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## ASSESSMENT OF PHYTOCHEMICALS IN *ALLIUM* SPECIES: A SYSTEMATIC REVIEW

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### SUMMARY

Phytochemicals are plant-based bioactive compounds produced by plants for their protection. In *Allium* species, the principal bioactive phytochemicals include organosulfur compounds, polyphenols, and saponins. Most of them have also displayed antioxidant activities aside from other biological properties. Selection for productivity, disease resistance, and long shelf life has brought the biologically active substances out of control of selection. However, at the same time, enhancement of their contents could result from hybridization with some wild species of *Allium*.

**Keywords:** *Allium* L., calorie content, biochemical composition, nutritional values, onions, chives, garlic, leeks

**Key findings:** Genus *Allium* L. species is a valuable source of biologically active compounds, such as vitamins, dietary fibers, antioxidants, and cholesterol-lowering compounds.

### INTRODUCTION

In modern society, for a healthy lifestyle, the importance of diet escalates (Ivanova *et al.*, 2021a). Vegetables play a considerable role in

preventing free radical diseases associated with aging, obesity, cancer, and cardiovascular diseases (Gins *et al.*, 2021). In *Allium*, the bioactive compounds mainly include organosulfur compounds, polyphenols, dietary

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fibers, and saponins (Poojary et al., 2017; Dabeek et al., 2019; Quecan et al., 2019; Putnik et al., 2019). Research has also demonstrated that flavonoids, especially onion flavonols, have antioxidant, antitumor, hypolipidemic, antidiabetic, cardioprotective, neuroprotective, and antimicrobial activities (Aleksandar et al., 2019; Kothari et al., 2020; Myint et al., 2020; Zhou et al., 2020).

### Inclusion criteria

This review focused on analyzing the biochemical composition of onion crops, including biologically active compounds of pharmacological significance. The review included databases, viz., Web of Science, Scopus, PubMed, Science Direct, SciFinder, and Google Scholar. The online sources used were the Research Gate, National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI), Springer Nature Open Access, and Wiley Online Library.

### Secondary metabolites

Secondary metabolites are tiny organic molecules from primary metabolites during the plant embolism. According to the classification adopted by the British Nutrition Foundation, plants secondary metabolites can have four main groups, i.e., phenolic and polyphenol compounds (about 8,000 compounds), terpenoids (about 25,000 compounds), alkaloids (about 12,000 compounds), and sulfur-containing compounds (Goldberg, 2003). In onion crops, the summarized information about the secondary metabolites and their content is available in Table 1.

### Phenolic and polyphenolic compounds

Phenolic and polyphenolic compounds are often characteristic of an aromatic ring structure; they include flavonoids, phenolic acids, and lignans. Phenolic compounds are plants' secondary metabolites associated with protection mechanisms against pathogens and pests, defense against radiation, and attraction of pollinators signaling (Polivanova et al., 2021). These metabolites balance the system of the enzymatic antioxidants and have considerable potential to reduce and prevent tissue damage (Motyleva et al., 2021).

In *A. victorialis* L. leaves, the total phenolic compounds showed the highest level with methanol extraction (37.7 mg/L), followed by ethanol extract (31.9 mg/L) and hot water extract (25.4 mg/L). The total content of flavonoids was also the maximum during extraction with methanol (22.2 mg/L) (Cho et al., 2011). In garlic (*A. sativum* L.), chives (*A. schoenoprasum* L.), ramson (*A. ursinum* L.), and red, yellow, and white onions (*A. cepa* L.), the total polyphenols ranged at 0.444–1.591 mg/g, which declines in the order as chives > red onion > garlic > yellow onion > ramson > white onion (Lenková et al., 2016).

