



Phytochemistry, Pharmacological Potential, and Ethnomedicinal Relevance of *Achillea nobilis* and Its Subspecies: A Comprehensive Review

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Abstract: Achillea nobilis and its subspecies (A. nobilis subsp. neilreichii and A. nobilis subsp. sipylea) have been traditionally used in various ethnomedical systems across Eurasia. However, comprehensive studies on their phytochemical composition and pharmacological properties are still insufficient. This review aims to provide a critical synthesis of current knowledge regarding the botanical characteristics, geographic distribution, traditional applications, chemical constituents, and pharmacological effects of A. nobilis A structured search was conducted using eight scientific platforms, including Scopus, PubMed, Web of Science, Google Scholar, Science.gov, ScienceDirect, JSTOR, and BASE. Keywords related to phytochemistry, pharmacology, and ethnomedicine were applied, and a total of 28,000 records were initially retrieved. After a multi-stage screening process based on inclusion and exclusion criteria, 167 peer-reviewed publications from 1952 to 2023 were selected for detailed evaluation. Findings reveal a diverse range of bioactive compounds, such as flavonoids, monoterpenes, sesquiterpenes, and sesquiterpene lactones, which demonstrate antioxidant, antimicrobial, anti-inflammatory, antinociceptive, antispasmodic, and anticonvulsant activities. Most studies have focused on aerial parts and water-based extracts, while the root chemistry and organ-specific metabolite profiles remain largely unexplored. This review highlights the therapeutic potential of A. nobilis and underscores the need for future studies using multi-omics and advanced analytical techniques to support its development in pharmaceutical and nutraceutical applications.



Received: 20 April 2025 Revised: 14 May 2025 Accepted: 14 May 2025 Published: 4 June 2025

Citation: Shevchenko, A.; Akhelova, A.; Nokerbek, S.; Kaldybayeva, A.; Sagyndykova, L.; Raganina, K.; Dossymbekova, R.; Meldebekova, A.; Amirkhanova, A.; Ikhsanov, Y.; et al. Phytochemistry, Pharmacological Potential, and Ethnomedicinal Relevance of *Achillea nobilis* and Its Subspecies: A Comprehensive Review. *Molecules* **2025**, *30*, 2460. https://doi.org/10.3390/ molecules30112460

Copyright: © 2025 by the authors. Licensee MDPI, Basel, Switzerland. This article is an open access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license (https://creativecommons.org/ licenses/by/4.0/). **Keywords:** ethnomedicine; phytochemistry; flavonoids; monoterpenes; pharmacological activities; antibacterial; antinociceptive

1. Introduction

The exploration of specific plant species with ethnomedicinal value has proven instrumental in identifying novel bioactive compounds for therapeutic use [1]. *Achillea nobilis* L. and its subspecies (*A. nobilis* subsp. *sipylea*, *A. nobilis* subsp. *neilreichii*, and *A. nobilis* subsp. *nobilis*) represent a group of aromatic and medicinal plants widely used in traditional medicine systems across Eurasia [2–4]. These taxa belong to the Asteraceae family and have been historically used in herbal decoctions, infusions, oils, and topical applications aimed at treating pain, inflammation, gastrointestinal discomfort, respiratory infections, and dermatological conditions [5–10]. Their longstanding therapeutic applications are rooted in folk medicine systems from Turkey, Iran, Bosnia and Herzegovina, and Kazakhstan, among others [11–15].

Despite their documented use in traditional medicine, comprehensive scientific analysis of their phytochemical composition and pharmacological properties remains fragmented [16,17]. Reports suggest that *A. nobilis* and its subspecies contain a diverse array of bioactive secondary metabolites, including flavonoids, flavonoid glycosides, monoterpenes, sesquiterpenes, sesquiterpene lactones, and terpenoid derivatives [18–34]. These compounds have been linked to various biological activities, particularly antimicrobial, anti-inflammatory, antispasmodic, and neuroprotective effects. For example, flavonoids such as apigenin and luteolin glycosides exhibit strong antioxidant and anti-inflammatory properties, while volatile monoterpenes such as α -thujone, cineole, and camphor have shown antimicrobial activity (Figure 1) [21].

Phytochemical investigations from 1978 to 2020 have primarily focused on aerial parts of the plant and water-soluble extracts, often overlooking the phytochemical diversity of underground organs and lipid-soluble fractions. This creates a significant knowledge gap in understanding the complete metabolic profile of the species. Furthermore, studies suggest that the chemical profiles of different plant parts and subspecies vary significantly due to genetic and ecological factors, necessitating chemotaxonomic approaches and organ-specific metabolite profiling [27,28]. Seasonal variations have been reported to influence the concentration of essential oils and flavonoid content, with certain bioactive compounds peaking during flowering or specific phenological stages. Similarly, regional differences, including altitude, soil composition, and climatic conditions, can significantly modulate metabolite accumulation, leading to variability in pharmacological potency across populations [2,20,25]. However, these differences have not yet been fully characterized in a systematic manner.

Although several review articles have addressed the phytochemistry and pharmacological properties of the *Achillea* genus more broadly [4,35–37], none have provided a comprehensive, species-specific focus on *Achillea nobilis* and its subspecies. Existing reviews such as Barda et al. [4] and Saeidnia et al. [37] compile data primarily for *A. millefolium* and other well-studied species, while limited attention is given to the distinct phytochemical profiles and ethnomedicinal uses of *A. nobilis* taxa. Furthermore, no review has yet systematically explored the chemotaxonomic distinctions among *A. nobilis* subspecies or the variation in lipophilic and underground organ-derived metabolites. This review aims to fill this gap by offering a dedicated analysis of *A. nobilis* and its subspecies, integrating phytochemical, ethnopharmacological, and pharmacological data, and proposing future research directions using multi-omics and regional comparative approaches.

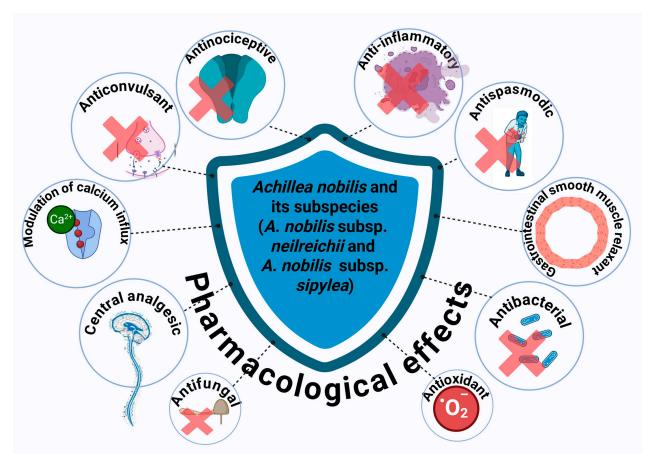


Figure 1. Pharmacological effects of A. nobilis and its subspecies.

Recent advances in plant metabolomics, transcriptomics, and chemoinformatics offer the opportunity to resolve these limitations [29–33]. Future research should incorporate integrative multi-omics strategies to explore biosynthetic pathways, quantify metabolite variation across plant parts and environments, and establish pharmacological correlations with specific compounds. Additionally, understanding the influence of geographical and seasonal variability on phytochemical expression will enhance the reproducibility and quality control of derived herbal products. Given these gaps, a focused and comprehensive review is essential to consolidate current knowledge and guide future investigations.

This review aims to offer a thorough and cohesive summary of *A. nobilis* and its subspecies by consolidating existing information on their botanical traits, geographic distribution, traditional medicinal applications, phytochemical compositions, and pharmacological effects. The objective is to bridge traditional ethnobotanical insights with contemporary phytochemical and pharmacological evidence while identifying research gaps related to underexplored plant parts such as roots. Furthermore, the review proposes future research directions using advanced analytical and systems biology tools to support the safe and effective integration of *A. nobilis* into pharmaceutical and nutraceutical development.

2. Methods

A comprehensive and systematic literature review was conducted to identify relevant scientific publications pertaining to *Achillea nobilis* and its subspecies. The search aimed to capture a wide spectrum of studies addressing botanical, phytochemical, ethnomedicinal, and pharmacological aspects. Eight databases were strategically selected to ensure broad and high-quality coverage of the literature. These included bibliographic databases (Scopus,

PubMed, Web of Science), academic search engines (Google Scholar, Science.gov), and full-text repositories (ScienceDirect, JSTOR, BASE), which collectively provide access to peer-reviewed journals, open-access materials, institutional repositories, and preprints.

To refine the search and extract relevant literature, targeted keywords were employed, including "*A. nobilis*", "*A. nobilis* phytochemicals", "*A. nobilis* compounds", "*A. nobilis* pharmacological", "*A. nobilis* traditional use", and "*A. nobilis* ethnomedicine". The search strategy incorporated Boolean operators and was applied uniformly across all platforms. The number of search results obtained per keyword from each platform is summarized in Table 1.

Keywords Platforms A. nobilis A. nobilis Total A. nobilis A. nobilis A. nobilis A. nobilis Phytochemicals Compounds Traditional use Ethnomedicine Pharmacological Scopus 30 0 0 0 0 0 30 5 1 Pubmed 17 1 8 1 33 2380 3370 704 Google Scholar 14,200 3570 2100 26,324 Web of Science 73 1 23 1 5 0 103 ScienceDirect 96 71 355 214 320 37 1093 0 7 **JSTOR** 121 13 0 0 141 Science.gov 202 12 224 170 146 8 762 BASE 2 433 1 58 13 16 523

Table 1. The number of searches for each keyword.

"0" means not found.

The literature review and data collection were conducted between August 2024 and March 2025. Scientific publications in English, Russian, Arabic, and Chinese were included in the review. The primary database searches and article screening were performed by Anastassiya Shevchenko and Akerke Amirkhanova. Other co-authors contributed by verifying the eligibility of the literature, extracting phytochemical and pharmacological data from selected manuscripts, and assisting with data synthesis and final categorization. The review process involved both gradual and parallel stages of search and screening to ensure coverage and accuracy. No conflicts arose during the literature review process.

We compared phytochemical composition data reported in selected studies to assess chemotypic variation across subspecies and plant organs. Specifically, we recorded identified metabolites, extraction solvents, analytical techniques (e.g., GC–MS, LC–MS/MS, NMR), and the corresponding plant parts and subspecies. Studies reporting distinct compound profiles from different subspecies (e.g., *A. nobilis* subsp. *neilreichii* vs. *A. nobilis* subsp. *nobilis*) or organs (e.g., aerial parts vs. flower heads) were reviewed comparatively to infer chemotypic differences. These patterns were synthesized to identify recurring subspecies-specific chemical signatures. The final synthesis was conducted by categorizing phytochemicals according to chemical class (e.g., flavonoids, terpenes, phenolic acids) and mapping them against plant parts and subspecies. This comparative approach allowed us to infer chemotypic variations and associate them with environmental or genetic factors, as reported by primary authors. Differences in extraction protocols and analytical techniques were also considered to contextualize the findings.

By applying the inclusion and exclusion criteria, papers that met the inclusion criteria were selected for further investigation and content assessment. The inclusion criteria encompassed peer-reviewed articles, biological/pharmacological studies, systematic reviews, and meta-analyses that specifically addressed *A. nobilis*, its phytochemical composition,

pharmacological properties, and ecological significance. Conversely, the exclusion criteria involved omitting gray literature, extended abstracts, presentations, keynotes, book chapters, and inaccessible publications. Additionally, articles discussing *Achillea* species without specific information on *A. nobilis* were excluded, as they fell outside the scope of this review, which aims to define the status quo of medicinal and ethnobotanical significance (MES).

The general screening process and the flow of selecting relevant literature are illustrated in Figure 2. Initially, approximately 28,000 records were retrieved from seven platforms. After eliminating non-relevant works, including gray literature, extended abstracts, presentations, keynotes, book chapters, and inaccessible sources, the number of retained articles was reduced to 893 for further title screening. Subsequently, 385 articles met the eligibility criteria for abstract evaluation. Following abstract screening, only 293 articles were deemed relevant for a full-text review. Among them, 167 studies specifically assessed MES, and these articles were downloaded for further detailed screening. Ultimately, 167 publications satisfied all inclusion criteria and were selected for the final analysis (Figure 2). The final set of relevant publications was then used for further evaluation and synthesis.

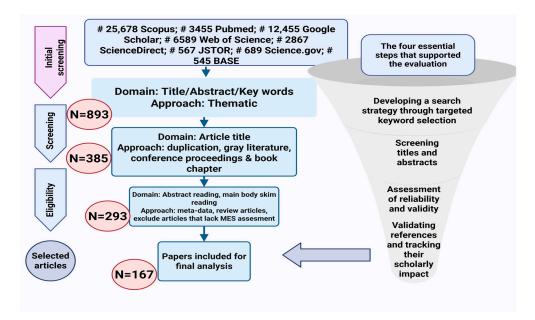


Figure 2. Schematic representation of the database search process for identifying and selecting publications in a systematic review (MES: medicinal and ethnobotanical significance).

