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1	Plant oils: From chemical composition to encapsulated form use
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19	Abbreviations
20	EO: Essential oil; VO: Vegetable oil; pNPs: Polymeric nanoparticles; SLN: Solid lipid
21	nanoparticles; EE%: Encapsulation efficiency; HLB: Hydrophilic lipophilic balance; SUV:
22	Small unilamellar vesicles; LUV: Large unilamellar vesicles; MLV: Multilamellar vesicles;
23	NLC: Nanostructured lipid carriers; MIC: Minimum inhibitory concentration; AUC: Area
24	under the curve.

25 Abstract

The last decade has witnessed a burgeoning global movement towards essential and 26 27 vegetable oils in the food, agriculture, pharmaceutical, cosmetic, and textile industries thanks to their natural and safe status, broad acceptance by consumers, and versatile functional 28 29 properties. However, efforts to develop new therapy or functional agents based on plant oils have met with challenges of limited stability and/or reduced efficacy. As a result, there has been 30 increased research interest in the encapsulation of plant oils, whereby the nanocarriers serve as 31 32 barrier between plant oils and the environment and control oil release leading to improved efficacy, reduced toxicity and enhanced patient compliance and convenience. In this review, 33 special concern has been addressed to the encapsulation of essential and vegetable oils in three 34 35 types of nanocarriers: polymeric nanoparticles, liposomes and solid lipid nanoparticles. First, 36 the chemical composition of essential and vegetable oils was handled. Moreover, we gather together the research findings reported by the literature regarding the different techniques used 37 38 to generate these nanocarriers with their significant findings. Finally, differences and similarities between these nanocarriers are discussed, along with current and future applications 39 that are warranted by their structures and properties. 40

41 Key words: Essential oil, vegetable oil, encapsulation, polymeric nanoparticle, liposome, solid
42 lipid nanoparticle.

43 Graphical abstract



45 **1. Introduction**

The last decade has evidently witnessed a tremendous surge in the use of herbal 46 medicine as a form of complementary or replacement therapy (Mainardi et al., 2009). The 47 global acceptance and public concern in the use of herbal medicines, phytonutrients or 48 nutraceuticals continue to assume exponential increase. It has been estimated that up to 80% of 49 people worldwide relying on them as a primary source of healthcare (Ekor, 2013). This concern 50 51 in drugs of natural origin is related to numerous reasons, namely, the traditional medicine is more affordable, closer to the patient's ideology and receives greater public access than 52 53 chemical synthesized treatment. Furthermore, abusive and/or incorrect use of conventional medicines results in some cases in harmful side effects (Wachtel-Galor and Benzie, 2011). The 54 use of aromatic and medicinal plants is incessantly expanding due to increasing consumers 55 56 demand and concern in these plants for several applications. In fact, consumers are becoming 57 more and more aware of the benefits of inherent practice of medicinal and aromatic plants and their metabolites (Chikezie et al., 2015; Rates, 2001). These plants produce a large variety of 58 59 secondary metabolites; among them, essential and vegetable oils deserve particular attention (Dhifi et al., 2016; Kumar et al., 2016; Pandey et al., 2016; Yara-Varón et al., 2017). 60

Essential oils (EO) comprised volatile and semi-volatile organic compounds determining the 61 specific aroma, flavor and fragrance of plants. They are volatile and instable at room-62 temperature. In the other hand, vegetable oils (VO) consist of esters of glycerol and fatty acids 63 64 and are nonvolatile and stable at room temperature (Moghaddam and Mehdizadeh, 2017; Sagiri et al., 2016). Besides being edible in their refined or virgin form, VO play a crucial role in 65 therapeutic and prophylactic prevention of diseases such as inflammation, diabetes, cancer and 66 67 atherosclerosis (Ganesan et al., 2018; Kochikuzhyil et al., 2010; Saha and Ghosh, 2011; Yu et al., 2004). Subsequently, EO received significant attention in food, agricultural and 68 pharmaceutical fields due to their antioxidant, antibacterial, antiviral and antifungal properties. 69

70 The diverse health benefits associated with the consumption of EO constitute an area of intense research (Ali et al., 2015; Dhifi et al., 2016; Elshafie and Ippolito, 2017). Meantime, the benefits 71 linked to these bioactive agents is generally hampered by several obstacles. For instance, the 72 73 oxidation is the main problem limiting the use of VO in several fields. The unsaturated fatty acids present in VO lead to increase the risk of lipid oxidation which in turn result in producing 74 numerous free radical species, primary oxidation products such as lipid hydroperoxides and 75 76 secondary oxidation products such as hydrocarbons, epoxides, ketones and aldehydes that negatively impact aroma. Moreover, VO oxidation can generate toxic products that can largely 77 78 affect biological tissues (Chen et al., 2011; Matthäus, 2010). At the same time, numerous studies have evidenced that EO are unstable and degraded easily if they are not protected from 79 external factors like oxidation, volatilization, heat and light (Turek and Stintzing, 2013). 80 81 Besides all these, the low water solubility, low permeation and low bioavailability of plant oils 82 in biological fluids and tissues constitute other factors that limit their rational use (Dima et al., 2020; Rein et al., 2013). Therefore, designing suitable carriers by using nanoencapsulation 83 approach is crucial to overcome restrictions outlined (El-Asbahani et al., 2015; Sagiri et al., 84 2016). Hoyos-leyva et al. (2019) revealed that the encapsulation of almond oil in starch 85 microcapsules conferred more protection against oxidation when compared to unencapsulated 86 oil. Similar results were already reported when investigating the stability of linseed, jasmine 87 and holy basil oils-loaded nanoparticles against heat, oxidation and volatilization as compared 88 89 to the free oils (Lv et al., 2014; Rubilar et al., 2012; Sutaphanit and Chitprasert, 2014). Moreover, several studies have evidenced the amelioration of plant oils biological performance 90 after being incorporated in nanosystems. Alaarg et al. (2016) depicted that the encapsulation of 91 92 docosahexaenoic acid in liposomes improve its anticancer activity. Zhaveh et al. (2015) related the superior performance of Cuminum cyminum EO nanogels against Aspergillus flavus as 93 compared to the free oil to the increased surface area of the nanoparticles. 94

Depending on the preparation method, nanocarriers can be mainly classified into two 95 main groups: polymer-based nanocarriers and lipid-based nanocarriers. Among the several 96 colloidal systems investigated in drug delivery, polymeric nanoparticles (pNPs), liposomes and 97 98 solid lipid nanoparticles (SLN) gained more interest (Allen and Cullis, 2013; El-say and Elsawy, 2017; Geszke-Moritz and Moritz, 2016; Immordino et al., 2006; Mehnert and Mäder, 99 2012; Rani et al., 2017). In this context, the present review covers literature data summarizing 100 the current development of nanocarrier systems for plant oils delivery with a focus on the main 101 properties and preparation technique of pNPs, liposomes and SLN. In addition, the chemical 102 103 composition of both essential and vegetable oils along with the emerging and potential applications of plant oils loaded nanocarriers in several fields were explored. 104

105 2. Chemical composition of vegetable oils

Vegetable oils, also named non-essential or fixed oils, are fats usually extracted from
plant seeds (e.g., soybean oil, rapeseed oil, sesame oil etc.), or less often from other parts of
fruits (e.g., olive oil, palm oil etc.), by simple pressing and/or solvent extraction process (YaraVarón et al., 2017). Depending on the origin, the crop, the season, and the producing methods,
their composition is highly variable and complex (Lligadas et al., 2010).

111 **2.1. Triglycerides**

The main components of VO are triglycerides; they represent 95 to 98% of the global 112 constituents depending on the source of oil (Yara-Varón et al., 2017). The word 'oil' hereby 113 114 refers to triglycerides that are liquid at room temperature (Guner et al., 2006). Triglycerides are composed of three fatty acid molecules esterified to one glycerol molecule, as demonstrated in 115 Fig. 1 (Miao et al., 2014). Depending on the saturation degree of fatty acids, triglycerides are 116 117 classified into saturated, mono- and poly-unsaturated fatty acids. The characteristics of VO depend on several parameters including; i) fatty acid chain length, ii) the degree of unsaturation, 118 and iii) the stereochemistry of the double bonds (Meier et al., 2007). Additionally, varieties in 119

- 120 climatic, agronomic and cultivation may engender difference in fatty acid composition of
- 121 triglycerides (Yara-Varón et al., 2017).







Fig. 1. Triglycerides composition of different vegetable oils.

124 **2.2. Minor Components**

Apart of triglycerides, VO contain also a diversity of non-triglyceride minor compounds (less than 5%) which present crucial biological properties and nutritional values for nutraceutical and pharmaceutical industries (**Fig. 2**) (Yara-Varón et al., 2017). They comprised two types: glycerolipids including monoglycerides, diglycerides and phospholipids; and nonglycerolipids such as tocopherols/tocotrienols, sterols, free fatty acids, pigments, vitamins, phenolic compounds, proteins and water (Xenakis et al., 2010).







Fig. 2. Minor components of vegetable oils.

133 **3.** Chemical composition of essential oils

Essential oils are oily aromatic liquids extracted from different plant organs as 134 secondary metabolites like, leaves (eucalyptus, thym, salvia), zest (citrus), flowers (lavender, 135 rose, jasmine), fruits (citrus), seeds (sesame), roots (ginger) and wood (sandal) (El-Asbahani et 136 al., 2015). The EO are generally complex mixtures of individual aroma compounds. Even they 137 are not strictly oils, they are poorly soluble in water (Calo et al., 2015). In last decades, 138 innovative methods have been emerged to extract EO from plant raw materials (Boukroufa et 139 140 al., 2015; Gavahian et al., 2015; Sodeifian et al., 2016; Zermane et al., 2016). The constituents of plant EO comprise mainly four main groups: terpenes, phenylpropanoids, straight-chain 141 compounds and miscellaneous groups. 142

143 **3.1.** Terpenes

Terpenes are the most abundant compounds found in plant EO (Chizzola, 2013). They
are synthesized via the mevalonic acid pathway in the cytoplasm of plant cells (Morsy, 2017).

146 Terpene compounds can be divided into two main categories: terpene hydrocarbons and147 oxygenated compounds (Moghaddam and Mehdizadeh, 2017).

148 **3.1.1. Terpenes hydrocarbon**

The essential building block of terpenes is the isoprene unit joined in a head-to-tail 149 manner. Basing on the number of isoprene units, different terpenes can be found in EO, as 150 demonstrated in Fig. 3 (El-Asbahani et al., 2015; Morsy, 2017). Terpenes hydrocarbons are the 151 first main group of components composed completely of carbon and hydrogen atoms and varied 152 significantly in size and complexity (Moghaddam and Mehdizadeh, 2017). Monoterpenes and 153 154 sesquiterpenes are the dominant terpenes found in plant EO. They are built up by two and three isoprene units, respectively. These terpenes could present acyclic, cyclic or aromatic structures. 155 Cyclic terpenes can be classified depending on their ring size into monocyclic, bicyclic or 156 157 tricyclic terpenes (Table 1). These compounds oxidize rapidly due to their fast reaction to heat 158 and air sources (George et al., 2015). Diterpenes result by the combination of four isoprene units in a head-to-tail manner; they are essential constituents of plant resins (Langenheim, 159 2003). Commonly, diterpenes, triterpenes and tetraterpenes are present in EOs at a very low 160 concentration. Their content may vary with the extraction method (Morsy, 2017). 161

162 **3.1.2.** Terpenoids

163 Terpene can be changed by adding functional groups and become terpenoid. When a 164 monoterpene or a sesquiterpene has a functional group added to it, it is known as a 165 monoterpenoid or sesquiterpenoid; respectively. The suffix "oid" means "derived from" or 166 "like" therefore "terpenoid" can refer to all molecules with a terpene-like structure 167 (Moghaddam and Mehdizadeh, 2017). They are classified into carboxylic acids, alcohols, 168 aldehydes, esters, ethers, ketones, phenols, lactones, oxides, etc.



169 170

Fig. 3. Composition of terpenes.

171 **3.2.** Phenylpropanoid

This class of compounds, derived from phenylpropene, is synthesized from the amino acid phenylalanine and l-tyrosine via the shikimic acid pathway. Their name is derived from the aromatic phenyl group and the propene tail. The propyl side chain may contain hydroxyl or carboxyl group; while the aromatic ring may carry methoxy, hydroxyl and methylene dioxy groups (Morsy, 2017). Phenylpropanoids give a specific flavor and odor to the plant when they are present (Moghaddam and Mehdizadeh, 2017). Eugenol and cinnamaldehyde are example of this group of constituents (**Fig. 4**).

179 **3.3. Straight-chain compounds**

This group contains only straight-chain compounds, not containing any side branches. They range from n-heptane, to compounds with 35 carbon atoms. The leaf alcohol (3(Z)-hexenl-ol) (**Fig. 4**) represents an example of this class; it gives an intense grassy-green odor upon cutting green grass and leaves (Morsy, 2017).

184 **3.4. Miscellaneous group**

They issue from the degradation of unsaturated fatty acids, lactones, terpenes, glycosides and represent sulfur- and nitrogen-containing compounds. Diallyl disulfide and indole are example of this class of compounds (**Fig. 4**) (Morsy, 2017).





Fig. 4. Examples of phenylpropanoids, straight chain compounds and miscellaneous groups.

191 4. Limitation in clinical use of plant oils

Since ancient times, EO have been recommended all over the world for a variety of 192 health problems and diseases (Moghaddam and Mehdizadeh, 2017). Enormous studies have 193 investigated the biological properties of EO, including antimicrobial, antifungal (Ceole et al., 194 2017; Garcia-Rellán et al., 2016), antiviral (Zeghib et al., 2017), insecticidal (Chen et al., 2016; 195 Jassbi et al., 2017), antioxidant (Hassanen et al., 2015; Limaverde et al., 2017), anticancer 196 (Carneiro et al., 2017; Thakre et al., 2016), antidiabetic (Tahir et al., 2016), anti-inflammatory 197 (Chansang et al., 2018; Nonato et al., 2012), antihypertensive (Cherkaoui-Tangi et al., 2016) 198 and immunomodulatory (Orhan et al., 2016; Ozek et al., 2017). In medical field, EO have been 199 used against nosocomial infections, as a cleaning liquid for disinfection of medical equipment 200 201 and surfaces (Warnke et al., 2009) or as an aerosol in operating blocks and waiting rooms for air cleaning to limit contaminations (De Billerbeck, 2007). The application of EO has emerged 202 to food and agriculture fields. They are used as antioxidants and preservatives in food 203 (Khosravi, 2013; Pandey et al., 2016), as plant and crop protectants (Abdullah et al., 2018) and 204 incorporated into foodstuff packaging (Ribeiro-Santos et al., 2017). 205

In the other side, VO is a source of everlasting components which are responsible of 206 pertinent biological properties. Many of the fatty acids and other compounds present in VO 207 have long been known to benefit our health. Numerous experimental studies approved that a 208 209 dietary intake of omega-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids can reduce inflammation and may prevent the risk of chronic diseases like heart disease, cancer, and arthritis (Gammone et al., 2019; 210 Hardman and Fakas, 2016; Kris-Etherton et al., 2003). In addition, polyphenols, medium chain 211 212 fatty acids and tocopherol present in some VO were the reason of their antioxidant and antistress activities (Duthie et al., 2016; Yaep et al., 2015). Current animal studies have indicated that 213 214 palmitic acid had a potent antiviral property against HIV-1 and HIV-2 (Özçelik et al., 2005). Linoleic and oleic acids were considered as effective antibacterial agents (Dilika et al., 2000). 215 Further experimental studies highlighted other biological benefits of VO such as anti-216 217 inflammatory (Hsu and Parthasarathy, 2017), analgesic and antipyretic (Intahphuak et al., 2010), hypolipidemic (Ali and El-Anany, 2017), antibacterial (Tabassum and Vidyasagar, 218 2014), antiviral (Orhan et al., 2011), hepatoprotective and gastroprotective properties (Cheng 219 et al., 2015). 220

In the pharmaceutical field, plant oils entered in the composition of many dosage forms 221 through several pathways, including the cutaneous route (creams, ointments, massage oils, 222 gels), the oral route (tablets, syrup, capsules), the rectal route (suppositories) and the pulmonary 223 route (aerosols, nasal drops, sprays) (El-Asbahani et al., 2015). Despite that, the preparations 224 225 based on plant oil have some important constraints. The VO oral delivery is always confronted to their low solubility in biological fluids, low permeation and poor bioavailability because of 226 their possible oxidation in the gastrointestinal tract (Márquez-Ruiz et al., 2008). For instance, 227 228 Kanner and Lapidot (2001) suggested that the adsorbed oxygen and low pH of the human gastric fluid may enhance the oxidation of VO in the presence of catalysts found in foods. 229 Moreover, it was reported that hydroperoxide resulted from the hydrolysis of triacylglycerol 230

contained in VO by pancreatic lipase are not likely to be absorbed in their intact form (Suomelaet al., 2004).

Additionally, the toxicity and irritation effects of EO on the oesophageal and gastro 233 234 intestinal mucosa limit also their uses. EO could be the reason of potential allergic reactions of the skin if they are undiluted or insufficiently diluted (Pedro et al., 2013; Warshaw et al., 2015). 235 For instance, applying excessive amounts of cinnamaldehyde rich-EO to a large surface of the 236 skin can result in significant allergic reaction and anaphylactic shock, which in turn may be 237 fatal (Diba and Statham, 2003). Some oils like those extracted from cumin, bergamot, verbena 238 239 and lemon can cause photosensitization and induce malignant skin changes like redness, itching, burns, hyperpigmentation, pigmentary changes or berloque dermatitis (Zammit, 2010). 240 Moreover, the high volatility and the high risk of deterioration of EO upon their direct exposure 241 242 to heat, humidity, light, or oxygen discourages their free use, *i.e.* without a pharmaceutical 243 vehicle (Turek and Stintzing, 2013). Therefore, the nanoncapsulation has been considered as a key to overcome the mentioned limitations (El-Asbahani et al., 2015; Sagiri et al., 2016). 244

Encapsulation strategies help in converting oils into several dosage forms including, liquid, solid or semi-solid dosage forms and thus enables retention of their activity for longer periods of time (Sagiri et al., 2016). Nanocarriers protect plant oils from environmental factors such as pH, oxygen, light etc., serving as barrier between the molecule and the environment. They also shield the oils from oxidative degradation, evaporation and photo-degradation (Bilia et al., 2014). Their ability to control oil release confers improved efficacy, reduced toxicity, improved patient compliance and convenience (El-Asbahani et al., 2015; Zhao et al., 2017).

252 5.

5. Plant oils-loaded nanodelivery systems

Nanodelivery systems is an area of intense research as they provide a number of benefits for therapy, such as (i) high drug efficacy, specificity and tolerability, (ii) sustained and controlled release of drugs (iii) less risk of toxicity (iv) deep tissue diffusion due to the nanometric size, and (iv) protection of drugs at both extracellular and intracellular levels (Bilia
et al., 2014; Kumari et al., 2010). In this paper, we highlighted the different experimental
strategies designed to encapsulate plants oils into two main groups of organic nanocarriers;
polymer based-nanocarriers (including polymeric nanoparticles) and lipid based-nanocarriers
(including liposomes and solid lipid nanoparticles).

261 5.1. Encapsulation in polymer-based nanocarriers

Polymeric nanoparticles (pNP) are submicronic core-shell spherical systems prepared 262 from natural or synthetic polymers (Mattheolabakis et al., 2012). Depending on the nanoparticle 263 264 preparation process, nanocapsule or nanosphere can be obtained. Nanospheres have a matrixlike form in which the drug is evenly distributed. Nanocapsules are, however, vesicular 265 structures in which the drug is confined in an inner core surrounded by a polymeric membrane 266 267 (Crucho and Barros, 2017) (Fig. 5). Many polymers were used for this purpose, notably, biodegradable polyesters like poly(lactide-co-glycolide), polylactide and poly (*\varepsilon*-caprolactone) 268 were widely used (Froiio et al., 2020). Recently, pNP are extensively studied for plant oil 269 270 delivery in view of their ability to entrap and protect oils, biodegradability, bioavailability and their high stability. The plant oil may be conjugated with the polymer (matrix or wall) or 271 entrapped in the oily core (Bilia et al., 2014). Several methods have been reported for 272 developing pNP while the nanoprecipitation, the ionic gelation, the emulsification/solvent 273 evaporation and spray drying methods, are extensively used and Fig. 5 demonstrates the 274 275 principle of each technique.







278

279 **5.1.1. Spray drying**

Spray-drying technique has been used for decades to encapsulate plant oils in micro-280 and nano polymeric particles. It is based on the conversion of an infeed (solution, emulsion or 281 282 suspension) into a dry powder in a single and continuous step. With respect to the encapsulation of plant oil, oil in water emulsion was atomized into fine drops in a drying chamber where hot 283 air is passed (150-250°C). A fast evaporation of water occurred leading to the instantaneous 284 285 formation of powder (Fig.5.d) (Encina et al., 2016; Matos et al., 2019). Spray drying technique is extensively used to encapsulate both essential and vegetable oils in micro and nanoparticles, 286 as illustrated in Table 1. 287

Regarding the particle size and the encapsulation efficiency (EE%) of the particles 288 produced by spray drying technique, high average diameter with moderate oil entrapment 289 amount have been reported by numerous work studies, as depicted in Table 1. Hoyos-leyva et 290 291 al. (2019) reported that almond oil loaded taro starch particles had an average size ranging from 1.4 to 31.1µm with an EE% of 37.5%. In addition, De-Oliveira et al. (2014) found that Lippia 292 sidoides EO loaded alginate : cashew gum nanoparticles exhibited a spherical shape with size 293 ranging from 223 to 399 nm, zeta potential values in range of -30 to -36 mV and EE% of about 294 50 %. In another work, the same EO was encapsulated in chitosan : cashew gum based 295 296 nanoparticles owning an EE% of 70% with an average particle sizes in the range 335-558 nm (Abreu et al., 2012). Furthermore, the mixture maltodextrin : soy protein was used to 297 encapsulate walnut oil and the resultant particles showed an average diameter of 4 to 10 µm 298 299 with an EE% equal to 60% (González et al., 2016).

