POLLEN AND FUNGAL SPORE COMPOSITION VARIATIONS OF HONEYS ACCORDING TO DIFFERENT FEEDING METHODS

GULSAH YIL^{1*}, SEMIRAMIS KARLIDAG², ABUZER AKYOL², ABDURRAHMAN KOSEMAN², AYSE BURCIN UYUMLU³, MURAT YILMAZTEKIN⁴, SELIM ERDOGAN³ AND IBRAHIM SEKER⁵

¹Malatya Turgut Ozal University, Battalgazi Vocational School, Plants and Animal Production Department, Malatya-Turkey ²Malatya Turgut Ozal University, Akcadag Vocational School, Plants and Animal Production Department, Malatya-Turkey ³Inonu University, Faculty of Pharmacy, Basic Pharmaceutical Sciences Department, Malatya-Turkey ⁴Inonu University, Faculty of Engineering, Food Engineering Department, Malatya-Turkey ⁵Firat University, Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, Zootechny Department, Elazig-Turkey ^{*}Corresponding author's email: gulsah.saatcioglu@ozal.edu.tr

Abstract

Honey samples were collected from two districts of Malatya (Eastern Turkey) Battalgazi and Dogansehir for melissopalynological analysis after the honey season in 2018. The survey was conducted to 3 different feeding groups, Glucose, Sucrose, Bee Feed and a Control group in each study area. The samples were prepared according to Louveaux *et al.*, (1978) procedure. Melissopalynological examinations were done to determine both pollen grains and fungal spores for each feeding group and districts. According to the microscopic analyses the dominant pollen types were determined as *Astragalus, Cistus*, Poaceae, *Verbascum, Echium, Berberis, Artemisia, Plantago, Vicia, Onobrychis*, Cichorioideae, *Astragalus* pollen grains were most frequent in glucose and control groups, *Cistus* pollen grains were widely represented in sucrose and bee feed groups in both study area. Dominant fungal spore types were determined as *Aspergillus / Penicillium*, Urediniospores, *Cladosporium* and *Myrotechium. Aspergillus / Penicillium* spores were dominated almost all samples by varying degrees. Analysis of pollen grains and fungal spores is useful instrument for determining the botanical, geographical and ecological sources of honey. This paper could be guide to beekeepers for selecting convenient apiary domains and appropriate feeding methods for qualitative honeys and the study is also help agriculturists for increasing the crop yield, the bees could be diverting to less-preferred plants during forages by sugar manipulation in order to cultivation improving.

Key words: Honey, Pollen, Fungal spores, Malatya, Turkey.

Introduction

Honey is a bee product, occurred by the treatment of nectar, with invertase enzyme secreted by salivary glands in honeysacs. Honey bees visit various flowers for collecting nectar and pollen to produce honey. The chemical composition of honey varies depend on its botanical and geographical origin. Simple carbohydrates (fructose and glucose) consist 82.4 % of total carbohydrates and amino acids, vitamins, minerals are also included in honey content (Jeffrey & Echazarreta, 1996; Hermosin et al., 2003; Khan et al., 2007). The different botanical and geographical origins supply the honey various sense as color, aroma, bitter-sweet-sour-sour to sweet-mixture taste and nutritional constitution (Ball, 2007; Suntiparapop et al., 2012; Chanchao, 2013; Agussalim et al., 2015; Agussalim et al., 2019). Blossom honey could be divided into two groups. Monofloral honey is originated from one dominant species; polyfloral honey contains various plant taxa nectaries and pollen grains.

Proximately 60.000 worker bees take part in colonies of *Apis mellifera* L. and the huge number of individuals mean large amount of food requirement for nutrition, survival, development and health of the colony (Southwick & Heldmaier, 1987; Abou-Shaara, 2017). For such great colonies nectar is alone not sufficient, therefore beekeepers feed the colonies with different sugars (Abou-Shaara, 2017). Phloem liquid containing glucose, fructose and saccharose and the nectar obtain from this fluid (De la Barrera & Nobel, 2004). Inverted sugar (fructose and glucose) feeding could be more suitable for bees not to expend their biological sources because bees break down the saccharose into glucose and fructose during take nutriment but while this catabolic activity they deceive energy with the ratio 23.0 % (Zaboenko, 2000; Ceksteryte & Racys, 2006).

However if honeybee colonies are manipulated by sugar feeding they increase their visits for pollen because the honeybees ensure their sugar request from feeding as a consequence they do not need nectar but pollen requirement is proceed for development (Free, 1965; Gemeda *et al.*, 2018). This situation is beneficial for plant pollination in that not only the rising of foraging quantity but also the diversity of plant visits increase thus the plant pollination ratio ascends due to bee contact to stigmas, not nectaries mostly at the base of flowers (Free, 1965; Gemeda *et al.*, 2018). Herewith the manipulation could be use by people to increase the pollination of their own selected plants.

Honey is used for medicinal purposes by Egyptians, Greeks, Romans and Chinese traditionally for many years (Pasupuleti et al., 2017). It's nutritional and health beneficial properties make honey also popular nowadays in many cultures. For marketing quality of honey should be determined for have knowledge about its nutritional content. Determining mere chemical components is not enough for qualification of honey for all that knowing botanical, geographical and ecological origin is essential. Pollen grains give an idea about botanical and geographical origin however specifying of fungal spores give a chance to us make a decision about ecological origin of honey (Seijo et al., 2011). Fungal spores are involved in honey either by the nectar sucking or by secondary contamination (Pérez-Atanes et al., 2001). Thus the spore collection could be active or passive way by honeybees (Parish et al., 2020). To the former

researches fungal spores considered to be used as nutriment when the pollen diet is insufficient (Shaw, 1990; Parish *et al.*, 2020). Especially honey bee workers, feeding with fungal spores together with pollen grains, have longer span of life (Parish *et al.*, 2020).

Melissopalynological searches are useful process for define the sources of honey. These studies have conducted by researchers for years around the world (Herrero *et al.*, 2002; Tatlidil *et al.*, 2005; Ramos & Ferreras, 2006; Seijo *et al.*, 2011; Ramírez-Arriaga *et al.*, 2011; Fagúndez, 2016; Gunes *et al.*, 2017; Bandeira & de Novais, 2020; Pavlova *et al.*, 2021; Radaeski & Bauermann, 2021). In this study we aimed to determine botanical, geographical and ecological sources of honey and the differences between two study areas. Besides we conducted this study on 3 different feeding methods for indicate the effect of sugar manipulating on pollen preferences of honeybees.

