

Net Utilization of Energy and Protein by Traditional Reared Bulgarian Screw-horned Longhaired Suckling Kids through the System “Clarc of Energy Distribution/Clarc of Protein Transformation”

Dimo Penkov*, Atanas Vuchkov

Agricultural University, 12 D. Mendeleev Blvd., 4000 Plovdiv, Bulgaria

* -mail: dimopenkov@gmail.com

Original scientific paper

SUMMARY

Through the introducing of a new approach for recording of the productive effect of the energy and protein through the eco-technical system “fodder - lamb/kid’s meat”, the authors investigate the possibilities of meat productivity of “milk-kids” from Bulgarian Screw-horned longhaired goat, reared in traditional technology. The results was obtained in experiment with a 6 male kids, slaughtered immediately at weaning at 90 days of age, without a period of intense fattening after weaning. The kids were rearing in traditionally conditions in real production system. The following results of net utilization have been obtained: Clarc of energy distribution - CED (net energy fodder – gross energy meat) - 0.2197 (21.97%) and Clarc of protein

(
) - 0.6711 (67.11%).

transformation – CPT (protein digestible in the intestine fodder – crude protein meat) - 0.6711 (67.11%).

Key words: Clarc of energy distribution, Clarc of protein transformation, fodder - meat, kids

INTRODUCTION

(Pirgozliev and Rose, 1999).

(Tsonchev, 1974; Zunev and Uzunov, 1994; Dhanda et al., 2003; Ekiz et al., 2010; Yalcintan et al., 2012; Abdelrahman and Aljumaah, 2014; Taj, 2015; van der Merwe, 2015; Saleem et al., 2017).

and Genchev (2018)

(Baykov, 1994; Dobrovolski, 1998).

Clarc of energy distribution (CED) and Clarc of protein transformation (CPT)

(Penkov and Vuchkov, 2020).

The net transformation of the nutrients and the energy from fodder to edible by humans animal products is the most accurately index for reporting of the efficiency of animal product's producing (Pirgozliev and Rose, 1999).

In reporting the produced effect, we take into account the delta of growth and expenditure of fodder per one unit of growth without counting the ratio of water and nutrients in this growth (Tsonchev, 1974; Zunev and Uzunov, 1994; Dhanda et al., 2003; Ekiz et al., 2010; Yalcintan et al., 2012; Abdelrahman and Aljumaah, 2014; Taj, 2015; van der Merwe, 2015; Saleem et al., 2017).

The construction of a system for accurate calculation of this net transformation is more and more imperative. Penkov and Genchev (2018) introduced and standardized two basic indexes for reporting of these processes in the meat poultry farming - Clarc of energy distribution (CED) and Clarc of protein transformation (CPT). The names (Clarc/Clarcs) come from an ecological context and one of a circulation (biological accumulation and dissipation) of the chemical elements while they pass from one level of the trophic chain to another (Baykov, 1994; Dobrovolski, 1998).

In our preliminary publications we are introduced and offer methods for calculating of Clarc of energy distribution (CED) and Clarc of protein transformation (CPT) in meat production of sheep/goats (Penkov and Vuchkov, 2020). In it are calculated the "Clarcs" by "milk-kids" from Kalofer longhaired goat.

(Vuchkov and Dimov, 2016).

–

(CED) (CPT)

6

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e

20

(60:20:20).

2-4

(90),

Zahariev and Pinkas (1979).

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The other autochthonous breed, with an area of distribution Southwestern Bulgaria is the Bulgarian Screw-horned longhaired goat. It has a certain combined productivity - milk, meat and skins. The main revenue for farmers is the kids, slaughtered at weaning, without a period of intensive fattening (Vuchkov and Dimov, 2016).

The aim of the present publication is to calculate the net utilization of the energy and the protein in the chain “fodder – lean meat without bones” through the indexes Clarc of energy distribution (CED) and Clarc of protein transformation (CPT) for Bulgarian Screw-horned longhaired kids.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

For investigation of some meat features, was carried out a complete slaughter analysis on 6 Bulgarian Screw-horned longhaired kids born in farm from one of a native areal for the breed – Southern slopes of Pirin mountain, Souhtwest Bulgaria. The experimental group was aligned by sex and type of birth - male, single.

During the suckling period the kids are traditionally grown together with their mothers, the mother's milk was the main food, and after the 20th day of birth, the kids has a free access to meadow hay and concentrated fodder (corn, barley, sunflower seeds in proportion 60:20:20).

The mothers of the kids were 2-4 years of age. A leading criterion for the slaughtering of kids was the weaning age (90 days), which is according to the tradition of the rearing of this local breed.

All the animals had free access to water.

The slaughter analysis was done according to the method of Zahariev and Pinkas (1979). The slaughtered live weight was measured after a 24-hour

5 °C.

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fasting diet, but with free access to water. After slaughter, the cleared carcasses was cooled to 5 °C, for 24 hours. To define the total meat content, the chilled carcasses was cut along the medial line.

- For boning, the left half of the carcasses
- was used, which was broken down at certain points into the following parts:
- neck, shoulder, loin, butt.

(S1),
(L6),

- The first incision was made behind the last cervical vertebra, separating the neck.
- The next incision was made behind the last rib, separating the shoulder with the underlying rib portion. The third incision separates the first sacral vertebra (S1) and the sixth lumbar vertebra (L6), dividing the loin together with the soft abdominal wall from the buttock. The resulting pure meat was multiplied by 2.

1/3

- For define of the chemical composition of the meat from Bulgarian Screw-horned longhaired kids, an average sample of meat constituting 1/3 of the weight of the meat in the each boned part of the carcass was taken.

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Feeding schedule of the fodder: Until up to 20 days of age, the goatlings are fed without restraint with a breast milk from their mother. The method of determining the quantities of breast milk consumed is as follows: the mother goat's milk is measured on a monthly basis, while the goatlings are removed from their mothers for a period of 12 hours, the mother goats are milked manually twice a day and the quantity of the obtained milk is multiplied by 2 (Tyankov et al., 1985). After the twentieth day, in designated spaces accessible to the goatlings but not their mothers, each baby goat is provided with hay (after day 45 the goatling is also provided with concentrated fodder) in an individual feeder. The amounts of fodder provided as well as any residuals are weighted out daily.

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al., 1985).

2 (Tyankov et al., 1985).

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45

20%

60%

20%

- Since the concentrated fodder consisted of 60% maize, 20% barley and 20 sunflower seeds, the following formula

$$\text{PDI (g/kg)} = \frac{\text{ME} \times 100}{\text{CP}}$$

$$\text{PDI (g/kg)} = \frac{102.4 \times \text{ME}}{\text{CP}}$$

$$\text{PDI (g/kg)} = \frac{102.4 \times (0.0382 \times \text{ME} + 0.0104 \times \text{q})}{\text{CP}}$$

$$\text{PDI (g/kg)} = \frac{102.4 \times (0.0242 \times \text{P} + 0.0366 \times \text{F} + 0.017 \times \text{NPE})}{\text{CP}}$$

$$\text{PDI (g/kg)} = \frac{102.4 \times (211 - 0.47 \times \text{CP}) \times 6}{\text{CP}}$$

$$\text{PDI (g/kg)} = \frac{102.4 \times (211 - 0.47 \times \text{CP}) \times 6}{\text{CP}} + 54,247$$

(Todorov et al., 2007)
 (Todorov et al., 2007)
 (Todorov et al., 2017)
 (Todorov et al., 2017)
 (Todorov et al., 1995)
 (Todorov et al., 2007)

Kjeldahl (AOAC, 2007).
 Schiemann et al. (1971).
 (CED/CPT)
 (Penkov and Genchev, 2018):

$$\text{CED} = \frac{\text{Gross energy obtained in meat}}{\text{Net energy input (fodder)}}$$

$$\text{CPT} = \frac{\text{Crude protein obtained in meat}}{\text{protein digestible in intestine input (fodder)}}$$

was used to derive the average nutrition:
 The mean content of net energy for growth (NEG) and protein digestible in the intestine (PDI) in the concentrate = (content in maize*60+content in barley*20+content of sunflower*20)/100 (mean NEG = 8.154 MJ; PDI = 93.8 g).

The data for NEG and PDI in maize, barley and sunflower seeds were taken from Todorov et al. (1995; Todorov and Darjonov, 1995): Maize: NEG – 8.1 MJ; PDI – 114 g; Barley: NEG – 7.05 MJ; PDI – 83 g; Sunflower seeds: NEG – 9.42MJ; PDI – 44 g

The following formula for the calculating of NEG and PDI in the different fodders (native substances) was used:

For goat's milk:

$$\text{PDI (g/kg)} = 0.0011 \times (\text{CP})^2 - 0.3778 \times \text{P} + 102.4$$

$$\text{NEG (MJ/kg)} = \text{M} \times (0.0382 + 0.0104 \times \text{q})$$

$$\text{G} = 0.0242 \times \text{P} + 0.0366 \times \text{F} + 0.017 \times \text{NPE}$$

For meadow hay:

$$\text{NEG (J/kg)} = (211 - 0.47 \times \text{CP}) \times 6$$

$$\text{PDI (g/kg)} = 0.1414 \times \text{CP} + 54,247$$

- The crude protein (CP) contents in
 - meat and fodders were established acc. Kjeldahl methods (AOAC-2007).

The gross energy (GE) contents were calculated using the formula of Schiemann et al. (1971).

The Clarc's of energy distribution/protein transformation (CED/CPT) were calculated using the original formula of Penkov and Genchev, 2018:

$$\text{CED} = \frac{\text{Gross energy obtained in meat}}{\text{Net energy input (fodder)}}$$

$$\text{CPT} = \frac{\text{Crude protein obtained in meat}}{\text{protein digestible in intestine input (fodder)}}$$

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In Table 1 are shown the mean amounts of the consumed fodders from 1 kid during the different sub-periods and for the entry period of fattening. The highest percentage of feed consumed is breast milk, followed by concentrated feed and meadow hay. The recalculation shows that the mother milk's dry matter is compatible with that of the plant fodders. Because of the specific traditional scheme of feeding, the amounts of the consumed hay and concentrate fodders are lower, compared to these, recommended from Todorov et al. (2016) while the sucked milk is comparable with the cited from the authors.

Table 1. Scheme of feeding of the kids from birth to realization (90 days of age)

Period after birth (days) ... / from ...to	/Fodder input	
()	()	/ Total fodder input for the period – kg (in native)
0-20 (20 /days)	/Mother's milk	22
21-45 (25 /days)	/Mother's milk	28
46-90 (45 /days)	/Meadow hay	1,25
	/Mother's milk	51
	/Meadow hay (60% energetic fodder (20% maize, 20% barley, 20% sunflower seeds)	4.3 5.9
(0-90) For the whole period (0-90 days)	/Mother's milk /Lucerne hay (60% energetic fodder (20% maize, 20% barley, 20% sunflower seeds)	101 5.55 5.9

The contents of protein digestible in the intestine and net energy are shown in table 2. By recalculation of the nutritive values of one unit native fodder and the consumed from the kids amounts, the average consumption of net energy and protein digestible in the intestine from one kid was 274.13 MJ and 1903.47g respectively.

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Table 2. Net energy (NE - MJ) and protein digestible in the intestine (PDI-g) content in one unit consumed fodder and total consumed NE and PDI from 1 kid (entrance of the system)

Indexes		X mean	SE
1.	(kg)/Goat's milk(in kg native): /Net energy – MJ; /Protein digestive in the intestine – g	2.04 9.85	- -
2.	/Meadow hay (in kg native): /Net energy – MJ; /Protein digestive in the intestine – g	3.60 64	- -
3.	(1 kg)/Maize - grain (in kg native): /Net energy – MJ /Protein digestive in the intestine – g	8.1 114	- -
4.	– (1 kg)/Barley – gray (in kg native): /Net energy – MJ /Protein digestive in the intestine – g	7.05 83	- -
5.	/Sunflower seeds /Net energy – MJ /Protein digestive in the intestine – g	9.42 44	- -
Net energy input for the whole live (mean from 1 kid) – MJ		274.13	8.86
Protein digestive in the intestine input (mean from 1 kid) – kg		1903.47	135.03

3

1 g
90
– 11.18%,
18.07%.
(Mohamad et al., 2010;
Moavat et al., 2013).

Table 3 shows the lean meat weight (excluding bones) of kid's carcasses and the content crude protein, crude fats and gross energy of per 1 kg native meat.

The ratio of protein to fat in the meat of the Bulgarian Screw-horned longhaired kids at weaning in 90-days of age is relative favorable. Due to the early slaughtering age without additional fattening, the fat content is relatively low – 11.18%, so as the crude protein content is significantly higher – 18.07%.

Our data are closely to other authors, investigated kids from different goat breeds, and similar condition of housing (Mohamad et al., 2010; Moavat et al., 2013). The authors found a higher content of water and protein in the meat of the youngest animals. As the age of slaughter increases, the percentage of moisture and protein decreases, and the fat and ash content increase.

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Table 3. Content of meat without bones and chemical and energetic content of experimented kid's meat

Indexes		X mean	SE
	- kg / Mass of meat	7.07	0.18
without bones in kid's carcasses–kg			
(%) / Crude protein () - % (native)		18.07	0.22
(%) / Crude fats - % (native)		11.18	0.27
1 kg / Accumulated		8.52	0.22
gross energy (GE) 1 kg meat (native) –MJ			
1 kg / Accumulated P 1 kg		180.68	2.34
meat (native) – g			

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/) " ".
60.24 MJ, – 1277.41 g.
(Penkov and Vuchkov, 2020),
– 60.24
57.11 MJ,
(1277.41 1273.38g).
–
21.97
19.58% 67.11 58.71%.

In Table 4 are shown the output of accumulated energy and protein in the whole lean carcass's meat (exit of the system) and the "Clarc's of distribution/transformation". The meat accumulated gross energy in the meat of one kid is 60.24 MJ and the protein – 1277.41 g. Compared to our investigations with Kalofer longhair kids (Penkov and Vuchkov, 2020), the accumulated energy is higher by the Screw-horned kids - 60.24 versus 57.11 MJ, while by the accumulation of the crude protein, there weren't significant differences - (1277.41 versus 1273.38g).

The established by us Clarc's of energy distribution and protein transformation are higher by the Screw-horned kids, compared to Kalofer kids - 21.97 versus 19.58% and 67.11 versus 58.71% respectively.

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Table 4. Accumulated mean values of gross energy and crude protein in the meat of one kid (exit of the system) and Clarc of energy distribution/Clarc of protein transformation (CED/CPT)

Indexes		X mean	SE
1		1277.41	36.18
Accumulated CP in meat of 1 kid – g			
1		60.24	2.34
Accumulated GE in meat of 1 kid– MJ			
()		0.2197 (21.97%)	0.02 (2%)
Clarc of energy distribution (CED) – (NE fodder – GE meat)			
()		0.6711(67.11%)	0.02 (2%)
Clarc of protein transformation (CPT) – (PDI fodder-CP meat)			

CONCLUSIONS

90-	-		For 90 day's period by traditional technology of feeding, the kids of Bulgarian Screw-horned longhaired goad were consumed mean 274.13 MJ net energy 1903.47 g protein digestive in intestine and were accumulated in their meat without bones 60.24 MJ gross energy and 1277.41 g crude protein.
274.13 MJ	1903.47 g	60.24MJ	The following Clarc's were established:
	1277.41g	.	-Clarc of energy distribution - 0.2197 (21.97%).
:	-	-	-Clarc of protein transformation - 0.6711 (67.11%).
0.2197 (21.97%)			
-			
	- 0.6711 (67.11%).		