300 The main feature of spray drying method is the formation of special particles. Indeed, the scanning electron microscopy carried by Tonon et al. (2011) on flaxseed oil loaded 301 302 microparticles revealed the formation of hollow particles, i.e. particles with concave and shriveled surfaces. Same images were found by Gallardo et al. when visualizing linseed oil-303 loaded gum arabic microcapsules. They ascribed this form to vacuoles formation inside the 304 particles after the crust development. The magnitude of this process is inversely related to solid 305 concentration in the emulsion (Gallardo et al., 2013). Moreover, Wang et al. (2018) carrying 306 307 out confocal scanning laser microscopy on peony seed oil microparticles stated that the spray dried particles had a complete core-shell structure with smooth surface and no apparent fissures 308 or cracks. 309

In vitro release profile of plant oils from particles prepared by spray drying technique generally exhibit a controlled manner. In a study carried out by De-Oliveira et al. (2014) the nanoparticles have reached a level of maximal release around 30–50 h. In that time, the content of *Lippia sidoides* EO from alginate : cashew gum particles varied from 45 and 95% depending on the ratio of used polymers. Higher and faster release rate was achieved with high amount of cashew gum due to its greater hydrophilic character which allows greater diffusion of EO through the polymeric wall. Conversely, a smaller and more controlled release was assessed when increasing alginate content; after 50h, only 45% of oil was released. This was related to the formation of compact network which in turn slow down the diffusion of EO to the external medium (De-Oliveira et al., 2014).

Particles produced by spray drying process provides a high stability for encapsulated oils. In this context, Hoyos-leyva et al. (2019) investigated the oxidative stability of almond oil before and after encapsulation into taro starch microcapsules. They found that these systems conferred more protection against oxidation when compared to unencapsulated almond oil due to the relatively reduced porosity of the material, which in turn limits the exposure of the oil to stress conditions during storage.

Several parameters have to be taken into consideration to efficiently entrap plant oils in 326 polymeric micro- and nanoparticles by spray drying technique. The influence of type and 327 amount of wall material on plant oils-loaded particles characteristics has been extensively 328 studied in the literature (Bae and Lee, 2008; Chin et al., 2018; Gallardo et al., 2013; 329 Laohasongkram et al., 2011; Lozano et al., 2012; Rodea-gonzález et al., 2012; Rubilar et al., 330 2012; Shamaei et al., 2017). Carneiro et al. (2013) investigated the microencapsulation of 331 332 flaxseed oil by spray drying technique. They studied the potential of maltodextrin mixed with different wall materials: arabic gum, whey protein concentrate and two types of modified starch 333 (Hi-Cap 100TM and Capsul TA) on droplets size. Results showed that the highest viscosity 334 335 presented by maltodextrin : arabic gum emulsion implies a higher resistance to droplets movement, thus preventing coalescence and leading to smaller droplets size. Shamaei et al. 336 (2017) related the differences in the mean droplet size of the emulsions using different wall 337

material to the surface activity and molecular weight of wall material constituents. They found 338 that as the ratio of tween 80 to skim milk powder increases, the mean droplet size decreases. 339 This in turn was attributed to the fact that tween 80 mitigated droplet coalescence and Ostwald 340 ripening phenomena in the emulsion by reducing the surface tension and interfacial free energy 341 of the emulsion. In another study, emulsion droplet size was found to decrease as the ratio of 342 wall to core material increases due to the fact that at low ratio, there may not be enough coating 343 materials to cover the whole surface of the droplets in order to prevent them from coalescence 344 which in turn increases the droplet size (Rodea-gonzález et al., 2012). Same result was also 345 346 reported for chia seed oil-loaded microcapsules prepared by spray drying process (Laohasongkram et al., 2011). Moreover, Chew et al. (2018) spotlighted that adding β -347 cyclodextrin to the wall matrix increases the EE% of refined kenaf seed oil due to its host-guest 348 349 character. In fact, its interior cavity acts as a host which can fix the guest (hydrophobic oil), 350 while the exterior surface can bind with water or hydrophilic head of other wall materials. Furthermore, Us-medina and coworkers (2018) stated that adding chia mucilage to sodium 351 caseinate : maltodextrin wall matrix increases the EE% of chia seed oil from 71.26 to 86.65%. 352 They attributed this result to the fact that chia mucilage, used as thickener agent, increases the 353 viscosity of the system which in turn promotes a greater physical stability of the emulsion 354 during the spray drying process. 355

With respect to the oil content, Rubilar et al. (2012) revealed that increasing the oil concentration provokes a significant increase in droplet emulsion size and viscosity, which in turn reduces the EE% and increases the surface oil content of the powder leading to potential lipid oxidation. Similar result was already published (Tonon et al., 2012).

Air inlet temperature is another factor to take into account for the development of plant oil-loaded particles; and it was widely investigated in the literature (Frascareli et al., 2011; Laohasongkram et al., 2011; Roccia et al., 2014; Shamaei et al., 2017). Frascareli et al. (2011)

studied the encapsulation of coffee oil and observed that as the air flow temperature increases 363 the EE% decreases due to the fact that higher temperature leads to faster drying of the external 364 phase which creates cracks in the particle wall, resulting in oil loss. Moisture content is an 365 important variable for the shelf life of powders. It was reported that increasing the inlet 366 temperature reduced the moisture content (Mohammed et al., 2017). However, higher values 367 (more than 175 °C) resulted in an increase in moisture content due to the formation of rapid 368 crust which hampered the water evaporation leading to particles with more moisture content. 369 The particle size is another parameter which vary when modifying the air inlet temperature. In 370 371 2017, Mohammed and coworkers pointed out that an increased inlet air temperature produced larger-sized Nigella sativa EO particles and ascribed this result to the microcapsule structure. 372 Indeed, high temperature enable the particles to form early which in turn prevents the shrinkage 373 374 of particles during drying (Mohammed et al., 2017).

375 To sum up, despite of the high temperature required, the spray drying method is widely used to encapsulate either essential or vegetable oils. This was related to the fact that short time 376 of contact between hot air and plant oil occurred, and thus the evaporation happens between 15 377 and 30 seconds and takes place at the surface of the particle; hence, the oils never reach the 378 inlet temperature of drying gas (Fang and Bhandari, 2012). According to Table 1, natural 379 polymers like maltodextrin, gums and chitosan are the mostly used wall materials. Currently, 380 this technique is widely used in nutraceutical and food industry due to its benefits including i) 381 382 ease of scaling up, ii) simplicity, iii) low production costs, and iv) ability to produce microparticles facile to the transport and storage. Many drawbacks are associated to the use of 383 this process including the lack of uniformity; high particle size, low oil loading and possibility 384 385 of oil loss. Moreover, the wall material used must have good water solubility as most formulations used by the food industry are aqueous-based and simultaneously impart a suitable 386 viscosity in order to enable the drying process (Corrêa-Filho et al., 2019). 387

388 5.1.2. Emulsion evaporation

Emulsion evaporation method has been proposed by Vanderhoff and Asser (1979) to develop pNPs. In this process, an organic solution consisting of polymer and oil is emulsified with a non-solvent mixture under a high shear stress (e.g. by high-shear homogenization or ultrasonication). After that, the organic solvent is evaporated either by continuous magnetic stirring at room temperature or under reduced pressure leading to nanoparticles formation (**Fig.5.b**) (Rao and Geckeler, 2011; Rodríguez et al., 2016). This technique has been used to encapsulate both essential and vegetable oils in pNPs, as depicted in **Table 1**.

396 The emulsion evaporation technique produces nanoparticles with higher EE% and smaller average diameter, as compared to the spray drying technique. In this context, Gomes et 397 al. (2011a) reported a particle size of 179.3 and 173.8 nm with an EE% of 98 and 92% for 398 399 eugenol- and trans-cinnamaldehyde loaded poly (lactide-co-glycolide) nanoparticles, 400 respectively. Similarly, chia seed oil loaded nanoparticles using chia mucilage as wall material exhibited a small particle size (205 nm) with negative zeta potential (-11.58 mv) and high EE% 401 402 (82.8%) (Campo et al., 2017). Moreover, poly (lactide-co-glycolide) nanoparticles were prepared to encapsulate clove EO, rich in eugenol which has potent antimicrobial activities 403 (Privadarshini et al., 2018). The average size of the resultant nanoparticles was about 237 nm 404 with negative zeta potential of -40 mv and an EE% equal to 93%. 405

The nanoparticles prepared by emulsion evaporation process exhibited *in vitro* release pattern similar to that of particles produced by spray drying. In 2018, Priyadarshini et al. pointed out that *in vitro* cumulative clove EO release form poly (lactide-co-glycolide) nanoparticles followed a biphasic profile with an initial burst release at the first 4h due to the release of clove EO found near the nanoparticles surface (Priyadarshini et al., 2018). A cumulative amount of 75% was progressively released up to ~15 days. Similar *in vitro* release kinetics were governed by eugenol and trans-cinnamaldehyde from poly (lactide-co-glycolide) nanoparticles where 64 and 87% of the initial load was released in the medium within 72 h, respectively (Gomes et al.,
2011a).

The stability of the pNPs formulated by this technique was investigated in the literature. In 2017, Campo et al. studied the oxidation of chia seed oil by gas chromatography with flame ionization detector in both emulsions and chia seed mucilage based-nanoparticles at accelerated conditions $(40\pm1^{\circ}C)$ during 28 days of storage (Campo et al., 2017). No significant change was shown in term of particle size, zeta potential or polydispersity index. However, the fatty acid methyl esters content reduction in pNPs was smaller than in emulsions; therefore, the chia seed mucilage provided a high protection against oil oxidation (Campo et al., 2017).

With respect to the emulsification evaporation process, several parameters may affect 422 the nanoparticles properties. Freiberger et al. (2015) investigated the effect of polymer type 423 (poly(3-hydroxybutyrate-co-3-hydroxyvalerate)/polylactide); dispersion mechanism 424 (ultrasonication / high shear homogenization) and polymer : oil ratio on the average size and 425 oil recovery of biocompatible nanoparticles containing coffee oil. The statistical analysis 426 showed non-significant effect of the experimental factors on the nanoparticle size within the 427 experimental range. While for the coffee oil recovery, regression analysis produced a significant 428 429 model. Less oil was lost by volatilization when sonication was used, because the required dispersion time (3min) was smaller when compared to the ultraturrax time (10min). Results 430 showed also that less coffee oil loss was pronounced when using poly(3-hydroxybutyrate-co-431 3-hydroxyvalerate) combined to the high shear homogenization as well as using polylactide 432 combined with sonication. This was explained by the high viscosity of poly(3-433 hydroxybutyrate-co-3-hydroxyvalerate)-dichloromethane solution which could avoid oil 434 volatilization even with high shear homogenization (Freiberger et al., 2015). Regarding the 435 polymer:oil ratio, an increase in polymer amount lead to increase the viscosity of the solution 436 resulting in efficient oil protection from the heat generated by the homogenizer. 437

To sum up, the emulsification evaporation method can be used to encapsulate both essential and vegetable oils. Although it provides high EE%, this method is less used to encapsulate plant oils, as compared to the spray drying technique. The possible reason behind this is the possible coalescence of droplets during evaporation which may lead to polydisperse particles and the need for a high shear process.

443 5.1.3. Nanoprecipitation

Nanoprecipitation is a simple, fast and increasingly trending technique for nanoparticles preparation (Almoustafa et al., 2017). It was firstly reported by Fessi et al. (1989) and it is based on the interfacial deposition of polymers as a result of the displacement of a water miscible solvent from a lipophilic solution (**Fig.5.a**) (Miladi et al., 2016). This method has been widely used to encapsulate plants oils in pNPs and **Table 1** summarizes some work studies using the nanoprecipitation process to encapsulate either essential or vegetable oils during the last decade.

According to Table 1, the nanoparticles produced by nanoprecipitation process owned 451 small particle size, narrow distribution with high EE%. Ianniteli et al. (2011) developed 452 carvacrol loaded poly (lactide-co-glycolide) based-nanocapsules with a spherical shape, small 453 particle size (209.8 nm) and regular distribution (poly dispersibility index=0.26). Similarly, 454 Cymbopogon martini EO was efficiently entrapped in poly (E-caprolactone) based-455 nanoparticles with an average size of 282.1 nm, zeta potential equal to -27.2 mV and EE% of 456 457 about 99.54 % (Khoobdel et al., 2017). Furthermore, Babassu tree nut oil loaded- poly (lactideco-glycolide) nanoparticles exhibited an average diameter about 209.2 nm with a negative zeta 458 potential of -15.8 mV (Sousa et al., 2013). 459

In term of particle size, Esfandyari-Manesh and coworkers (2013) compared the nanoprecipitation to the emulsification solvent evaporation method to design carvone/anethole loaded poly (lactide-co-glycolide) nanoparticles and found that the particles produced by

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nanoprecipitation had smaller average diameter (158 and 126 nm for anethole and carvone, 463 respectively) and narrower size distribution (0.08). Additionally, the amount of carvone and 464 anethole were determined respectively by HPLC and UV analysis and results showed higher 465 466 oil loading for the particles produced by nanoprecipitation (14.73 and 12.32% for anethole and carvone, respectively). The authors related the low EO loading for the emulsification method 467 to its loss during the evaporation step which has taken a long time (about 3h). In addition, the 468 469 high particle diameter of the nanoparticles prepared by this method was attributed to the difficulty for the mutual dispersion of the phase which is viscous due to the presence of high 470 471 amount of oil and polymer.

According to the literature, to develop pNPs with suitable physicochemical properties, 472 numerous factors had to be taken into consideration. The polymer type and amount have a 473 474 critical effect on nanoparticles average size. In 2017, Khoobdel et al. (2017) developing poly 475 (*ɛ*-caprolactone) -based nanoparticles loaded with rosemary EO reported that increasing polymer quantity, leads in increasing the thickness of the particles shell and thus increasing 476 477 their mean diameter, instead of increasing their number. Moreover, low values of EE% were observed when using Eudragit L100 as polymer for the encapsulation of Siberian cedar seed 478 oil or free fatty acids due to its porous structure which enabled oil leakage (Averina and 479 Allémann, 2013). Regarding the type of the EO, Liakos et al. (2018) studied the influence of 480 EO chemical composition on the particle size of three types of pNPs: Peppermint, cinnamon 481 482 and lemongrass EOs loaded-cellulose acetate nanocapsules. The average size was increasing as follow: Cinnamon-pNPs <Peppermint-pNPs <Lemongrass pNPs. The larger pNPs were those 483 containing lemongrass EO, due to the presence of high percentage of geranial and neral which 484 485 have long carbon chains (~10 C atoms) leading to larger pNPs when attached to cellulose acetate. While, peppermint contains mainly 35% menthol and 27% menthone leading to the 486 creation of less uniform, complex and large nanoparticles. In the other hand, cinnamon EO 487

consists essentially of cinnamaldehyde which reacts with hydroxyl group of cellulose acetate 488 giving hemiacetal bound and hence combats the nanocapsules. Liakos and his coworkers 489 assessed also in their study higher zeta-potential upon increasing lemongrass EO concentration, 490 suggesting that some EO molecules are present onto the outer surface of the particles (Liakos 491 et al., 2018). Similarly, it was reported that the presence of lime EO decreased the zeta potential 492 and the values were 61.1 and 57.0 mV for free- and loaded- chitosan nanocapsules, respectively. 493 They attributed this result to the diminution of free NH₃⁺ groups of chitosan following their 494 interaction with lime EO (Sotelo-Boyás et al., 2017b). However, in another work study, the 495 496 presence of rosemary EO did not affect the zeta potential of poly (*\varepsilon*-caprolactone) nanoparticles which confirm its presence in the core of the nanoparticles instead of being adsorbed on their 497 surface (Khoobdel et al., 2017). 498

499 In term of surfactant type and amount, Badri et al. (2015) pointed out that the amount of polyvinyl alcohol used as surfactant had no significant effect on the average diameter of poly 500 (ɛ-caprolactone) nanoparticles but at higher concentration (more than 0.1mg/mL), a significant 501 502 increase was assessed due to the deposition of extra polyvinyl alcohol on the nanoparticle surface. Furthermore, it was reported that the use of span 20 instead of tween 20 gave smaller 503 rosemary EO-loaded nanocapsules, lower polydispersity index and limited loss of the oil during 504 the solvent evaporation step. In the presence of span 20, the hydrophilic lipophilic balance 505 (HLB) was between 12 and 15 (14.3), which was in the range of HLB necessary for rosemary 506 507 EO nanoemulsion stability (Ephrem et al., 2014). Furthermore, the effect of the ratio between organic and aqueous phase may affect the particle size. Indeed, an increase in argan oil loaded 508 nanoparticles was assessed when increasing the organic to aqueous phase ratio due to the slow 509 510 diffusion of the organic solvent (acetone) to water resulting slow polymer precipitation and thus, larger pNPs were obtained (Badri et al., 2015). 511

Regarding the effect of operating conditions, Badri et al. (2015) investigated the effect of 512 stirring speed and organic phase addition rate consisting of poly (*\varepsilon*-caprolactone), acetone, 513 argan oil, indomethacin and span20 on the physicochemical properties of the obtained pNPs. 514 515 Results revealed a decrease in particle size by increasing the stirring speed. While, it increases when decreasing the organic phase addition speed due to the difficulty to get a homogenous 516 mixture of phases. Furthermore, Ephrem et al. (2014) studied the influence of the evaporation 517 518 method on the pNPs properties and rosemary EO loss and found that the evaporation of acetone under normal pressure at room temperature was the best since it avoided heat and low pressure, 519 520 giving negligible loss of the encapsulated EO.

Recently, a novel form of pNPs was developed called lipid-core nanocapsules which is 521 composed of a mixture of oil and solid lipid surrounded by a polymeric wall (Ourique et al., 522 523 2010). For instance, the oily core of pNP may consist of a liquid lipid, a mixture of liquid lipids, or a mixture of liquid lipid and solid lipid. The latter concerns a specific form of nanocapsules 524 called lipid-core nanocapsules (Frank et al., 2015). Several research works have been already 525 published investigated the feasibility to entrap VO into lipid core NPs (Almeida et al., 2009; 526 Drozdek and Bazyli, 2016; Friedrich et al., 2008; Marchiori et al., 2017; Rigo et al., 2013; 527 Weber et al., 2016). In this context, nanoprecipitation technique was efficiently carried out to 528 develop borage oil : betamethasone co-loaded lipid-core nanocapsules with a mean size around 529 210 nm, negative zeta potential (-16.6mv), low polydispersity index (<0.05) and high EE% (up 530 531 to 100%) (Weber et al., 2016). Furthermore, Rigo et al. (2013) studied the influence of the type of VO on the release kinetic of clobetasol propionate, selected as model drug, from the lipid 532 core nanoparticles. Results revealed a biphasic drug release profiles for all the formulations. 533 534 After 168 h, the concentration of clobetasol propionate released from the formulation was in the following order: Sunflower oil-pNPs < Soybean oil-pNPs < Rice ban-pNPs. The authors 535 related these results to the consistency indices of the mixture oil : sorbitan monostearate, used 536

as solid lipid; and a greater control of the drug release was observed with higher consistencyindex of the VO-sorbitan monostearate.

Regarding the nanoparticles stability, Badri et al. (2018) investigated the stability of poly 539 (ɛ-caprolactone) based nanoparticles containing Nigella sativa EO coupled with indomethacin 540 during one month under three different conditions (4°C, 25°C and 40°C). The samples were 541 analyzed at predefined times and results demonstrated no significant change in either size or 542 zeta potential for all the tested particles. Similarly, the photodegradation study of the lipid-core 543 nanocapsules containing borage oil and betamethasone was carried out to demonstrate the 544 545 ability of nanocapsules in the photoprotection of the drug. In brief, nanoparticles suspensions were placed in transparent quartz cell and exposed to UVC radiation and the total concentration 546 of drug was quantified. Results revealed a degradation of 61% from the nanocapsules 547 548 suspension at the end of the experiment (10 h), while 58% of drug was degraded in 2 h from 549 drug solution. This confirmed the property of polymeric wall to protect the bioactive molecules (Weber et al., 2016). 550

551 Regarding the scalability and reproducibility of the nanoprecipitation process, it was 552 noticed no significant difference between rosemary EO loaded poly (ε-caprolactone) 553 nanocapsules prepared at small and large scales in term of shape, particle size, polydispersity 554 index zeta potential and EE% (Ephrem et al., 2014).

