

Productivity Indicators of Five Safflower Cultivars (*Carthamus tinctorius* L.) Grown Under Lushnja, Albania, Climatic Conditions

^aNikollaq Bardhi, ^bElisabeta Susaj, ^aErta Dodona, ^bIrena Kallço, ^bGjergji Mero, ^cLush Susaj

^aAgricultural University of Tirana, Faculty of Agriculture and Environment, Department of Plant Production, Kodër Kamëz, 1032, Tirana, Albania

^bUniversity “Fan S. Noli”, Faculty of Agriculture, Department of Plant Production, Korçë, Albania

^cAgricultural University of Tirana, Faculty of Agriculture and Environment, Department of Horticulture, Kodër Kamëz, 1029, Tirana, Albania

Corresponding author:

Elisabeta Susaj

University “Fan S. Noli”, Faculty of Agriculture, Department of Plant Production, Korçë, Albania

Abstract

The study on the productivity indicators of five safflower cultivars was conducted during two consecutive years, 2011-2012, in Lushnja, Albania. A randomized complete block design with five safflower cultivars, 3 replications and plot size of 5 m²/variant in each replication, were used. Flower heads were harvested on full seed maturity, and from seeds there were determined the protein content (%), fatty acid content (%), moisture content (%), and fibre content (%). There were observed significant differences on total yield (kv/ha) and in biochemical indicators (protein, fatty acid, and fibre content). The highest yield was measured for “Espheau” (20.87 kv/ha), while the lowest yield was measured for “Guaimaro” (15.08 kv/ha). Protein content varied from 15.41 to 17.19%, fatty acid content varied from 28.11 to 22.77%, fibre content varied from 25.01 to 29.24%, and moisture and volatile substances content varied from 6.31 to 7.1%. The highest protein content was measured for “Ruggero” (17.19%), the highest fatty acid content was measured for “Guaimaro” (32.77%), and the highest fibre content was measured for “Espheau” (29.24%). There were not observed significant differences between cultivars on the moisture content. “Bellisario”, “Ruggero” and “Espheau” can be recommended for cultivation in lowland of Albania.

KEYWORDS: fatty acid content, fibre content, indicator, protein content, safflower, yield.

INTRODUCTION

Safflower (*Carthamus tinctorius* L.) is one of the world’s oldest crops, highly branched, herbaceous, thistle like annual herb. It belongs to the *Asteraceae* Family of the *Compositae* broad group. The safflower is a warm temperature crop, originated from Southern Asia, cultivated all over the world (Knowles, 1969), from tropical Asia, Africa (Oyen & Umali, 2007) and Australia (Knights *et al.*, 2001), to Europe (Çamaş *et al.*, 2007) and USA (Oelke *et al.*, 1992). In Albania, there is grown as a native plant the species *Carthamus lanatus* L. (Demiri, 1971; Bardhi *et al.*, 2007). The color of flower varies from white, light yellow, yellow to red orange. It is known as