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Puberty in Bucks

Tsvetomira Bancheva*, Svetoslava Stoycheva, Penko Zunev

Research Institute of Mountain Stockbreeding and Agriculture, 5600 Troyan, Bulgaria

**E-mail: cvetomira_16@abv.bg*

Review paper

SUMMARY

The earlier inclusion of male animals for breeding purposes in the reproductive process is very important from an economic point of view. In order to show its breeding potential, the male animal must reach sexual maturity. The onset of this period is characterized by a number of changes in the animal body.

The onset of puberty in bucks is determined by the age when the male animal first exhibits unconditional sexual reflexes and ejaculate is released, containing motile sperm. With reaching sexual maturity, the characteristic secondary sexual characteristics of the species appear. The onset of puberty is influenced by factors such as breed, live weight, diet, breeding technology, season, latitude etc.

Puberty is associated with the overall development of the animal organism. The hormones of the hypothalamus and pituitary gland (luteinizing hormone (LH) and follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH)) playing a key role in the function of the male reproductive system. FSH affects spermatogenesis. LH stimulates the formation and secretion of male sex

hormones in the testis, which in turn promote the growth, development and function of the genitals, sexual reflexes, sexual behaviour of the male animal and affect the formation of secondary sexual characteristics.

Age, birth weight, average daily gain, scrotum circumference, penis separation from the foreskin, the presence of live sperm in the ejaculate, and testosterone levels are important indicators of puberty in bucks.

The purpose of present review is to observe and summarize the factors influencing the onset of puberty in male kids and the interaction between them.

Key words: puberty, male kids, live weight, testes, external measurements, spermatogenesis, testosterone, separation of the penis from the foreskin.

DISCUSSION

Puberty is characterized by the onset of reproductive activity. One of the most important selection traits directly related to the reproductive and productive qualities of animals is weight (Tyankov et al., 2000). It is known that the onset of puberty is associated with changes in weight and exterior indicators.

1. **Live weight** - The factors influencing the changes in live weight are: breed, age, sex, individual characteristics, productive direction, nutrition, season etc.

Birth weight and weaning is an indicator that can serve as a guide in the selection of brood animals.

Delgadillo et al. (2007) found that in bucks, the photoperiod, which is associated with the season of animal birth, does not have a strong influence on the onset of puberty. The authors report that in local goat breed in Mexico (born January, May and October) the lowest

(Tyankov et al., 2000).

1.

Delgadillo et al. (2007)

values of birth weight (2.6 kg), average daily gain (111 g/day) and live weight at puberty (15 kg) was measured in those born in October, when the day length decreases.

While animals born during the months with increasing day length (January and May) showed higher live birth weights (3.4 kg and 3.6 kg), average daily gain (132 g/day and 142 g/day) and weight at puberty (20 kg and 19 kg).

Despite the lower values in the above indicators, males born in October reached puberty at the same age as those born in May (112 day and 111 day), and those born in January puberty occurred at a later age - 131 day.

The impact of the season on birth weight was also found by Bezzera et al. (2009), in bucks of Boer breed. Male animals born during the dry season (July-January) weighed 3.12 ± 0.73 kg, and those born during the rainy season (February-June) weighed 3.87 ± 0.79 kg. At weaning at the age of 90 days, the average live weight for those born during the dry and rainy season was reported, respectively 11.35 ± 2.45 and 16.26 ± 3.1 kg.

Kumar et al. (2014) report that the weight of black Bengal bucks increases significantly with age, from 1.86 kg at birth to 10.56 kg at 12 months of age. The highest average daily growth was found in bucks in the group of 0-4 months (32.57 ± 3.58 g/day).

Identical results were obtained by Nishimura et al. (2000) in Japanese Tokara breed. The weights at 3, 4, 6, 9 and 12 months of age were 9.1 ± 0.4 , 10.6 ± 0.43 , 15.8 ± 0.7 , 17.6 ± 1.5 and 22.8 ± 1.4 kg, respectively. In cross-breeds of bucks (Anglo-Nubian x Saanen) Elhammali et al. (2013) reported the following indicators: average birth weight - 3.80 ± 0.14 kg, average live weight at

(2.6 kg), (111 g/day) (15 kg)

(3.4 kg and 3.6 kg), (132 g/day and 142 g/day) (20 kg and 19 kg).

(112 day and 111 day), - 131 day.

Bezzera et al. (2009), Boer. (3.12 ± 0.73 kg, (3.87 ± 0.79 kg, 90- (11.35 ± 2.45 16.26 ± 3.1 kg.

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3,80±0,14 kg,
 - 14,4±0,73 kg,
 - 82,9±0,83 g/ (7.5) -
 22,38±0,94 kg.

(De Souza et al., 2011).
 (Alade et al., 2009; Kabiraj et al., 2011; Shoyombo et al., 2012; Kumar et al., 2014)

(
 De Souza et al. (2011)
 ,
 (r=0,94)

Raji et al. (2008)
 Borno White
 (r=0,82) Keith et al. (2009)
 Boer (r=0,78). Bezzera et al. (2009)

Boer,
 (r=0,93) (r=0,88).

(
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 (Khan et al., 2006; Paul et al., 2011; Akpa et al., 2013; Patni et al., 2016).

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weaning - 14.4 ± 0.73 kg, average daily gain - 82.9 ± 0.83 g/day and average weight at puberty (7.5 months) - 22.38 ± 0.94 kg.

- Regardless of breed and latitude,
 - testicular growth in bucks is closely related to live weight and their age (De Souza et al., 2011).

- Various authors (Alade et al., 2009; Kabiraj et al., 2011; Shoyombo et al., 2012; Kumar et al., 2014) report high positive correlations between live weight and testicular size (scrotal circumference, length, testicular width and thickness).

- De Souza et al. (2011) reported that with increasing age in Anglo-Nubian bucks, a high positive dependence (r=0.94) was observed between live weight and scrotal circumference.

These results are confirmed by Raji et al. (2008) in Borno White bucks (r=0.82) and Keith et al. (2009) in goats of Boer breed (r=0.78). Bezzera et al. (2009) reported similar results for the correlation between live weight and scrotal circumference in Boer breed born during the dry (r = 0.93) and rainy seasons (r=0.88).

- High positive correlations have also been found between body weight and exterior body measurements (body length, withers height, chest circumference, etc.) (Khan et al., 2006; Paul et al., 2011; Akpa et al., 2013; Patni et al., 2016).

2. **Exterior** - The exterior is expressed by the peculiarities of the external body shapes forms, which estimate the productivity, proper use and health of the animal. Exterior assessment includes visual appraisal and exterior measurements.

With age, in addition to the live weight of the animals, the linear measurements of the body increase as

(Rahman et al., 2008; Kabiraj et al., 2011).

Rahman et al. (2008) -
 (r=0,94),
 (r=0,95) (r=0,96)

0
 (), 3, 6, 9 12 :
 -
 24.15±0.38, 29,70±0.75, 41.20±0.76,
 43.87±0.54 47.83±0.75 cm.
 -
 26.30±0.35, 28.45±0.80, 39.95±0.70,
 43.73±0.55, 47.92±0.76 51.21±0.93 cm.
 -
 26.35±0.38, 35,67±0,40, 51,10±0,82,
 54,26±0,64 59,08±0,87 cm
 - -
 8.6±0.36, 12.05±0.31, 14.40±0.33,
 15.39±0.19, 16.67±0.26 17.63±0.32 cm.
 -
 7.45±0.19, 11.45±0.51, 11.70±0.25,
 12.33±0.34 14.00±0.41 cm.

Abdelrahman et al. (2018)
 32
 1-24
 30 cm (1
), 52,5 cm (22
)
 56 cm (24)

Pantja 3 - 6 ()
 6 - 12 () , Patni et al.,
 (2016)
 :
 A 44,0±2,37
 cm, -

the animal grows and its size and shape also increase (Rahman et al., 2008; Kabiraj et al., 2011).

Rahman et al. (2008) found high positive correlations between live weight and chest circumference (r = 0.94), body length (r = 0.95) and withers height (r = 0.96) in Black Bengal bucks. In the same breed, the authors reported an increase in linear body measurements with age.

The indicators and their values registered at age 0 (at birth), 3, 6, 9 and 12 months were:

- body length - 24.15 ± 0.38, 29.70 ± 0.75, 41.20 ± 0.76, 43.87 ± 0.54 and 47.83 ± 0.75 cm.
 - height at withers - 26.30 ± 0.35, 28.45 ± 0.80, 39.95 ± 0.70, 43.73 ± 0.55, 47.92 ± 0.76 and 51.21 ± 0.93 cm.
 - chest circumference - 26.35±0.38, 35.67 ± 0.40, 51.10 ± 0.82, 54.26 ± 0.64 and 59.08 ± 0.87 cm
 - length of the head - 8.6 ± 0.36, 12.05 ± 0.31, 14.40 ± 0.33, 15.39 ± 0.19, 16.67 ± 0.26 and 17.63 ± 0.32 cm.
 - head width - 7.00 ± 0.18, 7.45±0.19, 11.45 ± 0.51, 11.70 ± 0.25, 12.33 ± 0.34 and 14.00 ± 0.41 cm.

Identical results for a high positive dependence between age and chest circumference were reported by Abdelrahman et al. (2018) in 32 Anglo-Nubian bucks, aged 1-24 weeks. Chest circumference increased from 30 cm (1 week), 52.5 cm (22 weeks, age of onset of puberty) and reached 56 cm (24 weeks).

In Indian Pantja bucks aged 3 - 6 (group A) and 6 - 12 (group B) months, Patni et al., (2016) made several exterior measurements and reported the following results, which confirm the above: body length in bucks of group A is 44.0 ± 2.37 cm, and in the animals of group B - 53.67 ± 1.80 cm.

53,67±1,80 cm.
 47,72±1,80 cm ()
 59,6±1,01 cm ().
 A B,
 - 47,7±2,11 cm
 59,69±1,24 cm.

3. () -
 .
 ().
 ,
 ,
 (,
).

: , ,
 ,
 (Karagiannidis et al., 2000;
 Mekasha et al., 2007),
 (Almeida et al., 2007; Delgadillo et al.,
 2007).

-
 -
 : (cm), (cm),
 (g), (ml).
 Pantja,
 3 - 6 , Patni et al.
 (2016)
 :
 (3.77±0.09 cm),
 (2.02±0.19 cm),
 (1.63±0.18 cm),
 (8.58±1.72 g)
 (23.40±3.19 ml).

, 6 - 12 ,
 ,
 -
 -
 - 5.76±0.12 cm, 3.58±0.11
 cm, 3.44±0.07 cm, 42.42±3.57 g

The height at the withers was 47.72± 1.80 cm (group A) and 59.6 ± 1.01 cm (group B). The chest circumference, measured in groups A and B, was 47.7 ± 2.11 cm and 59.69 ± 1.24 cm, respectively. The authors have found a positive correlation between body measurements and testicular biometrics, as any change in the development of one indicator affecting the other.

3. Testicles - They are a paired organ. They are located out of the abdominal cavity and are wrapped in a skin sac (scrotum). Inside them is carried out the formation, maturation and secretion of sperm and sperm plasma, as well as the synthesis and secretion of male sex hormones (testosterone, androsterone and dehydroandrosterone). The increase in testicular size is influenced by various factors: age, breed, live weight, individual characteristics, season (Karagiannidis et al., 2000; Mekasha et al., 2007), photoperiod, nutritional status and temperature (Almeida et al., 2007; Delgadillo et al., 2007).

To determine changes in testicular size, the following measurements were made: scrotum circumference (cm); length (cm), width (cm) and testicular weight (g); scrotum volume (ml).

In Pantja bucks, aged 3 - 6 months, Patni et al. (2016) reported the following testicular parameters: testicular length (3.77 ± 0.09 cm), right testicular width (2.02 ± 0.19 cm), average testicular thickness (1.63 ± 0.18 cm), average weight (8.58 ± 1.72 g) and scrotum volume (23.40 ± 3.19 ml). While in the same animals, but at the age of 6 - 12 months, the length, width of the right testicle, average thickness, average weight of the testicles and the volume of the scrotum are respectively - 5.76 ± 0.12 cm, 3.58 ± 0.11 cm, 3.44 ± 0.07 cm, 42.42 ± 3.57 g and 101.7 ± 5.43 ml. The authors

101.7±5.43 ml.

Oyeyemi et al. (2012)
Sahel
Raji and Njidda (2014)
Red Sokoto

Ogwuegbu et al. (1985)
Okwun et al. (1996)

Nishimura et al. (2000)
36 g 3 126 g
12 12
Akpa et al. (2012)

(4)
Salhab et al. (2001)
Koyuncu et al. (2005)

(r=0.696 - 0.941).
Raji and Ajala (2015)
320

17 18 cm,

found that the values for the width and thickness of the left testicle were lower than those of the right one, and the differences were statistically insignificant.

In contrast, Oyeyemi et al. (2012) for bucks of Sahel breed, and Raji and Njidda (2014) for bucks of Red Sokoto breed reported that the left testicle is larger (width and length) than the right one.

Ogwuegbu et al. (1985) and Okwun et al. (1996) reported that testicular weight is strongly related to sperm reserves in them, thus bucks with larger testicles tend to produce more sperm.

In Tokara breed, Nishimura et al. (2000) found an increase in testicular weight from 36 g at 3 months of age to 126 g at 12 months of age, with an increase up to 12 months of age.

Akpa et al. (2012) found that the assessment of physical condition affects the measurements of the testicles, i.e. it is assumed that bucks with a higher assessment of the physical condition (APC 4) have a larger size of the testicles, which can lead to the formation of more sperm.

The scrotum wraps around the outside of the testicle and its circumference is an indirect indicator of determining the size of the testicles. According to Salhab et al. (2001) and Koyuncu et al. (2005) there is a positive correlation between testicular parameters and scrotal circumference (r = 0.696 - 0.941).

Raji and Ajala (2015) found in 320 West African dwarf goats a positive dependence between scrotal circumference and the age of the bucks. In their research, the circumference of the scrotum increases from birth to eight months of age, after which it remains constant with average values between 17 and 18 cm, without further significant

Pantja
11.57±0.93 cm (3-6),
19.31±0.55 cm (9-12) (Patni et
al., 2016). Rahman et al. (2008)

0, 3, 6, 9, 12 , -
: 4.85±0.22, 10.35±0.39, 15.42±0.34,
18.05±0.24 19.72±0.33 cm.,

Kumar et al. (2014)

3, 4, 6, 9, 12 24
, Nishimura et al. (2000) -
133±9.9 mm
3 198±1.0 mm
6

Sarma and Devi (2012)
Assam.

Kumar et al. (2014)
(3 , 1, 3, 5 7
)

3
4. -

increase. The scrotal circumference in
Pantja bucks was 11.57 ± 0.93 cm (group
3-6 months), 19.31 ± 0.55 cm (9-12
months), respectively (Patni et al., 2016).
While Rahman et al. (2008) reported the
average scrotal circumference for Black
Bengal bucks, aged 0, 3, 6, 9, 12 months,
respectively: 4.85 ± 0.22, 10.35 ± 0.39,
15.42 ± 0.34, 18.05 ± 0.24 and
19.72±0.33 cm., which coincides with the
results by Kumar et al. (2014) for bucks of
the same age and breed.

