

THE ESSENTIAL OIL OF TURPENTINE AND ITS MAJOR VOLATILE FRACTION (α - AND β -PINENES): A REVIEW

BEATRICE MERCIER¹, JOSIANE PROST¹, and MICHEL PROST²

¹ Université de Bourgogne, Dijon, France

Faculté des Sciences de la Vie

² Lara-Spiral SA, Couternon, France

Abstract

This paper provides a summary review of the major biological features concerning the essential oil of turpentine, its origin and use in traditional and modern medicine. More precisely, the safety of this volatile fraction to human health, and the medical, biological and environmental effects of the two major compounds of this fraction (α - and β -pinenes) have been discussed.

Key words:

Spirits of turpentine, α -pinene, β -pinene

ORIGIN OF TURPENTINE

The term “essential oil of turpentine” designates the terpenic oil, obtained by hydrodistillation of the gem pine.

It is also named the “spirits of turpentine”, “pine tree terpenic”, “pine oleoresin”, “gum turpentine”, “terpenes oil” or “turpentine from Bordeaux”. Due to its pleasant fragrance, the terpenic oil is used in the pharmaceutical industry, perfume industry, food additives and other chemical industries (household cleaning products, paintings, varnishes, rubber, insecticides, etc.) [1].

TRADITIONAL MEDICINE AND TURPENTINE

The eminent doctors of antiquity, Hippocrates, Dioscoride or Galien, used the terpenic oil for its properties against lung diseases and biliary lithiasis. In France, Thilenius, Pitcairn, Récamier and Martinet recommended it against the blennorrhoea and cystitis. Chaumeton, Peschiez, Kennedy, Mérat prescribed it against the

neuralgias. It was also used in the treatment of rheumatism, sciatica, nephritis, drop, constipation and mercury salivation.

Those scientists also recognized that the terpenic oil may be a booster at an average dose and may have a paralyzing activity at high doses. In Germany, (Rowachol and Rowatinex), Slovenia (Uroterp) and Poland (Terpichol and Terpinex), the traditional drugs for renal and hepatic diseases (especially against cholesterol stones in the gall bladder and the bile duct) contain α - and β -pinenes [2].

Modern phytotherapy describes the following properties of the terpenic oil: antiparasitic, analgesic, revulsive, disinfectant (external use); balsamic, active on bronchial secretion and pulmonary and genito-urinary tract infections, haemostatic, dissolving gallstones, diuretic, antispasmodic, antirheumatic, deworming, being an antidote for poisonings caused by phosphorus [3] and improving the ciliary and secretory activity in patients who present chronic obstructive bronchitis (internal use) [4].

Received: July 1, 2009. Accepted : September 28, 2009.

Address reprint request to B. Mercier, UPRES EA 4183 “Lipides & Signalisation Cellulaire”, Faculté des Sciences de la Vie, Université de Bourgogne 6, Boulevard Gabriel, F-21000 Dijon (e-mail: beamerancier@laposte.net).

blennorrhoea=watery discharge from urethra, vagina, or eye

At present, the Vidal drugs Compendium lists 14 different drugs containing turpentine as active molecules, and 4 drugs containing turpentine as an excipient.

OXIDIZED TURPENTINE

Perfumes are, next to nickel, the most common allergic substances in the world. This property is connected with the fact that the majority of oils are sensitive to oxidation [5]. However, in some oils, like in the Indian plant *Chaulmoogra* [6] as well as in turpentine, the ageing/oxidation contributes to the therapeutic effect of these compounds, although they have the highest peroxide index of all terpenes [7]. For example, old oxidized terpenes become water-soluble (instead of lipid-soluble) and are able to capture and deliver oxygen (the property known since Berthelot's studies [8]). Thus, they can enhance the saturation rate of HbO₂ [9] or PaO₂ [10], which was confirmed by Mercier et al. in their study on "Bol d'Air Jacquier®", a modern device using oxidized turpentine vapour to combat cellular hypoxia [11,12]. Oxidized turpentine is considered to be an anti-inflammatory agent [13] and its peroxidized form is thought to exhibit an antiradical activity [12,14–18]. It seems to be a general trend that the essential oils which contain monoterpene hydrocarbons, oxygenated monoterpenes and/or sesquiterpenes have a higher antioxidative potential [19].

At high concentrations or when combined with a secondary organic aerosol, these oxidized products may be pro-inflammatory [20] and cause weak or moderate irritation with time [21]. However, acute and chronic toxicities in experimental animals (rat, rabbit) are low, and they refer to higher doses than those envisaged for therapeutic purposes [11]. It is interesting to underline that when administered at low doses, they possess remarkable properties. Specifically, they are used as relaxants of the smooth muscles of the bronchi ("Ozothin®") [22] as well as disinfectants and bactericides [23]. They also decrease PpCO₂ in hypercapnic patients (in whom the treatment does not generate hyperventilation) and improve the redox system activity and tissue diffusion [23], particularly when this substance is administered as an aerosol [24] with a broncho-secretolytic

action [8]. They also reduce cough and help cure respiratory diseases, particularly chronic bronchitis or asthma [23].

Table 1. Summary of the properties of terpene oxides reported in scientific literature

Oxidized terpenes
Relaxing smooth muscles
Acting as cough preservatives
Relieving congestion
Acting as anti-inflammatory agents
Having disinfectant properties (bactericidal)
Increasing HbO ₂
Increasing O ₂ arterial partial pressure
Increasing O ₂ tissue diffusion
Increasing the redox system activity
Being water-soluble

ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACT OF THE VOLATILE TURPENTINE FRACTION

The most volatile components of turpentine are two terpenes: alpha (α) and beta (β) pinenes. They are the dominant odorous compounds emitted by trees, shrubs, flowers and grasses [25].

In the lower troposphere, and depending on the weather conditions at the top of the trees, these compounds can react with OH° radicals, ozone, NO₃ radical and O₂. Indeed, the electric field in the canopy atmosphere (at the uppermost level of the pine, fir and spruce forests) is sufficient to produce discharges, particularly in stormy weather, or more generally, in wet weather, through which ozone (O₃) and hydrogen peroxides (H₂O₂ [26]) are released. Ozone also forms during sunny weather, particularly in the summer and autumn [27]. Reactions in both these conditions result in the generation of aerosols in the ultrafine particle form [28] as well as of peroxides (hydrogen peroxides and organic peroxides), carbon monoxide (CO), acid rains (starting from organic acids, of NO₃ and SO₄²⁻), ozone, or oxidizing radicals, like the OH° radical.

