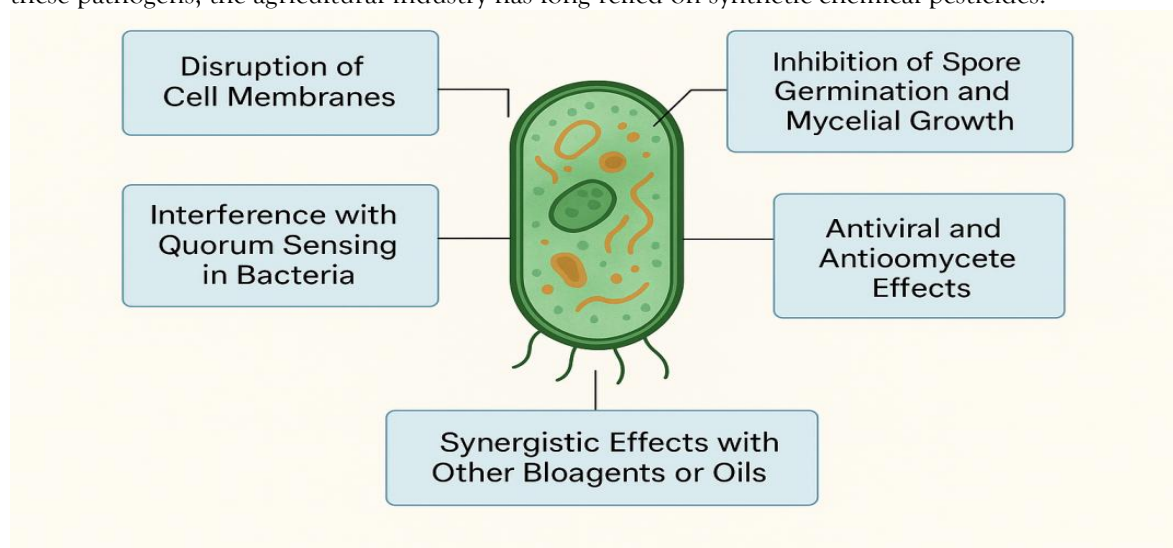


Fig. 1: Mode of actions of Essential oil on microorganism

While these agents are effective in the short term, their indiscriminate and prolonged use has led to several adverse consequences. These include the emergence of resistant phytopathogen strains, contamination of soil and water resources, disruption of beneficial microbial communities, and concerns over human and environmental health [3][4]. Additionally, regulatory constraints in many countries are increasingly limiting the use of several synthetic pesticides due to their toxicological profiles [5]. In light of these challenges, there is a growing interest in exploring eco-friendly and sustainable alternatives. Among these, plant-derived essential oils (EOs) have gained considerable attention as promising biopesticides. Extracted from aromatic plants, essential oils are complex mixtures of volatile compounds such as terpenes, phenolics, and aldehydes with documented antimicrobial, antifungal, and insecticidal properties [6][7]. Unlike synthetic chemicals, EOs are generally biodegradable, possess multiple modes of action, and exhibit low toxicity toward non-target organisms, making them suitable candidates for use in integrated pest management (IPM) systems [8]. This review aims to provide a comprehensive synthesis of current knowledge on the role of essential oils in controlling phytopathogens. It highlights the sources and bioactive composition of essential oils, elucidates their mechanisms of action, discusses recent advances in formulation strategies, and critically evaluates their practical applications and limitations. By drawing on a wide array of experimental findings, the review seeks to assess the viability of essential oils as natural biocontrol agents and identify key areas for future research and development.

2. Phytopathogens And Their Impact On Agriculture

Phytopathogens are disease-causing organisms that infect plants, leading to significant economic losses and threatening global food security. These pathogens are broadly classified into fungi, bacteria, viruses, and oomycetes—each group comprising species that have evolved diverse strategies to invade host plants, evade plant defenses, and disrupt physiological functions [9]. Among these, fungal pathogens are the most widespread and destructive, responsible for numerous soil-borne and foliar diseases across staple and commercial crops. Notable examples include *Fusarium oxysporum* (wilt in banana and tomato), *Alternaria solani* (early blight in potato and tomato), and *Botrytis cinerea* (gray mold in grapes and strawberries) [10]. Bacterial phytopathogens such as *Xanthomonas campestris* (black rot in crucifers) and *Ralstonia solanacearum* (bacterial wilt in solanaceous crops) are equally damaging, especially in tropical and subtropical climates where warm and humid conditions favor rapid disease spread [11]. Plant viruses, though smaller and less complex, cause extensive damage through vectors like aphids and whiteflies. Tomato yellow leaf curl virus (TYLCV) and Cucumber mosaic virus (CMV) are among the most studied due to their widespread incidence and lack of effective chemical controls [12]. Oomycetes, although morphologically similar to fungi, are phylogenetically distinct and notorious for causing diseases such as late blight (*Phytophthora infestans*) in potatoes and downy mildew in a variety of crops [13]. Globally, phytopathogens are estimated to cause crop yield losses ranging between 20% and 40% annually, with even higher figures reported in developing countries due to limited access to diagnostic tools and effective treatments [14]. Beyond direct yield reduction, plant diseases negatively affect food quality, post-harvest storage, and export potential—contributing to economic instability for farming communities and nations alike [15]. Moreover, the growing demand for sustainable agricultural practices has brought attention to the ecological impact of pathogen management strategies. Overreliance on synthetic pesticides not only contributes to the development of resistant pathogen strains but also disrupts agroecosystem balance and poses risks to human health [16]. Addressing these concerns necessitates a shift toward integrated disease management approaches that incorporate environmentally safe and biologically effective solutions. The exploration of plant-based antimicrobial agents, such as essential oils, has thus emerged as a promising path forward in the quest for sustainable crop protection.

