Therapeutic potential of extracts from Amazonian plants with antimicrobial activity

F. C. S. Pires¹; M. M. Almeida¹; A. P. S. Silva¹; M. A. R. Salazar¹; G. R. O. Urbina¹; P. S. Silva¹; S. G. Silva²; P. N. Bezerra¹; S. H. Marques- da -Silva³; R. N. Carvalho Junior⁴

The search for new treatment alternatives in medicine has encouraged the use of extracts obtained from therapeutic plants. The Amazon region presents a wide variety of plants used in the treatment and/or prevention of diseases, among which four species can be highlighted: Cipó-pucá (Cissus sicyoides), Cipó-d'alho (Mansoa standleyi), Murici (Byrsonima crassifólia) and Jambu (Spilanthes acmella). The therapeutic potentials of these plants are recognized for their antimicrobial action and their broad health benefits. All these benefits are attributed to compositions rich in phenolic, sulfur and nitrogen compounds, carotenoids, among other bioactive compounds. To obtain these extracts, it is necessary to use an extraction method that provides a non-toxic final product with a desirable and safe composition, such as extraction with supercritical fluid. Thus, the use of extracts of Amazonian plants obtained with supercritical CO₂ for the treatment and/or prevention of diseases is a good alternative for these natural bioactive compounds and free of toxic residues.

Keywords: Activity Antimicrobial; Supercritical fluid

1. Introduction

In recent years, the interest in bioactive compounds of natural origin has been increasing due to its effectiveness in the prevention and/or treatment of various diseases [1, 2]. These compounds naturally contained in plant raw materials are often used in the form of extracts in Brazil, specifically in the Amazon region. The plants and their extracts have ethnopharmacological characteristic, due to their great biological potential, which led to their use in folk medicine [3, 4, 5].

The use of natural therapeutic products represents a good alternative in the substitution of synthetic medicines.

The effects associated with the extensive use of synthetic drugs can cause serious damage to several organs of the human body, since many of them present long-term contraindications, for instance, some drugs used in the treatment of chronic diseases such as diabetes and hypertension [6]. In addition, there are several diseases caused by bacteria, protozoa and fungi that present strains resistant to potent antibiotic and antifungal agents, imposing the need for the development of new drugs [7, 8]. Thus, in order to overcome this limitation of the use of synthetic drugs, researchers and pharmaceutical industries have shown a great interest in plants with medicinal potential that are safe and effective and that are recognized for their antimicrobial action and wide health benefits [9].

Among the Amazonian plants that have been used in folk medicine and that are object of scientific studies, the following species stand out: Cipó-pucá (Cissus sicyoides), Cipó-d'alho (Mansoa standleyi), Murici (Byrsonima crassifolia) and Jambu (Spilanthes acmella). These plants have been investigated and have shown positive results regarding their antimicrobial activity against pathogenic microorganisms such as bacteria, protozoa and fungi involved in the cause of various diseases [10, 11, 3, 12]. Furthermore, their potential antioxidants and their use in the treatment and/or prevention of diseases such inflammation, hyperlipidemia, diabetes, hypertension and increased immunity have also been proven [13, 14, 15, 16]. The therapeutic potential of these plants is attributed to compositions rich in phenolic, sulfur and nitrogen compounds, carotenoids, among other bioactive compounds [17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22].

Obtaining plant extracts rich in bioactive compounds can be accomplished by various methods such as solvent extraction. However, there is a need to use products free of contamination by solvents, in order to ensure the application of the plant extracts in food products and medicines. A suitable and widespread technology for the extraction has been the method with supercritical fluid. Supercritical extraction using carbon dioxide (CO₂) as supercritical fluid has already been studied to obtain bioactive compounds from natural sources, without drawbacks such as the use of organic solvents that present toxicity and contaminate extracts [23, 24, 25]. The visible interest of the scientific community in this technology has been encouraged by the versatility of CO₂, whose properties can be adjusted to obtain extracts with desirable chemical composition and ensuring a safe separation process for both human health and the environment [26].

Thus, the use of extracts of Cipó-pucá, Cipó-d'alho, Murici and Jambu, obtained by extraction with supercritical CO₂, in the treatment and/or prevention of diseases, represents a great opportunity for the pharmaceutical companies to provide a quality, natural, of high content of bioactive compounds and free of toxic waste product.

¹Postgraduate Program in Food Science and Technology, Institute of Technology, Federal University of Pará (UFPA), Postal code: 66075-110, Belém, PA, Brazil.

²Postgraduate Program in Chemistry, Institute of Exact and Natural Sciences, Federal University of Pará (UFPA), Postal code: 66075-110, Belém, PA, Brazil.

³Evandro Chagas Institute, Section of Bacteriology and Mycology, Postal code: 67030-000, Ananindeua, PA, Brazil.

⁴Faculty of Food Engineering, Institute of Technology, Federal University of Pará (UFPA), Postal code: 66075-110, Belém, PA, Brazil.

2. Plant extracts in the treatment/prevention of diseases

The use of plant extracts by mankind to cure or relieve illnesses has been taking place for a long time, a fact that is striking in the evolution of Eastern and Western populations. The knowledge of primitive and indigenous peoples was of great importance in the discovery of drugs from natural products and/or precursors of simple organic synthesis to reach a drug [27], A good example is *curare*, an extract obtained from several plants by the natives, commonly used in arrows to paralyze animals during hunting and fishing, which later gave rise to a muscle relaxant used in certain surgical procedures, such as in the abdomen and removal of the tonsils [28]. Another important plant is poppy, a plant whose another important natural product is withdrawn, the opium, which has been known for centuries as a sedative and anesthetic, and its effect is attributed to morphine, currently given to patients with chronic pain [29, 27].

Salgueiro barks were also widely used for analgesic and antipyretic activities due to the presence of salicylates, especially salicin. This compound represented a watershed in the production of drugs from plant extracts and was later synthesized, giving rise to acetylsalicylic acid (AAS), a drug widely used for its analgesic, anti-inflammatory and antipyretic activities in the treatment of rheumatoid arthritis and inhibition of platelet aggregation [29, 27, 28].

The pharmaceutical industry keeps increasing its interest in plant extracts, because these are sources of new substances with great therapeutic potential for treatment and/or prevention of various diseases, such as Chagas disease (*Tripanossoma cruzi*), various types of leishmaniasis as human Leishmania (*Leishmania chagasi*) [30] and Amazonians Leishmania [31], besides helping to combat dengue and chikungunya fevers, due to the ovicidal and larvicidal effects of some plant extracts, which inhibit the proliferation of eggs and larvae of the *Aedes aegypti* [32].

Many extracts from several plant species showed antimicrobial activity *in vitro* against different pathogenic bacteria and fungi [33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39]. In addition, many extracts can be used for the treatment of breast, colon and stomach cancer, since they have antioxidant and cytotoxic against breast tumor cells, representing an indicator for testing in future studies. Thus they are candidates to be sources of natural antioxidant compounds, replacing synthetic ones, and then contributing to the prevention of possible diseases [37, 36, 40].

3. Cipó-pucá (Cissus sicyoides)

The genus *Cissus* belongs to the family Vitaceae, being represented by 48 endemic species, of which 42 are described in Brazil [41]. It is considered a plant of the neotropical region that includes part of Florida, Mexico, the islands of the Caribbean and South America and is usually found in the Amazon region. *Cissus sicyoides* L. is also known as Cipópucá, Cipópuci, Vegetal Insulin, Anil-trepador and Bejucopcaro. It is a climbing plant that can reach up to 6 meters in length, has a fleshy articulated branch, leaves of oval shape with sharp apex, yellowish or reddish flowers and round fruits with a strong aroma, with color variations from violet to black [42, 43, 44, 45, 46]. The fruits are edible *in nature* and may have potential use as food coloring [47]. The leaves have been widely used in Brazilian popular medicine, since the presence of secondary metabolites proves the effectiveness of the plant against various diseases [46, 48].

The composition of the different parts of the plant is distinct. The bioactive compounds present in leaves and stem are represented by groups such as carotenes (α -carotene and β -carotene) [13], phenolic compounds such as flavonoids (kaempferol and quercetin) [49], resveratrol [50], tannins [45], coumarins and steroids [51]. It was also detected the presence of essential oils [45], which are natural products of plants of lipid nature and that presents a great variety of structures [52]. Essential oils consist mainly of terpene hydrocarbons, simple and terpene alcohols, aldehydes, ketones, phenols, esters, ethers, oxides, peroxides, furans, organic acids, lactones, coumarins and even sulfur compounds [53, 54]. In the fruit composition, anthocyanins were found [47], which are the main compounds responsible for the pharmacological activities of the plant [45, 49].

The aerial parts of the plant, leaf and stem, are traditionally the most used in the preparation of infusions or teas [48, 15, 55]. The therapeutic potentials of Cipó-pucá are traditionally used by folk medicine to treat rheumatism, epilepsy, stroke, abscesses, arthritis and type 2 diabetes mellitus, and treat respiratory diseases [14, 44, 15, 56, 57]. In addition, pharmacological effects were detected in the treatment and/or prevention of dysfunctions such as hypertension, vasoconstriction of arteries, veins and capillaries. It was also considered that the anti-inflammatory effect has a positive influence on the treatment of diseases such as cancer [58, 59, 60], besides presenting gastroprotective activity [61].

The ethno-pharmacological use reports that the Cipó-pucá extract has anti-inflammatory and antidiarrheal actions, due to the abundant presence of flavonoids in the extract, being the main responsible for the pharmacological effects of the plant, presenting an important role in oxidative stress, acting as antioxidants and free radical scavengers [59, 57]. Furthermore, flavonoids, resveratrol, tannins and coumarins are specifically responsible for the bacteriostatic action that stops the growth of certain bacteria, impairing their proliferation [17, 45]. There are other properties that are also attributed to Cipó-pucá such as anti-flu and anti-thermal [60], antioxidant, antibacterial and antifungal [15, 62].