alazor, American saffron, bastard saffron, benibana, benibana flower, cártamo, carthame, false saffron, hing hua, honghua, huile de carthame, kusumbha, kardi, kussum, etc. The color of flower varies from whitish yellow to red orange, the most common being deep yellow. Safflower flowers contain two pigments, red (*carthamin*), which is insoluble in water, and yellow (*carthamidin*), which is soluble in water and mainly used as a dye and as a natural food colorant (Machewad *et al.*, 2012). The alkaline extracts were used for dyeing silk, wool, cotton and paper, to make the pigment in the state of the precipitate and ancient Chinese manufactured and produced it as red paint for cosmetics (Wouters *et al.*, 2010). Two parts of the safflower are primarily used: the flower itself and safflower seeds. Safflower (*Carthamus tinctorius* L.) has been grown for centuries, primarily for its colorful petals to use as a food coloring and flavoring agent, for vegetable oils and also for preparing textile dye in the Far East, Central and Northern Asia and European Caucasian. There is a growing interest in the use of natural dyes in textile coloration. On the other hand, the stringent environmental standards are imposed by many countries. Eco-friendly and biodegradable dyes derived from natural resources have emerged as important alternative to synthetic dyes. Safflower petals contain about 30% yellow pigment and 0.83% red pigment (Nagaraj, *et al.*, 2001; Kulkarni *et al.*, 2001). Safflower pigments are widely used as stain, additive in beverages, desserts, and cosmetics, printing and dyeing (Wang & Lijie, 2001). Traditionally safflower was grown for its flowers, which were used as a fabric dye, a food dye and medicinal purposes. A wide range of colors, expensive dyes were used to dye the analyzed silk yarns, cocoid dyestuffs, madder, weld, young fustic, tannins and an indigoid dye were identified in a 16th century tapestry. Moreover, the use of safflower has been assessed for the first time in a European fabric (Degano *et al.*, 2011). Today, mainly seeds are used for different purposes: as a high quality edible, for receiving an industrial and domestic oil, as a bird feed, fish feed, pig feed, as a forage for ruminants, etc (Knowles, 1989; Mayntz, 2013; Corleto *et al.*, 1997; Guangwei & Dayue, 1999). Safflower seeds contain 35-45% oil, 15-20% protein and 35-45% hull fraction. Vegetable oil is one of the fundamental components in foods and has important functions regarding human health and its nutritional physiology. The demand for vegetable oils for food purposes has entailed a considerable expansion of oilseed crops all over the world (Corleto *et al.*, 1997; GRDC, 2010). Particularly, consumers have demanded healthier oils, naturally low in saturated fat such as olive, safflower, canola and sunflower oils. Safflower has been received a lot of publicity recently, not so much for its colorful petals, but because it is hailed as one of the most important sources of vegetable oils. In the US diet, safflower oil has been frequently substituted for oils with higher saturated fat content, as monounsaturated fat may have a beneficial effect on the risk of coronary heart diseases. Some clinical studies have shown that safflower oil supplementation may be helpful in patients with cystic fibrosis, Friedreich's ataxia, and neurotoxicity from lithium. In traditional Chinese medicine, safflower is used for promoting blood circulation, removing blood stasis, amenorrhea (absence of menstruation), cardio vascular diseases pain, and traumatic injuries. It is also used to "calm" a live fetus and abort a dead fetus, and is therefore used cautiously during pregnancy (Healthline, 2013). Many Chinese medicines are prepared by using dried flowers and extract of flowers. Now-a-days the medicinal uses of flowers in China have become known to the rest of the world. These medicinal preparations have been widely accepted which helps in increasing the demand for the safflower petals. Choi *et al.* (2004) have found that safflower polyphenols have the effect of improving blood lipid status via increasing HDL-cholesterol formation and

cholesterol excretion without significant uterotrophic action in estrogen-deficient animals, while Moon *et al.* (2001) have found that supplementation of SSE or SSW is very effective in improving the atherogenic risk factors in high-cholesterol fed rats. Herbel *et al.* (1998) have shown that addition of safflower oil to the diet significantly reduced the plasma total cholesterol and LDL-cholesterol concentrations. Safflower pigments are safe for food and have curative effects on diseases such as lack of oxygen coronary heart diseases, myocardial infarction, cerebral thrombosis and renal thrombosis etc (Shouchun *et al.*, 1993).

Safflower has attracted significant interest as an alternative oil seed due to its high adaptability for dry climatic conditions with little precipitation and saline soils (Bassil & Kaffka, 2002). This plant is considered as a drought tolerant crop which is capable of obtaining moisture from levels not available to the majority of crops (Oelke *et al.*, 1992; Çamaş *et al.*, 2007). Safflower can also be grown successfully on soil with poor fertility and in areas with relatively low temperatures, but the introduction of a new crop to a regional cropping system requires information concerning its performance under local environmental conditions. In Albania, the safflower cultivation has just started with a small area under cultivation, but there is a perspective, especially in hilly and dry areas, as spring or winter plants, since there are very suitable climate conditions (Bardhi *et al.*, 2007). Among the biomass resources, vegetable oils seem to have the highest potential to be used as fuel alternatives for diesel engines (Isiğür *et al.*, 1993).

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Experimental design. The study was conducted during two consecutive years, 2011-2012, in Lushnja, in the central part of Albania. The plot was situated in a plane land with a sloping gradient from 1% to 2%, and a planting density of 133330 plants ha⁻¹ (50 cm x 15 cm). A randomized complete block design (RCBD) with five safflower cultivars, 3 replications and plot size of 5 m², containing 67 safflower plants for variant in each replication, were used. The total experiment size was 75 m². No irrigation possibilities existed in the plot and no irrigation was conducted throughout the whole experimental period. The climate in Lushnja and all over Albania was dry in the summer with a typical Mediterranean distribution of precipitation from autumn to spring. The mean climatic data for the period January 2011-December 2012 were collected in the field by the researchers (Table 1).