3. Essential Oils: Sources, Composition, And Extraction

Essential oils (EOs) are complex mixtures of volatile, aromatic compounds produced as secondary metabolites in plants. These natural substances are synthesized in specialized plant tissues and play key roles in defense mechanisms against herbivores, pathogens, and environmental stressors. Essential oils are commonly derived from various parts of plants—including leaves, flowers, seeds, roots, bark, and resins—and are particularly abundant in certain botanical families such as **Lamiaceae**, **Rutaceae**, **Myrtaceae**, **Apiaceae**, and **Zingiberaceae** [17].

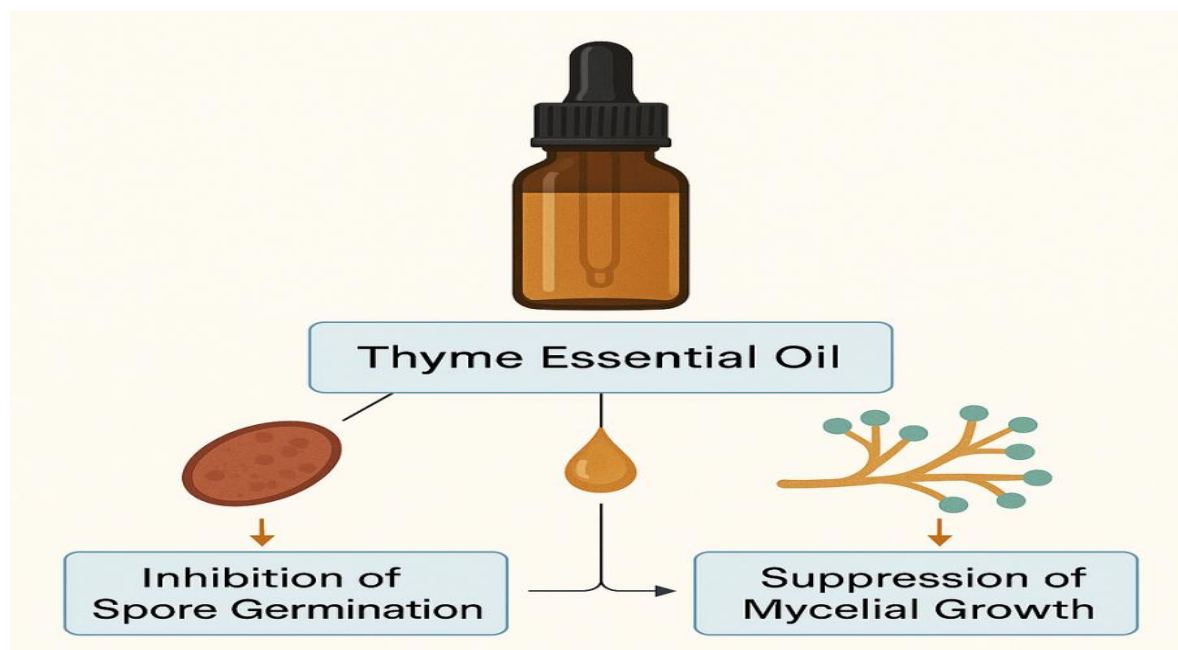


Fig. 2: Activity of Essential oil in Fungal Growth

3.1 Botanical Sources and Common Plant Families

The table 3.1 below presents representative plants, their respective families, parts used for EO extraction, and major phytopathogen-targeting components.

Table 3.1: Botanical Sources and Common Plant Families

Plant Source	Family	Plant Used	Part	Key Compounds	Active	Reference
<i>Thymus vulgaris</i> (Thyme)	Lamiaceae	Leaves		Thymol, Carvacrol		[18]
<i>Syzygium aromaticum</i> (Clove)	Myrtaceae	Flower buds		Eugenol, Caryophyllene	β -	[19]
<i>Cymbopogon citratus</i> (Lemongrass)	Poaceae	Leaves		Citral, Geraniol		[20]
<i>Origanum vulgare</i> (Oregano)	Lamiaceae	Leaves		Carvacrol, Thymol		[21]
<i>Eucalyptus globulus</i> (Eucalyptus)	Myrtaceae	Leaves		1,8-Cineole, α -Pinene		[22]
<i>Zingiber officinale</i> (Ginger)	Zingiberaceae	Rhizome		Zingiberene, Curcumene	α -	[23]

These active compounds are primarily terpenoids (monoterpenes and sesquiterpenes), phenolics, aldehydes, and ketones, which exhibit potent antimicrobial and antifungal activity by targeting microbial membranes, enzymes, and genetic material [24].