Winterhalter et al. [29] showed that in the presence of volatile organic compounds, such as NO_x or OH° radicals,

11,12
in
French

α -pinenes undergo an ozonolysis and transform mainly to acid products (cis-pinic, cis-pinonic and hydroxy-pinonic acids). These acids can react with primary pollutants like cyclohexene, propanol or formaldehyde [30] and, in general, photocatalysts like anthracene or zinc oxide [31]. Beta-pinens can also generate organosulfates or nitroxy-organosulfates [32]. Due to the presence of a double bond between two atoms of carbon, the volatile monoterpenes are very reactive. According to the authors cited above, they could be the origin of secondary pollutants. Following other researchers, they rather seem to be natural scavengers of hazardous substances such as ozone [33]. Apart from the roles specified above, the volatile parts of turpentine exhibit several other properties, like an allelopathic activity [25]. Traumatic resinosis (mechanical wounding, abiotic stress, insect attack, pathogen invasion, elicitor molecules derived from fungal or plant cell walls [34]) make the volatile fraction of turpentine acquire insecticidal, acaricidal, "pesticidal" and/or insect repellent properties, according to the type of predator. This fraction plays a role in attracting pollinators [35]. The radical scavenging properties may contribute to the defense potential of the plant against pests [36].

Volatile fraction of turpentine (α - and β -pinenes)

Volatile pinenes of turpentine enter the body through inhalation but also through the skin, with a good correlation between the level of contamination of particular body parts and the potential body exposure [37]. The ability of volatile pinenes to penetrate through the skin, the low irritancy potential and the inclusion in the list of the substances that are Generally Recognized as Safe (GRAS), make it possible to use them as a support to increase the absorption of various chemicals. They are used, for example, for enhanced neuroleptic drug absorption [38]. The mechanisms responsible for enhancing the percutaneous activity of terpenes have been explained elsewhere [39]. The turpentine respiratory sessions considerably increase the capacity of the organism to transform the xenobiotics at the hepatic level, by increasing the activity of the NADPH cytochrome C reductase and the 7-ethoxycoumarin de-ethylase [40].

Alpha-pinenes

The effects of α -pinenes vary depending on the composition of monoterpenes and sesquiterpenes. Scientific research is generally related to the whole compounds rather than the molecular level because under natural conditions, it is always a family of terpenes that the plant generates. In addition, the biological effect is often due to a synergy between the compounds [41]. This explains many contradictions in the reported results: for example, α -pinenes are the major components of the Amazonian plant *Cordia-verbenacea* spp. (approximately 27%). This plant possesses a remarkable effectiveness against Gram-positive bacteria and yeasts, but not against Gram-negative species [42]. However, other studies report the antibacterial effect of these terpenes on both Gram-negative and Gram-positive bacteria as well as a strong antifungal activity [43].

The mechanism through which α - and β -pinenes are active against yeast or bacteria lies mainly in their capacity to induce toxic effects on the membrane structure and functions [44]. We know that the cytoplasmic membranes of bacteria and the mitochondrial membranes of yeast provide a barrier to the passage of small ions such as H^+ , K^+ , Na^+ and Ca^{2+} and allow the cells and organelles to control the entry and exit of different compounds. This role of the cell membranes as a permeability barrier is integral to many cellular functions, including the maintenance of the energy status of the cell, other membrane-coupled energy transducing processes, solute transport, regulation of metabolism, and control of turgor pressure [45]. Sik-kema et al. [46] showed that due to their lipophilic character, cyclic monoterpenes will preferentially partition from an aqueous phase into membrane structures. This results in membrane expansion, increased membrane fluidity and inhibition of a membrane-embedded enzyme. In yeast cells and isolated mitochondria, α -pinenes and β -pinenes destroy cellular integrity, inhibit respiration and ion transport processes and increase membrane permeability [44]. More recently, Helander et al. [47] have described the effects of different essential components on outer membrane permeability in Gram-negative bacteria.

Thus, terpenes, containing the first or the second largest part of α -pinenes, fight against pathogenic bacteria and

what is the relevance of "turgor pressure?"

no discussion yet of why human cells are not equally affected.

all kinds of fungi. They are able to eliminate the microorganisms or inhibit their growth as well as intervene on their metabolism (for example, by preventing methane oxidation in the bacterium *Methylobacter luteus* [48]). They form an essential oil which is particularly effective on Gram-positive bacteria, including *Clostridium perfringens*, *C. sporogenes*, *Staphylococcus aureus* [36] and *S. epidermis* [49].

Alpha-pinenes constitute a large part of the active solutions used against the Gram-negative bacteria, particularly on the strains responsible for jaw infections, parodontitis or periodontitis (*Actinobacillus actinomycetemcomitans*, *Prevotella intermedia*, *Porphyomonas gingivalis*, *Fusobacterium nucleatum* [50], *Yersinia enterocolitica* [36], *Salmonella typhi* [36], *Proteus vulgaris* [36,43], and *Acetobacter* spp. [36]). On the other hand, the results obtained for α -pinenes used to destroy *Escherichia coli* vary undoubtedly, depending on the bacterial strain (there exist the pathogenic and non-pathogenic strains) or on a possible synergy with other monoterpenes. Pichette et al. [49] demonstrated the inefficacy of α -pinenes; Magwa et al. [36] and Cha et al. [50] showed otherwise.

Moreover, α -pinenes are used against mushrooms and yeasts (dermatophytes [44]), especially on *Candida albicans* [36] and other related species such as *Candida tropicalis*, *C. glabrata* [60], *Aspergillus* spp. [36], *Cryptococcus neoformans* [43], *Penicillium notatum* [36], etc.

Finally, α -pinenes also act as insecticides, especially on mosquitoes like *Culex pipiens* causing paludism, and Nile fever vector [34], or on dengue's vector *Aedes aegypti* [51]. They act on the eggs of *Pediculus humanis capitis*, and against the female cockroaches, even if their effectiveness is lower than that of β -pinenes [52]. From another point of view, α -pinenes appear to have an inhibitory effect against *Pityogenes bidentatus*, or bark beetle [53].