Table 1. Climatic data for Lushnja, Albania, for the period January-December 2012

| Climatic data | Jan | Feb | Mar | Apr | May | Jun | Jul | Aug | Sep | Oct | Nov | Dec |
|--------------------------|------|------|------|------|-------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| Temperature (°C) | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| I st decade | 8.8 | 8.2 | 9.6 | 13.2 | 16.8 | 21.0 | 23.5 | 25.8 | 23.2 | 19.1 | 14.5 | 10.2 |
| II nd decade | 8.2 | 9.1 | 10.6 | 14.0 | 18.4 | 22.1 | 24.7 | 25.3 | 21.2 | 17.6 | 14.1 | 9.8 |
| III rd decade | 8.0 | 9.4 | 12.4 | 15.4 | 19.47 | 23.8 | 25.2 | 23.8 | 20.4 | 16.1 | 11.4 | 9.4 |
| Rainfall (mm) | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| I st decade | 43.8 | 23.7 | 31.2 | 22.7 | 19.3 | 15.2 | 12.1 | 6.4 | 13.8 | 31.8 | 48.6 | 40.6 |
| II nd decade | 46.5 | 52.8 | 30.8 | 33.9 | 18.4 | 16.1 | 11.2 | 14.1 | 23.5 | 29.4 | 50.5 | 38.7 |
| III rd decade | 28.1 | 27.9 | 32.7 | 27.8 | 27.2 | 8.4 | 9.1 | 14.9 | 18.6 | 29.3 | 35.1 | 47.8 |
| Humidity (%) | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| I st decade | 58 | 53 | 55 | 53 | 56 | 49 | 44 | 41 | 47 | 48 | 59 | 60 |
| II nd decade | 57 | 58 | 56 | 57 | 53 | 48 | 43 | 41 | 47 | 51 | 61 | 61 |
| III rd decade | 51 | 54 | 56 | 57 | 51 | 45 | 44 | 43 | 47 | 49 | 57 | 61 |

Plant material. Five safflower cultivars originated from Italy, “Bacum”, “Ruggero”, “Espheau”, “Belisario”, and “Guaimaro”, were used. Sowing was performed on March 15 with a sowing rate of 15 kg ha⁻¹, while the heads harvest was performed on July 30, at the full seed maturity. Samples of each cultivar, containing ten safflower plants, chosen randomly, for each cultivar on each replication, were measured and monitored to collect experimental data, such as plant height (cm), number of branches per plant, number of heads per plant, 1000 seeds weight (g), and total seed yield (kv ha⁻¹). Flower heads were harvested on full seed maturity and, from seeds of each cultivar on each replication, there were determined the protein content (PC) (%), fatty acid content (FAC) (%), moisture and volatile substances content (MVSC) (%), and fibre content (FC) (%).

Biochemical analyses

The seeds of each cultivar and replication were oven-dried at 40°C for 4 hours, using a ventilated oven, up to a moisture content of about 5%, and were then ground with a Waring blender. The safflower powder was used for protein and fatty acid content determination.

Protein content (PC) (%). Protein purification was performed using non-ionic detergents (0.2-0.5 M NaOH), as it is described by Roger *et al.* (2004) and Ersson *et al.* (2011), since NAOH is a good storage agent that combines solubilizing activity with prevention of endotoxin formation. A sample of 1 g of safflower powder was poured in the digestion apparatus, was added 15 g potassium sulphate, 1 g CuSO₄ * 5H₂O and 25 ml concentrated H₂SO₄. After two heating sessions in 120°C, solution was left in room temperature for 2 hours, taking care not to be hardened. Later, the solution was poured into the distiller tube test, using distilled water in minimal amount. Add into the expectant Erlenmeyer 25 ml H₂SO₄ 0.1N, 100 ml distilled water and 2-3 drops red methyl. Pass through the test tube 100-110 ml NaOH 32% for 10-11 seconds and gurgle water steam until in the Erlenmeyer will be 250 ml solution. Erlenmeyer solution will be titrated with NaOH 0.1 N, until the solution will get straw color. Protein content (%) was calculated by formula:

$$PC (\%) = \frac{[(V_1 \times N_1) - (V_2 \times N_2)] \times 0.014 \times 100 \times 6.25}{m}$$

Where: V₁ = H₂SO₄ 0.1N volume (ml), N₁= normality factor for H₂SO₄, V₂ = NaOH solution used for titration (ml), N₂ = normality factor of NaOH used for titration, and m = sample weight (g).