Materials and Methods

Study Area: Battalgazi and Dogansehir are districts of Malatya city and take parts in East Anatolian region of Turkey. Battalgazi is placed in eastern (38°42'47" N, 38°36'59" E) and Dogansehir district is in southern (38°09'48" N, 37°87'91" E) Malatya (Fig. 1). The city is floristically rich by the elements of 3 phytogeographic region as Irano-Turanian (42.81 %), Mediterranean (7.82 %) and Euro-Siberian (3.84 %) (Karakuş, 2016). Malatya city is located south-east of Anatolian Diagonal and the endemism ratio is 21.1 % and the most abundant families of native flora are Asteraceae, Fabaceae, Brassicaceae, Lamiaceae, Poaceae (Karakuş, 2016).

Malatya Mountains are constituted by the south branch of South-eastern Toros Mountains and Dogansehir Plain is the largest lowland area of the city (Yakar *et al.*, 2014). Karakaya Dam borders Battalgazi and the altitude decreases from approximately 900 m to less than 700 m in this area (Arslan & Hayli, 2007).

Feeding methods: Glucose, sucrose and bee feed were used to determine the effect of different feeding methods on pollen variety in honey for beekeeping. The Caucasian race, *Apis mellifera caucasica* L. colonies supplemented with different sugars. Colonies were fed ad libitum (the supplement sugar types was added when it run out and the bees can reach at need) with plastic bee hive feeder

(25X48X3cm) placed in hives. For Sucrose group (S) the syrup was prepared with commercial "crystallized granulated sugar", by the ratio 1:1 water. For Glucose group (G) commercial "glucose syrup" (Brix 82,DE 37, Dextrose 14, Maltose 12) was diluated with water by the ratio 1:1 and For Bee Feed group (BF) "Pasteurized Bee Feed Syrup" (sucrose; 30-36%, glucose; 27-30%, fructose % 37-40, dry matter 72% \pm 2) was given to the colonies without any process. The Control group (C) were left the bees for visiting the flowers. Every feeding group, including control group, had 5 behives and arranged side by side at the same location.

Palynological methods: The initial colonies were set up 22/05/2018 in Battalgazi and Dogansehir districts and the honey was collected on 30/08/2018 from four different fed hives. In Malatya honey collection could be done only one time in a year, month August, because of the arid climatic features of the city. The 8 samples were prepared according to the methodology of Louveaux et al., (1978). Every feeding and control group were represented with 5 hives in both location and the pollen samples were prepared as 2 investigation material. Consequently glucose (G), sucrose (S), bee feed (BF) and control groups (C) were studied by 8 samples for each feeding methods (Fig. 2). The 10 gr of each honey dissolved in distilled water at 45°C and centrifuged at 3500 rpm for 10 minutes. Then supernatant was discarded. Basic fuchsine glycerine gelatin was added to the sample. Pollen examinations were carried out by Nikon Eclipse E100 microscope, 40X approchment and counted 300 pollen grain for each sample (Fig. 3). For fungal spore examinations same samples examined 100X approchment immersion object and scanned whole area over 22X22 cover glass.

The pollen descriptions were done according to Erdtman (1952; 1969), Wodehouse (1965), Aytuğ (1967), Charpin *et al.*, (1974), Faegri & Iversen (1975). Besides, during the study the two areas were visited for collecting the native flora specimens and then this specimens were made reference pollen samples accordingly Wodehouse (1965) method. The morphological spore identification was based on Domsch *et al.*, (1980), St-Germain & Summerbell (1996), Ellis and Ellis (1998), Grant Smith (2000), Watanabe (2002) and our references.



Fig. 1. Location of Malatya City (marked 2 study areas).



Fig. 2. Honey samples: In order; Bee Feed Group, Sucrose Group, Glucose Group, Control Group (Battalgazi-Dogansehir).



Fig. 3. A section of microscopic view a) X10 approchment, b) X40 approchment.

Results

The study was conducted during 2018 summer season (between end of May-end of August), in Battalgazi and Dogansehir districts of Malatya by a control group and 3 different feeding groups; glucose, sucrose and bee feed.

Pollen Analysis

In Battalgazi district *Cistus* (25.67%), *Astragalus* (16.33%), Poaceae (15.00%), *Verbascum* (9.67%) and *Echium* (7.67%) pollen grains were the most frequent taxa for glucose group (Fig. 4, Table 1). For sucrose group

Astragalus (24.67%), Cistus (14.67%), Verbascum (12.53%), Plantago (9.33%) and Poaceae (8.00%) were dominant taxa (Fig. 4, Table 1). Cistus (37.00%), Astragalus (13.00%), Verbascum (10.33%), Berberis (8.67%) taxa were arranged according to the value for bee feed group (Fig. 4, Table 1). For control group the most widely represented taxa were mainly ranged as Astragalus (16.67%), Cistus (12.67%), Artemisia (12.00%), Verbascum (12.00%), Plantago (10.00%), Echium (7.33%) (Fig. 4, Table 1).

In Dogansehir district for glucose group the most frequent taxa in honey were identified as Cistus (20.67%), Astragalus (14.33%), Vicia (12.67%), Echium (7.00%), Verbascum (6.67%), Plantago (6.33%), Onobrychis (5.33%) (Fig. 5, Tab 1). For sucrose group Astragalus (29.33%), Cistus (19.67%), Vicia (12.00%), Verbascum (9.33%) were dominant taxa (Fig. 5, Table 1). For bee feed group Cistus (20.67%), Astragalus (19.33%), Vicia (9.00%), Verbascum (8.67%), Berberis (8.00%), Cichorioideae (6.00%) taxa were investigated frequently (Fig. 5, Table 1). Astragalus (47.00%), Cistus (11.00%), Vicia (7.00%), Echium (5.67%) taxa were represented as most widely for control group (Fig. 5, Table 1). 30 taxa belong to 20 family were determined in both districts' honey samples. In Battalgazi Geraniaceae family, in Dogansehir Apiaceae family was not defined in the pollen preparations (Table 1).

A pollen frequency classification could be made while determining the botanical origin of the honey. If the percentage of pollen > 45%, the frequency could be accepted as "very frequent"; the percentage of pollen between 15–45, it could be named as "frequent"; 3–15% was accepted as "few"; 1–3% could be accepted as "very few"; if the percentage of pollen taxa was below 1% it could be admitted as "detected" (Barth, 2005) (Table 2).