According to García and collaborators [17], Cipó-pucá has antibacterial activity showing inhibitory capacity against bacteria that cause food poisoning, which causes acute effects in the gastrointestinal tract and in some cases, the severity can be such that patients come to death (*Bacillus cereus, Bacillus subtilis, Bacillus megaterium, Staphylococcus aureus, Escherichia coli* and *Salmonella typhimurium*) [63]. Multiresistant bacteria cause blood infections and are related to medical device implants (*Staphylococcus epidermidis*) [64]; those responsible for

generalized infections (*Serratia marcescens*) [65], those that cause infections of the urinary tract and of wounds, meningitis in neonates or infants and rheumatoid arthritis (*Proteus* vulgaris) [66, 67, 68] and those that cause arthritis in patients with HIV, Lupus, ocular and respiratory infections (*Moraxella lacunata*) [69]. Besides that, Silva and collaborators [70] demonstrated that the plant has antifungal activity, inhibiting the growth of fungi, responsible for skin and nail mycotic infections, allergic diseases such as asthma and rhinitis (*Cladosporium sphaerospermum*) [71, 72] and those causing lung diseases such as hemorrhagic pneumonia (*Cladosporium cladosporioides*) [73, 74].

4. Cipó-d'alho (Mansoa standleyi)

The genus *Mansoa* DC is a plant that belongs to the family Bignoniaceae, distributed especially in the neotropical region [75]. It is found in forests in Brazil, Argentina and Southeast Mexico, being Brazil the main center of diversity with a large occurrence in the Amazon. The genus *Mansoa* DC is composed of 11 species and *M. standleyi* is the species with the highest occurrence in the Northeast of the state of Pará [76, 77, 78, 18, 79]. The plant is a climbing shrub, which reaches up to 3 m in height, has opposite and composed leaves, which exhibit a bright olive-green color, has flowers of red-violet color, differing from other species only because it presents a fruit with capsular form with 9-10 cm long [79, 80]. *M. standleyi* is popularly known as Cipó-d'alho, which means garlic vine, because of its characteristic garlic smell and aroma (*Allium sativum*) that exhales after the smashing of plant. The species is used as an ornamental plant, because of its attractive flowers, and is also used as a condiment, and for medicinal purposes. Presents therapeutic potential, besides it attributes similar to those of garlic, such as aroma and taste, and volatile compounds present in the plant, which are mainly responsible for their biological properties [81, 18, 82, 21].

The main chemical constituents identified in the leaves of the Cipó-d'alho were sulfur compounds such as diallyl disulfide, dialyl trisulfide and diallyl tetrasulfide [83, 18, 20]. Also, the chemical analysis of the essential oil present in the leaves of the Cipó-d'alho led to the identification of triterpenoids, flavonoids, naphthoquinones and amino acids [84, 21]. Just like garlic, when the leaves or other organs are crushed, the alliin and alliinase are mixed, forming allicin, one of the compounds responsible for the characteristic odor of garlic [79, 80]. Allicin is a volatile and highly unstable compound, representing the most important and abundant bioactive compound (60-80%) in garlic, due to its high concentrations of functional activity [85, 22].

This plant has several uses in traditional medicine. Among them the most cited are for treatment of influenza, fever, pain, arthritis and rheumatism [86, 82, 79]. Its therapeutic effects are also highlighted in the reduction of the blood fat, in the prevention of thrombosis and allergies and in the treatment of fatigue and muscular pain [87]. Moreover, according to Santhosha and collaborators [88], Cipó-d'alho provides protection against the development of breast cancer, and this therapeutic effect is attributed to dialysate trisulfide. The sulfur compounds alone or in association are involved with their inhibitory potential of weeds, promoted by the plant essential oil [83]. It also presents antioxidant, antibacterial and antifungal activies, attributed to the presence of allyl sulfide and, mainly, allicin present in the essential oil, which is a potential antioxidant [89, 85, 22]. Furthermore, it has shown great potential inhibitory to growth of microorganisms, including bacteria, fungi and virus [90, 91]. Its antifungal action acts in inhibiting the growth of fungal spores. In a study by Santos and collaborators [12] on an evaluation of the antifungal potential of essential oil of Cipó-d'alho leaves, the oil was presented as an alternative for use in the control of candidiasis, an infection caused by fungi of the genus *Candida (Candida albicans)*, which affect the lips, mouth, oropharynx, vagina and the gastrointestinal tract [92].

It was also observed antibacterial activity of the extract of Cipó-d'alho on the bacteria responsible for alimentary infections like *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Salmonella* spp. and *Escherichia coli* [93], which are well known by the general public and present a range of symptoms, in which the most common include stomach pain, nausea, vomiting, diarrhea and sometimes fever. Depending on the etiologic agent involved, the clinical picture may be more severe and prolonged, presenting severe dehydration, bloody diarrhea, acute renal failure and respiratory failure [63].

5. Murici (Byrsonima crassifolia)

Muricizeiro (*Byrsonima crassifólia*), as it is popularly called, is a species belonging to the genus *Byrsonima*, from the family Malpighiaceae, originating in the North, Northeast and central region of Brazil. It is popularly called Murici, Murici-da-várzea, Murici-da-mata, Murici-amarelo, among other names. The Murici tree is three to five meters high, with twisted branches, single leaves, bunched flowers and rounded fruits of yellowish color of about 1 to 2 cm diameter [16, 94, 95]. Although the fruit is mainly consumed as juice, ice cream and liqueurs [96], it is also used in the treatment and/or prevention of various diseases, as well as the leaves, seeds and stem bark [97, 98, 8, 99].

Therapeutic studies on the plant have been performed for the treatment of diarrhea, dysentery, indigestion, skin infections, wound healing, diabetes, among other diseases [100, 101, 16]. In general, Murici tree can be considered a plant with great antioxidant potential and antifungal function, as these properties are found in all parts of the plant [3, 102, 103, 104]. Although that some species of genus *Byrsonima* have demonstrated the presence of antibacterial, antifungal, anti-protozoal and anti-inflammatory activities [105, 106, 96, 107, 108, 98].

The fruits are rich in phenolic compounds [109] such as flavonoids (catechins, epicatechin, quercetin, kaempferol [16], pyrocatechol and proanthocyanidins), glycolipids, terpenoids (triterpenes), gallic acid and derivatives such as pyrogallol [110], esters [111] and carotenoids (lutein) [112]. Some studies have shown that the fruit able to reduce the levels of glucose, triglycerides, LDL (low density lipoprotein) lipoproteins also called "bad cholesterol" and raise the level of the HDL (high Density lipoprotein) lipoprotein known as "good cholesterol," and antioxidant substances, in addition to stimulating insulin production, with terpenoids (sesquiterpene lactones) being the main responsible for this therapeutic effect [102, 97]. Besides that, Murici exhibits highly active antifungal activity by inhibiting fungi that cause skin infections such as mycoses and dermatophytoses (*Epidermophyton floccosum*, *Trichophyton rubrum*, *Microsporum canis*) [113], being attributed to triterpenes this inhibitory effect [114].

Leaves are sources of glycolipids [115] flavonoids such as myricetin, phenolic compounds such as gallic acid, catechins and epicatechins [116]. Leaf extracts have antidepressant effects, due to the presence of flavonoids such as rutin, quercetin and hesperidin [117]. Due to its antiprotozoal effect, leaf extracts can be used to treat diseases such as giardiasis (*Giardia lamblia*), an infection of the small intestine [118, 119], leishmaniasis (*Leishmania mexicana*), which causes skin lesions [120] and Chagas disease (*Trypanossoma cruzi*), characterized by causing fever of varying intensity, malaise, problems in the lymph nodes and enlargement of the liver and spleen [105, 121].

The seed contains linoleic, oleic, stearic and palmitic acids [96]. As in fruits, seeds also have antihyperglycemic and antihyperlipidemic effects [102], as well as being an anti-inflammatory potential in both acute and chronic inflammatory models due to the compound called birsonimadiol, which when administered orally represents a powerful therapeutic drug for the treatment of inflammation [98].

The stem bark is an excellent source of flavonoids such as catechins, epicatechins [122, 123] and quercetins, βamirin, betulin, betulinic acid, oleanolic acid, gallic acid and phytosterol (β-sitosterol) [99]. Has activity against spasms [124]. It is antidepressant [125] and acts as an anti-inflammatory [126]. It is widely used as a home remedy for diarrhea, vaginal discharge, toothache, lung problems, wounds, ulcers and as febrifuge [127, 106], being this therapeutic effect attributed to its antimicrobial activities. Its antibacterial activity is able to inhibit several bacteria, including those responsible for pharyngitis, deep infection in muscles, skin and intestine, erysipelas and toxic shock syndrome (Streptococcus pyogenes) [128, 129, 130], urinary and hospital infections (Pseudomonas aeruginosa) [131], food poisoning and intestinal infections transmitted by the ingestion of contaminated food (Staphylococcus aureus, Escherichia coli, Salmonella typhi and Shigella flexneri) [132, 63], oropharynx (Streptococcus pneumoniae) [133], infections related to medical implants (Staphylococcus epidermidis) [134], abscesses, pneumonia, septic arthritis, meningitis, bacteremia and septic shock in immunosuppressed patients (Micrococcusluteus) [135], besides inhibiting bacteria associated with dental caries and oral diseases (Streptococcus mutans and Porphyromonas gingivalis) [106, 136, 99, 137, 113, 138]. It also shows antifungal activity against meningoencephalitis causing lung damage and secondary damage to skin, bones and kidneys (Cryptococcus neoformans) [139] and dermatophytosis causing mycosis (Microsporum gypseum, Miscrosporum canis, Trichophyton mentagrophytes, Epidermophyton floccosum and Trichophyton rubrum) [140, 94, 136, 137].

6. Jambu (Spilanthes acmella)

Spilanthes is a botanical genus of the family Compositae or Asteraceae, composed of approximately 60 species existing in regions of tropical climate like America, Africa and India. Spilanthes acmella, a species native to Brazil is popularly known as Jambu or Agrião-do-Pará. It is cultivated throughout the year and can reach between 50 and 60 centimeters in height [141, 142, 143, 144]. The species is used for many years as an ornamental, medicinal and food plant. In cuisine, it is used in the composition of salads, soups, appetizers and traditional dishes [145, 143, 146]. Its flowers and leaves have pungent taste, which cause a sensation of salivation, numbness and tingling [147, 148].