Fatty acid content (FAC) (%). Fatty acid content was determined according to the AOCS method (AOCS, 2009; Barthet & Dawn, 2004). A sample of 4 g of dried safflower seeds was superfine crashed, was poured in a filter bag and was extracted with petroleum ether for 6 hours in a Soxhlet system (B.Chi Universal Extraction System B-811, Germany). The oil extract was evaporated by distillation at a reduced pressure in a rotary evaporator at 40°C until the solvent was totally removed. The oil was extracted 3 times from a 2 g of air-dried seed sample by homogenization with hexane/isopropanol, 3:2 (v/v).

Moisture and volatiles content (MVC) (%). Moisture content was determined as it is described by ISTA (2007) and MoAFCP (1988). A sample of 10 g safflower seed powder was put in oven and heated at 130°C for 90 minutes, and was left in room temperature. After cooling, the sample was re-weighted. The difference between the first weight and the second one, expressed in %, was the sample moisture content.

Fibre content (FC) (%). Fibre content was determined according to the AOCS method (AOCS, 2009). A sample of 1 g from the sample used previously for moisture content determination was poured in a filter bag and was treated as above for fatty acid extraction. Then was treated with 360 ml H₂SO₄ 0.26N and was boiled for 30 min. After that, the solution was rinsed 2-3 times with hot distilled water and was re-boiled for 30 min, after adding KOH 0.23N. Solution was rinsed again with hot distilled water until in the presence of some drops phenylphthaleine will get pink color. Rinsed filters were dry for 2 hours at 130°C, were re-weighted, were poured into porcelain container and were put in the oven for 4 hours more at 600°C. After cooling, filter bags were re-weighted and was calculated fibre content according to the formula:

$$FC (\%) = \frac{[(f' - f) - (k' - k)]}{m} \times 100$$

Where: f' = weight of filter with the residue, f = empty filter weight, k' = container weight with residue, and k = empty container weight, 100 for percentage, and m = sample weight.

Statistical analyses. The data were object of ANOVA and differences among cultivars were tested using LSD test (Papakroni, 2001).

Biochemical analyses were carried out at the Microbiology Lab of the Agriculture Faculty at the University "Fan S. Noli" Korçë and at the Lab of "Olim" Company.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Morphological (vegetative) characters and total yield of safflower cultivars. The obtained data showed that there were significant differences between cultivars for the main vegetative characters. The mean plant height (cm) varied from 115.1 cm for "Ruggero" up to 163.1 cm for "Esepheau"; the mean number of branches per plant varied from 8.7 branches per plant for "Guaimaro" up to 10.7 branches per plant for "Bellisario"; the number mean of heads per plant varied from 15.1 heads per plant for "Guaimaro" up to 27.5 heads per plant for "Esepheau"; the mean 1000 – seeds weight (g) varied from 31.53 g for "Esepheau" up to 50.35 g for "Guaimaro", while the mean total seed yield (kv ha⁻¹) varied from 13.8 kv ha⁻¹ for "Ruggero" up to 20.9 kv ha⁻¹ for "Esepheau" (Table 2).

Table 2. Morphological (vegetative) characters and total yield (kv ha⁻¹), according to safflower cultivars (different letters indicate significant difference at P<0.05).

| Safflower cultivar | Plant height (cm) | Number of branches per plant | Number of heads per plant | 1000 – seeds weight (g) | Seed yield (kv ha ⁻¹) |
|--------------------|-------------------|------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| Bacum | 118.8 c | 10.5 a | 23.5 b | 41.75 | 17.9 b |
| Ruggero | 115.1 c | 10.4 a | 21 b | 44.33 b | 13.8 c |
| Espeheu | 163.1 a | 10.5 a | 27.5 a | 31.53 c | 20.9 a |
| Bellisario | 128.02 b | 10.7 a | 24.2 b | 46.09 b | 18.8 b |
| Guaimaro | 117.8 c | 8.7 b | 15.1 c | 50.35 a | 15.1 c |

There was found a strong right correlation between the plant height and the seed yield ($r = 0.83$), between the number of branches per plant and the number of heads per plant ($r = 0.88$), and between the number of heads per plant and seed yield ($r = 0.8$), while there was found a medium correlation between the plant height and the number

of branches per plant ($r = 0.7$) (Table 3 and Figure 1). The data were similar to some previous reports (Çamaş *et al.*, 2007; Arslan, 2007; Arslan & Küçük, 2005; Bassil & Kaffka, 2002; Baydar & Turgut, 1999).