On histological examination of the
testicles, in Tokara bucks, aged 3, 4, 6, 9,
12 and 24 months, Nishimura et al. (2000)
found that the diameter of the seminal
vesicles increased from 133 ± 9.9 mm at
3 months of age to 198 ± 1.0 mm at 6
months, with a slight increase thereafter.

Similar results were reported by Sarma
and Devi (2012) for Assam bucks.

The enlargement of the lumen of the
seminal vesicles in the testicles begins at
2 months of age and ends at 6 months of
age, too.

Kumar et al. (2014) conducted a
histological examination of the testicles in
Black Bengal bucks of different ages (3
days, 1, 3, 5, and 7 months of age). The
authors found the presence of sperm in
the seminal vesicles of the testicles in
bucks at 3 months of age.

**4. Release of the penis
from the foreskin** - The penis is a
copulatory organ in male animals. During
sexual intercourse, the seminal fluid
enters through it into the reproductive
system of the female animal. It is made up
of a root, a body and a head. The glans
penis is covered by a skin fold called
foreskin, which can be pulled back to
expose the glans. Under the action of the
male sex hormone - testosterone, the
penis grows and is also released from the
foreskin. The separation of the penis from

			the foreskin is an indicator of the onset of sexual maturity, which occurs at different ages in different breeds.
			To assess the separation of the penis from the foreskin, the animals are placed in a sitting position, the foreskin is pulled down to reveal the penis. Wiggins and Terril (1953) rated the release on a scale of 1 to 5 as (1) an infantile condition, (2) a free urethral process, (3) a free tip of the glans penis, (4) released to the bottom of the glans penis, or just below and (5) adult condition.
	Wiggins and Terril (1953)		
1 5	(1)		
(2)		(3)	
	glans penis, (4)		
	glans penis		
(5)			
(1998)	Eloy and Santa Rosa		According to Eloy and Santa Rosa (1998), testicular hormones affect the separation of the penis from the foreskin.
		Bezerra	
et al. (2009)		Boer	The experiment of Bezerra et al. (2009) with bucks of Boer breed born during the dry and rainy season, confirms the above. They found that the release of the penis from the foreskin in all animals occurs at 7 months of age, which coincides with a peak in the testosterone levels.
		7	
	Abdelrahman et al. (2018)		In Anglo-Nubian bucks, Abdelrahman et al. (2018) report that the separation of the penis from the foreskin begins slightly at 10-12 weeks of age, which is preceded by a peak in the testosterone levels. The second peak in the level of the steroid is followed by its complete release, which takes place between the ages of 22 and 24 weeks.
		10-12-	
		22 24	
Elhammali et al. (2013)			Earlier complete release was reported by Elhammali et al. (2013) in cross-breeds bucks (Anglo-Nubian x Saanen - 16.3 weeks) and De Souza et al. (2011) in Anglo-Nubian bucks (102 days). Most studies consider the age of separation of the foreskin from the penis as the age of puberty. While in these two experiments, the release of the penis means a period in which a reflex of sexual desire, of erection, of grasping, but without ejaculation, is registered.
16.3	()	De Souza et al. (2011)	
(102)			

5. () – () (). (), () (). (Mekasha et al., 2007). (Akpa et al., 2012).

And puberty is reached at a later age, when the animal has shown a complete sequence of sexual behaviour, intercourse and ejaculation with motile sperm.

5. **Sperm production** - it includes two components, the formation of sperm (spermatogenesis) and sperm plasma (plasmagenesis).

- The sperm production is performed by the testicles (sperm formation and secretion), the epididymis (preserve and increase the fertility of the spermatozoon) and the additional sexual gland (in which the sperm plasma is formed and secreted).

A positive relation has been established between body weight and sperm production, as well as between testicular development and the onset of spermatogenesis (Mekasha et al., 2007).

- There is also dependence between the assessment of body condition and sperm volume, which suggests that bucks with better body condition have larger testicles, which form and secrete more sperm in one ejaculate (Akpa et al., 2012).

Reproductive efficiency in male goats is determined by the quality and quantity of sperm. Indicators of semen are influenced by: type, breed, age, live weight, individual characteristics, season, environmental factors, method of obtaining sperm, sexual regime, etc.

In the case of young growing animals, it is of great importance to satisfy their needs with crude protein, which is in sufficient quantity and high quality.

- Which in turn leads to better expressed sexual reflexes and higher sperm quality. While protein deficiency can lead to deterioration of sperm production.

In young animals, the first ejaculates of semen are obtained after the separation of the penis from the foreskin by the method of the artificial vagina or by electro-ejaculator. After receipt, the semen is evaluated in order to establish its biological efficiency.

The first information about sperm quality is obtained by macroscopic assessment, establishing the parameters of the ejaculate - volume, colour, consistency (watery, milky, creamy), purity and movements of sperm mass and pH. Suitable ejaculates were subjected to microscopic assessment, which determined the concentration (number of spermatozoon in 1 cm³ ejaculate), motility and characteristics of sperm movements, morphological assessment (determination of the percentage of pathological spermatozoon). In mammals, it has been found that sperm perform rectilinear transitional movements that are characteristic of viable sperm (Semkov et al., 1992).

The total amount of spermatozoon and secretions from the extra sexual glands secreted during the intercourse is called ejaculate.

In an experiment conducted in Greece with purebred Alpine, Saanen and Damascus goats. Karagiannidis et al. (2000) found significant influence of the season, both on the quantity of sperm (volume, concentration and total number of spermatozoons in ejaculate) and in quality (percentage of motile spermatozoa, percentage of pathological spermatozoa). The authors reported that semen with the best quantity and quality was obtained during the breeding season (late summer and autumn).

Greyling and Grobbelaar (1983) indicate that the percentage of live spermatozoon obtained by the artificial vagina technique is significantly higher

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Greyling and Grobbelaar (1983) indicate that the percentage of live spermatozoon obtained by the artificial vagina technique is significantly higher

			than that of sperm collected with an electroejaculator.
Sahel, Maina et al. (2006)		3-	In the Nigerian breed Sahel, Maina et al. (2006) reported sperm production at 3 months of age, as the spermatozoon concentration increasing with age.
	4-		Spermatogenesis was observed at 4 months of age in Assam breed (Sarma and Devi (2012), while in West African dwarf goats sperm production was reported at 5 months of age (Bitto and Egbunike, 2006) and at 5.7 months in British bucks(Ahmad and Noakes, 1996).
(Bitto and Egbunike, 2006)	5		
5,7			
(Ahmad and Noakes, 1996).			
(2015)	320		Similar results were obtained by Raji and Ajala (2015) in 320 West African dwarf goats. In their study, the presence of spermatozoa in the ejaculate of bucks aged between 4-7 months was observed.
	4-7		he semen appeared grayish, while in the 8-month-old bucks the colour of the semen was creamy.
	8		
Furstoss et al. (2009)			Furstoss et al. (2009) reported a semen volume of 0.48 ± 0.10 ml in Alpine bucksat 7 months of age, which is slightly higher than the result of the study by Akpa et al. (2013) in Red Sokolo bucks(0.2 ml aged 9 - 12 months).
ml	0.48±0.10		
	7-		
(2013)			
	9 - 12		
	23		The volume of ejaculate obtained in male animal of Ballads/ at 23 weeks of age was 0.5 ± 0.1 ml (Abi et al., 1997). In Tokara bucks, several low-motility spermatozoa were observed in small-volume ejaculates collected at 15 to 16 weeks of age. And semen with a volume of 0.6 ml was ejaculated for the first time at the age of 17 weeks, when puberty usually occurs in this breed. This semen contained a large number of spermatozoa with good motility and pale greenish-yellow colour (Nishimura et al., 2000).
0.5±0.1 ml (Abi et al., 1997).			
	15	16	
	0.6 ml		
		17	
(Nishimura et al., 2000).			
(
)			
Elhammali et al. (2013)	30		In cross-breeds (Anglo-Nubian x Saanen) at 30 weeks of age, Elhammali et al. (2013) reported the following

<p>- : ml), (87.30±1.63%), (2.8×10⁹ (5.7±0.71%).</p>	<p>(0,68±0,05 (76.30±3.41%), - .mL⁻¹) -</p>	<p>measured semen parameters: ejaculate volume (0.68 ± 0.05 ml), motility rate (76.30 ± 3.41%), live sperm percentage (87.30 ± 1.63%), sperm concentration (2.8 × 10⁹ sperm.mL⁻¹) and percentage of pathological sperm (5.7 ± 0.71%).</p>
<p>Souza et al. (2011) ml (20-) (44-).</p>	<p>De - 0.38±0.05 0.96±0.04 ml -</p>	<p>In Anglo-Nubian bucks, De Souza et al. (2011) reported an increase in ejaculate volume with the course of age from 0.38 ± 0.05 ml (at 20 week) to 0.96 ± 0.04 ml (at 44 week).</p>
<p>1.33×10⁹ 3.541.33×10⁹ - 24- .mL⁻¹ - .mL⁻¹),</p>	<p>.mL⁻¹ .mL⁻¹, 20- (1.33×10⁹ 2.59×10⁹</p>	<p>The authors also found changes in other sperm indicators with the age progress. Sperm concentration ranges from 1.33×10⁹ spermatozoa.mL⁻¹ to 3.541.33×10⁹ spermatozoa.mL⁻¹, with the most significant increase in sperm concentration being recorded in animals aged 20 to 24 weeks (1.33×10⁹ spermatozoa.mL⁻¹ – 2.59×10⁹ sperm.mL⁻¹), which is due to the significant development of the seminal ducts of the testicles and the differentiation of sertolium cells (Aguiar et al., 2006).</p>
<p>(Aguiar et al., 2006). 48,0 % (20) , 70,0 % (38)) 82,0 % (44) .</p>	<p>- : -</p>	<p>Sperm motility also had a significant change as they got older: 48.0% (20 week), 70.0% (38 weeks) and 82.0% (44 weeks).</p>
<p>32.17 % (20) 8.80 % (44-) 20- 32- 36-</p>	<p>- : -</p>	<p>The percentage of defective sperm decreased from 32.17 % (20 week) to 8.80 % (44th week). And the consistency of semen shows differences with age progress, and in the period from 20th to 32 weeks it was mostly watery and milky, while after the 36th weekly age the ejaculates were creamy.</p>
<p>6. - - (Semkov at</p>	<p>- - - (Semkov at</p>	<p>6. Testosterone - Testosterone is the first male sex hormone to be formed in testicles. It promotes spermatogenesis, manifestation of sexual reflexes, stimulates the development of the sex apparatus in male animals, as well as the appearance of secondary sex characteristics (Semkov at</p>

al., 1992; Hafez, 2004).

(Silva, 2000),

(Delgadillo and Chemineau, 1992),

(Azevedo, 2005),

Abdelrahman et al. (2018)

(10 12)

(20 24)

Bezerra et al. (2009)

Boer,

(-),

259.4±172.35 pc/mL

4613.4±2892.02 pc/mL.

(4613.4 pc/mL)

(1721.7 pc/mL).

(-),

521.9±311.27

pc/mL 3417.9±2021.77 pc/mL.,

al., 1992; Hafez, 2004). Testosterone is directly involved in the onset of puberty and, accordingly, at the beginning of spermatogenesis.

Changes in the plasma concentration of testosterone are associated with age progress, live weight (Silva, 2000), season of the year and the frequency of the pulse of luteinizing hormone (Delgadillo and Chemineau, 1992), nutrition and more precisely the protein intake (Azevedo, 2005), individual characteristics.

It has been established that the circumference of the scrotal bag is directly related to body weight and the concentration of testosterone, regardless of which season the animals were born.

Abdelrahman et al. (2018) reported a strong dependence between testosterone levels and morphological maturation of the reproductive tract in Nubian bucks. After the first peak in the concentration of the steroid (occurring between 10 and 12 weeks) there was an increase in the diameter of the seminal ducts of the testicles, epididymis, penis, the beginning of the separation of the penis from the foreskin. And the second peak (20 and 24 weeks) is associated with the first appearance of spermatozoa and the completion of the separation of the penis.

Bezerra et al. (2009) found in Boer bucks born during the dry season (July-January) that changes in testosterone concentration ranged from 259.4 ± 172.35 pc/mL to 4613.4 ± 2892.02 pc/mL. Hormone levels were observed in these animals to increase from five to seven months of age (4613.4 pc/mL) and then to decrease dramatically to eight months of age (1721.7 pc/mL). While in those born during the rainy season (February-June), the concentration of testosterone varies from 521.9 ± 311.27 pc/mL to 3417.9 ± 2021.77 pc/mL.

steady increase in hormone levels observed up to seven months of age

(3417.9 pc/mL),
 (1576.1 pc/mL).
 7
 Silva (2000).
 Chakraborty et al. (1989) De Souza et al. (2011)
 20- 44-
 20-
 28-
 38-
 38-
 0.4 5.4 ng/mL (
 20 - 2.7 ng/ml, 38 -
 2.2 ng/ml, 28-
 ng/ml 2.6 14.2
 8.5 ng/ml.
 Rosa (1998) Eloy and Santa
 18
 (5.52 ng/ml)
 28- 2.78 ng/ml,
 Shaaeldin et al., (2019)
 7.

(3417.9 pc/mL), followed by a reduction to eight months of age (1576.1 pc/mL). In both seasons, a peak in testosterone secretion is observed at 7 months of age, which coincides with the complete separation of the foreskin from the penis in all bucks. Silva (2000) obtained similar results for Saanen goats.

Changes in serum testosterone levels were found by Chakraborty et al. (1989) and De Souza et al. (2011) in Anglo-Nubian bucks aged 20 to 44 weeks. Steroid values changed with age: low in the 20th week, high in the 28th week and again low in the 38th week.

Testosterone concentrations measured at 20 and 38 weeks varied between bucks from 0.4 to 5.4 ng/mL (average for 20 weeks - 2.7 ng/ml, and for 38 - average 2.2 ng/ml, while at 28 weeks hormone levels ranged from 2.6 to 14.2 ng/ml and averaged 8.5 ng/ml).

Other authors point to an earlier peak in testosterone levels, also with a subsequent decrease in hormone levels. Eloy and Santa Rosa (1998) in native Brazilian goats reported a peak in testosterone levels at 18 weeks of age (5.52 ng/ml) and a subsequent decrease in hormone levels to 2.78 ng/ml at 28 weeks. Shaaeldin et al., (2019) obtained identical results in Anglo-Nubian bucks.

7. **Sexual behaviour** - With the onset of puberty, sexual behaviour in animals begins to manifest itself, which is an important indicator of efficiency and productivity in goat breeding. Several factors, such as breed, climatic conditions, individual differences, testosterone concentration, the presence of a goat in estrus affect sexual behavior in bucks.

Karaca et al. (2016) reported that

testosterone concentrations affect sexual activity in young bucks during the breeding season. That is, males with higher hormone levels are more sexually active.

Reproduction in animals is possible after the onset of sexual reflexes. The contact between the male and female animal, erection, intercourse, ejaculation runs under that influence. Sexual reflexes are divided into two groups - unconditional (innate) and conditioned (acquired). Unconditional reflexes begin to appear simultaneously with the sexual maturation of the bucks, mainly under the influence of androgenic hormones.