Any pollen types accounted over % 45 in honey samples, the honey is accepted as monofloral honey (Louveaux *et al.*, 1978). In our study Dogansehir control group contained *Astragalus* pollen 47% ratios for this reason the honey could be called as *Astragalus* honey (Fig. 5, Tables 1 and 2).

Fungal spore analysis

In honey samples 19 types of fungal spores and hypha fragments were determined. In Battalgazi glucose group the dominant fungal spore types were found as *Aspergillus / Penicillium* (39.58%), Urediniospores (29.17%), *Cladosporium* (9.38%); sucrose group Urediniospores (49.46%), *Aspergillus / Penicillium* (18.28%), bee feed group *Asperillus / Penicillium* (36.36%), Urediniospores (29.75%), control group similarly with bee feed group by different percentage *Aspergillus/Penicillium* (49.22%), Urediniospores (32.81%) (Fig. 6, Table 3).

In Doganschir for glucose group Urediniospores (73.88 %) and *Aspergillus / Penicillium* (10.07 %) were observed as dominant fungal spore types. For sucrose group Urediniospores (27.85%), *Aspergillus / Penicillium* (17.72%), *Cladosporium* (11.39%), Myrotechium (7.59%) determined as most widely represented taxa. For Bee Feed group Urediniospores (38.37%), *Aspergillus / Penicillium* (27.91%) and for control group *Aspergillus / Penicillium* (63.87%), Urediniospores (14.19%) types determined frequently (Fig. 7, Table 3).

			-	<u>The pollen</u>	n spect	ra comparison aco	cordin	ig to feeding me	thods f	or each two loca	lity.				
	ŀ		Ī	Battalgazı	Ī				ļ		Doga.	nsehir			
elucose	%	Sucrose	%	Bee Feed	%	Control	%	Glucose	%	Sucrose	%	Bee Feed	%	Control	%
Cistus 2:	5.67 A	stragalus 2	24.67	Cistus	37.00	Astragalus	16.67	Cistus	20.67	Astragalus	29.33	Cistus	20.67	Astragalus	47.00
Astragalus 10	6.33 C	listus]	14.67	Astragalus	13.00	Cistus	12.67	Astragalus	14.33	Cistus	19.67	Astragalus	19.33	Cistus	11.00
Poaceae 1:	5.00 1	rbascum	12.33	Verbascum	10.33	Artemisia	12.00	Vicia	12.67	Vicia	12.00	Vicia	9.00	Vicia	7.00
Verbascum 9.	9.67 F	lantago 5	9.33	Berberis {	8.67	Verbascum	12.00	Echium	7.00	Verbascum	9.33	Verbascum	8.67	Echium	5.67
Echium 7.	7.67 P	oaceae 8	3.00	Plantago 🤅	3.67	Plantago	10.00	Verbascum	6.67	Onobrychis	4.00	Berberis	8.00	Boraginaceae	3.67
Plantago 4.	l.00 B	loraginaceae	2.67	Artemisia	3.00	Echium	7.33	Plantago	6.33	Papaver	3.67	Chicorideae	6.00	Verbascum	3.67
Papaver 3.	3.33 E	chium 2	2.33	Chicorideae	2.67	Poaceae	3.00	Onobrychis	5.33	Echium	3.33	Papaver	4.33	Lamiaceae	2.67
Asteraceae 2.	2.67 B	erberis 2	2.33	Lamiaceae	2.33	Papaver	2.67	Boraginaceae	4.00	Berberis	2.67	A. hippocastanum	4.00	Chicorideae	2.00
A.hippocastanum 2.	2.00 A	rtemisia	2.00	Asteraceae	1.67	Berberis	2.67	Artemisia	3.67	Plantago	2.33	Onobrychis	3.33	Papaver	2.00
Berberis 1.	.67 C	Chicorideae	2.00	Dianthus	1.67	A.hippocastanum	2.00	Papaver	2.33	A. hippocastanum	1.67	Asteraceae	2.33	Trifolium	2.00
Artemisia 1.	.33 A	hippocastanum	1.67	Papaver	1.67	Asteraceae	2.00	Asteraceae	2.00	Artemisia	1.67	Plantago	2.00	Plantago	1.67
Lamiaceae 1.	1.33 F	abaceae 1	1.67	Boraginaceae	1.33	Dianthus	1.67	Lamiaceae	2.00	Chicorideae	1.33	Trifolium	1.67	Artemisia	1.33
Chicorideae 1.	.00 A	nchusa 1	1.33	Calystegia	1.33	Fabaceae	1.67	A. hippocastanum	1.67	Anchusa	1.00	Dianthus	1.33	Tilia	1.33
Dianthus 1.	A 00.	vpiaceae 1	1.33	Onobrychis	1.33	Urtica	1.67	Poaceae	1.67	Boraginaceae	1.00	Artemisia	1.00	A. hippocastanum	1.00
Onobrychis 1.	N 00.1	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	1.33	Trifolium	1.33	Boraginaceae	1.33	Anchusa	1.33	Calystegia	1.00	Echium	1.00	Asteraceae	1.00
Anchusa 0.).67 F	apaver	1.33	A.hippocastanum	1.00	Medicago	1.33	Fabaceae	1.33	Trifolium	1.00	Fabaceae	1.00	Calystegia	1.00
Boraginaceae 0.).67 Ç	Juercus]	1.33	Echium	1.00	Chicorideae	1.00	Medicago	1.00	Fabaceae	0.67	Poaceae	1.00	Anchusa	0.67
Fabaceae 0.).67 L	Irtica 1	1.33	Medicago	1.00	Quercus	1.00	Geraniaceae	0.67	Asteraceae	0.33	Anchusa	0.67	Dianthus	0.67
Quercus 0.).67 C	alystegia	1.00	Quercus	1.00	Tilia	1.00	Quercus	0.67	Cup/Tax	0.33	Geraniaceae	0.67	Fabaceae	0.67
Apiaceae 0.).33 C	Jup/Tax 1	1.00	Urtica	1.00	Apiaceae	0.67	Berber is	0.67	Dianthus	0.33	Lamiaceae	0.67	Medicago	0.67
Calystegia 0.).33 C	Inobrychis 1	1.00	Anchusa (0.67	Calystegia	0.67	Trifolium	0.67	Geraniaceae	0.33	Boraginaceae	0.33	Cup/Tax	0.33
Cup/Tax 0.).33 A	Asteraceae (0.67	Apiaceae (0.67	Cup/Tax	0.67	Urtica	0.67	Hedysarum	0.33	Calystegia	0.33	Geraniaceae	0.33
Hedysarum 0.).33 L	Dianthus ().67	Cup/Tax (0.33	Hedysarum	0.67	Calystegia	0.33	Lamiaceae	0.33	Cup/Tax	0.33	Hedysarum	0.33
Medicago 0.).33 F	ledysarum ().67	Fabaceae (0.33	Lamiaceae	0.67	Chicorideae	0.33	Medicago	0.33	Hedysarum	0.33	On obrych is	0.33
Pinus 0.).33 L	amiaceae (0.67	Hedysarum (0.33	Onobrychis	0.67	Cup/Tax	0.33	Pinus	0.33	Medicago	0.33	Pinus	0.33
Rosaceae 0.).33 R	losaceae ().67	Pinus (0.33	Rosaceae	0.67	Dianthus	0.33	Poaceae	0.33	Pinus	0.33	Poaceae	0.33
Tilia 0.).33 T	rifolium ().67	Poaceae (0.33	Trifolium	0.67	Hedysarum	0.33	Quercus	0.33	Quercus	0.33	Quercus	0.33
Trifolium 0.).33 V	icia ().67	Rosaceae (0.33	Anchusa	0.33	Pinus	0.33	Rosaceae	0.33	Rosaceae	0.33	Rosaceae	0.33
Urtica 0.).33 F) inus ().33	Tilia (0.33	Pinus	0.33	Rosaceae	0.33	Tilia	0.33	Tilia	0.33	Berber is	0.33
Vicia 0.).33 T	ilia ().33	Vicia (0.33	Vicia	0.33	Tilia	0.33	Urtica	0.33	Urtica	0.33	Urtica	0.33
Geraniaceae 0.	00 0	jeraniaceae (00.0	Geraniaceae (0.00	Geraniaceae	0.00	Apiaceae	0.00	Apiaceae	0.00	Apiaceae	0.00	Apiaceae	0.00