The mastication of the plant is made to relieve toothache and diseases of the gums and throat [148]. The extract obtained by decoction in water is used as laxative and diuretic [149, 150]. It is also used to treat other diseases such as rheumatism, fever, hemorrhoids, asthma and sore throat [149, 151, 152].

Several classes of bioactive compounds of Jambu have been identified, isolated and characterized. Among them, alkylamides, steroids, flavonoids and esters [153, 154, 155], can be highlighted. In addition, among the N-alkylamides, Spilanthol was found as the main lipid component [156]. Spilanthol is an amide also abundant in other species of the genus *Spilanthes*, which has anti-inflammatory and analgesic properties and antibacterial, antifungal, acaricidal, larvicidal and ovicidal activities [157, 158, 159, 10, 160, 11, 161, 162].

The antibacterial activity of Spilanthol present in extracts of Jambu acts in the inhibition of the bacteria responsible for pneumonia and urinary infection (*Klebsiella pneumoniae*) [163], pharyngitis, erysipelas and toxic shock syndrome (*Streptococcus pyogenes*), diphtheria (*Corynebacterium diphtheriae*) [164] and the cause of dental caries (*Streptococcus mutans*) [165], presenting greater activities than some commercial drugs.

The antifungal activity of this compound causes the inhibition of pathogenic fungi producing aflatoxins (*Aspergillus flavus, A. parasiticus* and *A. niger*) which, when ingested, cause chronic aflatoxicosis resulting in longer pathological conditions, including decreased immunity and cancers, or acute aflatoxicosis resulting in death [163, 166]. *Aspergillus flavus* also causes aspergillosis, a lung disease that ranges from local inflammation of the airways to severe and life-

threatening infections [167]. Other tests were performed on Jambu extracts and greater antifungal activity was observed in the fight against candidiasis than the standard commercial drug (fluconazole). Antifungal effects were also demonstrated in the microorganisms that cause cryptococcosis (*Cryptococcus neoformans*), a disease characterized by nodules or abscesses in the lungs, subcutaneous tissues and joints, and skin diseases such as chilblains (*Microsporum gypseum*) [168]. Besides Spilanthol, antifungal activities present in Jambu extracts are also related to the alkamides, saponins and sesquiterpenoids [169, 166, 154].

Other investigations with extracts of Jambu presented analgesic, anti-thermal and anti-inflammatory activities attributed to flavonoids and steroids such as β -sitosterol [170, 171, 172, 173, 160, 174, 150]. Besides these activities, Jambu also showed antioxidant, vasorelaxant [175] and neuroprotective effects, acting in the treatment and/or prevention of encephalic or medullary lesions caused by ischemia, stroke, seizures or trauma [176].

7. Obtention of plant extracts by supercritical CO₂

Extracts have been used as medicaments for a long time, due to the presence of bioactive compounds present in different parts of plants. To potentiate their therapeutic effects, these compounds must be identified and isolated by extraction methods. Studies have been carried out to compare different methods of extracting bioactive compounds with the objective of finding the best alternative for its application in therapeutic products [177]. There are several methods for extracting bioactive compounds in plants, among these, traditional extraction methods with organic solvents and supercritical extraction may be mentioned [178, 179].

Extraction with organic solvents (such as water, ethanol and methanol) is frequently used for the isolation of bioactive compounds [180, 181]. It is characterized as a separation method of easy execution, but it has some disadvantages such as the production of toxic waste, the degradation of bioactive compounds by the use of high temperatures and long extraction times, which represents an economic loss and an environmental problem [182, 183, 184].

Extraction with supercritical fluid is defined as a modern and efficient extraction method and has been recognized as a promising procedure, because it does not release toxic waste from solvents in the environment, allows the extraction of extracts with high purity, has the ability to separate the specific bioactive compounds through their selectivity, uses smaller extraction times and can be conducted at low temperatures, preserving the quality of the compounds, as well as being technically feasible for almost any vegetable [185, 186, 187, 188, 189].

This method uses different pressure and temperature values to transform gases into supercritical fluids. This change from gaseous state to supercritical state allows it to exhibit some properties of liquids and of gases, with penetration capacity being an intermediate characteristic between the two states. Therefore, the supercritical state of fluids can be defined as the state in which the liquid and gas are mixed together, forming a homogeneous fluid [188]. In this physical state, the fluid can penetrate more easily into solid plants, resulting in better yields in the extractions [190, 191].

Carbon dioxide (CO₂) is the most used supercritical fluid in this type of extraction because it has moderate critical temperature (31.3 °C) and pressure (7.38 MPa), and is inexpensive, ecological, safe, non-toxic, non flammable and presents a high degree of purity and high penetration capacity [192, 193, 194]. It is more effective for the extraction of compounds with low polarity like essential oils, carotenoids and fatty acids, but can be used in the extraction of compounds of high polarity, like phenolic compounds, making use of modifiers, also known as co-solvents (such as water and ethanol) [190, 191], to improve the yield and the selectivity of extracts [186].

Several researches, to obtain vegetable extracts with supercritical CO₂ were developed with the purpose of optimizing the process and reducing costs. Among the extracts obtained with supercritical CO₂ that present high therapeutic potential, the Rosemary, Jambu, Fennel, Clove, Black Sesame, Copaiba, Jucá and Açaí can be highlighted.

The Rosemary leaf presented more satisfactory results of yield and antioxidant activity [195]; the extract of the Jambu flower, which presented high selectivity to obtain the spilantol [196]; the extract of the fennel seed, which constituted an excellent source of bioactive compounds, such as anethole and fenchone, as well as fatty acids [197]; the extract of Clove, which presented high content of eugenol, compound that has high antifungal activity [198, 199, 200]; the extracts of the Black Sesame seed, the leaf and the oleoresin of Copaiba, in which the anti-inflammatory and neuroprotective effects against strokes were verified against the sesquitherpenes, including β -caryophyllene, this therapeutic effect [201, 202, 203]; the extract of Jucá fruits, which presented anti-inflammatory capacity, being used in bioactive dressings for the healing of wounds [204]; and extract of Açaí fruits, which showed potential applications for nutraceutical purposes due to the high content of anthocyanins [205].

It is important to note that one of the main reasons that may hinder the more widespread use of plant extracts is that most of the studies reported so far in the literature generally employ unpurified extracts to conduct bioactivity studies in cells and animals [196]. For this reason, the extraction of plant bioactive compounds with supercritical CO_2 has aroused the interest of food, cosmetic and pharmaceutical industries as an alternative to replace the conventional extraction processes that are harmful to humans and to the environment.

8. Conclusions

Given that diseases and pain are the conditions that most limit productivity and decrease the quality of humans life, and that many drugs cause gastrointestinal damage, cardiovascular problems, intolerance, respiratory depression and physical and psychological dependence, extracts from Cipó-pucá, Cipó-d'alho, Murici and Jambu, obtained by extraction with supercritical CO₂, represent an important gain in human investments in health, food and cosmetic areas, due to their expressive therapeutic potentials. Moreover, it is a great opportunity for obtaining bioactive compounds of natural origin which can be used for the treatment and/or prevention against various diseases.

The chemical identification and estimation of the antimicrobial activity of these extracts have fundamental importance for their application by pharmaceutical companies and can be used to establish parameters in the development of products, assisting in their quality and, therefore, their safety and efficacy. Thus, these extracts can act as an optional form of therapy taking into account the additional benefits when compared to conventional medicines.