Unconditional sexual reflexes form a chain of the reproductive process, which is composed of: approach reflex - during this stage behavioural reactions are observed, such as: smelling, pushing, digging, bleating; erection reflex; coverage reflex; copulated reflex and ejaculation reflex (Semkov et al., 1992).

To assess the occurrence of sexual behaviour of bucks of Tokara breed, an access was provide to female animal in estrous cycle for 15 minutes each week from 8 weeks of age (2 months).

The following behavioural reactions were observed: approaching, smelling, pushing, digging, bleating, erection, grasping, copulation, ejaculation. The first approach of the male to a female animal was registered at the age of 8 to 9 weeks.

Direct behaviours such as erection, coverage, intercourse ocured within the age of 9 to 14 weeks. Other behaviours, such as pushing, digging and licking, were also observed periodically. In males of this breed, puberty ocured at 17 weeks of age (4 months) Nishimura et al. (2000).

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Direct behaviours such as erection, coverage, intercourse ocured within the age of 9 to 14 weeks. Other behaviours, such as pushing, digging and licking, were also observed periodically. In males of this breed, puberty ocured at 17 weeks of age (4 months) Nishimura et al. (2000).

CONCLUSIONS

- In conclusion, it can be summarized that an accurate assessment of the factors determining the onset of puberty in male goats is essential for their successful inclusion in the reproductive process at a young age. Establishing the interconnections among age, weight of animals and all the mentioned factors in different breeds raised in different climatic areas is necessary for the proper management of the reproductive process, and hence for the management of the farm.

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Dermatoglyphics and Phenetics in Cattle Breeding

Nikolay Markov

Research Institute of Mountain Stockbreeding and Agriculture, 5600 Troyan, Bulgaria
E-mail: ncm64@mail.bg

Review paper

SUMMARY

- A retrospective analysis of the issue was made by observing the main periods in the development of the scientific field of phenetics as a section of population genetics and the connection with dermatoglyphics and morphology.

- Various morphological and phenetic studies were summarized. The trends in obtaining and examining the dermatoglyph of the nasolabial plate in cattle and its relationship with useful quantitative and qualitative characteristics are presented. Various solutions in the field of cattle identification and passportization and their application in breeding and forensic veterinary medicine are considered.

- **Key words:** morphology, dermatoglyphics, nasolabial plate, productivity, phenes, cows

INTRODUCTION

- The skin of the nasolabial plate in cattle shows a characteristic image consisting of furrows, folds, shafts, ridges, granules and islands. The ancient people in Mesopotamia, Babylon, Egypt, Rome and Asia noticed that thousands of years ago. The first scientific publications on this

(Davydov, 1929, Lozovaya and Arzhankova, 2010, Sirotina, 2012).

3-D) (Yablakov and Larina, 1985, Zavertaev, 1989, Yablakov and Yusufov, 2006).

1973. (Timofeev-Resovski, 1973, Yablokov, 1987).

(Yablokov and Larina, 1985; Yablokov, 1987).

topic appeared in the early twentieth century, and for almost a century the topic was relevant and was associated with many studies (Davydov, 1929, Lozovaya and Arzhankova, 2010, Sirotina, 2012).

The study on the dermatoglyphic image (print, drawing, photography /black and white or colour/, 3-D model) of the nasolabial plate in cattle both before and now has been closely related to the scientific field of phenetics (Yablakov and Larina, 1985, Zavertaev, 1989, Yablakov and Yusufov, 2006).

Phenetics is a branch of population genetics that examines the discrete manifestations of epigenetic variability — the phenes and their combinations, manifesting as markers of epigenesis in the population.

Zoologists, such as Timofeev-Resovski and Yablokov can be considered the fathers of population phenetics in 1973. They applied a new methodological approach - the study of discrete variations of different characteristics /morphological, physiological and biochemical/, marking their presence in genetically distinct groups of individuals at both intrapopulation and intraspecies level (Timofeev-Resovski, 1973, Yablokov, 1987).

The phenetics of natural populations takes into account the characteristics of the phenes of individual animals, which are visible with sufficiently simple reading. The frequency of these characteristics allow to draw conclusions about the genetic constitution of a group in nature. Phenets are such characteristics of the phenotype that are characterized by: a) simple elementary character (indecomposability); b) alternativeness; c) discreteness (Yablokov and Larina, 1985; Yablokov, 1987).

The aim of phenetics is to develop questions about microevolution,

(Timofeev-Resovski, 1973).
 Vasiliev, (2005),
 ()
 30 Yablokov (1980)

al.,1993; 1999). (Baranov et

(Sirotna and Muradova, 2006, Baranov and Sirotna, 2011, Vanyushin, 2013).

theoretical systematics and a number of other issues related to population studies of species in nature (Timofeev-Resovski, 1973)

- According to Vasiliev, (2005), it has recently been assumed that phenetics based on population analysis of developmental processes (epigenesis) manifests itself as a kind of window of ontogenesis and morphogenesis. This idea was expressed much earlier 30 years ago by Yablokov (1980) and was further developed by his students and followers.

- There is great potential for the use of phenes in the selection of farm animals and in particular in cattle.

- A scheme of the areas for analysis of the nasal mirror has been developed, which can be used for all age groups of any breed (Baranov et al., 1993; 1999).

- The proposed method makes it possible to predict the economic potential of any individual of a given breed.

- The main task of research in this direction is to look for the correlation between the signs of dermatoglyph of the nasolabial plate in cattle and such indicators as milk yield for normal lactation, protein content, fat content, lactation rate, average daily growth, duration of economic use, behavioral reactions, etc.

- These correlations can be explained by the phenomenon of sequential overlap of complex polygenic systems in some genes that determine the manifestation of the characteristics above and are responsible for the formation of dermatoglyphic complexes in the process of epigenetic interactions (Sirotna and Muradova, 2006, Baranov and Sirotna, 2011, Vanyushin, 2013).

- In this regard, it is possible to use the dermatophenes of the nasolabial plate

(Arzhankova, 2002, Arzhankova and Lozovaya, 2010).

(Baranov and team, 1999, Baranov and Sirotina, 2011).

(Lozovaya and Arzhankova, 2010, Sirotina, 2012).

1. ,

XX

glyphio -

Midl (1926)
42

Cummins

(1943)

in cattle as an additional feature in the selection and formation of tribal nuclei of herds (Arzhankova, 2002, Arzhankova and Lozovaya, 2010).

One of the leading trends in the developed cattle breeding countries is the system for unambiguous registration and identification of breeding and commodity animals (Baranov and team, 1999, Baranov and Sirotina, 2011). The dermatoglyph of the nasolabial plate in cattle, which remains constant throughout the life, makes it possible to develop regional, national and international systems for identification and certification of different cattle breeds.

- Age-related changes in the dermatoglyph of the nasolabial plate in cattle show only quantitative but not qualitative changes (Lozovaya and Arzhankova, 2010, Sirotina, 2012).

- This has been deliberately applied successfully in forensic veterinary medicine and criminalistics to identify different categories of cattle and other ruminants in jurisprudence.

1. Beginning, essence and historical overview of dermatoglyphics and the connection with phenetics all over the world until the end of the XX century

Dermatoglyphics (Greek: dermato-skin and, glyphio-engraving) is a branch of dermatology that studies the morphology of the skin relief and the formations of furrows on the surface of the nasolabial plate in cattle. This term was proposed by Cummins and Midlo (1926) and introduced into the 42nd session of the Anatomy of the American Association of Human and Primate Anatomy, in the same year. Later, these same scientists (1943) on the basis of their previous developments perfected and described in detail the methodology of studying the skin relief of the palms and soles of

		primates and humans.
		- And for nine decades, these first descriptions have been used in the study and analysis of dermatoglyphs in mammals. Dermatoglyphics is a relatively young science that has established itself in both forensic veterinary medicine and the selection work in cattle breeding.
		- The layer of the derma, which is located just below the epidermis, forms the papillae. Therefore, the skin surface of the nasolabial plate in cattle is uneven, the so-called dermatoglyphs are formed. Dermatoglyphic features are strictly individual quantities and their combinations are unique (Trofimenko, 1986; 1991).
1986; 1991).	(Trofimenko,	
		- The surface and furrows on the epidermis of the nasolabial plate in cattle are discussed in Greek and Arabic literary sources from the seventeenth century (Vinnichuk and Trofimenko, 1994). The first scientific publications on the codominant inheritance of the furrows and ridges of the nasolabial plate in cattle appeared in the early XX century.
	VII	
(Vinnichuk and Trofimenko, 1994)		
		- The most in-depth research on the issue was conducted in the period 1920-1937 in Austria, Germany, Great Britain, Russia and Japan. The first method for dividing and classifying the imprint of the nasolabial plate in cattle was made by Petersen (1922), who identified three types of dermatoglyphs, classified strictly by the location of the lines.
1920-1937		
		- Petersen (1922),
		- Littwitz
(1924)		- Littwitz (1924) adopted, developed and classified four types of dermatoglyphs according to the location of the central furrow, respectively - E, I, O, U. Hering (1930) proposed a classification of three types of dermatoglyphs - disorder (U), v-shaped (V) and parachute -shaped (R). Almost at the same time in 1929-1936 in the former USSR, Ukraine and Russia another prominent Russian scientist, breeder and morphologist - Davydov
	- E, I, O, U. Hering	
(1930)	(U),	
	(V)	
(R).	1929-	
1936		

- Davydov (1929).

Vasiliev (2005), Vasiliev et al. (2007)

(Korochkin, 2006, Elias et al., 2010).

40

(Siroтина and Baranov, 2008, 2009; Siroтина, 2012).
Kadiev (1974)

Hering (1930).

(1929) worked on the problem.

Genetics is the theoretical basis of tribal work in cattle breeding. Phenetics on the other hand, is a scientific field of genetics closely related to zoology and botany. The subject of this direction is the intraspecies variability - a discrete manifestation of epigenetic variability, phenes and their compositions, manifesting as markers of the pathways of epigenesis in the intra-population groups.

According to Vasiliev (2005), Vasiliev et al. (2007) fans are the results of discretely implemented in the course of development sequential or alternative steps of ontogenetic program, underlying structural genesis and allowing reliable and sustainable marking of epigenetic specificity of the population and intrapopulation groups.

The discoveries at the molecular level gave a start to the identification of the really existing epigenetic mechanisms and their role in the regulation of processes related to the functioning of the genome and morphogenesis (Korochkin, 2006, Elias et al., 2010).

In cattle, more than 40 pheneshapes of hooves, nostrils, horns and ears, color, head shape, limb shape, location of different parts of the body, structure and location of teeth and others, but the largest, strategic and a promising significance for phenetics is the study of dermatophenes in the nasolabial plate (Siroтина and Baranov, 2008, 2009; Siroтина, 2012).

Kadiev (1974) studied the skin relief on the surface of the muzzle in some breeds of cattle in the USSR and for the first time introduced the term "nasolabial plate" using a similar classification in its analysis with that of Hering (1930).

He is credited with replacing the term "Disorder" with "Mosaic" in determining

Vinnichuk et al. (1977)

Pandey (1979)

Trofimenko (1989)

Trofimenko (1987, 1988, 1989, 1990, 1991)

14

1988

35,5% 33,7%.

- the type of dermatoglyph. He also found a negative correlation between skin thickness and fat content in the milk of some dairy and combined breeds of cattle.

- Vinnichuk et al. (1977) in a study of a large array of dairy animals concluded that cows of different breeds and with relatively different dermatotypes of the nasolabial plate, show different milk productivity, specifically associated with a particular type of dermatotype.

- Pandey (1979) classifies ovals, granules, furrows, rollers and shafts as the basic structures of the nasolabial plate. Using a graphical method of the common imprint /photograph/ of the nasolabial plate and the triangle method, he identified 100% of the examined animals.

- Trofimenko (1989) proposed and introduced a new classification of dermatoglyphs with six types: "Class", "Tree-branch", "Crown", "Grain", "Parallel" and "Combi". The last dermatotype shows performance in different variants: "Unidentified", "Tree-branch-crown", "Class-grain", "Class-crown" etc.

- Based on the connection between the dermatoglyphics of the nasolabial plate in cattle and the methods of phenetics in the 70-90s of the XX century in Ukraine, Trofimenko (1987, 1988, 1989, 1990, 1991) developed and applied a specific methodology. He was able to analyze the purity of dermatotypes in 14 cattle breeds and to formulate basic conclusions about the breed specificity of the distribution of part of the dermatotype, as well as the predominant distribution of the dermatotype "Tree-branch" in most cattle breeds. In 1988, he proved for Simmental cattle breed, that the dermatotypes "Class" and "Tree-branch" prevailed with a frequency of 35.5% and 33.7%, respectively.

- In his works, Trofimenko emphasizes that the dermatoglyph

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 “ 1991
 Graml et al. (1993)
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 Vininchuk and Trofimenko (1994)
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 “ ” 5077
 g 3,8%
 90-
 Pirchner (1993)
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 Parna (1996)
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- characterizes many features of genetic and selection significance: identification of animals, assessment of type and constitution, growth intensity, increased fertility, etc. Together with a team. he developed the following author's certificates: Method in the selection of bull producers on the basis of increased sperm production; Method for determining the sex of cattle by parts of their bodies; Method for estimating the intensity of live weight gain; Method for selection of newborn calves by desired type and constitution. His dissertation is also fundamental: "Theoretical and practical foundations of the phenetics of the dermatoglyph of the nasolabial plate in cattle" defended in 1991.

- Graml et al. (1993) studied different genotypes of dairy breeds of cattle and analyzed the structure of their nasolabial plates, calculating correlations between the type of dermatoglyph and useful economic, quantitative traits.

- Vininchuk and Trofimenko (1994) performed a cluster analysis of 14 dairy cattle breeds in Ukraine from different areas - dairy, combined and meat and analyzed and evaluated the different dermatotypes related to quantitative traits relevant to identification, certification and selection. They found that the cows with derematotype of "Tree-branch" from Black and White cattle breed 5077 kg with 3.8% fat substances had the highest milk productivity.

- In the early and mid '90s, research was also conducted by Pirchner (1993) at the Technical University of Munich, Freising, Germany, and Parna (1996) at the Institute of Animal Husbandry, Tartu, Estonia. They found hereditary conditionality of a number of qualitative and quantitative features of the dermatoglyph of the nasolabial plate in cattle and high correlation of the same

et al.,1993; Parna, 1996).	(Baranov	with some useful economic features (Baranov et al., 1993; Parna, 1996).
90	-	In the eastern provinces of Germany in the 90s of the 20th century, herds were formed according to useful, economic features of the dermatoglyph of the nasolabial plate in cattle, resulting in a sharp increase in milk yield. Unfortunately, these attempts were stopped immediately after the reunification of Germany for various reasons.
	-	At the same time, studies related to the structure of the nasolabial plate and milk productivity of native Indian cattle and acclimatized imported cattle were being conducted in India, analyzing various correlations (Mishra et al., 1997).
1999	Baranov et al.	In 1999, Baranov et al. reported that the dermatoglyphic pattern (photograph) of the nasolabial plate in cattle is a major phenocomplex showing several different dermatotypes relevant to identification, certification and selection.
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2.	-	2. Development of dermatoglyphics and phenetics in the XXI century
XXI	-	The study of dermatophene on the nasolabial plate continued in the XXI century. Arzhankova (2002) published studies of the dermatoglyph of the nasolabial plate of cows of Black-and-white, Red Estonian and Ayrshire cattle breeds. The author showed a predominant distribution of "Tree-branch" with the exception of Ayrshire breed, where dominated "Grain" dermatotype.
(2002)	Arzhankova	
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	-	A comparative analysis of the elements of the dermatotypes was carried out and a number of regularities in the distribution of the dermatophenes along the lines were observed.
	-	
	-	According to Arzhankova, the highest milk productivity in the herds of Black-and-white cattle breed were found in animals with dermatoglyph type of "Tree-branch"

Arzhankova and Lozovaya (2004) Arzhankova and Lozovaya (2010). Vinokurov (2002),

Kozlovsky (2004)

Malofeev et al. (2005)

Alekseeva (2006)

“K”

and "Crown". An analysis of live weight and duration of economic efficiency was made. These studies have been continued, expanded and detailed by Arzhankova and Lozovaya (2004) and Arzhankova and Lozovaya (2010).