These terms facilitated the identification of studies related to the phytochemical composition, pharmacological potential, and ethnomedicinal applications of *A. nobilis*. Moreover, to enhance the accuracy of data retrieval, non-relevant materials were systematically excluded based on their lack of direct relevance to the study's objectives. This methodological approach ensures the inclusion of high-quality and scientifically rigorous literature, thereby strengthening the reliability and validity of the findings. Additional studies were identified through manual screening of references in the selected articles. Furthermore, books containing high-quality taxonomic, ethnobotanical, and pharmacological information were also reviewed to ensure comprehensive coverage of *A. nobilis*. In addition to taxonomic and ethnobotanical aspects, particular attention was given to the pharmacological activities of the identified bioactive compounds. This approach provided a broader understanding of the therapeutic potential of *A. nobilis*, allowing for the identification of key bioactive constituents and their possible mechanisms of action. The literature reviewed spanned from 1952 to 2023. The process of reviewing scientific articles to identify appropriate materials involves four key actions. First, selecting relevant keywords and developing a precise search strategy using Boolean operators ensures comprehensive database searches. Second, screening article titles and abstracts helps filter studies based on relevance and predefined inclusion/exclusion criteria. Third, full-text evaluation assesses methodological rigor, scientific credibility, and alignment with research objectives. Lastly, reference cross-checking and citation tracking enhance the review by identifying additional relevant studies through backward and forward citation analysis. This systematic approach ensures the selection of high-quality, scientifically relevant materials.

3. Distribution and Botanical Characterization

Based on botanical systematics, *Achillea* species belong to the Angiosperms, within the Eudicots clade, Campanulates order, Asteraceae family, Tubuliflorae subfamily, and Anthemideae tribe [37]. The *Achillea* genus comprises approximately 140 perennial herbaceous species worldwide [38]. These species are highly adaptable and thrive in diverse climates, particularly in semi-tropical, temperate, dry, and semi-arid regions [39]. They are commonly found in mountainous forests and steppes, exhibiting resilience in various soil conditions, including degraded lands and roadsides. Their adaptability is largely attributed to their ability to withstand moisture deficiency and direct sunlight, making them versatile in different environmental settings [37,40].

Among these species, *A. nobilis* is native to Europe, Asia, and parts of North Africa (Figure 3). Additionally, it has been reported to have been introduced into Great Britain, as well as several federal subjects of Russia, including Khabarovsk Krai, Primorye Krai, and Sakhalin. Moreover, its presence has been documented in the United States, specifically in Minnesota and Montana [41].



Figure 3. The distribution of *A. nobilis* (Green indicates the native distribution) [41]. The map was created using Microsoft Excel based on publicly available distribution data.

A. nobilis, commonly known as "noble yarrow", is a perennial herbaceous plant reaching heights of 15–70 cm, with a rootstock that lacks stolons. Its stems are terete, longitudinally striped, and covered with spreading pilose hairs. The leaves are woolly-pubescent, with basal leaves being 2–3-pinnatipartite, oblong-lanceolate (2–10 × 1–3 cm) with a dentate rachis, while median cauline leaves are ovate-oblong to broadly ovate (2–5 × 1–3 cm), with primary segments regularly 1-pinnatifid to 1-pinnatisect. The species produces 50–150 capitula in dense corymbose inflorescences (2–10 cm wide), each capitulum being broadly obovoid to oblong (3–3.5 × 2–3 mm), with phyllaries ranging from triangular-lanceolate and acute to oblong and obtuse, covered in either sparse hairs or dense woolly-shaggy indumentum. The ligules are pale yellow above and white below (0.8–1.5(–2) mm), with 10–25 disk flowers per capitulum. Flowering occurs from June to August [42].

4. Uses of A. nobilis in Ethnomedicine

Plants constitute the principal healthcare resource in numerous communities globally [43]. They additionally function as vital sources for the advancement of biomedicines, and species traditionally utilized have made substantial contributions to the formulation of biomedical pharmaceuticals [44]. Statistical evidence indicates that traditional remedies, including phytotherapeutic agents, represent the most significant and at times the sole means of therapeutics for nearly 80% of the global population [45]. For example, approximately 85% of the global populace utilizes herbal medicines for both disease prevention and treatment, with demand rising in both developed and developing nations [46,47]. It is estimated that around 500 million individuals in South Asian countries alone seek health security through plant-based resources [44].

A. nobilis widely recognized for its medicinal properties, is one of the most notable examples of a plant extensively utilized in ethnomedicine across diverse cultures, where it has been traditionally employed for its anti-inflammatory, wound healing, and antimicrobial effects (Table 2) [48–52]. For instance, *A. nobilis* has been traditionally used in Bosnia and Herzegovina for treating bedwetting in children, blood purification, and various skin conditions, including injuries, rashes, and psoriasis. Moreover, its flower tincture has been widely applied, as it is believed to effectively restore the skin to its normal condition. This longstanding use highlights the plant's significance in ethnomedicine for dermatological and internal health applications [48].

Table 2. Ethnomedicinal use of A. nobilis in different cultures.

| Country | Plant Part | Ethnomedicinal Use(s) | Ref. |
|------------------------------|-------------------|---|------|
| Bosnia and Herzegovina | flower | managing nocturnal enuresis in children, cleansing the blood, and addressing a range of dermatological issues (wounds, irritations, and psoriasis) | [48] |
| Iran above-ground part | | antiparasitic, wound-healing and anti- infective agent | [49] |
| Turkey | above-ground part | abdominal pain and flatulence | [50] |
| China | root | treating hypertension | [51] |
| Kazakhstan above-ground part | | treating urethritis, bronchitis, and psoriasis | [52] |

The seminal text *Shipagerlik Bayan* ("Confessions of a Healer"), authored by the esteemed Kazakh medical practitioner Oteyboydak Tleukabyl during the 15th century AD, provides a comprehensive exposition of the medical paradigms pertaining to pharmacology, anatomy, pathology, immunology, and nutritional care within the framework of Traditional Kazakh Medicine (TKM). Each of these paradigms constitutes a systematic framework comprising six principal components, specifically, kengistik tugyr (space), turak tugyr (earth), suwik tugyr (coldness), ystyk tugyr (heat), zharyk tugyr (light), and karangy tugyr (darkness) [53–55]. The foundations of ancient Kazakh folk medicine are rooted in the empirical observations and practical knowledge accrued over numerous generations. Traditionally, the array of medicinal flora utilized by the Kazakh populace was categorized into four primary classifications-fortifying, refreshing, warming, and laxative plants [55,56]—which were adeptly employed to address a variety of ailments, including bronchitis, bronchial asthma, urethritis, chronic rheumatoid arthritis, gastric discomfort, hyperacidity, diarrhea, hemostatic issues, metrorrhagia, envenomations from snake bites, and neoplastic diseases [56–58]. Among the diverse Achillea species, A. nobilis has been particularly noted within Kazakh folk medicine for its therapeutic application in

treating urethritis and bronchitis. Additionally, its aqueous tincture has been employed in dermatological treatments for psoriasis [52].

5. Phytochemistry

Studying the phytoconstituents of *A. nobilis* is essential, particularly due to their pharmacological significance. However, a comprehensive literature survey indicates that the majority of phytochemical studies on *A. nobilis* employing various techniques and methodologies, were conducted between 1978 and 2020 (Table 3) [18–34]. This suggests a limited number of investigations dedicated to the plant's chemical composition. Furthermore, an analysis of existing studies on *A. nobilis* and its subspecies (*A. nobilis* subsp. *neilreichii* and *A. nobilis* subsp. *sipylea*) reveals that most research has focused on water-based extracts. Additionally, studies have predominantly examined the aerial parts of the plant, with no reported investigations of the root composition. Consequently, *A. nobilis* and its subspecies exhibit a diverse array of phytochemicals, including phenolic compounds (flavonoids and flavonoid glycosides), terpenes (monoterpenes, oxygenated monoterpenes, sesquiterpenes), sesquiterpene lactones, guaianolides, and steroidal compounds (terpenoid derivatives).

Based on the literature, several compounds have been isolated from *Achillea nobilis* and its subspecies, including apigenin 7-glycoside [18], luteolin 7-glucoside [18], apigenin 7-glucuronide [18], the guaianolide estafiatin [19], hanphyllin [19], anobin [19], 3,5-dihydroxy-6,7,8-trimethoxyflavone [19], anolide [21], tanaparthin- β -peroxide [22], 5-hydroxy-3,6,7,4'-tetramethoxyflavone [22], chrysartemin A [22], canin [22,23], and chrysartemin [23]. These compounds were obtained through phytochemical isolation and characterized using standard techniques such as nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy and mass spectrometry (MS). In comparison, the remaining compounds discussed in this review, which include phenolic compounds, terpenes and their derivatives, and other biologically active constituents, were identified based on analytical profiling or reported in the literature without direct isolation from *A. nobilis*.

Flavonoids are one of the primary categories of phytochemicals found in Achillea nobilis L. and its subspecies. Initial research by Solomko et al. [18] employing chromatographic and spectroscopic methods uncovered flavonoid glycosides such as apigenin-7-glucoside, luteolin-7-glucoside, and apigenin-7-glucuronide, from the non-flowering shoots of *A. nobilis* Follow-up studies by Adekenov et al. [19] and Krenn et al. [24] built upon these discoveries by recognizing flavonoid subclasses like 3,5-dihydroxy-6,7,8-trimethoxyflavone and quercetin-3-o-methyl ether from flower heads and aerial parts, respectively. In a more recent study, Taşkın et al. [33] revealed the existence of phenolic compounds like dicaffeoylquinic acid and several glycosylated derivatives of apigenin and luteolin in *A. nobilis* subsp. *neilreichii*, affirming the continued importance of flavonoids and phenolics in the phytochemistry of this group.

Various studies of *A. nobilis* and its subspecies have consistently reported monoterpenes, oxygenated monoterpenes, and sesquiterpene lactones. Palić et al. [25] discovered oxygenated monoterpenes, including α -thujone (25.7%) and borneol (9.9%), while Karamanendres et al. [26] and Ghani et al. [27] reported elevated concentrations of α thujone, 1,8-cineole, and fragranol via GC–MS examinations of essential oils. Demirci's research [28] further highlighted the prevalence of fragranol (24%) and β -eudesmol (8%) in the aerial parts. Additional research (e.g., Azizi et al. [30], Rustaiyan et al. [31], Kazemizadeh et al. [32]) verified the extensive occurrence of monoterpenes like cineole, camphor, and spathulenol. The headspace examination conducted by Ozdemir [34] similarly identified camphor and α -thujone as key volatile compounds. These terpenes are linked to various pharmacological effects, such as antimicrobial and anti-inflammatory properties.

| Year | Species | Plant of Part | Methods of Extraction | Extract | Techniques/Methods | Identified Chemical Classes | Major Compounds | Ref. |
|------|--|-------------------------|---|-------------------------|--|--|---|------|
| 1978 | A. nobilis | Non-Flowering Shoots | hydrodistillation | water | Chromatographic analysis, UV and IR spectra | flavonoids | apigenin-7-glycoside (cosmosiin), luteolin-7-glucoside (cynaroside) | [18] |
| 1984 | A. nobilis | Flower Heads | column chromatography | chloroform | IR, PMR, MS | terpenes, flavonoids | anobin, estafiatin, hanphyllin, 3,5- dihydroxy-6,7,8-trimethoxyflavone | [19] |
| 1987 | A. nobilis subsp. nobilis, A. nobilis subsp. nedrelchll | Leaves | N/S | N/S | TLC, UV, NMR | flavonoid glycosides | vitexin, orientin, isoorientin, di-C-glycosylapigenins, isovitexin, swertiajaponin, di-C-glycosylluteolins, C-glycosylflavone | [20] |
| 1994 | A. nobilis | Aerial Part | hydrodistillation | water | IR, UV, PMR, NMR, X-ray | sesquiterpene lactones | anolide | [21] |
| 1995 | A. nobilis | Flower Heads | column chromatography | N/S | MS, ¹ H-NMR, ¹³ C-NMR, 2D-NMR | guaianolides, monoterpenes | tanaparthin-β-peroxide, 5-hydroxy- 3,6,7,4'-tetramethoxyflavone | [22] |
| 1999 | A. nobilis | Aerial Part | aqueous extraction, silica gel chromatography | hexane-ethyl acetate | IR, PMR | sesquiterpene lactones | chrysartemin a, canin | [23] |
| 2003 | A. nobilis | Aerial Part | methanol extraction | methanol | UV, ¹ H-NMR, ¹³ C-NMR, ESI–MS | flavonoids | luteolin-6-c-apiofuranosyl- (1'''> 2'')-glucoside, orientin, quercetin-3-o-methyl ether | [24] |
| 2003 | A. nobilis | Flower Heads | hydrodistillation | water | GC-MS | monoterpenes, oxygenated | α-thujone (25.7%), artemisia ketone (14.8%), borneol (9.9%) and camphor (8.2%) | [25] |
| 2007 | A. nobilis subsp. sipylea, A. nobilis subsp. neilreichii | Flower Heads | hydrodistillation | water | GC-MS | monoterpenes, oxygenated monoterpenes, sesquiterpenes | fragranol, dihydro-eudesmol, linalool, chrysanthenone | [26] |