555 Overall, the nanoprecipitation or solvent displacement method is widely used to develop 556 pNPs for plants oils encapsulation. According to the **Table 1**, the polymers commonly used to 557 design the polymeric matrix are synthetic polyesters like poly (lactide-co-glycolide) 558 (Esfandyari-Manesh et al., 2013; Iannitelli et al., 2011; Sousa et al., 2013), poly (ε-559 caprolactone) (Badri et al., 2018; Christofoli et al., 2015; Ephrem et al., 2014; Jummes et al., 560 2020; Khoobdel et al., 2017), polylactide (Liakos et al., 2016), Eudragit[®]L100 (Averina and 561 Allémann, 2013), S100 (Averina and Allémann, 2013), L100-55 (Pina-Barrera et al., 2019) and

RS100 (El-Asbahani et al., 2015; Froiio et al., 2019). Synthetic polymers are more used than 562 natural ones like chitosan (Luque-Alcaraz et al., 2016; Sotelo-Boyás et al., 2015, 2017a, 2017b) 563 and cellulose derivatives (Liakos et al., 2018; Marchiori et al., 2017) because they have higher 564 purity and better reproducibility. The benefits associated to this encapsulation method are 565 rapidity, simplicity, reproducibility, and scalability. Moreover, NPs with narrow size 566 distribution, high EE% and high stability could be obtained. In addition, the use of surfactant 567 568 or high production energy is avoided. The main drawback of this method in encapsulating plant oils is the use of organic solvents which may be toxic for health. 569

570 5.1.4. Ionic gelation

In order to avoid the use of toxic organic solvent or high shear forces, Calco et al. (1997) 571 proposed a novel approach called ionic gelation or coacervation. Alginate, an anionic 572 573 polysaccharide, and chitosan, a cationic polyelectrolyte, are extensively used for ionic gelation purpose. These polyelectrolytes can interact with crosslinking agents like tripolyphosphate 574 having an opposite charge via electrostatic interaction and aggregate into nanoparticles (J. Yang 575 576 et al., 2015). The coacervation consists on the transition from liquid to gel state upon complexation between the oppositely charged molecules at determined pH values leading to 577 the formation of nano-sized particles (Nagavarma et al., 2012) (Fig.5.c). A number of studies 578 have been carried out using this technique to encapsulate plant oils, as displayed in Table 1. 579

Recently, cinnamon EO-loaded chitosan nanoparticles crosslinked 580 with 581 tripolyphosphate were prepared by using coacervation method and the obtained particles owned small average diameter (80-100 nm) with good zeta potential values (-11.2 to -22.4 mV) (Liu 582 et al., 2017). In addition, cardamom EO was successfully entrapped into chitosan based 583 584 nanoparticles with an average particle size ranging between 50 and 100 nm, zeta potential more than +50 mV and a high EE% which was more than 90% (Jamil et al., 2016). Furthermore, 585 Woranuch and his coworker (2013) reported that the thermal stability of eugenol was enhanced 586

by encapsulation in chitosan: tripolyphosphate- nanoparticles. According to some research
works depicted in Table 2, the ionic gelation technique may produce microparticles with
moderate EE% as compared to the nanoprecipitation process (Feyzioglu and Tornuk, 2016;
López-meneses et al., 2018; Sutaphanit and Chitprasert, 2014; Yang et al., 2014; K. Zhang et
al., 2012).

Currently, several research works have been reported to investigate the effect of pNPs 592 593 composition and operating conditions on physicochemical properties of particles prepared by ionic gelation method. The optimization of the type and amount of polymer and crosslinking 594 agent is crucial to develop pNPs with suitable characteristics. In this approach, Carum copticum 595 596 EO-loaded chitosan nanoparticles were prepared by ionic gelation method using two types of 597 crosslinking agents: tripolyphosphate and hexametaphosphate (Esmaeili and Asgari, 2015). The efficacy of crosslinking agent type and tripolyphosphate concentration on the EE% were 598 599 evaluated. The particles prepared using hexametaphosphate (0.5% (w/v)) had significantly lower loading capacity and EE% than those prepared using tripolyphosphate (0.5% (w/v)). This 600 601 was attributed to the ring structure and bigger size of hexametaphosphate which in turn lead to decrease the crosslinking phenomenon. In the same work, different nanoparticles were prepared 602 using different tripolyphosphate concentrations (0.25, 0.5, 0.75 and 1% (w/v)) and results 603 604 indicated that maximum EE% was obtained with the concentration of 0.5% (w/v). The low value of EE% obtained with the concentration of 0.25% (w/v) was explained by the shortage of 605 tripolyphosphate concentration to crosslink the nanoparticles; while the low values shown with 606 607 0.75 and 1% (w/v) tripolyphosphate concentrations were related to the particle shrinkage (Esmaeili and Asgari, 2015). 608

609 With respect to the polymer effect, the viscosity of chitosan was optimized for 610 fabrication of vanilla oil loaded microcapsules using the coacervation method (Yang et al., 611 2014). Results showed that at low chitosan viscosity, no microcapsules were formed because chitosan at low viscosity could not form hard membrane wall. On the other hand, when usinghigh viscosity chitosan, aggregation problem was observed (Yang et al., 2014).

Regarding the EO concentration, Hasheminejad et al. (2019) stated that both particle 614 size and zeta potential decreased significantly when increasing clove EO concentration. The 615 reduction in particle size was explained by the great packing of polymer chains, due to the high 616 number of amino groups in chitosan responsible for the interaction with the oil. Additionally, 617 the thermogravimetric analysis performed by Hosseini et al. (2013) on oregano EO loaded-618 chitosan nanoparticles demonstrated that as the initial EO content increases from 0.1 to 0.8 g/g619 chitosan, loading capacity increases too from 3 to 8%, but the EE% decreases from 47 to 21%. 620 621 This was explained by the saturation of oregano EO loaded into chitosan nanoparticles. The EO 622 concentration was found to affect also the in vitro release profile. Indeed, Hosseini and his coworkers reported that low concentration of oregano EO (0.1 g/g chitosan) leads to burst 623 release (82% of encapsulated EO was released from the nanoparticles within 3 h). While, as 624 oregano EO amount increased, the burst effect was dramatically alleviated and the cumulative 625 release was reduced from 82 to 12% after 3h. This phenomenon was attributed to the fact that 626 chitosan nanoparticles with smaller particle size would have bigger surface-to-volume ratio 627 which may result in fast release of oregano EO adsorbed on their surfaces (Hosseini et al., 628 629 2013). Another factor affecting the release profile was found to be the composition of the encapsulated material. In 2014, Dima et al. investigating the release of Pimenta dioica EO 630 found that chitosan microspheres covered with k-carrageenan are more fragile and exhibit 631 632 higher swelling degree with zero order release kinetics, as compared to the chitosan : kcarrageenan microspheres hardened by glutaraldehyde crosslinking which show non-Fickian 633 release mechanism (Dima et al., 2014). 634

Numerous research works noticed the stability of pNPs produced by ionic gelation
method. In 2014, Sutaphanit et al. reported that the encapsulation of holy basil EO into gelatin

by simple coacervation method could prevent its volatility and oxidation (Sutaphanit and
Chitprasert, 2014). Indeed, the particles stored under accelerated conditions at 60 °C for 49 days
exhibited small decreases in the holy basil EO retention rate and antioxidant activity (Sutaphanit
and Chitprasert, 2014). Moreover, the stability studies performed on peppermint oil loaded
capsules showed that only 7% of the oil was released during the storage of 40 days in cold water
(Dong et al., 2011). In another work study, jasmine EO nanoparticles exhibited high heatstability against humid heat (80°C for 7h) (Lv et al., 2014).

On the whole, ionic gelation method is broadly used to encapsulate plants oils when 644 compared to simple emulsion evaporation method. Gelatin (Devi et al., 2012; Dong et al., 2011; 645 646 Sutaphanit and Chitprasert, 2014; K. Zhang et al., 2012), arabic gum (Dong et al., 2011; Lv et 647 al., 2014; X. Yang et al., 2015; K. Zhang et al., 2012), alginate (Devi et al., 2012; Natrajan et al., 2015) and chitosan (Feyzioglu and Tornuk, 2016; Hosseini et al., 2013; Jamil et al., 2016; 648 Liu et al., 2017; López-meneses et al., 2018) are the most commonly used wall materials. In 649 addition, tripolyphosphate (Hasheminejad et al., 2019; Hosseini et al., 2013; Hu et al., 2015; 650 Liu et al., 2017; Woranuch and Yoksan, 2013) and glutaraldehyde (Devi et al., 2012; Dima et 651 al., 2014; Natrajan et al., 2015; Sutaphanit and Chitprasert, 2014) are widely used as 652 crosslinking agents. The main advantages of ionic gelation method are, in particular; the 653 654 avoidance of high shear forces and the use of aqueous solvents instead of organic ones. Moreover, ionic gelation is simple, economic and reproducible. However, moderate EE% and 655 larger particle size were assessed using this method as compared to the nanoprecipitation 656 657 technique.

Encapsulated	Plant (origin)	Wall material	Physicochemical properties		5	Biological properties	Application	Ref.
oil			Size	Z.pot	EE	-		
			(nm)	(mv)	(%)			
Nanoprecipit	ation method							
Costus	Saussurea lappa	Eudragit RS 100	145	+45	/	Anticholinesterase, anti- inflammatory	Medicine	(Lammari et al., 2021)
Baccharis dracunculifolia	Baccharis dracunculifolia DC	Eudragit RS 100	151.6	+51.7	99.4	Antibacterial	Food	(Timbe et al., 2020)
Oregano	Origanum vulgare L.	PCL	158-300	-13.8 to -28.5		Antibacterial	Food	(Souza et al., 2020)
Palmorasa	Cymbopogon martini Roxb.	PCL	282.1	-27.2	99.54	Antioxidant, antimicrobial	Cosmetic	(Jummes et al., 2020)
Geraniol	/	PCL	289.3	-26.6	99.88	Antioxidant, antimicrobial	Cosmetics	(Jummes et al., 2020)
Zataria	Zataria multiflora Boiss.	PCL	192-398	+13.9 to +29.2	75-79	Insecticide	Agriculture	(Ahsaei et al., 2020)
Thyme	Thymus vulgaris L.	Eudragit L 100-55	153.9	-4.11	52.81	Antioxidant	Food	(Pina-Barrera et al., 2019)
	Thymus leptobotrys L.	Eudragit RS 100	144	+80.9	/	Bacteriostatic, fungistatic	Medicine	(El-Asbahani et al., 2015)
	<i>Thymus satureoides</i> L.	Eudragit RS 100	132	81.6	/	Bacteriostatic, fungistatic	Medicine	(El-Asbahani et al., 2015)
	Thymus serpyllum L.	Chitosan	117-226	+27	/	Antimicrobial	Agriculture	(Sotelo-Boyás et al., 2015)
		Chitosan	/	/	68	Antimicrobial	Agriculture	(Sotelo-Boyás et al., 2017a)
Sweet orange	Citrus sinensis L.	Eudragit RS100	57-208	+39 to +74	56-96	Antimicrobial	Food	(Froiio et al., 2019)
Bergamot	Citrus bergamia Risso.	Eudragit RS100	57-208	+39 to +74	28-84	Antimicrobial	Food	(Froiio et al., 2019)
Rosemary	Rosmarinus officinalis L.	PCL	181-407	+11.6 to +28.3	82.9-84.3	Insecticide	Agriculture	(Ahsaei et al., 2020)
		Eudragit EPO	200	/	59	Antioxidant	Cosmetics	(Silva-Flores et al., 2019)
		PCL	145	-11.0	78.2	Insecticide	Agriculture	(Khoobdel et al., 2017)
		PCL	220	-19.9	99	Antioxidant, antimicrobial	Medicine	(Ephrem et al., 2014)
Lavender	Lavandula dentate L.	Eudragit EPO	200	/	41	Antioxidant	Cosmetics	(Silva-Flores et al., 2019)
		PEO-b-PLA	10-75	/	70-75	Antimicrobial	Textile	(Popiolski et al., 2016)
Peppermint	Mentha piperita L.	Cellulose acetate	180	-38	/	Antimicrobial	Medicine	(Liakos et al., 2018)
Cinnamon	Cinnamomum cassia persl.	Cellulose acetate	150	-40	/	Antimicrobial	Medicine	(Liakos et al., 2018)
Lemongrass	Cymbopogon citratus DC.	PLA	96.4	/	99	Antifungal	Medicine	(Antonioli et al., 2020)
		Cellulose acetate	200	-36	/	Antimicrobial	Medicine	(Liakos et al., 2018)
		PLA	300	-6	/	Antimicrobial	Medicine	(Liakos et al., 2016)
Black seed oil	Nigella sativa L.	PCL	230-260	-20 to $-3\overline{0}$	Oil=84	Anti-inflammatory	Cosmetics	(Badri et al., 2018)
+					Drug=70			
Indometacin								

658 Table 1. Preparation methods for plant oils encapsulation in polymeric nanoparticles and fine applications.

Lime	Citrus aurantiifolia Christm.	Chitosan	100-300	+57	/	Antimicrobial	Food	(Sotelo-Boyás et al., 2017b)
		Chitosan	250-1000	+20.2	/	Antimicrobial	Agriculture	(Sotelo-Boyás et al., 2015)
Pepper tree	Schinus molle L.	Chitosan	754	+9.1	/	Antifungal	Food	(Luque-Alcaraz et al., 2016)
Zanthoxylum rhoifolium	Zanthoxylum rhoifolium L.	PCL	500	-20	96	Insecticide	Agriculture	(Christofoli et al., 2015)
Argan oil +Indometacin	Argania spinosa L.	PCL	290 - 350	-40 to-50	65 - 75	Anti-inflammatory	Cosmetics	(Badri et al., 2015)
Pelargonium graveolens	Pelargonium graveolens L.	Eudragit RS 100	113	+80.6	/	Bacteriostatic, fungistatic	Medicine	(El-Asbahani et al., 2015)
Eugenia caryophyllata	Eugenia caryophyllata C.	Eudragit RS 100	131	+80.7	/	Bacteriostatic, fungistatic	Medicine	(El-Asbahani et al., 2015)
Carvacrol	/	PLA	114.7	+54.7	53.9	Antimicrobial	Food	(Niza et al., 2020)
	/	PHB	146	-26	21	Antimicrobial	/	(Shakeri et al., 2014)
	/	PLGA	209.8	/	26	Antimicrobial	Medicine	(Iannitelli et al., 2011)
Carvone	/	PLGA	126	/	/	Antimicrobial	Food	(Esfandyari-Manesh et al., 2013)
Anethole	/	PLGA	158	/	/	Antimicrobial	Food	(Esfandyari-Manesh et al., 2013)
Date seed	Phoenix dactylifera L.	Eudragit RS 100	207	+59	97	Antidiabetic	Medicine	(Lammari et al., 2020)
Pomegranate oil+ Silibinin	Punica granatum L.	Ethylcellulose	/	/	/	Anti-inflammatory for skin damage UVB	Cosmetics	(Marchiori et al., 2017)
Rosehip	<i>Rosa rugosa</i> Thunb.	Eudragit RS100	158	+9.8	/	Accelerate the skin regenerating process	Cosmetics	(Contri et al., 2016)
Castor	Ricin commun L.	TAD	260-150	/	/	Source of PUFA	/	(Chattopadhyay and Prez, 2016)
Olive	Olea europaea L.	TAD	185	-30	/	Source of PUFA	/	(Chattopadhyay and Prez, 2016)
Pumpkin	Cucurbita pepo L.	TAD	172	-35	/	Source of PUFA	/	(Chattopadhyay and Prez, 2016)
Sunflower	Helianthus annuus L.	TAD	178	-33	/	Source of PUFA	/	(Chattopadhyay and Prez, 2016)
Hazelnut	Corylus avellana L.	TAD	175	-35	/	Source of PUFA	/	(Chattopadhyay and Prez, 2016)

Borage oil+ Betamethason e dipropionate	Borago officinalis L.	PCL	210	-16.6	100	Treatment of atoptic dermatitis	Cosmetics	(Weber et al., 2016)
Rice bran	Oryza sativa L.	PCL	200	-9	/	Sunscreen (treatment of inflammatory disorders of skin)	Cosmetics	(Rigo et al., 2015)
Pine seed	<i>Pinus pinea</i> L.	Eudragit L 100-55	236-296	/	85-91	Source of PUFA	Medicine	(Averina and Allémann,
Free fatty acid	/	/ Eudragit L100 / Eudragit S100	260-319	/	83-99			2013)
Babassu	Attalea speciosa Mart.	PLGA	209.2	-15.8	/	Treatment of benign prostatic hyperplasia	Medicine	(Sousa et al., 2013)
Emulsion eve	poration method							
Mastic tree of Chios	<i>Pistacia lentiscus</i> L. var. chia	PLA	239-286	-29.1 to -34.5	9-37	Antimicrobial	Cosmetic	(Vrouvaki et al., 2020)
Clove	Syzygium aromaticum L.	PLGA	237.6	-40	93.95	Antimicrobial	Medicine	(Priyadarshini et al., 2018)
Eugenol	/	PLGA	179.3	/	98	Antimicrobial	Food	(Gomes et al., 2011a)
Trans- cinnamaldehy de	/	PLGA	173.8	/	92	Antimicrobial	Food	(Gomes et al., 2011a)
Chia seed	Salvia hispanica L.	Chia seed mucilage	205	-11.58	82.8	Source of PUFA	/	(Campo et al., 2017)
Coffee	<i>Coffea arabica</i> L.	PLA	263	/	112.7	Flavoring agent	Food	(Freiberger et al., 2015)
		PHBV	271		94.5	Flavoring agent	Food	(Freiberger et al., 2015)
Ionic gelation	n method							
Homalomena pineodora	Homalomena pineodora L.	Chitosan	70	+24.1		Wound healing	Medicine	(Rozman et al., 2020)
Piper nigrum	Piper nigrum L.	Chitosan	527.5	-5.3	35-40	Pesticide	Agriculture	(Rajkumar et al., 2020)
Nettle	Urtica dioica L.	Chitosan	208.3– 369.4	/	59.5-68.2	Antimicrobial	Food; Medicine	(Bagheri et al., 2020)
Tarragon	Artemisia dracunculus L.	Gelatin+Chitosan	246-505	27.1-37.1	9.8-35.6	Preservative	Food	(Zhang et al., 2020)
Camelthorn	Alhagi maurorum L.	Chitosan	172	+28.6	/	Antimicrobial	Medicine	(Hassanshahian et al., 2020)
Great morinda	<i>Morinda citrifolia</i> L.	Chitosan	1006	+43.5	/	Anticancer	Medicine	(Rajivgandhi et al., 2020)
Clove	<i>Syzygium aromaticum</i> L.	Chitosan	268.5	+22.4	/	Antifungal	Agriculture; Food	(Hasheminejad et al., 2019)
Pepper tree	Schinus molle L.	Chitosan	516.9	+40.2	26.6	Antifungal, anti- aflatoxigenic	Medicine	(López-meneses et al., 2018)