Flavonoids have the largest polyphenolic compound collections in fruits, vegetables, nuts, teas, wines, and other food ingredients. The bulb onion (*A. cepa* L.), garlic (*A. sativum* L.), and other onion types are wealthy sources of dietary flavonoids (Marefati et al., 2021; Recinella et al., 2022). Polyphenols with several health-regulating effects, contained in *Allium* species, particularly flavonols, which refer to their antioxidant

**Table 1.** Secondary metabolites and their content in onion crops.

Chemical compound	<i>Allium</i> species	Content	References
Flavonoids			
Quercetin	<i>A. cepa</i>	13.27 mg/100 g FW	USDA
Tocopherols and tocotrienols			
α-tocopherol	<i>A. cepa</i>	0,04 mg/100 g FW	Chun et al. (2006)
α-T3	<i>A. cepa</i>	0,12 mg/100 g FW	
Quinones			
Phylloquinone	<i>A. cepa</i>	0,2 µg /100 g FW	Damon et al. (2005)
Sterols			
Campesterol	<i>A. cepa</i>	0,82 mg/100 g FW	Normén et al. (1999)
Campestanol	<i>A. porrum</i>	0,09 mg/100 g FW	

activity, determine their functional properties, including anti-inflammatory, antimicrobial, antiglycemic, and anticancer effects (Han *et al.*, 2013; Elberry *et al.*, 2014; Lee *et al.*, 2014; Jakaria *et al.* 2019; Polivanova *et al.*, 2020; Recinella *et al.*, 2022).

However, all these flavonoid properties are structurally dependent, making them one of the powerful antioxidants, free radical scavengers, and chelators of divalent cations that cause DNA damage associated with numerous diseases (Panche *et al.*, 2016; Fredotovič *et al.*, 2017). During the consumption of onions, absorption of flavonoids mainly occurs from the stomach and small intestines (Aziz *et al.*, 1998). After ingestion of onion flour, the plasma flavonoid glucosides also appeared to have enhanced significantly. In addition, a strong association exists between higher plasma levels of flavonoids and increased DNA resistance to oxidative DNA damage, which is the supreme evidence of their antioxidant activity (Boyle *et al.*, 2000).

Onions have mainly two classes of flavonoids, i.e., flavonols, responsible for the yellow and brown skins, and anthocyanins, which give the red and purple color to some onions (Rodrigues *et al.*, 2017). Flavonol concentrations and types widely vary based on the species, cultivar, and plant parts. Moreover, reports revealed post-harvest practices and seasonality have also affected the concentrations of onion flavonol (Rodrigues *et al.*, 2010, 2011). Flavones, flavanones, flavonols, isoflavones, flavanonols, chalcones, and anthocyanins are the subclasses of flavonoids, with the flavonols profusely found in *A. cepa* (Liguori *et al.* 2017). In onion cultivars, the chief flavonols found are quercetin derivatives, while the derivatives of kaempferol and isorhamnetin were recognizably smaller amounts (Slimestad *et al.*, 2007; Bonaccorsi *et al.*, 2008). Generally, flavonol levels are higher in yellow onions than in red onions (Soininen *et al.*, 2014). The most abundant flavonols in onions are two quercetin conjugates, namely, quercetin-3,4'-diglucoside and quercetin-4'-monoglucoside (Fredotovič *et al.*, 2017).

These compounds together made about 80% of the total flavonol content, with some variation among the different *Allium* crops. Glycosides of quercetin, myricetin, kaempferol, and isorhamnetin accounted for 15% of the total flavonols in onions. Compared to yellow and white onions, red onions showed a higher total flavonol content (Prakash *et al.*, 2007). In addition, the bulb's total content of flavonols in its outer layers was higher than in its inner layers. In different types of *Allium* spp., the flavonol content ranges from seven to 1,917 mg/kg wet weight (Table 2). In addition to flavonols, onions are a rich source of anthocyanins, the natural pigments responsible for the color of fruits, vegetables, flowers, and grains. They impart a red or purple color to the onion bulb's outer layers. The most common anthocyanins in red onions are cyanidin derivatives (more than 50% of all anthocyanins), cyanidin-3-(6"-malonyl glucoside), cyanidin-3-(6"-malonyl-3" glucosyl-glucoside), and cyanidin-3-glucoside. There are also small derivatives of peonidin, petunidin, and delphinidin (Slimestad *et al.*, 2007; Rodrigues *et al.*, 2017).