Table 3. Phytochemical composition studies of *A. nobilis* and its subspecies.

| | | Table 3. Cont. | | | | | | |
|------|--|-----------------|---|---------------------------|------------------------------|---------------------------------|--|------|
| Year | Species | Plant of Part | Methods of Extraction | Extract | Techniques/Methods | Identified Chemical Classes | Major Compounds | Ref. |
| 2008 | A. nobilis | Aerial Part | hydrodistillation | N/S | GC, GC-MS | monoterpenes, sesquiterpenes | α-thujone (34.06%), 1,8-cineole (14.14%) and β-cedren epoxide (9.63%) | [27] |
| 2009 | A. nobilis subsp. nobilis, A. nobilis subsp. neilreichii | Aerial Part | hydrodistillation (Clevenger- type apparatus) | N/S | GC, GC-MS | monoterpenes, sesquiterpenes | fragranyl acetate (32%), fragranol (24%), and β-eudesmol (8%) | [28] |
| 2010 | A. nobilis | Aerial Part | hexane extraction, column chromatography | hexane | IR, PMR, ¹³ C-NMR | steroidal compounds | acetyleucanbin | [29] |
| 2010 | A. nobilis | Aerial Part | hydrodistillation | dichloromethane | GC-MS | monoterpenes, sesquiterpenes | α-thujone, 1,8-cineole, artemisia ketone | [30] |
| 2011 | A. nobilis | Aerial Part | hydrodistillation | methanol | GC, GC–MS | oxygenated monoterpenes, | artemisia ketone, 1,8-cineole, yomogi alcohol, spathulenol | [31] |
| 2011 | A. nobilis | Leaves, Flowers | hydrodistillation (Clevenger-type apparatus) | N/S | GC, GC-MS | monoterpenes, sesquiterpenes | 1,8-cineole, geranyl isovalerate, trans-verbenol | [32] |
| 2018 | A. nobilis subsp. neilreichii (Kerner) | Aerial Part | ethanol and ethyl acetate extraction | ethanol, ethyl acetate | HPLC-DAD, LC-MS/MS | phenolic compounds | dicaffeoylquinic acid, luteolin-7-o-glucoside, apigenin-6,8-di-c-glucoside | [33] |
| 2019 | A. nobilis subsp. neilreichii | Aerial Part | solid-phase micro-extraction | N/S | HS-SPME/GC-MS | monoterpenes, sesquiterpenes | camphor, germacrene d, 1,8-cineole, α-thujene | [34] |

Here, UV: Ultraviolet Spectroscopy; IR: Infrared Spectroscopy; PMR: Proton Magnetic Resonance (another term for ¹H-NMR); MS: Mass Spectrometry; TLC: Thin-Layer Chromatography; NMR: Nuclear Magnetic Resonance; ¹H-NMR: Proton Nuclear Magnetic Resonance; ¹C-NMR: Carbon-13 Nuclear Magnetic Resonance; 2D-NMR: Two-Dimensional Nuclear Magnetic Resonance; ESI-MS: Electrospray Ionization Mass Spectrometry; GC–MS: Gas Chromatography–Mass Spectrometry; GC: Gas Chromatography; HPLC-DAD: High-Performance Liquid Chromatography with Diode-Array Detection; LC–MS/MS: Liquid Chromatography–Tandem Mass Spectrometry; HS-SPME/GC-MS: Headspace Solid-Phase Microextraction Gas Chromatography; HS-SPME: Headspace Solid-Phase Microextraction; N/S: not specified.

The chemical makeup of *A. nobilis* differs not just by plant section but also by subspecies. For example, *A. nobilis* subsp. *neilreichii* exhibited a diverse range of monoterpenes and sesquiterpenes (e.g., Demirci [28], Ozdemir [34]), while *A. nobilis* subsp. *nobilis* and *A. nobilis* subsp. *neilreichii* were studied mainly for flavonoids and flavonoid glycosides (Valant-Vetschera [20]). These results indicate the presence of chemotypic variations among subspecies, probably shaped by genetic and environmental influences. These differences hold significant consequences for choosing suitable subspecies for medicinal or industrial uses.

A diverse array of extraction methods and solvents has been used to obtain secondary metabolites from *A. nobilis*. Previous research utilized comprehensive aqueous extraction (Solomko et al. [18]) and chloroform-based techniques (Adekenov et al. [19]), while subsequent studies embraced more focused methods, such as hydro-distillation (e.g., Ghani et al. [27], Kazemizadeh et al. [32]), headspace solid-phase micro-extraction (Ozdemir [34]), and ethanol-ethyl acetate solvent combinations (Taşkın et al. [33]). Analytical methods evolved over the decades, transitioning from UV and IR spectroscopy to more sophisticated techniques such as GC–MS, LC–MS/MS, and NMR spectroscopy. This methodological advancement indicates a wider movement towards high-resolution, multi-faceted characterization of plant metabolites.

Newer research from 2010 and later shows a distinct emphasis on thorough chemical profiling through contemporary methods. For example, Azizi et al. [30] and Rustaiyan et al. [31] conducted GC–MS analyses on the aerial components, pinpointing significant monoterpenes and sesquiterpenes. Kazemizadeh et al. [32] enhanced this method by examining both leaves and flowers, whereas Taşkın et al. [33] utilized LC–MS/MS to detect phenolic components. Ozdemir's latest study [34] utilized HS–SPME/GC–MS for identifying volatile compounds in *A. nobilis* subsp. *neilreichii*. These investigations highlight a transition towards accurate, quantitative analysis of intricate phytochemical mixtures, with increasing attention on essential oils and phenolics.

Grasping the chemical makeup of *A. nobilis* and its subspecies has important consequences for the pharmaceutical sciences. Flavonoids such as apigenin and luteolin, found in various studies, display strong antioxidant, anti-inflammatory, and anticancer effects [54]. Likewise, monoterpenes like α -thujone and 1,8-cineole exhibit antimicrobial and neuroprotective properties, positioning them as potential candidates for therapeutic advancement [56]. Additionally, phenolic acids and their derivatives might play a role in cardiovascular protection and metabolic regulation [57]. Therefore, thorough phytochemical analysis bolsters the creation of evidence-backed herbal treatments and increases the significance of traditional medicinal flora in contemporary healthcare.

Although significant advancements have been made, there are still numerous gaps in the chemical profiling of *A. nobilis* and its subspecies. Interestingly, the plant's roots remain unexplored, and the majority of research has combined aerial components (leaves, stems, and flowers) without conducting separate assessments. This restricts our comprehension of the biosynthetic abilities specific to organs. Studies indicate that various plant components can generate unique metabolite profiles as a result of different metabolic pathways and ecological roles [58]. Thus, upcoming research should focus on the separate examination of specific organs, such as stems, roots, and flowers, to completely clarify the phytochemical variation of the species.

To thoroughly investigate the chemical profile of *A. nobilis* and its subspecies, future studies should employ a multi-omics strategy that combines metabolomics, transcriptomics, and chemotaxonomy. Sophisticated methods like UHPLC–HRMS, MALDI–TOF imaging, and molecular networking may reveal new bioactive compounds. Moreover, investigations of seasonal and geographical variations should be carried out to assess the stability of

chemotypes in different environments. Partnerships with pharmacologists and bioinformaticians will be crucial for connecting phytochemicals to particular bioactivities. These integrative studies will enhance the phytochemical profile of *A. nobilis* and promote its thoughtful use in pharmaceuticals and nutraceuticals.

5.1. Phenolic Compounds

Phenolic compounds, including phenolic acids and flavonoids, are widely recognized for their antioxidant and anti-inflammatory characteristics, which may confer protective effects against malignancies, metabolic disorders such as diabetes, and neurodegenerative conditions [59–61]. Moreover, flavonoids, classified as a subclass of phenolic compounds, exhibit an extensive array of pharmacological properties, encompassing antioxidant, anti-inflammatory, anticancer, and cardioprotective effects [62]. Flavonol glycosides possess analogous attributes and are particularly investigated for their antioxidant and anti-inflammatory capabilities [63]. Furthermore, they also demonstrate anti-inflammatory, anticancer, and cardiovascular protective properties [64]. These compounds, which are plentiful in the natural environment, present a promising pathway for the innovation of novel therapeutic agents (Table 4, Compounds 1–23) [65–88].

Flavonoid glucuronides such as apigenin-7-O-glucuronide (Compound **11**) and luteolin-7-O-glucuronide (Compound **12**) derived from *A. nobilis* demonstrate strong antiinflammatory and neuroprotective properties. Compound **11** suppresses the production of nitric oxide and tumor necrosis factor-alpha in LPS-activated macrophages, suggesting significant immunomodulatory capabilities [65]. Compound **12** modulates microglial polarization and enhances endogenous antioxidant pathways, offering antidepressant, neuroprotective, and anti-inflammatory benefits [66]. It also displays antibacterial and anticancer effects by inhibiting reactive oxygen species and biofilm formation while modulating critical pathways such as MET/AKT/mTOR [67].

Methoxylated flavones, including 3,5-dihydroxy-6,7,8-trimethoxyflavone (Compound **13**) and 5-hydroxy-3,6,7,4'-tetramethoxyflavone (Compound **18**) from *A. nobilis* have shown enhanced anticancer effects, particularly when combined with 5-fluorouracil, resulting in reduced off-target toxicity in colon and pancreatic cancer treatments [71]. C-glycosylflavones such as vitexin (Compound **3**, Figure 4), isovitexin (Compound **14**), swertisin (Compound **15**), orientin (Compound **1**, Figure 4), and isoorientin (Compound **2**, Figure 4), isolated from *A. nobilis* subsp. *neilreichii*, exhibit a wide range of pharmacological effects. These include antioxidant, anti-inflammatory, neuroprotective, cardioprotective, antidiabetic, anticancer, hepatoprotective, and anxiolytic activities [72–75]. Swertiajaponin (Compound **16**), a C-methylated glycoside, has been implicated in the alleviation of metabolic syndromes such as hyperglycemia, hyperlipidemia, and insulin resistance [76], highlighting its therapeutic potential for metabolic disorders.

Flavonoids like quercetin-3-O-rhamnoside-7-O-glucoside (Compound 17) and quercetin-3-O-methylether-7-O-β-glucopyranoside (Compound 9, Figure 4) demonstrate strong antioxidant activities. Quercetin-3-O-rhamnoside-7-O-glucoside (Compound 17) inhibits polyphenol oxidase, preventing enzymatic browning, and enhances food antioxidant properties [77]. Quercetin-3-O-methylether-7-O-β-glucopyranoside (Compound 9, Figure 4) shows protective effects against oxidative stress and in breast cancer models by inducing apoptosis and modulating PI3K/Akt and MAPK/Erk signaling pathways [82–84]. Luteolin (Compound 19) and isorhamnetin-3-O-glucoside (Compound 20) obtained from *A. nobilis* subsp. *neilreichii* also exhibit potent antioxidant, anti-inflammatory, and antiproliferative activities in endothelial and cancer cells, primarily through the STAT3 pathway and suppression of epithelial-mesenchymal transition (EMT) [85,86]. These compounds collectively enhance the plant's medicinal potential through their multi-target bioactivities.