References

- [1] Pereira CG, Meireles MAA. Supercritical fluid extraction of bioactive compounds: fundamentals, applications and economic perspectives. Food and Bioprocess Technology. 2010; 3:340-72.
- [2] Gil-Chavez GJ, Villa JA, Ayala-Zavala JF, Heredia JB, Sepulveda D, Yahia EM, Gonzalez-Aguilar GA. Technologies for extraction and production of bioactive compounds to be used as nutraceuticals and food ingredients: An overview. Comprehensive Reviews in Food Science and Food Safety. 2013; 12:5-23.
- [3] Silva EM, Souza JNS, Rogez H, Rees JF, Larondelle Y. Antioxidant activities and polyphenolic contents of fifteen selected plant species from the Amazonian region. Food Chemistry. 2007; 101:1012–18.
- [4] Souza JNS, Silva EM, Loir A, Rees JF, Rogez H, Larondelle Y. Antioxidant capacity of four polyphenol-rich Amazonian plant extracts: A correlation study using chemical and biological in vitro assays. Food Chemistry. 2008; 106:331–39.
- [5] Fernandes FHA, Santana CP, Santos RL, Correia LP, Conceição MM, Macêdo RO, Medeiros ACD. Thermal characterization of dried extract of medicinal plant by DSC and analytical techniques. Journal of Thermal Analysis and Calorimetry. 2013; 113:443–447.
- [6] Gilman AG, Rall TW, Nies AS, Taylor P. The Pharmacological Basis of Therapeutics. 8th ed. New York: Pergaman Press; 1991.
- [7] Silver L, Bostian K. Discovery and Development of New Antibiotics the Problem of Antibiotic-Resistance. Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy. 1993; 37:377–83.
- [8] Michelin DC, Sannomiya M, Figueiredo ME, Rinaldo D, Santos LC, Souza-Brito ARM, Vilegas W, Salgado HRN. Antimicrobial activity of *Byrsonima* species (Malpighiaceae). Revista Brasileira de Farmacognosia. 2008; 18:690–95.
- [9] Gupta D, Dubey J, Kumar M. Phytochemical analysis and antimicrobial activity of some medicinal plants against selected common human pathogenic microorganisms. Asian Pacific Journal of Tropical Disease. 2016; 6:15–20.
- [10] Pessini GL, Holetz FB, Sanches NR, Cortez DAG, Filho BD, Nakamura CV. Avaliação da atividade antibacteriana e antifúngica de extratos de plantas utilizados na medicina popular. Revista Brasilera de Farmacognosia. 2003; 13:21-24.
- [11] Rani SA, Murty SU. Antifungal potential of flower head extract of Spilanthes acmella Linn. African Journal of Biomedical Research. 2006; 9:67-69.
- [12] Santos AS, Deus RJA, Souza RF, Zoghbi MGB, Xavier LP, Sarquiz MIM. Atividade antifúngica do óleo essencial de *Mansoa standleyi* (Steyerm.) A. H. Gentry, do Acará, Pará, Brasil. In: Souza-Filho APS, Nascimento JLM, editors. Cipó-d'alho: aspectos botânicos, químicos e moléculas bioativas. Brasília: Embrapa; 2012. p. 157-65.
- [13] Silva GA, Almeida-Muradian LB, Akisue G, Ferro VDO. Padronização dos extratos de *Cissus sicyoides* L. (insulina vegetal) e identificação de carotenos. Revista Brasilera de Farmacognosia. 1996; 5:144-55.
- [14] Abreu IN, Pinto JEBP, Bertolucci SKV, Morais ARD, Geromel C, Laderira A, Lameira OA. In vivo and in vitro propagation of Cissus sicvoides, a medicinal plant. Acta Amazônica. 2003; 33:1-7.
- [15] Viana GSB, Medeiros ACC, Lacerda AMR, Leal KAM, Vale TG, Matos FJA. Hipoglycemic and anti-lipemic effects of the aqueous extract from *Cissus sicyoides*. BMC Pharmacology. 2004; 4:1-7.
- [16] Guilhon-Simplicio F, Pereira MM. Chemical and pharmacological aspects of Byrsonima (Malpighiaceae). Química Nova. 2011; 34:1032–41.
- [17] García MD, Saenz MT, Puerta R, Quilez A, Fernandez MA. Antibacterial activity of *Agave intermixta* and *Cissus sicyoides*. Fitoterapia. 1999; 70:71-73.
- [18] Zoghbi MGB, Guilhon GMS, Pereira RA, Lima GSL. Volatiles from *Mansoa standleyi* (Steyerm.) A. H. Gentry. Journal of Essential Oil Research. 2010; 22:247-49.
- [19] Borges LS, Vianello F, Marques MOM, Lima GPP. Influence of organic and mineral soil fertilization and essential oil of *Spilanthes oleracea*. American Journal of Plant Physiology. 2012; 7:135-42.
- [20] Guilhon GMSP, Bittencourt RM, Lima GSL, Zoghbi MGB. Influência do tipo de secagem na distribuição de compostos organossulfurados em Cipó-d'alho. In: Souza-Filho APS, Nascimento JLM, editors. Cipó-d'alho: aspectos botânicos, químicos e moléculas bioativas. Brasília: Embrapa; 2012. p. 157-65.
- [21] Vilhena-Potiguara RCV, Aguiar-Dias ACA, Kikuchi TYS, Dos Santos ACF, Silva RJF. Secretory structures in Cipó-d'alho (Mansoa standleyi (Steyerm.) A. H. Gentry, Bignoniaceae): occurrence and morphology. Acta Amazônica. 2012; 42:321–28.
- [22] Horita NC, Farías AM, Barbosa TS, Esmerino EA, Gomes A, Bolini HMA, Meireles MAA, Pollonio MAR. The antimicrobial, antioxidant and sensory properties of garlic and its derivatives in Brazilian low-sodium frankfurters along shelf-life. Journal Food Research International. 2016; 84:1–8.

- [23] Ferreira SRS, Cardozo Filho L, Cabral VF. Equilíbrio de fases para sistemas multicomponentes: usando equações de estado. In: Meireles MAA, Pereira CG, editors. Fundamentos de Engenharia de alimentos. São Paulo: Atheneu; 2013. p. 217-59.
- [24] Costa ARM, Freitas LAP, Mendiola J, Ibánez E. Copaifera langsdorffii supercritical fluid extraction: chemical and functional characterization by LC/MS and in vitro assays. Journal of Supercritical Fluids. 2015; 100:86-96.
- [25] Pereira CG, Prado JM, Meireles AJA, Meireles MAA. Extração sólido-líquido. In: Tadini CC, Telis VRN, Meireles AJA, Pessoa Filho PA, editors. Operações unitárias na indústria de alimentos. Livros técnicos e científicos (LTC). Rio de Janeiro: LTC; 2016. p. 168-208.
- [26] De Melo MMR, Silvestre AJD, Silva CM. Supercritical fluid extraction of vegetable matrices: Applications, trends and future perspectives of a convincing green technology. The Journal of Supercritical Fluids. 2014; 92:115–76.
- [27] Viegas Jr C, Bolzani VS, Barreiro EJ. The natural products and the modern medicinal chemistry. Química Nova. 2006; 29:326-37.
- [28] Dewick PM. Medicinal natural products: a biosynthetic approach. 3th ed. Nottingham: John Wiley & Sons Ltd; 2009.
- [29] Hostettmann K, Queiroz EF, Vieira PC. A importância das plantas medicinais: Princípios ativos de plantas superiores. Série de textos da Escola de Verão em Química IV. São Carlos: EdUFSCar; 2003.
- [30] Borges AR, Aires JRA, Higino TMM, Medeiros MGF, Citó AMGL, Lopes JAD, Figueiredo RCBQ. Trypanocidal and cytotoxic activities of essential oils from medicinal plants of Northeast of Brazil. Experimental Parasitology. 2012; 132:123-28.
- [31] Santos ÉS, Garcia FP, Outuki PM, Hoscheid J, Goes PRN, Cardozo-Filho L, Nakamura CV, Cardoso MLC. Optimization of extraction method and evaluation of antileishmanial activity of oil and nanoemulsions of *Pterodon pubescens* benth. fruit extracts. Experimental Parasitology. 2016; 170:252-60.
- [32] Dias CN, Alves LPL, Rodrigues KAF, Brito MCA, Rosa CS, Amaral FMM, Monteiro OS, Andrade EHA, Maia JGS, Moraes DFC. Chemical composition and larvicidal activity of essential oils extracted from brazilian legal amazon plants against *Aedes aegypti* L. (Diptera: Culicidae). Evidence-Based Complementary and Alternative Medicine (Print). 2015; 2015:1-8.
- [33] Pinto CP, Rodrigues VD, Pinto FP, Pinto RP, Uetanabaro APT, Pinheiro CSR, Gadea SFM, Silva TRS, Lucchese AM. Antimicrobial activity of *Lippia* species from the Brazilian semiarid region traditionally used as antiseptic and antiinfective agentes. Evidence-Based Complementary and Alternative Medicine. 2013; 2013:1-5.
- [34] Barreto HM, Nunes ASF, Coelho KMRN, Osório LR, Santos BHC, Coutinho HDM, Abreu APL, Medeiros MGF, Citó AMGL, Lopes JAD. Effect of *Lippia origanoides* H.B.K. essential oil in the resistance to aminoglycosides in methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. European Journal of Integrative Medicine. 2014; 6:560-64.
- [35] Sarrazin SLF, Da Silva LA, De Assunção APF, Oliveira RB, Calao VYP, Da Silva R, Stashenko EE, Maia JGS, Mourão RHV. Antimicrobial and seasonal evaluation of the carvacrol-chemotype oil from *Lippia origanoides* Kunth. Molecules. 2015; 20:1860-71.
- [36] Da Silva JKR, Maia JGS, Dosoky NS, Setzer WN. Antioxidant, antimicrobial, and cytotoxic properties of *Aniba parviflora* essential oils from the Amazon. Natural Product Communications. 2016b; 11:1025-28.
- [37] Da Silva JKR, Pinto LC, Burbano RMR, Montenegro RC, Andrade EHA, Maia JGS. Composition and cytotoxic and antioxidant activities of the oil of *Piper aeguale* Vahl. Lipids in Health and Disease. 2016a; 15:174.
- [38] Ferreira RG, Monteiro MC, Silva JKR, Maia JGS. antifungal action of the dillapiole-rich oil of *Piper aduncum* against dermatomycoses caused by filamentous fungi. British Journal of Medicine and Medical Research. 2016; 15:1-10.
- [39] Da Silva JKR, Andrade EHA, Mourão RHV, Maia JGS, Dosoky NS, Setzer WN. Chemical profile and in vitro biological activities of essential oils of *Nectandra puberula* Schott (Nees) and *N. cuspidata* Nees & Mart. from Amazon. Natural Product Communications. 2017; 12:131-34.
- [40] Da Silva JKR, Da Trindade RCS, Maia JGS, Setzer WN. Chemical composition, antioxidant, and antimicrobial activities of essential oils of *Endlicheria arenosa* (Lauraceae) from the Amazon. Natural Product Communications. 2016c; 11:695-98.
- [41] Lombardi JA. Vitaceae Gêneros Ampelocissus, Ampelopsis e Cissus. Flora Neotropica Monograph. 2000; 80:1-251.
- [42] Croat TB. Flora of Barro Colorado Island. California: Standford University Press; 1978.
- [43] Berg MEVD. Plantas medicinais da Amazônia: contribuição ao seu conhecimento sistemático. 2th ed. Belém: Museu Emílio Goeldi; 1993.
- [44] Pepato MT, Baviera AM, Vendramini RC, Perez MPMS, Kettelhut IC, Brunetti IL. Cissus sicyoides (princess vine) in the long-term treatment of streptozotocin-diabetic rats. Biotechnology Applied Biochemistry. 2003; 37: 15-20.
- [45] Oliveira AB, Mendonça MS, Azevedo AA, Meira RMSA. Anatomy and histochemistry of the vegetative organs of *Cissus verticillate* a native medicinal plant of the Brazilian Amazon. Revista Brasileira de Farmacognosia. 2012; 22: 1201-11.
- [46] Drobnik J, de Oliveira AB. *Cissus verticillata* (L.) Nicolson & C.E. Jarvis (Vitaceae): its identification and usage in the sources from 16th to 19th century. Journal of Ethnopharmacology. 2015; 171: 317-29.
- [47] Toledo MCF, Reyes FGR, Iaderoza M, Francis FJ, Draetta IS. Anthocyanins from aniltrepador (*Cissus siyoides*, linn). Journal of Food Science. 1983; 48: 1368-69.
- [48] Dias GT, Lima CMBL, Lira AB, Ramalho JA, De Oliveira KM, Diniz MFFM. Toxicidade do extrato hidroalcoólico das folhas de *Cissus sicyoides*. Acta Brasiliensis. 2017; 1: 8-12.
- [49] Beltrame FL, Sartoretto JL, Bazotte RB, Cuman RN, Cortez DAG. Phytochemical study and evaluation of the antidiabetic potential of Cissus sicyoides L. (Citaceae). Química Nova. 2001; 24: 783-85.
- [50] Quílez AM, Saenz MT, García MD, Puerta R. Phytochemical analysis and anti-allergic study of *Agave intermixta Trel*. and *Cissus sicvoides* L. Journal of Pharmacology. 2004; 56: 1185-89.
- [51] Beltrame FL, Ferreira AG, Cortez DA. Coumarin glycoside from Cissus sicyoides. Natural Product Letters. 2002; 16: 213-16.
- [52] Bakkali F, Averbeck S, Averbeck D, Idaomar M. Biological effects of essential oils-a review. Food and Chemical Toxicology. 2008; 46: 446-75.
- [53] Simões CMO, Schenkel EP, Gosmann G, Mello JCP, Mentz LA, Petrovick PR. Farmacognosia: da Planta ao Medicamento. 5th ed. Porto Alegre: UFRGS; 2004.
- [54] Sell C. Chemistry of Essential Oils. In: Baser KHC, Buchbauer G, editors. Handbook of essential oils: science, technology, and applications. London: Taylor & Francis Group; 2010.