In addition to their high effectiveness in controlling vectors of various diseases and parasites of all kinds, α -pinenes also exhibit certain biological effects: pre-treatment with α -pinenes decreases the hexobarbital sleep time of female rats by inducing microsomal enzyme activity [54]. They are inhibitors in breast cancer, and *in vitro* present cytotoxic activity against human cancer cells [12,55], but

not on the healthy cells like the red blood cells [12,18] or whole organisms [12,25]. Mercier [12] demonstrated that the peroxidizing α - and β -pinenes decrease the antiradical capacity of abnormal Jurkat cells. For Diaz et al. [56], the α - and β -pinenes were cytotoxic on several cell lines (breast cancer and leukemic cell lines). Zhou et al. [57] reported that α -pinenes are especially involved in the inhibition of the human monocyte factor NF- κ . On the other hand, Lampronti et al. [58] did not note an antitumor effect of the α - or β -pinenes alone. They did not exclude a possible synergistic effect with other monoterpenes, or sesquiterpenes like caryophyllene. All these studies provide further insight into the potential use of terpenes or a mixture of terpenes as the inducers of apoptosis in cancer cells.

Terpenes are also antioxidants [12], but Grassmann et al. [59] postulated that this antioxidant activity is effective only in a lipophilic environment. These compounds also possess anti-inflammatory properties [60] and exert spasmolytic and myorelaxant activity on the smooth muscles of the intestine [61]. These effects may explain their traditional use in the German and Polish traditional drugs for colic, diarrhea, cough and asthma. This antispasmodic activity would be due to the inhibition of the calcium channels. They also exhibit antinociceptive and antistress activity in rats [62]. However, the activity of α -pinenes was observed only at low doses. At higher doses, their activity referred to a number of neurological mechanisms regulating the cardiac function, which were activated or not, depending on the level of pinenes in the organism. From these findings, there derives a hypothesis of a different and pinene dose-dependent neurological response mechanism of the cardiac function.

As reported by Umezu et al. [63], experiments on mice indicated that the antistress property was reserved for other monoterpenes. However, they could not exclude a synergistic effect between all the components of the essential oil of lavender which was tested.

We also observed a regeneration of the β cells of the islets of Langerhans in the pancreas, resulting in the decrease of glycaemia, in a study investigating *Nigella sativa* L., a plant

containing α -pinenes [63]. Mercier [12] showed in *in vivo* and *ex vivo* studies a decrease in the rate of glycosylated haemoglobin after inhalation of oxidised turpentine vapours. Some studies investigating the effect of various terpenes, including α -pinenes, documented that the level of induced CYP2B, as measured by immunoassay, increased several times. Furthermore, CYP2B activity increased when laboratory rats were given an oral dose of α -pinene [64]. There is no evidence for induction of CYP3A with α -pinene [65]. Several essential oils are used for their memory-enhancing effects in the European folk medicine. Among the components, α -pinenes were found to inhibit AChE in an uncompetitive and reversible manner when they acted synergistically. They were responsible for the inhibitory effect of the essential oil of the *Salvia* species. Thus, when in synergy with other compounds, they could be beneficial in the treatment of cognitive impairments, due to their multifarious activities related to Alzheimer's disease [65]. It has also been shown that α -pinenes do not exhibit an oestrogenic activity [60] or a behavioural effect [63].

Table 2. Summary of the properties of α -pinenes, alone or in synergy with other pinenes, reported in scientific literature

α -pinenes
Lipophilic
Bactericidal
Fungicidal
Insecticidal
Pesticidal
Anticarcinogenic (cytotoxic on cancer cells)
Diuretic
Antioxidant
Immunostimulant
Anti-inflammatory
Anti-convulsive
Sedative
Anti-stress
Hypoglycaemic
Capable of expelling xenobiotics
Anticholinesterase activity

Beta-pinenes

According to literature reports, β -pinenes generally accompany α -pinenes in low quantities in the volatile extracts, essential oleoresins and oils, *i.e.* all the pine extracts which were tested for their biological properties. Some specific studies show that β -pinenes, along with α -pinenes and other terpenes, are cytotoxic on cancer cells [55]. They represent a great part of essential oils with sedative properties [66]. When α - and β -pinenes are the major constituents of an essential oil, they warrant the anti-inflammatory and analgesic activity [67].

The β -pinenes also show antifungal properties [68], especially on *Candida* spp. [36]. When acting on yeast, they were found to inhibit mitochondrial respiration, the proton pump activity and K⁺ transport, and to increase membrane fluidity [69]. They also exhibit pest-destroying properties against the protozoon *Plasmodium berghei* (malaria vector [70]), insecticidal properties against lice [71] and the mosquito *Aedes aegypti* [51] as well as an antiseptic effect on oral bacterial flora [50]. In general, they exert a considerable antibacterial effect, especially on a methicilline-resistant *S. aureus* and other Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria [43].

Without α -pinenes, but with other terpenes, β -pinenes present antiradical activity (DPPH system [72] and elimination of the superoxide anion [73]). They belong to the essential oils used against the osteoclast activity (they thus play a protective role against osteoporosis [74]).

Beta-pinenes, when administered alone, exhibit moderate antimicrobial activity [68]; they are sometimes ineffective on specific strains like *Pseudomonas* spp. [75]. As the major or important components of essential oils, they are particularly powerful on fungus, like *Trichoderma* spp. [76]. Takikawa et al. [77] showed that β -pinenes acted on a pathogenic strain of *Escherichia coli*, but this activity is less pronounced against the non-pathogenic strains. Besides, β -pinenes show an insecticidal activity against the third larval stage of the fly *Musca domestica* [78]. In a synergistic activity with other terpenes, they act against the fruit fly, *Bemisia argentifolii* [79]. In competition with α -pinenes, they seem more active as antifungal agents (on *Fusarium culmorum*, *F. solani* and

F. poae, fungal phytopathogens [80]) and as inhibitors of *Brassica campestris* germination (colza), in a dose-dependant manner [81]. Beta-pinenes showed a better effectiveness than did α -pinenes in fighting against cockroaches [82].

In addition, the compounds are active on the smooth muscles of the ileum part of rat intestine. They act by inhibiting the 5-HT₃ receptors of the serotonergic system of the murine intestinal cells [83].

In rats, β -pinenes exert an antinotoxic effect on the supra spinal parts, but not on the spinal cord itself [28].