Vinokurov (2002) examined the dermatophene on the nasolabial plate of Holstein Friesian of cows in Red Star farm and reported that the most common type of dermatotypes in animals were Class, Crown and Branch Tree.

The author constructs dedrograms for dermatoglyphic similarity along lines in the studied farms and analyzes a number of indicators: milk productivity, reproductive capacity and live weight of Holstein-Friesian cows depending on the dermatotype of the nose and mirror.

Kozlovsky (2004) studied first-calf heifers of Black-and-white breed and found five dermatotypes, as the most common were Crown and Tree-branch. The author reported that animals with these dermatotypes showed high milk productivity and high percentage values of fat and protein. He gave a characteristic of the lactation curve in connection with the dermatotypes of the nasolabial plate according to the coefficient of lactation performance and coefficient of uniformity during milking.

Malofeev et al. (2005) in the Altai, analyzed the structure of the dermatoglyph of the nasolabial plate of 46 cows of Black-and-white breed in the herds of the state farm "Prigorodnoe", noting that the animals with the dermatoglyph type "Crown" and "Grain" had the highest milk productivity.

Alekseeva (2006) studied and analyzed the nasolabial plate of Yakutian cattle and reported that it had five dermatotypes: "Tree-branch", "Class", "Crown", "Grain" and "Combi". The most common dermatotype in the studied

<p>„K Mishra et al. (2006)</p>	<p>animals is "Combi".</p> <p>Mishra et al. (2006) almost at the same time analyzed the peculiarities of the dermatoglyphic structure of the nasolabial plate of Black-and-white, Red-and-white and native aboriginal Indian breeds and determined the common dermat types and their relationship with productive quantitative traits.</p>
<p>Singhq and Patel (2006) (Bos indicus)</p>	<p>Singhq and Patel (2006) studied the dermoglyphic structure of the nasolabial plate in buffaloes (Bos indicus) in India from Surti and Jafar-abadi breeds and proved some predictions of different relationships between dermatophene and useful economic traits.</p>
<p>Barry et al. (2007)</p>	<p>Barry et al. (2007) based on various mathematical models and techniques analyzed the dermatotypes of the nasolabial plate and developed biometric standards of its structure in cattle.</p>
<p>Kimura et al. (2007)</p>	<p>Kimura et al. (2007) studied and analyzed different models of the nasolabial plate in several breeds of native and introduced cattle in Japan and developed a patent for identification based on biometric calculations.</p>
<p>Ovchinnikova (2008) 147 122 : „ -26,4%,“ 21,2%,“ - „ -14,1%, „ 13,4%.</p>	<p>Ovchinnikova (2008) studied the dermatoglyphs of 147 cows of Black-and-White Dutch cattle and 122 cows of Holstein Friesian cattle in the Urals, indicating eight dermatotypes of the nasolabial plate. Most of the cows in the studied herds showed dermatoglyphs, such as: "Crown" (26.4%), "Class" (21.2%), "Tree-branch" (14.1%), and "Grain" (13.4%). The author considers that the highest milk productivity was found in the animals with "Grain" dermatotype for Black-and-White Dutch cattle, while for Holstein Friesian was the dermatoglyphic type of "Crown" and "Tree-branch-crown".</p>
<p>Moshina and Kozlovsky (2009)</p>	<p>Moshina and Kozlovsky (2009) studied first-calf heifers of Ayrshire dairy breed and found the highest milk</p>

<p>” - “, ” %, ” “ ” Stolpovsky (2010) - 8 , 10 12 Sirotnina and Baranov (2011) 2520 , ” - - “. , Lipovik et al. (2011) Sirotnina (2012) , : ” 1905 , 376 239 Lipovik (2013) Gonchar et al. (2013)</p>	<p>- productivity in individuals with “Tree-branch” dermatotype, followed by those with “Crown”, while the lowest values were found in individuals with “Class”. - Stolpovsky (2010) made a population-phenetic analysis of intra-breed diversity of the phenic pool of hair colour of Ukrainian Grey cattle and identified 8 types of body colour, 10 types of head colour and 12 studied phenes. - Sirotnina and Baranov (2011) in Kostroma conducted systematic research on the dermatotypes of the nasolabial plate of 2520 cows of Kostroma, Red Gorbatov and Yaroslavl breeds. In this study, they discovered a new dermatotype of “Tree-branch-grain”. They studied the polymorphism of the nasolabial plate in the studied animals by genealogical groups and developed an algorithm for identifying the animals by computerizing the process. - Lipovik et al. (2011) designed and licensed a dermatoglyph fixation device and a connection to appropriate dermatoglyph image analysis software. - Sirotnina (2012) in a study in Kostroma, realized in the paper: “Cattle Dermatoglyphic Polymorphism” studied 1905 cattle of Kostroma breed, 376 cattle of the Yaroslavl breed and 239 cattle of Red Gorbatov breed and analyzed the relationship of their dermatotypes. - Lipovik (2013) examined the morphology and dermatoglyphic features of the nasolabial plate of Caspian red deer and cattle, manifested in the age aspect. - Gonchar et al. (2013) studied the dermatoglyphs of nasolabial plate of animals from the massif of the Ukrainian dairy breeds, such as Black-and-White and Red-and-White. They found that the</p>
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Novyanto and Artimurthy (2013)
„Bali“ „Ongole“
Speed-Up Robus Features (SURF)
Eigenface.
180 270
Cai and Li (2013)
6, 7, 8, 9
Kalinin (2014)
45
„ “ 9
„ “
„ – “
„ “
Machahtirova et al. (2017)
4
„ “ “ “ “
„ “ “ “ “ “ “ 68,4%
Alekseeva (2006)

most common dermatotypes were "Grain" and "Tree-branch", as average for the massif.

Novyanto and Artimurthy (2013) in Indonesia in Bali and Ongole cows developed automatic identification of cattle based on photos of the nasolabial plate using the Speed-Up Robus Features (SURF) approach, using the objective recognition method. In each examination of the nasal mirror, a rectangle in the center of the cow's muzzle is selected and a series of photographs with different lighting is taken, after which the Eigenface algorithm is applied. Evaluation is done at 0, 90, 180 and 270 degrees on each photograph.

Cai and Li (2013) performed biometric scanning of cattle head and used mathematical models developed in Shanghai, biometric automatic system for identification and certification of cattle on the principle of facial representation-texture images of a local binary model by analyzing 6, 7, 8, 9 images on a gray background.

Kalinin (2014) in Irkutsk studied the polymorphism of the nasolabial plate in 45 calves of Red-and-White breed of cattle from Khadaisk State Farm at 9 months of age. The highest live weight was found in calves with dermatotype "Crown", followed by dermatotype "Tree - branch", while the lowest was found in calves with "Grain" dermatotype.

Machahtirova et al. (2017) in a study of the population of Yakutian cattle described 4 main types of dermatoglyph of the nasolabial plate, such as: "Tree-branch", "Class", "Parallel" and "Combi". The largest manifestation was noted in the dermatoglyph "Combi" (68.4%), which according to the authors is an indicator of the low level of selection work over the years with this breed. Alekseeva (2006) obtained similar results in Yakut cattle.

3.
Kadiyski et al. (1965)

Eftimov and Venev (1978)

Markov (2014)
120
()
5500 l.
()
5
: " " 35,37-8% ,
" - " 34,17%, " " 14,16%,
" " 9,16%, " " 4,81%.
7154,9 l
3,88%
" " 6848,3 l 3,86
70%
" " 5994 l,
-4,1%.
Markov (2014)
51 ,
- . 7
: " - " 34,10%, "
22,73%, " " 20,45%, "

3. Dermatoglyphic and phenetic studies in Bulgaria

Kadiyski et al. (1965) for the first time in Bulgaria wrote and analyzed the role of the nasolabial plate in cattle, taking into account its anatomical, morphological, physiological functions and specific relief and uniqueness.

Eftimov and Venev (1978) said that in some countries, nasolabial plate prints taken in a similar way to human fingerprints are used to identify cattle and study their twinning.

Markov (2014) studied the dermatoglyph of the nasolabial plate in an array of 120 cows from Bulgarian Black-and-White cattle (BBWC) for two years in farms in the North Central region of Bulgaria. All studied animals showed milk yield over 5500 l. Morphological parameters were studied, such as folds, rollers, ovals, furrows, grains, as well as the colour of the nasolabial plate. 5 dermatotypes of the nasolabial plate were identified with the following manifestation: "Class" (35.37-8%), "Tree-branch" (34.17%), "Crown" (14.16%), "Combi" (9.16%), "Grain" (4.81%). The highest milk productivity of 7154.9 l and 3.88% fat substances was found in animals with dermatotype "Tree-branch" followed by the cows with dermatotype "Class" with 6848.3 l and 3.86 fat substances. These two dermatotypes were found in about 70% of the studied animals. Dermatotype "Combi" showed a relatively low milk yield of 5994 l, but the highest fat content of 4.1%.

Markov (2014) characterized the structure of the nasolabial plate in 51 cows, heifers and calves of Montbeliarde breed breed on a farm at the Experimental Base of RIMSA-Troyan. 7 types of dermatotypes were identified in the following ratio: "Tree-branch" (34.10%), "Class" (22.73%), "Crown" (20.45%), "Combi" (9.09%), "Grain"

9,09%, „ ”	“ 6,89%, „ ” 2,27%.	“ 4,54% ”	-	(6.89%), "Parallel" (4.54%) and "Unspecified" (2.27%). The
”	”	”	-	of all dermatotypes was calculated, including the two new ones, which had not been found in Bulgaria until then "Parallel" and "Unspecified".
”	Markov (2015, 2016)	”	-	Markov (2015, 2016) characterized the structure of the nasolabial plate of cows, heifers and calves from Bulgarian Rhodope cattle (BRC) raised at the Fore-Balkan and looked for the connection of the established and described
”	”	”	-	dermatotypes with their milk productivity. The highest milk productivity was found by the animals with dermatotype "Class" (34.61%) followed by "Crown" (26.63%) and "Combi" (26.63%), while the lowest in "Grain". The results for the milk yield were similar.
”	Markov et al. (2018)	e	-	Markov et al. (2018) proposed three-dimensional models of the structure of the nasolabial plate in cattle, revealing the methods of digital modeling and processing of the visual content of the relief of the dermatoglyph /the photo/ in morphology, using the product "Blender".
/	/ „Blender“.	”	-	Markov (2019) analyzed dermatoglyphic images on the nasolabial plate of 46 male cattle of Aberdeen Angus breed in farms in the North-Central region of Bulgaria. According to his studies, the dermatotype "Combi" in its various varieties was not found as a result of the proper selection for many years with this introduced breed.
/	Markov (2019)	46	-	Similar results for this breed were found by Trofimenko and Vinichuk in Ukraine in 1987. The most frequently observed dermatotype in the examined calves was "Tree-branch" (45.6%), followed by dermatotype "Class" (21.75), "Crown" (17.5%) and "Grain" (15.26.5%). The best growth abilities were found in the male cattle with "Tree-branch" dermatotype, and in second place were the cattle with "Class" dermatotype.
”	”	1987	-	
”	45,6%,	”	-	
”	“ 21,75, “	“ 17,5% ”	-	
15,26.5%.	-	”	-	
”	”	”	-	
”	”	”	-	

CONCLUSIONS

- Phenetic research is a significant theoretical basis for epigenetics, explaining questions to which no solutions and answers have been found.

The phenetics and dermatoglyphics of the nasolabial plate in cattle attract the attention of scientists who study the specific combinations in the dermatotype of different breeds and the correlation of the structure of the nasolabial plate with economic, useful, quantitative features.

- The different cattle breeds show a breed-specific arrangement of the elements that form the phenocomplexes of their nasolabial plate. Most members of a line in a breed have similar dermatotypes. T

The photo of the nasolabial plate allows to determine the gender of each representative. It is different in male and female animals. Among bulls and cows there are individuals with signs of the opposite sex, we classify and label them as "feminized bulls" and "masculinized cows".

- The identification and passporting of cattle by the structure of the dermatoglyph of the nasolabial plate is used and applied successfully in Australia, Egypt, India, Indonesia, Ireland, China, New Zealand, Russia, Ukraine, Japan.

- The use of the phenotypic diversity of the dermatoglyph of the nasolabial plate in the selection of cattle breeding is associated with increasing the accuracy of the team.

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Production Performance and Heterosis in New Autosexing Dual-purpose Layer Hybrids for Free Range Poultry Farming Systems

Krastina Kaliasheva*, Magdalena Oblakova, Pavlina Hristakieva

Agricultural Academy, Agricultural Institute, 6000 Stara Zagora, Bulgaria

**E-mail: krustina7@abv.bg*

Original scientific paper

SUMMARY

- The study examined the performance of five pure line hens and five new autosexing hybrid combinations which were obtained from crossing these pure lines over two consecutive years.
- The main objective of the study is to determine the heterosis effect obtained of the main productive qualities of hybrids from crossing pure lines of hens.
- On this purpose, the performance of the laying hens from the parental forms and the experimental groups (autosexing hybrids) were monitored: body weight at 1 and 4 months of age, age sexual maturity (day); egg productivity to 6 month (180 day) of age; average egg weight (g); livability (%). On the basis of the obtained values of these traits, the heterosis (%) was calculated.
- The heterosis effect of body weight by the end of the 4th month of age was various and positive during the two experimental

+26,13% + 23,00% I II
 -
 V + 8,9% + 3,96%,
 III + 4,59%
 +7,81%
 -
 II (+ 6,38%), I
 (+ 6,33%)
 + 5,84%, + 3,54% I IV

periods, attaining +26.13% and +23.00% in groups I and II, respectively. Crossbreeding had the most pronounced positive effect on egg production weight in group V + 8.9% and + 3.96%, followed by group III with +4.59% and +7.81% for the two years of the study, respectively. Hybrid groups had a higher livability than parental lines, with highest values in group II (+6.38%), followed by group I (+6.33%) during the first study year and +5.84%, +3.54% for group I and IV during the second study year.

Key words: laying hens, lines, autosexing, plumage colour, egg production, egg weight, body weight, heterosis

INTRODUCTION

The creation of new hybrid combinations in poultry farming is aimed at obtaining maximum profit from the genetic potential of egg-laying, dual-purpose and meat type breeds. This necessitates the maintenance and perfection of lines with respect to improving the genetic traits of breeding material. The creation of new lines and combination in poultry farming is a continuous process. Each company should comply with constantly changing demands of its clients in order to stay competitive on the market.