240



Fig. 4. Dominant pollen taxa (%) for different feeding groups in Battalgazi.



Fig. 5. Dominant pollen taxa (%) for different feeding groups in Dogansehir.

Ta	ble 2. Pollen frequency in RJ sample	es: =ve	ry freque	ent, 🚺 =fi	requent, [=few,	very f	tected.	
	Таха	BG	BS	BBF	BC	DG	DS	DBF	DC
1.	Aesculus hippocastanum								
2.	Anchusa								
3.	Apiaceae								
4.	Artemisia								
5.	Asteraceae					_			
6.	Astragalus								
7.	Boraginaceae								
8.	Calystegia								
9.	Chicorideae								
10.	Cistus								
11.	Cupressaceae/Taxaceae					_			
12.	Dianthus								
13.	Echium								
14.	Fabaceae								
15.	Geraniaceae								
16.	Hedysarum								
17.	Lamiaceae								
18.	Medicago								
19.	Onobrychis								
20.	Papaver								
21.	Pinus								
22.	Plantago								
23.	Poaceae								
24.	Quercus								
25.	Rosaceae								
26.	Berberis								
27.	Tilia								
28.	Trifolium								
29.	Urtica								
30.	Verbascum								
31.	Vicia								

Discussion

The comparatively feeding method melissopalynological study was conducted at summer season of 2018 in two different districts of Malatya (Eastern Turkey). The honey samples investigated palynologically for pollen grains and fungal spores. According to the microscopic analyses the dominant pollen types were determined as Astragalus, Cistus, Poaceae, Verbascum, Echium, Berberis, Artemisia, Plantago, Vicia, Onobrychis, Cichorioideae. Astragalus and Cistus pollen grains were found in all samples with a ratio of over % 5 (Figs. 4-5, Table 1). By microscopic analyses of fungal spores Aspergillus / Penicillium, Urediniospores, Cladosporium and Myrotechium were defined as dominant types. Former ones were determined in all samples as most frequent taxa (Figs. 6-7, Table 3).

According to similar studies about botanical and geographical origins of honey; in Portugal Lavandula, Echium, Eucalyptus (Aira et al., 1998), In Antalya-Turkey Apiaceae, Asteraceae, Fabaceae, Lamiaceae, Rosaceae families (Silici & Gokceoglu, 2007), In Mardin- Turkey Hedysarum sp., Carduus sp., Melissa officinalis, Gossypium hirsitum, Paliurus spina-christi, Salix sp., Pimpinella anisum (Cenet et al., 2017), in Ethiopia Fabaceae, Asteraceae,

Lamiaceae families (Bareke & Addi, 2019), in Iran Astragalus, Xeranthemum / Achillea, Eryngium, Prosopis, Pyrus / Prunus, Onobrychis / Alhagi, Centaurea, Cousinia / Centaurea, Plantago and Solanum (Khansaritoreh et al., 2021) were the dominant plant taxa to pollen analysis.

Apidae members prefer Astragalus genus flowers because of papilionaceous form (Green & Bohart, 1975). This form causes the pollination is happening sternotribic as the bee lands on the keel and for sucking the nectar presses under the standard during the forage (Faegri & van der Pijl, 1971; Kozuharova & Firmage, 2007). For Dogansehir Control group Astragalus pollen grains constituted 63.87 % of total pollen count in honey for this reason the honey could be called as Astragalus honey (Fig. 5, Tables 1-2). Not only DC group but also in BC, BS and DS groups Astragalus pollen grains were found as most frequent taxon (Figs. 4-5, Table 1). The dominancy of Astragalus pollen in honey samples could be related with relatively abundant flowers of this taxon in the area (Green & Bohart, 1975). However the glucose ratio of most Astragalus species is more than to other monosaccharides according to rare studies about Astragalus sugar content; so the bees would prefer directly supplying glucose from this taxon instead of sucrose hydrolysing (Ebrahimzadeh et al., 2000; Niknam & Lisar, 2004).