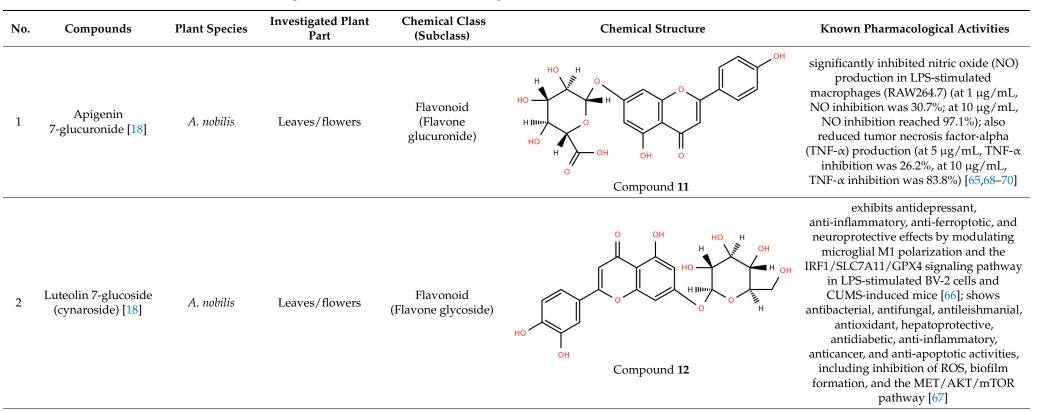
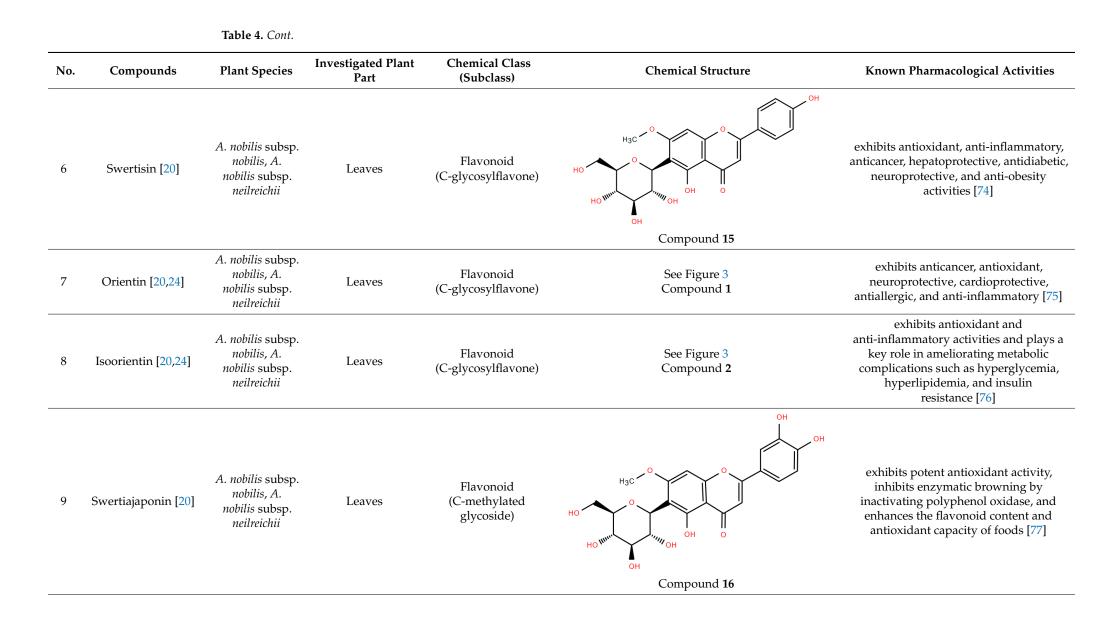


Table 4. Phenolic compounds found in A. nobilis and its subspecies.

Table 4. Cont. **Investigated Plant** Chemical Class **Plant Species Known Pharmacological Activities** No. Compounds **Chemical Structure** Part (Subclass) н н н н synergizes with 5-fluorouracil, allowing 3,5-Dihydroxy-6,7,8for dose reduction and reduced off-target Trimethoxyflavone Leaves/flowers 3 A. nobilis Flavonol toxicity in the treatment of colonic and н [19] pancreatic cancers [71] н || 0 Compound 13 exhibits antioxidant, anti-inflammatory, A. nobilis subsp. neuroprotective, cardioprotective, nobilis, A. Flavonoid See Figure 3 anticancer, anxiolytic, antidiabetic, Vitexin [20,24] Leaves 4 nobilis subsp. (C-glycosylflavone Compound 3 hepatoprotective, antimicrobial, neilreichii antithyroid, analgesic, and anti-osteoporotic activities [72] OH exhibits antioxidant, anti-inflammatory, A. nobilis subsp. neuroprotective, anticancer, antidiabetic, nobilis, A. Flavonoid 5 Isovitexin [20] cardioprotective, hepatoprotective, Leaves HO nobilis subsp. (C-glycosylflavone) antimicrobial, and anti-anxiety neilreichii OH 0 activities [73] ''''/ <mark>OH</mark> HO ОН Compound 14



Compounds

Ouercetin

3-O-rhamnoside-7-

O-glucoside [20]

No.

10

Table 4. Cont.

Plant Species

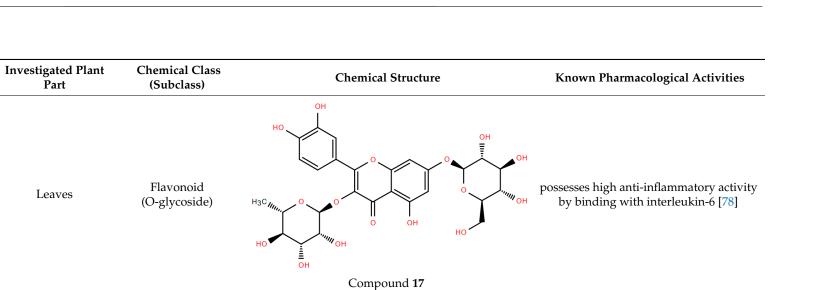
A. nobilis subsp.

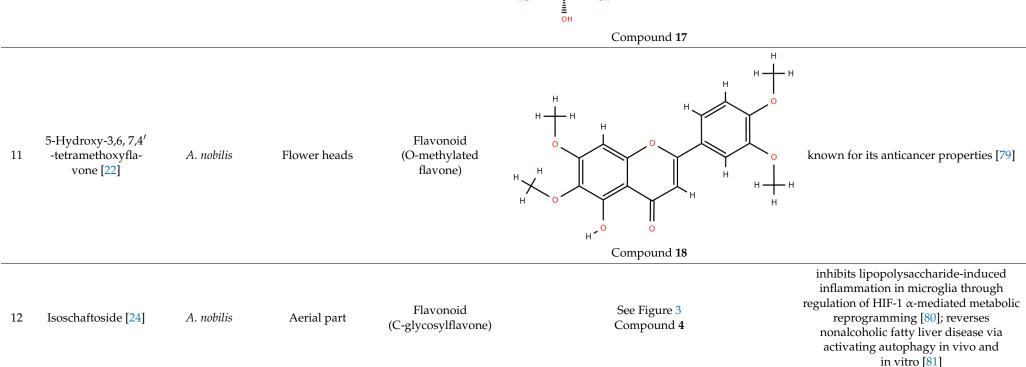
nobilis, A.

nobilis subsp.

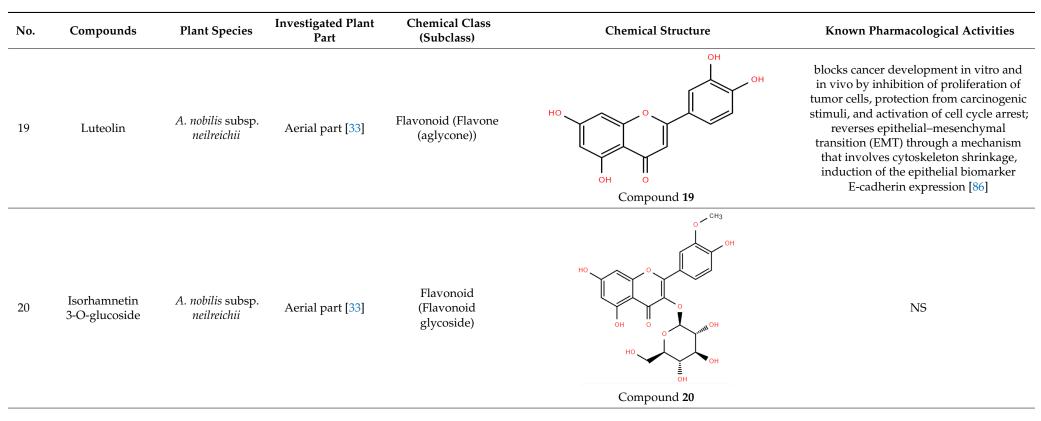
neilreichii

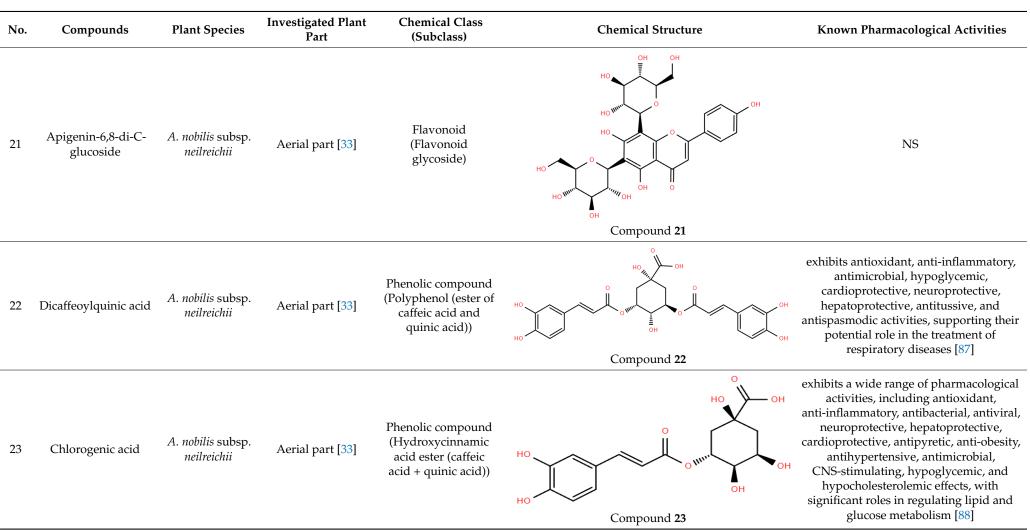
Part





| | | Table 4. Cont. | | | | |
|-----|---|----------------|----------------------------|--|------------------------------------|---|
| No. | Compounds | Plant Species | Investigated Plant Part | Chemical Class (Subclass) | Chemical Structure | Known Pharmacological Activities |
| 13 | Luteolin-7- <i>Ο-β-</i> glucuronide [24] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Flavonoid (O-glucuronide) | See Figure 3 Compound 5 | NS |
| 14 | Luteolin-4- <i>O-β-</i> glucopyranoside [24] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Flavonoid (O-glucoside) | See Figure 3 Compound 6 | NS |
| 15 | Luteolin-6-C- apiofuranosyl- (1 ^{'''} →2 ^{''})- glucopyranoside [24] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Flavonoid (C,O-diglycoside) | See Figure 3 Compound 7 | NS |
| 16 | Quercetin-3-O- methyl ether [24] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Flavonoid (O-methylated flavone) | See Figure 3 Compound 8 | protects FL83B cells from copper induced oxidative stress through the PI3K/Akt and MAPK/Erk pathway [82]; inhibits lapatinib-sensitive and -resistant breast cancer cell growth by inducing G (2)/M arrest and apoptosis [83]; protects FL83B cells from copper-induced oxidative stress through the PI3K/Akt and MAPK/Erk pathway [84] |
| 17 | Quercetin-3-O- methylether-7-O-β- glucopyranoside [24] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Flavonoid (O-methylated glucoside) | See Figure 3 Compound 9 | NS |
| 18 | Quercetin-3- O -[α - arabinopyranosyl- $(1''' \rightarrow 6'')$ - β - glucopyranoside] [24] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Flavonoid (Diglycoside) | See Figure 3 Compound 10 | NS |





Here, "NS" means not studied.

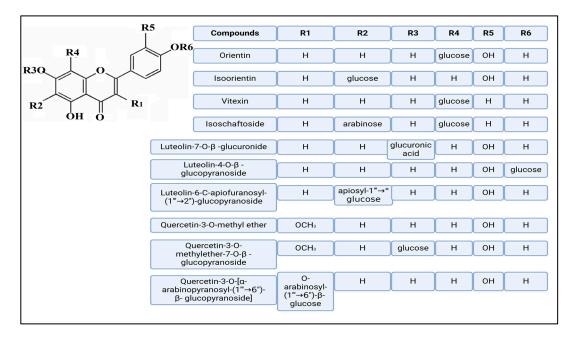


Figure 4. Chemical structures of selected flavone and flavonol glycoside derivatives identified in *Achillea nobilis* L. and its subspecies [24]. Compound **1**: orientin; Compound **2**: isoorientin; Compound **3**: vitexin; Compound **4**: isoschaftoside; Compound **5**: luteolin-7-O-β-glucuronide; Compound **6**: luteolin-4-O-β-glucopyranoside; Compound **7**: luteolin-6-C-apiofuranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 2)-glucopyranoside; Compound **8**: quercetin-3-O-methyl ether; Compound **9**: quercetin-3-O-methylether-7-O-β-glucopyranoside; Compound **10**: quercetin-3-O-[α-arabinopyranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 6)-β-glucopyranoside].

Among phenolic acids, dicaffeoylquinic acid (Compound 22) and chlorogenic acid (Compound 23) exhibit significant bioactivities. Compound 22 demonstrates antioxidant, anti-inflammatory, antimicrobial, cardioprotective, hepatoprotective, and antispasmodic properties, proving beneficial in the treatment of respiratory and metabolic disorders [87]. Compound 23, an ester of hydroxycinnamic acid, has a wide range of pharmacological effects, including antibacterial, antiviral, anti-obesity, antihypertensive, antipyretic, and CNS-stimulating activities [88]. It also regulates lipid and glucose metabolism, making it useful in managing cardiovascular disease, diabetes, and obesity.