The utilisation of breeds from national gene pools in modern industrial poultry farming is possible, as they carry various valuable traits (Gorbacheva, 1986).

In industrial poultry farming, two types of egg-laying hybrids are formed on the basis of two breeds with respect to eggshell colour: White Leghorn with white eggshell and Rhode Island, with brown eggshell. Egg-laying hybrids obtained from Sussex and Plymouth Rock, Rhode Island (suitable for production of autosexing hybrids) are in the group of other egg-laying hybrids (Kabakchiev et

Gorbacheva, (1986)

(Kabakchiev et al., 2014),

al., 2014). Phenotypically, these hybrids could be divided into brown, black, silver, cuckoo, red-brown.

Apart industrial poultry farming, the previously popular backyard rearing of poultry is still practiced. Two types of consumers of breeding and hybrid material have been formed, and during the last decade with the development of organic poultry farming, small farms requiring medium-size chickens with good egg production, adapted to outdoor rearing have appeared.

The existing national and foreign practice has shown that the most appropriate breeds and hybrids for these farms are medium-sized New Hampshire, White and Barred Plymouth Rock and Sussex. Under the conditions of these farms, they lay about 250-280 eggs (Lalev et al., 2012). At the same time they produce brown eggs, sought at retail markets (Kaliasheva et al., 2017). To satisfy increasing demands of female birds from these farms, sexing at the first post hatch day is necessary with sex determination by plumage colour. Therefore, the need of maintaining a diverse genetic fund for production of dual-purpose layers for organic poultry farming has emerged during the last years.

The creation of new lines and combination in poultry farming is a constant phenomenon. Each company should comply with constantly changing demands of its clients in order to stay competitive on the market. Apart maintaining and improving existing lines, new ones are constantly created and investigated. Sexing of day-old chicks by means of the S locus has substantially alleviated the work and production efficacy. One operator could evaluate 30,000 chicks per hour with inaccuracy of 0.1% (Belorechkov, 1990)

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Crossing allows for combination of

valuable traits of original lines in their offspring. The main purpose of crossbreeding in poultry farming is producing crosses with traits superior to these of original lines.

During crossbreeding, the heterosis effect is manifested, expressed in increased productivity and livability in F1 crosses by combining different valuable traits of original lines (Szwaczkowski et al., 2003).

In general, crossbreeding of pure lines is aimed at obtaining offspring with better production traits (Saadey et al., 2008; Hristakieva et al., 2014; Lalev et al., 2014; Amin, 2015; Soliman et al., 2016).

Objective evaluation of value of a breed and its place in the genetic schedule is done on the basis of diallel crossings to exhibit the heterosis effect (Hanafi and Iraqi 2001, Siwendu et al., 2012).

Diallel crossing in poultry farming is used to evaluate the broad genetic combination that could be used as a basis for creating new breeds or lines and to determine better crosses (Aly et al., 2005, Khalil et al., 2018, Keambou et al., 2010).

Theoretically, the heterosis is inversely proportional to the extent of genetic similarity between parental lines and directly proportional to heterozygosity of crosses.

It results from non-additive genetic effects and could reflect a specific or general ability for combination and is not constant due to recombination. Heterosis is influenced by maternal effects.

Usually it is greater for reproduction traits than for growth performance, a higher egg production, higher egg weight and lower mortality is detected in crosses compared to pure lines Khawaja and Khan (2013).

(Szwaczkowski et al., 2003).

(Saadey et al., 2008; Hristakieva et al., 2014; Lalev et al., 2014; Amin, 2015; Soliman et al., 2016).

(Hanafi and Iraqi 2001; Siwendu et al., 2012).

(Aly et al., 2005; Khalil et al., 2018, Keambou et al., 2010).

Khawaja and Khan (2013)

. Abou El-Ghar and Abdou, (2004) Saadey (2008)

Greater heterosis effect for traits associated to egg production is also confirmed by Abou El-Ghar and Abdou, (2004) and Saadey (2008).

One of priorities of the Selection, Population genetics and Technologies of poultry and rabbits unit is maintenance of lines and breeds from this type aimed at testing the combination potential for creation of hybrids, including autosexing hybrids.

The main purpose of the study was to test 5 pure lines from the national genetic fund and 5 new autosexing dual-purpose layer hybrids by the feathering colour, through fulfillment of the following tasks:

1. e :
2. ,

1. Investigation of primary productive traits of original lines and by the feathering colour autosexing hybrids.
2. Evaluation of the heterosis effect from crossbreeding.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

The study presents the research from creation of five new feathering autosexing dual-purpose hybrids suitable for free-range farming.

N G (), Ss (), (NG x Rod Rhode Island), I ()

It included reproduction of the five parental lines: Line NHG (New Hampshire G), Line E (Barred Plymouth Rock), Line Ss (Sussex), Line (NG x Red Rhode Island) Line I (Barnevelder) participating in the experiment.

Five experimental groups of layer hens were formed as a result of mating schedule with the following autosexing feathering pattern at 1 day of age:

- I. P -
- II. NHG ,

- I. Line P Line - day-old males are black with white spot on the head and light belly, females are black
- II. Line NHG Line - males are black with white spot on the head,

III.	P	Ss	-	females are black
-	,			III. Line P Line Ss - males
IV.	NHG	Ss	-	have yellow down, females: red-brown down
-	,			IV. Line NHG Line Ss -
V.	I		-	males have yellow down, females: red down
-	,			V. Line I Line - females
-				are black, males are black with white spot on the head
-				
-				Chickens from original lines and experimental combinations were incubated and hatched at the same time (June-July 2016 and 2017). There were housed in groups of 100 day-old chicks, marked and vaccinated. Chicken groups were reared on a deep permanent litter from wooden shavings: indoor-floor system.
(-	2016	2017).	-
100				-
-				,
				.
				,
				- indoor-floor system.
				16
				3
		25	.	Upon introduction in the main flock at 16 weeks of age, they were housed in 3 selection nests with 25 hens and 2 roosters, area of up to 7 m ² , daylight of 14 h, with constant access to compound feed and water.
			7m ²	
(ad libitum)	14 h			
.				
.				
.				
-				Standard compound feed was used according to birds' age and category. To this end, following the methodical guidelines for evaluation of birds' productive performance, the following production traits of layers from parental forms and experimental groups of autosexing hybrids were evaluated:
:				
1.	-			1. Live weight – determined by individual weighing with technical balance with precision of u 5 g, at 1 and 4 months of age
		5 g (
)		
2.				2. Age of sexual maturity in days calculated at attaining 50 % production for each group.
			50 %	
3.	() -			3. Egg production – determined by groups on hen-day and hen-housed basis by number of eggs over the egg laying period up to 180 weeks of age
,				
				-
	180			-
4.		(g)-		4. Average egg weight – determined by individual weighing of daily egg production per groups at 2-week

26- 44-
 5. 0.1g. (%)
 (%)
 Fairfull (1990):
 $H\% = [F_1 - (P_1 + P_2)/2] / [(P_1 + P_2)/2] \times 100$,
 H%- (%)
 F1 -
 1,2 -
 O
 xcel 2003- ANOVA
 : Descriptive Statistics
 F-Test Two-Sample for Variances
 (Zhelyazkov and Tsvetanova, 2002).

- intervals between 26 and 44 weeks of age, with precision of 0.1 g

- 5. Livability (%) calculated as ratio between the number of birds at a specified age and the number of hatchlings (%)

- The heterosis effect was calculated according to the formula Fairfull (1990):

$H\% = [F_1 - (P_1 + P_2)/2] / [(P_1 + P_2)/2] \times 100$,
 where: H% – heterosis (%)

- F1 – average values of traits of crosses

- 1,2 – average values of traits of original lines

- Data were processed with xcel 2003-ANOVA using the Descriptive Statistics and F-Test Two-Sample for Variances procedures (Zhelyazkov and Tsvetanova, 2002).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

- Table 1 shown the productive traits of pure lines and hybrid combinations during the first year of the study. At one month of age, higher live weight was detected in birds from Line I. they attained a live weight of 211.9 g (p<0.001), followed by line , which attained 208.3 g, line with 177 g, whereas birds from Line Ss had a live weight of 170.3 g. In another study (Oblakova, 2015) the live weight of chickens from Line E at 8 and 18 weeks of age exceeded statistically significantly those of dual-purpose Line NG and Line Ss.

- At 4 months of age, the highest live weight was that of the original Line I - 1866 g, followed by Line NHG, whereas the lowest average weight was found out in Line - 1226 g (p<0.001).

1
 .
 -
 I. 211.9g
 (p<0.001),
 208.3 g,
 Ss 170,3g.
 (Oblakova, 2015)
 8 18
 N G , Ss
 .
 -
 I - 1866 g,
 NHG,
 - 1226 g p<0.001.

1.

Table 1. Production traits of pure lines and hybrid combinations during the first year

Traits	Pure lines					Cross				
	Line E	Line P	Line Ss Ss	Line I I	Line NHG NHG	group x E	group NHG E	group P Ss	Vgroup V NHG xSs	V group V I x E
Body weight(g) ()										
1 month of age 1	208,3±5,6 1:3***1:5***	177±4 2:4**	170,3±4,8 3:4***	211,9±5,8	175,83±3,8	176,83±4,6 1:2***1:3***1:5***	208,5±,2 2:3***2:4***	160±1,9 3:4***3:5***	166±1,8	228,6±4,7
4 month of age 4	1505±4,8 1:2***1:4***	1226±3,13 2:3***2:4***	1454±6,6 3:4***3:5***	1866±4,4 4:5***	1558±2,4	1483±2,2 1:2***1:3***1:4**	1569±5,8 2:3***2:4***	1412±5 3:5***	1336±4,9 4:5***	1938±2,9
Age sexual maturity (day) ()	165±0,5 1:4**	169±0,1 2:4**	170±0,1 3:4**	189±0,1 4:5**	167±1,15	166,3±3,4 1:5**	165,5±5 2:5**	174±2 3:5**	175,6±5 4:5**	154±2,08
Average egg weight (g) ()	58,25±0,72 1:3**	58,41±1 2:3**	51,2±0,84 3:4***3:5***	56,47±0,73	58,85±0,79	60,07±1,04 1:4***	60,84±0,85 2:4***	57,32±0,62 3:5***	53,5±0,87 4:5***	62,47±0,68
Egg production for 180 days 180	142,42±2,5 1:4*	121,41±1,69 2:4*	125,69±0,67 3:4*	86,7±0,1	109,5±7,8	125,88±3,9 1:4**1:5***	124,12±2,9 2:4**2:5***	117,24±4 3:5***	105,69±0,67 4:5***	79,59±6,2
Livability(%) %	97,5±2,5	80,55±2,7	100	83,33	85,55±7,2	94,66±3,2	97,36±1,9	92,3±4,2	94,2±3,1	88,57±5,1

1,2,3,4,5 , ,Ss,I,NHG 0,05* 0,01** 0,001***
With 1,2,3,4,5 are indicated lines , ,Ss,I,NHG 0,05* 0,01** 0,001***

1
 V ()
 228.6g,
 II () 208.5g, I
 () - 176.83g, IV
 () 166g, III
 () 160g p<0.001.
 4-
 - 1938 g V
 I,
 Yakubu et al. (2009)
 1124,22g 1288,89g.
 Jatoi et al., (2014),
 1680,76g. 1686,18g,
 165.5
 NHG 167 P
 169 Ss
 170
 p<0.01. I.
 189
 al., (2012), Lalev et
 -180, NHG-182, Ss -
 202
 154
 V

Table 1 shows also the live weight of hybrid groups. Hybrids from group V (black feathering) were the heaviest on the first stage of the study: 228.6 g, followed by Group II (black feathering) 208.5 g, Group I (black feathering) - 176.83 g, Group IV (red) 166 g and Group III with red-brown down – 160 g at p<0.001.

The same trends in the development of hybrids were preserved on 4 months of age. The highest live weight of Group V hybrids - 1938 g was probably a result from the influence of Line I, which is used as paternal form, with significant differences vs the other groups. The results showed differences in live weight among groups in line with findings Yakubu et al., (2009) demonstrating substantial variations in the live weight between two broiler genotypes, 1124.22 g and 1288.89 g respectively.

Another study of Jatoi et al., (2014) reported variations in live weight of crosses compared to pure lines. At sexual maturity, the weight of crosses was 1686.18 g vs 1680.76 g for pure lines.

With respect to age of sexual maturity, it occurred at the earliest (165.5 days) in birds of line E followed by line NHG at 167 days, Line P – 169 days of age, Line Ss at 170 days (p<0.01).

The latest onset of sexual maturity was observed for Line I.

Data were in line with results of Lalev et al. (2012) for evaluation of productive traits of layers from the national gene pool where studied lines began laying at a later age – Line E at 180 days, Line NHG – 182 days, Line Ss - 202 days of age.

Among hybrids, those from Group V began laying at 154 days of age due to

175.6 (p<0.01). IV

(NHG E) V- (P E), II (I E)

58,85g, Ss 51.20g p<0.001.

58.41 g, 58.25g, I 56.47 g,

V- (I E) II 62,47g, (NHG E) 60,84g; I (P E) 60,07g; III (P x Ss) IV (NHG Ss) 53,3g.

Khawaja and Khan (2013)

(Gerzilov et al., 2012). 180

- 142,42

more intense growth with more rapid development, specific for birds during the entire study. The highest age at sexual maturity was established for Group IV - 175.6 days of age (p<0.01).

The comparison of the five groups of autosexing hybrids allowed affirming that the maternal line E had the highest effect on crosses. In the study, sexual maturity occurred at the earliest in birds from the original Line , so all hybrid groups where it was used as maternal line - Group I (P E), Group II (NHG E) and Group V (I E) : all three with black feathering, were outlined with earlier onset of lay compared to the other groups.

The average egg weight in pure lines was the highest in Line NHG – 58.85 g, with statistically significant differences vs Line Ss (51.20 g; p<0.001). The other three lines occupied an intermediate position – Line with 58.41 g, Line with 58.25 g, Line I with 56.47 g, with insignificant differences.

From crosses, the highest egg weight was found out in birds from Group V (I E) with black feathering with 62.47 g, followed by Group II (NHG E) with black feathering - 60.84 g; Group I (P E) with black feathering - 60.07 g; Group III (Line P x Line Ss) with red feathers: 57 32 g. Birds from Group IV (Line NHG x Line Ss) with red feathers had the lowest egg weight (53.3 g). Higher egg weight in crosses compared to original lines of layers was also reported by Khawaja and Khan (2013).

Many factors, mainly genetic ones, influence egg production in layer hens (Gerzilov et al., 2012). The average egg production per 180 days in studied birds was considerably different.

The highest average egg production was found out in Line E hens – 142.42 eggs

121,41 Ss-125,69 P
 - p<0.05.
 I 86,7
 - I 125,88
 II - 124,12
 III IV
 117,24 105,69
 V
 79,59
 - -142,42.
 (1)
 Ss-100%,
 - 97,5%, NHG
 85,55%.
 - 80,55%.
 V
 - 88,57%,
 II - 97,36%
 2
 V -8,21 I +8,80
 (Razuki and
 Al-Shaheen, 2011; Abou El-Ghar et al.,
 2012; Amin et al., 2013; Amin 2015; Lalev
 et al., 2014).
 V +14,98%. IV e

followed by Line Ss – 125.69 eggs, Line P
 with 121.41 eggs (p<0.05). Birds from
 Line I produced the lowest number of
 eggs - 86.7.