$ \begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $	Cimmon	Ciun am amum agagia nanal	Chitagan	80, 100	11.2 to	1767	Antimianabial	Food	(Lin et al. 2017)
Chitosan 215 / / Antimicrobial Food (Hu et al., 2015) Cardamon Elettaria cardamomun L. Chitosan 50–100 >+50 >90 Antimicrobial Medicine (Jamil et al., 2016) Summer savory Chitosan 135.5-237.4 -9.68 to -21.12 35.1-40.7 Antioxidant, antimicrobial Food (Feyzioglu and Tornuk, 2016) Carum copticum Chitosan / / 36.2 Antioxidant, antimicrobial Cosmetics; Cismaeili and Asgari, 2015) Tumeric Curcuma longa L. Alginate+Chitosan <300	Cinnamon	Cinnamomum cassia persi.	Chitosan	80-100	-11.2 to - 22.4	47.67 - 55.64	Anumicrobiai	Food	(Liu et al., 2017)
Cardamon Elettaria cardamomum L. Chitosan 50–100 >+50 >90 Antimicrobial Medicine (Jamil et al., 2016) Summer savory Chitosan 135.5-237.4 -9.68 to -21.12 35.1-40.7 Antioxidant, antimicrobial Food (Feyzioglu and Tornuk, 2016) Carum copticum Chitosan / / 36.2 Antioxidant, antimicrobial Cosmetics; 2015) (Esmaeili and Asgari, 2015) Tumeric Curcuma longa L. Alginate+Chitosan <300			Chitosan	215	/	/	Antimicrobial	Food	(Hu et al., 2015)
Summer savory Chitosan 135.5-237.4 -9.68 to -21.12 35.1 -40.7 Antioxidant, antimicrobial Food (Feyzioglu and Tornuk, 2016) Carum copticum Chitosan / / 36.2 Antioxidant, antimicrobial Cosmetics; (Esmaelli and Asgari, 2015) Lemongrass Cymbopogon citratus DC, Chitosan -/ 71 Antioxidant, antimicrobial Food (Samen et al., 2015) Jasmine Jasminum polyanthum L. Gelatin+Gum arabic / / Antioxidant, antimicrobial Food (Samen et al., 2020) Jasmine Jasminum polyanthum L. Gelatin +Gum arabic / / Flavor agent Food; (Lityphanit and Chitypasert, 2014) Pimenta Joican 392.30.10 ³ / 95.41 Antioxidant, antifungal Food (Dima et al., 2014) Vectorargeenan - - / / Antioxidant, antimicrobial (Woranuch and Yoksan, 2013) Oregano Origanum vulgare L. Chitosan 40 - 80 / / Antioxidant, antimicrobial / (Hosseini et al., 2014) Vanilla Vanilla planifolia L. Chitosan 40 - 80 / <td>Cardamon</td> <td><i>Elettaria cardamomum</i> L.</td> <td>Chitosan</td> <td>50-100</td> <td>>+50</td> <td>>90</td> <td>Antimicrobial</td> <td>Medicine</td> <td>(Jamil et al., 2016)</td>	Cardamon	<i>Elettaria cardamomum</i> L.	Chitosan	50-100	>+50	>90	Antimicrobial	Medicine	(Jamil et al., 2016)
Carum copticum Chitosan / / 36.2 Antioxidant, antimicrobial Nedicine Cosmetics; Medicine (Esmaeili and Asgari, Medicine Tumeric Curcuma longa L. Alginate+Chitosan <300		Summer savory	Chitosan	135.5-237.4	-9.68 to -21.12	35.1 - 40.7	Antioxidant, antimicrobial	Food	(Feyzioglu and Tornuk, 2016)
TumericCurcuma longa L.Alginate+Chitosan<300/71AnticancerMedicine(Natrajan et al., 2015)LemongrassCymbopogon citratus DC.Chitosan58//AntimicrobialFood(Sameen et al., 2020)JasmineJasminum polyanthum L.Gelatin+Gum arabic/86.9AnticancerMedicine(Natrajan et al., 2015)JasmineJasminum polyanthum L.Gelatin+Gum arabic//Flavor agentFood,(Sutaphanit and Chityrasert, 2014)Holy basilOcimum tenuiflorum L.Gelatin 392.30.10 ³ /95.41Antioxidant, antifungalFood(Dima et al., 2014)PimentaDimenta dioica L.Chitosan +///Antioxidant, antifungalFood(Dima et al., 2014)PimentaChitosan +///Antioxidant, antifungalFood(Woranuch and Yoksan, 2013)OreganoOriganum vulgare L.Chitosan +40 - 80//Antioxidant, antimicrobial/(Hosseini et al., 2013)Poppy seedPapaver somniferum L.Gelatin+arabic<5000		Carum copticum	Chitosan	/	/	36.2	Antioxidant, antimicrobial	Cosmetics; Medicine	(Esmaeili and Asgari, 2015)
Lemongrass Cymbopogon citratus DC. Chitosan 58 / / Antimicrobial Food (Sameen et al., 2020) Jasmine Jasminum polyanthum L. Gelatin+Chitosan <300	Tumeric	Curcuma longa L.	Alginate+Chitosan	<300	/	71	Anticancer	Medicine	(Natrajan et al., 2015)
Alginate+Chitosan <300 / 86.9 Anticancer Medicine (Natrajan et al., 2015) Jasmine Jasminum polyanthum L. Gelatin+Gum arabic / / Flavor agent Food; Textile (Lv et al., 2014) Holy basil Ocimum tenuiflorum L. Gelatin 392.30.10 ³ / 95.41 Antioxidant Medicine (Sutaphanit) and Chitprasert, 2014) Pimenta Pimenta dioica L. Chitosan + / / / Antioxidant, antifungal Food (Dima et al., 2014) Eugenol / Chitosan 80–100 +16.2 to +33.5 1.1–20.2 Antioxidant Food (Woranuch and Yoksan, 2013) Oregano Origanum vulgare L. Chitosan 40 - 80 / Antioxidant, antimicrobial / (Hosseini et al., 2013) Poppy seed Papaver somniferum L. Gelatin+arabic <5000	Lemongrass	Cymbopogon citratus DC.	Chitosan	58	/	/	Antimicrobial	Food	(Sameen et al., 2020)
Jasmine Jasminum polyanthum L. Gelatin+Gum arabic / / Flavor agent Food; Textile (Lv et al., 2014) Holy basil Ocimum tenuiflorum L. Gelatin 392.30 .10 ³ / 95.41 Antioxidant Medicine (Sutaphanit and Chitprasert, 2014) Pimenta Dimenta dioica L. Chitosan + / / / / Antioxidant, antifungal Food (Dima et al., 2014) Eugenol / Chitosan 80–100 +16.2 to +33.5 1.1–20.2 Antioxidant, antifungal Food (Woranuch and Yoksan, 2013) Oregano Origanum vulgare L. Chitosan 40 - 80 / / Antioxidant, antimicrobial / (Hosseini et al., 2013) Poppy seed Papaver somniferum L. Gelatin+arabic <5000	C		Alginate+Chitosan	<300	/	86.9	Anticancer	Medicine	(Natrajan et al., 2015)
Holy basil Ocimum tenuiflorum L. Gelatin 392.30 .10 ³ / 95.41 Antioxidant Medicine (Sutaphanit and Chitprasert, 2014) Pimenta Pimenta dioica L. Chitosan + / / Antioxidant, antifungal Food (Dima et al., 2014) Eugenol / Chitosan 80–100 +16.2 to +33.5 1.1–20.2 Antioxidant Food (Woranuch and Yoksan, 2013) Oregano Origanum vulgare L. Chitosan 40 - 80 / / Antioxidant, antimicrobial / (Hosseini et al., 2013) Poppy seed Papaver somniferum L. Gelatin+arabic <5000	Jasmine	Jasminum polyanthum L.	Gelatin+Gum arabic		/	/	Flavor agent	Food; Textile	(Lv et al., 2014)
Pimenta Pimenta dioica L. Chitosan + k-carrageenan / / / Antioxidant, antifungal Food (Dima et al., 2014) Eugenol / Chitosan 80–100 +16.2 to +33.5 1.1–20.2 Antioxidant, antifungal Food (Woranuch and Yoksan, 2013) Oregano Origanum vulgare L. Chitosan 40 - 80 / / Antioxidant, antimicrobial / (Hosseini et al., 2013) Poppy seed Papaver somniferum L. Gelatin+arabic <5000	Holy basil	Ocimum tenuiflorum L.	Gelatin	392.30 .10 ³	/	95.41	Antioxidant	Medicine	(Sutaphanit and Chitprasert, 2014)
Eugenol / Chitosan 80–100 +16.2 to +33.5 1.1–20.2 Antioxidant Food (Woranuch and Yoksan, 2013) Oregano Origanum vulgare L. Chitosan 40 - 80 / / Antioxidant, antimicrobial / (Hosseini et al., 2013) Poppy seed Papaver somniferum L. Gelatin+arabic gum <5000	Pimenta	Pimenta dioica L.	Chitosan + k-carrageenan	/	/	/	Antioxidant, antifungal	Food	(Dima et al., 2014)
Oregano Origanum vulgare L. Chitosan 40 - 80 / / Antioxidant, antimicrobial / (Hosseini et al., 2013) Poppy seed Papaver somniferum L. Gelatin+arabic <5000	Eugenol	/	Chitosan	80–100	+16.2 to +33.5	1.1–20.2	Antioxidant	Food	(Woranuch and Yoksan, 2013)
Poppy seed Papaver somniferum L. gum Gelatin+arabic gum <5000 / 76.8 Anti-cancer, anti-tumor, anti-diabetic Medicine (X. Yang et al., 2015) Vanilla Vanilla planifolia L. gum Chitosan+arabic gum 7500 / 94.2 Flavor agent Food (Yang et al., 2014) Olive Olea europaea L. Sodium alginate Gelatin + Sodium alginate / / Source of vitamins and fatty acids Medicine (Devi et al., 2012) Peppermint Mentha piperita L. Gelatin+Arabic gum / / / / (Dong et al., 2011) Spray drying method / Pectin+sodium 2580-5300 / / Antioxidant, antimicrobial / (Sun et al., 2020)	Oregano	Origanum vulgare L.	Chitosan	40 - 80	/	/	Antioxidant, antimicrobial	/	(Hosseini et al., 2013)
Vanilla Vanilla planifolia L. Chitosan+arabic gum 7500 / 94.2 Flavor agent Food (Yang et al., 2014) Olive Olea europaea L. Gelatin + / / / Source of vitamins and fatty acids Medicine (Devi et al., 2012) Peppermint Mentha piperita L. Gelatin+Arabic gum / / / / (Dong et al., 2011) Spray drying method // Pectin+sodium 2580-5300 / / Antioxidant, antimicrobial (Sun et al., 2020)	Poppy seed	Papaver somniferum L.	Gelatin+arabic gum	<5000	/	76.8	Anti-cancer, anti-tumor, anti-diabetic	Medicine	(X. Yang et al., 2015)
Olive Olea europaea L. Gelatin + Sodium alginate / / Source of vitamins and fatty acids Medicine (Devi et al., 2012) Peppermint Mentha piperita L. Gelatin+Arabic gum / / / // (Dong et al., 2011) Spray drying method / Pectin+sodium 2580-5300 / / Antioxidant, antimicrobial / (Sun et al., 2020)	Vanilla	Vanilla planifolia L.	Chitosan+arabic gum	7500	/	94.2	Flavor agent	Food	(Yang et al., 2014)
Peppermint Mentha piperita L. Gelatin+Arabic gum / / / / (Dong et al., 2011) Spray drying method	Olive	Olea europaea L.	Gelatin + Sodium alginate	/	/	/	Source of vitamins and fatty acids	Medicine	(Devi et al., 2012)
Spray drying method Pectin+sodium 2580-5300 / Antioxidant, antimicrobial (Sun et al., 2020)	Peppermint	<i>Mentha piperita</i> L.	Gelatin+Arabic gum	/	/	/	/	/	(Dong et al., 2011)
Carvacrol/Pectin+sodium2580-5300//Antioxidant, antimicrobial/(Sun et al., 2020)	Spray drying	g method							
alginate	Carvacrol	/	Pectin+sodium alginate	2580-5300	/	/	Antioxidant, antimicrobial	/	(Sun et al., 2020)
Black seedNigella sativa L.Sodium caseinate + maltodextrin DE1018500/ 95.495.4AntioxidantMedicine(Mohammed et al., 2017)	Black seed	Nigella sativa L.	Sodium caseinate + maltodextrin DE10	18500	/	95.4	Antioxidant	Medicine	(Mohammed et al., 2017)
EucalyptusEucalyptus staigeriana L.Cashew gum27.7-432.6+24.5 to +10.424.89 - 26.80AntimicrobialFood(Herculano et al., 2015)	Eucalyptus	Eucalyptus staigeriana L.	Cashew gum	27.7-432.6	+24.5 to +10.4	24.89 - 26.80	Antimicrobial	Food	(Herculano et al., 2015)
<i>Lippia sidoides</i> L. Alginate:cashew 223-399 -30 to -36 50 Larvicide Agriculture (De-Oliveira et al., 2014) gum	Lippia sidoides	Lippia sidoides L.	Alginate:cashew gum	223- 399	-30 to -36	50	Larvicide	Agriculture	(De-Oliveira et al., 2014)
Chitosan+cashew 335–558 / 70 Larvicide Agriculture (Abreu et al., 2012) gum			Chitosan+cashew gum	335–558	/	70	Larvicide	Agriculture	(Abreu et al., 2012)
Chitosan 25 –17.3 77.8 Larvicide Agriculture (Paula et al., 2010)			Chitosan	25	-17.3	77.8	Larvicide	Agriculture	(Paula et al., 2010)

Oregano	Origanum vulgare L.	Inulin	3000 - 4500	/	/	Antioxidant	Food	(Beirão da costa et al., 2013)
		Rice starch	3000 - 4500	/	/	Antioxidant, antimicrobial	Food	(Beirão da costa et al., 2012)
		Gelatine/sucrose	3000 - 4500	/	/	Antioxidant, antimicrobial	Food	(Beirão da costa et al., 2012)
Soybean	Glycine max L.	Kafirin + sodium caseinate	10450	/	/	Source of PUFA	Food	(X. Bai et al., 2019)
Almond	Prunus dulcis L.	Taro starch	1600– 31.1.10 ³	/	37.5	Prevention of colon cancer and cardiovascular diseases	Medicine	(Hoyos-leyva et al., 2019)
Peony	Paeonia lactiflora L.	Whey protein+Corn syru + Lecithin	/ p	/	93.6	Source of PUFA	Food	(Wang et al., 2018)
Refined kenaf seed	Hibiscus cannabinus L.	β-cyclodextrin + gum arabic + sodium caseinate	/	/	/	Source of MUFA and PUFA	/	(Chew et al., 2020)
		β-cyclodextrin + Arabic gum β-cyclodextrin +sodium caseinate β-cyclodextrin + gum arabic + sodium caseinate	(25.4–37.3). _10 ³	/	90.0-95.3	Source of MUFA and PUFA	/	(Chew et al., 2018)
Chia seed	Salvia hispanica L.	Sodium caseinate + maltodextrin + chia protein rich fraction + chia mucilage Maltodextrin +	/ 4000-	/	53.4-96.2 ≈ 60	Source of omega 3 Source of omega 3	Food	(Us-medina et al., 2018) (González et al., 2016)
		soy protein	10000			C		
Walnut	Juglans cinerea L.	Skim milk powder + Tween 80	/	/	/	Source of PUFA, tocopherols and phytosterols.	Food; Medicine	(Shamaei et al., 2017)
Sunflower	Helianthus annuus L.	Maltodextrin + HPMC	/	/	79.43	Source of PUFA	/	(Roccia et al., 2014)
Linseed	Linum usitatissimum L.	Alginate+ whey protein	/	-44	84	Source of omega 3	Food	(Fioramonti et al., 2019)
		Maltodextrin +	600-26000		62.3-95.7	Source of omega 3	Food	(Carneiro et al., 2013)

		Gum arabic						
		Gum arabic	/	/	≈ 90	Source of omega 3	Food	(Gallardo et al., 2013)
		Gum arabic + Maltodextrin + whey protein	/	/	≈ 90	Source of omega 3	Food	(Gallardo et al., 2013)
		Maltodextrin + methylcellulose	/	/	≈ 90	Source of omega 3	Food	(Gallardo et al., 2013)
		Gum arabic	/	/	54.9 - 90.7	Source of omega 3	Food	(Rubilar et al., 2012)
		Gum arabic + Maltodextrin	/	/	54.9 - 90.7	Source of omega 3	Food	(Rubilar et al., 2012)
	Macadamia integrifolia	Sodium caseinate + maltodextrin	9750	/	88.75	Source of MUFA	Medicine	(Laohasongkram et al., 2011)
Coffee	<i>Coffea arabica</i> L.	Arabic gum	$4000-11.10^3$	/	10-30	Antioxidant	Cosmetic	(Nosari et al., 2015)
		Arabic gum	7880-13.10 ³	/	48-88	Flavoring agent	Food	(Frascareli et al., 2011)

659 PLGA: Polylactic glycolic acid; PCL: Polycaprolactone; PLA: Poly lactic acid; PHB: Poly(3-hydroxybutyrate); PEO: poly (ethylene oxide); TAD: 1,2,4-Triazoline-3,5-dione; PHBV: Poly(3-hydroxybutyrate-co-3-hydroxyvalerate);

660 HPC: Hydroxypropylcelullose; HPMC: Hydroxypropylmethylcellulose; PVA: Poly vinyl alcohol; PUFA: Poly unsaturated fatty acids; MUFA: Mono unsaturated fatty acids.

661
662 **5.2.** Encapsulation in lipid based nanocarriers

663 **5.2.1.** Liposomes

Liposomes were first developed for drug delivery purposes by Bangham et al. in 1965 664 (1965). Liposomes are vesicles formed by one or more lipid bilayers defining one or several 665 aqueous compartments. They can be classified depending on their size and lamellarity to: i) 666 small unilamellar vesicles (SUV) with a size between 20nm and 100 nm, ii) large unilamellar 667 vesicles (LUV) with a size greater than 100 nm and iii) multilamellar vesicles (MLV) with a 668 size greater than 0.5µm, as demonstrated in Fig. 6 (El-Asbahani et al., 2015). Generally, the 669 670 liposome bilayer consists of natural and/or synthetic phospholipids like phosphatidylcholline, phosphatidylethanolamine, phosphatidylserine, phosphatidylglycerol and phosphatidylinositol. 671 Cholesterol may also be incorporated to the lipidic bilayer to reduce the permeability of water-672 673 soluble molecules through the membrane and improve its fluidity, and stability (Laouini et al., 2012). Due to the lipophilic character of the liposome bilayer, plant oils like essential or 674 vegetable oils are highly entrapped to enhance their bioavailability and hurdle their 675 676 physicochemical instability upon exposure to light, oxygen and temperature (El-Asbahani et al., 2015). Several methods have been used to develop liposomes containing plants oils, while 677 the thin film hydration, solvent injection and heating methods were widely used in the last 678 decade. 679





682 5.2.1.1. Thin lipid film hydration

680

683 Thin lipid film hydration or thin membrane hydration is the first process which was 684 initially used for liposomes production (Bangham et al., 1965). A mixture of lipid ingredients 685 was dispersed in organic solvent in a round-bottom flask. Subsequent evaporation of the organic solvent was performed using a rotary evaporator at reduced pressure. Finally, the hydration of 686 the formed lipid film by water or buffer solution under agitation at temperature above the lipid 687 transition temperature allows the formation of MLVs dispersion (Fig.6.a) (Laouini et al., 2012). 688 Liposome size reduction techniques, such as sonication or extrusion were applied to ensure size 689 reduction and particles uniformity (Patil and Jadhav, 2014). Thin hydration method was 690 extensively used to develop plant oils-loaded liposomes, as illustrated in Table 2. 691

Regarding the size of liposomes prepared by this method, several work studies reported 692 a small average diameter with a spherical shape. Cui et al. (2015) revealed that clove EO loaded-693 liposomes had small size of 149.2 nm, a high zeta potential (-24.5 mV) with an entrapment 694 695 efficiency of 20.41%, for 5.0 mg/mL clove oil concentration. Accordingly, Cui et al. (2016) used the same method to limit the volatility of salvia EO by encapsulation in soy 696 lecithin/cholesterol based liposomes. Atomic force microscopy images showed that the 697 obtained liposomes were spherical in shape, uniformly dispersed without any aggregation with 698 an average size ranging from 100 to 700 nm. Furthermore, bergamot EO and its fraction 699 700 (bergapten) were entrapped in phospholipids based-liposomes using thin lipid hydration process (Celia et al., 2013). The prepared liposomes had an average size of 188.25 and 185.14 701 nm, a zeta potential of -2.95 and -2.57 mV and a high EE% of 75.0 and 77.0% for bergamot 702 703 EO and its fraction, respectively (Celia et al., 2013).

704 Several authors have compared the size of empty liposomes to EO-loaded liposomes prepared by thin hydration method. Ge and his coworker (2016) revealed a significant 705 706 difference in the average size between empty- and Melaleuca alternifolia EO loaded-liposomes. Empty liposomes had an average size of 142 nm, while loaded liposomes were smaller with 707 size around 75 nm. Similar results were found by Yoshida et al. (Yoshida et al., 2010). Risaliti 708 709 et al. (2019) attributed this to the high cohesion package of oil components to the bilayer constituents. On the other hand, Detoni et al. (2012) reported no difference in liposomes size 710 between empty and Zanthoxylum tingoassuiba EO-loading MLVs and SUVs, respectively. 711 Moreover, nerolidol- and cyclodextrin/nerolidol-loaded liposomes prepared by thin lipid 712 hydration method showed larger mean particle size than blank liposomes (Azzi et al., 2018). 713 Cui et al. studying the encapsulation of curry EO in liposomes, revealed that the oil 714 concentration had a positive effect on vesicles size (Cui et al., 2017a). For instance, the vesicles 715 size was increased from 103.86 to 257.36 nm as a consequence of an increase in the oil 716

concentration from 2.0 to 6.0 mg/ml. Similar behavior was pointed for the encapsulation of
cinnamon EO in soy lecithin/cholesterol based liposomes prepared by thin hydration method
(Cui et al., 2016a). Accompanying the increase of cinnamon oil concentration from 3.0 to 6.0
mg/mL, the vesicles size was progressively increased from 133 to 157 nm. Similar results were
also reported when increasing cardamom EO (Nahr et al., 2019), thyme EO (Cui et al., 2017b)
and chrysanthemum EO (Lin et al., 2019b).

723 The liposome size was not only affected by the EO concentration. In fact, Nazari et al., (2019) developing garlic EO nanophytosomes by thin hydration method, investigated the effect 724 of the preparation method. For instance, nanophytosomes were a novel lipid based vesicular 725 726 delivery systems where stable hydrogen bonds are formed between the phosphatidylcholine molecules and nutraceuticals leading to the formation of stable complex (Ghanbarzadeh et al., 727 2016). In this study, MLVs reduction size was performed using three different types of methods: 728 729 sonication, homogenization and the combination of sonication and homogenization. Results showed that the combination of two methods produced the smallest liposomes (115 nm) with 730 731 transparent suspension view. Homogenization produced larger particles than probe sonication method and the average size was around 161 and 135 nm, respectively. Considering the zeta 732 potential, all the prepared phytosomes had lower values (-12.36 to -3.86 mV) than the expected 733 734 and reported values for soy bean phosphatidylcholine made nanovesicular systems (around -26mV). This was linked to the interaction between the positively charged allicin (the main 735 component of garlic EO) and the negatively charged phosphate group of phosphatidylcholine 736 (Nazari et al., 2019). In another work study, Salari and his colleague (2019) developing 737 rosemary EO loaded- L-a-phosphatidylethanolamine dioleoyl : cholesteryl hemisuccinate 738 liposomes found that sonication method produced smaller liposome than filtration method. The 739 average sizes were 142.5 and 437.2 nm, respectively. Results showed also that increasing the 740

lipid ratio of L-α-phosphatidylethanolamine dioleoyl to cholesteryl hemisuccinate from 3:2 to
7:3 resulted in much larger liposomes with more negative zeta potential.

As there are several types of phospholipids, it is reliable to alter the size, charge and 743 EE%, upon variation of type or addition of new ingredients to the lipid mixture. In this 744 approach, the effect of lipid composition on the EE% of Anethum graveolens EO-loaded 745 liposomes was investigated by Ortan et. al (2009). Liposomes with different lipids; fresh egg 746 747 yolk, dimiristroylphosphatidyl choline, dipalmitoylphosphatidyl choline, dimiristroylphosphatidyl glycerol and dioleoylphosphatidyl choline, were prepared by thin 748 Results showed that oil entrapment varied in this way: 749 hydration method. 750 dimiristroylphosphatidyl glycerol (55.2%) < dimiristroylphosphatidyl choline (58.9%) < dioleoylphosphatidyl choline (77%) < dipalmitoylphosphatidyl choline (97%) < fresh egg yolk 751 (98%). Although dipalmitoylphosphatidyl choline showed good entrapment efficiency, its use 752 753 was difficult as it required high temperature due to its high transition temperature. The authors related the low values of EE% of dioleoylphosphatidyl choline, dimiristroylphosphatidyl 754 755 glycerol and dimiristroylphosphatidyl choline to their unsaturation.

In addition to the factors mentioned above, other parameters may affect the 756 757 physicochemical properties of liposomes prepared by thin hydration process. In this context, Plackett-Burman design was applied in order to investigate the effect of the mass ratio of 758 phosphatidylcholine and cholesterol, tree tea EO concentration, tween 80 concentration, 759 hydration medium pH, temperature, sonication time and power on physicochemical properties 760 of tree tea EO-loaded liposomes (Ge & Ge, 2015). Results revealed that only three factors (the 761 ratio of phosphatidylcholine and cholesterol, EO concentration and tween 80) exhibited a 762 significant impact on the entrapment efficiency of tree tea EO. Increasing the lipid ratio with 763 EO amount and decreasing tween 80 had a positive effect on EO encapsulation efficiency. Good 764 765 EE% (97.18%) was obtained with the following parameters: the mass ratio of fresh egg yolk and cholesterol (5:51); EO concentration (1.21%); tween 80 concentration (0.79%); pH 7.4;
temperature (55 °C); sonication time (15 min) and sonication power (300w) (Ge & Ge, 2015).