Several compounds such as luteolin-4-O- β -glucopyranoside (Compound **6**, Figure 4), luteolin-6-C-apiofuranosyl-(1" \rightarrow 2")-glucopyranoside (Compound **7**, Figure 4), apigenin-6,8-di-C-glucoside (Compound **21**), and quercetin-3-O-[α -arabinopyranosyl-(1" \rightarrow 6")- β -glucopyranoside] (Compound **10**, Figure 4) currently lack comprehensive pharmacological data (Figure 4). However, due to their structural similarity to well-characterized flavonoids such as luteolin and quercetin, they are hypothesized to possess antioxidant, anti-inflammatory, and neuroprotective activities. Studies have shown that C- and O-glycosylation enhance flavone stability and bioactivity, improving their modulatory effects on oxidative stress and inflammatory pathways [65,66,85]. Moreover, glycosidic modifications may enhance solubility and absorption, suggesting favorable pharmacokinetic profiles for future therapeutic applications [89–103].

5.2. Terpenes and Derivatives

A literature review revealed that *A. nobilis* and its subspecies, such as *A. nobilis* subsp. *sipylea* and *A. nobilis* subsp. *neilreichii*, contain a total of 157 terpene and terpene-derived compounds (Table 5). These substances are divided into various chemical categories: terpenes, terpenoids, sesquiterpenes, and derivatives of sesquiterpenoids. The chemical components were mainly extracted from different plant sections, including flower heads,

aerial portions, and leaves, showcasing the plant's abundant phytochemical diversity and the structural variety of its secondary metabolites. This wide range of terpenoid composition emphasizes the potential of *A. nobilis* and its subspecies as important sources of bioactive natural compounds.

Table 5. Terpenes and derivatives found in *A. nobilis* and its subspecies.

| No. | Compounds | Plant Species | Investigated Plant Part | Chemical Class | Known Pharmacological Activities |
|-----|---|---|--|--|---|
| 1 | Anobin [19] | A. nobilis | Leaves/flowers | Sesquiterpene lactone | NS |
| 2 | Estafiatin [19] | A. nobilis | Leaves/flowers | Sesquiterpene lactone | exerts anti-inflammatory effects on macrophages and protects mice from sepsis induced by LPS and cecal ligation puncture [104] |
| 3 | Anolide [21] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Sesquiterpene lactone, anolide type | NS |
| 4 | 4-Hydroperoxy- 2R,3R- isopropyliden-hex- 5-en-1-ol acetat [22] | A. nobilis | Flower heads | Acyclic monoterpenoid | NS |
| 5 | 4-Hydroperoxy- 2 <i>S,</i> 3 <i>R</i> -isopropyli- den-hex-5-en-1-ol acetat [22] | A. nobilis | Flower heads | Acyclic monoterpenoid | NS |
| 6 | Tanaparthin- β -peroxide [22] | A. nobilis | Flower heads | Sesquiterpene lactone peroxide | NS |
| 7 | Clarysartemin [23] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Sesquiterpene lactone | NS |
| 8 | Canin [23] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Sesquiterpene lactone | NS |
| 9 | Sabinene [25,26,30] | A. nobilis [25,27,30], A. nobilis subsp. sipylea, A. nobilis subsp. neilreichii [26] | Aerial part [25,27], flower heads [26], leaves [30] | Bicyclic terpene | prevents skeletal muscle atrophy by Inhibiting the MAPK-MuRF-1 pathway in rats [105] |
| 10 | Yomogi alcohol [25,30,32] | A. nobilis [25,30,32] | Aerial part [25,32], leaves [30] | Monoterpene alcohol | NS |
| 11 | α-Terpinene [25–27,30,32] | A. nobilis [25,27,30,32], A. nobilis subsp. sipylea, A. nobilis subsp. neilreichii [26] | Aerial part [25,27,32], flower heads [26], leaves [30] | Monoterpene, cyclic diene | NS |
| 12 | <i>p</i> -Cymene [25–27,30,32] | A. nobilis [25,27,30,32], A. nobilis subsp. sipylea, A. nobilis subsp. neilreichii [26] | Aerial part [25,27,30,32], flower heads [26] | Monoterpene aromatic hydrocarbon | carvacrol and ρ-cymene established a strong synergistic antimicrobial effect against planktonic cultures of Gardnerella spp. [106] |
| 13 | 1,8-Cineole [25–28,30,32] | A. nobilis [25,27,28,32], A. nobilis subsp. sipylea, A. nobilis subsp. neilreichii [26] | Aerial part [25,27,28,32], flower heads [26], leaves [30] | Cyclic terpene ether, oxide | shows anti-inflammatory and antioxidant mainly via the regulation on NF-κB and Nrf2 [107] |

| No. | Compounds | Plant Species | Investigated Plant Part | Chemical Class | Known Pharmacological Activities |
|-----|-----------------------------------|---|--|--|--|
| 14 | Artemisia ketone [25,32] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Monoterpene ketone | NS |
| 15 | Artemisia alcohol [25,30–32] | A. nobilis | Aerial part [25,31,32], leaves [30] | Monoterpene alcohol | NS |
| 16 | α-Thujone [25–27,30,32] | A. nobilis [25,27,30,32], A. nobilis subsp. sipylea, A. nobilis subsp. neilreichii [26] | Aerial part [25,27,32], flower heads [26], leaves [30] | Monoterpene ketone, bicyclic | NS |
| 17 | β-Thujone [25,27,30] | A. nobilis [25,27] | Aerial part [25,27], Leaves [30] | Monoterpene ketone, bicyclic | NS |
| 18 | Camphor [25–27,30,32] | A. nobilis [25,27,30,32], A. nobilis subsp. sipylea, A. nobilis subsp. neilreichii [26] | Aerial part [25,27,32], flower heads [26], leaves [30] | Monoterpene ketone, bicyclic | potential anti-orthopoxvirus agent [108] |
| 19 | Pinocarvone [25,26,32,34] | A. nobilis [25,32,34], A. nobilis subsp. sipylea, A. nobilis subsp. neilreichii [26] | Aerial part [25,32,34], flower heads [26] | Monoterpene ketone | NS |
| 20 | Borneol [25,26] | A. nobilis [25], A. nobilis subsp. sipylea, A. nobilis subsp. neilreichii [26] | Aerial part [25], flower heads [26] | Monoterpene alcohol, bicyclic | potential anti-orthopoxvirus agent [108] |
| 21 | Terpinen-4-ol [25,26,28,30,31] | A. nobilis [25,28,30,31], A. nobilis subsp. sipylea, A. nobilis subsp. neilreichii [26] | Aerial part [25,28,31], flower heads [26], leaves [30] | Monoterpene alcohol | antibacterial and antibiofilm agent against <i>Staphylococcus aureus</i> [109] |
| 22 | α-Terpineol [25–27,30–32] | A. nobilis [25,27,30–32], A. nobilis subsp. sipylea, A. nobilis subsp. neilreichii [26] | Aerial part [25,27,31,32], flower heads [26], leaves [30] | Monoterpene alcohol | suppresses glioblastoma aggressive behavior and downregulates KDELC2 expression (anti- tumor) [110] |
| 23 | Myrtenal [25,34] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Monoterpene aldehyde | shows antimicrobial, antifungal, antiviral, anticancer, anxiolytic, and neuroprotective properties [111] |
| 24 | Myrtenol [25,34] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Monoterpene alcohol | shows anti-inflammatory, anticancer, antimicrobial effects [112] |
| 25 | trans-Carveol [25,31] | A. nobilis | Aerial part [25,31] | Monoterpene alcohol | NS |
| 26 | cis-Carveol [25] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Monoterpene alcohol | NS |
| 27 | Cuminaldehyde [25] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Terpene (Phenylpropanoid aldehyde) | ameliorates hyperglycemia [113] |

| No. | Compounds | Plant Species | Investigated Plant Part | Chemical Class | Known Pharmacological Activities |
|-----|-------------------------------------|---|--|--|---|
| 28 | Carvone [25] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Monoterpene ketone | shows antimicrobial, antispasmodic, anti-inflammatory, antioxidant, antinociceptive, anticonvulsant [114] |
| 29 | Bornyl acetate [25,26,32] | A. nobilis [25,32], A. nobilis subsp. sipylea, A. nobilis subsp. neilreichii [26] | Aerial part [25,32], flower heads [26] | Monoterpene ester | a promising agent for immune modulation and inflammation [115] |
| 30 | Carvacrol [25] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Monoterpene phenol | carvacrol and ρ-cymene established a strong synergistic antimicrobial effect against planktonic cultures of Gardnerella spp. [116] |
| 31 | Thymol [25] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Monoterpene phenol | exhibits antimicrobial, antioxidant, anticarcinogenesis, anti-inflammatory, and antispasmodic activities [116] |
| 32 | Eugenol [25,26,28,32] | A. nobilis [25,28,32], A. nobilis subsp. sipylea, A. nobilis subsp. neilreichii [26] | Aerial part [2,25,32], flower heads [26] | Terpene (Phenylpropanoid (allylbenzene)) | shows antibacterial; antifungal; antioxidant [117] |
| 33 | <i>trans</i> -Myrtenol acetate [25] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Monoterpene ester | NS |
| 34 | β-caryophyllene [25,30–32] | A. nobilis | Aerial part [25,31,32], leaves [30] | Sesquiterpene hydrocarbon | exhibits anticancer and analgesic properties [118] |
| 35 | Linalool butyrate [25] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Monoterpene ester | NS |
| 36 | (E)-β- farnesene [25] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Sesquiterpene hydrocarbon, acyclic | NS |
| 37 | β -selinene [25,31] | A. nobilis | Aerial part [25,31] | Sesquiterpene hydrocarbon, bicyclic | NS |
| 38 | β -himachalene [25] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Sesquiterpene hydrocarbon, tricyclic | NS |
| 39 | δ-Cadinene [25,28,31,32] | A. nobilis | Aerial part [25,28,31,32] | Sesquiterpene hydrocarbon | inhibits the growth of ovarian cancer cells [119] |
| 40 | Ledol [25,32,34] | A. nobilis | Aerial part [25,32] | Sesquiterpene alcohol, tricyclic | NS |
| 41 | Spathulenol [25,28,30,32,34] | A. nobilis | Aerial part [25,28,32,34], leaves [30] | Sesquiterpene alcohol | NS |
| 42 | Viridiflorol [25,26] | A. nobilis [25], A. nobilis subsp. sipylea, A. nobilis subsp. neilreichii [26] | Aerial part [25], flower heads [26] | Sesquiterpene alcohol, tricyclic | inhibits the growth of ovarian cancer cells [120] |
| 43 | α-eudesmol [25] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Sesquiterpene alcohol, tricyclic | NS |

| | | Table 5. Cont. | | | |
|-----|------------------------------------|---|---|--|--|
| No. | Compounds | Plant Species | Investigated Plant Part | Chemical Class | Known Pharmacological Activities |
| 44 | α-Cadinol [25,27] | A. nobilis | Aerial part [25,27] | Sesquiterpene alcohol, tricyclic | NS |
| 45 | Patchouli alcohol [25] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Sesquiterpene alcohol | demonstrates diverse pharmacological activities, including antiviral, antidepressant, antinociceptive, vasorelaxant, lung- and neuroprotective, anti-ulcer, anti-colitis, prebiotic-like, anti-inflammatory, anticancer, and metabolic disease-protective effects [121] |
| 46 | β-bisabolol [25,26,28] | A. nobilis [25,28], A. nobilis subsp. sipylea, A. nobilis subsp. neilreichii [26] | Aerial part [25,28], flower heads [26] | Sesquiterpene alcohol, acyclic | NS |
| 47 | <i>trans-α-</i> Bergamotol [25] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Sesquiterpene alcohol, monocyclic | NS |
| 48 | α-Thujene [26,30,32] | A. nobilis subsp. sipylea, A. nobilis subsp. neilreichii [26], A. nobilis [30,32] | Flower heads [26], leaves [30], aerial part [32] | Monocyclic monoterpene hydrocarbon | NS |
| 49 | α-Pinene [26,30,32] | A. nobilis subsp. sipylea, A. nobilis subsp. neilreichii [26], A. nobilis [30,32] | Flower heads [26], leaves [30], aerial part [32] | Bicyclic monoterpene hydrocarbon | antitumor agent for the treatment of T-cell tumors [122,123] |
| 50 | Camphene [26,27,30,32] | A. nobilis subsp. sipylea, A. nobilis subsp. neilreichii [26], A. nobilis [27,30,32] | Flower heads [26], aerial part [27,32], leaves [30] | Bicyclic monoterpene hydrocarbon | NS |
| 51 | β-Pinene [26–28,30,32] | A. nobilis subsp. sipylea, A. nobilis subsp. neilreichii [26], A. nobilis [27,28,30,32] | Flower heads [26], aerial part [27,28,32], leaves [30] | Bicyclic monoterpene hydrocarbon | exhibits antibiotic resistance, anticoagulant, antitumor, antimicrobial, antimalarial, antioxidant, anti-inflammatory, anti-Leishmania, and analgesic properties [123] |
| 52 | Myrcene [26] | A. nobilis subsp. sipylea, A. nobilis subsp. neilreichii | Flower heads | Acyclic monoterpene hydrocarbon | exhibits anxiolytic, antioxidant, anti-ageing, anti-inflammatory, analgesic properties [124] |
| 53 | α-Campholenal [31] | A. nobilis | Aerial part [31] | Monoterpene aldehyde (bicyclic) | NS |
| 54 | Limonene [26] | A. nobilis subsp. sipylea, A. nobilis subsp. neilreichii | Flower heads | Monocyclic monoterpene hydrocarbon | antioxidant, antidiabetic, anticancer, anti-inflammatory, cardioprotective, gastroprotective, hepatoprotective, immune modulatory, anti-fibrotic, anti-genotoxic [125] |