The highest egg production for the
 period was found out in hybrid Group I
 with 125.88 followed by Group II – 124.12
 eggs with insignificant difference. Birds
 from Groups III and IV laid down 117.24
 and 105.69 eggs respectively, and the
 lowest number of eggs was found out in
 Group V (79.59). The pure line used as the
 mother side in the cross-line schemes E
 has the highest number of eggs -142.42

Livability is important for
 determination of economic efficacy of
 poultry farming. In this experiment (Table
 1), Line Ss was outlined with the highest
 livability among original lines - 100%,
 followed by Line – 97.5%, line NHG –
 85.55%. The lowest livability was that of
 Line - 80.55%.

The lowest livability among hybrid
 combinations was that of hens from
 Group V – 88.57%, and the highest – in
 Group II: 97.36%, both with black
 feathering.

Table 2 presents the values of
 heterosis effect resulting from crossing on
 production traits during the first year. It is
 observed that it manifests itself with
 varying strength in live weight at one
 month of age and ranges from -8.21 in
 group I to +8.80 in group V.

Positive heterosis effect on live weight of
 crosses was reported by other
 researchers (Razuki and Al-Shaheen,
 2011; Abou El-Ghar et al., 2012; Amin et
 al., 2013; Amin 2015; Lalev et al., 2014).

The highest effect from crossing on the
 live weight at 4 months of age was found
 out in four groups. Heterosis effect was
 positive, again the greatest in Group V:
 +14.98%.

- 11,28%.
, V
,
(Saadey
et al., 2008)
,
Sinai (S)
(WL),
Fayoumi (F)
Sinai (S)
-
Njedbo et
al., (2013) Amira (2013)
EM
-

In Group IV it was negative: -11.28%. On the basis of results it could be assumed that crosses from Group V had a positive heterosis effect for live weight during the entire study period, corresponding to other research works (Saadey et al., 2008) affirming that results from the heterosis effect evaluation in crosses between Sinai (S) roosters and White Leghorn (WL) hens, as well as between Fayoumi (F) roosters and Sinai (S) hens yielded the greatest heterosis effect on live weight.

Another study Njedbo et al., (2013) and Amira (2013) demonstrated that EM crosses were superior to original lines with respect to this parameter.

2. (%)

Table 2. Heterosis effect (%)

Traits	group x E	group NHG E	group P Ss	Vgroup V NHG xSs	V group V I x E
Body weight(g)					
1 month of age / 1	-8.21	+8.5	-7.86	-4.07	+8.8
4 months of age / 4	+8.6	+2.44	+5.37	-11.28	+14.98
Age sexual maturity (day)	-0.56	-0.03	+0.02	+0.04	-0.12
Average egg weight (g)	+2.98	+3.19	+4.59	-2.76	+8.9
Egg production for 180 days	-0.05	-0.01	-0.05	-0.10	-29.75
Livability / %	+6.33	+6.38	+2.24	+1.54	-2.03

,
-
I - 0,56%,
II - 0,03%, V - 0,12%
III IV
+0,02% +0,04%.
,
Williams et al., (2002).
Hristakieva et al., (2014)
-
-6,70%
- 1,29%.

The heterosis effect with respect to age at sexual maturity of studied hybrid combinations was negative in birds from Group I – 0.56%, Group II – 0.03%, and Group V – 0.12% and positive in Groups III and IV; +0.02% and +0.04%, respectively. Negative heterosis effect for live weight increasing with age of offspring was found out after crossing two White Plymouth Rock lines (Williams et al., (2002).

Crossing original layer lines resulted in heterosis effect on age at sexual maturity varying from -6.70% to -1.29% (Hristakieva et al., (2014).

I, II, III V
 2,98% 8,90%.

IV
 2,76%.

IV

(Saadey et al., 2008),
 FxS SxRIR
 - SxF RIRxS,

180

V
 2,03%.

V

II +6,38%, I
 +6,33%, III +2,24% IV
 +1,54%.

Hristakieva et al., (2014),

3

I - 461,97g,
 -353,73g,

p<0.001.

252,84g.
 (p<0.001).

- The heterosis effect with respect to average egg weight was positive for Groups I, II, III and V, from 2.98% to 8.90%. Negative heterosis effect on this trait was found out only in hybrids from Group IV – 2.76%.

- With regard to average egg weight, except for Group IV, crosses were superior to original lines.

- A similar superiority of crosses for egg weight was reported, as crosses between FxS and SxRIR and reciprocal crosses - SxF and RIRxS exhibited positive high heterosis effect for egg weight (Saadey et al., 2008).

- With respect to egg production for 180 days, hybrids from all groups showed negative heterosis effect indicating that they were not superior to original lines during the first year of the experiment.

- Heterosis for the other evaluated trait – livability, was negative only for Group V – 2.03%. These data suggest that birds from Group V had a lower livability compared to parental lines.

- The other four hybrid combinations had a positive heterosis effect, which was the greatest for Group II +6.38%, followed by Group I +6.33%, Group III +2.24% and Group IV +1.54%. Data were confirmed by another study (Hristakieva et al., (2014) that found out negative heterosis in one hybrid combination and positive one in another two two-line hybrid combinations.

- Table 3 presents the production performance of birds from pure lines and hybrid combinations during the second year of the study. With respect to live weight at 1 month of age, birds from Line I were the heaviest – 461.97 g, followed by Line – 353.73 g (p<0.001). The lightest birds were from Line P – 252.84g at 1 month of age. The differences are mathematically proven (p<0.001).

3.

Table 3. Production traits of pure lines and hybrid combinations during the second year

Traits	Pure lines					Cross				
	Line E	Line P	Line Ss Ss	Line I I	Line NHG NHG	group x E	group NHG E	group P Ss	Vgroup V NHG xSs	V group V I x E
Body weight(g) ()										
1 month of age 1	353,73±8,67 1:2***1:5*** 1:4***	252,84±6,49 2:4***	277,89±9,04 3:4***	461,97±1,61 4:5***	294,68±9,16	303,26±5,48 1:3***1:4***	334,4±8,77. 2:3***2:4**	245,43±5,83 3:5***	221,43±5,88 5:4***	358,76±8,68
4 month of age 4	1431,2±2.20 1:3**1:4**1:5***	1313,9±3,64 2:3***2:4***	1463,8±6,76 3:4***	2177±8,79 4:5***	1476,9±2,17	1731,2±2,22 1:3***1:4*** 1:5***	1788,5±8,1 2:3***2:4*** 2:5***	1558±2,9 3:5***	1541,8±3,2 4:5***	2172,5±4,06
Age sexual maturity (day) ()	165,3±0,3 1:3**	166±3,2 2:3**2:4*	180,3±4,2 3:4**	176,6±1,2 4:5**	165,5±0,5	163±0 1:3**1:4***	167±0 2:4***2:5**	169,3±1,7 3:4*	175,3±0,6	161,3±1,6
Average egg weight (g) ()	60,17±0,17 1:3***1:5**	60,89±0,2 2:3***2:5**	50,75±0,29 3:4***3:5**	59,9±0,28	58,76±0,12	63,37±0,95 1:4**	61,04±0,14 2:4**	60,18±0,5 3:5*	58,73±0,45 4:5***	62,41±0,24
Egg production for 180 days 180	107,7±1,4	109,98±3,06	106,33±7	89,78±2,7	122,4±8.2	141,76±8 1:4**1:5**	116,1±2.1	146,84±7,2 3:4**3:5**	105,8±5,7	102,03±2,7
Livability (%) %	94,66±1,3	89,33±2,7	96	89,33±2,7	92	97,33±1,3	96±2,3	94,66±1,3	97,33±1,3	93,33±0,3

1,2,3,4,5

, ,Ss,I,NHG 0,05* 0,01** 0,001*** With 1,2,3,4,5 are indicated lines , ,Ss,I,NHG 0,05* 0,01** 0,001***

g. I 2177 (p<0.001).

V 358,76g, II 334,4g, I 303,26g, III 245,43 g. IV 221,43g p<0.001.

NHG 165,3 P 165,5 166 Ss-180,3 NHG, P. I, Ss. V 161,1 I 163 II 167 III 169,3 IV 175,3 p<0.001.

The tendency for better growth performance of Line I was preserved during the entire period so at 4 months of age they weighed 2177 g. The differences vs the other lines were statistically significant (p<0.001).

The comparison with live weights for the first year confirmed the better growth performance of Line I vs the other lines.

Live weights of hybrids showed that during the first month of life, birds from Group V were the heaviest – 358.76 g, followed by Group II: 334.4 g, Group I – 303.26 g, Group III with 245.43 g. The lowest live weight was observed in Group IV – 221.43 g (p<0.001). Until the end of the experimental period, this tendency was preserved. Together with results from the first study year, the same sequence in growth performance of hybrids was found out - Group V, Group II, Group I.

With regard to age at sexual maturity, the earliest age was that of Line , that began to lay at 165.3 days of age. For Line NHG this age was 165.5 days followed by Line P: 166 days, with insignificant differences. The latest age at sexual maturity was that of Line Ss - 180.3 days. Comparison to data from the first year showed the same tendency in lay beginning: Line , Line NHG, Line P. It should be noted that during the first year, Line I was the last to begin laying, whereas during the second year – Line Ss.

Among crosses, the earliest onset of sexual maturity was observed in Group V: 161.1 days, followed by Group I with 163 days of age and Group III: 169.3 days of age.

The latest group IV at 175.3 days of age. The differences are mathematically proven in p<0.001.

The heaviest eggs among original lines were produced by Line – 60.89 g, followed by Line – 60.17 g and Line I –

- 60,89g,
 - 60,17g
 59,9g
 -
 Ss - 50,75g
 NHG - 58,76g
 >0.001.
 2,48g,
 I 3,43g,
 NHG 0,09 g.
 -
 - 63,37g,
 - 62,41g, II
 60,18g
 IV
 58,73g
 >0.001.
 I 3,3g,
 III 2,86g, IV 5,23g.
 II V
 I V
 180
 -
 NHG-122,4
 109,98
 Ss-106,33
 -
 -107,7
 -
 -
 89,78
 -
 -
 11,43 34,72
 Ss 19,36
 -
 142,42
 NHG - 122,4
 -
 III
 146,84
 I - 141,76

59.9 g, with insignificant differences.

The lowest average egg weight was found out in lines NHG – 58.76 g and Ss – 50.75 g (>0.001). Compares to the first year, egg weight has increased during the second study year: in Line by 2.48 g, in Line by 1.92 g, in Line I by 3.43 g, in Line Ss by 0.45 g and in Line NHG by 0.09 g.

Hybrid layers had higher egg weights. The heaviest eggs were laid by Group I – 63.37 g, followed by Group V – 62.41 g, Group II – 61.04 g, Group III – 60.18 g without statistically significant differences. Birds from Group IV had the lightest eggs (58.73 g; >0.001).

Comparing these results to those from the previous study year, the egg weight has increased as followed: in Group I by 3.3 g, in Group III by 2.86 g, in Group IV by 5.23 g. In Group II and V the increase was insignificant. During the second year, heaviest eggs were laid by Group I, whereas during the first year – by Group V.

Average number of eggs produced per 180 days was the highest in Line NHG – 122.4 eggs followed by Line – 109.98, Line – 107.7, Line Ss – 106.33.

No statistically significant differences were established for this trait among layers. The lowest number of eggs for 180 days – 89.78, was produced by Line I.

It should be noted that the number of eggs laid during the second year has considerably decreased – in Line by 34.72 eggs, in Line by 11.43 eggs, in Line Ss by 19.36 eggs. Line E produced the highest number of eggs during the first year (142.42) whereas Line NHG – during the second year (122.4).

Autosexing layers from Group III produced 146.84 eggs followed by Group I – 141.76 eggs, but differences were insignificant. Layers from Group II

	II		116,1	
105,8			IV	V
	-			
	- 102,03			
V		III	IV	
	p<0.01.			
146,84			III	
		I		
89,33%		I - 89,33%,		
			Ss-96%.	
			NHG	
		94,66%	92%.	
IV	- 97,33%.			
V	- 93,33%.		II	III
96%	94,66%.			
2,76%,			I	
3,13%,	III	2,36%,	IV	
	V	4,76%.		
		4		
		II	+3,14%.	
		IV	-22,65%.	
	(Bekele, 2010),			
(F)	Rhode Island Red (R)		Fayoumi	
	Naked neck (N)	Netch (W)		
	RW			

produced 116.1 for 180 days and those from Group IV: 105.8 eggs. Crosses from Group V produced the lowest number of eggs - 102.03. The differences between Group III and Group IV and Group V were substantial ($p < 0.01$).

Despite parental lines, crosses demonstrated increased egg production compared to the first year. During the second year, the highest egg production was observed in hybrids from Group III – 146.84 eggs whereas for the first year – Group I.

The livability of all studied birds was acceptable. From original lines, the lowest livability was noted in Line – 89.33% and Line I – 89.33%, while the highest – in Line Ss - 96%. Livability percentage in Line E and Line NHG was 94.66% and 92% respectively.

Among hybrid combinations, the highest livability was found in chickens from Groups I and IV – 97.33%. The lowest livability was that of Group V – 93.33%, in chickens from Group II and III: 96% and 94.66% respectively. Comparing those percentages to the preceding year, slightly increased rates could be noted: in Group I by 2.76%, in Group III: by 2.36%, in Group IV by 3.13%, and in Group V by 4.76%.

Table 4 presents the heterosis effect on productive performance of hybrids during the second year.

Positive heterosis effect on live weight at 1 month of age was found out only in Group II: +3.14%. For the other 4 groups it was negative, attaining -22.65% in Group IV. Negative heterosis effect for live weight was reported (Bekele, 2010) after crossing Fayoumi (F) and Rhode Island Red (R) with local breeds Naked neck (N) and Netch (W). In RW crosses the body weight was lower compared to original lines.

4. (%)

Table 4. Heterosis effect (%) of production traits during the second year

Traits	group x E	group NHG E	group P Ss	Vgroup V NHG xSs	V group V I x E
Body weight / (g)	-0,09	+3,14	-7,51	-22,65	-12,03
1 month of age / 1					
4 months of age / 4	+26,13	+23,00	+12,18	+4,86	+20,42
Age sexual maturity (day)	-1,60	+0,96	-2,22	+1,39	-5,64
Average egg weight (g)	+4,69	+2,64	+7,81	+7,27	+3,96
Egg production for 180 days	+30,25	+0,91	+35,77	-7,49	+3,33
Livability / %	+5,84	+2,86	+2,16	+3,54	+1,44

+26,13%.
al., (2002)

+4,86%
Iraqi et al., (2002)

+41,79%.
Singh and Singh, (2005)

El-Ngomy (2011)

I, III, V
1,60%, -2,22%, -5,64%
II +0,96% IV +1,39%.
Ahmed Abd El-Monem Debes et al., (2017)

Fairfullet et al., (1985; 1987)

(0 -9%).

During the 4th month, heterosis values were positive for all groups and varied from +4.86% to +26.13%. It was shown (Iraqi et al., 2002) that heterosis effect in general was positive and high for the body weight of crosses, observing values up to +41.79%.