3.2 Major Bioactive Components

Essential oil efficacy largely depends on the presence and concentration of certain phytochemicals, as summarized below in table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Major Bioactive Components

Compound	Chemical Class	Mode of Action	Pathogens Targeted	Reference
Thymol	Monoterpenoid	Membrane disruption, enzyme inhibition	Botrytis, Fusarium	[25]
Carvacrol	Monoterpenoid	ROS generation, membrane disintegration	Aspergillus, Pythium	[26]
Eugenol	Phenylpropanoid	Protein denaturation, antifungal effect	Colletotrichum, Penicillium	[27]
Citronellal	Monoterpenoid aldehyde	Lipid bilayer permeability alteration	Alternaria, Rhizoctonia	[28]

1,8-Cineole	Monoterpene oxide	Respiratory inhibition	Phytophthora, Xanthomonas	[29]
-------------	-------------------	------------------------	------------------------------	------

3.3 Extraction Methods

Table 3.3 showing several methods are employed to extract essential oils, each affecting yield, composition, and cost-effectiveness:

Table 3.3: Extraction Methods

Method	Principle	Suitable Plant Parts	Advantages	Limitations	Reference
Hydrodistillation	Steam distillation through water	Leaves, flowers, bark	Cost-effective, widely used	Heat-sensitive compounds may degrade	[30]
Steam Distillation	Direct steam exposure to plant matrix	Woody tissues, seeds	High oil purity	High energy consumption	[31]
Cold Pressing	Mechanical pressing without heat	Citrus peels	Retains volatile components	Low yield, limited to certain crops	[32]
Solvent Extraction	Organic solvents extract non-polar oils	Delicate flowers (rose)	Preserves delicate fragrances	Risk of solvent residue	[33]
Supercritical CO ₂	CO ₂ under high pressure as solvent	Most plant parts	High purity, no residue	Expensive, technical complexity	[34]

3.4 Factors Influencing Composition and Bioactivity

Understanding these variables is crucial for standardizing EO-based biopesticide formulations and ensuring consistent antifungal or antibacterial effects across agricultural systems. The chemical composition and efficacy of essential oils can vary significantly due to:

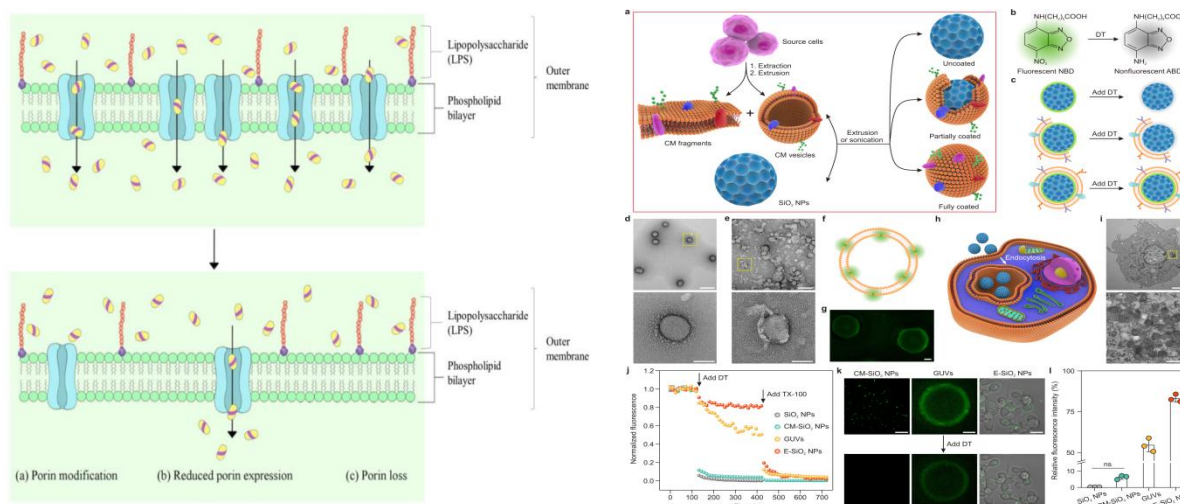
- **Genetic Variability:** Chemotypes differ within the same species, altering compound ratios [35].
- **Geographic Location:** Soil, altitude, and climate influence biosynthetic pathways [36].
- **Harvest Time and Maturity:** Oils extracted at different growth stages differ in potency [37].
- **Extraction Method:** Some methods preserve thermolabile compounds better than others [38].
- **Storage Conditions:** Light, heat, and oxygen exposure can degrade active compounds [39].

4. MECHANISMS OF ACTION AGAINST PHYTOPATHOGENS

Essential oils exhibit potent antimicrobial activity through a multitude of mechanisms targeting different cellular and molecular processes in phytopathogens. The bioactive components of essential oils—such as monoterpenes, phenylpropanoids, and aldehydes—possess broad-spectrum activity against fungi, bacteria, viruses, and oomycetes. Their complex chemical nature allows them to affect multiple sites within the pathogen, making it more difficult for resistance to develop [40].