Table 3. Summary of the properties of β -pinenes, alone or in synergy with other pinenes, reported in scientific literature

β -pinènes
Lipophilic
Bactericidal
Fungicidal
Insecticidal
Acting against osteoclasts
Anticarcinogenic (cytotoxic on cancer cells)
Pesticidal
Antioxidant
Sedative

Harmlessness of the turpentine vapours

Some turpentine varieties, especially those originating from the Scandinavian countries, Switzerland, Germany or Italy, generate various types of allergies. Monoterpenes are released in the form of gas during the sawing and processing of fresh wood. They pose a potential health hazard for workers at sawmills [84]. They cause irritation to the skin, eyes and mucous membrane. They may be associated with the development of contact dermatitis (allergic or non-allergic) [85].

Turpentine inhalation increased resistance of the upper airways and induced chronic irritation, but did not generate acute respiratory problems [86].

Foussereau [85] observed 12 cases of eczema following the use of the Swedish turpentine instead of the French

turpentine. Likewise, 14 other people were cured of eczema by using turpentine without δ -3-carene (cases observed between 1967 and 1969 in Strasbourg).

In fact, the greatest danger related to turpentine use seem to be the δ -3-carenes, a variety of terpenes. These chemical compounds were at the origin of dermatitis and respiratory problems as they induced broncho-constriction [87], and there is a dose-dependent relationship between the viability of alveolar macrophages and the concentration of δ -3-carenes. They appear to have provoked a stronger reaction than did α -pinenes [88].

For the α - and β -pinenes (the main volatiles monoterpenes), many authors have a moderate opinion regarding their irritant capacity. First of all, a significant quantity is needed for the product to produce adverse health effects: as reported by Menezes et al. [89], the toxic effect for the mice starts at 5 g/kg. Kasanen et al. [90] postulated that it is highly unlikely that monoterpenes alone can cause irritation under normal conditions (“all pinenes possess sensory irritation properties and also induced sedation and sign of anaesthesia but had no pulmonary irritation effects”). Fransman et al. [91] observed that the respiratory problems referring to laminated wood workers were associated with the presence of formaldehyde among all the agents that these people inhaled at work (dust, bacterial endotoxins, abietic acid, formaldehyde and terpenes). Dutkiewicz et al. [92] found out that dermatitis among Polish workers resembled that characteristic of exposure to oak and pine wood dusts, and concluded that the presence of this pathology was due to dust inhalation rather than the composition of these dusts.

Thus, to paraphrase Paracelse, “Sola dosis facit venenum”, which translates as “the dose makes the poison”.

The rate of irritation from terpene exposure correlates with exposure level. Accordingly, monoterpenes become pro-oxidants at higher doses [93]. At a low dose, they are included in the composition of pharmaceuticals used for the kidney and liver disorders [2]. At high-level exposure, they are hepato- and nephrotoxic. They can also cause nervous system disorders (convulsions, disorders of balance [26]).

IN VIVO EVOLUTION OF α -PINENES

The *in vivo* oxygenated derivatives of terpenes are terpineols, which have been used for centuries in the traditional medicine and perfumery. Currently, there are more than 22 000 terpineols known for their biological properties such as **antioxidative activity, influence on immune functions, and anticancer potential** [94].

Scientific studies, especially those of the Scandinavian researchers, made it possible to **identify the absorption pathways of these monoterpenes in the body**. As reported by Falk et al. [95], **approximately 60% of the inhaled α -pinenes are eliminated in blood and show a high affinity with fat tissue**. They are also eliminated through the lungs (8%) and to a lesser degree (0.001%) through the kidneys [96]. Filipsson [97], in his report **on a two-hour inhalation of turpentine solution at the rate of 450 mg/m³, demonstrated that α -pinenes are eliminated in exhaled air (3% to 5%) and that their half-life (clearance) in blood is approximately 32 hours**. The remaining part is metabolized by hydration and hydroxylation (this degradation is universal, from bacteria to mammals). **These reactions take place at the hepatic cells level**, and especially at the P₄₅₀ cytochrome level [98]. The metabolites are excreted in urine [19,20,96,97].

Also known is the **transformation of α -pinenes into limonene, myrtenol, oxidized α -pinene and pinocarveol** (List of All UM-BBD Biotransformation Rules, Minnesota University, USA). The process is widespread in the entire world, starting from fungus to vegetal cells or bacteria. **In mammals, the most common chemical evolution of α -pinenes is their hydroxylation to verbenol (C₁₀H₁₆O), and, also to myrtenol and myrtenic acid** [98,99] (Fig. 1).

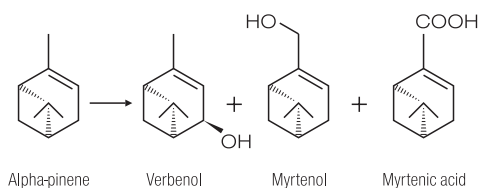


Fig. 1. Alpha-pinene evolution in mammals [98].

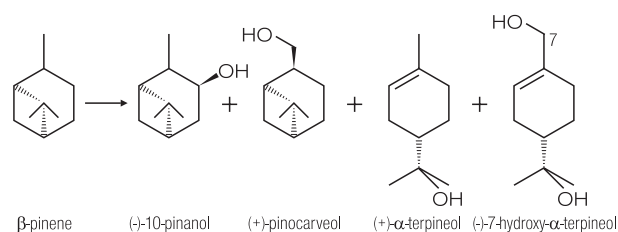


Fig. 2. Beta-pinene evolution in mammals [98].

The transformation from a “terpene” form to a “terpineol” form also means new biological properties. The new molecules exhibit the following biological activities: the **cis-verbenol is an antioxidant** [9], it prevents the resorption of osteoclasts, thus having a positive effect on osteoporosis (the α -pinenes do not possess this property [74]), and it is active against *Escherichia coli*, *Staphylococcus aureus*, and *Bacillus subtilis* [36].

IN VIVO EVOLUTION OF β -PINENES

Filipsson [97] reported that approximately 66% of β -pinenes are eliminated in blood (two-hour inhalation of turpentine solution at the rate of 450 mg/m³) and that their half-life in blood is approximately 25 hours (their rate of elimination is higher than that of α -pinenes). The evolution scheme of β -pinenes is displayed in Figure 2 [98]. The hydroxylated products also exhibit new biological properties. For example, the α -terpineol exerts an anti-inflammatory activity by reducing the rate of TNF α , interleukins IL-1 β , IL-8, IL-10 and prostaglandins E₂ (α -terpineol is the major component of the essential oil of the tea tree *Melaleuca alternifolia* [100]).