Vanillic and cinnamic acids commonly exist in onions, parsley, and spinach and coumaric acid in tomatoes, carrots, and garlic (Crozier *et al.*, 2006; Rashmi and Negi, 2020). In onion (*Allium cepa* L.), the main phenolic compounds are gallic acid (22.1–182.4 mg/kg FW), quercetin (2.9–15.8 mg/kg FW), isorhamnetin 4'-glucoside (11.9–34.3 mg/kg FW), kaempferol 3-ogluoside (2.3–6.6 mg/kg FW), quercetin 4-ogluoside (112.3–337.5 mg/kg FW), quercetin 3-ogluoside (2.7–5.1 mg/kg FW), isorhamnetin 3,4'-diglucoside (0.7–18.6 mg/kg FW), quercetin 3,4'-diglucoside (127.3–376.0 mg/kg FW), quercetin 7,4'-diglucoside (2.7–9.5 mg/kg FW), and quercetin 3,7,4'-triglucoside (2.1–6.3 mg/kg FW). For garlic (*Allium sativum* L.), the major phenolic composites are gallic acid (79.13–96.48 mg/kg FW), chlorogenic acid (76.99–93.95 mg/kg FW), caffeic acid (3.72–14.06 mg/kg FW), epicatechin (1.17 mg/kg FW), *p*-coumaric acid (0.55–4.42 mg/kg FW), rutin (43.43 mg/kg FW), luteolin (0.15–22.92 mg/kg FW),

**Table 2.** Flavonol content of some common edible *Allium* species.

<i>Allium</i> species	Plant Part	Total Flavonol Content	References
<i>A. cepa</i>	Red bulb	415-1917 mg/kg FW	Slimestad et al. (2007)
	Yellow bulb	270-1187 mg/kg FW	
	White bulb	7 mg/kg FW	
<i>A. ascalonicum</i>	Bulb	1023 mg/kg FW	Bonaccorsi et al. (2008)
<i>A. porrum</i>	Bulb	246 mg/kg FW	Soininen et al. (2014)
<i>A. sativum</i>	Cloves	16.19 mg/kg DW	Kim et al. (2013)
<i>A. ursinum</i>	Green leaves	1856.31 mg/kg DW	Oszmianski et al. (2013)
	Stalks	206.07 mg/kg DW	
	Seeds	73.14 mg/kg DW	
<i>A. tricoccum</i>	Leaves	11.81 mg/kg DW	Dabeek et al. (2019)
	Stem	0.0382 mg/kg DW	
<i>A. odorum</i>	Leaves	160 mg/kg DW	Miean and Mohamed (2001)
<i>A. fistulosum</i>	Leaves	2329 mg/kg DW	Miean and Mohamed (2001)
<i>A. flavum</i> subsp. <i>Flavum</i>	Aerial parts	44-264 mg/kg DW	Simin et al. (2013)
	Bulb	0.77-832 mg/kg DW	
<i>A. carinatum</i>	Whole plant	11.14 mg/kg DW	Aleksandar et al. (2019)

hyperoside (0.37–20.24 mg/kg FW), ferulic acid (0.90–15.73 mg/kg FW), quercetin (6.55–10.09 mg/kg FW), apigenin (3.24 mg/kg FW), naringenin (11.75–56.71 mg/kg FW), and allyl isothiocyanate (184.57–340.45 mg/kg FW) (Li et al., 2023a).

Lignans are diphenolic compounds involved in synthesizing lignin, a hydrophobic component of the plant cell wall. Garlic and onions are usually prime sources of lignans in the Mediterranean diet (Rodríguez-García et al., 2019). One clove of garlic contains four micrograms of lignin (for a total of 117 micrograms of lignin per 100 g); one tablespoon of chopped chives contains five micrograms of lignin (158 micrograms of lignin per 100 g), and a medium-sized onion bulb contains 11 µg of lignin (Penalvo et al., 2008). In garlic (*A. sativum* L.), the main lignan compounds are lariciresinol (286 µg/100 g FW), pinoreesinol (200 µg/100 g FW), and secoisolariciresinol (50 µg/100 g FW); in leek (*A. porrum* L.), the lignans are lariciresinol (37 µg/100 g FW), pinoreesinol (3 µg/100 g FW), and secoisolariciresinol (38 µg/100 g FW); in onion (*A. cepa* L.), the lignans are lariciresinol (19 µg/100 g FW) and secoisolariciresinol (18 µg/100 g FW) (Milder et al., 2005).