to feeding methods for each two locality.	Doganschur	ucose % Sucrose % Bee Feed % Control %	m 73,88 Urediniospores 27,85 Urediniospores 38,37 Asp/Pen 63,87	iospores 10,07 Asp/Pen 17,72 Asp/Pen 27,91 Urediniospores 14,19	porium 1,87 Cladosporium 11,39 Coprinus 4,65 Ascomycetes 3,87	aria 1,49 Myrotechium 7,59 Myrotechium 3,49 Cladosporium 3,87	ycetes 1,49 Coprinus 3,80 Alternaria 2,33 Hypha 1,94	lerma 1,49 Gyromitra 3,80 Ascomycetes 2,33 Agrocybe 1,29	us 1,12 Nigrospora 3,80 Cladosporium 2,33 Alternaria 1,29	1,12 Agrocybe 2,53 Ganoderma 2,33 Bipolaris 1,29	whe 0,75 Ascomycetes 2,53 Hypha 2,33 Fusarium 1,29	ris 0,75 Fusarium 2,53 Rhizopus 2,33 Nigrospora 1,29	itra 0,75 Ganoderma 2,53 Smut 2,33 Torula 1,29	0,75 Hypha 2,53 Agrocybe 1,16 Coprinus 0,65	pora 0,75 Smut 2,53 Bipolaris 1,16 Ganoderma 0,65	us 0,75 Torula 2,53 Fusarium 1,16 Gyromitra 0,65	0,75 Alternaria 1,27 Gyromitra 1,16 Myrotechium 0,65	techium 0,75 Bipolaris 1,27 Nigrospora 1,16 Rhizopus 0,65	um 0,37 Rhizopus 1,27 Torula 1,16 Smut 0,65	schium 0,37 Trichotechium 1,27 Trichotechium 1,16 Venturia 0,65	ia 0,37 Xylaria 1,27 Venturia 1,16 Trichotechium 0,00	
according to feedin		Glucose	Asp/Pen	Urediniospores	Cladosporium	Alternaria	Ascomycetes	Ganoderma	Coprinus	Smut	Agrocybe	Bipolaris	Gyromitra	Hypha	Nigrospora	Rhizopus	Torula	Trichotechium	Fusarium	Myrotechium	Venturia	
rison ac		%	49,22	32,81	1,56	1,56	1,56	1,56	1,56	1,56	1,56	0,78	0,78	0,78	0,78	0,78	0,78	0,78	0,78	0,78	0,00	
spectra compa		Control	Asp/Pen	Urediniospores	Agrocybe	Ascomycetes	Coprinus	Hypha	Myrotechium	Torula	Xylaria	Alternaria	Bipolaris	Cladosporium	Ganoderma	Gyromitra	Nigrospora	Rhizopus	Smut	Venturia	Fusarium	
al spore		%	36,36	29,75	4,13	3,31	3,31	2,48	2,48	2,48	2,48	1,65	1,65	1,65	1,65	1,65	1,65	0,83	0,83	0,83	0, 83	000
able 3. The tunga	Battalgazı	Bee Feed	Asp/Pen	Urediniospores	Myrotechium	Alternaria	Cladosporium	Hypha	Nigrospora	Rhizopus	Smut	Agrocybe	Coprinus	Ganoderma	Gyromitra	Torula	Xylaria	Ascomycetes	Bipolaris	Trichotechium	Venturia	
3.T.		%	49,46	18,28	4,30	3,23	3,23	3,23	3,23	3,23	2,15	2,15	1,08	1,08	1,08	1,08	1,08	1,08	1,08	0,00	0,00	000
		Sucrose	Urediniospores	Asp/Pen	Cladosporium	Ascomycetes	Ganoderma	Hypha	Myrotechium	Nigrospora	Gyromitra	Smut	A grocybe	Alternaria	Bipolaris	Coprinus	Fusarium	Rhizopus	Torula	Trichotechium	Venturia	
		%	39,58	29,17	9,38	3,13	3,13	2,08	2,08	2,08	1,04	1,04	1,04	1,04	1,04	1,04	1,04	1,04	1,04	0,00	0,00	000
		elucose	4sp/Pen	Urediniospores	Cladosporium	Hypha	Rhizopus	Ascomycetes	Myrotechium	Smut	Agrocybe	Alternaria	Bipolaris	Coprinus	Ganoderma	Gyromitra	Vigrospora	Torula	Xylaria	Fusarium	Trichotechium	

Cistus species transfer their pollen grains primarily by bees (Talavera et al., 1993). Whereas Cistus is less abundant in area the pollen percentage of these taxa would be high intensity because of large flowering period of different Cistus species' overlapping (Torné-Noguera et al., 2016). Cistus flowers attract pollinators with yellow and purple pigments, a polished surface and an excessive quantity of yellow stamens (Glover, 2011). In our study during glucose and bee feed groups' examinations Cistus pollen grains were found as dominant in both study areas (Figs. 4-5, Table 1). According to HPLC analysis on Cistus the percentage of fructose is higher than percentage of glucose (Guimarães et al., 2009; Liolios et al., 2018). In glucose feeding the deficiency of fructose would be replace by Cistus pollen grains. Bee feed ailment is an approximately equal proportions mixture of fructose, glucose and sucrose. In Dogansehir Bee Feed group the Cistus and Astragalus pollen percentages were determined closely. The differentiation over the proportions of these two genera in Battalgazi Bee Feed group could be related with the bee preferences of other three feeding groups (Glucose, Sucrose and Control).

pollination" According to"effective hypothesis Verbascum is so attractive for bees with its taller stem and strong terminal preponderance (Gross & Werner, 1978; Aarssen, 1995; Lortie & Aarssen, 1999). Other dominant taxon Echium nectar and pollen grains are collected by honey bees and this taxon is accepted bee plant because of its nutrient merit (Chwil & Weryszko-Chmielewska, 2011). Also the violet-blue colour of Echium flowers and pollen grains make charmfull this plant for pollinators (Maurizio & Grafl, 1969; Prabucki, 1988; Chwil & Weryszko-Chmielewska, 2011). Vicia flowers adapted to entomophily and pollen grains provide the honey bees basic nutrient necessities for development (Bond & Poulsen, 1983; Somerville, 1999). It is generally accepted that Plantago is anemophilous plant but bees collect Plantago pollen for a supplementary food as well as high nutritious pollen grains (Sabugosa-Madeira et al., 2008). For Bee Feed Groups in each district Berberis pollen is one of our dominant pollen types and biochemical studies carried about Berberis unifloral honey (Nazarian et al., 2010). Artemisia is both enthomophilous and anemophilous taxon in Asteraceae that was found in our study among dominant taxa (Parihar et al., 2009). Onobrychis has very attractive coloured papilionaceous flowers for pollinators and pollination is mostly done by Apis mellifera (Goplen et al., 1991; Bhattarai, 2016).