CONCLUSION

The essential oil of turpentine and its two major volatile compounds are natural products, which pose no hazard when used in small quantities. They have a number of properties that are beneficial to human health and wellbeing and may be used in the pharmaceutical and cosmetic industries. The major characteristics of these compounds are summarized in Figure 3.

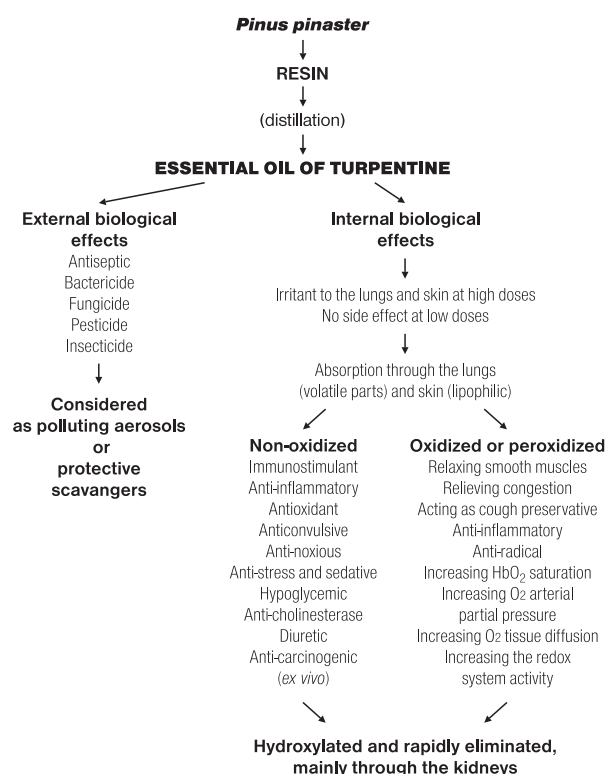


Fig. 3. Origin, impact and elimination of the essential oil of turpentine and its two main volatile components.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Béatrice Mercier's research has been financed by the Holiste Laboratory & Development (Le Port F-71110 Artaix). Several people at this Laboratory have been instrumental in enabling this project to be completed. We would like to thank Madame Marie-Laure Delanef, the General Manager of the Holiste Laboratory, and especially Isaac Masih and Ewa Brejnakowska for rereading the article.

REFERENCES

1. International Flavors & Fragrances Inc. *α* and *β* pinene. Available from: URL: <http://www.iff.com/Ingredients.nsf/0/9B9B9B1AD927E71B852569910065EDF1>.
2. Sybilska D, Kowalczyk J, Asztemborska M, Ochocka RJ, Lamparczyk H. *Chromatographic studies of the enantiomeric composition of some therapeutic compositions applied in the treatment of liver and kidney diseases*. J Chromatogr A 1994;665(1):67–73.
3. Valnet J. *Phytotherapy: treatment of diseases by plants*. Paris: Le Livre de Poche; 1983. [in French].
4. Dorow P, Weiss T, Felix R, Schmutzler H. *Effect of a secretolytic and a combination of pinene, limonene and cineole on mucociliary clearance in patients with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease*. Arzneimittelforschung 1987;37(12):1378–81.
5. Karlberg AT, Bergström MA, Börje A, Luthman K, Nilsson JL. *Allergic contact dermatitis — formation, structural requirements, and reactivity of skin sensitizers*. Chem Res Toxicol 2008;Jan;21(1):53–69.
6. Lefèvre R, Baranger P. *Peroxides and polyphenol derivatives in the treatment of cancer*. G Ital Chemioter 1956;3(3–4):397–407 [in French].
7. Chapard C. *Chemical and analytical study of some oxidized terpenic gasolines*. Physicochemical control of the drugs which derive from it [dissertation]. Bordeaux: Université de Bordeaux; 1971 [in French].
8. Kleinschmidt J, Römmelt H, Zuber A. *The pharmacokinetics of the bronchosecretolytic ozothin after intravenous injection*. Int J Clin Pharmacol Ther Toxicol 1985;23(4):200–3.
9. Grimm W, Gries H. *Researches about terpeneol allergies*. Berufsdermatosen 1967;15:253–69 [in German].
10. Bohe MG. *New studies on the autoxidation of α-pinene*. Essenze Deriv Agrum 1983;53:492–500.
11. Jacquier R. *From atom to life — cancers and diseases*. Paris: Ed. Amphora; 1981 [in French].
12. Mercier B. *Evaluation of biological and antiradical effects of peroxidizing terpenes* [dissertation] Dijon: Université de Bourgogne [in French].
13. Stolz E. *Investigations of the surface-active film in the lung alveoli reaction after the inhalation of ethereal oils*. Med Welt 1976;27:1107–9 [in German].
14. Mercier B., Prost J. *Impact of Bol d'Air Jacquier® on oxygenation of mammals* [poster]. Forum des Jeunes Chercheurs 2008, Besançon, France [in French].
15. Mercier B, Prost J. *Impact of Bol d'Air Jacquier® on cell antiradical capacity* [poster]. Forum des Jeunes Chercheurs 2006, Besançon, France [in French].
16. Mercier B, Prost J. *Antioxidant activity of Bol d'Air Jacquier® Breathing Sessions in Wistar rats* [oral communication]. Forum des Jeunes Chercheurs 2007, Dijon, France [in French].