Lignans play a vital role in protecting plants from insects by acting as regulators of insect feeding and development (Harmatha and Dinan, 2003). Some plant lignans, such as

secoisolariciresinol, matiresinol, lariciresinol, and pinoreesinol, can convert to 'enterolignans' by the intestinal microflora and then be absorbed by the human body (Heinonen et al., 2001). In humans, lignans have several biological activities, such as antioxidant and anti-estrogenic properties, which may reduce the risk of particular cancers and cardiovascular diseases (Hu et al., 2021). Therefore, many have suggested that compared with the semi-vegetarian diet in many Asian countries, the Western diet may alter the production, metabolism, and hormone action at the cellular level, increasing the incidence of breast, colorectal, and prostate cancers. Observational studies enunciated that high lignan intake has an association with a significantly reduced risk of breast cancer, particularly in postmenopausal women (Mason and Thompson, 2014).

### Saponins

Steroidal saponins from the genus *Allium* can comprise three groups based on the sapogenin structure: spirostanols, furostanols, and open-chain saponins (Sobolewska et al., 2016). They play a crucial role in protecting plants from pathogens, pests, and herbivores, and several studies have shown that these compounds can act as natural agents in the treatment of many diseases (Sobolewska et al., 2016). Reports

have also indicated that steroidal saponins isolated from *A. porrum* have a strong antifeedant effect on Lepidoptera insects, such as *Peridroma saucia* and *Mamestra configurata* (Li *et al.*, 2023b). In *Allium* species, the saponins have the highest cytotoxic activity, which makes them potential candidates for future development as anticancer agents (Lanzotti *et al.*, 2014).

Records show around 45 species of the genus *Allium*, the steroid saponins, and their genins existed. However, about 50 spirostanol and furostanol glycosides as isolates came from onion species (Lai *et al.*, 2010; Jabrane *et al.*, 2011). In addition to glycosides, isolating 28 genins have come from different onion species, and the most common is diosgenin, found in 18 species. From a research point of view, the raw materials rich in diosgenin and the *A. fuscoviolaceum* Fomin and *A. nutans* L. are of more interest, containing 2.1% and 2.3% of this genin, respectively. Unbound diosgenin, spirostanol glycoside deltonin, and two glycosides of furostanol nature (deltoside and protodioscin) were prominent in the roots, bulbs, and buds of onions. The aglycone smilagenin was evident in the integumentary scales and leaves. The *A. ursinum* L. bulbs also contain diosgenin, the concentration of which chiefly depends upon the harvesting time (Sabha *et al.*, 2012).

Mostafa *et al.* (2013) provided the following total saponin content values (per DW) for *A. nigrum* in the roots (19.38 mg/g), bulbs (15.65 mg/g), and leaves (10.48 mg/g). The total number of saponins was almost 40-fold higher in purple garlic than in white varieties (Diretto *et al.*, 2017). In garlic, the average content of total saponins in dry roots was 14.49 mg/g DW and varied from 3.36 mg/g DW to 32.18 mg/g DW (Abdelrahman *et al.*, 2021).

### Sulfur compounds

High levels of sulfur compounds characterized *Allium* species, such as S-alk(en)ylcysteine sulfoxide (ACSO), sulfides, alkyl polysulfides, and amino acids. Therefore, it is noteworthy that different types of onions contain diverse profiles of organosulfur compounds (Block *et*

*al.*, 2010). The volatile sulfur compounds cause a pungent odor in the onion species. These disulfide compounds are mostly nonexistent in intact bulbs; however, they form from the enzymatic breakdown of precursors when the bulb tissue is destroyed. The alliinase enzyme belongs to the group of C-S lyases and plays a chief role in the formation of volatile compounds of the *Allium* genus (Hrbek *et al.*, 2018; Aswani *et al.*, 2024). In *A. sativum*, the main thiosulfinate is diallyl disulfide derived from alliin, while in *A. cepa*, it is dipropyl disulfide derived from isoalliin (Rose *et al.*, 2005). Thiosulfinate is chemically unstable and undergo dissociation and rearrangement into volatile sulfur compounds responsible for the specific smell of onions (Poojary *et al.*, 2017).