4.1 Disruption of Cell Membrane Integrity

One of the most widely recognized mechanisms is the disruption of the structural integrity of microbial cell membranes.



Source: Yap, P. S. X., et. al. (2021) & Liu, L., et. al. (2021) [42] [43]

Lipophilic constituents such as **thymol**, **carvacrol**, and **eugenol** integrate into the lipid bilayer of fungal or bacterial membranes, increasing membrane permeability and causing leakage of essential ions and cellular contents [41]. This disruption leads to cell lysis and death, particularly in fungal species like *Fusarium oxysporum*, *Botrytis cinerea*, and *Aspergillus niger* [42]. Studies using scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and fluorescence staining have confirmed that exposure to these compounds results in morphological alterations such as membrane distortion, cytoplasmic granulation, and cell collapse [43]. Carvacrol has been shown to cause cytoplasmic coagulation and detachment of the plasma membrane from the cell wall in fungal hyphae [44].

4.2 Inhibition of Spore Germination and Mycelial Growth

Essential oils interfere with the early stages of fungal development, particularly spore germination and mycelial elongation, which are crucial for colonization and infection. Compounds like citral, geraniol, and 1,8-cineole inhibit mitosis and cellular respiration in fungal spores, thereby reducing the germination rate significantly [45]. This inhibition has been reported for *Alternaria alternata*, *Colletotrichum gloeosporioides*, and *Rhizoctonia solani*, among others [46]. Additionally, certain oils can impair the biosynthesis of ergosterol, a key component of fungal membranes, mimicking the action of synthetic fungicides like azoles [47]. The inhibition of ergosterol biosynthesis disrupts membrane fluidity and function, leading to growth arrest.

4.3 Interference with Bacterial Quorum Sensing

In bacterial phytopathogens, essential oils and their components act as quorum-sensing (QS) inhibitors, disrupting cell-to-cell communication pathways necessary for biofilm formation, virulence expression, and resistance development [48]. For example, eugenol and linalool have been shown to inhibit QS in *Pseudomonas syringae* and *Xanthomonas campestris*, reducing motility, toxin production, and biofilm formation [49]. This anti-QS activity makes essential oils particularly valuable for managing biofilm-associated infections, where conventional bactericides are often ineffective. Interference with QS also reduces horizontal gene transfer, thereby lowering the likelihood of resistance dissemination [50].

4.4 Antiviral and Antioomycete Effects

Although less extensively studied, several essential oils have demonstrated antiviral activity against plant viruses, primarily by inactivating virions or interfering with viral adsorption and replication [51]. For instance, lemongrass oil and its aldehydes have shown activity against Tobacco mosaic virus (TMV) by destabilizing the viral coat protein [52]. In the case of oomycetes—such as *Phytophthora infestans* and *Pythium* spp.—essential oils like those from oregano and eucalyptus exhibit growth inhibition by targeting cell wall synthesis and oxidative stress pathways [53]. The absence of chitin in oomycete cell walls means they are susceptible to different targets than fungi, and EO components can effectively exploit these differences [54].

4.5 Synergistic Effects with Other Bioagents or Essential Oils

Essential oils often exhibit synergistic or additive effects when combined with other biocontrol agents or oils. Such combinations enhance antimicrobial efficacy, reduce required dosages, and minimize

phytotoxicity [55]. For example, a blend of thymol and eugenol was more effective in inhibiting *Penicillium* spp. than either compound alone [56]. Furthermore, synergistic interactions have also been observed between essential oils and microbial biocontrol agents like *Trichoderma* spp., where EO application boosts the colonization and antagonistic activity of the fungi [57]. This opens avenues for integrating essential oils into Integrated Disease Management (IDM) systems that combine physical, biological, and chemical controls in a sustainable manner.

5. EFFICACY OF SPECIFIC ESSENTIAL OILS AGAINST MAJOR PHYTOPATHOGENS

Essential oils (EOs) exhibit substantial in vitro and in vivo efficacy against a broad spectrum of phytopathogens. Among the most studied are tea tree oil, clove oil, thyme oil, lemongrass oil, and oregano oil, each known for its distinctive phytochemical profile and antimicrobial spectrum. These oils have demonstrated promising results in inhibiting the growth, reproduction, and pathogenicity of fungi, bacteria, and oomycetes affecting various agricultural crops. Below is a detailed table 5.1 summarizing the efficacy of these essential oils in both laboratory (in vitro) and field (in vivo) studies.

