



Optimal use of rainwater: a strategy for combating water scarcity in arid and semi-arid regions for cultivating damask rose

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ARTICLE INFO	ABSTRACT
Corresponding Author: Amir Moradinejad amir_24619@yahoo.com Received: 22 September 2025 Accepted: 2 January 2026 Keywords: Rainwater harvesting Rain-fed gardens Sloped surfaces Insulated surfaces Damask rose	Scarcity of precipitation, its uneven temporal-spatial distribution, and the limited and declining quality of water resources in arid and semi-arid regions highlight the necessity of optimizing green water management and adopting rainwater harvesting (RWH) strategies. Rainfed cultivation of <i>Damask rose</i> is particularly valuable due to its economic importance and ecological adaptability. This study aimed to evaluate the effect of different rainwater harvesting systems on the establishment and growth performance of <i>Damask rose</i> under rainfed conditions and to assess the efficiency of green water management. The experiment was conducted on sloping land (~20% slope) in Katiran village, Shazand, using three treatments with five replications: (1) fully insulated surface with a filter in the seedling pit, (2) semi-insulated surface with a filter, and (3) a control treatment based on local practice. Seedling height and canopy cover were measured annually at the end of each growing season from 2018 to 2022, and variance analysis was performed. The semi-insulated treatment with a filter resulted in a 30–35% increase in seedling height compared to the control in 2018 ($P<0.01$) and a 20–25% increase during 2019–2020 ($P<0.05$). Canopy cover in this treatment was on average 15–20% higher than the control across all years. The treatment effects on height were not statistically significant in 2021 and 2022; however, canopy cover remained significantly different across all years. The control treatment consistently exhibited the lowest values. Semi-insulated rainwater harvesting systems with filtration significantly enhance the establishment and early growth of <i>Damask rose</i> under rainfed conditions in arid and semi-arid regions. Implementation of such systems—particularly on steeper slopes—is recommended, alongside technological improvements to reduce construction costs. Copyright © 2022 Union Medicinal Plants of Iran. All rights reserved.

1. Introduction

One of the most significant attributes of the Damask rose is its ability to survive and adapt to dry conditions. It can be cultivated in areas where annual rainfall exceeds 300 mm and can even establish itself with less than 250 mm of rainfall, producing satisfactory yields (Charoimek et al., 2023). However, it is acknowledged that lower rainfall may lead to reduced economic performance. The Damask rose thrives in sloped terrains and areas where other crops cannot be grown, providing a high economic justification for its cultivation. Many farmers are inclined to expand the cultivation of this plant due to its resilience (Aalam et al., 2024).

Research indicates that collecting rainwater has been a concern for various human civilizations throughout

history. Sources suggest that this method was first implemented in the area of occupied Palestine (Stanton, 2005). The design methods for rainwater harvesting surfaces for rain-fed gardens vary across regions, each possessing unique features and technical specifications. Rahimpour et al. (2016) estimated that approximately 866,000 cubic meters of water could be harvested for supplementary irrigation of seedlings from 433 hectares of rocky areas with over 90% coverage. Shahini et al. (2014) demonstrated that installing a nylon insulation system in crescent-shaped systems increased runoff at olive seedling planting sites to three times the annual rainfall of the region (approximately 340 mm), aiding in successful establishment under rain-fed conditions.



Heshmati et al. (2017) examined the impact of rainwater harvesting surfaces on controlling oak dryness in the Zagros forests, showing that a combination of bunds and enclosures reduced dryness by 37 trees and rejuvenated 19 trees per hectare compared to the control group after three years. Tajbakhsh et al. (2013) emphasized that if only 10% of runoff from 321 hectares of rocky land on the southern outskirts of Mashhad is collected, approximately 6,000 cubic meters of water could irrigate nearly 14,000 seedlings. Hosseini et al. (2014) assessed the economic returns of various rainwater harvesting methods—pitting, bunding, terracing, cisterns, and furrowed counters—concluding that with a profitability rate of 2.04% and an internal rate of return of 0.63%, implementation is economically justified. Gahantigh (2016) found that out of 22.44 million cubic meters of annual runoff from the Turshab watershed in Zabol, an average of 51,800 cubic meters is controlled through Turkist harvesting systems. To effectively harvest rainwater, it is essential to establish a collection system in areas with maximum storage capacity for various uses (Trabolisi & Trabolisi, 2015).

The lack of stored soil moisture in arid climates and the improper use of precipitation are major factors reducing crop production, increasing soil erosion, and wasting rainfall (Qaderi, 2006). This necessitates maximizing soil moisture capacity. Rainwater harvesting systems are effective measures that increase the stability and quality of water resources (Alamdari, 2018). Scientists have studied the feasibility of collecting rooftop rainwater in South Asia and concluded that these systems are simple and cost-effective for meeting rural domestic water needs (Mahmoud & Hussein, 2017). Several researchers acknowledge that under uncertain climate conditions, rainwater harvesting systems are reliable for water security and effective in managing droughts (Christian et al., 2018; Moussavi et al., 2018). Creating suitable planting beds with organic matter increases soil water-holding capacity, storing winter rainfall to meet plants' needs until early summer (Biranvand, 2017).