Regarding the stability of EO loaded in liposomes, Liolios et al. (2009) investigated the 768 oxidative stability of carvacrol and thymol isolated from Origanum dictamnus L. EO and their 769 mixtures, before and after their encapsulation in egg L-a phosphatidylcholine/cholesterol-based 770 liposomes by differential scanning calorimetry analysis. Results showed the appearance of 771 772 exothermic peaks related to the auto-oxidation process of the samples. The onset temperatures 773 at which the auto-oxidation process starts were in the following order: Carvacrol (258°C)<Thymol (273°C)<Carvacrol : Thymol (302°C) <Empty liposomes (362°C) < 774 775 Liposomes +Carvacrol : Thymol (392°C). One can conclude that carvacrol and thymol presented better antioxidant action when encapsulated than when in pure form. The antioxidant 776 activity of empty liposomes is lower than that of oil loaded- liposome, suggesting that the 777 778 liposome membranes were stabilized by the link of the lipophilic compounds with lipid bilayers (Liolios et al., 2009). 779

780 Beyond EO, liposomes can potentially enable the encapsulation of VO and their derivatives, as illustrated in Table 3. Recently, numerous studies have been investigated to 781 encapsulate fatty acids in liposomes. Among the several polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs), 782 dietary ω 3 like eicosapentaenoic and docosahexaenoic acids have been extensively investigated 783 for their beneficial effects (Hadian, 2016). Alaarg et al. (2016) developed docosahexaenoic 784 acid- loaded liposomes by thin hydration method. The obtained liposomes exhibited small 785 average diameter around 100 nm, narrow size distributions, negative zeta potential (15.7 \pm 786 787 2.5mv) and high EE% of 81.35 %. Moreover, eicosapentaenoic and docosahexaenoic acids were entrapped in nanoliposomes (i.e. nanoscale lipid vesicles) developed by thin hydration 788 followed by either extrusion ultrasonic irradiation; bath sonication; probe sonication; or 789 790 combined probe and bath sonication (Hadian et al., 2014). Results showed that probe sonication produced liposomes with higher EE% for both investigated fatty acids. Results displayed also that EE% differs form a VO to another for liposomes prepared in the same experimental conditions. Indeed, the EE% value was higher for docosahexaenoic acid than for eicosapentaenoic acid. This was ascribed to the fact that docosahexaenoic acid may change the physical properties of 1, 2-dipalmitoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphocholine bilayer, as it would provide a tightly pack conformation because of the coiled configuration (Hadian et al., 2014).

In overall, thin hydration method is widely employed to develop plant oils loaded 797 liposomes due to its simplicity. Several phospholipids are used in the literature including 798 soybean phosphatidylcholine (Ge & Ge, 2016; Ge & Ge, 2015; Khatibi et al., 2017; Nazari et 799 800 al., 2019; Rasti et al., 2012; Q. Wang et al., 2015), dipalmitoyl phosphatidylcholine (Detoni et al., 2012), egg phosphatidylcholine (Saffari et al., 2016), phospholipon®90G (Risaliti et al., 801 2019). Cholesterol is the most used fluidifying agent (Alikhani-Koupaei, 2015; H. Cui, Yuan, 802 et al., 2017; Y. Cui et al., 2010; Y. Ge & Ge, 2016; Ge & Ge, 2015; Khatibi et al., 2017; Lin et 803 al., 2018; Lin, Chen, et al., 2019; Q. Wang et al., 2015); in other cases, tween 80 (Y. Ge et al., 804 2019; Y. Ge & Ge, 2016; Ge & Ge, 2015; Lin, Chen, et al., 2019) and poly vinyl pyrrolidone 805 (Cui et al., 2017a, 2017b, 2016a, 2016b, 2015; Lin et al., 2019b, 2018) were incorporated as 806 surfactants. 807

Using this method, heterogeneous vesicles of large sizes may be produced which requires additional steps like sonication and extrusion to reduce and homogenize the vesicle size and thus, the process consumes more time. Besides, thin hydration method is difficult to scale up and requires organic solvents which in turn represent the major drawback. In fact, their residues may remain in the final liposome preparation resulting in potential toxicity and reduced stability of the lipid vesicles (Cortesi et al., 1999; Vemuri and Rhodes, 1995).

814 5.2.1.2 Solvent injection

The solvent injection method, firstly described in 1973 (Batzri and Korn, 1973), implies 815 the dissolution of the lipid into an organic phase such as ethanol or ether, followed by the 816 817 injection of the lipid solution into aqueous solution resulting in liposomes dispersion (Laouini et al., 2012). After that, the organic solvent was evaporated under reduced pressure (Fig. 6.b). 818 This technique is widely used for plant oil encapsulation, as demonstrated in Table 2. The 819 solvent injection' main feature is that narrow size distribution of submicron liposomes (under 820 100 nm) could be produced without extrusion or sonication (Stano et al., 2004). Moreover, 821 compared with thin hydration method, the ethanol injection technique was found to be scalable. 822 823 In fact, clove EO-liposomes were successfully scaled-up using a membrane contactor (600ml) and a pilot plant (3L) (Sebaaly et al., 2015a). Furthermore, various eugenol- and clove EO-824 liposomes were prepared at laboratory (ethanol injection) and large scale (membrane 825 826 contactor): free hydroxypropyl-\beta-cyclodextrin loaded liposomes; drug in hydroxypropyl-\beta-827 cyclodextrin in liposomes (DCL) and DCL₂ obtained by double loading technique, where the drug is added in the organic phase and the inclusion complex in the aqueous phase (Sebaaly et 828 829 al., 2016a). Results showed that eugenol and clove EO loaded DCL and DCL2 developed at large scale had a mean size similar to those obtained by laboratory scale. Besides, Eugenol and 830 clove EO loaded DCL and DCL₂ had a mean particle size significantly smaller than that of free 831 hydroxypropyl-\beta-cyclodextrin liposomes containing either eugenol or clove EO at both 832 laboratory and large scales. This was explained by the complete incorporation of the aromatic 833 834 cycle of eugenol inside the hydrophobic cavity of hydroxypropyl-β-cyclodextrin, resulting in limit interaction between eugenol and lipidic bilayers. Regarding the polydispersity index and 835 zeta potential, no difference was assessed between all the tested liposomes. 836

Currently, several studies have been reported to investigate the effect of liposome composition and operating conditions on physicochemical properties of liposomes prepared by ethanol injection method (Hammoud et al., 2019; Rushmi et al., 2017; Sebaaly et al., 2016b).

The effect of oil concentration, injection rate, stirring speed on the average diameter of black 840 seed oil-liposomes was studied (Rushmi et al., 2017). Results showed that liposomes decrease 841 in size from 520.70 to 51.48 nm after oil incorporation. As the concentration of oil increases 842 from 0.17 to 0.67% v/v, liposomes size reduced significantly due to the antioxidant activity of 843 the oil which could decrease phospholipid bilayer oxidation, preventing liposomes growth; 844 while, no change in average size of liposomes was noticed upon further increase in oil (0.67% 845 v/v). Thus, the oil concentration of 0.67% v/v was found to be optimum for its antioxidant 846 activity. Results showed also that small sized liposomes were formed under 1mL/min injection 847 848 rate and 2200 rpm stirring speed. Low injection rates result in faster lipids oxidation while high rates may cause a variable distribution of particle size. Similar results were already reported 849 (Sebaaly et al., 2016b). In regards of the phospholipid:cholesterol ratio effect, the EE% was 850 851 improved from 39.8 to 49.9 % after increasing the ratio of egg extract to cholesterol from 3:1 852 to 3:2 (Rushmi et al., 2017). This was related to the fact that cholesterol may reduce the flexibility and mobility of lipidic layer which in turn lead to enhance liposomes stability. 853 854 Moreover, another study performed by Hammoud et al. (2019) spotlighted that the type of encapsulated EO affects significantly the phospholipid and cholesterol incorporation rates into 855 the lipid layer. Lower phospholipids incorporation rates were observed when encapsulating 856 isoeugenol, pulegone or thymol. While, high cholesterol incorporation rates were measured in 857 presence of estragole or terpineole. Additionally, the oil entrapment efficiency was found to be 858 859 affected by the chemical structure of encapsulated EO. In fact, EO bearing hydroxyl groups in their structure are more greatly to fluidize the lipid layer than those without a hydroxyl group 860 leading to higher EE%. The authors concluded that EO bearing hydroxyl groups had low 861 862 aqueous solubility with low Henry constant value and higher liposomal EE% (Hammoud et al., 2019). 863

Regarding the stability of liposomes prepared by ethanol injection process, Liu et al. 864 (2016) investigated the stability of galanga EO-loaded liposomes at low temperature (4°C) and 865 dark conditions and results revealed minor change in mean particle size and polydispersity 866 index. Furthermore, the photostability of eugenol in aqueous solution and in liposome 867 formulations (Phospholipon 80H, Phospholipon 90H and Lipoid S100) was investigated under 868 UV light irradiation for 96hours (Sebaaly et al., 2015b). Results revealed that liposomes 869 formulations protect eugenol more than aqueous solutions. The percentages of remaining 870 eugenol were 58, 82, 91 and 95% for aqueous solution, Phospholipon 80H-, 90H- and S100-871 872 liposomes, respectively. The highest value of remaining eugenol for lipoid S100 was related to the flexibility of the membrane resulting in a deep insertion of eugenol into the lipid bilayer 873 leading to better protection from any UV light effect (Sebaaly et al., 2015b). 874

875 Despite using ethanol injection for EO encapsulation in liposomes, a few reports have 876 been published during the last decade regarding the encapsulation of VO. Recently, Huang et al. (2020) developed co-loaded linseed oil with quercetin in liposomes with the aim of 877 878 enhancing their solubility and stability. The produced liposomes owned a spherical shape with a small average size (262.2 nm). In 2019, Bai and his coworkers investigated the effect of 879 different coix seed oil: β-carotene ratios on the physiochemical properties, stability and 880 antioxidant activity of coix seed oil : β -carotene co-loaded-liposomes (C. Bai et al., 2019). 881 Results showed that by increasing coix seed oil, the EE% of β-carotene in the liposomes 882 883 decreased. The values of EE% for 1:1, 1:5, and 1:10, β -carotene:coix seed oil liposomes were 83.8, 81.3, and 80.8 %, respectively, which were slightly lower than that of liposomes 884 containing β -carotene alone (86.0%). This was ascribed to the ability of coix seed oil to compete 885 886 for the available hydrophobic domains within the phospholipid bilayers.

To sum up, ethanol injection method is widely employed for plant oils encapsulation as it is simple, easy to scalable and it does not require any additional process for vesicle size reduction. According to the previous work studies, phospholipon ®90H (Sebaaly et al., 2016a,
2016b), phospholipon ®80H (Sebaaly et al., 2016b), lipoid ® S100 (Hammoud et al., 2019;
Sebaaly et al., 2016b) and egg phospholipids (C. Bai et al., 2019; Rushmi et al., 2017) are
widely used as bilayer forming lipids. Ethanol injection method suffers from several drawbacks
including continuous exposure of plant oils to high temperature and organic solvents which
may affect both the safety and stability of the liposomes (Nkanga et al., 2019).

895 **5.2.1.3.** Heating method

The heating method, called also Mozafari method, was first developed in 2005. It is known to be the most attractive method for liposomes preparation due to its organic solvent/detergents free characteristics (Mozafari & Mortazavi, 2005). In this technique, lipids are hydrated in the presence of hydrating agent (glycerin or propylene glycol) and heated at 40– 120°C (at the temperature which is above the transition temperature of the phospholipids) depending on the properties of the ingredients, the presence or absence of cholesterol, and the type of material to be entrapped (**Fig.6.c**) (Mozafari et al., 2008).

Currently, Mozafari method is widely used to encapsulate VO and polyunsaturated fatty 903 acids (Table 2). When compared to thin hydration process, Mozafari method produce 904 liposomes with higher stability. Rsati et al. (2012) investigated the difference between the 905 oxidative stability of liposomes (before sonication) and nanoliposomes (after sonication) 906 produced by Mozafari and conventional thin hydration techniques. For both methods, 907 908 polyunsaturated fatty acids entrapment efficiency values of nanoliposomes were higher than 909 those of liposomes. Authors related this result to the fact that size reduction increases the surface area of the liposomes resulting in increasing the contact and bond between the fatty acids and 910 911 phospholipids in the bilayers. Moreover, liposomes prepared by Mozafari process showed higher physical stability than those prepared by conventional method (Rasti et al., 2012). In 912

another work study, the effect of formulation strategies on phytosterol, extracted from canola 913 oil, loaded-liposomes was investigated (Poudel et al., 2019). The results showed that Mozafari 914 method produce liposomes with high average size (260 nm) as compared to those obtained by 915 916 thin film hydration homogenization (186 nm) and thin film hydration ultrasonication (196 nm). This result was attributed to the high shear force and cavitation involved in size reduction during 917 the ultrasonication and homogenization process; while in Mozafari method, less intense 918 919 magnetic stirring will probably yield to larger particles. In term of polydispersity index and zeta potential, no difference was found for all the formulations (Poudel et al., 2019). 920

Like the methods discussed above, Mozafari method was affected by several operating 921 922 conditions. In 2013, Rasti et al. investigated the effect of shear rate, mixing and sonication times on colloidal properties of polyunsaturated fatty acids (docosahexaenoic acid and 923 eicosapentaenoic acid) nanoliposomes (Rasti et al., 2013). In their study, response surface 924 925 methodology was applied to predict the optimum levels of liposome preparation condition producing maximum EE% and minimum average size. According to ANOVA analysis, all the 926 927 independent variables and their interactions were found significant; while, the main significant effect on liposome size and EE% was found to be the shear rate. After optimizing the operating 928 929 parameters; shear rate (795 rpm), mixing time (60 min) and sonication time (10 min), the 930 nanoliposome exhibited an average diameter of 81.4nm with an EE% of 100% (Rasti et al., 2013). 931

Besides using heating method to encapsulate VO in liposomes, no report was found regarding the encapsulation of EO maybe due to their high sensitivity and volatility upon exposure at high temperature. Thus, this technique is not suitable for thermosensitive bioactive agents. In closing, Mozafari method showed to be a fast, simple, scalable, and non-toxic technique for liposome preparation with high EE%. In addition, the obtained liposomes can be freely used without any further sterilization treatments as they were prepared under heating

- 938 conditions which in turn could minimize both formulation timing and complexity (Nkanga et
- 939 al., 2019).

Encapsulated	Plant (origin)	Phospholipid used	Physicochemical properties			Biological properties	Application Ref.	
oil			Size (nm)	Z.pot (mV)	EE (%)	_		
Thin hydratio	on method							
Myristica	<i>Myristica fragrans</i> Houtt.	Soybean phospholipid	/	/	/	Antimicrobial, antioxidant	Food	(Zhu et al., 2020)
Ferula gummosa	<i>Ferula gummosa</i> Boiss.	Phospholipid	74.3 -99.9	/	/	Antibacterial		(Najafi et al., 2020)
Laurel	Laurelia sempervirens Tul.	L-α-PCH	200	/	/	Antibacterial, antioxidant	Food	(Wu et al., 2020)
Cardamon	<i>Elettaria</i> <i>cardamomum</i> L.	Phospholipid	71.8–147.9	-17.4 to - 10.7	< 60	Antimicrobial, antioxidant	Food	(Nahr et al., 2019)
Chrysanthemum	Chrysanthemum pacificum L.	Soybean phospholipid	132.4	-37.6	42.7	Antibacterial	Food	(Lin et al., 2019b)
Sage	Salvia triloba L.	Phospholipon 90G	≈200	-20 to -35	57	Antioxidant, antibacterial Anti-inflammatory	Medicine	(Risaliti et al., 2019)
		Soybean phospholipid	188.5	-48.38	46.5	Antibacterial	Food	(Cui et al., 2016b)
Rosemary	Rosmarinus officinalis L.	L-α-PEA dioleovl	79	-2.77	45	Anticancer	Medicine	(Salari and Salari, 2019)
	-557	Phospholipon 90G	≈200	-20 to -35	65	Antioxidant; antibacterial Anti-inflammatory	Medicine	(Risaliti et al., 2019)
		РСН	/	/	/	Preservative	Food	(Alikhani-Koupaei, 2015)
Garlic	Allium sativum L.	Soybean PCH	115	-12.36	86.00	Antibacterial, antioxidant	Food	(Nazari et al., 2019)
Tea tree	Melaleuca	Soybean PCH	50-100	/	98.49	Antimicrobial	/	(Ge et al., 2019)
	alternifolia Cheel.	Soybean PCH	58	/	97.18	Antimicrobial	/	(Ge & Ge, 2015)
	·	Soybean PCH	75	-7.45	96.08	Antimicrobial	/	(Ge and Ge, 2016)
Ajwain	Trachyspermum copticum L.	Soybean PCH	170.8	/	85.9	Antimicrobial	Cosmetics	(Tabatabai et al., 2018)
Thyme	Thymus vulgaris L.	Soybean phospholipid	182.60	-40.90	35.35	Antibacterial	Food	(Lin et al., 2018)
		Soybean phospholipid	208.1	-52.2	38.16	Antibacterial	Food	(Cui et al., 2017b)
Eucalyptus	<i>Eucalyptus globulus</i> L'Hér.	Soybean phospholipid	/	/	97.35	Antimicrobial	Medicine	(Tang and Ge, 2017)
	Eucalyptus citriodora L.	Soybean phospholipid	266.56	-33.73	22.47	Antimicrobial	/	(Lin et al., 2019a)

	ons.
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Cineole	/	Egg yolk PCH	128	6.8	67.7	Permeation enhancers	Medicine	(Saffari et al., 2016)
Inymol +	/	Soybean PCH	270.20	+39.99	/	Antipiarahial	Food	(Engel et al., 2017)
Zataria	Zataria multiflora	L-u-rCH Soubson DCH	00 0	/	18.4	Antimicrobial	Food	(Lionos et al., 2009) (Khatibi et al. 2017)
multiflora	Boiss	Soybean I CII	<i></i>	1	10.4	Antimerobiai	Cosmetics	(Kilatioi et al., 2017)
mangiora	D 0135.						Medicine	
Curry	Helichrysum	Sovbean	196.6	-31.1	56.3	Antibacterial	Food	(Cui et al. 2017a)
Curry	italicum G.	phospholipid	190.0	51.1	50.5	1 millioueteriur	1004	(Cur et ul., 2017a)
Limonene	/	Egg volk PCH	102	6.1	71.0	Permeation enhancers	Medicine	(Saffari et al., 2016)
Cinnamon	Cinnamomum	Soybean	144.3	-54.7	29.2	Antibacterial	Medicine	(Cui et al., 2016a)
	<i>cassia</i> persl.	phospholipid						
Clove	Syzygium	Soybean	149	-24.5	20.4	Antibacterial	Food	(Cui et al., 2015)
	aromaticum L.	phospholipid						
Bergamot	Monarda didyma L.	Phospholipid	185.1	-2.95	75.0	Anticancer	Medicine	(Celia et al., 2013)
Bergapten	/	Phospholipid	185.1	-2.95	75.0	Anticancer	Medicine	(Celia et al., 2013)
Macassar	Brucea javanica L.	Phospholipid	108.2	-57.0	92.4	Anticancer	Medicine	(Cui et al., 2010)
kernels								
Dill	Anethum graveolens	PCH	/	/	98	Antimicrobial	/	(Ortan et al., 2009)
	L.							
Zanthoxylum	Zanthoxylum	1,2-Dipalmitoyl	210-3630	/	68.5-79.2	Anticancer	Medicine	(Detoni et al., 2012)
tingoassuiba	tingoassuiba L.	PCH						
Sterol	/	PCH	< 200	-9 to -14	>89	Antioxidant	Food	(Poudel et al., 2019)
DHA	/	1,2-Dipalmitoyl	99	-15.7	81.4	Anticancer; anti-inflammatory	Medicine	(Alaarg et al., 2016)
		PCH	/	/	38.6	Anticancer; anti-inflammatory	Medicine	(Hadian et al., 2014)
EPA	/	1,2-Dipalmitoyl	/	/	56.9	Anticancer; anti-inflammatory	Medicine	(Hadian et al., 2014)
	1	PCH	-100	40.4	,		N 6 11 1	
EPA+DHA	/	Soybean	<100	-48.4	/	Anticancer; anti-inflammatory	Medicine	(Rasti et al., 2012)
~		phospholipid						
Solvent inject	tion method							
Anethole	/	Lipoid S100	/	/	/	Antibacterial	/	(Auezova et al., 2020)
Cinnamaldehyde	; /	Egg yolk	1000-2500	/	/	Antimicrobial	/	(Wang et al., 2019)
		phospholipid						~~
Isoeugenol	/	Lipoid S100	/	/	96.4	/	/	(Hammoud et al., 2019)
Pulegone	/	Lipoid S100	/	/	90.5	/	/	(Hammoud et al., 2019)
Terpineol	/	Lipoid S100	/	/	73.7	/	/	(Hammoud et al., 2019)
Thymol	/	Lipoid S100	/	/	/9.1	/	/	(Hammoud et al., 2019)
Estragole	/	Lipoid S100	/	/	90.9	/	/	(Hammoud et al., 2019)
Eucalyptol	/	Lipoid S100	/ 50_000	/	61.9 24.97	/	/	(Hammoud et al., 2019)
Black seed	Nigella sativa L.	Egg yolk PCH	50-900	/	34-87	Analgesic	Medicine	(Rushmi et al., 2017)

Garlic	Allium sativum L.	Phospholipid	131.7	/	64.3	Antimicrobial	Food	(Zabihi et al., 2017)
Galangal	Alpinia officinarum	Phospholipid	61.9	-16	/	Antimicrobial; antioxidant	Medicine	(Liu et al., 2016)
	L.	Phospholipid	125.6	- 35.5	35.6	Antimicrobial; antioxidant	Medicine	(Cao et al., 2016)
Clove	Syzygium	Phospholipon	/	/	54.2 - 59.7	Anti-inflammatory	Medicine	(Sebaaly et al., 2016a)
	aromaticum L.	90H				-		
		Phospholipid	/	/	/	Anti-inflammatory	Medicine	(Sebaaly et al., 2015b)
Eugenol	/	Lipoid S100	74.6	/	24.2	Anti-cancer	Medicine	(Mishra et al., 2019)
		Phospholipon	/	/	63.1 - 63.5	Anti-inflammatory	Medicine	(Sebaaly et al., 2016a)
		90H						
		Phospholipid	58.6	/	59.2	Antibacterial	Food	(Peng et al., 2015)
		S75						
		Phospholipid	/	/	/	Anti-inflammatory	Medicine	(Sebaaly et al., 2015b)
Linseed oil +	Linum	Soybean	262.2	/	/	Source of PUFA	Food	(Huang et al., 2020)
quercetin	usitatissimum L.	phospholipid						
Coix seed oil +	Coix lacryma-jobi	Egg yolk PCH	156.7-193.1	-47.8 to -32.4	80.8 - 83.8	Anticancer	Medicine	(C. Bai et al., 2019)
B-carotene	L.							
Linoleic acid	/	Soybean PCH	266	/	83.3	/	Food	(Vélez et al., 2019)
Heating method								
Sterol	/	Soybean	> 200	-9 to -14	>89	Antioxidant	Food	(Poudel et al., 2019)
		phospholipid						
EPA + DHA	/	Soybean	<200	-48.3	/	/	/	(Rasti et al., 2012)
		phospholipid						

941 EPA: Eicosapentaenoic acid; DHA: Docosahexaenoic acid; PUFA: Polyunsaturated fatty acids; PCH: phosphatidylcholine; PEA: phosphatidylethanolamine.