- [55] Lino CS, Sales TP, Gomes PB, Falcão do Amaral J, Alexandre FSO, Silveira ER, Ferreira JM, Sousa DF, Queiroz MGR, Sousa FCF, Brito GAC, Brito SMRC, Viana GSB. Anti-diabetic activity of a fraction from *Cissus verticillata* and tyramine, its main bioactive constituent, in alloxan-induced diabetic rats. American Journal of Pharmacology and Toxicology. 2007; 2:178-88.
- [56] Salgado JM, Mansi DN, Gagliardi A. Cissus sicyoides: analysis of glycemic control in diabetic rats through biomarkers. Journal of Medicinal Food. 2009; 12:722-27.
- [57] Beserra FP, Santos RC, Périco LL, Rodrigues VP, Kiguti LRA, Saldanha LL, Pupo AS, da Rocha LRM, Dokkedal AL, Vilegas W, Hiruma-Lima CA. *Cissus sicyoides*: Pharmacological Mechanisms Involved in the Anti-Inflammatory and Antidiarrheal Activities. International Journal of Molecular Sciences. 2016, 17:149.
- [58] Garcia X, Cartes-Heredia L, Lorenzana-Jimenez M, Gijón E. Vasoconstrictor effect of Cissus sicyoides on guinea-pig aortic rings. General Pharmacology. 1997; 29:457-62.
- [59] Garcia MD, Quilez AM, Saenz MT, Martinez-Domingues ME, De La Purerta R. Anti-inflammatory activity of Agave intermixta Trel. and Cissus sicyoides L. species used in the Caribbean traditional medicine. Journal of Ethnopharmacology. 2000; 71:395-400.
- [60] Braga TV, Oliveira TT, Pinto JT, Dorest GR, Nagem TJ. Determination of fresh mass, dry mass, water and total ash in leaves of *Cissus verticillata* (L.) Nicolson & C. E. Jarvis subsp. *verticillata* and evaluation of the drying process with forced ventilation. Revista de Ciências Farmacêuticas Básica e Aplicada. 2007; 28:287-90.
- [61] Ferreira MP, Nishijima CM, Seito LN, Dokkedal AL, Lopes-Ferreira M, Di Stasi LC, Vilegas W, Hiruma-Lima CA. Gastroprotective effect of *Cissus sicyoides* (Vitaceae): Involvement of microcirculation, endogenous sulfhydryls and nitric oxide. Journal of Ethnopharmacology. 2008; 117:170-74.
- [62] Santos HB, Modesto-Filho J, Diniz MFFM, Vasconcelos THC, Pereira FSB, Ramalho FSB, Dantas JG, Santos EB. Evaluation of the hypoglycemic effect of *Cissus sicyoides* in phase II clinical trials. Brazilian Journal of Pharmacognosy. 2008, 18:70-76.
- [63] Lee WC, Lee MJ, Kim JS, Park SY. Foodborne illness outbreaks in Korea and Japan studied retrospectively. Journal of Food Protection. 2001; 64:899-902.
- [64] Anwar H, Strap JL, Costerton JW. Establishment of aging biofilms: Possible Mechanism of bacterial resistance to antimicrobial therapy. Antimicrobial agents and chemotherapy. 1992; 36:1347-51.
- [65] Maragakis LL, Winkler A, Tucker MG, Cosgrove SE, Ross T, Lawson E, Carroll KC, Perl TM. Outbreak of multidrug-resistant Serratia marcescens infection in a neonatal intensive care unit. Infection Control & Hospital Epidemiology. 2008; 29:418-23.
- [66] O'Hara C, Brenner FW, Miller JM. Classification, identification, and clinical significance of *Proteus*, *Providencia*, and *Morganella*. Clinical Microbiology Reviews. 2000; 13:534-46.
- [67] Janda JM, Abbot SL. The Enterobacteriaceae. 2th ed. Washington: ASM Press; 2006.
- [68] Kalra A, Cooley C, Tsigrelis C. Treatment of endocarditis due to *Proteus* species: a literature review. International Journal of Infectious Diseases. 2011; 15:222–25.
- [69] Nakayama A, Yamanaka K, Hayashi H, Ohkusu K. Moraxella lacunata infection associated with septicemia, endocarditis, and bilateral septic arthritis in a patient undergoing hemodialysis: a case report and review of the literature. Journal of Infection and Chemotherapy. 2014; 20: 61-64.
- [70] Silva L, Carreira RC, Oniki GH, Agripino DG, Oung MCM, Ladeira AM. Crescimento e análise do potencial antifúngico em plantas de *Cissus verticillata* (L.) Nicolson & Jarvis (Vitaceae). Revista Brasileira de Plantas Medicinais. 2007; 9:73-79.
- [71] Zalar P, de Hoog GS, Schroers HJ, Crous PW, Groenewald JZ, Gunde-Cimerman N. Phylogeny and ecology of the ubiquitous saprobe *Cladosporium sphaerospermum*, with descriptions of seven new species from hypersaline environments. Studies in Mycology. 2007, 58:157-83.
- [72] Zoppas BCA, Valencia-Barrera RM, Fernándes-Gonzáles D. Cladosporium spp spores distribution in the atmospheric air of Caxias do Sul-RS, Brazil, during a two-year study. Revista Brasileira de Alergia e Imunopatologia. 2011; 34:55-58.
- [73] Kwon-Chung KJ, Schwartz IS, Rybak BJ. A pulmonary fungus Ball produced by *Cladosporium cladosporioides*. American Journal of Clinical Pathology. 1975; 64:564-68.
- [74] Grava S, Lopes FAD, Cavallazzi RS, Grassi MFNN, Svidzinski TIE. Um caso raro de pneumonia hemorrágica por *Cladosporium cladosporioides*. Jornal Brasileiro de Pneumologia. 2016; 42:392-94.
- [75] Fischer E, Theisen I, Lohmann LG. Bignonaceae. In: Kadereit JW. (ed.) The families and genera of vascular plants. Vol. 7. Springer-Verlag: Heidelberg. 2004, 9-38.
- [76] Gentry AH. Bignoniaceae. Part I. Tribes Crescentieae and Tourrentieae. Flora Neotropica. 1980; 25: 1-130.
- [77] Gentry AH. Floristic similarities and differences between Southern Central America and upper and Central Amazonia. In: Gentry AH, editor. Four neotropical rain forests. London: Yale University Press. 1990, 141-60.
- [78] Forzza, R. C. (Org). Catalago de plantas e fungos do Brasil. Rio de Janeiro: Jardim Botanico do Rio de Janeiro: Andrea Jakobsson Estudio. 2010, 769.
- [79] Oliveira J, Zoghbi MGB. Espécies de Bignoniaceae conhecidas por Cipó-d'alho: ocorrência e usos de Mansoa standleyi (Steyerm.) A. H. Gentry no Nordeste Paraense. In: Souza-Filho APS, Nascimento JLM, editors. Cipó-d'alho: aspectos botânicos, químicos e moléculas bioativas. Brasília: Embrapa. 2012, 19-33.
- [80] Bastos GT, Oliveira KCM, Hamoy M, Macchi BM, Nascimento JLM. Óleo essencial de *Mansoa standleyi*: utilizações etnofarmacológicas. In: Souza-Filho APS, Nascimento JLM, editors. Cipó-d'alho: aspectos botânicos, químicos e moléculas bioativas. Brasília: Embrapa. 2012, 157-65.
- [81] Berg ME. Plantas medicinais na Amazônia: contribuição ao seu conhecimento sistemático. Museu Paraense Emílio Goeldi. 1993, 268.
- [82] Zoghbi MGB, Oliveira J, Guilhon GMSP. The genus *Mansoa* (Bignoniaceae): A source of organosulfur compounds. Brazilian Journal of Pharmacognosy. 2009; 19:795-804.
- [83] Souza Filho APS, Guilhon GMSP, Zoghbi MGB, Cunha RL. Comparative analyses of the allelopathic potential of the hydroalcoholic extract and essential oil of "Cipo-d'alho" (Bignoniaceae) Leaves. Planta Daninha, Viçosa-MG. 2009, 27: 647-653.