| No. | Compounds | Plant Species | Investigated Plant Part | Chemical Class | Known Pharmacological Activities |
|-----|--|---|---|---|--|
| 55 | γ-Terpinene [26,27,30,32,34] | A. nobilis subsp. sipylea, A. nobilis subsp. neilreichii [26,34], A. nobilis [27,30,32] | Flower heads [26], aerial part [27,32,34], leaves [30] | Monocyclic monoterpene hydrocarbon | NS |
| 56 | Tricyclene | A. nobilis subsp. neilreichii | Aerial part [34] | Tricyclic monoterpene hydrocarbon | NS |
| 57 | δ-3-Carene | A. nobilis subsp. neilreichii | Aerial part [34] | Bicyclic monoterpene hydrocarbon | NS |
| 58 | Terpinolene [26,30,32,34] | A. nobilis subsp. sipylea, A. nobilis subsp. neilreichii [26,34], A. nobilis [30,32] | Flower heads [26], leaves [30], aerial part [32] | Monocyclic monoterpene hydrocarbon | NS |
| 59 | <i>trans-</i> Sabinene hydrate [30,32] | A. nobilis | Leaves [30], Aerial part [32] | Monocyclic monoterpene hydrocarbon | NS |
| 60 | <i>cis-</i> Sabinene hydrate [26,30,32] | A. nobilis subsp. sipylea, A. nobilis subsp. neilreichii [26], A. nobilis [30,32] | Flower heads [26], leaves [30], aerial part [32] | Monocyclic monoterpene hydrocarbon | NS |
| 61 | Linalool [26,28,32] | A. nobilis subsp. sipylea, A. nobilis subsp. neilreichii [26], A. nobilis [28,32] | Flower heads [26], aerial part [28,32] | Acyclic monoterpene alcohol | exhibits sedative, anxiolytic, antimicrobial, anti-inflammatory, antinociceptive, and anticancer effects [126] |
| 62 | Chrysanthenone [26] | A. nobilis subsp. sipylea, A. nobilis subsp. neilreichii | Flower heads | Bicyclic monoterpene ketone | NS |
| 63 | Camphene hydrate [26] | A. nobilis subsp. sipylea, A. nobilis subsp. neilreichii | Flower heads | Bicyclic monoterpene alcohol | NS |
| 64 | Fragranol [26,28] | A. nobilis subsp. sipylea, A. nobilis subsp. neilreichii [26], A. nobilis [28] | Flower heads [26], aerial part [28] | Monoterpene alcohol (isomer of linalool) | NS |
| 65 | Tetrahydro- linalool acetate [26] | A. nobilis subsp. sipylea, A. nobilis subsp. neilreichii | Flower heads | Saturated monoterpene ester (acetate of a linalool derivative) | NS |
| 66 | Piperitone [26] | A. nobilis subsp. sipylea, A. nobilis subsp. neilreichii | Flower heads | Monoterpene ketone | NS |
| 67 | Sabinyl acetate [26] | A. nobilis subsp. sipylea, A. nobilis subsp. neilreichii | Flower heads | Monoterpene acetate ester | exhibits antioxidant, antimicrobial, and anti-implantation activities [127] |
| 68 | Geranyl acetate [26,31] | A. nobilis subsp. sipylea, A. nobilis subsp. neilreichii [26], A. nobilis [31] | Flower heads [26], aerial part [31] | Acyclic monoterpene ester | antibacterial, anti-inflammatory, and larvicidal activity; inhibits enzymes involved in bacterial cell wall synthesis [128] |

No.

| Compounds | Plant Species | Investigated Plant Part | Chemical Class | Known Pharmacological Activities |
|--|---------------|--|---|---|
| p-Menth-1-en-8-ol [32] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Monocyclic monoterpene alcohol | NS |
| Lavendulol [27] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Monoterpene alcohol (acyclic or monocyclic) | antibacterial, insecticidal, and anti-inflammatory effects [129] |
| Terpinene-4-ol [27,32] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Monocyclic monoterpene alcohol | antibacterial, antibiofilm, anti-inflammatory, anticancer, and antifungal activities |
| Cuminyl aldehyde [27,34] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Aldehyde derivative of aromatic monoterpene | [130] |
| <i>cis</i> -Chrysanthenyl acetate [28] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Monoterpene ester (acetate of chrysanthenol) | antidiabetic, antimicrobial, anti-inflammatory, and anticancer properties [131] |
| Lavandulyl acetate [28,30–32] | A. nobilis | Aerial part [28,32], leaves [30,31] | Acyclic monoterpene ester | NS |
| 4-Terpinenyl acetate [28] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Monocyclic monoterpene ester | NS |
| Fragranyl formate [28] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Ester of fragranyl alcohol | NS |
| Fragranyl acetate [28] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Ester of fragranyl alcohol | NS |
| Fragranyl isobutyrate [28] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Ester of fragranyl alcohol | NS |
| Fragranyl butyrate [28] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Terpenoid derivative | NS |
| Fragranyl 2-methylbutyrate [28] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Terpenoid derivative (Ester of fragranyl alcohol) | NS |
| Fragranyl 3-methylbutyrate [28] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Terpenoid derivative (Ester of fragranyl alcohol) | NS |
| Fragranyl valerate [28] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Terpenoid (Monoterpene ester) | NS |
| Fragranyl hexanoate [28] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Terpenoid (Ester of fragranyl alcohol and hexanoic (caproic) acid) | NS |

| 83 | hexanoate [28] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | hexanoic (caproic) acid) | N5 |
|----|----------------------|------------|----------------------------------|--|---|
| 84 | Artemisiaketone [30] | A. nobilis | Leaves | Monoterpene ketone | antimicrobial and antifungal activities [132] |
| 85 | cis-Sabinol [30] | A. nobilis | Leaves | Monocyclic monoterpene alcohol (oxygenated sabinene) | exhibits antibacterial and antifungal properties [133] |
| 86 | Lavandulol [30,31] | A. nobilis | Leaves [30], aerial part [31] | Acyclic monoterpene alcohol | NS |
| 87 | Bornylacetate [30] | A. nobilis | Leaves | Bicyclic monoterpene ester | anti-inflammatory, analgesic, anticoagulant, and hepatoprotective activities [134,135] |

| No. | Compounds | Plant Species | Investigated Plant Part | Chemical Class | Known Pharmacological Activities |
|-----|--|---------------|--------------------------------|---|---|
| 88 | Lavandulyl propionate [30] | A. nobilis | Leaves | Acyclic monoterpene ester | NS |
| 89 | Lavandulyl isobutanoate [30] | A. nobilis | Leaves | Acyclic monoterpene ester | NS |
| 90 | Lavandulyl- isovalerate [30] | A. nobilis | Leaves | Acyclic monoterpene ester | NS |
| 91 | Longipinocarvone [30] | A. nobilis | Leaves | Oxygenated bicyclic monoterpene | exhibits antimicrobial and cytotoxic properties [136] |
| 92 | Veridiflorol | A. nobilis | Aerial part [32] | Acyclic monoterpene ester | demonstrates antibacterial, antifungal, anti-inflammatory, and cytotoxic effects [137] |
| 93 | Neryl acetate | A. nobilis | Aerial part [31] | Acyclic monoterpene ester | Shows anti-inflammatory, antifungal, and neuroprotective activities [138,139] |
| 94 | Bornyl angelate | A. nobilis | Aerial part [31] | Bicyclic monoterpene ester | NS |
| 95 | Linalool oxide <i>A nobilis</i> Aerial part [32] | | Acyclic monoterpene epoxide | anxiolytic, anticonvulsant, and antinociceptive effects [140] | |
| 96 | α-Cyclocytral | A. nobilis | Aerial part [32] | Monoterpene aldehyde | NS |
| 97 | p-Mentha-2-en-1-ol | A. nobilis | Aerial part [32] | Monocyclic monoterpene alcohol | NS |
| 98 | Isicyclocytral | A. nobilis | Aerial part [32] | Monoterpene aldehyde (isomer of cyclocitral) | NS |
| 99 | <i>trans-</i> 3(10)-Carene- 4-ol | A. nobilis | Aerial part [32] | Bicyclic monoterpene alcohol | NS |
| 100 | cis-Verbenol | A. nobilis | Aerial part [32] | Bicyclic monoterpene alcohol | antibacterial and acaricidal activity [141] |
| 101 | trans-Verbenol | A. nobilis | Aerial part [32] | Bicyclic monoterpene alcohol | antimicrobial and insecticidal activity [142] |
| 102 | Lavandolul | A. nobilis | Aerial part [32] | Acyclic monoterpene alcohol | NS |
| 103 | 4-Terpineol | A. nobilis | Aerial part [32] | Monocyclic monoterpene alcohol | antifungal, antibacterial, and anti-inflammatory properties [143] |
| 104 | 2-Pinene-10-ol | A. nobilis | Aerial part [32] | Bicyclic monoterpene alcohol | NS |
| 105 | E-3(10)Caren-2-ol | A. nobilis | Aerial part [32] | Bicyclic monoterpene alcohol | NS |
| 106 | trans-Crystantenyl acetate | A. nobilis | Aerial part [32] | Monoterpene ester | NS |
| 107 | <i>cis</i> -Crystantenyl acetate | A. nobilis | Aerial part [32] | Monoterpene ester | NS |
| 108 | Geranyl isovalerate | A. nobilis | Aerial part [32] | Acyclic monoterpene ester | NS |

| | | lable 5. Cont. | | | |
|-----|-----------------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|---|---|
| No. | Compounds | Plant Species | Investigated Plant Part | Chemical Class | Known Pharmacological Activities |
| 109 | Lavandulyl acetate | A. nobilis | Aerial part [32] | Acyclic monoterpene ester | antimicrobial and sedative properties [144] |
| 110 | Limonene-6-ol- pivalate | A. nobilis | Aerial part [32] | Monoterpene ester | NS |
| 111 | Geranyl propionate | A. nobilis | Aerial part [32] | Acyclic monoterpene ester | NS |
| 112 | β -Bisabolene [26] | <i>A. nobilis</i> subsp. <i>sipylea, A. nobilis</i> subsp. <i>neilreichii</i> | Flower heads | Acyclic sesquiterpene hydrocarbon) | anti-inflammatory, antimicrobial, and anticancer activities [145] |
| 113 | γ-Cadinene [26] | A. nobilis subsp. sipylea, A. nobilis subsp. neilreichii | Flower heads | Bicyclic sesquiterpene hydrocarbon | antioxidant and anti-inflammatory effects [146] |
| 114 | Bicyclogermacrene [27,34] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Bicyclic sesquiterpene hydrocarbon | antibacterial, anti-inflammatory, and cytotoxic activities [147] |
| 115 | <i>trans-β-</i> Guaiene [27] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Bicyclic sesquiterpene hydrocarbon | NS |
| 116 | α-Copaene [28] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Bicyclic sesquiterpene hydrocarbon | antifungal and cytotoxic effects [148] |
| 117 | <i>cis-α-</i> Bergamotene [28] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Monocyclic sesquiterpene hydrocarbon | anti-inflammatory and insecticidal activities [149] |
| 118 | Sesquisabinene [28] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Tricyclic sesquiterpene hydrocarbon | NS |
| 119 | γ-Curcumene [28] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Aromatic sesquiterpene hydrocarbon | anti-inflammatory and anticancer properties [150] |
| 120 | ar-Curcumen [28] | r-Curcumen [28] A. nobilis | | Aromatic sesquiterpene hydrocarbon | NS |
| 121 | Santolina triene [30,32] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Tricyclic sesquiterpene hydrocarbon with three double bonds | NS |
| 122 | Germacrene D [30,32,34] | A. nobilis | Leaves [30], aerial part [32,34] | Bicyclic hydrocarbon | antimicrobial, anti-inflammatory, and cytotoxic properties [151] |
| 123 | α-Selinene | A. nobilis | Aerial part [31,34] | Eudesmane-type sesquiterpene hydrocarbon | NS |
| 124 | (E,E) - α -Farnesene | A. nobilis | Aerial part [31] | Acyclic sesquiterpene hydrocarbon | antifungal, and anti-inflammatory effects [152] |
| 125 | Geranyl isobutyrate [31,32] | A. nobilis | Aerial part [31,32] | Acyclic monoterpene ester | NS |
| 126 | α-Calacorene | A. nobilis | Aerial part [31] | Tricyclic sesquiterpene hydrocarbon | antimicrobial and antioxidant properties [153] |
| 127 | β-Chamigrene | A. nobilis | Aerial part [32] | Tricyclic sesquiterpene hydrocarbon | antimicrobial and cytotoxic activities [153] |
| 128 | Cedrene | A. nobilis subsp. neilreichii | Aerial part [34] | Bicyclic sesquiterpene hydrocarbon | NS |
| | | | | | |

