

1 **Exploiting plant adaptations: peppermint makes you hurry whilst**
2 **lavender helps you linger (a pilot experiment)**

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5

6 **Abstract**

7 The effects of fragrances on humans have received much attention. We hypothesise
8 that fragrances have differing effects due to their different adaptive strategies. In
9 the natural world, peppermint acts as an herbivore deterrent whilst lavender is likely
10 involved in attraction, and potentially, retention of pollinators. We predicted that
11 these strategies would manifest themselves in human subjects as a tendency to
12 hurry when exposed to peppermint fragrance and to linger when exposed to
13 lavender. We tested this hypothesis using a priming paradigm as a novel method to
14 measure the effects of fragrance on human behavior. After reducing the confounds
15 of expectancy and demand characteristics that have impacted previous studies, we
16 showed that, as predicted, lavender fragrance results in a longer time to walk down
17 a corridor compared to peppermint.

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19 **Keywords:** expectancy characteristics, fragrances , olfaction, priming.

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21

22 **Introduction**

23 Much attention has been afforded to the effects of fragrances on humans; including
24 effects on mood, behaviour, physiology (Herz 2009), and the mechanisms by which
25 these occur (Aprotosoiaie et al. 2014; Gostner et al. 2014). However, the question of
26 why fragrances have these properties has received less attention.

27

28 Traditionally, the production of secondary metabolites has been considered costly,
29 however, recent evidence suggests that plants exploit multiple strategies to reduce
30 these costs (Neilson et al. 2013). However costly, fragrances must provide an
31 adaptive benefit. Whilst plant fragrances are targeted for defense and pollinator
32 attraction, humans exploit them for activities such as aromatherapy. We hypothesise
33 that the differences in the perceived effects of fragrances may result from the
34 different functions that they perform in their natural environment.

35

36 Peppermint leaves produce high levels of monoterpenes (Gershenzon 2000),
37 volatile substances that have been implicated in a variety leaf defense mechanisms
38 (Langenheim 1994). The fragrance produced by peppermint leaves acts as a
39 deterrent to herbivores and has been shown to possess properties that repel the
40 two-spotted spider mite (Momen et al. 2001). It should be noted that a range of
41 essential oils, including peppermint and lavender, have been shown to be effective
42 insecticides against some pest species (Cloyd et al. 2009; Shaaya et al. 1991).
43 However, the concentrations of oils experienced by the insects in this context are
44 much greater than would be experienced by insects in the natural environment.

45

46 In humans, peppermint fragrance administered on an adhesive strip under the nose
47 has been shown to increase athletic performance (Raudenbush et al. 2001).
48 Peppermint may also affect physiological measures when participants are not
49 explicitly aware that it is being administered. Sleeping participants displayed
50 increased heart rate and a greater frequency of EEG bursts when exposed to
51 peppermint fragrance (Badia et al. 1990).

52

53 Fragrances produced by leaves can be involved in attracting pollinators as well as
54 deterring herbivores. In marjoram the leaves produce fragrance which attracts
55 pollinators from a distance, while the fragrance from the flowers indicates nectar
56 location more precisely (Beker et al. 1989). Lavender plants may use a similar
57 strategy as both leaves and flowers produce fragrance. Linalool is a major
58 constituent of lavender fragrance and has been shown to produce anaesthetic
59 effects by blocking sodium channels (Leal-Cardoso et al. 2010). It is possible that the
60 fragrance reduces activity in pollinators, thus encouraging individuals to visit
61 multiple flowers rather than move to another species or patch. There is some
62 evidence to support this hypothesis: honey bee aggression can be reduced through
63 exposure to lavender fragrance (van der Burg et al. 2014), and a sedative effect of
64 lavender has been reported in mice (Buchbauer et al. 1991) and humans
65 (Aprotosoiaie et al. 2014). Lavender fragrance has also been reported to increase the
66 amount of time customers spent in a restaurant (Guéguen and Petr 2006).

67

68 Previous fragrance studies involving humans have highlighted the issues of
69 participant expectancies and demand characteristics (Herz 2009; Howard and

70 Hughes 2008; Ilmberger et al. 2001). In order to reduce these confounds, we piloted
71 a priming paradigm based on a study by Bargh and colleagues (Bargh et al. 1996).
72 Participants were primed with a fragrance and the time taken to walk down the
73 corridor, after leaving the experiment, was measured. This paradigm has the
74 advantage that the participants believe the experiment has finished and are
75 therefore less likely to display demand characteristics.

76

77 Participants were exposed to either lavender or peppermint fragrance. We predicted
78 that the time taken to walk down a specified length of corridor would be longer for
79 those participants exposed to lavender than for those exposed to peppermint
80 fragrance.