Terencio et al. (2017) evaluated rainwater harvesting systems for irrigating forest species in Portugal and found that they harvested 4.5 times the required water. Similarly, Roghani (2010), Shahini (2007), and Gheythouri (2006) highlighted the significant role of impermeable surfaces, increasing runoff coefficients up to 60%, while natural surfaces ranged around 20% or less. Studies also showed that watermelon production and water-use efficiency in plastic and gravel systems significantly improved. Research on oilseeds confirmed that rainwater harvesting combined with 60 mm of supplementary irrigation yielded the best results for grain and oil content (Gu et al., 2017).

Nekui Mehr and Eliasi (2016) demonstrated that various rainwater harvesting methods significantly improved

plant indices under rain-fed conditions. Rainwater catchment areas aim to accumulate precipitation and optimize rainfall use for vegetation development and environmental enhancement—an effective solution for low-rainfall regions, especially in arid and semi-arid areas. Global studies have confirmed the effectiveness of such systems (Yi et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2009; Bani Asadi & Panahi, 2017).

Recent works include Waqed et al. (2025), who used multi-criteria decision-making (MCDM) and GIS techniques to identify optimal areas for rainwater harvesting in Karbala, Iraq, showing that about 32% of the area (697 km²) has high potential for watershed management. Umukiza et al. (2023) discussed challenges and opportunities of rainwater harvesting in arid African regions, highlighting successful examples such as Kenya's sand dams and Morocco's traditional Khatre systems. Finally, Moradinejad et al. (2023) examined semi-insulated rain collection systems with gravel filters, showing significant effects ($P < 0.01$) on plant height and canopy cover, with maximum values recorded for the semi-insulated treatment. The primary objective of this research is to promote best practices for rainwater harvesting systems aimed at establishing and developing damask rose cultivation under rain-fed conditions while optimizing rainfall utilization. The objectives of this research are: A. Green water management (rainfall) in arid and semi-arid regions, B. Determining the impact of rainwater harvesting systems on rose cultivation, C. Comparing different rainwater harvesting techniques and their effectiveness and evaluating rose growth characteristics under different rainwater harvesting systems and providing extension recommendations for optimal implementation of rainwater harvesting systems. This study addresses this gap by evaluating the effects of different rainwater harvesting systems on Damask rose seedlings in a semi-arid region of Iran. By comparing semi-insulated and fully insulated surfaces with filtration against traditional local practices, the study aims to identify techniques that optimize rainfall use, enhance seedling height and canopy development, and provide practical guidance for farmers and land managers. Specifically, the objectives are to: 1. Assess green water management (rainfall) in arid and semi-arid regions. 2. Determine the impact of different RWH systems on Damask rose growth characteristics. 3. Compare RWH designs and provide recommendations for efficient implementation in rain-fed rose cultivation. By integrating historical perspectives, contemporary research, and field experimentation, this study contributes to sustainable water management strategies and promotes economically viable Damask rose cultivation in regions facing water scarcity.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Plant material and reagents

Fresh aerial parts of *F. angulata* were collected at the full flowering stage from Kashan region, Isfahan Province, Iran (34.0095° N, 51.4590° E) in May 2025. All solvents and reagents were of analytical or high-performance liquid chromatography grade. DPPH, ABTS, potassium persulfate, 2,4,6-tripyridyl-s-triazine, and related chemicals were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA).

2.2. Culture media, strains, and growth conditions

Mueller-Hinton agar and Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM) were obtained from Difco Laboratories (Detroit, MI, USA). Microbial strains (*Enterococcus faecalis*, *S. aureus*, *E. coli*, *P. aeruginosa*, and *C. albicans*) were obtained as lyophilized cultures from the National Center of Biological and Genetic Resources (Iran) and revived according to supplier instructions.

2.3. EO extraction

EO was obtained by hydrodistillation of dried aerial parts using a Clevenger-type apparatus for 3 h; briefly, 100 to 200 g of plant material was distilled with distilled water (1:8-1:10, w/v). The EO was dried over anhydrous sodium sulfate, measured gravimetrically (v/w), and stored at 4 °C in amber vials. Additional extraction methods (steam distillation, Soxhlet, and supercritical CO₂) were applied to selected subsamples for comparative purposes. Solid-phase microextraction was used for headspace volatile profiling prior to GC-MS analysis (Cebi and Erarslan, 2023).

2.4. GC-MS analysis

EO samples were analyzed by GC-MS using a DB-5MS column (30 m × 0.25 mm i.d., 0.25 µm film thickness). Helium used as the carrier gas at 1.0 mL.min⁻¹ and injection volume was 1 µL (EO:n-hexane, 1:100, v/v). Compounds were identified by comparison of mass spectra with the NIST library and retention indices calculated using n-alkanes and relative percentages were calculated from GC-flame ionization detector peak areas without correction factors (Iram et al. 2025).

2.5. Antioxidant activity assays

Antioxidant potential was evaluated using DPPH, ABTS, and FRAP assays and also all were performed in triplicate. Trolox and butylated hydroxytoluene (BHT) were included as positive controls, yielding IC₅₀ values within established literature ranges, confirming assay validity and Tween 80 (≤ 1 %) was used as an emulsifier and also included in blank controls (Moghaddam et al. 2018).