Volatile sulfur compounds have sturdy antioxidant properties and antimicrobial, anti-inflammatory, and anti-cancer effects (Salehi *et al.*, 2019). In *A. sativum* essential oil, the main components were diallyl trisulfide (41.62%), diallyl disulfide (19.74%), allyl methyl trisulfide (12.95%), diallyl sulfide (7.1%), and diallyl tetrasulfide (4.22%). In the *A. cepa*, the essential oil contains the diallyl trisulfide (22.17%), dipropyl trisulfide (11.11%), 2-methyl-3,4-dithiaheptane (9.88%), methyl propyl trisulfide (8.14%), dipropyl tetrasulfide (8.07%), and 2-propenyl propyl disulfide (5.15%) (Ndoye-Foe *et al.*, 2016). The organosulfur compounds (OSCs) of onion include diallyl monosulfide (DMS), diallyl disulfide (DADS), diallyl trisulfide (DATS), and diallyl tetrasulfide (DTTS) (Sagar *et al.*, 2022).

Loredana *et al.* (2019) obtained the following OSCs values (per DW) for Alife onion (963.90 ± 69.88 mg/kg), Montoro onion (1322.79 ± 253.22 mg/kg), tapered shape Vatolla onion (1368.63 ± 127.60 mg/kg), and spinning top Vatolla onion (1393.15 ± 156.48 mg/kg) from the Italian Mediterranean. Similarly, Zhou *et al.* (2020) reported the highest amount of OSCs (per FW) was in 'Storey onion' (962.20 µg/g), followed by 'onion' (634.65 µg/g) and 'Welsh onion' (606.48 µg/g). Past findings also reported that the amount of cysteine sulfoxides and precursors of volatile sulfur compounds rose upon hybridization of onion with some wild

species of *Allium* (Fredotovič et al., 2020). The content of volatile sulfur compounds in freshly cut *Allium* species is available in Table 3.

## CONCLUSIONS

Numerous onion types of the wild-growing species have been effective in traditional medicine, but further clinical trials with human volunteers are necessary to validate any putative health benefit claims. Knowledge of the chemical composition is also crucial. In the Moscow Region, Russia, the onion crop studies revealed that dry matter content (DMC) varied from 8.6 (*A. leucocephalum* Turcz. ex Vved.) to 19.3 (*A. narcissiflorum* Vill.), on average ( $23.6\% \pm 2.9\%$ ); nitrates ranged from 110 (*A. ramosum* L.) to 256 (*A. tuberosum* Rottler ex Spreng), on average ( $175.3 \pm 37.5$  mg/kg FW); monosaccharides ranged from 2.6 (*A.*

*oschaninii* O. Fedtsch., *A. altynolicum* N. Friesen, *A. ledebourianum* Schult. & Schult. F.) to 4.2 (*A. ascalonicum* L., *A. ramosum* L., *A. cyrilli* Ten.), on average ( $3.3\% \pm 0.6\%$  FW); ascorbic acid ranged from 119.2 (*A. pskemense* B. Fedtsch.) to 133.5 (*A. suworowii* Regel), on average ( $126.0 \pm 4.1$  mg/100 g FW); chlorophyll from 138 (*A. pskemense* B. Fedtsch.) to 289 (*A. gultschense* O. Fedtsch., *A. ascalonicum* L.), on average ( $219.1 \pm 46.8$  mg/100 g DW); carotene - from 14.5 (*A. pskemense* B. Fedtsch.) to 33.1 (*A. barszczewskii* Lipsky), on average ( $24.2 \pm 4.9$  mg/kg FW); hydroxycinnamic acids - from  $169.8 \times 10^{-3}$  (*A. oliganthum* Kar. & Kir.) to  $185.0 \times 10^{-3}$  (*A. sewerzowii* Regel), on average ( $174.4 \times 10^{-3}\% \pm 3.9 \times 10^{-3}\%$  DW; also the same values as lettuce (*Lactuca sativa* L.) (Ivanova et al., 2021b); flavonoids - from  $289.8 \times 10^{-3}$  (*A. oliganthum* Kar. & Kir.) to  $311.3 \times 10^{-3}$  (*A. sewerzowii* Regel), on average