According to Gemeda et al., (2018) by sugar manipulation, the honey bees could be canalized to less preferred plants in this way crop plants' pollination will be improved and the amount of product will increase. In our study Poaceae pollen grains were dominant (15.00%) in Glucose Group in Battalgazi. The percentage of Poaceae was quite low in other feeding groups and control group. Also in Dogansehir district Poaceae pollen grains proportionally high in Glucose Group compared to others. In that case it could be acceptable if we manipulate the honeybees with glucose sugar Poaceae pollination will raise relatively. The different ratios of two districts for Poaceae pollen grains could be explain by the disparity of plant abundance. Another crop plant Onobrychis pollen grains were determined in our study. Pollen grains percentages of this taxon were higher in three feeding groups than control group. Sugar manipulating had been beneficial for Onobrychis as well as Poaceae.



Fig. 6. Dominant fungal spore taxa (%) for different feeding groups in Battalgazi.



Fig. 7. Dominant fungal spore taxa (%) for different feeding groups in Dogansehir.

The examinations of fungal elements in honeys are concentrating in Spain. Alternaria, Cladosporium, Drechslera, Geotrichium, Phithomyces, Stmphylium, Torula, Ulocladium and Ventura were observed in honeydews of Spain (Terrab et al., 2019). Cladosporium, Metschnikowia, Leptosphaeria, Stemphylium, Urediniospores were found dominant in NW-Spain (Seijo et al., 2011), Cladosporium, Penicillium / Aspergillus, Basidiospores were identified frequently in Galicia-Spain honey samples (Pérez-Atanes, 2001).

Cladosporium, Aspergillus / Penicillium genera are substantial nourishment for worker honey bees and have the effect of ascending longevity (Gilliam, 1997; Parish, 2020). These genera's spores are found in air pollution and they are accepted as parasitic fungi of honey (Pérez-Atanes, 2001). Cladosporium is a saprotrophic genus and its spores found plenty amounts in outdoor air (Magyar et al., 2016).Urediniospores were determined as dominant spore taxa in our study like Seijo et al., (2011) study. Uredinales are also parasitic and they exist on anthers of flowers (Barth, 1989). Uromyces sp. is one of toxic effectual Urediniospores but when they mixed with multisource pollen grains, collected by honey bees, the toxicity of this fungal spore decreased and the nutritional value of hive nourishment is increased (Schmidt et al., 1987; Parish, 2020).

Determination of pollen and fungal spore grains in honey is a beneficial instrument to have knowledge the honey's geographical, botanical and ecological origins. Besides the pollination preferences of honey bees could be define by melissopalynological analysis. By these examinations the quality of honey arises and the standards could be increased by choosing right fields to set up the apiaries. However sugar feeding converts the pollen preferences of honeybees. This could be utilized for obtain qualitative honeys and increase the crop fertility in agricultural areas.

Acknowledgements

This study was funded by Inonu University Scientific Research Project Unit (FCD-2018-1118).

References

- Aarssen, L.W. 1995. Hypotheses for the evolution of apical dominance in plants: Implications for the interpretation of overcompensation. *Oikos*, 74: 149-156.
- Abou-Shaara, Hossam. 2017. Effects of various sugar feeding choices on survival and tolerance of honey bee workers to low temperatures. *J. Entomol. Acar. Res.*, 49: 6-12.
- Agussalim, A., A. Agus, N. Nurliyani and N. Umami. 2019. The sugar content profile of honey produced by the Indonesian Stingless bee, Tetragonula laeviceps, from different regions. *Livestock Res. Rural Dev.*, 31(6): 6 p.
- Agussalim, A., N. Umami and E. Erwan. 2015. Production of stingless bees (Trigona sp.) propolis in various bee hives design. *The 6th International Seminar on Tropical Animal Production*, Yogyakarta Indonesia, October 20-22, 2015. pp. 335-338.
- Aira, M.J., H. Horn and M.C. Seijo. 1998. Palynological analysis of honeys from Portugal, J. Apicult. Res., 37(4): 247-254.

- Arslan, Ö and S. Hayli. 2007. Population geography of Battalgazi Country. F.Ü. Sos. Bil. Derg., 17(2): 1-30.
- Aytuğ, B. 1967. Polen Morfolojisi ve Türkiye'nin Önemli Gymnospermleri Üzerinde Palinolojik Araştırmalar. [Pollen Morphology and Palinologic Researches on Turkey's Primal Gymnosperms]. İstanbul Üniversitesi Orman Fakültesi Yayınları, İ. Ü. Yayın No: 1262, O. F. Yayın No: 114, Kutulmuş Matbaası, İstanbul.
- Ball, D.W. 2007. The chemical composition of honey. J. Chem. Educ., 84: 1643-1646.
- Bandeira, M.S.F. and J.S. de Novais. 2020. Melissopalynological characterization of honeys from the Discovery Coast, Brazil, *Palynology*, 44(3): 539-550.
- Bareke, T. and A. Addi. 2019. Pollen analysis of honey from Borana Zone of Southern Ethiopia. *J. Apic. Sci.*, 63(2): 233-242.
- Barth, O.M. 1989. *O polem no mel brasileiro*. O. Cruz Inst., Rio de Janeiro. Brazil.
- Barth, OM. 2005. Botanical resources used by *Apis mellifera* determined by pollen analysis of royal jelly in Minas Gerais, Brazil. *J. Api. Res.*, 44:78-81.
- Bhattarai, S., B. Coulman and B. Biligetu. 2016. Sainfoin (*Onobrychis viciifolia* Scop.): Renewed interest as a forage legume for western Canada. *Can. J. Plant Sci.*, 96: 748-756.
- Bond, D.A. and M.H. Poulsen. 1983. Pollination. The faba bean (Vicia faba L.) in Hebblethwaite, P.D. (Ed.) Chapter 3. Butterworths. London, UK.
- Ceksteryte, V. and J. Racys. 2006. The quality of syrups used for bee feeding before winter and their suitability for bee wintering. J. Api. Sci., 50(1): 2006.
- Cenet, M., A. Bozdogan, G. Sezer, L. Acar and Z. Ulukanlı. 2017. Antimicrobial activities, pollen diversity and physicochemical properties of natural honey from Southeastern Anatolia of Turkey. *Adv. Life Sci.*, 4(2): 47-54.
- Chanchao, C. 2013 Bioactivity of Honey and Propolis of Tetragonula laeviceps in Thailand. In: Pot-honey: a Legacy of Stingless Bees, Vit P, Pedro SRM and Roubik DW (Eds.), Springer, New York, p 495-505.
- Charpin, J., R. Surinyach and A.W. Frankland. 1974. Atlas of European Allergenic Pollens. Sandoz Editions, Paris,
- Chwil, M. and E. Weryszko-Chmielewska. 2011. Nectar production and pollen yield of *Echium vulgare* L. in the climatic conditions of Lublin. *Acta Sci. Pol., Hort. Cultus*, 10(3): 187-196.
- De la Barrera, E. and P.S. Nobel. 2004. Nectar: properties, floral aspects, and speculations on origin. *Trend. Plant Sci.*, 9(2): 65-69.
- Domsch, K.H., W. Gams and T.H. Anderson. 1980. Compendium of Soil Fungi. Volume 1. UK, Academic Press, London.
- Ebrahimzadeh, H., V. Niknam and A.A. Maassoumi. 2000. Mucilage content and its sugar composition in Astragalus species from Iran. *Pak. J. Bot.*, 32: 131-140.
- Ellis, M.B. and J.P. Ellis. 1998. *Microfungi on Miscellaneous Substrates. An Identification Handbook.* Richmond Publishing, Slough, UK.
- Erdtman, G. 1952. *Pollen Morphology and Plant Taxonomy, Angiosperms*. Almqvistand Wiksell, Stocholm, and Chronica Botanica Reprints, Waltham, Mass.
- Erdtman, G. 1969. *Hand Book of Palynology*. Hafner Publish. Co., New York.
- Faegri, K. and J. Iversen. 1975. *Textbook of Pollen Analysis*.3rd edition Munksgaard Press, Copenhagen, Denmark.
- Faegri, K. and L. van der Pijl. 1971. *The principles of pollination ecology*. 2nd edition. Pergamon Press, New York.