2.5.1. DPPH radical scavenging assay

A 0.1 mM DPPH solution in methanol was mixed with EO samples and incubated for 30 min in the dark. Absorbance was measured at 517 nm and inhibition calculated and also IC₅₀ values were obtained by nonlinear regression (Wang et al. 2024).

2.5.2. ABTS radical cation decolorization assay

ABTS^{•+} was generated by reacting (7 mM) with potassium persulfate (2.45 mM) for 12-16 h and absorbance measured at 734 nm after 6 min of reaction (Ghasemi Pirbalouti et al. 2016).

2.5.3. FRAP investigation

FRAP reagent was freshly prepared and absorbance measured at 593 nm after incubation at 37 °C; therefore, results were expressed as mmol Fe²⁺ or Trolox equivalents (Dev et al. 2025).

2.6. Antimicrobial activity

MIC and MBC values were determined using the broth microdilution method according to CLSI guidelines. Inoculum density was standardized to 5 × 10⁵ CFU.mL⁻¹. Tween 80 or dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO ≤ 1 %) was used as a solvent.

Positive controls indicated gentamicin (bacteria) and fluconazole (*C. albicans*), producing MIC values within CLSI reference ranges and negative controls (media + vehicle) showed no inhibitory effect (Pidlisnyuk et al. 2025).

2.7. Cytotoxicity assay

The 0 µL MTT solution (5 mg.mL⁻¹ in phosphate-buffered saline) added per well and incubated about 3 to 4 h at 37 °C. Formazan crystals dissolved in DMSO (100 to 150 µL/well) and absorbance measured at 570 nm (reference 630 to 690 nm), as depicted in Eq. 2 (Wang et al. 2024):

$$\text{Eq. 2: Cell viability (\%)} = (A_{\text{sample}} / A_{\text{control}}) \times 100$$

IC₅₀ values calculated using dose-response curves, where EO interfered with colorimetric readouts, complementary assays (sulfate-reducing bacteria, lactate dehydrogenase release or adenosine triphosphate-based luminescence) employed to confirm results; therefore, all investigations included vehicle and positive control (doxorubicin) wells (Othman et al. 2025).

2.7.1. Cell culture and treatment

Human cancer cell lines (MCF-7, AGS, HT-29) and a non-tumor control line were cultured in DMEM or Roswell Park Memorial Institute-1640 supplemented with 10 % (v/v) fetal bovine serum and 1 % (v/v) penicillin-streptomycin, at 37 °C and 5 % CO₂. EO was applied at 1 to 1000 µg mL⁻¹ and final vehicle concentration did not exceed 0.5 % (v/v).

Positive control: doxorubicin, yielding IC_{50} values in the low micromolar range, confirming assay sensitivity (Mashhadi-Sharif et al. 2025).

2.7.2. MTT evaluation

MTT assay on HeLa, MCF-7, HT-29, and HEK-293 and EO concentrations was 1-1000 $\mu\text{g/mL}$, MTT (5 $\text{mg}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$) was added and incubated for 3-4 h. Absorbance was measured at 570 nm (reference 630-690 nm) and IC_{50} values were calculated from dose-response curves. Positive control showed doxorubicin and IC_{50} values determined using dose-response curves (Wang et al. 2024).

2.8. SEM image investigation

Bacterial cells were exposed to EO at MIC and $2\times$ MIC for 1-3 h and fixed, dehydrated, sputter-coated, and also imaged at 1-5 kV to assess membrane damage (Elizabeth et al. 2025).

2.9. Data analysis

Data expressed as mean $\pm$ SD. Normality tested (Shapiro-Wilk), variances (Levene's test) and comparisons: t-test (two groups), one-way ANOVA + Tukey post-hoc (multiple groups). IC_{50} values via nonlinear regression; MIC/MBC confirmed in ≥ 2 independent replicates. Post-hoc power analysis ensured $\geq 80\%$ power, significance: $p < 0.05$.

3. Results

3.1. EO extraction yield

The EO levels obtained by three extraction methods presented (Table 1) and hydrodistillation produced an average content of $0.82 \pm 0.05\%$ (v/w), while supercritical CO_2 yielded $1.20 \pm 0.08\%$ (v/w) and soxhlet (n-hexane) $0.45 \pm 0.03\%$ (w/w) prepared.

Table 1. The obtained essential oil extraction yield by different methods

Extraction method	Yield(% v/w)	Remarks
Hydrodistillation	0.82 ± 0.05^b	Typical yield for aromatic herbs
Supercritical CO_2 extraction	1.20 ± 0.08^a	Higher yield, minimal thermal degradation
Soxhlet (n-hexane)	0.45 ± 0.03^c	Semi-volatile fraction recovery

*The Distinct letters a to c indicate significant differences in each column.