- [84] Trindade NS, Arruda AC, Almeida ES, Souza JRV, Lobato MP, Souza RF, Arruda MSP, editors. Triterpenos isolados das folhas de *Mansoa standleyi* (Bignoniaceae). 48th Congresso de química: química na proteção ao meio ambiente; 2008 Sep; Rio de Janeiro, RJ; 2008.
- [85] Dvořáková M, Weingartová I, Nevoral J, Němeček D, Krejčová T. Garlic sulfur compounds suppress cancerogenesis and oxidative stress: A Review. Animal Sciences. Scientia Agricultura e Bohemica. 2015; 46: 65-72,
- [86] Zoghbi MGB, Ramos LS, Maia JGS, Silva ML, Luz AIR. Volatile sulfides of the Amazonian garlic bush. Jornal Agricultural Food Chemical. 1984; 32:1009-10.
- [87] Moraes ML. Tradição e modernidade no uso de essências. Informativo do Museu Paraense Emílio Goeldi, Destaque Amazônia. 2008; 24:1-8.
- [88] Santhosha SG, Jamuna P, Prabhavathi SN. Bioactive components of garlic and their physiological role in health maintenance: A review. Journal International Food Bioscience. 2013; 3:59–74.
- [89] Prasad, K., Laxdal, V., Yu, M., & Ranet, B. (1995). Antioxidant activity of allicin, an active principle in garlic. Molecular and Cellular Biochemistry, 148, 183–189.
- [90] Ross Z, O'gara E, Hill D, Sleightholme H, Maslin D. Antimicrobial properties of garlic oil against human enteric bacteria: evaluation of methodologies and comparisons with garlic oil sulfides and garlic powder. Applied and Environmental Microbiology. 2001; 67: 475-480.
- [91] Tedeschi P, Maietti A, Boggian M, Vecchiati G, Brandolini V. Fungitoxicity of lyophilized and spray-dried garlic extracts. Part B. Journal of Environmental Science and Health. 2007; 42:795–99.
- [92] Deutsch D, Adler S, Teller J, Savir H. Endogenous candidal endophthalmitis. Annals of Ophthalmology. 1989; 21:260-65.
- [93] Batista LM, De Almeida AF, Araújo AS, Gripp TX, Cardoso FMN, Lima LS, Nascimento YBG, Tavares-Dias M, Yoshioka ETO, Rodrigues DP, Junior AAP, editors. Avaliação da atividade antimicrobiana in vitro do extrato bruto de cipó de alho *Mansoa Alliacea* em isolados bacterianos de peixes. XIV Encontro Brasileiro de Patologistas de Organismos Aquáticos (XIV ENBRAPOA); 2016. Florianópolis, SC. UFSC: ABRAPOA; 2016.
- [94] Gellen LFA, Silva EHC. Antimicrobial activity of extracts of *Byrsonima crassifolia* roots. Journal of bioenergy and food Science. 2016; 3:63–71.
- [95] Uekane TM, Nicolotti L, Griglione A, Bizzo HR, Rubiolo P, Bicchi C, Rocha-Leão MHM, Rezende CM. Studies on the volatile fraction composition of three native Amazonian Brazilian fruits: Murici (*Byrsonima crassifolia* L., Malpighiaceae), bacuri (*Platonia insignis* M., Clusiaceae), and sapodilla (*Manilkara sapota* L., Sapotaceae). Food Chemistry. 2017; 219:13–22.
- [96] Rezende CM, Fraga SRG. Chemical and aroma determination of the pulp and seeds of Murici (*Byrsonima crassifolia* L.). Journal of the Brazilian Chemical Society. 2003; 14:425–28.
- [97] Pérez-Gutiérrez RM, Muñiz-Ramirez A. Hypoglycemic Effects of sesquiterpene lactones from *Byrsonima crassifolia*. Food Science and Biotechnology. 2016; 25: 1135-45.
- [98] Pérez-Gutiérrez RM. Anti-inflammatory Effect of birsonimadiol from seeds of *Byrsonima crassifolia*. Food Science and Biotechnology. 2016; 25:561-66.
- [99] Rivero-Cruz JF, Sánchez-Nieto S, Benítez G, Casimiro X, Ibarra-Alvaradoc C, Rojas-Molinac A, Rivero-Cruz B. Antibacterial compounds isolated from *Byrsonima*. Revista Latinoamericana de Química. 2009; 37:155–63.
- [100] Amarquaye A, Che CT, Bejar E, Fong H. A new glycolipid from Byrsonima crassifolia. Planta médica. 1994; 60:85–86.
- [101] Agra MDF, Freitas PF, Barbosa-Filho JM. Synopsis of the plants known asmedicinal and poisonous in Northeast of Brazil. Brazilian Journal of Pharmacognosy. 2007; 17:114–40.
- [102] Pérez-Gutiérrez RM, Muñiz-Ramirez A, Gomez Gomez Y, Bautista-Ramirez E. Antihyperglycemic, antihyperlipidemic and antiglycation of *Byrsonima crassifolia* fruits. Plant Foods for Human Nutrition. 2010; 65:350-57.
- [103] Malta LG, Tessaro EP, Eberlin M, Pastore GM, Liu RH. Assessment of antioxidant and antiproliferative activities and the identification of phenolic compounds of exotic Brazilian fruits. Food Research International, 2013; 53: 417–425.
- [104] Mariutti LRB, Rodrigues E, Chisté RC, Fernandes E, Mercadante AZ. The Amazonian fruit *Byrsonima crassifolia* effectively scavenges reactive oxygen and nitrogen species and protects human erythrocytes against oxidative damage. Food Research International. 2014; 64:618–25.
- [105] Berger I, Barrientos AC, Cáceres A, Hernández M, Rastrelli L, Passreiter CM, Kubelka, W. Plants used in Guatemala for the treatment of protozoal infections: Activity of extracts and fractions of five Guatemalan plants against *Trypanosoma cruzi*. Journal of Ethnopharmacology. 1998; 62: 107-15.
- [106] Martínez-Vázquez M, González-Esquinca AR, Cazares LL, Moreno GMN, García-Argaer AN. Antimicrobial activity of *Byrsonima crassifolia* (L.). H.B.K. Journal of Ethnopharmacology. 1999; 66:79-82.
- [107] Lima ZP, Santos RZ, Torres TU, Sannomiya M, Rodrigues CM, Santos LC, Pellizzon CH, Rocha LRM, Vilegas W, Brito ARMS, Cardoso CRP, Varanda EA, Moares HP, Bauab TM, Carli C, Carlos IZ, Hiruma-Lima CA. *Byrsonima fagifolia:* An integrative study to validate the gastroprotective, healing, antidiarrheal, antimicrobial and mutagenic action. Journal of Ethnopharmacology, 2008; 120: 149-160.
- [108] Moreira LQ, Vilela FC, Orlandi L, Dias DF, Santos ALA, Silva MA, Paiva R, Alves-da-Silva G, Paiva AG. Antiinflammatory effect of extract and fractions from the leaves of *Byrsonima intermedia* A. Juss. in rats. Journal of Ethnopharmacology, 2011; 138: 610-615.
- [109] Silva PMC, Neves LC, Bastos VJ, Lima CGB, Araújo KGM, Roberto SR. Harvesting period of Murici (*Byrsonima crassifolia* Kunth) fruit in relation to physical and chemical parameters evaluated during fruit development. Scientia Horticulturae, 2016; 200: 66–72.
- [110] Mendes CC, Cruz FG, David JM, Nascimento IP, David JP. Triterpenes esterified with fatty acid and triterpene acids isolated from *Byrsonima microphylla*. Química Nova. 1999; 22:185-88.
- [111] Alves GL, Franco MRB. Headspace gas chromatography-mass spectrometry of volatile compounds in Murici (*Byrsonima crassifolia*). Journal of Chromatography A. 2003; 985: 297-301.
- [112] Mariutti LRB, Rodrigues E, Mercadante AZ. Carotenoids from *Byrsonima crassifolia*: Identification, quantification and in vitro scavenging capacity against peroxyl radicals. Journal of Food Composition and Analysis. 2013; 31: 155-60.