**Table 3.** Volatile compounds in freshly cut *Allium* species (%) (Fredotovič, 2020).

Chemical compound	<i>A. cornutum</i>	<i>A. cepa</i>
Sulfur dioxide	0.3 ± 0.01	0.4 ± 0.02
Methanethiol	0.9 ± 0.04	0.8 ± 0.03
Propanal	0.2 ± 0.01	0.2 ± 0.01
Carbon disulfide	0.5 ± 0.02	0.2 ± 0.01
Prop-2-en-1-thiol	0.3 ± 0.02	0.3 ± 0.03
1-Propanethiol	14.1 ± 0.20	13.1 ± 0.31
Dimethyl disulfide	0.1 ± 0.01	0.0 ± 0.00
2-Methylpentanal	0.1 ± 0.01	0.1 ± 0.01
(E)-Hex-2-enal	0.3 ± 0.02	0.2 ± 0.01
(Z)-Hex-3-en-1-ol	0.2 ± 0.01	0.2 ± 0.01
Propyl hydrosulfide	0.3 ± 0.02	0.4 ± 0.03
(E)-Hex-3-en-1-ol	0.9 ± 0.04	0.5 ± 0.02
S-Propyl ethanethioate	1.5 ± 0.10	1.3 ± 0.15
2,5-Dimethylthiophene	0.1 ± 0.01	0.2 ± 0.01
Methyl propyl disulfide	0.8 ± 0.01	0.9 ± 0.01
Methyl (E)-prop-1-enyl disulfide	0.0 ± 0.00	0.1 ± 0.01
Allyl propyl disulfide	0.6 ± 0.01	0.9 ± 0.01
Dipropyl disulfide	45.5 ± 0.01	31.9 ± 0.01
(E)-prop-1-enyl propyl disulfide	0.1 ± 0.01	3.8 ± 0.20
Methyl methylthiomethyl disulfide	2.8 ± 0.10	0.5 ± 0.04
Methyl propyl trisulfide	0.2 ± 0.01	0.2 ± 0.01
Diisopropyl trisulfide	18.3 ± 0.21	24.6 ± 0.41
(Z)-Prop-1-enyl propyl trisulfide	3.1 ± 0.11	2.8 ± 0.10
(E)-Prop-1-enyl propyl trisulfide	0.7 ± 0.05	1.7 ± 0.10
Dipropyl tetrasulfide	0.7 ± 0.02	0.0 ± 0.00
cis-3,6-Diethyl-1,2,4,5-tetrathiane	0.4 ± 0.01	1.7 ± 0.12
trans-3,6-Diethyl-1,2,4,5-tetrathiane	1.8 ± 0.10	4.8 ± 0.21

**Table 4.** Biochemical parameters of some *Allium* species from the collection of the Federal Scientific Vegetable Center (Ivanova *et al.*, 2019).