Table: 5.1 Efficacy of Selected Essential Oils Against Major Phytopathogens

Essential Oil	Major Bioactive Compounds	Target Pathogen(s)	Crop/System	In Vitro/In Vivo Results	Reference
Tea Tree Oil (<i>Melaleuca alternifolia</i>)	Terpinen-4-ol, α -Terpinene	<i>Botrytis cinerea</i> , <i>Alternaria alternata</i>	Strawberry, Tomato	90–100% inhibition of spore germination at 0.5% (in vitro); reduced disease incidence by 60% (in vivo)	[58]
Clove Oil (<i>Syzygium aromaticum</i>)	Eugenol, β -Caryophyllene	<i>Fusarium oxysporum</i> , <i>Colletotrichum gloeosporioides</i>	Banana, Papaya	Complete inhibition of mycelial growth at 1% (in vitro); 50–70% reduction in disease severity in pot trials	[59]
Thyme Oil (<i>Thymus vulgaris</i>)	Thymol, Carvacrol	<i>Rhizoctonia solani</i> , <i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i>	Lettuce, Beans	85–95% reduction in mycelial growth at 0.25–0.5%; 40% decrease in disease incidence in greenhouse trials	[60]
Lemongrass Oil (<i>Cymbopogon citratus</i>)	Citral, Geraniol	<i>Penicillium expansum</i> , <i>Phytophthora capsici</i>	Citrus, Chilli	Inhibited 100% of spore germination at 0.75%; suppressed lesion development in fruits	[61]
Oregano Oil (<i>Origanum vulgare</i>)	Carvacrol, Thymol	<i>Pythium ultimum</i> ,	Potato, Cucumber	Strong inhibition at 0.5–1.0%; 60–	[62]

Phytophthora infestans	80% reduction in disease progression under greenhouse conditions
---------------------------	---

5.1 Comparative Insights

Among the oils tested, oregano oil and thyme oil tend to show the strongest and broadest-spectrum antifungal activity, likely due to the synergistic action of carvacrol and thymol, which target multiple cellular pathways. Tea tree oil, while highly effective against spore-forming fungi like *Alternaria*, shows slightly reduced efficacy in post-infection scenarios unless used in combination with adjuvants [63]. Clove oil, rich in eugenol, demonstrates potent antifungal and antibacterial activity, especially effective in pre- and post-harvest treatments against storage rot pathogens. Meanwhile, lemongrass oil is particularly noted for its high volatility and rapid action, making it suitable for use in vapor-phase applications in closed storage systems [64]. In vivo studies across several crops have revealed consistent disease suppression levels ranging from 40% to 80%, depending on formulation, concentration, and application timing. Importantly, essential oils often outperform synthetic fungicides in terms of environmental safety and residue levels, although they may require more frequent application due to their volatility [65].

6. Future Prospects And Research Gaps

Despite the growing body of evidence supporting the antimicrobial efficacy of essential oils (EOs) against phytopathogens, several critical research and development gaps must be addressed to transition from laboratory validation to field-scale adoption. These gaps include technical, biological, regulatory, and commercial aspects that limit the widespread use of essential oils in sustainable agriculture.

6.1 Field-Scale Validation and Standardization

Most of the data on EO efficacy are derived from in vitro or controlled environment studies. However, field-scale validation under diverse agroclimatic conditions remains limited. Environmental variables such as temperature, humidity, UV exposure, and soil pH can significantly alter EO stability and bioactivity [66]. Moreover, the volatility and photo degradability of EOs reduce their persistence on foliage, requiring repeated applications. Future research should therefore prioritize long-term, multi-location field trials to assess disease control efficacy, crop safety, and economic feasibility under real-world conditions.

6.2 Biotechnological Enhancement of EO Yield

Natural EO yields are often low and variable, depending on plant genotype, harvest timing, and processing methods. This restricts large-scale production and consistent quality. Biotechnological interventions, such as metabolic engineering and tissue culture-based propagation, offer a promising solution to enhance EO biosynthesis in aromatic plants [67]. Synthetic biology tools can also be employed to reconstruct EO biosynthetic pathways in microbial hosts (yeast or *E. coli*), enabling scalable and controlled EO production with specific chemo types and reduced cost [68].

6.3 Genomic and Molecular Tools for Resistance Understanding

Understanding how phytopathogens respond at the molecular level to EO exposure is essential to prevent resistance development and optimize treatment strategies. Modern tools such as RNA-seq, transcriptomics, and CRISPR-based gene editing can elucidate pathogen responses, stress pathways, and potential mutation sites under EO pressure [69]. These insights can help design multi-target EO blends or combine EOs with other agents (e.g., microbial biocontrols) to prevent adaptation and resistance, especially in chronic or monoculture cropping systems.

6.4 Commercial Development and Policy Support

Despite their eco-friendly profile, essential oils face regulatory barriers in many countries due to the lack of uniform guidelines for their classification, testing, and approval as bio pesticides. Existing policies are often designed for synthetic agrochemicals and do not accommodate the complex, multi-component nature of EOs. Therefore, updated and EO-specific regulatory frameworks are needed to promote safe commercialization. Furthermore, cost-effectiveness remains a barrier for smallholder farmers, particularly in developing countries. Public-private partnerships and government incentives can play a crucial role in

supporting EO product development, ensuring quality assurance, and integrating them into Integrated Pest Management (IPM) and organic certification systems.

7. CONCLUSION

The increasing prevalence of phytopathogens and the limitations of conventional chemical pesticides underscore the urgent need for alternative, sustainable plant disease management strategies. This review highlights essential oils (EOs) as promising biocontrol agents, demonstrating broad-spectrum antimicrobial activity against fungi, bacteria, viruses, and oomycetes. Their mechanisms of action—ranging from disruption of cell membranes to interference with microbial signaling pathways—are supported by both *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies, particularly for oils derived from *Thymus vulgaris*, *Melaleuca alternifolia*, *Origanum vulgare*, *Syzygium aromaticum*, and *Cymbopogon citratus*.