- Fagúndez, G. 2016. Botanical and geographical characterisation of honeys in Diamante, Entre Ríos, Argentina, *Palynology*, 40(3): 308-321.
- Free, J. 1965. The behaviour of honeybee foragers when their colonies are fed sugarsyrup. *J. Api. Res.*, 4(2): 85-88.
- Gemeda, T.K., J. Li, S. Luo, H. Yang, T. Jin, J. Huang and J. Wu. 2018. Pollen trapping and sugar syrup feeding of honey bee (Hymenoptera: Apidae) enhance pollen collection of less preferred flowers.*PLoS One*, 13(9): e0203648.
- Gilliam, M. 1997. Identification and roles of non-pathogenic microflora associated with honeybees. *FEMS Microbiol. Lett.*, 155: 1-10.
- Glover, B.J. 2011. Pollinator Attraction: The importance of Looking Good and Smelling Nice. *Curr. Biol.*, 21(9): 307-309.
- Goplen, B.P., K.W. Richards and J.R. Moyer. 1991. Sainfoin for western Canada. *Agriculture Canada Publication*, Ottawa, ON. 1470/E.
- Grant Smith, E. 2000. *Sampling and Identifying Allergenic Pollens And Molds*. Blewstone Press, San Antonio, Texas, USA.
- Green, T.W. and G.E. Bohart. 1975. The pollination ecology of Astragaus cibarius and Astragalus utahensis (Leguminsae). Amer. J. Bot., 62 (4): 379-386.
- Gross, K.L. and P.A. Werner. 1978. The biology of Canadian weeds. 28. *Verbascum thapsus* L. and *V. blattaria* L. *Can. J. Plant Sci.* 58: 401-413.
- Guimarães, R., L. Barros, A.M. Carvalho, M.J. Sousa, J.S. Morais and I.C.F.R. Ferreira. 2009. Aromatic plants as a source of important phytochemicals: Vitamins, sugars and fatty acids in *Cistus ladanifer, Cupressus lusitanica* and *Eucalyptus gunnii* leaves. *Ind. Crop. Prod.*, 30: 427-430.
- Güneş, M.E., S. Şahin, C. Demir, E. Borum and A. Tosunoğlu. 2017. Determination of phenolic compounds profile in chestnut and floral honeys and their antioxidant and antimicrobial activities. *J. Food Biochem.*, 41(3): 1-12.
- Hermosin, I., R.M. Chicón and M. Dolores Cabezudo. 2003. Free Amino Acid Composition and Botanical Origin of Honey. *Food Chem.*, 83: 263-8.
- Herrero, B., R.M. Valencia-Barrera, R. San Martin and V. Pando. 2002. Characterization of Honeys by Melissopalynology and Statistical Analysis. *Can. J. Plant Sci.*, 82(1): 75-82.
- Jeffrey, A.E. and C.M. Echazarreta. 1996. Medical Uses of Honey. *Rev. Biomed.*, 7: 43-9.
- Karakuş, Ş. 2016. Malatya İli Florası. PhD Thesis. Inonu University, Malatya, Turkey.
- Khan, F., Z.U. Abadin and N. Rauf. 2007. Honey: Nutritional and Medicinal Value. *Int. J. Clin. Pract.*, 61: 1705-1712.
- Khansaritoreh, E., Y. Salmaki, T.A. Azirani, F. Henareh, K. Alizadeh, E. Ramezani, S. Zarre, G. Beckh and H. Behling. 2021. The sources and Quality of Iranian Honey. *Heliyon*, 7(4): e06651.
- Kozuharova, E. and D.H. Firmage. 2007. On the pollination ecology of Astragalus alopecurus Pallas (Fabaceae) in Bulgaria. Comptes rendus de l'Académie bulgare des Sciences, 60(8): 863-870.
- Liolios, V., C. Tananaki, M. Dimou, D. Kanelis, M.A. Rodopoulou and A. Thrasyvoulou. 2018. Exploring the sugar profile of unifloral bee pollen using high performance liquid chromatography. J. Food Nutr. Res., 57: 1-10.
- Lortie, C.J. and W.L. Aarssen. 1999. The Adventage of Being Tall: Higher Flowers Receive More Pollen in *Verbascum thapsus* L. (Scrophulariaceae). *Ecoscience.*, 6(1): 68-71.
- Louveaux, J, A. Maurizio and G. Vorwohl. 1978. Methods of melissopalynology. *Bee World*, 59 (4): 139-157.