3.2. Chemical composition by GC-MS analysis

GC-MS identified five major constituents (Table 2) and dominant compounds were limonene (28.5 %), α -pinene (12.3 %), linalool (6.7 %), p-cymene (5.1 %) and β -caryophyllene (4.4 %), together accounting for about 57 % of total ion chromatogram area (Figure 1), indicating a monoterpene-rich chemotype EO typical from *Apiaceae* family. A total of 27 compounds were

identified, accounting for 96.4 % total ion chromatogram area. Monoterpenes (hydrocarbon + oxygenated) represented 72.8 % EOs, whereas sesquiterpenes accounted for 18.6 %, clearly confirming a monoterpene-rich chemotype, which was consistent with *Ferulago* species and *Apiaceae* family.

Table 2. Complete GC-MS chemical composition of *F. angulata* essential oil

No.	Compound	Relative (%)	Chemical class
1	α -Thujene	1.2	Monoterpene hydrocarbon
2	α -Pinene	12.3	Monoterpene hydrocarbon
3	Camphene	2.1	Monoterpene hydrocarbon
4	β -Pinene	3.8	Monoterpene hydrocarbon
5	Myrcene	4.5	Monoterpene hydrocarbon
6	p-Cymene	5.1	Monoterpene hydrocarbon
7	Limonene	28.5	Monoterpene hydrocarbon
8	γ -Terpinene	3.2	Monoterpene hydrocarbon
9	Linalool	6.7	Oxygenated monoterpene
10	Terpinen-4-ol	2.9	Oxygenated monoterpene
11	α -Terpineol	2.5	Oxygenated monoterpene
12	Bornyl acetate	1.8	Oxygenated monoterpene
13	β -Caryophyllene	4.4	Sesquiterpene hydrocarbon
14	α -Humulene	2.1	Sesquiterpene hydrocarbon
15	Germacrene D	3.7	Sesquiterpene hydrocarbon
16	Caryophyllene oxide	2.4	Oxygenated sesquiterpene
—	Total identified	96.4	—

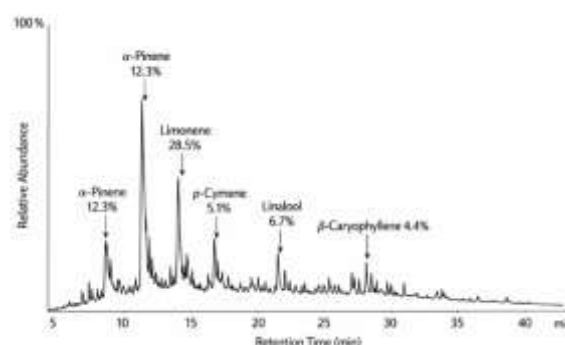


Fig 1. The gas chromatography-mass spectrometry chromatogram of essential oil.

3.3. FTIR Characterization of *F. angulata* EO

This spectrum exhibited major absorption bands characteristic of monoterpenoid and oxygenated terpene compounds (Figure 2). Strong aliphatic C-H stretching vibrations appeared at 2955 to 2870 cm^{-1} , while a weaker band (3070 cm^{-1}) corresponded to alkenes and aromatics. The band near 1640 cm^{-1} indicated C=C stretching of unsaturated structures and a small signal around 1730 cm^{-1} suggested carbonyl groups (possible coumarin or lactone derivatives). Distinct C-O and C-O-C stretching peaks were observed in 1230 to 1070 cm^{-1} region, confirming oxygenated terpenes such as linalool, whereas out of plane =C-H bending at 880 to 750 cm^{-1} reflected typical mono skeletons. These features were consistent with previous GC-MS and spectroscopic

studies reporting *F. angulata* EOs rich in α -pinene, β -ocimene and limonene with variable linalool and coumarin-type constituents depending on population, plant organ and also extraction method. FTIR results illustrated that *F. angulata* EO primarily comprised monoterpene hydrocarbons and oxygenated derivatives, occasionally containing minor carbonyl compounds derived from coumarins. FTIR spectrum of *F. angulata* EO revealed characteristic absorption bands that confirmed major functional groups for monoterpenes and oxygenated terpenes. Prominent peaks observed at 2955 to 2870 cm^{-1} correspond to asymmetric and symmetric C-H stretching vibrations of methyl and methylene groups, indicating high aliphatic hydrocarbons. The weak absorption near 3070 cm^{-1} was attributed to =C-H stretching in alkenes and aromatic structures, reflecting the presence of unsaturated terpenes such as α -pinene, β -ocimene and limonene. A medium-intensity band at 1640 cm^{-1} corresponded to C=C stretching vibrations of conjugated or isolated double bonds, further confirming unsaturated nature for EO constituents. A small and distinct band around 1730 cm^{-1} suggested occurrence of carbonyl (C=O) functional groups, which could originate from coumarin or lactone derivatives occasionally reported in *Ferulago* species. Bands observed in the fingerprint region below 900 cm^{-1} , including those near 880 and 750 cm^{-1} , correspond to out of plane =C-H bending typical for substituted alkenes and monoterpene frameworks. The strong absence, broad O-H stretching bands above 3300 cm^{-1} indicated that free hydroxyl groups were not abundant, suggesting alcohol components presented mainly as minor constituents or bound within more complex structures.