EOs offer several advantages, including biodegradability, low toxicity to non-target organisms, and reduced likelihood of resistance development. However, challenges such as variability in composition, limited field efficacy, and regulatory bottlenecks remain significant hurdles to their commercialization and large-scale application. To fully harness the potential of essential oils in phytopathogen control, there is a compelling need for interdisciplinary collaboration. Integrating plant biotechnology, formulation science, genomics, and policy development will be essential in optimizing EO production, enhancing field performance, and developing standardized bio pesticide products. Future research should focus on field-scale trials, mode-of-action studies using advanced molecular tools, and strategies for economic scalability and regulatory alignment.

REFERENCES

- [1] Savary, S., et al. (2019). The global burden of pathogens and pests on major food crops. *Nature Ecology & Evolution*, 3, 430–439.
- [2] Dean, R., et al. (2012). The Top 10 fungal pathogens in molecular plant pathology. *Molecular Plant Pathology*, 13(4), 414–430.
- [3] Pimentel, D. (2005). Environmental and economic costs of the application of pesticides primarily in the United States. *Environment, Development and Sustainability*, 7(2), 229–252.
- [4] Isman, M.B. (2020). Botanical insecticides in the twenty-first century—fulfilling their promise? *Annual Review of Entomology*, 65, 233–249.
- [5] Damalas, C.A., & Eleftherohorinos, I.G. (2011). Pesticide exposure, safety issues, and risk assessment indicators. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 8(5), 1402–1419.
- [6] Bakkali, F., et al. (2008). Biological effects of essential oils – a review. *Food and Chemical Toxicology*, 46(2), 446–475.
- [7] Kalembe, D., & Kunicka, A. (2003). Antibacterial and antifungal properties of essential oils. *Current Medicinal Chemistry*, 10(10), 813–829.
- [8] Tripathi, P., Dubey, N.K., & Shukla, A.K. (2008). *Use of some essential oils as post-harvest botanical fungicides in the management of grey mould of grapes caused by *Botrytis cinerea*. *World Journal of Microbiology and Biotechnology*, 24(1), 39–46.
- [9] Agrios, G.N. (2005). *Plant Pathology* (5th ed.). Elsevier Academic Press.
- [10] Dean, R., et al. (2012). The Top 10 fungal pathogens in molecular plant pathology. *Molecular Plant Pathology*, 13(4), 414–430.
- [11] Mansfield, J., et al. (2012). Top 10 plant pathogenic bacteria in molecular plant pathology. *Molecular Plant Pathology*, 13(6), 614–629.
- [12] Scholthof, K.B.G., et al. (2011). Top 10 plant viruses in molecular plant pathology. *Molecular Plant Pathology*, 12(9), 938–954.
- [13] Omran, B. A., & Baek, K. H. (2022). Control of phytopathogens using sustainable biogenic nanomaterials: recent perspectives, ecological safety, and challenging gaps. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 372, 133729.
- [14] Savary, S., et al. (2019). The global burden of pathogens and pests on major food crops. *Nature Ecology & Evolution*, 3, 430–439.
- [15] Strange, R.N., & Scott, P.R. (2005). Plant disease: a threat to global food security. *Annual Review of Phytopathology*, 43, 83–116.
- [16] Popp, J., Pető, K., & Nagy, J. (2013). Pesticide productivity and food security: a review. *Agronomy for Sustainable Development*, 33(1), 243–255.
- [17] Bakkali, F., Averbeck, S., Averbeck, D., & Idaomar, M. (2008). *Food Chem. Toxicology*, 46(2), 446–475.
- [18] Burt, S. (2004). Essential oils: their antibacterial properties and potential applications in foods—a review. *International Journal of Food Microbiology*, 94(3), 223–253.
- [19] Patil, S. M., Ramu, R., Shirahatti, P. S., Shivamallu, C., & Amachawadi, R. G. (2021). A systematic review on ethnopharmacology, phytochemistry and pharmacological aspects of *Thymus vulgaris* Linn. *Heliyon*, 7(5).