Table 3. Correlation between morphological characters of safflower cultivars under Lushnja, Albania, climate conditions

| | <i>PH (cm)</i> | <i>NBP</i> | <i>NHP</i> | <i>SY (kv/ha)</i> |
|------------------------------|----------------|------------|------------|-------------------|
| Plant height (cm) | 1 | | | |
| Number of branches per plant | 0.314346 | 1 | | |
| Number of heads per plant | 0.710699 | 0.87954376 | 1 | |
| Seed yield (kv/ha) | 0.828184 | 0.48983295 | 0.80714 | 1 |

Previous reports have found that the highest seed yield of safflower cultivars ranged from 1168 to 3325 kg ha⁻¹ (Ada, 2012; Azari & Khajehpour, 2005; Çamaş *et al.*, 2007), thus, the lowest and the highest yields observed in the current study, were somewhat similar to those founds.

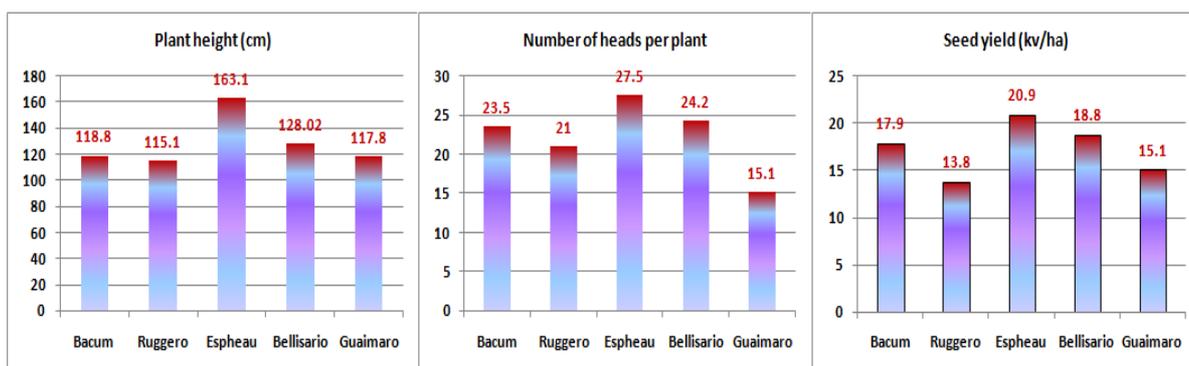


Figure 1. The plant height (cm), the number of heads per plant, and the seed yield (kv ha⁻¹) of five safflower cultivars grown under Lushnja, Albania, climate conditions.

Protein content (PC) (%). The observed data showed that for protein content (%) there were created two groups with significant differences. The highest mean protein content was observed for "Ruggero" by 17.19% (group a), while for group b, the mean protein content varied from 15.41% for "Guaimaro" to 15.75% for "Bellisario" (Table 4 and Figure 2).

Fatty acid content (FAC) (%). The obtained data showed that there were significant differences between cultivars for the fatty acid content. The highest fatty acid content was observed for "Guaimaro" by 32.77%, followed by "Bellisario" by 31.92%, while the lowest fatty acid content was observed for "Bacum" by 28.11% (Table 4 and Figure 2). Fatty acid content was higher than it was reported in some previous reports (Arslan, 2007; Coşge *et al.*, 2007; Vosoughkia *et al.*, 2011; Gecgel *et al.*, 2012) where was found that fatty acid content of different safflower varieties was affected by sowing time and variety. Fatty acid content in those reports for different varieties ranged from 24.53% to 28.47% in winter sowing and from 21.23% to 25.76% in spring sowing. Environmental factors such as soil and climatic ones have played an important role in change of fatty acid composition and temperature is the most important factor affecting fatty acid composition (Baydar & Turgut, 1999). The obtained data showed that safflower cultivars express very good productivity

characters (protein content and fatty acid content) under Lushnja, Albania, climate conditions.

Moisture content (MC) (%). The obtained data showed that there were not significant differences between cultivars for the moisture content and the seed moisture content was lower than the lowest accepted level (8%). Moisture content varied from 6.31% for “Ruggero” up to 7.1% for “Guaimaro” (Table 4 and Figure 2), which means that all these safflower cultivars have appropriate climate conditions in Lushnja and surrounded areas.

Fibre content (FC) (%). There were observed significant differences between cultivars for fibre content. Fibre content varied from 25.01% for “Guaimaro” up to 29.24% for “Espheau” (Table 4 and Figure 2).