81

82 In order to establish whether fragrance can affect behaviour without participants
83 being aware, half of the participants were explicitly informed that the research study
84 was investigating the effects of fragrance, while the other half were informed that
85 the study was investigating the effects of the time of day. The fragrance to which
86 they were exposed, and any of its associations, were not discussed with participants.
87 It was predicted that the effect of the fragrance on walking time would be enhanced
88 when participants had been made explicitly aware of the fragrance.

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94 **Methods**

95 Participants were taking part in an experiment investigating the effects of fragrance
96 on reaction times (not presented here) and the time taken for them to walk down
97 the corridor was included as an extra measure.

98

99 Using a similar method to that reported for previous studies (Colzato et al. 2014;
100 Sellaro et al. 2015), fragrance was diffused into the experiment room before testing.
101 The fragrance was dispensed using a Vortex Activ USB (Dale Air, Rochdale, UK), a
102 dispensing system with four independent fans. The room was odour-neutral prior to
103 any fragrance being dispensed. The dispenser was placed on a shelf next to the desk
104 at which the participants completed the computer-based reaction time task. The
105 dispenser was set back on the shelf so as to reduce its conspicuousness. Three drops
106 of pure essential peppermint or lavender oil (Neal's Yard Remedies, Dorset, UK)
107 were placed onto a Vortex cartridge and the cartridge was placed into the dispenser.
108 Separate cartridges were used for the different fragrances to ensure there was no
109 mixing. Each cartridge was used three times and then replaced. The same fan was
110 used for both fragrances to ensure they were dispensed at equal rates. The
111 dispenser was switched on 20 minutes before the start of the experiment to ensure
112 that the fragrance had time to diffuse throughout the room. The machine continued
113 to dispense fragrance throughout the experiment.

114

115 Participants completed a computer-based reaction time task, and were informed
116 either that the research was investigating the 'effects of fragrance' or the 'effects of
117 time of day' on reaction times. While participants in the latter condition were still

118 able to perceive the fragrance, their attention was not drawn to its presence and
119 most importantly they were not aware of its relevance to the study. The initial
120 briefing and reaction time task lasted 20 mins in total (a similar amount of time to
121 that required for fragrance molecules to reach the blood stream and produce
122 physiological effects (Herz 2009)). Participants were then thanked and reimbursed
123 for their time. To minimise fragrance diffusion into the corridor, the door from the
124 experiment room remained closed until the participant was ready to leave and was
125 shut again immediately after their departure.

126

127 Two motion sensors were mounted on the wall of the corridor outside the
128 experiment room. The first sensor was 0.5m from the door, allowing participants
129 space to turn out of the door before measurements began. The second sensor was
130 4.55m further down the corridor. The motion sensors were wireless and
131 broadcasted to a receiver. The receiver was connected to an amplifier through which
132 accurate timings could be recorded using the software Spike (CED, Cambridge, UK).

133

134 Participants gave written consent in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki, and
135 the experiment was approved by the Local Research Ethics Committee (School of
136 Biosciences, Cardiff University, UK). Participants were reimbursed for their time. All
137 participants were requested to avoid caffeine for three hours prior to the study.

138 Twenty-six naïve participants completed the experiment. One participant reported
139 having consumed caffeine 30 mins prior to participation and their data was excluded
140 from the analysis.