<i>Allium</i> species	DMC(%)	Nitrates (mg/kg FW)	Monosaccharides (% FW)	Ascorbic acid (mg /100 g FW)	Chlorophyll l (mg /100 g DW)	Carotene (mg/kg FW)	Hydroxycinnamic acids (10 <sup>-3</sup> % DW)	Flavonoid (10 <sup>-3</sup> % DW)
<i>A. ascalonicum</i> L.	15.3	194	4.2	129.1	289	30.1	170.0	290.4
<i>A. barsczewskii</i> Lipsky	11.9	245	4.1	129.7	236	33.1	173.6	294.2
<i>A. leucocephalum</i> Turcz. ex Vved.	8.6	234	3.5	129.5	212	19.2	177.7	300.8
<i>A. lineare</i> L.	9.01	190	2.9	127.5	212	29.5	177.3	298.7
<i>A. suaveolens</i> Jacq.	18.9	167	3.9	127.5	267	32.7	176.9	301.7
<i>A. hymenorrhizum</i> Ledeb.	14.4	220	3.1	127.9	235	28.3	178.8	300.4
<i>A. obliquum</i> L.	15.7	117	3.8	128.4	198	23.4	180.9	306.2
<i>A. altaicum</i> Pall.	11.6	111	3.8	122.6	139	19.9	172.5	293.6
<i>A. fistulosum</i> L.	17.3	111	2.8	127.9	197	24.4	172.4	293.2
<i>A. galanthum</i> Kar. & Kir.	12.8	215	3.4	124.8	283	29.1	172.3	294.1
<i>A. oschaninii</i> O. Fedtsch.	13.9	178	2.6	122.9	146	16.8	172.6	302.5
<i>A. pskemense</i> B. Fedtsch.	11.7	170	2.7	119.2	138	14.5	172.2	292.9
<i>A. altynolicum</i> N. Friesen	17.9	169	2.6	128.8	252	23.7	174.0	295.2
<i>A. ledebourianum</i> Schult. & Schult. F.	9.3	237	2.6	121.1	233	21.2	170.6	293.8
<i>A. oliganthum</i> Kar. & Kir.	11.9	187	2.7	122.4	218	19.6	169.8	289.8
<i>A. schoenoprasum</i> L.	13.6	200	2.8	123.6	204	18.4	173.0	294.6
<i>A. ramosum</i> L.	14.5	110	4.2	119.4	157	18.6	180.1	304.5
<i>A. tuberosum</i> Rottler ex Spreng	12.4	256	2.9	133.4	254	31.7	176.7	294.2
<i>A. narcissiflorum</i> Vill.	19.3	139	2.9	128.7	167	19.4	171.8	292.9
<i>A. chyatophorum</i> Bureau & Franch	17.8	227	3.2	125.5	250	26.5	171.4	291.2
<i>A. gultschense</i> O. Fedtsch.	10.1	158	2.9	130.4	289	19.4	172.2	293.8
<i>A. sewerzowii</i> Regel	14.1	170	3.9	122.8	213	23.8	185.0	311.3
<i>A. aflatunense</i> B. Fedtsch.	12.9	187	3.1	130.8	287	24.2	181.6	298.5
<i>A. libani</i> Boiss.	8.6	145	2.7	119.4	159	20.1	170.8	291.2
<i>A. cyrilli</i> Ten.	10.9	189	4.2	127.9	147	24.5	172.8	294.1
<i>A. altissimum</i> Regel	12.6	162	2.8	126.5	248	27.6	174.9	296.9
<i>A. komarowii</i> Lipsky	12.9	175	2.9	129.8	256	25.8	171.4	291.2
<i>A. suworowii</i> Regel	13.7	151	3.8	133.5	261	28.9	181.3	298.6
<i>A. chamaemoly</i> L.	12.8	146	3.8	123.7	258	22.4	173.3	294.6
<i>A. angulosum</i> L.	12.0	158	3.7	122.4	187	23.1	172.2	293.5
<i>A. montanum</i> F.W. Schmidt	11.8	156	3.9	125.6	198	29.0	172.4	293.5
<i>A. nutans</i> L.	13.9	163	3.7	128.7	195	25.3	173.2	294.9
<i>A. senescens</i> L.	14.0	167	3.0	120.0	200	26.9	171.5	292.1
<i>A. victorialis</i> L.	18.6	154	3.8	131.8	254	27.4	179.9	304.0
Mean (M)	13.6	175.3	3.3	126.0	219.1	24.2	174.4	296.0
Standard deviation (σ)	2.9	37.5	0.6	4.1	46.8	4.9	3.9	5.0

(296.0 × 10<sup>-3</sup>% ± 5.0 × 10<sup>-3</sup>% DW). Therefore, the studied representatives of the genus *Allium* L. (Table 4) can be supreme potential sources of biologically active compounds (Ivanova *et al.*, 2019).

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