Table 4. Protein content, fatty acid content, fibre content, and moisture content of different safflower cultivars under Lushnja climate conditions (different letters indicate significant difference at P<0.05).

| Safflower cultivars | Biochemical characteristics | | | |
|---------------------|-----------------------------|----------------|------------|----------------|
| | PC (%) | FAC (%) | MVC (%) | FC (%) |
| Bacum | 15.65 b | 28.11 c | 6.51 | 27.05 b |
| Ruggero | 17.19 a | 30.64 b | 6.31 | 25.4 c |
| Espeheu | 15.47 b | 29.61 b | 6.86 | 29.24 a |
| Bellisario | 15.75 b | 31.92 a | 6.96 | 27.84 b |
| Guaimaro | 15.41 b | 32.77 a | 7.1 | 25.01 c |

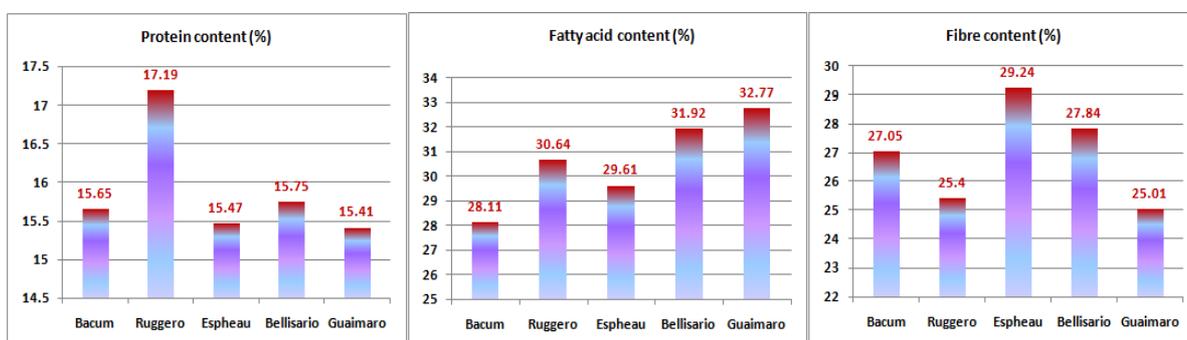


Figure 2. Protein content (%), fatty acid content (%), and fibre content (%) of five safflower cultivars grown under Lushnja, Albania, climate conditions.

CONCLUSIONS

The observed data indicated that the morphological characters, such as plant height, number of branches per plant, number of heads per plant, 1000-seeds weight, and biochemical seed characters, such as protein content, fatty acid content and fiber have been affected significantly by the cultivars. Five safflower cultivars showed generally a very good adaptation to the central Albania climate conditions. High values of oil content and seed yield must encourage the introduction and cultivation of this plant in Albania. Among the investigated cultivars, “Bellisario” seems to be the most appropriate cultivar with high seed yield (18.78 kv ha⁻¹), high protein content (15.75%), high fatty acid content (31.92%), relatively high moisture content (6.96%), and high fibre content (27.84%), followed by “Ruggero” with high protein content

(17.99%), high fatty acid content (30.64%), low moisture content (6.31%), and low fibre content (25.41%). Cultivar “Espheau” showed the lowest protein content (15.47%), relatively low fatty acid content (29.61%), relatively high moisture content (6.86%), and high fibre content (27.84%), but the highest seed yield (20.87 kv ha⁻¹). Cv. “Bellisario”, “Ruggero” and “Espheau” can be recommended for cultivation in different locations across central and western part of Albania, since they showed significantly high yield performance and oil content.