- Magyar, D., A. Mura-Mészáros and F. Grillenzoni. 2016. Fungal diversity in floral and honeydew honeys. *Acta Bot. Hung.*, 58: 145-166.
- Maurizio, A. and I. Grafl. 1969. *Das Trachtpflanzenbuch* [The traditional plant book]. Ehrenwirth Verlag, Munchen.
- Nazarian, H., R. Taghavizad and A. Majd. 2010. Origin of Honey Proteins and Method for its Quality Control. *Pak. J. Bot.*, 42(5): 3221-3228.
- Niknam, V. and Y.S. Lisar. 2004. Chemical Composition of Asragalus: Carbohydrates and Mucilage Content. Pak. J. Bot., 36(2): 381-388.
- Parihar, J., N. Sharma, N. Chhibber and U. Hamal. 2009. Pollination mechanism and indirect pollen presentation in Artemisia maritima L. Soc. Plant Reprod. Biolog., 1(2): 15.
- Parish, J.B., E.S. Scott and K. Hogendoorn. 2020. Nutritional benefit of fungal spores for honey bee workers. *Nat. Res.*, *Sci. Rep.*, 10: 15671.
- Pasupuleti, V.R., L. Sammugam, N. Ramesh and S.H. Gan. 2017. Honey, propolis and royal jelly: A compherensive review of their biological actions and health benefits. *Hindawi, Oxidative Medicine and Cellular Longevity.* 21 p.
- Pavlova, D., J. Atanassova, I. Karadjova and A. Bani. 2021 Pollen and chemical content of beebreads from serpentine areas in Albania and Bulgaria. *Biol. Trace Elem. Res.*, DOI:10.1007/s12011-021-02638-w
- Pérez-Atanes, S., M.C. Seijo-Coello and J. Méndez-Alvarez. 2001. Contribution to the study of fungal spores in honeys of Galicia (NW Spain). *Grana*, 40: 217-222.
- Prabucki, J. 1998. Pszczelnictwo. Wyd. Promocyjne [Beekeeping. Ed. Promotional]. "Albatros", Szczecin.
- Radaeski, J.N. and S.G. Bauermann. 2021. Contributions to melissopalynology studies in southern Brazil: pollen analysis in the honeys from *Apis mellifera*, *Tetragonisca* angustula, Melipona quadrifasciata quadrifasciata, Scaptotrigona bipunctata, Plebeia remota and Plebeia droryana. Palynology, 1-9.
- Ramírez-Arriaga, E., L.A. Navarro-Calvo and E. Díaz-Carbajal. 2011. Botanical characterisation of Mexican honeys from a subtropical region (Oaxaca) based on pollen analysis. *Grana*, 50(1): 40-54.
- Ramos, I.E.L.S. and C.G. Ferreras. 2006. Pollen and Sensorial Characterization of Diferent Honeys from El Hierro (Canary Islands). *Grana*, 45(2): 146-159.
- Sabugosa-Madeira, B., H. Ribeiro, M. Cunha and I. Abreu. 2008. The importance of plantain (*Plantago* spp.) as a supplementary pollen source in the diet of honey bees, *J. Api. Res.*, 47(1): 77-81.
- Schmidt, J.O., S.C. Thoenes and M.D. Levin. 1987. Survival of honey bees, *Apis mellifera* (Hymenoptera: Apidae), fed various pollen sources. *Ann. Entomol. Soc. Am.* 80: 176-183.
- Seijo, MC., O. Escuredo and M. Fernández-Gonzáles. 2011. Fungal diversity in honeys from northwest Spain and Their Relationsip to the ecological Origin of the Product. *Grana*, 50: 55-62.
- Shaw, D.E. 1990. The incidental collection of fungal spores by bees and the collectson of spoes in lieu of pollen. *Bee World*, 71: 158-176.
- Silici, S. and M. Gökceoglu. 2007. Pollen analysis of honeys from Mediterranean region of Anatolia. *Grana*, 46(1): 57-64.
- Somerville, D.C. 1999. Honeybees (*Apis mellifera* L.) increase yields of faba beans (Vicia faba L.) in New South Wales while maintaining adequate protein requirements from faba bean pollen. *Aust. J. Exp. Agri.*, 39: 1001-1005.

- Southwick, E.E. and G. Heldmaier. 1987. Temperature control in honey bee colonies. *Biosci.*, 37: 395-399.
- St-Germain, G. and R. Summerbell. 1996. Identifying Filamentous Fungi- A Clinical Laboratory Handbook, 1st ed. CA, Star Publishing Company, Belmont.
- Suntiparapop, K., P. Prapaipong and P. Chantawannakul. 2012. Chemical and biological properties of honey from Thai stingless bee (*Tetragonula leaviceps*). J. Api. Res., 51(1): 45-52.
- Talavera, S., P.E. Gibbs and J. Herrera. 1993. Reproductive biology of *Cistus ladanifer* (Cistaceae). *Plant Syst. Evol.*, 186: 123-134.
- Tatlidil, S., I. Cakmak, A. Bicakci, A. Bilisik and D. Pavlov. 2005. Pollen composition of Honey in Turkey. J. Balkan Ecol., 8(3): 263-270.
- Terrab, A., R. Berjano, J.A. Sanchez, A.G. Pajuelo and M.J. Díez. 2019. Palynological and geographical characterisation of Spanish oak honeydew honeys. *Grana*, 58(1): 63-77.

- Torné-Noguera, A., A. Rodrigo, S. Osorio and J. Bosch. 2016. Collateral effects of beekeeping: Impacts on pollen-nectar resources and wild bee communities. *Basic Appl. Ecol.*, 17: 199-209.
- Watanabe, T. 2002. Pictorial Atlas of Soil and Seed Fungi: Morphologies of Cultured Fungi and Key To Species, 2nd ed. CRC Press, Boca Raton, USA.
- Wodehouse, R.P. 1965. *Pollen grains*. Hafner Publishing Company, New York.
- Yakar, Ö.Y., F. Fırat, N. Bozdağ and A.E. Baydoğan. 2014. Sosyal, Kültürel ve Ekonomik yönleri ile Malatya [Malatya with its social, cultural and economic aspects]. TC Malatya Valiliği İl Planlama ve Koordinasyon Müdürlüğü, Malatya.
- Zaboenko, A.S. 2000. Sovremennaja ènciklopedija pchelovoda. Doneck: 75-76.

(Received for publication 6 August 2021)