- [20] Hammer, K.A., Carson, C.F., & Riley, T.V. (1999). Antimicrobial activity of essential oils and other plant extracts. *Journal of Applied Microbiology*, 86(6), 985–990.
- [21] Walasek-Janusz, M., Grzegorzczak, A., Malm, A., Nurzyńska-Wierdak, R., & Zalewski, D. (2024). Chemical composition, and antioxidant and antimicrobial activity of oregano essential oil. *Molecules*, 29(2), 435.
- [22] Elaissi, A., et al. (2011). Chemical composition of 8 eucalyptus species' essential oils and the evaluation of their antibacterial, antifungal and antiviral activities. *BMC Complementary and Alternative Medicine*, 11, 10.
- [23] Singh, G., et al. (2008). Chemical constituents, antifungal and antioxidative effects of essential oil and oleoresin of ginger (*Zingiber officinale* Roscoe). *Food and Chemical Toxicology*, 46(10), 3295–3302.
- [24] Nazzaro, F., et al. (2013). Effect of essential oils on pathogenic bacteria. *Pharmaceuticals*, 6(12), 1451–1474.
- [25] Soković, M., et al. (2008). Antifungal activity of essential oils and their components against the fungi isolated from deteriorated maize. *Biotechnology & Biotechnological Equipment*, 23(1), 435–439.
- [26] Ultee, A., Kets, E.P.W., & Smid, E.J. (1999). Mechanisms of action of carvacrol on the food-borne pathogen *Bacillus cereus*. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*, 65(10), 4606–4610.
- [27] Marchese, A., et al. (2017). Antifungal and antibacterial activities of eugenol and essential oils containing eugenol: a mechanistic viewpoint. *Critical Reviews in Microbiology*, 43(6), 668–689.
- [28] Nerio, L.S., Olivero-Verbel, J., & Stashenko, E. (2010). Repellent activity of essential oils: a review. *Bioresource Technology*, 101(1), 372–378.
- [29] Cox, S.D., et al. (2000). The mode of antimicrobial action of the essential oil of *Melaleuca alternifolia* (tea tree oil). *Journal of Applied Microbiology*, 88(1), 170–175.
- [30] Chemat, F., et al. (2006). Microwave accelerated steam distillation of essential oils. *Flavour and Fragrance Journal*, 21(6), 813–818.
- [31] Adams, R.P. (2007). Identification of Essential Oil Components by Gas Chromatography/Mass Spectrometry. Allured Publishing Corporation.
- [32] Bozova, B., Göllükcü, M., & Turgutoğlu, E. (2024). The Effect of Hydrodistillation Times and Cold Pressing on Yield and Composition of Sweet Orange (*Citrus sinensis*) Peel Essential Oil. *Horticultural Studies*, 41(1), 22–27.
- [33] Reverchon, E., & De Marco, I. (2006). Supercritical fluid extraction and fractionation of natural matter. *The Journal of Supercritical Fluids*, 38(2), 146–166.
- [34] Pourmortazavi, S.M., & Hajimirsadeghi, S.S. (2007). Supercritical fluid extraction in plant essential and volatile oil analysis. *Journal of Chromatography A*, 1163(1–2), 2–24.
- [35] Ghasemi, G., Alirezalu, A., Ghosta, Y., Jarrahi, A., Safavi, S. A., Abbas-Mohammadi, M., ... & Lorenzo, J. M. (2020). Composition, antifungal, phytotoxic, and insecticidal activities of *Thymus kotschyianus* essential oil. *Molecules*, 25(5), 1152.
- [36] Goyal, S., Pathak, R., Pandey, H. K., Kumari, A., Tewari, G., Bhandari, N. S., & Bala, M. (2020). Comparative study of the volatile constituents of *Thymus serpyllum* L. grown at different altitudes of Western Himalayas. *SN Applied Sciences*, 2(7), 1208.
- [37] Mousa, S. A., Lamloom, S. H., & Al-Barghathi, M. F. Geographical and seasonal variations in the chemical composition of essential oils of wild Libyan *Salvia fruticosa* Mill. from Al-Jabal Al-Akhdar area.
- [38] Ragab, T., Mansour, A. S., Khalaf, D. D., Elshamy, A. I., & El-gendy, A. E. N. G. (2023). Antimicrobial effects of essential oils of *Artemisia annua*, *Mentha longifolia*, and *Vitex agnus-castus* and their nanoemulsions against pathogenic microbes causing cattle mastitis. *Egyptian Journal of Chemistry*, 66(3), 483–493.
- [39] Miguel, M.G. (2010). Antioxidant and anti-inflammatory activities of essential oils: a short review. *Molecules*, 15(12), 9252–9287.
- [40] Nazzaro, F., et al. (2013). Effect of essential oils on pathogenic bacteria. *Pharmaceuticals*, 6(12), 1451–1474.
- [41] Marcoleta, A. E. (2019). Inorganic Polyphosphate Is Essential for *Salmonella Typhimurium*. *Amoebae as Host Models to Study the Interaction with Pathogens*, 62093. da Silva Bomfim, N., et al. (2020). Mechanisms of antifungal action of essential oils against plant pathogens. *Journal of Fungi*, 6(4), 276.
- [42] Yap, P. S. X., Yusoff, K., Lim, S. H. E., Chong, C. M., & Lai, K. S. (2021). Membrane disruption properties of essential oils—A double-edged sword?. *Processes*, 9(4), 595.
- [43] Liu, L., Bai, X., Martikainen, M. V., Kärlund, A., Roponen, M., Xu, W., ... & Lehto, V. P. (2021). Cell membrane coating integrity affects the internalization mechanism of biomimetic nanoparticles. *Nature communications*, 12(1), 5726.
- [44] Rasouli, H., Nayeri, F. D., & Khodarahmi, R. (2022). May phytochemicals alleviate aflatoxins-induced health challenges? A holistic insight on current landscape and future prospects. *Frontiers in nutrition*, 9, 981984.
- [45] El-Mohamedy, R. S. R. (2017). Plant essential oils for controlling plant pathogenic fungi. *Volatiles and Food Security: Role of Volatiles in Agro-Ecosystems*, 171–198.
- [46] Tian, F., Woo, S. Y., Lee, S. Y., Park, S. B., Zheng, Y., & Chun, H. S. (2022). Antifungal activity of essential oil and plant-derived natural compounds against *Aspergillus flavus*. *Antibiotics*, 11(12), 1727.
- [47] Kerekes, E. B., Deák, É., Takó, M., Tserennadmid, R., Petkovits, T., Vágvolgyi, C., & Krisch, J. (2013). Anti-biofilm forming and anti-quorum sensing activity of selected essential oils and their main components on food-related micro-organisms. *Journal of Applied Microbiology*, 115(4), 933–942.
- [48] Choo, J.H., et al. (2006). Inhibition of bacterial quorum sensing by vanilla extract. *Letters in Applied Microbiology*, 42(6), 637–641.
- [49] Vatter, D.A., et al. (2007). Dietary phytochemicals as quorum sensing inhibitors. *Fitoterapia*, 78(4), 302–310.
- [50] Ma, L., & Yao, L. (2020). Antiviral effects of plant-derived essential oils and their components: an updated review. *Molecules*, 25(11), 2627.