17. Mercier B, Prost J. *Evaluation of the antiradical status by urine analysis of Bol d'Air Jacquier® breathing sessions in rats* [oral communication]. Forum des Jeunes Chercheurs 2008, Besançon, France [in French].
18. Mercier B, Prost J, Prost M. *Antioxidant Activity of Bol d'Air Jacquier® Breathing Sessions in Wistar Rats — First Studies*. Int J Occup Med Environ Health 2008;21(1):31–46. DOI 10.2478/v10001-008-0003-2
19. Tepe B, Donmez E, Unlu M, Candan F, Daferera D, Vardar-Unlu G, et al. *Antibacterial and antioxidative activities of the essential oils and methanol extracts of Salvia cryptantha (Montbret et Aucher ex (Benth.) and Salvia multicaulis (Vahl)*. Food Chemistry 2004;84:519–25.
20. Jang M, Ghio AJ, Cao G. *Exposure of BEAS-2B cells to secondary organic aerosol coated on magnetic nanoparticles*. Chem Res Toxicol 2006;19(8):1044–50.
21. Rohr AC, Wilkins CK, Clausen PA, Hammer M, Nielsen GD, Wolkoff P, et al. *Upper airway and pulmonary effects of oxidation products of (+)- α -pinene, d-limonene, and isoprene in BALB/c mice*. Inhal Toxicol 2002;14(7):663–84.
22. Bermudez J, Burgess MF, Cassidy F, Clarke GD. *Activity of the oxidation products of oleum terebenthinae “Landes” on guinea pig airway smooth muscle in vivo and in vitro*. Arzneimittelforsch (Drug Res) 1987;37(11):1258–62.
23. Bourguin P. *Therapeutic effects of oxidised terpenes in respiratory pathologies*. M.M. 1977;138:59–62 [in French].
24. INRS. *Turpentine oil*. Fiche toxicologique n° 132, 1987 et 2000 [in French].
25. Ennifar S, Ferbach S, Kraut C, Rolli H. *Physiological and pharmacological properties of monoterpenes*. Strasbourg: Université Pasteur; 2001 [in French].
26. Borra JP, Roos RA, Renard D, Lazar H, Golman A, Goldman M. *Electrical and chemical consequences of point discharges in a forest during a mist and a thunderstorm*. J Phys D Appl Phys 1997;30:84–93.
27. Utiyama M, Fukuyama T, Maruo YY, Ichino T, Izumi K, Hara H, et al. *Formation and Deposition of Ozone in a Red Pine Forest*. Water Air Soil Pollut 2004;151(1–4):53–70. DOI 10.1023/B:WATE.0000009891.12108.b9.
28. Liapi C, Anifantis G, Chinou I, Kourounakis AP, Theodosopoulos S, Galanopoulou P. *Antinociceptive properties of 1,8-Cineole and β -pinene, from the essential oil of Eucalyptus camaldulensis leaves, in rodents*. Planta Med 2007;73(12):1247–54.
29. Winterhalter R, Van Dingenen R, Larsen BR, Jensen NR, Hjorth J. *LC-MS analysis of aerosol particles from the oxidation of α -pinene by ozone and OH-radicals*. Atmos Chem Phys Discuss 2003;3:1–39.
30. Docherty KS, Wu W, Lim YB, Ziemann PJ. *Contributions of organic peroxides to secondary aerosol formed from reactions of monoterpenes with O₃*. Environ Sci Technol 39(11):4049–59.
31. Chiron F, Chalchat JC, Garry RP, Pilichowski JF, Lacoste J. *Photochemical hydroperoxidation of terpenes. I. Synthesis and characterization of α -pinene, α -pinene and limonene hydroperoxides*. J Photochem Photobiol A: Chem 1997;111(1–3):75–86.
32. Iinuma Y, Müller C, Berndt T, Böge O, Claeys M, Herrmann H. *Evidence for the existence of organosulfates from β -pinene ozonolysis in ambient secondary organic aerosol*. Environ Sci Technol 2007;41(19):6678–83.
33. Keinan E, Alt A, Amir G, Bentur L, Bibi H, Shoseyov D. *Natural ozone scavenger prevents asthma in sensitized rats*. Bioorg Med Chem 2005;13(2):557–62.
34. McKay SA, Hunter WL, Godard KA, Wang SX, Martin DM, Bohlmann J, et al. *Insect attack and wounding induce traumatic resin duct development and gene expression of (-)-pinene synthase in Sitka spruce*. Plant Physiol 2003;133(1):368–78.
35. Jaenson TG, Pålsson K, Borg-Karlson AK. *Evaluation of extracts and oils of mosquito (Diptera: Culicidae) repellent plants from Sweden and Guinea-Bissau*. J Med Entomol 2006;43(1):113–9.
36. Magwa ML, Gundidza M, Gweru N, Humphrey G. *Chemical composition and biological activities of essential oil from the leaves of Sesuvium portulacastrum*. J Ethnopharmacol 2006;103(1):85–9.
37. Eriksson K, Wiklund L. *Dermal exposure to monoterpenes during wood work*. J Environ Monit 2004;6(6):563–8.
38. Almirall M, Montana J, Escribano E, Obach R, Berrozpe JD. *Effect of d-limonene, α -pinene and cineole on in vitro transdermal human skin penetration of chlorpromazine and haloperidol*. Arzneimittelforschung 1996;46(7):676–80.
39. Sapra B, Jain S, Tiwary AK. *Percutaneous permeation enhancement by terpenes: mechanistic view*. AAPS J 2008;10(1):120–32.