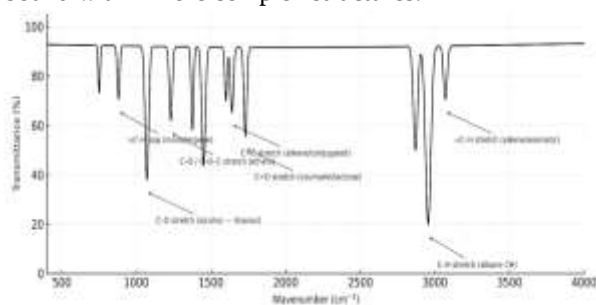


Fig 2. Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy spectrum of *F. angulata* essential oil.

3.4. Antioxidant activity of EO

The antioxidant potential of *F. angulata* EO was evaluated using DPPH, ABTS, and FRAP assays. The EO exhibited concentration-dependent radical scavenging activity, reaching approximately 82 % inhibition in DPPH and 90 % for ABTS assays at the highest tested concentration (Figure 3). The calculated IC_{50} values were $350 \pm 18 \mu\text{g.mL}^{-1}$ (DPPH) and $190 \pm 11 \mu\text{g.mL}^{-1}$ (ABTS).

For comparison, the positive controls showed markedly stronger antioxidant activity and trolox exhibited IC_{50} values of $21.4 \pm 1.2 \mu\text{g.mL}^{-1}$ (DPPH) and $14.8 \pm 0.9 \mu\text{g.mL}^{-1}$ (ABTS), while BHT showed $32.6 \pm 1.7 \mu\text{g.mL}^{-1}$ and $26.3 \pm 1.4 \mu\text{g.mL}^{-1}$, respectively. In the FRAP assay, reducing power of EO was $0.91 \pm 0.06 \text{ mmol Fe}^{2+} \text{ equivalents.g}^{-1}$, compared with $3.85 \pm 0.12 \text{ mmol Fe}^{2+} \text{ equivalents.g}^{-1}$ for Trolox. Monoterpene hydrocarbons are less effective as hydrogen donors, but oxygenated forms enhance electron-transfer and radical scavenging capacity, contributing to ABTS/FRAP results. These results indicated a moderate antioxidant activity with EO demonstrating stronger responsiveness in ABTS than DPPH assay.

3.5. EO Antimicrobial activity

This feature displayed a spectrum of antimicrobial ability in broth-microdilution methods: *S. aureus* had (0.51 and 1.04 mg.mL^{-1}); *E. coli* (2.12 and 4.32 mg.mL^{-1}) for MIC and MBC and also *P. aeruginosa* was less susceptible ($\sim 4.67 \text{ mg.mL}^{-1}$), respectively (Table 3). Standard antimicrobial agents were tested in parallel as positive controls and gentamicin exhibited MIC values of 0.5-1.0 $\mu\text{g.mL}^{-1}$ against *S. aureus* and *E. coli*, while fluconazole showed 0.75 $\mu\text{g.mL}^{-1}$ towards to *C. albicans*. These values were in agreement with CLSI reference ranges, confirming assay validity. These results highlighted a substantially greater sensitivity of gram-positive bacteria versus negative ones, which was a common pattern in EO research. These comparisons supported that MIC observed here (0.5 to 4 mg.mL^{-1}) were within EO realistic range in antimicrobial. Mechanistically, antimicrobial effect linked to chemical composition in EO dominated by monoterpenes such as limonene and α -pinene along with oxygenated terpenes like linalool.

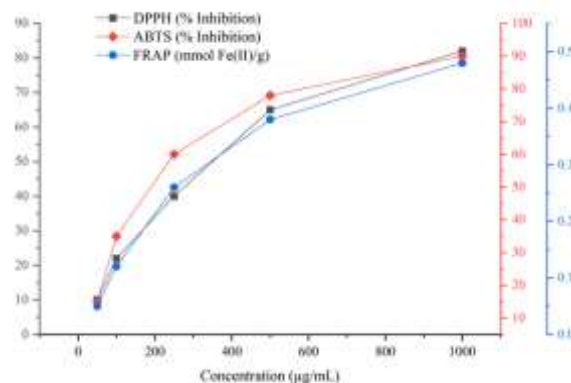


Fig 3. Antioxidant activity curve for *F. angulata* essential oil in terms of 2,2-Diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl, 2,2'-azinobis-3-

ethylbenzothiazoline-6-sulfonic acid and ferric reducing antioxidant power assay.

Table 3. Minimum inhibitory and bactericidal concentrations of *F. angulata* essential oil.

Microorganism	MIC (mg.mL ⁻¹)	MBC (mg.mL ⁻¹)	Remarks
<i>S. aureus</i>	0.51	1.04	Sensitive gram-positive bacterium
<i>E. faecalis</i>	1.00	2.00	Moderate sensitivity
<i>E. coli</i>	2.12	4.32	Typical gram-negative resistance
<i>P. aeruginosa</i>	4.67	8.00	High intrinsic resistance
<i>C. albicans</i>	1.00	2.00	Moderate antifungal activity