943 5.2.2. Solid lipid nanoparticles and nanostructured lipid carriers

Solid lipid nanoparticles (SLN) are other lipid-based carriers that have emerged as they 944 combine the benefits of liposomes and polymeric nanoparticles (Sarangi and Padhi, 2016). 945 Solid lipid nanoparticles, developed since 1990, are suspensions of nanosized solid lipid 946 particles dispersed in an aqueous media (Patel, 2013). There are composed of surfactants and a 947 lipid matrix that acquires a solid-state lipid at ambient temperature (Bayón-Cordero et al., 948 949 2019). The commonly used materials to structure the lipid core are fatty acids (stearic acid, palmitic acid, decanoic acid and benzoic acid), triacylglycerols (trimyristin, trilaurin, tristearin 950 and tripalmitin) and acyl glycerols (glycerol monostearate, glycerol palmitostearate and 951 952 glycerol benzoate). These lipids are characterized by their purity, low price, safety and 953 biodegradability. In the other hand, phospholipids (phosphatidylcholine, soy and egg lecithins), poloxamer, pluronic[®]F127, bile salts, tween 80 and polyvinyl alcohol are example of commonly 954 used surfactants (Kaliamurthi and Selvaraj, 2016). 955

In the aim of enhancing the loading capacity of SLN, a second generation of lipid nanoparticles was developed in 1999; so called nanostructured lipid carriers (NLC) in which the matrix is composed not only of a solid lipid, but of a blend of a solid and a liquid lipid oil, as illustrated in **Fig. 7**. These carriers may provide an additional space for the loading of bioactive agents, improving in this way the amount of the active compounds entrapped and minimizing the probability of expulsion from the lipid phase (Patel, 2013).

Considering the delivery of plant oil, the main reason to use SLN or NLC as nanocarriers is the improvement of entrapment efficiency. Since the oils are mostly lipophilic, they present a good miscibility with the lipid matrix, resulting high amount of oil could be entrapped (Falcao et al., 2015). In addition, these lipid-based carriers protect the labile and sensitive oil components from chemical, photochemical or oxidative degradation, due to the immobilization by solid lipids. Different methods are employed to produce SLN, however, high pressure

- 968 homogenization and high-speed homogenization (ultrasonication) are commonly used due to
- 969 their simplicity and facility of scaling up.



970

971 Fig. 7. Schematic illustration of solid lipid nanoparticles and nanostructured lipid carriers'972 preparation methods.

973 5.2.2.1. High pressure homogenization

The high-pressure homogenization method was extensively used to encapsulate plant oils in SLN since it produces particles with small size and higher homogeneity. Using a highpressure homogenizer, liquids were pushed with high pressure (100-2000 bar) through a narrow gap (micron size) creating fluid acceleration over a very short distance at very high viscosity of over 1000 km/h which in turn result in disrupting the particles down to submicron range (Garudet al., 2012).

Using the high-pressure homogenization to encapsulate plants oils, the lipid is heated at 5 to 10°C above its melting point, and the oil is dissolved within (**Fig.7.a**). After that two approaches are involved: hot or cold homogenization. In hot homogenization, hot aqueous surfactant solution is dispersed with the plant oil-lipid melt under stirring at the same temperature creating the pre-emulsion. The resultant pre-emulsion was pushed through a piston-gap homogenizer creating a hot oil-in-water (O/W) nanoemulsion which is cooled after at room temperature allowing the crystallization of the lipid and the formation of SLN.

Using the cold homogenization approach the oil-lipid melt was cooled down creating
solid lipid microparticles that are dispersed after in a cold aqueous surfactant solution forming
a pre-suspension. The subsequent homogenization of this pre-suspension creates SLN
(Fig.7.b). Several studies have been already published investigating the use of high-pressure
homogenization process to encapsulate plant oils (see Table 3).

992 Regarding the size of SLN prepared by this technique, numerous research works reported a small average diameter with good stability and high EE%. For example, SLN 993 containing frankincense and myhrr EO in a ratio 1:1 were developed using hot homogenization 994 995 process by Wang et al. (Wang, 2012). An average mean size of 113.3 nm, a zeta potential of -16.8 mV and an EE% of 80.60% were assessed for the obtained SLN. The same process was 996 used to prepare SLN encapsulating the VO: copaiba oil with and without allantoin which is 997 widely used in cosmetology for its keratolytic, moisturizing, soothing and wound healing 998 properties (Svetlichny et al., 2015). The dynamic light scattering analysis revealed an average 999 particle size of 126.06 nm and 118.63 nm for the copaiba oil-loaded SLN and copaiba oil: 1000 1001 allantoin-co-loaded SLN, respectively.

Concerning the stability of SLN, previous works highlighted their efficiency in 1002 1003 preserving the quality of encapsulated oil during long-term storage as compared to unencapsulated-form (Tian et al., 2018; Zielinska et al., 2019). Tian et al. (2018) reported that 1004 1005 SLN can enhance the stability of citral in acidic surroundings. Gas-chromatography analysis showed that after 12 days storage, 67% of citral remained in the citral loaded-SLN formulations, 1006 while only 8% remained in the control. In addition, the overall flavour of the degradation 1007 1008 products generated from citral-SLN were assessed and results demonstrated that the offflavours had little effect on the whole flavour of citral-SLN in the system sample as compared 1009 1010 with the control (Tian et al., 2018).

Several factors such as the kind of lipid, surfactant and the operating process conditions 1011 could influence the physicochemical properties of the particles obtained by high-pressure 1012 1013 homogenization. In this context, Mai et al. (2018) investigated the influence of homogenization 1014 conditions on gac fruit EO-loaded SLN prepared by hot and cold homogenization. Results showed that increasing hot homogenization speed from 5000 to 10000 rpm was accompanied 1015 1016 with a decrease in particle size from 3297 to 201 nm. However, further increase in speed leads to increase the particle size due to the fact that the oil particles are more likely to collide and 1017 aggregate with others. Concerning hot homogenization time, short time was found not enough 1018 for active ingredient encapsulation while more homogenization time result in small particles 1019 1020 which in turn lead to reduce the volume containing active ingredients (Mai et al., 2018).

In another work study, the impact of the surfactant content, the ratio of citral to lipid, and their total content on the physicochemical characteristics of citral-loaded SLN has been explored (Tian et al., 2018). As the surfactant amount increases the EE% decreases due to the fact that the surface of the formed SLN was not large enough to absorb the excess of surfactant which in turn form micelles, resulting a partitioning phenomenon of citral between micelles and SLN; therefore, a decrease in entrapment efficiency was noticed. Results revealed also an

increase in particle size and a decrease in EE% when increasing the content of the mixture citral 1027 1028 : glyceryl monostearate, used as lipid matrix, from 1 to 5%. The increase in the content of citral : lipid leads to increase the viscosity of the system which in turn reduce the efficiency of the 1029 1030 high-pressure homogenization process to decrease the particle size. Additionally, too much citral and lipid cannot be emulsified when the surfactant content is kept constant this is why the 1031 EE% decreased. The same behavior of EE% was observed when increasing the ratio of citral to 1032 1033 glycerol monostearate. In fact, the excess of citral cannot be entrapped when the content of the mixture citral : lipid was kept constant (Tian et al., 2018). 1034

1035 In recent years, NLC were introduced to bypass the potential problems associated with the use of SLN. They were widely used for plant oils encapsulation, as depicted in Table 3. 1036 The main feature of these nanocarriers is to enhance the drug loading and prevent drug 1037 1038 expulsion during long term storage (Sailaja et al., 2011) and this was confirmed by several 1039 research works. In 2019, using the high-pressure homogenization technique, Miranda and his colleagues developed *Ridolfia segetum* EO loaded-NLC with a small particle size (148.1 nm), 1040 1041 a high zeta potential (16.3 mV) with excellent loading capacity (EE%=100%) (Miranda et al., 2019). In another research work, NLC containing sucupira EO produced by hot homogenization 1042 process owning an average diameter of 143 nm with an EE% of 99.98% (Vieira et al., 2020). 1043

Another characteristic intended by using either SLN or NLC as plant oils carrier is 1044 providing a controlled released pattern. For this context, in vitro release profile of sucupira oil 1045 1046 from NLC was assessed by means of Franz glass diffusion cells and the recorded release profile was fitted into four mathematical models i.e., zero order, first order, Higuchi and Korsmeyer-1047 Peppas (Vieira et al., 2020). Results showed that the release profile of sucupira oil followed a 1048 1049 sustained manner over the course of 8 h. About 17.5% was released within the first hour, while the cumulative amount reached 30% at the end of the 8 h (Vieira et al., 2020). Results showed 1050 1051 also that the best model describing the release of sucupira oil from NLC was the first order with a regression coefficient close to 1. In contrary to SLN, the release profile of plant oils from
NLC does not follow Higuchi or Korsmeyers–Peppas model. Indeed, the release was governed
by sucupira oil concentration inside the particles rather than the physicochemical properties of
the carriers and this was expected as NLC are made of blend of solid and liquid lipids. Higuchi
and Korsmeyers–Peppas are typically followed in the case of SLN formulations as these have
a higher degree of crystallinity which controls better the release profile.

1058 With respect to vegetable oils, NLC were employed for co-delivery of VO with another bioactive molecule (Badea et al., 2015; Lacatusu et al., 2015; Rahman et al., 2013, 2014; 1059 1060 Sidding et al., 2013). The benefit of these nanocarriers is that the VO can complement or even enhance the biological activity of the synthetic drug (Lacatusu et al., 2015). For this context, 1061 diethylamino hydroxybenzoyl hexyl benzoate used as UVA filter was co-encapsulated with 1062 1063 various vegetable oils and their combinations (pomegranate seed oil, wheat germ oil, 1064 blackcurrant seed oil, sesame seed oil, carrot root oil, raspberry seed oil and rice bran oil) in NLC by high pressure homogenization method in order to enhance its antioxidant activity and 1065 1066 UV protection performance (Badea et al., 2015). All the prepared NLC owned a mean particle size in the range of 108 to 145 nm with narrow size distribution, high zeta potential ranging 1067 from -34.4 to -44.3 mV and an entrapment efficiency between 51 and 70% (Badea et al., 2015). 1068 In another work study, in the aim of enhancing the anti-inflammatory properties, olive oil was 1069 1070 co entrapped with thymoquinone in NLC and the resultant particles owned an average diameter 1071 around 75 nm with negative zeta potential of -31 mV (Sidding et al., 2013). Olive oil was further encapsulated in hydrogenated palm oil-NLC for co-delivery with synthetic drug purpose. The 1072 resultant particles had a mean diameter, polydispersity index, zeta potential, specific surface 1073 area, and crystallinity index of 61.14 nm, 0.461, -25.4 mV, 49.07 m² and 27.12% respectively 1074 (How et al., 2013). 1075

Besides the synthesized drugs, VO may be co-encapsulated with EO in NLC. For instance, Lacatusu et al. (2015) highlighted the possible blend of plant and animal oils – grape seed oil or fish oil with laurel leaf EO in NLC. The mean average diameter of obtained NLC reduces after increase of grape seed oil or fish oil content. This was ascribed to the role of the long fatty chains of these oils which lead to a more confined lipid core.

On the whole the high-pressure homogenization technique is largely employed thanks 1081 1082 to its benefits including low cost, good scalability and high stability of particles. While, with respect to the encapsulation of plant oils hot homogenization is more used as compared to the 1083 1084 cold homogenization method. Lipids like tristearin (Salminen et al., 2017), n-hexadecyl palmitate (Lacatusu et al., 2015), myritol®318 (caprylic/capric triglyceride) (Lacatusu et al., 1085 2015), compritol[®]888 ATO (Wang, 2012), glyceryl monolinoleate (Shi et al., 2013; Tian et al., 1086 1087 2018), oleoyl macrogolglycerides (Shi et al., 2013), lipoid®S100 (Sidding et al., 2013), cetyl 1088 palmitate (Svetlichny et al., 2015) and glycerol monostearate (Shi et al., 2013) are usually used to structure either SLN or NLC. Soybean lecithin (Salminen et al., 2017; Wang, 2012), tween 1089 1090 80 (Shi et al., 2013; Sidding et al., 2013; Svetlichny et al., 2015; Wang, 2012), tween 20 (Badea et al., 2015; Lacatusu et al., 2015), span 80 (Mai et al., 2018; Tian et al., 2018) poloxamer 1091 (Badea et al., 2015) and sodium taurodeoxycholate hydrate (Salminen et al., 2017) are example 1092 of used emulsifiers. 1093

1094 The use of high-speed homogenization process is often limited by the need of high 1095 energy input and the high temperature which cause oil loss.

1096 5.2.2.2. Ultrasonication / high speed homogenization

1097 Solid lipid nanoparticles may also be prepared by ultrasonication or high-speed 1098 homogenization technique. In brief, the heated aqueous phase was added to the melted lipid 1099 phase and emulsified by high speed stirrer, probe sonication or by adding the aqueous phase 1100 drop by drop to the lipid phase under magnetic stirring. The obtained pre-emulsion was 1101 ultrasonicated using probe sonicator with water bath (**Fig.7.c**). In order to prevent re-1102 crystallization during the process, the production temperature was kept at least 5°C above the 1103 lipid melting point (Ramteke et al., 2012; Yadav et al., 2013).

1104 With respect to the encapsulation of plant oils, the ultrasonication technique is widely used, as described in Table 3. Zataria multiflora EO-loaded SLN were developed using Precirol® 1105 ATO 5 (Glyceryl monostearate) as lipidic matrix and tween 80 with poloxamer 188 as 1106 1107 surfactants (Nasseri et al., 2016). The obtained SLN owned a particle size around 255.5 nm with zeta potential of -37.8 mV and high EE% of 84 %. The same technique was used to develop 1108 cardamom EO loaded-NLC using cocoa butter (as solid lipid), olive oil (as liquid lipid) and 1109 1110 tween 80 (as surfactant); and the resultant particles had round shape, smooth surface with particle size less than 100 nm (Nahr et al., 2018). Similarly, NLC were developed using palm 1111 stearin as solid lipid and lecithin as emulsifier and the resultant particles were physically and 1112 1113 chemically stable during 70-day storage at room temperature and 4°C (Zhu et al., 2015). Furthermore, Noor et al. (2013) successfully loaded coconut VO into SLN by the same process 1114 1115 and reported high EE% (99.97%).

Like all the colloidal formulations discussed above, both SLN and NLC prepared by 1116 high-speed homogenization provide a controlled release profile of plant oils (Pivetta et al., 1117 2018; Zhao et al., 2017). The release profile of EO from these nanocarriers may be affected by 1118 several factors such as the particle size and the composition of lipidic matrix. In 2011, Garg and 1119 1120 his coworkers compared the release profile of eugenol from SLN and NLC formulations made from stearic acid and the mixture stearic acid: caprylic triglyceride, respectively (Garg and 1121 1122 Singh, 2011). Results revealed a biphasic release pattern from both nanocarriers. After initial burst release, the cumulative amounts of eugenol released within 12 h were 65 and 78% from 1123 SLN and NLC, respectively. This was related to the structure of the nanocarrier's matrix. The 1124 1125 addition of liquid lipid in the case of NLC provides fewer barriers to partitioning of eugenol to the dissolution media. The authors ascribed also this result to the small particle size of NLC (87.7 nm) as compared to that of SLN (332 nm). Indeed, the addition of liquid lipid decreases the viscosity of the organic phase (lipid solution) to be dispersed in the aqueous one resulting in smaller particles. Moreover, liquid lipid may inhibit the crystallization of solid lipid leading to smaller particle size (Garg and Singh, 2011). One may conclude that the incorporation of liquid lipid improves the EE% but decreases the barrier provided by lipid matrix for the diffusion of bioactive molecule in the dissolution medium.

The particle size and zeta potential of NLC were influenced by several parameters 1133 1134 including solid lipid composition, oil and surfactant (type and concentration), lipid:surfactant ratio, etc. The impact of these factors was extensively studied in the literature (Krasodomska et 1135 al., 2016; Lacatusu et al., 2013; Soleimanian et al., 2018). It was found that increasing stearic 1136 1137 acid concentration results in increasing the size of Eugenia caryophyllata EO-loaded SLN 1138 prepared by ultrasonication method (Bazzaz et al., 2018). Moreover, Soleimanian et al. (2018) developing pomegranate seed oil-loaded NLC using two types of natural waxes: beeswax and 1139 propolis wax, investigated the influence of solid lipid composition, surfactant blend 1140 concentration and oil content on NLC physicochemical properties. Results demonstrated that 1141 increasing oil amount resulted in a decrease in particle size of beeswax NLC. This was related 1142 to the reduction of core viscosity and enhancement of fluidity which results in a decrease in 1143 1144 particle size. The opposite behavior was observed in the case of propolis wax NLC. The particle 1145 size increases by increasing the oil content. The authors ascribed that to enhanced interfacial tension or swelling rate of the core as result of greater oil concentration. Concerning the impact 1146 of solid lipid type, Soleimanian et al. (2018) reported that small differences in the lipid 1147 1148 composition (particularly, the melting point) might have considerable impact on size and quality of nano lipid carriers. Beeswax consisting of a longer series of carboxylic acid 1149 homologues, alcohols and hydrocarbons exhibits higher melting point, leading to higher 1150

viscosity of the dispersed phase which in turn results in increasing particle size (203 nm). On 1151 the other hand, propolis wax having lower proportion of components produced smaller NLC 1152 (143 nm). Regarding the zeta potential, the same authors reported that increasing the 1153 concentration of surfactant mixture (Lecithin:Tween 80) results in decreasing the zeta potential 1154 of NLC. They related this result to the differences in mobility and redistribution of used 1155 surfactants. In fact, high amounts of surfactant decrease the surface tension and enhance the 1156 1157 particle partition during homogenization, resulting to a decrease in particle size and thus new NLC appear. The time required for the redistribution of surfactant molecules to cover the new 1158 1159 surfaces differ. Indeed, low molecular weight surfactants such as tween 80 adsorb rapidly at the interface, while lecithin, as high molecular weight surfactant, needs more time to be adsorbed. 1160 Therefore, tween 80, external hydrophilic non-ionic surfactant, will cover the internal lipophilic 1161 1162 surfactant (i.e. lecithin), and thus the zeta potential decreases (Soleimanian et al., 2018).

1163 In summary, the ultrasonication is chosen by scientists to design both SLN and NLC systems to entrap plant oils. The commonly used lipid are glyceryl behenate (Zhao et al., 2017), 1164 1165 stearic acid (Bazzaz et al., 2018; Garg and Singh, 2013, 2011), carnauba wax (Lacatusu et al., 2013), whey protein isolate (Azizi et al., 2019), glycerol stearate (Lacatusu et al., 2013), 1166 palmitic acid (Azizi et al., 2019), propolis (Soleimanian et al., 2018), palm stearin (Zhu et al., 1167 1168 2015), beeswax (Shakeri et al., 2019; Soleimanian et al., 2018), illipe butter (Pivetta et al., 2018), cocoa butter (Nahr et al., 2018), Precirol® ATO 5 (glyceryl palmitostearate) (Ghodrati 1169 et al., 2019), miglyol®812 (caprylic/caprictriglycerides) (Ghodrati et al., 2019) and myverol® 1170 RX GMS 95P (mixture of glycerol palmitic (57,8%) stearic (37.3%) and myristic (1.3%) acid) 1171 (Krasodomska et al., 2016). Lecithin (Soleimanian et al., 2018; Zhu et al., 2015), poly vinyl 1172 1173 alcohol (Zhao et al., 2017), tween 80 (Lacatusu et al., 2013; Nahr et al., 2018; Noor et al., 2013), poloxamer (Ghodrati et al., 2019; Lacatusu et al., 2013) and pluronic® F68 (Pivetta et al., 2018) 1174 are example of used emulsifiers. The main features of the ultrasonication process including 1175

facility, simplicity and reduced high shear. However, it is limited by the high metalcontamination potential, unproven scalability and high energy requirement.