40. Jarvisalo J, Vainio H. **Enhancement of hepatic drug biotransformation by a short-term intermittent turpentine exposure in the rat.** *Acta Pharmacol Toxicol (Copenh)* 1980;46(1):32–6.
41. Sonboli A, Babakhani B, Mehrabian AR. **Antimicrobial activity of six constituents of essential oil from *Salvia*.** *Z Naturforsch [C]* 2006;61(3–4):160–4.
42. de Carvalho PM Jr, Rodrigues RF, Sawaya AC, Marques MO, Shimizu MT. **Chemical composition and antimicrobial activity of the essential oil of *Cordiaverbenacea D.C.*** *J Ethnopharmacol* 2004;95(2–3):297–301.
43. Martins AP, Salgueiro LR, Goncalves MJ, Proenca da Cunha A, Vila R, Caniguel S. **Essential oil composition and antimicrobial activity of *Santiria trimera* bark.** *Planta Med* 2003;69(1):77–9.
44. Andrews RE, Parks LW, Spence KD. **Some Effects of Douglas Fir Terpenes on Certain Microorganisms.** *Appl Environ Microbiol* 1980;40(2):301–4.
45. Trumpower BL, Gennis RB. **Energy transduction by cytochrome complexes in mitochondrial and bacterial respiration: the enzymology of coupling electron transfer reactions to transmembrane proton translocation.** *Annual Reviews in Biochemistry* 1994;63:675–716.
46. Sikkema J, de Bont JAM, Poolman B. **Interactions of cyclic hydrocarbons with biological membranes.** *J J Biol Chem* 1994;269:8022–8.
47. Helander IM, Alakomi HL, Kyosti LK, Mattiala-andholm T, Pol I, Smid EJ, et al. **Characterization of the action of selected essential oil components on Gram-negative bacteria.** *J Agric Food Chem* 1998;46:3590–5.
48. Alma MH, Nitz S, Kollmannsberger H, Digrak M, Efe FT, Yilmaz N. **Chemical composition and antimicrobial activity of the essential oils from the gum of Turkish pistachio (*Pistacia vera L.*).** *J Agric Food Chem* 2004;52(12):3911–4.
49. Pichette A, Larouche PL, Lebrun M, Legault J. **Composition and antibacterial activity of *Abies balsamea* essential oil.** *Phytother Res* 2006;20(5):371–3.
50. Cha JD, Jeong MR, Jeong SI, Moon SE, Kil BS, Yun SI, et al. **Chemical composition and antimicrobial activity of the essential oil of *Cryptomeria japonica*.** *Phytother Res* 2007;21(3):295–9.
51. Lucia A, Gonzalez Audino P, Seccacini E, Licastro S, Zerba E, Masuh H. **Larvicidal effect of *Eucalyptus grandis* essential oil and turpentine and their major components on *Aedes aegypti* larvae.** *J Am Mosq Control Assoc* 2007;23(3):299–303.
52. Jung WC, Jang YS, Hieu TT, Lee CK, Ahn YJ. **Toxicity of *Myristica fragrans* seed compounds against *Blattella germanica* (Diptera: Blattellidae).** *J Med Entomol* 2007;44(3):524–9.
53. Byers JA, Zhang QH, Birgersson G. **Strategies of a bark beetle, *Pityogenes bidentatus*, in an olfactory landscape.** *Naturwissenschaften* 2000;87:503–7.
54. Pap A, Szarvas F. **Effect of α -pinene on the mixed function of microsomal oxidase system in the rat.** *Acta Med Acad Sci Hung* 1976;33(4):379–85.
55. Setzer WN, Setzer MC, Moriarity DM, Bates RB, Haber WA. **Biological activity of the essential oil of *Myrcianthes sp. nov.* „black fruit“ from Monteverde, Costa Rica.** *Planta Med* 1999;65(5):468–9.
56. Díaz C, Quesada S, Brenes O, Aguilar G, Ciccio JF. **Chemical composition of *Schinus molle* essential oil and its cytotoxic activity on tumour cell lines.** *Nat Prod Res* 2008;22(17):1521–34.
57. Zhou J Y, Tang FD, Mao GG, Bian RL. **Effect of α -pinene on nuclear translocation of NF-kappa B in THP-1 cells.** *Acta Pharmacol Sin* 2004;25(4):480–4.
58. Lampronti I, Saab AM, Gambari R. **Antiproliferative activity of essential oils derived from plants belonging to the Magnoliophyta division.** *Int J Oncol* 2006;29(4):989–95.
59. Grassmann J, Hippeli S, Vollmann R, Elstner EF. **Antioxidative properties of the essential oil from *Pinus mugo*.** *J Agric Food Chem* 2003;51(26):7576–82.
60. Perry NS, Houghton PJ, Sampson J, Theobald AE, Hart S, Lis-Balchin M, et al. **In-vitro activity of *S. lavandulaefolia* (Spanish sage) relevant to treatment of Alzheimer's disease.** *J Pharm Pharmacol* 2001;53(10):1347–56.
61. Camara CC, Nascimento NR, Macedo-Filho CL, Almeida FB, Fonteles MC. **Antispasmodic Effect of the Essential Oil of *Plectranthus barbatus* and some Major Constituents on the Guinea-Pig Ileum.** *Planta Med* 2003;69(12):1080–5.
62. González-Trujano ME, Peña EI, Martínez AL, Moreno J, Guevara-Fefer P, Déciga-Campos M, et al. **Evaluation of the antinociceptive effect of *Rosmarinus officinalis L.* using three different experimental models in rodents.** *J Ethnopharmacol* 2007;111(3):476–82.

regeneration of beta cells:

63. Umezu T, Nagano K, Ito H, Kosakai K, Sakaniwa M, Morita M. *Anticonflict effects of lavender oil and identification of its active constituents*. Pharmacol Biochem Behav 2006;85(4):713–21.
64. Lamb JG, Marick P, Sorensen J, Haley S, Dearing MD. *Liver biotransforming enzymes in woodrats Neotoma stephensi (Muridae)*. Comp Biochem Physiol C Toxicol Pharmacol 2004;138(2):195–201.
65. Orhan I, Senol FS, Kartal M, Dvorská M, Zemlička M, Smejkal K, et al. *Cholinesterase inhibitory effects of the extracts and compounds of Maclura pomifera (Rafin.) Schneider*. Food Chem Toxicol 2009;47(8):1747–51. DOI 10.1016/j.fct.2009.04.023.
66. Sayyah M, Nadjafnia L, Kamalinejad M. *Anticonvulsant activity and chemical composition of Artemisia dracunculus L. essential oil*. J Ethnopharmacol 2004;94(2–3):283–7.
67. Erazo S, Delporte C, Negrete R, García R, Zaldívar M, Iturra G, et al. *Constituents and biological activities of Schinus polygamus*. J Ethnopharmacol 2006;107(3):395–400.
68. Hammer KA, Carson CF, Riley TV. *Antifungal activity of the components of Melaleuca alternifolia (tea tree) oil*. J Appl Microbiol 2003;95(4):853–60.
69. Uribe S, Ramirez T, Pena A. *Effects of β -pinene on yeast membrane functions*. J Bacteriol 1985;161:1195–200.
70. Tchoumboungang F, Zollo PH, Dagne E, Mekonnen Y. *In vivo antimalarial activity of essential oils from Cymbopogon citratus and Ocimum gratissimum on mice infected with Plasmodium berghei*. Planta Med 2005;71(1):20–3.
71. Yang YC, Choi HY, Choi WS, Clark JM, Ahn YJ. *Ovicidal and adulticidal activity of Eucalyptus globulus leaf oil terpenoids against Pediculus humanus capitis (Anoplura: Pediculidae)*. J Agric Food Chem 2004;52(9):2507–11.
72. Kelen M, Tepe B. *Chemical composition, antioxidant and antimicrobial properties of the essential oils of three Salvia species from Turkish flora*. Bioresour Technol 2008;99(10):4096–104. DOI 10.1016/j.biortech.2007.09.002.
73. Karioti A, Hadjipavlou-Litina D, Mensah ML, Fleischer TC, Skaltsa H. *Composition and antioxidant activity of the essential oils of Xylopiya aethiopica (Dun) A. Rich. (Annonaceae) leaves, stem bark, root bark, and fresh and dried fruits, growing in Ghana*. J Agric Food Chem 2004;52(26):8094–8.
74. Mühlbauer RC, Lozano A, Palacio S, Reinli A, Felix R. *Common herbs, essential oils, and monoterpenes potently modulate bone metabolism*. Bone 2003;32(4):372–80.
75. Iacobellis NS, Lo Cantore P, Capasso F, Senatore F. *Antibacterial activity of Cuminum cyminum L. and Carum carvi L. essential oils*. J Agric Food Chem 2005;53(1):57–61.
76. Joy B, Rajan A, Abraham E. *Antimicrobial activity and chemical composition of essential oil from Hedychium coronarium*. Phytother Res 2007;21(5):439–43.
77. Takikawa A, Abe K, Yamamoto M, Ishimaru S, Yasui M, Okubo Y, et al. *Antimicrobial activity of nutmeg against Escherichia coli O157*. J Biosci Bioeng 2002;94(4):315–20.
78. Abdel-Hady NM, Abdei-Halim AS, Al-Ghadban AM. *Chemical composition and insecticidal activity of the volatile oils of leaves and flowers of Lantana camara L. cultivated in Egypt*. J Egypt Soc Parasitol 2005;35(2):687–98.
79. De Andrade IL, Bezerra JN, Lima MA, de Faria RA, Lima MA, Andrade-Neto M, et al. *Chemical composition and insecticidal activity of essential oils from Vanillosmopsis pohlii baker against Bemisia argentifolii*. J Agric Food Chem 2004;52(19):5879–81.
80. Krauze-Baranowska M, Mardarowicz M, Wiwart M, Poblócka L, Dynowska M. *Antifungal activity of the essential oils from some species of the genus Pinus*. Z Naturforsch [C] 2002;57(5–6):478–82.
81. Nishida N, Tamotsu S, Nagata N, Saito C, Sakai A. *Allelopathic effects of volatile monoterpenoids produced by Salvia leucophylla: Inhibition of cell proliferation and DNA synthesis in the root apical meristem of Brassica campestris seedlings*. J Chem Ecol 2005;31(5):1187–203.
82. Russin WA, Hoesly JD, Elson CE, Tanner MA, Gould MN. *Inhibition of rat mammary carcinogenesis by monoterpenoids*. Carcinogenesis 1989;10(11):2161–4.
83. Riyazi A, Hensel A, Bauer K, Geissler N, Schaaf S, Verspohl EJ. *The effect of the volatile oil from ginger rhizomes (Zingiber officinale), its fractions and isolated compounds on the 5-HT3 receptor complex and the serotonergic system of the rat ileum*. Planta Med 2007;73(4):355–62.
84. Hedenstierna G, Alexandersson R, Wimander K, Rosén G. *Exposure to terpenes: effects on pulmonary function*. Int Arch Occup Environ Health 1983;51(3):191–8.