| No. | Compounds | Plant Species | Investigated Plant Part | Chemical Class | Known Pharmacological Activities |
|-----|---|--|----------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|
| 129 | β-Eudesmol [26,28,31] | | | Oxygenated sesquiterpene alcohol | NS |
| 130 | Dihydro-eudesmol [26] | A. nobilis subsp. sipylea, A. nobilis subsp. neilreichii | Flower heads | Saturated form of eudesmol | NS |
| 131 | α-Bisabolol [26] | A. nobilis subsp. sipylea, A. nobilis subsp. neilreichii | Flower heads | Oxygenated sesquiterpene alcohol | NS |
| 132 | Germacrene D-4-ol [27,28] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Sesquiterpene alcohol | NS |
| 133 | Cedrene-β- epoxide [27] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Epoxide derivative of cedrene | NS |
| 172 | Helifolenol [27] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Oxygenated sesquiterpene | NS |
| 134 | <i>trans-</i> Sesquisabinene hydrate [28] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Hydroxylated sesquiterpene | NS |
| 135 | Caryophyllene oxide [28,30,32,34] | | | NS | |
| 136 | 36 Salvial-4(14)-en-1- one [28] A. nobilis | | Aerial part | Ketone-type sesquiterpenoid | NS |
| 137 | <i>cis-</i> Sesquisabinene hydrate [28] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Hydroxylated sesquiterpene | NS |
| 138 | γ-Eudesmol [28,30] | A. nobilis | Aerial part, leaves | Sesquiterpene alcohol | NS |
| 139 | Eremoligenol [28] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Hydroxylated sesquiterpene | NS |
| 140 | 140 ar-Turmerol [28] A. nobilis | | Aerial part | Aromatic sesquiterpene alcohol | NS |
| 141 | neo-Intermedol [30] | A. nobilis | Leaves | Hydroxylated sesquiterpene | NS |
| 142 | Intermedeol [28] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Guaiane-type sesquiterpene alcohol) | NS |
| 143 | Torilenol [28] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Hydroxylated sesquiterpene | NS |
| 144 | 44 Eudesma-4(15),7- dien-4β-ol [28] A. nobilis | | Aerial part | Eudesmane-type sesquiterpene alcohol | NS |
| 145 | γ -Costol [28] | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Oxygenated sesquiterpene | NS |
| 146 | Cadin-4-en-7-ol A. nobilis | | Leaves | Sesquiterpenoid (Cadinane-type alcohol) | NS |
| 147 | Epi-α-Cadino | A. nobilis | Aerial part [31] | Sesquiterpenoid (Cadinane-type sesquiterpene alcohol) | NS |
| 148 | Selin-11-en-4-α-ol | A. nobilis | Aerial part [31] | Hydroxylated selinane-type sesquiterpene | NS |

| No. | Compounds | Plant Species | Plant Species Investigated Plant Part | | Known Pharmacological Activities | |
|-----|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| 149 | Khusinol | A. nobilis | Aerial part [31] | Oxygenated sesquiterpene alcohol | NS | |
| 150 | Aristolone | A. nobilis | Aerial part [31] | Tricyclic sesquiterpene ketone | antimicrobial and anti-inflammatory activities [154] | |
| 151 | Nerolydol | ol <i>A. nobilis</i> Aerial part [32] Acyclic sesquiterpene alcohol | | | antimalarial, antiparasitic, antifungal, and antioxidant effects [155] | |
| 152 | 2 Murolan-3,9(11)- diene-10peroxy A. nobilis | | Aerial part [32] | Oxygenated sesquiterpene peroxide | NS | |
| 153 | Cubenol | A. nobilis | Aerial part [32] | Tricyclic sesquiterpene alcohol | antifungal, cytotoxic, and antioxidant activities [156] | |
| 154 | 3β-Cadin-4-en-10- o A. nobilis | | Aerial part [32] | Sesquiterpenoid (Cadinane-type sesquiterpene alcohol) | NS | |
| 155 | Aromadenderen <i>A. nobilis</i> Aerial part [32] epoxide | | Aerial part [32] | Oxygenated sesquiterpene | antibacterial and anti-inflammatory activities [157,158] | |
| 156 | Eudesm-7(11)-en- 4-ol | A. nobilis | Aerial part [32] | Eudesmane-type sesquiterpene alcohol | NS | |
| 157 | Y Hanphyllin [19] A. nobilis | | Leaves/flowers | Sequiterpene (Sesquiterpene lactones, germacranolide) | NS | |

Here, "NS" means not studied.

A significant variety of terpenoids from *A. nobilis* display marked anti-inflammatory and antioxidant properties. For example, artemetin and caryophyllene oxide exhibit significant anti-inflammatory effects by blocking proinflammatory enzymes and mediators, which helps lower oxidative stress in multiple inflammatory models [105,112]. Carvacrol and thymol are crucial in managing inflammation by inhibiting NF- κ B and MAPK pathways, and they have demonstrated effectiveness in decreasing oxidative damage, positioning them as promising options for treating inflammatory diseases [115,117]. Borneol exhibits synergistic anti-inflammatory properties and improves the bioavailability of concurrently administered anti-inflammatory agents [119]. These substances play a major role in the conventional application of *A. nobilis* for addressing inflammation-related ailments.

Multiple terpenes found in *A. nobilis* and its subspecies have demonstrated anticancer properties. Significantly, β -caryophyllene and caryophyllene oxide promote apoptosis and hinder cancer cell proliferation by affecting various signaling pathways, such as the PI3K/Akt axis [109,112]. Additionally, thymol and borneol have shown cytotoxic properties against several cancer cell lines, such as liver and breast cancer, with proof indicating their capability to induce cell cycle arrest and apoptosis [117,119]. Camphor, while mainly recognized for its antimicrobial properties, has also demonstrated potential cytostatic effects in cancer studies [120]. These results emphasize the therapeutic potential of *A. nobilis* terpenes in cancer prevention and therapy.

A significant amount of evidence backs the antimicrobial and antiviral properties of *A. nobilis* terpenes. Camphor, borneol, thymol, and carvacrol have shown significant antimicrobial properties against Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria, along with fungi [115,117,119]. Thymol and carvacrol specifically display membrane-disrupting characteristics that hinder microbial survival and biofilm development. Furthermore, sabinene and β -pinene have demonstrated antiviral properties by disrupting viral replication processes, aligning with the application of essential oils in traditional medicine for addressing respiratory and viral illnesses [113,114]. These terpenoids could function as useful substitutes for synthetic antimicrobial substances.

Certain terpene compounds derived from *A. nobilis* are noted to exert positive effects on the central nervous system. Thymol has been demonstrated to have anxiolytic and neuroprotective properties by influencing GABAergic neurotransmission and diminishing oxidative damage to neurons [117]. Borneol has shown notable neuroprotective effects, in part because it can traverse the blood–brain barrier and improve drug transport to the brain [119]. In a similar manner, β -caryophyllene engages with cannabinoid receptors and demonstrates anxiolytic, antidepressant, and neuroprotective effects [109]. These results indicate a possible function for *A. nobilis* terpenoids in the treatment of neurodegenerative diseases and mental health therapies.

Besides the primary therapeutic areas mentioned earlier, various terpenoids exhibit a range of bioactivities. For instance, thujone and sabinene have shown insecticidal and antifeedant properties that are beneficial in pest control [122]. Myrtenol and camphene show gastroprotective and antispasmodic properties, which could be helpful for gastrointestinal issues [110,121]. Additionally, α -pinene and β -pinene exhibit bronchodilatory and mucolytic properties, aiding their application in respiratory disorders [113]. While certain compounds like aristolone and germacrene D remain inadequately researched, their structural resemblance to active terpenes implies probable antioxidant and anti-inflammatory functions. These adaptable pharmacological characteristics endorse the multifunctional capabilities of *A. nobilis* terpenes in clinical and ethnopharmacological uses.

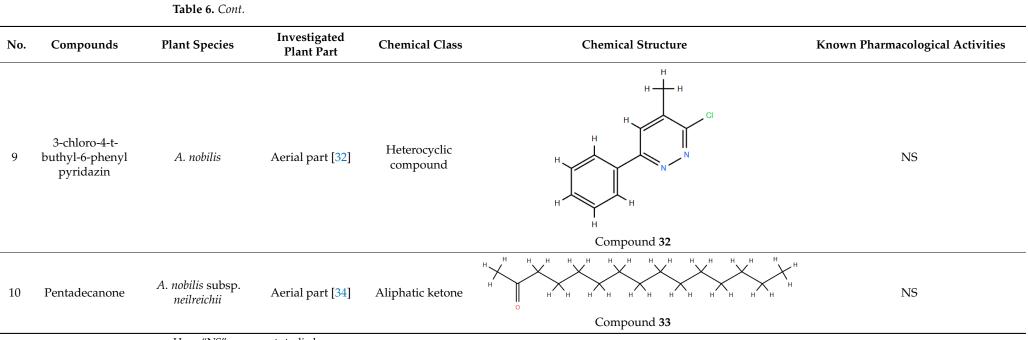
5.3. Other Biologically Active Compounds

Other biologically active compounds identified in A. nobilis and its subspecies include simple hydrocarbons, fatty alcohols, fatty acids, heterocyclic compounds, and simple ketones, all of which contribute to the plant's diverse pharmacological potential (Table 6). Among these, 1-octadecanol (Compound 26) stands out due to its antibacterial, anti-inflammatory, emollient, and mucosal-protective characteristics, which support its use in vaginal drug delivery systems and various mucosal therapeutic formulations [159,160]. Hexadecanoic acid (Compound 27), commonly referred to as palmitic acid, has been shown to promote the growth of bone marrow mesenchymal stem cells and displays various pharmacological properties, such as antimicrobial, antioxidant, anti-inflammatory, anticancer, hypocholesterolemic, and skin-protective effects. This establishes it as a significant bioactive lipid for therapeutic advancements [161]. Likewise, dillapiol (Compound 29) has demonstrated antimicrobial and antifungal properties, indicating its relevance in the development of antimicrobial medications and natural preservation methods [162]. Additional compounds extracted from A. nobilis also show specific pharmacological effects. For instance, isovaleric acid (Compound 30) has been reported to improve ovariectomyinduced osteoporosis by suppressing osteoclast differentiation, suggesting its potential use in managing bone health after menopause [163]. This supports the inclusion of isovaleric acid among clinically significant bioactives for bone metabolism and osteoporosisrelated conditions.

| No. | Compounds | Plant Species | Investigated Plant Part | Chemical Class | Chemical Structure | Known Pharmacological Activities |
|-----|----------------------|----------------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------|--|--|
| 1 | Tricosane | A. nobilis subsp. neilreichii | Aerial part [34] | Alkane | H3C Compound 24 | NS |
| 2 | Hexadecanol | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Fatty alcohol | H ₃ C Ompound 25 | NS |
| 3 | 1-Octadecanol | A. nobilis | Aerial part | Fatty alcohol | H0 Compound 26 | exhibits antibacterial, anti-inflammatory, emollient, and mucosal-protective properties, supporting its use in vaginal drug-delivery hydrogels [159,160] |
| 4 | Hexadecanoic acid | A. nobilis | Aerial part [30] | Fatty acid | H ₃ C OH Compound 2 7 | induces proliferation of bone marrow mesenchymal stem cells, antimicrobial, antioxidant, anti-inflammatory, anticancer, hypocholesterolemic, and skin-protective effects [161] |
| 5 | Indipone | A. nobilis | Leaves [30] | Aromatic ketone | 0 0 Compound 28 | NS |

| Table 6. Other biologicall | y active compounds found in A. | <i>nobilis</i> and its subspecies. |
|-----------------------------------|--------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| | | |

| | | Table 6. Cont. | | | | |
|-----|-----------------------------|----------------|----------------------------|---------------------------|---|---|
| No. | Compounds | Plant Species | Investigated Plant Part | Chemical Class | Chemical Structure | Known Pharmacological Activities |
| 6 | Dillapiol | A. nobilis | Aerial part [31] | Phenylpropanoid | CH_2 CH_2 CH_3 | antimicrobial and antifungal [162] |
| 7 | Isovaleric acid | A. nobilis | Aerial part [32] | Carboxylic acid | $H_{3}C \xrightarrow{OH} CH_{3} \xrightarrow{O} Compound 30$ | ameliorates ovariectomy-induced osteoporosis by inhibiting osteoclast differentiation [163] |
| 8 | Adamantane,1,3- dimethyl | A. nobilis | Aerial part [32] | Polycyclic hydrocarbon | Compound 31 | NS |



Here, "NS" means not studied.