Encapsulated oil	Plant (origin)	Lipid used	Physicochemical properties		Biological properties	Application	Ref.	
-		-	Size (nm)	Z.pot (mV)	EE (%)			
			Soli	d lipid nanop	articles			
High pressure h	nomogenization							
Carvacrol	/	Cocoa butter	/	/	/	Antioxidant	Medicine	(Carvalho et al., 2020)
Geranial	/	Monoterpene Imwitor® 900K	120.1	0	/	/	/	(Zielińska et al., 2020)
Ziziphora	Ziziphora	Percirol ATO5	241.1	-22.6	93	Insecticide	Agriculture	(Jajarm et al., 2020)
	clinopodioides	Campritol 888						
Eugenol	/	Caprylic triglyceride Stearic acid	332	-18.7	91.8	Anticancer	Medicine	(Garg and Singh, 2011)
	/	Hydrogenated palm oil Coconut oil	164.5-172.9	/	/	Antifungal	Food	(McDaniel et al., 2019)
Thymol	/	Hvdrogenated	166.4-170.5	/	/	Antifungal	Food	(McDaniel et al., 2019)
Cinnamaldehyde	/	palm oil Coconut oil	198.0-202.1					()
Sclareol	/	Compritol	128	-29.3	/	Treatment of metabolic disorder	Medicine	(Cerri et al., 2019)
Chamomile	Matricaria chamomilla L.	Stearic acid	542	-35.9	/	Wound healing	Cosmetics	(Gad et al., 2019)
α-pinene	/	Imwitor® 900K	136.7	/	/	Antimicrobial, antioxidant	/	(Zielinska et al., 2019)
		Monoterpene Imwitor® 900K	89.7	0	/	/	/	(Zielińska et al., 2020)
Citral	/	Glyceryl monostearate	215.4	/	/	Flavoring agent	Food	(Tian et al., 2018)
		Monoterpene Imwitor® 900K	125.4	0		/	/	(Zielińska et al., 2020)
Gac fruit EO	Momordica cochinchinensis L.	Emulgade	200	/	90	Antioxidant; Anti-aging Skin tanning, skin care and skin protection	Cosmetics	(Mai et al., 2018)
Frankincense + Myhrr oil	Commiphora myrrha L.	Compritol888 ATO	113.3	-16.8	80-60	Antitumor	Medicine	(Wang, 2012)
Copaiba oil	Copaifera officinalis L.	Cetyl palmitate	126.06	/	/	Antifungal	Cosmetics	(Svetlichny et al., 2015)

Table 3. Preparation methods for plant oils encapsulation in solid lipid nanoparticles and nanostructured lipid carriers with their fine applications.

Copaiba oil+ Allantoin	Copaifera officinalis L.	Cetyl palmitate	118.63	/	/	Antifungal	Cosmetics	(Svetlichny et al., 2015)		
Ultrasonication method										
Zataria multiflora	Zataria multiflora Boiss.	Precirol ATO 5 Stearic acid Glyceryl monostearate	220-486	-37.8 to -27.2	85.3-95.2	Fungicide Pesticide	Food Medicine Agriculture	(Nasseri et al., 2020)		
		Glyceryl monostearate Precirol [®] ATO 5	255.5	-37.8	84	Antifungal	Medicine	(Nasseri et al., 2016)		
β-elemene	/	Glyceryl monostearate Glyceryl tristearate	128.4	-3.07	/	Antitumor	Medicine	(He et al., 2019)		
Clove	Syzygium aromaticum L.	Precirol®ATO 5 Stearic acid Glyceryl monostearate	397.2	-20.9	/	Antimicrobial	Medicine	(Bazzaz et al., 2018)		
Linalool	/	Myristyl myristate Cetyl esters Cetyl palmitate	90-130	-4	>80	Anticancer	Medicine	(Rodenak-Kladniew et al., 2017)		
Eugenol	/	Stearic acid/Compritol	363-423	/	/	Antifungal	Medicine	(Garg and Singh, 2013)		
		Stearic acid Caprylic triglyceride	87.7	-19.2	98.5	Antifungal	Medicine	(Garg and Singh, 2011)		
Coconut	<i>Cocos nucifera</i> L.	Stearic acid	608	-47.5	99.9	Moisturizing lotion	Cosmetics	(Noor et al., 2013)		
Nanostructured lipid carriers										
High pressure h	omogenization									
Cinnamon	Cinnamomum cassia persl.	Cocoa butter Almond oil	100-120	-14.9 to -17.5	>82.1	Antimicrobial, antioxidant	Food	(Bashiri et al., 2020b)		
Sucupira	Pterodon emarginatus L.	Imwitor® 900 K Tripalmitin	148.1	/	99.9	Antidiabetic	Medicine	(Vieira et al., 2020)		
Squaw mint	Mentha pulegium L.	Precirol [®] ATO 5 Miglyol [®] 812	40-250	-10 to -15	/	Wound healing	Cosmetics	(Khezri et al., 2020)		

Rosemary	Rosmarinus officinalis L.	Precirol [®] ATO 5 Miglvol [®] 812	100-250	-15.7	92.1	Wound healing	Cosmetics	(Khezri et al., 2019)
Peppermint	<i>Mentha piperita</i> L.	Precirol [®] ATO 5 Miglyol [®] 812	40-250	-10 to -15	/	Wound healing	Cosmetics	(Ghodrati et al., 2019)
Clove	Syzygium aromaticum L.	Beeswax Coconut oil	121-367	/	≈60	Cholinesterase enzyme inhibition	Medicine	(de Meneses et al., 2019)
Ridolfia segetum	Ridolfia segetum L.	Precirol [®] ATO 5	143	16.3	100	Antioxidant; anti- inflammatory	Medicine	(Miranda et al., 2019)
B-elemene	/	Glycerol monostearate Glyceryl monolinoleate Oleoyl macrogolglycerides	138.9	-20.2	82.11	Antitumor	Medicine	(Shi et al., 2013)
Thymoquinone	/	Hydrogenated palm oil Olive oil Lipoid [®] S100	75	-31	/	Antiulcer	Medicine	(Sidding et al., 2013)
Sunflower Crambe Canola	Helianthus annuus L. Crambe maritima L. Brassica napus L.	Sunflower oil Crambe oil Canola oil	48.23 - 342.10	-22.3 to-29.7	/	Source of phytosterols	Food	(Santos et al., 2019)
Pomegranate seed	Punica granatum L.	Glycerol monostearate	108 -145	34.4 to -44.3	51 - 70	Antioxidant UVA protector	Cosmetics	(Badea et al., 2015)
Wheat germ	Triticum aestivum L.	Emulgade				-		
Blackcurrant seed	Ribes nigrum L.							
Sesame	sesamum indicum L.							
Carrot root	Daucus carota subsp Sativus							
Raspberry seed	Rubus idaeus L.							
Rice bran	<i>Oryza sativa</i> L.	TT 1 / 1	(1.1.4	05.4	1			
Olive	Ulea europaea	Hydrogenated palm oil	61.14	-25.4	/	Source of PUFA	Medicine	(How et al., 2013)
Grape seed + Laurel	<i>Vitis vinifera</i> L.	n-Hexadecyl palmitate	< 150	/	/	Antitumor; antioxidant	Medicine	(Lacatusu et al., 2015)

		Glycerol						
		monostearate						
		Myritol [®] 318						
Ultrasonication	method							
Cinnamon	Cinnamomum cassia persl.	Cocoa butter	119.4	+21.4	84.6	Antioxidant	Food	(Bashiri et al., 2020a)
Lippia sidoides	<i>Lippia sidoides</i> L.	Gelucire [®] Labrasol [®]	214.4-423.2	-40.6 to -23.0	/	Antifungal	/	(Baldim et al., 2019)
Carvacrol + Astaxanthin	/	Lecithin Beeswax	58.8	-36	Asta=95 Car=88	Antioxidant Antibiofilm	Medicine	(Shakeri et al., 2019)
Eucalyptus	Eucalyptus globulus L.	Olive oil	50 - 60	-22.07	101.7	Wound healing	Cosmetics	(Saporito et al., 2018)
Peppermint	<i>Mentha piperita</i> L.	Miglyol-812 Precirol-ATO 5	40-250	-10 to -15	93.2	Wound healing	Cosmetics	(Ghodrati et al., 2019)
Cardamon	Elettaria cardamomum L.	Cocoa butter Olive oil	<150	/	>90	Antimoicrobial	Food	(Nahr et al., 2018)
Thymol	/	Illipe butter Calendula oil	107.7	-11.6	89.1	Anti-inflammatory Antipsoriatic	Cosmetics	(Pivetta et al., 2018)
Houttuynia cordata	<i>Houttuynia</i> <i>cordata</i> Thunb.	Glyceryl behenate	171	-19.3	90.20	Treatment of pneumonia, respiratory and urinary tract infections	Medicine	(Zhao et al., 2017)
Pomegranate seed	Punica granatum L.	Propolis Beeswax	71.4 - 366.3	-18.3 to -27.2	96–99	Antioxidant	Food	(Soleimanian et al., 2018)
Blackcurrant Blackberry Raspberry Strawberry	Ribes nigrum L. Rubus fruticosus L. Rubus idaeus L. Fragaria	Myverol RX GMS 95P Chemal EO-20	/	/	/	Source of PUFA	Medicine	(Krasodomska et al., 2016)
Plum	<i>ananassa</i> Duchesne. Prunus domestica L.							

1180 **6.** Application

1181 **6.1. Agriculture field**

The indiscriminate use of chemicals in field as well as during postharvest poses serious 1182 problems for the environment and the human health. The excessive application of synthetic 1183 1184 fungicides can also have other negative side effects. The appearance of resistance in the pathogen populations has been notified for many fungi (Saharan et al., 2013). In addition, over 1185 1186 the last few years increasing consumers concern regarding contamination of crops with fungicidal residues has been reported (Shukla, 2018). Therefore, low toxicity and more 1187 1188 environmentally friendly compounds as an alternative to chemical fungicides was brought to the forefront. Among them, GRAS (generally regarded as safe) antifungal compounds such as 1189 EO have been reported (Shukla, 2018; Sotelo-Boyás et al., 2015). Due to their broad spectrum 1190 1191 of activity against plant pathogenic fungi and insects-pests, EO have been used as antifungal, 1192 insecticidal, repellent, antifeedant and oviposition deterrent (De Souza et al., 2005; Shukla, 2018). However, the replacement of synthetic compounds is not easy due to the poor stability 1193 1194 shown by EOs during the processing steps. Therefore, nanoencapsulation has been proposed for this purpose (Maryam et al., 2015). According to the literature, pNPs are widely used for 1195 EO encapsulation in agriculture industry. 1196

1197 Recently, Khoobdel et al. (2017) investigated the insecticidal activity of Rosmarinus officinalis EO-loaded pNPs against the red flour beetle, Tribolium castaneum. Fumigant and 1198 contact toxicity assays revealed that the developed particles had significant increase in fumigant 1199 1200 and contact toxicity as compared to the pure EO. At the 72 h exposure for fumigant toxicity, the mortality of Tribolium castaneum adults was 83.3 % for free EO at a concentration of 27.76 1201 1202 μ L/L air and 100 % for EO-loaded nanoparticles at concentration of 19.12 μ L/L air (Khoobdel et al., 2017). Moreover, Zhaveh et al. (2015) related the superior performance of Cuminum 1203 1204 cyminum EO nanogels against Aspergillus flavus as compared to the free oil to the encapsulation in chitosan : cafeic acid nanoparticles. Similar results were already reported when investigating insecticidal activity against *Bemisia tabaci* for *Zanthoxylum rhoifolium* EO-loaded nanoparticles as compared to the free oil (Christofoli et al., 2015). Therefore, the nanoencapsulation can enhance the insecticidal potential of EO due to the controlled and slow release of EO and increased surface area of the nanoparticles.

Sotelo-Boyas and his coworkers (2015) combined the bacterial efficiency of chitosan 1210 1211 with those of lime and thyme EO in pNPs to eradicate Pectobacterium carotovorum, plant phytopathogenic bacteria, involved in the decay of fresh vegetables and fruits like radishes, 1212 onions, potatoes, cucumbers, carrots, eggplant, squash, peppers, tomato and cabbage. For 1213 1214 instance, chitosan was highly used for its potential effect in the control of phytopathogenic fungi Gram-negative and Gram positive bacteria (Benhabiles et al., 2012; Kaur et al., 2012; 1215 Zhu et al., 2016). The antibacterial study demonstrated that thyme based-nanoparticles showed 1216 1217 the highest inhibitory effect on the growth of *Pectobacterium carotovorum* than free chitosan nanoparticles and lime based- nanoparticles. The inhibition halo diameters were found 15, 13 1218 1219 and 24 mm for chitosan free nanoparticles, lime-chitosan nanoparticles and Thyme-chitosan nanoparticles, respectively. Moreover, the number of colonies forming units (CFU) could not 1220 be determined (countless colonies) for chitosan free nanoparticles. While for lime- and thyme-1221 1222 chitosan nanoparticles, CFU were found 450 and 240, respectively (Sotelo-Boyás et al., 2015). Furthermore, the results of antifungal assay carried out on chitosan:pepper tree EO 1223 nanoparticles revealed that higher activity was assessed for the nanoparticles on the viability of 1224 1225 Aspergillus parasiticus spores as compared to that of chitosan and pepper tree oil present individually. One may conclude that the antifungal effect of chitosan nanoparticles was 1226 attributed to two reasons: 1) the small size of nanoparticles will increase the contact area with 1227 fungus; 2) The cationic nature of chitosan allows electrostatic interaction with proteins and 1228

phospholipids of the plasmatic membrane of the microorganism which in turn cause membranedestabilization and death.

With respect to the use of lipid based-nanocarriers in agriculture industry, few reports 1231 1232 have been investigated in the last decade. Liposomes were used for the first time for rosemary EO encapsulation to inhibit the seed germination of invasive alien species (Acacia saligna) 1233 (Maccioni et al., 2019). The incorporation of rosemary EO in liposomes limited the loss of EO 1234 1235 volatile components and delivering them into the seed resulting in enhancing EO efficacy. Similarly, Adel et al. (2015) pointed out that *Pelargonium graveolens* EO loaded-SLN were 1236 stable under field conditions and exhibit higher larvicidal activity against Phthorimaea 1237 1238 operaculella as compared to the free oil.

1239 **6.2. Food field**

1240 In recent years, consumer demands in eating healthy and less processed foods have boosted remarkably. Functional foods play a pivotal role in promoting health and preventing 1241 degenerative diseases such as heart disease, cancer and diabetes, which account for almost two 1242 thirds of deaths in the world (Conto et al., 2012; Rubilar et al., 2012). Foods enriched with long 1243 chain omega-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids are classified as functional foods by acting on human 1244 1245 health. The ingestion of omega-3 fatty acids is accompanied with a prevention of cardiovascular diseases, a decreased risk of cancer, autoimmune and inflammatory diseases (Azizi et al., 2019; 1246 1247 Conto et al., 2012; Gallardo et al., 2013). However, polyunsaturated fatty acids are very 1248 susceptible to oxidation during processing and storage resulting in decreased nutritional value 1249 and sensory quality. Thus, micro and nanoencapsulation of lipids have been used in this concern 1250 (Gökmen et al., 2011).

1251 Currently, several nanocarriers have been designed in the literature to encapsulate 1252 several healthful oils like chia seed oil (Campo et al., 2017), walnut oil (Shamaei et al., 2017),

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flaxseed oil (Carneiro et al., 2013; Gallardo et al., 2013; Pu et al., 2010), pomegranate oil (Soleimanian et al., 2018), roasted coffee oil (Freiberger et al., 2015) and fruit seed oil (blackcurrant, blackberry, raspberry, strawberry and plum) (Krasodomska et al., 2016). In 2012, Rubilar et al. developed a soup fortified with linseed oil microcapsules and depicted that microencapsulation protected linseed oil from oxidation with respect to free oil (Rubilar et al., 2012). Similarly, Gökmen et al. (2011) demonstrated the feasibility to include flaxseed oil nanoparticles in bread without affecting the sensorial properties.

At the same time, foods are paramount carriers of many damaging agents like virus, 1260 1261 bacteria, parasites, and toxins which can cause food-borne diseases (Dussault et al., 2014). Every year, around 30% of people suffer from foodborne diseases in developed countries (Lee 1262 et al., 2014). Meanwhile, due to the increased consumer awareness to the use of synthetic food 1263 1264 preservatives or aromatic agents, the tendency toward natural ones is gaining more and more 1265 attention (Alikhani-Koupaei, 2015). In light of that, using EO with antioxidant, antibacterial and antifungal properties and applying nanoparticulate systems are effective approaches in this 1266 1267 regard (Bazzaz et al., 2018; Khatibi et al., 2017). In 2017, Cui and his coworkers developed thyme EO-loaded liposomes to treat salmonellosis, an important food-borne disease, usually 1268 associated with direct consumption or cross contamination of animal origin foods, especially 1269 poultry, and poultry related products (Cui et al., 2017b). They investigated in their study the 1270 1271 time-kill analysis of liposome-encapsulated thyme oil on fresh chicken contaminated with 1272 Salmonella enteritidis. Results demonstrated that Salmonella enteritidis colonies reduced by 71.16, 90.45, 83.02, 89.53 and 97.71% after exposure to 300 mg/mL liposomes for 3, 4, 5, 6, 1273 and 7 days, respectively (Cui et al., 2017b). In another work study, the antimicrobial activity of 1274 1275 curry plant EO loaded-liposomes against Bacillus cereus in rice flour was investigated (Cui et al., 2017a). Results showed that the antibacterial activity and active time of curry plant EO 1276 loaded-liposomes were significantly boosted when compared to the free EO. For instance, the 1277

population of Bacillus cereus in rice flour was almost unchanged or even increased after EO 1278 treatment. However, it reduced significantly after 4 days liposomes treatment (Cui et al., 1279 1280 2017a). Gomes et al. (2011b) related the boosting in trans cinnamaldehyde or –eugenol against 1281 both Salmonella and Listeria Spp activity to three reasons: the improved hydrophilicity, the sustained release, and the small size of pNPs. In 2018, Lin et al. investigated the antimicrobial 1282 activity of thyme EO-loaded liposomes against Escherichia coli O157:H7 in four vegetable 1283 juices: tomato, carrot, cucumber and lettuce juices (Lin et al., 2018). Indeed, 1284 Enterohaemorrhagic Escherichia coli serotype O157:H7 as a main human pathogen may cause 1285 1286 food borne outbreaks, bloody diarrhea, hemorrhagic colitis and hemolytic uremic syndrome and even death (Khatibi et al., 2017). Results showed that solid liposomes exhibited significant 1287 reduction in Escherichia coli O157:H7 when compared to group control. For instance, no 1288 1289 bacterial growth was observed on nutrient agar plate in the case of cucumber juice and lettuce 1290 juice treated with 5 mg/mL liposomes. While, treating tomato juice and carrot juice with the same concentration of liposomes lead to 99.99 and 99.80% reduction of Escherichia coli 1291 1292 O157:H7 (Lin et al., 2018). Moreover, Khatibi et al. (2017) found that the relative transcriptional level of Stx2A gene of Escherichia coli O157:H7 was decreased from 0.721 to 1293 0.646 when using 75% minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) of Zataria multiflora EO 1294 loaded-nanoliposomes. 1295

The antibacterial mechanism of EOs loaded-nanocarriers has been investigated. In 2015, Cui et al. investigated the antibacterial mechanism of liposomes containing clove EO against *Staphylococcus aureus* in Tofu (Cui et al., 2015). A selective antimicrobial activity for *Staphylococcus aureus* by means of pore-forming toxins to activate clove oil release from liposomes was noticed. In fact, the liposomes did not fuse with biological membranes but release clove oil after toxins secretion by the bacteria. About 99.87% reduction in population was observed in *Staphylococcus aureus* after 24 h of liposome treatment. However, no
reduction was observed in *Escherichia coli* population after liposome treatment due to the fact
that these bacteria did not secrete toxins and therefore clove oil could not reach them (Cui et
al., 2015).

1306 The antioxidant and antimicrobial activities of EO-loaded nanocarriers were found to be conserved for long period. In this context, the physicochemical qualities of fresh-cut bananas 1307 in contact with free rosemary EO, rosemary oil plus mucilage and rosemary oil liposomes were 1308 evaluated during 9 days storage at 5°C (Alikhani-Koupaei, 2015). Sensory analysis revealed 1309 that liposomal formulations was more efficient in enhancing the quality of fresh-cut bananas 1310 1311 and extending their shelf life (Alikhani-Koupaei, 2015). Likewise, the conversion of cardamom EO to NLC (Nahr et al., 2018) and nanoliposomes (Nahr et al., 2019) greatly conserves its 1312 antioxidant and antimicrobial activities for long period. The NLC showed MIC values around 1313 1314 1100 µg/ml for both bacteria after 30 days compared to that of cardamom oil emulsion. The 1315 MIC values were around 4400 and 2200 µg/ml for *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Escherichia coli*, respectively (Nahr et al., 2018). 1316

1317 The biological activity of nanocarriers encapsulated plant oils was affected by operating parameters and particles ingredients. In 2017, Mohammed and his coworkers depicted that a 1318 high antioxidant efficiency of Nigella sativa EO-loaded microparticles prepared by spray 1319 drying process was associated with high ratio of wall material (30%), medium of oil 1320 concentration (10%) and low inlet temperature (160°C) (Mohammed et al., 2017). 1321 1322 Furthermore, Bazzaz et al. (2018) investigated the antimicrobial activity of SLN encapsulated 1323 Eugenia *caryophyllata* EO against Salmonella typhi, Pseudomonas aeruginosa, Staphylococcus aureus and Candida albicans using time-kill methods. Results demonstrated 1324 1325 that the SLN formulations were effective in Gram negative bacteria and fungi killing, especially those containing stearic acid compared to glycerol monostearate (Bazzaz et al., 2018). 1326

In recent years, the use of EO has emerged to the food packaging industry as reported 1327 by several work studies (Cui et al., 2016a, 2016b; Engel et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2017). Cinnamon 1328 EO, known for its antimicrobial properties, has been formulated in chitosan/poly lactic acid 1329 1330 fibers for food packaging application as an alternative for synthetic chemicals due to consumer concerns over food safety (Liu et al., 2017). Results showed high long-term inactivation rates 1331 against Escherichia coli and Staphylococcus aureus (Liu et al., 2017). Cinnamon EO was 1332 further formulated in liposomes and tested for its Methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus 1333 antibiofilm properties on the surfaces of different materials like stainless steel, gauze, nylon 1334 1335 membrane, and non-woven fabrics (Cui et al., 2016a). Results revealed a significant enhancement of the anti-biofilm activities and active time for liposome-encapsulated cinnamon 1336 EO when compared to the free oil. For instance, the counts of viable Staphylococcus aureus in 1337 1338 biofilms formed were reduced by 2.08 and 2.82 logs on gauze and 4.55 and 5.42 logs on non-1339 woven fabrics after five days treatment with free cinnamon oil and liposome containing cinnamon oil, respectively (Cui et al., 2016a). Additionally, the antibacterial effect of salvia EO 1340 1341 nanoliposomes against Staphylococcus aureus biofilms attached on milk container was explored by scanning electron microscopy and confocal laser scanning microscopy and results 1342 revealed that salvia EO nanoliposomes have high anti-biofilm activity against Staphylococcus 1343 aureus biofilms on milk container (Cui et al., 2016b). Furthermore, Engel et al. (2017) noticed 1344 the antimicrobial potential of liposome-encapsulated thymol and carvacrol against pools of 1345 1346 Staphylococcus aureus and Salmonella adhered to stainless steel.