141

142 **Results**

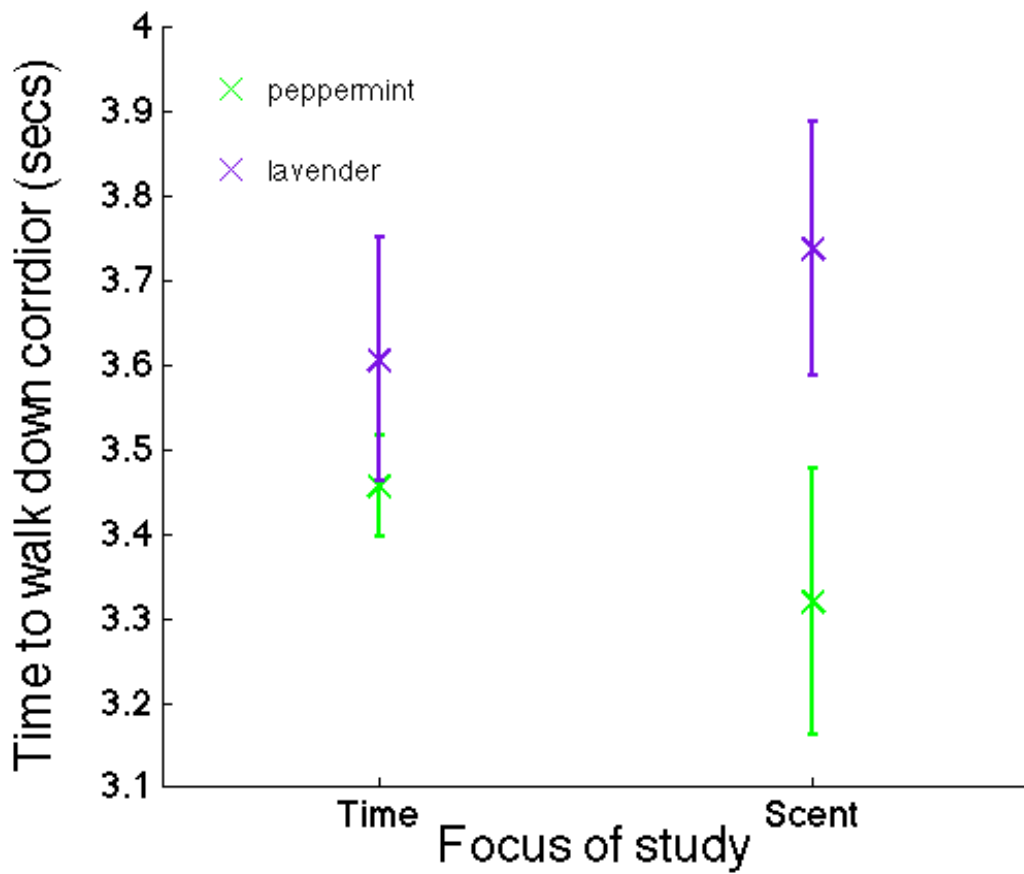
143 Participants were assigned to one of four conditions: lavender with fragrance
144 explanation (n=7); lavender with time of day explanation (n=6); peppermint with
145 fragrance explanation (n=5); peppermint with time of day explanation (n=7).
146 Due to the unbalanced data, results were analysed with a model simplification
147 approach using the lme4 package (Bates et al. 2011) in R (R Development Core Team
148 2011), with the initial general linear model including ‘fragrance’, ‘explanation’ and
149 the interaction. Models were compared using the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC),
150 with a lower AIC being more preferable. This approach identified the best model to
151 consist only of the factor ‘fragrance’ (see Table 1), indicating that there was no
152 interaction between ‘fragrance’ and ‘explanation’ and that ‘explanation’ alone did
153 not significantly affect the time to walk down the corridor. Compared to peppermint
154 fragrance, exposure to lavender fragrance significantly increased time to walk down
155 the corridor ($F(1,23)=4.733, p=.040$, see Figure 1).

156

157 Table 1. Comparison of GLM models based on the Akaike Information Criterion

Model	AIC
Fragrance + Explanation + Interaction	52.45
Fragrance + Explanation	53.24
Explanation	55.24
Fragrance	50.64

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159

160 Figure 1. Mean (\pm standard error) time to walk down the corridor was longer when
 161 participants were exposed to lavender fragrance compared to peppermint fragrance.

162

163 **Discussion**

164 It was hypothesised that peppermint and lavender fragrances have differing effects
165 on humans due to their different adaptive strategies. Peppermint is derived from
166 monoterpenes which act as herbivore deterrents (Gershenzon 2000; Langenheim
167 1994) whilst lavender is likely involved in attraction, and potentially, retention of
168 pollinators. We predicted that these strategies would manifest themselves in human
169 subjects as a tendency to linger when exposed to lavender fragrance and to hurry
170 when exposed to peppermint.

171

172 As predicted, humans that had experienced peppermint fragrance took less time to
173 walk down the corridor than those that experienced lavender. This is consistent with
174 previous studies where peppermint has been shown to have energising properties
175 (Badia et al. 1990; Raudenbush et al. 2001; Raudenbush et al. 2009) and lavender
176 has been shown to have sedative effects (Aprotosoaie et al. 2014; Buchbauer et al.
177 1991; van der Burg et al. 2014), most likely due to its constituent, linalool, which
178 blocks sodium channels, producing an anaesthetic effect (Leal-Cardoso et al. 2010).
179 However, this is the first evidence that exposure to these fragrances could actively
180 modify walking behaviour after exposure has finished, and when participants are
181 unaware that their activity is being monitored. It is not possible to tell whether one
182 or both of the fragrances drove the difference between the walking speeds for the
183 two fragrances. This research was designed as a pilot experiment to test the
184 paradigm and a future experiment involving a greater number of participants could
185 also include a non-odour control to assess the magnitude of the modification to
186 walking speed for the different fragrances.

187

188 Previously expectancies and demand characteristics have been found to play a
189 significant role (Howard and Hughes 2008) in studies investigating fragrances,
190 however we found no significant effect of participants knowing that the fragrance in
191 the room was relevant to the study . We suggest that by taking measurements after
192 participants believed the study was finished, we substantially reduced the level of
193 demand characteristics that would otherwise be displayed.

194

195 In conclusion, the priming paradigm provides a novel way to measure the effects of
196 fragrance on human behaviour whilst reducing the confounds of expectancy and
197 demand characteristics that can have a large impact on fragrance studies. We
198 provide evidence that lavender fragrance may result in longer walking times,
199 compared to peppermint, and relate this effect to the differing adaptive strategies of
200 these fragrances in the natural world.

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