85. Foussereau J. *Allergic eczema to turpentine. Fiche d'allergologie dermatologie professionnelle n° 15, 1978, INRS* [in French].
86. Eriksson KA, Levin JO, Sandström T, Lindström-Espeling K, Lindén G, Stjernberg NL. *Terpene exposure and respiratory effects among workers in Swedish joinery shops. Scand J Work Environ Health* 1997;23(2):114–20.
87. Låstbom L, Falk-Filipsson A, Boyer S, Moldéus P, Ryrfeldt A. *Mechanisms of 3-carene-induced bronchoconstriction in the isolated guinea pig lung. Respiration* 1995;62(3):130–5.
88. Møhlhave L, Kjaergaard SK, Hempel-Jørgensen A, Juto JE, Andersson K, Stridh G, et al. *The eye irritation and odor potencies of four terpenes which are major constituents of the emissions of VOCs from Nordic soft woods. Indoor Air* 2000;10(4):315–8.
89. Menezes IA, Marques MS, Santos TC, Dias KS, Silva AB, Mello IC, et al. *Antinociceptive effect and acute toxicity of the essential oil of Hyptis fruticosa in mice. Fitoterapia* 2007;78(3):192–5.
90. Kasanen JP, Pasanen AL, Pasanen P, Liesivuori J, Kosma VM, Alarie Y. *Stereospecificity of the sensory irritation receptor for nonreactive chemicals illustrated by pinene enantiomers. Arch Toxicol* 1998;72(8):514–23.
91. Fransman W, McLean D, Douwes J, Demers PA, Leung V, Pearce N. *Respiratory symptoms and occupational exposures in New Zealand plywood mill workers. Ann Occup Hyg* 2003;47(4):287–95.
92. Dutkiewicz J, Skórska C, Dutkiewicz E, Matuszyk A, Sitkowska J, Krysińska-Traczyk E. *Response of sawmill workers to work-related airborne allergens. Ann Agric Environ Med* 2001;8(1):81–90.
93. Estévez M, Ventanas S, Ramírez R, Cava R. *Influence of the addition of rosemary essential oil on the volatile pattern of porcine frankfurters. J Agric Food Chem* 2005;53(21):8317–24.
94. Grassmann J. *Terpenoids as plant antioxidants. Vitam Horm* 2005;72:505–35.
95. Falk AA, Hagberg MT, Lof AE, Wigaeus-Hjelm EM, Wang ZP. *Uptake, distribution and elimination of α -pinene in man after exposure by inhalation. Scan J Work Environ Health* 1990;16:372–8.
96. Levin JO, Eriksson K, Falk A, Lof A. *Renal elimination of verbenols in man following experimental α -pinene inhalation exposure. Int Arch Occup Environ Health* 1992;63(8):571–3.
97. Filipsson AF. *Short term inhalation exposure to turpentine: toxicokinetics and acute effects in men. Occup Environ Med* 1996;53(2):100–5.
98. Ishida T, Asakawa Y, Takemoto T, Aratani T. *Terpenoids biotransformation in mammals II: Biotransformation of α -pinene, β -pinene, pinane, 3-carene, carene, myrcene, and p-cymene in rabbit. J Pharm Sci* 1981;70(4):406–15.
99. Lindmark-Henriksson M, Isaksson D, Vanek T, Valterova I, Hogberg HE, Sjodin K. *Transformation of α -pinene using *Picea abies* suspension culture. Nat Prod* 2003;66(3):337–43.
100. Hart PH, Brand C, Carson CF, Riley TV, Prager RH, Finlay-Jones JJ. *Terpinen-4-ol, the main component of the essential oil of *Melaleuca alternifolia* (tea tree oil), suppresses inflammatory mediator production by activated human monocytes. Inflamm Res* 2000;49(11):619–26.