- [51] Jassim, S.A.A., & Naji, M.A. (2003). Novel antiviral agents: a medicinal plant perspective. *Journal of Applied Microbiology*, 95(3), 412–427.
- [52] Deweer, C., Sahmer, K., & Muchembled, J. (2023). Anti-oomycete activities from essential oils and their major compounds on *Phytophthora infestans*. *Environmental Science and Pollution Research*, 30(51), 110240-110250.
- [53] Khan, S., Srivastava, S., Karnwal, A., & Malik, T. (2023). *Streptomyces* as a promising biological control agents for plant pathogens. *Frontiers in Microbiology*, 14, 1285543.
- [54] Bassolé, I.H.N., & Juliani, H.R. (2012). Essential oils in combination and their antimicrobial properties. *Molecules*, 17(4), 3989–4006.
- [55] Tzortzakakis, N.G., & Economakis, C.D. (2007). Antifungal activity of lemongrass essential oil against key postharvest pathogens of vegetables. *Innovative Food Science & Emerging Technologies*, 8(2), 253–258.
- [56] Matrood, A. A. A., Khriebe, M. I., & Okon, O. G. (2020). Synergistic interaction of *Glomus mosseae*, 101-108.
- [57] Carson, C.F., & Riley, T.V. (1995). Antimicrobial activity of the major components of the essential oil of *Melaleuca alternifolia*. *Journal of Applied Bacteriology*, 78(3), 264–269.
- [58] Raut, J.S., & Karuppaiyil, S.M. (2014). A status review on the medicinal properties of essential oils. *Industrial Crops and Products*, 62, 250–264.
- [59] Lee, Y. S., Kim, J., Shin, S. C., Lee, S. G., & Park, I. K. (2008). Antifungal activity of Myrtaceae essential oils and their components against three phytopathogenic fungi. *Flavour and Fragrance Journal*, 23(1), 23-28.
- [60] Tzortzakakis, N.G. (2007). Maintaining postharvest quality of fresh produce with essential oils: a review. *Trends in Food Science & Technology*, 18(10), 538–548.
- [61] Deweer, C., Sahmer, K., & Muchembled, J. (2023). Anti-oomycete activities from essential oils and their major compounds on *Phytophthora infestans*. *Environmental Science and Pollution Research*, 30(51), 110240-110250.
- [62] Hammer, K. A., Carson, C. F., & Riley, T. V. (2004). Antifungal effects of *Melaleuca alternifolia* (tea tree) oil and its components on *Candida albicans*, *Candida glabrata* and *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. *Journal of Antimicrobial Chemotherapy*, 53(6), 1081-1085.
- [63] Al-Harrasi, A., Bhatia, S., Behl, T., Kaushik, D., Ahmed, M. M., Anwer, K., & Sharma, P. B. (2022). Antimicrobial Activity of Essential Oils in the Vapor Phase. In *Role of Essential Oils in the Management of COVID-19* (pp. 187-210). CRC Press.
- [64] Regnault-Roger, C., et al. (2012). Essential oils in insect control: low-risk products in a high-stakes world. *Annual Review of Entomology*, 57, 405–424.
- [65] Pavela, R., & Benelli, G. (2016). Essential oils as ecofriendly biopesticides? Challenges and constraints. *Trends in Plant Science*, 21(12), 1000–1007.
- [66] Kalariya, K. A., Mevada, R. R., Meena, R. P., & Das, M. (2024). Biotic stress nexus: Integrating various physiological processes in medicinal and aromatic plants. *Journal of Applied Research on Medicinal and Aromatic Plants*, 100574.
- [67] Keasling, J.D. (2012). Synthetic biology and the development of tools for metabolic engineering. *Metabolic Engineering*, 14(3), 189–195.
- [68] Maffei, M.E., et al. (2011). Plant volatiles: production, function and pharmacology. *Natural Product Reports*, 28(8), 1359–1380.
- [69] Dayan, F.E., Cantrell, C.L., & Duke, S.O. (2009). Natural products in crop protection. *Bioorganic & Medicinal Chemistry*, 17(12), 4022–4034.