3.6. Cytotoxic activity of EO

Cytotoxicity was evaluated using the MTT assay after 48 h exposure and EO showed dose-dependent against HeLa cells with an IC₅₀ of 182 ± 12 µg.mL⁻¹, while HEK-293 exhibited a significantly higher 522 ± 30 µg.mL⁻¹, yielding a selectivity index approximately 2.9. The standard anticancer drug doxorubicin, used as a positive control, exhibited IC₅₀ values of 1.9 ± 0.2 µg.mL⁻¹ for HeLa cells and 3.8 ± 0.4 µg.mL⁻¹ in HEK-293, confirming assay sensitivity and validating the observed cytotoxic trends. HeLa demonstrated higher sensitivity with an IC₅₀ 182 ± 12 µg.mL⁻¹, while HEK-293 exhibited 522 ± 30 µg.mL⁻¹. These obtained results indicated the moderate cytotoxicity toward tumor cells and low toxicity level against normal. The selectivity index (SI ≈ 2.9), obtained by dividing IC₅₀ (HEK-293 and HeLa), showed that EO was roughly three times more cytotoxic to HeLa than HEK-293 cells. This selectivity suggested a favorable safety profile and potential in anticancer investigation. The survival curve for HeLa declined sharply after 150 µg.mL⁻¹, approaching 50 % viability near 182 µg.mL⁻¹, while HEK-293 maintained greater resistance until higher concentrations, consistent with IC₅₀ results.

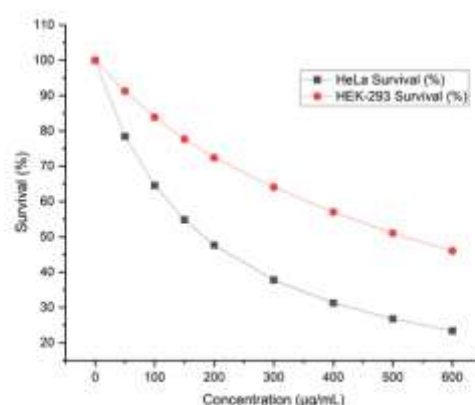


Fig 4. Curve cell survival (%) of HeLa and HEK-293 lines after 48 h exposure to essential oils (3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyl tetrazolium bromide assay).

3.7. SEM assessment

Based on Figure 5, SEM observations obtained in this study are close agreement by earlier reports describing morphological damage and membrane disruption of bacterial cells following treatment with monoterpene-rich EOs. The deformation, rupture and collapse of *S. aureus* cells observed here were typical manifestations for terpene-induced structural damage, a mechanism widely documented in EOs dominated by limonene, α -pinene and linalool.

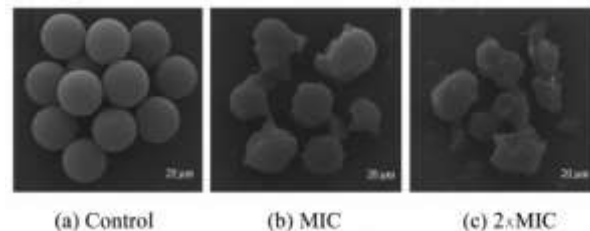


Fig 5. Scanning electron microscopy observations of *S. aureus* morphology essential oils.

4. Discussion

Hydrodistillation yielded EO within the expected range for aromatic Apiaceae plants; however, the moderate yield (~0.8 %) reflected the volatility-biased nature of steam-mediated processes, which preferentially extract low-boiling monoterpenes while partially degrading thermolabile sesquiterpenes and oxygenated compounds at ~100 °C (Cebi and Erarslan, 2023). Recent studies (2023-2025) confirm that such thermal exposure reduces sesquiterpene retention by 15-30 % compared with low-temperature extraction techniques (El Housse et al. 2025). Supercritical CO₂ extraction, by contrast, enhances recovery through density-driven solvation under oxygen-free and sub-thermal conditions, preserving oxygenated monoterpenes and bioactive

sesquiterpenes (Cebi and Erarslan, 2023). Comparable improvements (1.3-1.6, fold yield increase) have been reported for *Rosmarinus officinalis*, *Ferula communis*, and *Thymus* species using CO₂ pressures above 250 bar (Iram et al. 2025). Soxhlet extraction yielded the lowest volatile EO fraction, consistent with bias toward non-volatile lipophilic metabolites such as waxes and coumarins, which may contribute to bioactivity but are not reflected in GC-MS volatile profiles (Chavez-Esquivel et al. 2025). Hydrodistillation was selected as the main extraction method due to standardization, reproducibility, and effectiveness in isolating volatile monoterpene-rich fractions, which were the primary contributors to the EO chemical profile and bioactivity (Mashhadi-Sharif et al. 2025). Although Supercritical CO₂ extraction yielded a higher total oil content, the study focused on volatile monoterpenes defining the chemotype; hydrodistillation thus ensured direct comparability with existing literature while providing adequate quantities for all biological assays (Cebi and Erarslan, 2023).

The monoterpene-rich chemotype observed, dominated by limonene and α -pinene is characteristic of *Ferulago* species from arid and semi-arid regions, where biosynthetic flux favors isoprenoid hydrocarbons over phenylpropanoids (Keivanfar et al. 2025). Mechanistically, monoterpene hydrocarbons exert antimicrobial activity primarily through membrane destabilization, increasing permeability, ion leakage, and respiratory dysfunction in microbial cells (Pidlisnyuk et al. 2025). Oxygenated monoterpenes such as linalool further enhance activity by increasing polarity and facilitating hydrogen bonding with membrane proteins, explaining synergistic effects observed in mixed EO systems (Soares-Santos et al. 2025).