- [113] Cáceres A, López BR, Juárez X, Aguila J, García S. Plants used in Guatemala for the treatment of dermatophytic infections: Evaluation of antifungal activity of seven American plants. Journal of Ethnopharmacology. 1993; 40:207-13.
- [114] Aguiar RM, David JP, David JM. Unusual naphthoquinones, catechin and triterpene from *Byrsonima microphylla*. Phytochemistry. 2005; 66:2388-92.
- [115] Rastrelli L, De Tommasi N, Berger I, Cáceres A, Saravia A, De Simona F. Glycolipids from *Byrsonima crassifolia*. Phytochemistry. 1997; 45:647-50.
- [116] Pompeu DR, Rogez H, Monteiro KM, Tinti SV, Carvalho JE. Antioxidant capacity and pharmacologic screening of crude extracts of *Byrsonima crassifolia* and *Inga edulis* leaves. Acta Amazonica, 2012; 42: 165-172.
- [117] Herrera-Ruiz M, Zamilpa A, González-Cortazar M, Reyes-Chilpa R, León E, García MP, Tortoriello J, Huerta-Reyes M. Antidepressant effect and pharmacological evaluation of standardized extract of flavonoids from *Byrsonima crassifolia*. Phytomedicine. 2011; 18:1255-61.
- [118] Amaral FMM, Ribeiro MNS, Barbosa-Filho JM, Reis AS, Nascimento FRF, Macedo RO. Plants and chemical constituents with giardicidal activity. RevistaBrasileira de Farmacognosia. 2006; 16:696-720.
- [119] Peraza-Sánchez SR, Poot-Kantún S, Toores-Tapia LW, May-Pat F, Simá-Polanco P, Cedillo-Rivera R. Screening of native plants from Yucatan for anti-*Giardia lamblia* activity. Pharmaceutical Biology. 2005; 43:594–98.
- [120] Peraza-Sánchez SR, Cen-Pacheco F, Noh-Chimal A, May-Pat F, Sima-Polanco P, Dumonteil E, García-Miss MR, Mut-Martín M. Leishmanicidal evaluation of extracts from native plants of the *Yucatan peninsula*. Fitoterapia. 2007; 78:315-18.
- [121] Nóbrega AA, Garcia MH, Tatto E, Obara MT, Costa E, Sobel J, Araujo WN. Oral transmission of Chagas disease by consumption of açaí palm fruit, Brazil. Emerging Infectious Diseases Journal.2009; 15:653-55.
- [122] Geiss F, Heinrich M, Hunkler D, Rimplerl H. Proanthocyanidins with (+)- epicatechin units from *Byrsonima crassifolia* bark. Phytochemistry. 1995; 39:635-43.
- [123] Maldini M, Montoro P, Pizza C. Phenolic compounds from *Byrsonima crassifolia* L. bark: Phytochemical investigation and quantitative analysis by LC-ESI MS/MS. Journal of Pharmaceutical and Biomedical Analysis, 2011; 56: 1–6.
- [124] Bejar E, Malone MH. Chemical screening of *Byrsonima crassifolia* a medicinal tree from México. Part I. Journal of Ethnopharmacology. 1993; 39:141-58.
- [125] Cifuentes CM, Gomez-Serranillos MP, Iglesias I, Villar del Fresno AM. Neuropharmacological profile of ethnomedicinal plants of Guatemala. Journal of Ethnopharmacology. 2001; 76:223-28.
- [126] Maldini, M. Sosa S, Montoro P, Giangaspareto A, Balick MJ, Pizza C, Loggia RD. Screening of the topical anti-inflammatory activity of the bark of *Acacia cornigera* Willdenow, *Byrsonima crassifolia* Kunth, *Sweetia panamensis* Yakovlev and the leaves of *Sphagneticola trilobata* Hitchcock. Journal of Ethnopharmacology, 2009; 122: 430–433.
- [127] Argueta V, Cano A, Rodarte M. Atlas de las plantas medicinales de la medicina tradicional mexicana. México ed. D.F.: Editorial Instituto Nacional Indigenista; 1994.
- [128] Green NM, Beres SB, Graviss EA, Allison JE, Mcgeer AJ, Vuopio-Varkila J, Lefebvre RB, Musser JM. Genetic diversity among type emm28 group a streptococcus strains causing invasive infections and pharyngitis. Society. 2005; 43:4083-91.
- [129] Maripuu L, Eriksson A, Norgren M. Superantigen gene profile diversity among clinical group A streptococcal isolates. FEMS immunology and medical microbiology. 2008; 54:236-44.
- [130] Steer AC, Danchin MH, Carapetis JR. Group A streptococcal infections in children. Journal of paediatrics and child health. 2007; 43:203-13.
- [131] De Freitas AL, Barth AL. Antibiotic resistance and molecular typing of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*: focus on imipenem. Brazilian Journal of Infectious Diseases. 2002; 6:1-7.
- [132] Kosek M, Yori PP, Olortegui MP. Shigellosis update: advancing antibiotic resistance, investment empowered vaccine development, and green bananas. Current Opinion in Infectious Diseases. 2010;23:475-80.
- [133] Black SB, Shinefield HR, Hansen J, Elvin L, Laufer D, Malinoski F. Postlicensure evaluation of the effectiveness of seven valent pneumococcal conjugate vaccine. The Pediatric Infectious Disease Journal. 2001;20:1105-7.
- [134] Mermel LA. Prevention of intravascular catheter-related infections. Annals of Internal Medicine. 2000; 132:391-402.
- [135] Trabulsi LR, Alterthum F. Microbiologia. 5th ed. Rio de Janeiro: Atheneu; 2008.
- [136] Cáceres A, López BR, Giron MA, Logemann H. Plants used in Guatemala for the treatment of dermatophytic infections. 1. Screening for antimycotic activity of 44 plant extracts. Journal of Ethnopharmacology. 1991; 31:263-76.
- [137] Cáceres A, López B, González S, Maki J. Plants used in Guatemala for the treatment of protozoal infections. I. Screening of activity to bacteria, fungi and American trypanosomes of 13 native plants. Journal of Ethnopharmacology. 1998; 62:195–202.
- [138] Muñiz-Ramirez A, Pérez-Gutiérrez RM, Flores-Cotera LB. Evaluation of antiinflammatory activity hexane extract of *Byrsonima crassifolia*. Alternative Therapies In Health And Medicine. 2014; 19:26-36.
- [139] Lin X, Heitman J. The Biology of the *Cryptococcus neoformans* Species complex. Annual Review of Microbiology. 2006; 60:69-105.
- [140] Quinn PJ,Markey BK,Carter ME,Donnelly WJ,Leonard FC. Microbiologia veterinária e doenças infecciosas. Digital ed. Porto Alegre: Artmed; 2005.
- [141] Chung KF, Kono Y, Wang CM, Peng CI. Notes on Acmella (asteraceae: heliantheae) in Taiwan. Botanical Studies. 2008; 9:73-82.
- [142] Sahu J, Jain K, Jain B, Sahu RK. A review on phytopharmacology and micropropagation of *Spilanthes acmella*. Pharmacologyonline newslett. 2011; 2:1105-10.
- [143] Tiwari KL, Jadhav SK, Joshi V. An updated review on medicinal herb genus Spilanthes. Chinese Journal of Integrative Medicine. 2011; 9:1170-8.
- [144] Wongsawatkul O, Prachayasittikul S, Isarankura-Na-Ayudhya C, Satayavivad J, Ruchirawat S, Prachayasittikul V. Vasorelaxant and antioxidant activities of Spilanthes acmella Murr. International Journal of Molecular Sciences. 2008; 9:2724-44.
- [145] Leng TC, Ping NS, Lim BP, Keng CL. Detection of bioactive compounds from *Spilanthes acmella* (L.) plants and its various in vitro culture products. Journal of Medicinal Plants Research. 2011; 5:371-8.

- [146] Dias AMA, Santos P, Seabra IJ, Júnior RNC, Braga MEM, de Sousa HC. Spilanthol from *Spilanthes acmella* flowers, leaves and stems obtained by selective supercritical carbon dioxide extraction, The Journal of Supercritical Fluids. 2012; 61:62-70.
- [147] Hind N, Biggs N. Acmella oleracea Compositae. Curtis's Botanical Magazine. 2003; 20:31-9.
- [148] Jirovetz L, Buchbauer G, Abraham GT, Shafi MP. Chemical composition and olfactoric characterization of *Acmella radicans* (Jacq.) R.K. Jansen var. radicans from Southern India. Flavour and Fragrance Journal. 2006; 21:88–91.
- [149] Bunyapraphatsara N, Chokechareunporn O. Tradition medicinal plants. Bangkok: Prachachon; 1999.
- [150] Ratnasooriya WD, Pieris KPP. Attenuation of persistent pain and hyperalgesia by *Spilanthus acmella* flowers in rats. Pharmaceutical Biology. 2005; 43:614-9.
- [151] Chopra RN, Nayara SL, Chopra IC. Glossary of Indian medicinal plants. Council of Scientific & Industrial Research. 1956; 3:168-169.
- [152] Farnsworth NR, Bunyapraphatsara N. Thai medicinal plants recommended for primary health care system. Bangkok: Prachachon; 1992.
- [153] Krishnaswamy NR, Prasanna S. α and β-Amyrin esters and sitosterol glucoside from *Spilanthes acmella*. Phytochemistry. 1975; 14:1666-7.
- [154] Mukharya DK, Ansari AH. Olean-12-en-3-O-beta-D-galactopyranosyl (1→4)-O-alpha Lrhamnopyranoside: A new triterpenoidal saponin from the roots of *Spilanthes acmella* (Murr.). Indian Journal of Chemistry B. 1987; 26:86.
- [155] Greger H. Comparative phytochemistry of the alkylamides. In Chemistry and Biology of Naturally-occurring Acetylenes and Related Compounds (NOARC), Lam J, Breteler H, Arnason T, Hansen L (eds). 1988; 7:159-78.
- [156] Gerber E. Ueber die chemischen Bestandteile der Parakresse (Spilanthes olearacea, Jacquin). Archiv der Pharmazie. 1903; 241:270–89.
- [157] Herdy GVA, Carvalho AP. Ação do espilantol (extraído do Jambu) sobre a atividade elétrica do coração de coelho. Eletrocardiograma experimental. Arquivos Brasileiros de Cardiologia. 1984; 43:315-20.
- [158] Pitasawat B, Choochote W, Kanjanapothi D, Panthong A, Jitpakdi A, Chaithong U. Screening for larvicidal activity of ten carminative plants. The Southeast Asian Journal of Tropical Medicine and Public Health. 1998; 29:660-2.
- [159] Saraf DK, Dixit VK. Spilanthes acmella Murr.: Study on its extract spilanthol as larvicidal compound. Asian Journal of Experimental Sciences. 2002; 16:9-19.
- [160] Chakraborty A, Devi BRK, Rita S, Sharatchandra K, Singh TI. Preliminary studies on antiinflammatory and analgesic activities of *Spilanthes acmella* Murr. In experimental animal models. Indian Journal of Pharmacology. 2004;36:148-50.
- [161] Li-Chen W, Fan NC, Lin MH, Chu I R, Huang SJ, Hu CY, Han SY. Anti-inflammatory Effect of Spilanthol from Spilanthes acmella on Murine Macrophage by Down-Regulating LPS-Induced Inflammatory Mediators. Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry. 2008; 56:2341–9.
- [162] Castro KNC, Lima DF, Vasconcelos LC, Leite JRSA, Santos RC, Paz Neto AA, Costa-Júnior LM. Acaricide activity in vitro of Acmella oleracea against Rhipicephalus microplus. Parasitology Research. 2014; 133:3697-3701.
- [163] Arora S, Vijay S, Kumar D. Phytochemical and antimicrobial studies on the leaves of *Spilanthes acmella*. Journal of Chemical and Pharmaceutical Research. 2011; 3:145-50.
- [164] Prachayasittikul S, Suphapong S, Worachartcheewan A, Lawung R, Ruchirawat S, Prachayasittikul V. Bioactive metabolites from *Spilanthes acmella* Murr. Molecules. 2009;14: 850-67.
- [165] Rosas-Piñón Y, Mejía A, Díaz-Ruiz G, Aguilar MI, Sánchez-Nieto S, Rivero-Cruz JF. Ethnobotanical survey and antibacterial activity of plants used in the Altiplane region of Mexico for the treatment of oral cavity infections. Journal of Ethnopharmacology. 2012; 141:860-5.
- [166] Mehl HL, Cottya PJ. Nutrient Environments Influence Competition among *Aspergillus flavus* Genotypes, Applied and Environmental Microbiology. 2013; 79:1473–80.
- [167] Beisswenger C, Hess C, Bals R. *Aspergillus fumigatus* conidia induce interferon-b signalling in respiratory epithelial cells. European Respiratory Journal. 2012; 39:411–8.
- [168] Phongpaichit S, Subhadhirasakul S, Wattanapiromsakul C. Antifungal activities of extracts from Thai medicinal plants against opportunistic fungal pathogens associated with AIDS patients. Mycoses. 2005; 48:333-8.
- [169] Nakatani N, Nagashiwa M. Pungent alkamides from *Spilanthes acmella* L. Var. Clark. Bioscience, Biotechnology, and Biochemistry. 1992; 56:759-62.
- [170] Sadavongvivad C, Supavilai P. Three monohydroxycoumarins from Alyxia lucida. Phytochemistry. 1977; 16:1451.
- [171] Nair JJ, Aremu AO, Van Staden J. Antiinflammatory effects of *Leucosidea sericea* (Rosaceae) and identification of the active constituents. South African Journal of Botany. 2012; 80:75-6.
- [172] D'Armour FE, Smith DL. A method for determining loss of pain sensation. Journal of Pharmacology and Experimental Therapeutics. 1941; 72:74-9.
- [173] Witkin LB, Heubner CF, Galdi F, O'Keefe E, Spitaletta P, Plummer AJ. Pharmacology of 2-amino-indane hydrochloride (SU-8629): a potent nonnarcotic analgesic. Journal of Pharmacology and Experimental Therapeutics. 1961; 133:400-8.
- [174] Jyothi G, William MC, Ravi KB, Krishna MG. Antinociceptive and anti-inflammatory activity of methanolic extract of leaves of *Shorea Robusta*. Pharmacologyonline. 2008; 1:9-19.
- [175] Wongsawatkul O, Prachayasittikul S, Isarankura-Na-Ayudhya C, Satayavivad J, Ruchirawat S, Prachayasittikul V. Vasorelaxant and antioxidant activities of Spilanthes acmella Murr. International Journal of Molecular Sciences. 2008; 9:2724-44.
- [176] Wilasinee S, Bongkot K, Sujittra S, Supaluk P, Virapong P. Neuroprotective effect of Spilanthes acmella Murr. on pesticide-induced neuronal cells death. Asian Pacific Journal of Tropical Medicine. 2017, 10:1-7.
- [177] Andreo D, Jorge N. Natural antioxidants: Extraction techniques. Boletim da CEPPA. 2006; 24:319-36.
- [178] Leal PF, Braga MEM, Sato DN, Carvalho JE, Marques MOM, Meireles MAA. Functional properties of spices extracts obtained via supercritical fluid extraction. Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry. 2003; 51:2520-25.
- [179] Rehman Z, Habib F, Shah WH. Utilization of potato peels extract as a natural antioxidant in soy bean oil. Food Chemistry. 2004; 85:215-20.