On the other hand, several compounds found in *A. nobilis* such as tricosane (Compound 24), hexadecanol (Compound 25), indipone (Compound 28), adamantane-1,3dimethyl (Compound 31), 3-chloro-4-tert-butyl-6-phenylpyridazin (Compound 32), and pentadecanone (Compound 33), currently do not have documented pharmacological activity according to the existing literature. Although these compounds have not been extensively studied, their structural features and chemical classifications suggest potential biological activity. For example, alkanes such as tricosane and ketones like pentadecanone frequently occur in essential oils recognized for their insect-repellent or antimicrobial properties, while pyridazine derivatives are being explored for their anti-inflammatory and anticancer effects. Therefore, future bioactivity-oriented studies are needed to determine the medicinal relevance of these lesser-known compounds.

6. Pharmacological Effects Studies on A. nobilis and Its Subspecies

Achillea nobilis L. and its subspecies (A. nobilis subsp. neilreichii and A. nobilis subsp. sipylea) have garnered growing scientific interest owing to their extensive array of bioactive compounds and varied pharmacological characteristics, establishing them as a potential natural shield against a broad range of pathological issues, as demonstrated by their various pharmacological effects (Figure 4). Notably, the ethanolic extract of A. nobilis demonstrated significant anticonvulsant potential in preclinical models. In a comparative study using maximal electroshock (MES), pentylenetetrazole (PTZ), and strychnine nitrate (STN)-induced seizure models in rats, A. nobilis extract exhibited dose-dependent anticonvulsant effects, particularly at 200 and 300 mg/kg doses. Specifically, in the MES and PTZ-induced convulsion tests, the extract delayed the onset of seizures and reduced seizure duration, indicating central nervous system depressant activity. Moreover, at a dose of 300 mg/kg, A. nobilis provided 60% protection against STN-induced seizures, suggesting its potential role in modulating glycine-mediated neurotransmission. However, lower doses (100 and 200 mg/kg) did not show significant protection in the STN model, highlighting a possible threshold for efficacy. Consequently, these findings support the potential of A. nobilis as a natural source of anticonvulsant agents and warrant further investigation into its active constituents and mechanisms of action [164].

Another study revealed that the ethanol extract of *A. nobilis* subsp. *neilreichii* has noteworthy antinociceptive and anti-inflammatory effects, highlighting its possible therapeutic importance in managing pain and inflammation. The extract produced a significant antinociceptive response during the later phase of the formalin test at doses of 100, 200, and 400 mg/kg (i.p.), demonstrating its efficacy in alleviating inflammatory pain. Furthermore, it demonstrated anti-inflammatory effects in the carrageenan-induced paw edema model, especially at 100 and 200 mg/kg, indicating the suppression of acute inflammatory reactions. Nonetheless, no notable antinociceptive effect was noted in the tail-flick test, suggesting restricted effectiveness in altering spinal reflexes to thermal stimuli. Importantly, the administration of 400 mg/kg lengthened the latency on the hot-plate test at 60 and 90 min, indicating possible central analgesic effects without impairing sensory motor function. Additionally, the extract showed a significant safety margin, exhibiting an intraperitoneal LD₅₀ value of 4456 mg/kg in mice. As a result, these results emphasize the anti-inflammatory and mild analgesic effects of *A. nobilis* subsp. *neilreichii*, endorsing its continued investigation in pain management studies [165].

Additionally, the research examined the antispasmodic properties of the total extract from *A. nobilis* subsp. *sipylea* on isolated rat duodenum, offering pharmacological support for its historical use in treating gastrointestinal spasms. The extract was assessed via a range of experiments that included cumulative dose–response curves for acetylcholine (ACh) and calcium chloride (CaCl₂), conducted both without and with established spasmolytic

agents like atropine, papaverine, and verapamil. The findings showed that the extract had a concentration-dependent inhibitory effect on contractions induced by ACh and CaCl₂, noticeably decreasing the maximum contractile responses of the duodenal tissue. Significantly, this effect resembled that of papaverine and verapamil, but was different from atropine, indicating a mechanism of action that does not depend on muscarinic receptor antagonism and is more likely related to direct relaxation of smooth muscle or modulation of calcium channels. Additionally, the extract reduced K⁺-induced contractions, highlighting its muscle-relaxing properties. As a result, these results suggest that *A. nobilis* subsp. *sipylea* has significant antispasmodic properties, probably through the disruption of calcium influx and smooth muscle contractions, and may offer potential therapeutic benefits for gastrointestinal issues marked by hypermotility or spasms [166].

The protective benefits of Achillea species indigenous to Turkey, such as A. nobilis subspecies, have been studied regarding oxidative stress caused by hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) in human erythrocytes and leucocytes. This research assessed the antioxidant capacity of infusions made from 15 Achillea species, which are commonly used in traditional Turkish medicine, by measuring their effect on vital antioxidant enzymes—catalase (CAT), superoxide dismutase (SOD), and glutathione peroxidase (GPx)—along with lipid peroxidation (LPO) and glutathione (GSH) concentrations. The findings revealed that all Achillea infusions provided considerable protective benefits against oxidative damage induced by H₂O₂ by boosting the function of antioxidant defense systems in both erythrocytes and leucocytes. Significantly, A. falcata was the most potent in improving CAT, SOD, and GPx activities in red blood cells. Among the infusions tested, A. crithmifolia and A. nobilis subsp. neilreichii showed the greatest stimulation of CAT activity in leukocytes, while A. millefolium subsp. pannonica was the most effective for SOD, and A. teretifolia for GPx. Moreover, A. nobilis subsp. sipylea and A. setacea exhibited the most significant protective effects on LPO levels in leucocytes, while A. millefolium subsp. pannonica and A. falcata showed the least LPO levels in erythrocytes. As a result, these results indicate that *Achillea* species, especially the A. nobilis subspecies, serve as a valuable source of natural antioxidants that may be useful in the prevention and management of diseases linked to oxidative stress [167].

The essential oils extracted from A. nobilis subsp. sipylea and A. nobilis subsp. neilreichii show different levels of antibacterial and antifungal effects against various clinically significant microorganisms, with A. nobilis subsp. sipylea displaying the strongest antimicrobial capability. This subspecies exhibited significant antifungal properties against *Candida* albicans, resulting in an inhibition zone of 41 mm, and also demonstrated considerable antibacterial effects against Escherichia coli, Staphylococcus aureus, and Salmonella typhimurium, with inhibition zones varying from 12 to 15 mm. Conversely, essential oils obtained from A. nobilis subsp. neilreichii, gathered from various geographic sites, showed diminished antimicrobial properties; however, there was still some activity, especially against Grampositive bacteria like Staphylococcus epidermidis and S. aureus. None of the essential oils evaluated were successful against Pseudomonas aeruginosa, renowned for its significant inherent resistance [27]. While the antimicrobial effectiveness of these essential oils was typically less than that of standard antibiotics like amoxicillin and sulbactam/ampicillin, the findings still indicate significant biological activity [141,164]. These results back the possible application of A. nobilis, especially subsp. sipylea, as a hopeful natural source of antimicrobial compounds, with regional differences in chemical makeup probably explaining variations in effectiveness [26,27]. Another study assessed the antibacterial properties of various extracts from A. nobilis subsp. neilreichii against S. aureus ATCC 25923, emphasizing how the extraction method and solvent type influence antimicrobial effectiveness. The Soxhlet extracts, especially those derived from ethyl acetate and chloroform, exhibited the strongest activity, showing minimum inhibitory concentrations (MICs) of $3.1 \,\mu g/mL$ and

3.87 μ g/mL, respectively. Conversely, extracts obtained via ultrasonic bath with chloroform and maceration with n-hexane, chloroform, or ethanol exhibited lesser effects, resulting in MIC values surpassing 5 μ g/mL and exceeding 6.25 μ g/mL in certain instances. These findings indicate that Soxhlet extraction using semi-polar solvents improves the extraction of antibacterial compounds from the plant material. Furthermore, while the plant extracts were not as effective as the standard antibiotic meropenem (MIC, 0.012 μ g/mL), they still suggest that *A. nobilis* subsp. *neilreichii* could be a valuable source of natural antibacterial compounds, especially when suitable extraction techniques are utilized [33].

While the cited pharmacological studies on *A. nobilis* and its subspecies provide valuable insights into their biological activities, several limitations should be acknowledged. Most experiments have been conducted using in vivo rodent models or basic in vitro assays, with limited mechanistic investigations to identify specific molecular targets. Additionally, many studies rely on crude extracts rather than purified compounds, which makes it difficult to determine which constituents are responsible for the observed effects. The sample sizes and control designs are sometimes insufficiently described, and variations in extraction methods may lead to inconsistent results across studies.

Importantly, a comprehensive literature review using multiple scientific databases (as detailed in the methodology section) found no published human clinical studies investigating *A. nobilis* or its subspecies. This significant gap indicates that the species is underexplored in clinical research, and highlights the need for rigorous human trials to validate its safety, efficacy, and therapeutic relevance. Furthermore, comprehensive toxicity and pharmacokinetic evaluations are lacking, and most studies do not assess long-term safety. These limitations underscore the need for standardized experimental protocols and advanced preclinical and clinical research to support the integration of *A. nobilis* and its bioactive components into evidence-based pharmaceutical and nutraceutical applications.

7. Conclusions

This review highlights the ethnomedicinal importance of *A. nobilis* and its subspecies (*A. nobilis* subsp. *neilreichii* and *A. nobilis* subsp. *sipylea*), which have been esteemed for ages in conventional medical practices. These plants have been extensively used to address a range of issues, such as inflammation, pain, infections, spasms, and convulsions. Their application in decoctions, oils, and infusions showcases the vibrant cultural history related to their therapeutic uses. Although there is extensive traditional usage, scientific investigation into their pharmacological mechanisms and bioactive components is still incomplete.

Existing phytochemical investigations show that *A. nobilis* comprises a variety of compounds, particularly flavonoids, flavonoid glycosides, monoterpenes, sesquiterpenes, sesquiterpene lactones, and terpenoid derivatives. These substances are associated with noteworthy pharmacological impacts, including antioxidant, antibacterial, antifungal, antiinflammatory, antinociceptive, antispasmodic, central analgesic, and anticonvulsant effects. The existence of these bioactive compounds not only confirms traditional applications but also establishes the plant as a strong contender for drug development. Nonetheless, the majority of research has focused on water-based extracts and above-ground portions, with minimal emphasis on the chemistry specific to roots or variations within organs.

As indicated in the summarized pharmacological profile, *A. nobilis* and its varieties display a wide range of bioactivities. However, these effects differ based on subspecies, part of the plant, and extraction technique. Significant chemotypic variation is impacted by environmental and genetic influences, necessitating accurate chemotaxonomic and organ-specific evaluations. Incorporating multi-omics strategies, including metabolomics, transcriptomics, and sophisticated analytical methods (e.g., UHPLC–HRMS, MALDI–TOF),

will be crucial for thoroughly charting the metabolite profile of this species and linking it to pharmacological results.

In summary, this review emphasizes the medical potential and overlooked research prospects related to *A. nobilis* and its subspecies. Future research should focus on examining underexplored plant components such as roots, assess seasonal and geographical impacts on phytochemical variations, and create solid pharmacological connections through interdisciplinary teamwork. Such initiatives will yield important understanding for the evidence-driven use of these plants in contemporary pharmacology and nutraceutical development.

Author Contributions: Conceptualization, A.A. (Akerke Amirkhanova), A.A. (Aiman Akhelova), A.S., S.N., A.M., A.K., R.D., K.R. and Y.I.; methodology, L.S.; software, M.K. and A.T.; data curation, G.S., A.K. and A.A. (Akerke Amirkhanova); writing—original draft preparation, A.S., A.A. (Akerke Amirkhanova), A.A. (Akerke Amirkhanova), A.S., S.N., A.M. and M.K.; writing—review and editing, A.S., R.D., K.R., Y.I., A.T., A.K. and A.A. (Akerke Amirkhanova); supervision, A.S. and A.A. (Akerke Amirkhanova). All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

Funding: This research received no external funding.

Institutional Review Board Statement: Not applicable.

Informed Consent Statement: Not applicable.

Data Availability Statement: No new data were created or analyzed in this study. Data sharing is not applicable to this article.

Conflicts of Interest: The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

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