The moderate antioxidant activity (stronger in ABTS and FRAP than DPPH assays) is consistent with current understanding that non-phenolic monoterpenes favor electron-transfer mechanisms rather than hydrogen-donation pathways (Moghaddam et al. 2018). ABTS and FRAP assays capture both lipophilic and hydrophilic reducing capacity, whereas DPPH selectively favors phenolic antioxidants (Pidlisnyuk et al. 2025). Recent comparative analyses (2024-2025) report that limonene and pinene-rich EOs typically show 2-3-fold lower DPPH activity than phenolic-rich oils, yet maintain comparable ABTS/FRAP responses (Ezzariga et al. 2025).

Although MTT assays indicated moderate cytotoxicity and selectivity, further mechanistic evaluation, including apoptosis, cell cycle arrest, reactive oxygen species (ROS) production, and mitochondrial dysfunction, is necessary to elucidate the molecular pathways by which

F. angulata EO exerts antiproliferative effects (Wang et al. 2024).

Preliminary literature supports that monoterpenes such as limonene, α -pinene, and linalool mediate intrinsic apoptosis and oxidative stress in cancer cells, suggesting that observed selectivity toward HeLa cells may reflect specific pathway modulation rather than general cytotoxicity (Jamunkar et al. 2025; Othman et al. 2025; Sharifi-Rad et al. 2017). Similar selectivity indices (SI $\approx$ 2-4) were reported for *Ferulago* and *Ferula* species in recent in-vitro models (Mashhadi-Sharif et al. 2025). Overall, integrating extraction chemistry, compositional profiling, and mechanistic bioactivity supports the conclusion that *F. angulata* EO represents a functionally monoterpene-driven system, with biological effects arising from synergistic interactions rather than single dominant compounds. This aligns with contemporary EO research emphasizing chemotype-activity relationships over isolated constituent analysis (Amassmoud et al. 2023; Pidlisnyuk et al. 2025). In the present study, *F. angulata* EO showed strongest antibacterial activity against *S. aureus* with a MIC of 0.51 mg.mL⁻¹. According to CLSI guidelines and pharmacological references, gentamicin, ciprofloxacin, vancomycin and related antibiotics typically exhibit MIC values of 0.25-2 μ g.mL⁻¹ against *S. aureus* (Bakthavatchalam et al. 2024). Thus, EO is approximately 10²-10³ times less potent than purified antibiotics on a mass basis and this difference is expected and acceptable because: antibiotics are single, highly optimized molecules (Wang et al. 2024). EOs are complex multicomponent mixtures, typically active in the 0.1-10 mg.mL⁻¹ range. Indeed, MIC values between 0.3 and 5 mg.mL⁻¹ are widely reported for monoterpene-rich EOs against *S. aureus* (Nazzaro et al. 2019).

Recent studies increasingly recognize EOs as promising antimicrobial agents, either alone or as synergistic adjuncts to conventional antibiotics (Ezzariga et al. 2025; Pidlisnyuk et al. 2025). For example, *Thymus broussonnetii* EO exhibited strong antibacterial activity and synergistic effects with streptomycin and ciprofloxacin against resistant pathogens, confirming its potential against antimicrobial-resistant strains (Amassmoud et al. 2023). Likewise, a recent review emphasized EOs as valuable alternatives or complementary strategies in combating antimicrobial resistance and biofilm-associated infections, highlighting their multifaceted mechanisms and the limitations of conventional antibiotics (Sahu et al. 2024). Mechanistic investigations published in recent years have demonstrated that EO constituents disrupt bacterial cell membranes, increase permeability, cause leakage of intracellular components, induce ROS generation, and inhibit biofilm formation (Kaur et al. 2024). Such effects have been clearly demonstrated for basil, clove, and lemongrass EOs (Sahu et al. 2024). In the present study,

significantly lower MIC values observed against *S. aureus* compared with *P. aeruginosa* are consistent with this mechanistic framework and reflect the protective role of gram-negative outer membrane, which restricts penetration for hydrophobic terpenes. This differential susceptibility has been widely highlighted in recent literature (Ezzariga et al. 2025). Highly active EO chemotypes, particularly thyme and oregano-type oils, often exhibit MIC values below $1 \mu\text{L.mL}^{-1}$ and have been proposed for formulation-based strategies aimed at improving efficacy against gram-negative bacteria (Visan and Negut, 2024). Within this context, the antimicrobial performance of *F. angulata* EO can be considered moderately strong. The low MIC against *S. aureus* (0.50 mg.mL^{-1}) indicates promising potential for gram-positive pathogens, whereas the higher MIC values against gram-negative strains represent a well-recognized limitation of monoterpene-rich EOs. From an application perspective, these findings support the use of *F. angulata* EO in topical, wound-care, or food-packaging applications, or as part of combination therapies rather than as a stand-alone broad-spectrum antimicrobial.