- [180] Julkunem-Tiito R. Phenolic constituents in the leaves of northern willows, methods for the analysis of certain phenolics. Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry. 1985; 33:213-17.
- [181] Marinova EM, Yanishlieva NVI. Antioxidant activity of extracts from selected species of the family Lamiaceae in sunflower oil. Food Chemistry. 1997; 58:245-48.
- [182] Cerpa MG, Mato RB, Cocero MJ, Ceriani R, Meirelles AJA, Prado JM, Leal PF, Takeuchi TM, Meireles MAA. Steam Distillation Applied to the Food Industry. In: Meireles MAA, Cocero MJ, Prado JM, Cerpa MG, Meirelles AJA, Ceriani R, Leal PF, Mato RB, Takeuchi TM, autors. Extracting bioactive compounds for food products: theory and applications. CRC Press; 2008. p. 11-73.
- [183] Yu Y, Chen B, Chen Y, Xie M, Duan H, Li Y, Duan G. Nitrogen-protected microwave-assisted extraction of ascorbic acid from fruit and vegetables. Journal of Separation Science. 2009; 32:4227-33.
- [184] Castro MDL, Priego-Capote F. Soxhlet extraction: Past and present panacea. Journal of Chromatography A. 2010; 1217:2383-89.
- [185] Hui YH. Bailey's industrial oil & fat products. 5th ed. New York: John Willey & Sons, 1996.
- [186] Pokorny J, Korczak J. Preparation of Natural antioxidants. In: Pokorny J, Yanishlieva N, Gordon M, autors. Antioxidants in food: practical applications. New York: CRC Press; 2001. p. 311-330.
- [187] Zancan KC, Marques MOM, Petenate AJ, Meireles MAA. Extraction of ginger (*Zingiber officinale* Roscoe) oleoresin with CO₂ and co-solvents: a study of the antioxidant action of the extracts. The Journal of Supercritical Fluids. 2002; 24:57-76.
- [188] Herrero M, Cifuentes A, Ibáñez E. Sub and supercritical fluid extraction of functional ingredients from different natural sources: plants, food-by-products, algae and microalgae: a review. Food Chemistry. 2006; 98:136-148.
- [189] Serra AT, Seabra I, Braga MEM, Duarte CMM. Processing cherries (*Prunus avium*) using supercritical fluid technology. Part 1: recovery of extract fractions rich in bioactive compounds. Journal of fluid Supercritical. 2010; 35:184-191.
- [190] Del Valle JM, Aguillera JM. Review: high pressure CO₂ extraction. Fundamentals and applications in the food industry. Food Science and Technology International. 1999; 5:1-24.
- [191] Raventós M, Duarte S, Alarcón R. Application and possibilities of supercritical CO₂ extraction in food processing industry: an overview. Food Science and Technology International. 2002; 8:269-84.
- [192] Brunner G. Gas Extraction: An introduction to fundamentals of supercritical fluids and the applications to separation process. Steikopff: Springer; 1994.p. 387.
- [193] Herrero M, Mendiola JA, Cifuentes A, Ibáñez E. Supercritical fluid extraction: Recent advances and applications. Journal of Chromatography A. 2010; 1217:2495-2511.
- [194] Taribak C, Casas L, Mantell C, El Fadli Z, Metni RE, Martínez de la Ossa E. Quality of cosmetic argan oil extracted by supercritical fluid extraction from *Argania Spinosa* L. E-Journal of Chemistry. 2013: 1-9.
- [195] Carvalho-Junior RN, Moura LS, Rosa PTV, Meireles MAA. Supercritical fluid extraction from rosemary (*Rosmarinus officinalis*): kinetic data, extract's global yield, composition, and antioxidant activity. The Journal of Supercritical Fluids. 2005; 35:197-204.
- [196] Dias AMA, Da Silva ACS, Botelho JRS, Júnior RNC, De Sousa HC, Braga MEM. Temperature and density effects of the scCO₂ extraction of spilanthol from Spilanthes acmella flowers. The Journal of Supercritical Fluids. 2017; 121:32-40.
- [197] Moura LS, Carvalho-Junior RN, Stefanini MB, Ming LC, Meireles MAA. Supercritical fluid extraction from fennel (*Foeniculum vulgare*): global yield, composition and kinetic data. The Journal of Supercritical Fluids. 2005; 35:212–19.
- [198] Carrasco H, Raimondi M, Svetaz L, Di Liberto M, Rodriguez MV, Espinoza L, Madrid A, Zacchino S. Antifungal activity of eugenol analogues. Influence of different substituents and studies on mechanism of action. Molecules. 2012; 7:1002–24.
- [199] Mazzarrino G, Paparella A, Chaves-López C, Faberi A, Sergi M, Sigismondi C, Dario Compagnone, Annalisa Serio. Salmonella enterica and Listeria monocytogenes inactivation dynamics after treatment with selected essential oils. Food Control. 2015; 50:794–803.
- [200] Oliveira MS, Costa WA, Pereira DS, Botelho JRS, Menezes TOA, Andrade EHA, Silva SHM, Souza Filho APS, Carvalho-Junior RN. Chemical Composition and Phytotoxic Activity of Clove (*Syzygium aromaticum*) Essential Oil Obtained with Supercritical CO₂. The Journal of Supercritical Fluids. 2016; 118:185-93.
- [201] Guimarães-Santos A, Santos DS, Santos IR, Lima RR, Pereira A, Moura LS, Carvalho-Junior RN, Lameira O, Gomes-Leal W. Copaiba oil-resin treatment is neuroprotective and reduces neutrophil recruitment and microglia activation after motor cortex excitotoxic injury. Evidence-Based Complementary and Alternative Medicine (Online). 2012; 2012:1-9.
- [202] Botelho JRS, Medeiros NG, Rodrigues AMC, Araújo ME, Machado NT, Guimarães-Santos A, Santos IR, Gomes-Leal W, Carvalho-Junior RN. Black sesame (Sesamum indicum L.) seeds extracts by CO₂ supercritical fluid extraction: Isotherms of global yield, kinetics data, total fatty acids, phytosterols and neuroprotective effects. The Journal of Supercritical Fluids. 2014; 93:49-55.
- [203] Botelho JRS, Santos AG, Araújo ME, Braga MEM, Gomes-Leal W, Carvalho-Junior RN, Meireles MAA, Oliveira MS. Copaíba (*Copaifera* sp.) leaf extracts obtained by CO₂ supercritical fluid extraction: Isotherms of global yield, kinetics data, antioxidant activity and neuroprotective effects. The Journal of Supercritical Fluids. 2015; 98:167-71.
- [204] Dias AMA, Rey-Rico A, Oliveira RA, Marceneiro S, Alvarez-Lorenzo C, Concheiro A, Carvalho-Junior RN, Braga MEM, De Sousa HC. Wound dressings loaded with an anti-inflammatory jucá (*Libidibia ferrea*) extract using supercritical carbon dioxide technology. The Journal of Supercritical Fluids. 2013; 74:34-45.
- [205] Batista CCR, Oliveira MS, Araújo ME, Rodrigues AMC, Botelho JRS, Souza-Filho APS, Machado NT, Carvalho-Junior RN. Supercritical CO₂ extraction of açaí (*Euterpe oleracea*) berry oil: Global yield, fatty acids, allelopathic activities, and determination of phenolic and anthocyanins total compounds in the residual pulp. The Journal of Supercritical Fluids. 2016; 107:364-69.