References

- Abdolrahmani, B. (2005) Effect of plant density on grain and oil yield of safflower Cv. Arak 2811 in dryland conditions. *Seed and Plant*, Vol. 20 (2): pp. 417-428.
- Ada, R. (2012) Effects of Winter and Spring Sowing on Yield Components of Safflower Genotypes. *World Academy of Science, Engineering and Technology*, Vol. 66 (2): pp. 622-626.
- AOCS. (2009) Official Methods and Recommended Practices of the American Oil Chemists, Society, 6th Edition, Editor David Firestone, 2009, 2nd Printing (1200 p): 235-278.
- Arslan, B. (2007) The Determination of Oil Content and Fatty Acid Composition of Domestic and Exotic Safflower (*Carthamus tinctorius* L.) Genotypes and Their Relationship. *Journal of Agronomy*, Vol. 6 (3): pp. 415-420.
- Arslan, B., Küçük, M. (2005) Oil content and fatty acid composition of some safflower cultivars in Van (Turkey). *Proceeding in VIth International Safflower Conference, Istanbul 6-10 June 2005*: pp. 167-175.
- Azari, A., Khajepour, M. R. (2005) Effect of planting pattern on development, growth, yield components and seed and petal yields of safflower in summer planting, local variety of Isfahan, Koseh. *Journal of Science, Technology, Agriculture and Natural Resources*, Vol. 9 (3): pp. 131-142.
- Bardhi, N., Rusinovski, I., Mero, Gj. (2001) *Oil Plants* (254 p): pp. 127-138.
- Barthet, V.J. , Dawn, J. K. (2004) Oil Content Analysis: Myths and Reality, In. *Critical Issues and Comparative methods: Chapter 6*: pp. 1-18. Available online at http://aevnmont.free.fr/SACH-BOOKS/Petrochemistry/Oil%20Extraction%20and%20Analysis/1893997782_CH06.PDF.
- Bassil, E. S., Kaffka, S. R. (2002) Response of safflower (*Carthamus tinctorius* L.) to saline soils and irrigation: I. Consumptive water use. *Agric. Water Manag.*, Vol. 54 (2): pp. 67-80.
- Baydar, H., Turgut, I. (1999) Variations of fatty acid composition according to some morphological and physiological properties and ecological regions in oilseed plants. *Turkish Journal of Agriculture and Forestry*, Vol. 23 (2): pp. 81-86.
- Choi, S. H., Lee, H. R., Kim, T. H., Choi, S. W., Lee, W. J., Choi, Y. (2004) Effects of defatted safflower seed extract and phenolic compounds in diet on plasma and liver lipid in ovariectomized rats fed high-cholesterol diets. *Journal of Nutrition Sciences Vitaminol (Tokyo)*, Vol. 50 (1): pp. 32-37.
- Corleto, A., Alba, E., Polognani, G. B., Vonghio, G. (1997) Safflower: A multipurpose species with unexploited potential and world adaptability. *Proceedings in 2nd International Safflower Conference, Bari, Italy, June 2-7, 1997*: pp. 23-31.
- Coşge, B., Gürbüz, B., Kiralan, M. (2007) Oil Content and Fatty Acid Composition of

- Some Safflower (*Carthamus tinctorius* L.) Varieties Sown in Spring and Winter. International Journal of Natural and Engineering Sciences 1 (3): pp. 11-15.
- Çamaş, N., Çirak, C., Esendal, E. (2007) Seed yield, oil content and fatty acids composition of safflower (*Carthamus tinctorius* L.) grown in Northern Turkey conditions. Journal of Faculty of Agriculture, OMU, Vol. 22 (1): pp. 98-104.
- Dajue, L., Mündel, H. H. (1996) Safflower (*Carthamus tinctorius* L.) Promoting the conservation and use of underutilized and neglected crops. 7. Institute of Plant Genetics and Crop Plant Research, Gatersleben / International Plant Genetic Resources Institute, Rome, Italy, 35 p.
- Degano, I., Lucejko, J. J., Colombini, M. P. (2011) The unprecedented identification of Safflower dyestuff in a 6th century tapestry through the application of a new reliable diagnostic procedure. Journal of Cultural Heritage, Vol.12 (2): pp. 295-299.
- Demiri, M. (1971) Excursionist Flora of Albania (735 p): pp. 375.
- Ersso, B., Rýden, L., Janson, J. C. (2011) Protein Purification. In: Protein Purification: Principles, High Resolution Methods and Applications, Third Edition, Vol. 54, Edited by Jan-Christer Janson © John Wiley and Sons, Inc: pp. 3-23, 402.
- Gegel, U., Demirci, M., Esendal, E., Tasan, M. (2012) Fatty Acid Composition of the Oil from Developing Seeds of Different Varieties of Safflower (*Carthamus tinctorius* L.) Journal of Oil and Fat Industries, Vol. 84 (1): pp. 47-54.
- GRDC (Grain Research and Development Corporation). (2010) Raising the bar with better safflower agronomy – Autumn 2010. Available online at <http://www.grdc.com.au/director/events/bookshop>.
- Guangwei, S., Dajue L. 1999. Research and development note: Health-care safflower oil, sesame and safflower / Newsletter 14: pp. 21-23.
- Healthline (2013). Safflower (*Carthamus tinctorius* L.). Available online at http://www.healthline.com/nat_standardcontent/safflower.
- Herbel, B. K., McGuire, M. K., McGuire, M. A., Shultz, T. D. (1998) Safflower oil consumption does not increase plasma conjugated linoleic acid concentrations in humans. The American Journal of Clinical Nutrition, Vol. 67 (1): pp. 332–337.
- Isiğür, A., Karaosmanoğlu, F., Aksoy, H. A., Hadullahpur, F., Gülder, Ö. L. (1993) Safflower seed oil of Turkish origin as diesel fuel alternative. Applied Biochemistry and Biotechnology, Vol. 39-40 (1): pp. 89-105.
- ISTA. (2007) ISTA Handbook on Moisture Determination. Editors H. Nijenstein, H., Nydam, J., Don, R. International Seed Testing Association, 248 pages: pp. 132-153.
- Knights, S. E., Wachsmann, N.G., Norton, R.M. (2001) Safflower (*Carthamus tinctorius* L.) production and research in Southern Australia. Proceeding in 5th International Safflower Conference, Williston, North Dakota and Sidney, Montana, July 23-27, 2001: pp. 235-239.
- Knowles, P. F. (1989) Safflower. In: Oil Crops of the World. Editors: Robelin, G., Downey, R. K., Ashri, A. McGraw Hill Publishing Company, New York (533 p): pp. 363-374.
- Knowles, P. F. (1969) Centres of plant diversity and conservation of crop germplasm: Safflower. Economical Botany, Vol. 21 (1): pp. 156-162.