1347 6.3. Medicinal field

1348 **6.3.1.** Antimicrobial activity

The management of bacterial infection is raising serious concern across the globe. The emergence of multi-drug-resistant bacterial pathogens and the ability of microorganisms to form biofilms result high tolerance to high amounts of antibiotics and to all host defense

mechanisms (Mandal et al., 2014). Faced with this challenge, the scientists throughout the 1352 world search for new antimicrobial agents, such as plant oils based formulations which are 1353 economic and ecologic antimicrobial agents; and combine them with nanotechnology (Liakos 1354 et al., 2018). In this context, Ianniteli et al. (2011) investigated the effects of carvacrol-loaded 1355 poly (lactide-co-glycolide)-nanocapsules on the viscoelastic features of Staphylococcus 1356 epidermidis biofilms by rheological measurements. Results revealed the ability of carvacrol 1357 1358 loaded nanoparticles to reduce the elasticity and mechanical stability of preformed biofilms which in turn enable the penetration of antimicrobial agents into the deep core of biofilms 1359 1360 (Iannitelli et al., 2011). Liakos et al. (2016) tested the antibiofilm activity of poly lactide nanoparticles encapsulating lemongrass EO against Candida albicans, Escherichia coli, 1361 Staphylococcus aureus and Pseudomonas aeruginosa. Results showed higher anti-biofilm 1362 1363 effect for Candida albicans and Escherichia coli tested strains. The cytotoxicity of the prepared 1364 nanoparticles was further analyzed and results revealed a high cell viability and good growth of human cells (Liakos et al., 2016). Subsequently, in 2018, the same research team tested the 1365 1366 antibiofilm activity of cellulose acetate pNPs containing either lemongrass, peppermint or cinnamon EO and the results showed high antibiofilm activity against Candida albicans and 1367 Staphylococcus aureus (Liakos et al., 2018). Manconi et al. (2018) proposed the use of 1368 liposomes containing Thymus capitatus EO as antibacterial-antioxidant mouthwash for the 1369 1370 treatment of oral cavity diseases. The liposomes were biocompatible, able to prevent oxidative 1371 stress and favor wound repair in keratinocytes. Their antibacterial activity was evidenced against commensal Streptococcus sanguinis and cariogenic Streptococcus mutans and 1372 Lactobacillus acidophilus (Manconi et al., 2018). Similarly, Priyadarshini et al. (2018) 1373 1374 proposed the use of poly (lactide-co-glycolide)-nanoparticles containing clove EO as antibacterial systems for dental purposes by removing bacterial plaque and reducing dental 1375 1376 diseases. Confocal microscopy demonstrated successful delivery and position of clove oil

loaded-nanoparticles inside dentinal tubules. In another work study, the antiviral activity of 1377 Santolina insularis EO loaded-liposomes against Herpes simplex virus-type 1 was investigated 1378 (Valenti et al., 2001). Although the in vitro activity of free oil was higher than liposomal oil, 1379 the high stability of liposomes make them an interesting delivery system for antiviral treatment; 1380 they could be administered in drops for ocular herpetic infection, parenterally for diffused 1381 systemic infections or topically on lips and mucosae from gel or cream formulations (Valenti 1382 et al., 2001). Furthermore, Zhao et al. (2017) highlighted the use of SLN as a carrier for the 1383 encapsulation and sustained inhalation delivery of yuxingcago EO for the treatment of 1384 1385 respiratory infectious diseases. Besides prolonging pulmonary retention up to 24h after intratracheal administration to rats, yuxingcago EO loaded-SLN enhance the area under the 1386 curve (AUC) values by 4.5-7.7 folds compared to the intratracheally dosed EO solution and by 1387 1388 257–438 folds to the intravenously dosed EO solution (Zhao et al., 2017).

1389 **6.3.2.** Antifungal activity

Considering the antifungal properties of Zataria multiflora EO, Nasseri et al. developed 1390 1391 Zataria multiflora EO loaded-SLN to enhance its activity against Aspergillus ochraceus, Aspergillus niger, Aspergillus flavus, Alternaria solani, Rhizoctonia solani, and Rhizopus 1392 stolonifera (Nasseri et al., 2016). Results showed that the encapsulated oil was more efficient 1393 than the free one. For instance, the MIC for the encapsulated oil on the fungal pathogens of 1394 Aspergillus ochraceus, Aspergillus niger, Aspergillus flavus, Alternaria solani, Rhizoctonia 1395 1396 solani, and Rhizopus stolonifer was 200, 200, 200, 100, 50 and 50 ppm, respectively; while for un-encapsulated oil, it was 300, 200, 300, 200, 200 and 200 ppm (Nasseri et al., 2016). 1397 Furthermore, the nanoencapsulation enhanced the antifungal properties of copaiba oil against 1398 1399 Candida krusei, Microsporum canis, Candida parapsilosis and Trichophyton rubrum with MIC₉₀ values of 250, 1.95, 7.8 and 1.95µg/mL, respectively. In another work study, 1400 1401 microparticles encapsulating Lippia sidoides EO were found more efficient than ketaconazole, used as positive control, in eradicating *Candida albicans, Candida glabrata, Candida krusei*and *Candida parapsilosis* (Fernandes et al., 2008).

Recently, many studies related the occurrence of some diseases like teratogenesis, mutation and hepatocellular carcinoma to the high exposure to aflatoxin which is secondary metabolites synthesized by toxigenic fungi: *Aspergillus flavus, Aspergillus parasiticus* and *Aspergillus nomius*. López-meneses et al. (2018) investigated the antifungal and antiaflatoxigenic activities against *Aspergillus parasiticus* of *Shinus molle* EO-loaded chitosan nanoparticles. Results showed that the prepared nanoparticles affected the spore's germination and viability, delayed mycelial growth and reduced aflatoxin production.

1411 **6.3.3.** Larvicidal activity

Currently, several reports has demonstrated the larvicidal activity of *Lippia sidoides* EO 1412 against larvae of Aedes (Stegomyia aegypti), the dengue vector which is responsible for many 1413 1414 diseases, and even deaths, in tropical countries like Brazil (Carvalho et al., 2003). In order to boost its larvicidal effect, Paula et al. (2010) developed angico gum : chitosan nanoparticles 1415 1416 containing Lippia Sidoides EO and investigated the in vivo activity on 20 third instar Stegomyia aegypti larvae. Results demonstrated that the larval mortality was proportional to the oil 1417 1418 loading. For instance, the sample oil: angico gum-chitosan 1:20 showed the lowest loading (3.3%) and consequently the lowest mortality, with 52 % after 24 h and 60 % after 48 h. Sample 1419 oil: angico gum-chitosan 1:10 showed 85 and 92 % mortality after 24 and 48 h, respectively 1420 (Paula et al., 2010). Similar results were found by Abreu et al. when studying the larvicidal 1421 1422 activity of *Lippia Sidoides* EO loaded-cashew gum : chitosan nanoparticles (Abreu et al., 2012).

1423 **6**

6.3.4. Antitumor activity

1424 The antitumor activity of frankincense and myrrh oil loaded-SLN was assessed on H22 1425 tumor-bearing mice and results revealed an enhancement in antitumor efficiency of SLN when 1426 compared to that of suspension and cyclodextrine inclusion (Wang, 2012). The inhibition rates

were 31.23, 34.81 and 43.66% for oil suspension, oil-β-cyclodextrin and oil-SLN, respectively. 1427 1428 Similarly, Celia et al. (2013) found that liposomal formulations encapsulating bergamot EO showed a greater reduction in human SH-SY5Y neuroblastoma cells viability and a greater 1429 1430 increase in cell mortality at various concentrations and time points as compared to their free drug counterparts. Same results were also reported by Detoni et al. (2012) where MLVs and 1431 SUVs containing Zanthoxylum tingoassuiba EO were more efficient in reducing the viability 1432 1433 of glioma cells than free EO. In another work study, docosahexaenoic acid was encapsulated in liposomes and investigated for its anticancer activity and results showed a strong inhibition of 1434 1435 FaDu head, neck squamous carcinoma and 4T1 breast cancer cells in in vitro cultures (Alaarg et al., 2016). In 2013, Shi and his coworkers developed NLC containing β-elemene and 1436 investigated their pharmacokinetics, anti-tumor effects, and venous irritation (Shi et al., 2013). 1437 1438 In this study, β -elemene-NLC suspensions were injected in an ear vein test, and compared with 1439 elemene injection and saline solution used as positive and negative controls, respectively. Results demonstrated no obvious discoloration or damage at the injection site in either β-1440 1441 elemene-NLC groups or saline solution group, two days after the injection. However, unencapsulated β-elemene caused macroscopic edema and erythema at the injection site. 1442 Additionally, the pharmacokinetic study revealed that the availability of the β -elemene was 1443 increased by formulation into NLC since they showed higher AUC and slower clearance as 1444 1445 compared to elemene injection. Furthermore, the anti-tumor efficacy of β -elemene-NLC was 1446 significantly higher than that of elemene injections with inhibition rates of 34.36 and 24.11%, respectively (Shi et al., 2013). 1447

1448 **6.4.** Cosmetic field

Wound healing is one of the most complicated physiological processes. Indeed, tissue
regeneration enhancement and infection prevention are key factors to reduce pain, discomfort,
and scar formation (Jahromi et al., 2018). Several chemical products have been proposed for

1452 wound repair; however, their uses are limited due to the complications and side effects (Purohit 1453 et al., 2012). Recently, researchers have paid great attention to the effectiveness of plant oils thanks to their antioxidant, antimicrobial, and anti-inflammatory properties (Raut and 1454 1455 Karuppayil, 2014). In this context, Ghodrati et al. (2019) investigated the therapeutic effect of NLC containing peppermint EO on infected wound. For in vivo study, two full-thickness 1456 wounds with the size of 5mm were created in each mouse and inoculated with Pseudomonas 1457 1458 aeruginosa and Staphylococcus aureus. Results showed that peppermint EO-NLC could accelerate wound healing in the infected wound model by reducing the total bacterial count, 1459 1460 and increasing neovascularization, fibroblast infiltration, collagen deposition, re-epithelization, and levels of FGF-2 and EGF mRNA expressions when compared to control group. Similarly, 1461 Zhang et al. reported a decrease in TGF-b1, MMP-1, collagen I and collagen III levels and an 1462 1463 increase in apoptosis cells, caspase -3 and -9 levels after application of *Ligusticum chuanxiong* 1464 EO-loaded liposomes on formed hypertrophic scars in the rabbit ear model (H. Zhang et al., 2012). Furthermore, NLC based on olive oil and loaded with eucalyptus oil promote wound 1465 1466 healing in rat burn model by cell proliferation enhancement, good bioadhesion, cell biocompatibility and antimicrobial properties (Saporito et al., 2018). In 2018, Pivetta et al. 1467 prepared carbopol-gels containing thymol loaded-NLC as promising approach for treating skin 1468 inflammatory disorders (Pivetta et al., 2018). In their study, they investigated the anti-1469 1470 inflammatory effects of thymol-NLC gel on two mouse models: the cutaneous acute 1471 inflammation model induced by croton oil and ear edema model induced by anthralin. Results showed that thymol encapsulated in NLC provided better anti-inflammatory effect than free 1472 thymol (Pivetta et al., 2018). 1473

1474 Chronic skin infections in immunocompromised patients has become an important 1475 public health issue because they can become serious, resulting in invasive infections 1476 (Svetlichny et al., 2015). In this context, Ortan et al. (2013) developed hydrogels containing

Anethum graveolens oil entrapped in liposomes to treat fungal infections in skin. The in vitro 1477 1478 release kinetics study using Franz diffusion cell showed that the designed hydrogels follow a zero order kinetic model after a period of three hours from the beginning of the experiment 1479 (Ortan et al., 2013). Moreover, hydrogel containing eugenol entrapped in either stearic acid- or 1480 1481 compritol-SLN were designed for epidermal targeting to treat fungal infections in skin (Garg and Singh, 2013). Ex vivo permeation and retention studies for almond oil solution of eugenol 1482 and three types of hydrogels containing: eugenol-stearic acid-SLN, eugenol-compritol-SLN or 1483 eugenol–hydroxypropyl-β–cyclodextrin complex; were established with full thickness human 1484 1485 cadaver skin using Franz diffusion cell. Results revealed higher accumulation of eugenol in the epidermis (62.65 and 52.86 µg/cm² for eugenol-stearic acid-SLN and eugenol-comprisol-SLN, 1486 respectively) when compared to that of almond oil solution of eugenol (3.45 µg/cm²) and 1487 1488 eugenol-hydroxypropyl- β -cyclodextrine complex (9.77 μ g/cm²) (Garg and Singh, 2013).

1489 Currently, VO exhibit a great concern as raw materials in the development of natural and eco-friendly cosmetics due to their benefits including antioxidant, moisturizers and 1490 1491 emollients properties. In addition, they provide skin protection against reactive oxygen species and prevent oxidative stress (Dhavamani et al., 2014; Saraf et al., 2010). In order to obtain 1492 efficient formulations with UV protection performance and antioxidant activity, Badea et al. 1493 (2015) formulated creams containing NLC entrapping various VO and their combinations 1494 (pomegranate seed oil, wheat germ oil, blackcurrant seed oil, sesame seed oil, carrot root oil, 1495 raspberry seed oil and rice bran oil) with a synthetic UVA filter (diethylamino hydroxy benzoyl 1496 1497 hexyl benzoate). The UV protection factors were evaluated on the individual VO and on cream formulations based on NLC and results showed that the best UV protection was assured by 1498 pomegranate seed oil combined with wheat germ-loaded NLC based cream resulting in a SPF 1499 1500 of 5.1 and an UVAPF of 9.5 (Badea et al., 2015).

1501 **6.5. Textiles**

Nowadays, functional textiles fascinated consumers interest due to their crucial benefits 1502 1503 as they enhance the native properties and promote new functions in the textile products like flame retardency, UV resistance, photo-catalytic, antimicrobial, antibiotic and wrinkle recovery 1504 to the fabrics (Javid et al., 2014). In medical field, textile consumers are becoming more aware 1505 and conscious of the deleterious effect that microorganisms may have upon textile materials 1506 like drapes, bed sheets, pillow cases, gowns and masks which are frequently used in hospitals 1507 (Thelagavath and Kannaian, 2008). In this context, Li et al. (2013) grafted moxa oil 1508 microcapsules made with gelatin and arabic gum on cotton fabric and investigated their 1509 1510 antibacterial activity against Staphylococcus aureus and the results showed strong antibacterial effect. Similarly, ozonated red pepper seed oil antimicrobial microcapsules were applied on 1511 100% polypropylene non-woven fabric and showed good antimicrobial activity against 1512 1513 Staphylococcus aureus, Escherichia coli and Candida albicans (Ozyıldız et al., 2012). 1514 Furthermore, Rajendran et al. (2013) reported that Ocimum sanctum oil loaded alginatenanoparticles possessed remarkable antibacterial activities with excellent wash durability. After 1515 1516 20 washes, the inhibition percentage was 100% for Bacillus cereus, Pseudomonas aeruginosa and Staphylococcus aureus except for Escherichia coli (90%). After 30 washes, the bacterial 1517 1518 inhibition was reduced to 95, 87, 98 and 98% for Bacillus cereus, Escherichia coli, Pseudomonas aeruginosa and Staphylococcus aureus, respectively (Rajendran et al., 2013). In 1519 1520 2013, Javid et al. reported that antibacterial activity of cotton fabric grafted with chitosan 1521 capsules containing eucalyptus and sandal wood oils increased with the increase in chitosan 1522 and EO concentrations (Javid et al., 2014).

Recent developments in textile industry were conducted to perfumed textiles in jackets, sweaters, T-shirts and undershirts to meet consumers' needs for comfort and wellbeing. During wearing, the mechanical forces on the capsules result in opening of the capsules and releasing of the designed aroma and deodorant (Ghayempour and Montazer, 2016). In this context, Liu et al. (2015) treated methyl methacrylate–styrene nanoparticles containing cologne EO on the cotton fabric through immersion and the release study revealed that 6.8% cologne EO remained in fabrics after being washed 15 times. In another work, Wang et al. reported that ethyl cellulose microcapsule can retain 50% of the lavender oil after 2 months, while almost no EO persisted on the direct sprayed fabric after 7 days (Wang et al., 2009). Additionally, Li et al. (2013) found that orange oil retention of microcapsules on the cotton and polyester fabrics was 8 days longer than free oil.

1534 7. Conclusion and perspectives

1535 In the last two decades, the growing demand for natural bioactive products especially essential and vegetable oils with the same efficiency or even more than chemical synthesized 1536 drugs has urged researchers to focalize most of their efforts on developing new approaches of 1537 1538 extending the shelf life of these bioactive agents. In fact, plant oils are very sensitive to external 1539 factors when used as such. The encapsulation of these bioactive agents represents a relevant alternative to extend their physical stabilities, protecting them from oxidation and other 1540 1541 deleterious environmental factors like light, heat, oxygen and humidity, besides improving their efficacy mainly owning to their nanometer size range. In this bibliographic paper, we emphasize 1542 recent advances of both polymer and lipid based-nanocarriers including polymeric 1543 nanoparticles, liposomes and solid lipid nanoparticles in the emergence of new concepts for the 1544 1545 effective use of plant oils. A number of benefits and drawbacks are linked to each carrier. For 1546 instance, both solid lipid nanoparticles and polymeric nanoparticles have more oil stability and prolonged release than liposomes; while liposomes offer wide application spectrum especially 1547 to the skin delivery thanks to their chemical nature which is very close to that of the skin layers. 1548 1549 Although solid lipid nanoparticles are safer than polymeric nanoparticles since the avoidance of organic solvents, they were less used to encapsulate both essential and vegetable oils, 1550 1551 according to the investigations discussed above. This was may be related to the high

temperature requirements which in turn cause oil loss and thus decrease the encapsulation 1552 1553 efficiency. Several preparation methods have been reported for each nanocarrier; they are differentiated by the complexity of their execution and the characteristic of their final product; 1554 nonetheless, the right selection of the suitable carrier with the appropriate preparation method 1555 is the crucial key to determine the carrier features responsible for the best attainment of the final 1556 goal. The discussed nanostructured systems provide pertinent perspectives for applications in 1557 1558 several fields like medicinal, cosmetic, culinary, agriculture and textiles. Nowadays, the association of plants oils and active molecules is attracting special attention. Lipid core 1559 1560 nanocapsules and nanostructured lipid carriers represent promising carriers to entrap both plant oil and synthetic drugs. The appropriate selection of plant oil is very important for achieving 1561 the high loading capacity and physical stability of the hydrophobic drugs. In addition, the oil 1562 1563 may complement or even enhance the biological activities of these drugs. Hence, the research 1564 in the field of plants oils encapsulation can make an important contribution to the development of new methodologies in the treatment and diagnosis of major chronic diseases. 1565

Experimental advances are necessary in engineering plant oils loaded nanocarriers with broader applications and functionalities. Some techniques discussed in this review provide poor control over the final structure and stability of the obtained colloidal systems. Others lack from scalability and reproducibility; therefore, new techniques with improved control and reproducibility are crucial to design nanocarriers with predictable properties.

Even if several advances have been already reported in the literature regarding the application of plants oils nanocarriers for pharmaceutical and cosmetics purposes, more *in vivo* studies are required to provide reliable results. Additionally, plant oils mechanism of action, toxic effects, pharmacokinetic parameters, biodistribution in biological systems and removal mechanisms must be investigated. Moreover, with the aim of improving the biodistribution of colloidal systems, scientists throughout the world are currently focalizing their efforts on the 1577 functionalization of the particle surface with special ligands to target specific organs and tissues.

However, to our knowledge, there are no reports in the literature that deal with targetingdelivery of plant oils loaded nanocarriers. Such demonstrations would provide a blueprint for

1580 the development of new concepts and products in large-scale for broader application.

1581 CRediT authorship contribution statement

1582 Narimane Lammari: Conceptualization, Writing - original draft, Investigation, Visualization.

1583 Ouahida Louaer: Supervision, Writing - review & editing. Abdeslam Hassen Meniai:
1584 Writing - review & editing. Hatem Fessi: Conceptualization. Abdelhamid Elaissari:

1585 Supervision, Writing - review & editing, Conceptualization.

1586 Declaration of Competing Interest

1587 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal1588 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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