The cytotoxic activity observed in this study aligns with numerous reports describing moderate anticancer potential of EOs, with IC_{50} values varying depending on chemical composition, plant source, and target cell line (Ezzariga et al. 2025). For example, *Moringa oleifera* seed EO exhibited IC_{50} values of $422.8 \mu\text{g.mL}^{-1}$ (HeLa), $226.1 \mu\text{g.mL}^{-1}$ (MCF-7), and $751.9 \mu\text{g.mL}^{-1}$ (HepG2), indicative of moderate activity (Visan and Negut, 2024). In comparison, the lower IC_{50} value obtained in the present study for HeLa cells ($182 \mu\text{g.mL}^{-1}$) suggests relatively greater potency. More pronounced cytotoxic effects have been reported for *Thymus vulgaris* and *Origanum vulgare* EOs, with IC_{50} values ranging from 7 to $35 \mu\text{g.mL}^{-1}$, largely attributed to their high phenolic content (Erenler et al. 2023; Yeddes et al. 2022).

Although markedly less potent than standard chemotherapeutic agents such as doxorubicin or cisplatin, which typically display sub- $10 \mu\text{g.mL}^{-1}$ IC_{50} values in HeLa cells (Freshney, 2015). EO meets accepted screening criteria for natural products, where IC_{50} values between 20 and $200 \mu\text{g.mL}^{-1}$ are considered indicative of moderate cytotoxic activity (Shoeb et al. 2014). Importantly, selectivity index ($\text{SI} \approx 2.9$) demonstrates preferential toxicity toward cancer cells relative to non-tumor HEK-293 cells. Since an $\text{SI} \geq 2$ is generally regarded as biologically meaningful for crude extracts and EOs (Fatehi et al. 2021), this selectivity suggests a favorable biological profile. The observed cytotoxicity is likely associated with monoterpenes such as limonene, α -pinene, and linalool, which have been reported to induce apoptosis, disrupt mitochondrial

function, and modulate oxidative stress-related pathways in cancer cells (Sharifi-Rad et al. 2017).

Morphological evidence further supports the proposed antimicrobial mechanism and recent SEM-based studies demonstrated that terpenes such as linalool and α -terpineol induce extensive cell wall collapse and pore formation, directly linking structural damage to enhance membrane permeability and cytoplasmic leakage (Elizabeth et al. 2025; Erenler et al. 2023). Consistent with these findings, SEM observations in the present study revealed progressive membrane deformation and severe rupture in *S. aureus* cells treated with the EO at MIC and $2 \times \text{MIC}$. Comparable membrane-disruptive effects have been reported for α -pinene and limonene-rich EOs, including rosemary and several *Ferulago* species, reinforcing the central role of monoterpene hydrocarbons in bacterial membrane destabilization (Erenler et al. 2023; Karakaya et al. 2018; Keivanfar et al. 2025; Phuong et al. 2023).

EOs act as complex mixtures, and the observed biological activities often arise from synergistic, additive, or antagonistic effects between constituents rather than single components alone (Amassmoud et al. 2023). Synergy can enhance antimicrobial and cytotoxic effects by facilitating membrane penetration, increasing permeability, or modulating oxidative stress, whereas antagonism may reduce efficacy if certain components interfere with each activity (Kaur et al. 2024; Sahu et al. 2024). In vitro testing of all possible binary or multicomponent combinations is resource-intensive, requiring checkerboard assays, isobolograms, or fractional inhibitory concentration indices, which was beyond the scope of the current study. Monoterpene hydrocarbons such as limonene and α -pinene are generally considered synergistic, enhancing microbial membrane disruption when combined with oxygenated monoterpenes like linalool (Pidlisnyuk et al. 2025; Soares-Santos et al. 2025).

p-Cymene itself is weakly active but can increase membrane fluidity, potentiating other terpene effects (Othman et al. 2025). β -Caryophyllene may act independently via anti-inflammatory or apoptosis-modulating pathways, with additive effects in cytotoxicity assays (Jamunkar et al. 2025).

5. Conclusion

The present study provides a comprehensive characterization of EO from *F. angulata*, revealing a monoterpene-rich chemotype dominated by limonene, α -pinene, linalool, p-cymene, and β -caryophyllene. GC-MS and FTIR analyses confirm the predominance of aliphatic and oxygenated terpenes, which are likely responsible for the observed biological activities. This evaluation demonstrated moderate antioxidant potential

by higher activity in ABTS and FRAP assays than DPPH, consistent with the presence of oxygenated monoterpenes (mechanistic insight). EO exhibited notable antibacterial efficacy, particularly against *S. aureus*, while gram-negative bacteria showed reduced susceptibility, typical for hydrophobic terpenoid compounds (comparative context). SEM analysis provided direct evidence of cell wall rupture, membrane deformation, and leakage, confirming that the primary antimicrobial mechanism involved membrane disruption (mechanistic insight). Cytotoxicity assays indicated dose-dependent antiproliferative effects, with selective toxicity toward cancerous (HeLa) compared to normal (HEK-293) cells (comparative context). Future directions include in vivo validation, synergy testing with antibiotics or chemotherapeutics, and formulation development to enhance stability, bioavailability, and practical applications. Overall, *F. angulata* EO represents a synergistic, monoterpene-driven system with promising potential as a natural antimicrobial and selective anticancer agent.

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