- Kulkarni, D. N., Kulkarni, K. D., Tathe, S. (2001) Studies on the extraction of safflower yellow B and carthamin red pigment from safflower florets as food colorant. Proceedings of the 5th International Conference on Safflower, Williston, North Dakota and Sidney, Montana: pp. 321-324.
- Machewad, G. M. Ghatge, P., Chappalwar, V., Jadhav, B., Chappalwar, A. (2012) Studies on Extraction of Safflower Pigments and its Utilization in Ice Cream. Journal of Food Processing & Technology, August 2012: pp. 3-8.
- Mayntz, M. (2013) Safflower Seeds: What Are Safflower Seeds? Available online at <http://birding.about.com/od/Foods/a/Safflower-Seeds.htm>.
- MoAFCP (Ministry of Agriculture, Food and Consumer Protection). (1988). State Standards, Seeds: Moisture determination, STASH 1790/3-87: pp. 23-25.
- Moon, K. D., Back, S. S., Kim, J. H., K., Jeon, S. M., Lee, M. K., Choi, M. S. (2001) Safflower seed extract lowers plasma and hepatic lipids in rats fed high-cholesterol diet. Nutrition Research, Vol. 21 (6): pp. 895-904.
- Nagaraj, G., Devi, G. N., Srinivas, C. V. S. (2001) Safflower petals and their chemical composition. Proceedings of the 5th International Conference on Safflower, Williston, North Dakota and Sidney, Montana: pp. 301-302.
- Oelke, E. A., Oplinger, E. S., Teynor, T. M., Putnam, D. H., Doll, J. D., Kelling, K. A., Durgan, B. R., Noetzel, D. M. (1992). Safflower. Alternative Field Crop Manual, University of Winkinson-Extension, Cooperative Extension: pp. 134-154.
- Oyen, L. P. A., Umali, B. E. (2007) *Carthamus tinctorius* L. Record from Protabase.
- Van der Vossen, H. A. M., Mkamilo, G. S. (Editors). Plant Resources of Tropical Africa / Ressources vegetales de l'Afrique tropicale (PROTA), Wageningen, Netherlands: pp. 174-189.
- Papakroni, H. (2001) Used Programs on computer - (2) Excel. Teaching Student's Book, Agricultural University of Tirana Publications: pp. 165-175.
- Roger, J. F., Mills, E. N. C., Rigby, N. M., Shewry, P. R. (2004) Protein Extraction From Plant Tissues. In: Protein Purification protocols, Edited by Paul Cuttler (Methods in Molecular BiologyTM, Vol. 244: pp. 21-29, 249.
- Shouchun, W., Jianxiang, F., Rui, Z. (1993) The research and production of yellow pigments from safflower. Proceedings of the 3rd International Conference on Safflower, Beijing: pp. 869-879.
- Vosoughkia, M., Ghareaghag, L. H., Ghavami, M., Gharachorloo, M., Delkhosh, B. (2011) Evaluation of Oil Content and Fatty Acid Composition in Seeds of Different Genotypes of Safflower (*Carthamus tinctorius* L.). International Journal of Agricultural Science and Research Vol. 2 (1): pp. 59-66.
- Wang, Z., Lijie, D. (2001) Current situation and prospects of safflower products development in China. Proceedings of the 5th International Conference on Safflower, Williston, North Dakota and Sidney, Montana: pp. 315-319.
- Wouters, J., Grzywacz, C. M., Claro, A. (2010) Markers for Identification of Faded Safflower (*Carthamus tinctorius* L.) Colorants by HPLC-PDA-MS: ancient fibres, pigments, paints and cosmetics derived from antique recipes. Studies in Conservation, Vol. 55 (1): pp. 186-203.