It was proved that the body weight of crosses at various ages was associated with positive heterosis effect (Singh and Singh, 2005). Another study (El-Ngomy, 2011) demonstrated that crosses were superior to original line with regard to body weight. Comparing values from both study years, those from the second year were significantly higher, the heterosis was negative only during the first month of life and became positive for the other months.

With respect to age at sexual maturity, heterosis effect was negative in groups I, III, V: -1.60%, -2.22%, -5.64% respectively and positive in Groups II and IV: +0.96% and +1.39% respectively. Positive high heterosis effect values were reported for age at sexual maturity in two crosses of hens Ahmed Abd El-Monem Debes (2017), whereas others detected insignificant negative heterosis values for the same parameter (0 to -9%) (Fairfullet et al., 1985; 1987).

The heterosis effect for average egg weight was positive for all groups and

+2,64% II +7,81% III
 180 , IV -7,49%.
 - III +35,77% , I
 30,25%, II +0,91 V
 +3,33%.
 (Razuki and
 AL-Shaheen, 2011),
 -
 -
 -
 (Saadey et al.,
 2008)
 -
 -
 -
 FxS SxF
 12,49% 8,12%.
 -
 -
 -
 +5,84%, - V
 +1,44%. II, III IV
 :+2,86%,+2,16%,+3,54%.
 -
 -

ranged from +2.64% for Group II to +7.81% for Group III. For 180-day egg production, heterosis effect was negative only for Group IV - 7.49%, and positive for other groups with highest values for Group III (+35.77%), 30.25% for Group I, +0.91% for Group II and +3.33% for Group V.

Crosses of White Leghorn with local breeds (Razuki and AL-Shaheen, 2011) were outlined with higher egg production than purebred lines. High and positive heterosis effect for egg production was also reported in a study (Saadey et al., 2008) where the heterosis effect for egg number of FxS and SxF crosses was 12.49% and 8.12% respectively.

Calculated heterosis effect for the livability of hybrid combinations was positive for all groups, being the highest in Group I: +5.84%, and lowest in Group V: +1.44%.

Groups II, III and IV exhibited values of +2.86%,+2.16%,+3.54% respectively. These data evidenced that hybrid groups had a higher livability compared to parental lines.

CONCLUSIONS

The evaluation of production performance of original lines and the five autosexing hybrid combinations, and heterosis effect from crossing allowed concluding that:

1. The heterosis effect for live weight by the end of the 4th month of life was various and positive during the two experimental periods, attaining +26.13% and +23.00% in Groups I and II, respectively.
2. Crossbreeding had the most pronounced positive effect on egg production through average egg weight in Group V: + 8.9% and + 3.96%, followed by Group III with +4.59% and +7.81%

1. The heterosis effect for live weight by the end of the 4th month of life was various and positive during the two experimental periods, attaining +26.13% and +23.00% in Groups I and II, respectively.
2. Crossbreeding had the most pronounced positive effect on egg production through average egg weight in Group V: + 8.9% and + 3.96%, followed by Group III with +4.59% and +7.81% for

3. the two years of the study, respectively.
3. Egg production was outlined with inconsistent heterosis effect from crossbreeding of original lines. Group III showed a heterosis effect value of -0.05% in the first experiment and +35.77% during the second one.
4. Positive heterosis effect values demonstrated that hybrid groups had a higher livability than parental lines, with highest values in Group II (+6.38%), followed by Group I (+6.33%) during the first study year and +5.84%, +3.54% for Group I and IV during the second study year.

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Beekeeping Markets outside the Honey Category

Lyubomir Lyubenov

University of Ruse "Angel Kanchev", 7017 Ruse, Bulgaria
-mail: LLyubenov@uni-ruse.bg

Original scientific paper

SUMMARY

The study has established that national organizational markets for beebread and larvae are in their infancy, and bee carcasses and bee venom do not exist. The international markets for pollination, wax and royal jelly, as well as the national organizational markets for wax, pollen, propolis, royal jelly and tools for production - queen bees and pollination were analysed. Marketing strategies and technologies for processing and storing of bee products outside the category of honey will be crucial for the development of their potential. Additional are needed technological, marketing, etc. investments, other than honey, for the development of other bee products and their markets. The studied national markets for bee products outside the category of honey form a turnover of over BGN 10 million per year (about 10% compared to honey), even with conservative estimates of their quantities and prices.

Key words: beeswax, pollen, royal jelly, propolis, pollination, queen bees

INTRODUCTION

80-
770
15 x
, 4
, 3
, 120 x
(Panchev et al., 2014).

80-
1988 .
, 251
, 1.6
, 2
1985 .
et al., 2002),
0,6-0,7 .
0,49 . (Nenchev
(Lyubenov, 2019)

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(,),
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In the 80s of the last century in Bulgaria there were about 770 thousand beehives, producing about 15 thousand tons of honey per year, 300-400 tons of wax, 4 tons of royal jelly, 8 tons of bee pollen, 3 tons of propolis, 10 kg bee venom, 120 thousand queen bees (Panchev et al., 2014). Then these results positioned the Bulgarian beekeeping as one of the leading in the world. The data immediately before the change of the economic model in Bulgaria from the end of the 80s show that in 1988 there were about 640 thousand bee families, producing 10.55 thousand tons of honey, 251 tons of wax, 7.73 tons of bee pollen, 1.6 tons of royal jelly, 2 tons of propolis and 2 kg bee poison. The annual consumption of honey in Bulgaria per capita by 1985 was 0.49 kg. (Nenchev et al., 2002), and now it is about 0.6-0.7 kg per capita (Lyubenov, 2019).

The main product of beekeeping is honey, about which there is a lot of information - both nationally and European and internationally. But in addition to honey, beekeeping provides many other products and services - beeswax, pollen, propolis, beebread, royal jelly, bees (queens, drone larvae, worker bees and drones), bee venom, pollination and apiturism.

Information on bee products outside the honey category, with the exception of wax, is very scarce or missing. The orientation of consumers towards a healthier lifestyle and the reduction of sugar consumption leads to an increase in the demand for bee products outside the category of honey. Unlike honey and wax, other products have significant potential that has not been developed.

Given the orientation of consumers towards a healthier lifestyle and consumption of foods with lower sugar content, markets for bee products outside

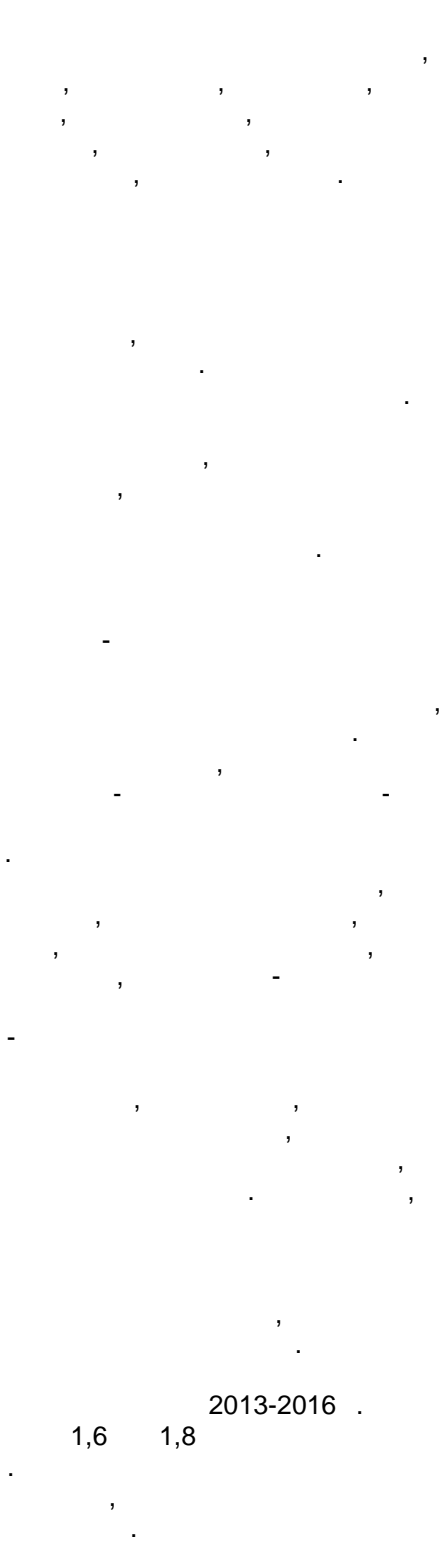
the honey category will continue to grow steadily. Globally, there is a steady growth in the use of propolis, royal jelly, bee pollen and bee venom in medicine, cosmetics, food and others.

On the one hand, the development of science and technology supports this growth, and on the other hand, it is supported by the ever-increasing assessment of the role of honey bees in preserving biodiversity, ecosystems and food security. Today, the main reasons for the lower production of bee products outside the category of honey and wax are mainly marketing, technological and information.

The availability of solid scientific evidence for the therapeutic and other beneficial properties of bee products, given that propolis, pollen, beebread, royal jelly, apitoxin and plague, have not yet been fully and thoroughly studied, will lead to an increase not only in their markets, but also in the markets of many other products in which they participate as food additives, cosmetics and mixes with other products. Improving production, processing and storage technologies will also increase their markets.

The establishment of quality standards for individual bee products will accelerate and mass the development of their markets. The official recognition of apitherapy in the future will develop the markets for all bee products and their mixes.

Apitherapy is a complex concept from the derivatives "apis" - bee and "therapy" - treatment. It is a branch of alternative medicine with great therapeutic value and a wide range of health benefits for which there is still no solid medical evidence. Apitherapy is divided into several sub therapies depending on the bee product used for treatment - honey treatment, jelly-royal therapy (treatment with royal jelly), pollen therapy (treatment



- methods include the complex combination of induction, deduction, grouping, comparison, analysis, synthesis, abstraction, concretization, analogy, modelling, formalization, observation, mathematical.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

- According to the set goal, the research is focused on the analysis of the tasks with the help of which it will be achieved. Accordingly, a two-part structure has been created. The first concerns global and regional markets for wax, royal jelly and pollination, and the second covers national markets for bee products outside the honey category.

Global and regional markets

- The most commercialized products of beekeeping are honey and wax, which have developed global markets for which there are official data. They have many substitutes, and wax has been and remains the most versatile and most widely used of all bee products. Markets for other bee products such as pollen, beebread, propolis, royal jelly, venom, queens, bees and their larvae, as well as pollination, have less developed regional markets and data on them are more difficult to access or lack.

- However, they are involved in many medicines, cosmetics, food and other products and services, increasing their added value through their positive image. In addition, combinations between bee and non-bee products increase their synergistic importance beyond their individual biological values, forming a broad basis for innovation.

- The production of honey in the world for the period 2013-2016 ranges from 1.6 to 1.8 million tons per year. China, as a major producer and exporter, plays a crucial role in the world market. China is a world leader with a production

450-500 x . ,
 2016 . 28,1%.
 102 x . .
 6%.
 78 x . . 2016 .
 4.5%.
 4,1%
 73 x . .
 4%
 (. 09, 2018) – 70 x .
 .
 .
 2013 – 2016 .
 66 x . , 61
 x . , 59 x . ,
 58.7 x . (, .
 09, 2018) 45 x .
 ()
 - 240 –
 270 x . .
 -
 2015 .
 35 x . , 32 x . ,
 30 x . , 24
 x . , 23 x . ,
 22 x . , 18
 x . , 14 x . ,
 10 x .
 9 x . (,
 7.12.2016).
 , -
 350 x . .
 -
 200 x .
 0.5 . .
 20 – 25%
 , -
 (http://faostat3.fao.org, 2012.),
 . .
 1 . -
 . -
 2.5 €/ .
 2.5 . / .

of over 450-500 thousand tons, and in 2016 its share in world production of honey was 28.1%. Turkey is second in the world with an average annual rate of 102,000 tons. The country's share in world production of honey is 6%. The third place is occupied by Iran with an annual production of 78 thousand tons. In 2016, the country's share was 4.5%. In fourth place is the United States with a production share of 4.1% and an average annual production of 73 thousand tons. Russia has about 4% of world production (Bulletin, issue 09, 2018) - 70 thousand tons of honey per year.

After the above five countries in the production of honey in the world on average for the period 2013 - 2016 are Ukraine with 66 thousand tons, India with 61 thousand tons, Argentina with 59 thousand tons, Mexico with 58.7 thousand tons (Bulletin, issue 09, 2018) and Ethiopia with about 45 thousand tons. The European Union (EU) is the second largest producer with about 240-270 thousand tons of honey after China. The largest producers of honey in the EU in 2015 are Romania with 35 thousand tons, Spain with 32 thousand tons, Hungary with 30 thousand tons, Germany with 24 thousand tons, Italy with 23 thousand tons, Greece with 22 thousand tons, France with 18 thousand tons, Poland with 14 thousand tons, Portugal and Croatia by 10 thousand tons and Bulgaria with 9 thousand tons (Report, 12/7/2016). Although the EU is the second largest producer, it is the world's largest consumer of honey, with around 350,000 tons per year.

Imports of honey to the EU are traditionally around 200,000 tons worth about 0.5 billion euros. The EU accounts for about 20-25% of honey trade, which is the largest market share (http://faostat3.fao.org, 2012), i.e. subject to international trade is about 1 million tons of honey. The global market for honey, with an average import price of around € 2.5/kg, will be around € 2.5

01.03.2018).
 20
 7.5
 150
 (235, 10-16 557 2019).
 11.8 27.9
 (557/20 = 27.9).
 80
 76
 2015 . 40
 67 x
 (https://www.bgfermer.bg,
 10.05.2018) (23.5%
 34.4 x),
 (5.5%, . . 7.5 x),

billion/year. In fact, it is much larger, and has very fierce price competition and many substitutes - sugar, high-fructose corn syrup, stevia and many other artificial sweeteners. It is estimated that the extinction of bees could amount to 150 billion euros worldwide (Resolution, March 1, 2018). Based on the economic effect of pollination, which reaches 20 times the value of honey, its global market is 7.5 billion euros/year.

Current estimates of the economic effect of pollination show that the disappearing bees endanger annual production worth between 235 and 557 billion dollars (Capital, May 10-16, 2019).

This means that the current values of global honey markets, including those that do not fall within the scope of international trade, are from 11.8 to 27.9 billion dollars per year (557/20 = 27.9).

Considering that the official statistics do not cover the full production of honey, we can state that in the conditions of sustainable growth in consumption, its global production is over 2 million tons per year, and its global markets can reach 30 billion dollars a year. It should be noted that high volatility in quantity and prices are constantly changing its value.

According to FAO statistics, there are about 80 million bee families in the world, producing about 76 thousand tons of beeswax per year. For more accurate statistics, the wax obtained from wild bees in Asian and African countries should be added, as well as the presence of one that is not marketed. In 2015, 40 countries produced 67 thousand tons of beeswax.

The ten leading producers of beeswax (https://www.bgfermer.bg, 10.05.2018) are India (23.5% of world production or 34.4 thousand tons), Ethiopia (5.5%, ie 7.5 thousand tons) , Argentina (4.8% or 7.0 thousand tons), Turkey (4.4%, 6.3

(4.8% 7.0 x .),
 (4.4%, 6.3 x .),
 (3.5%, 4.6 x .),
 (2.5%, 3.7 x .), (2.3%, 3.4 x .),
 (1.8%, 2.8 x .),
 (1.8%, 2.5 x .).

6 x .

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thousand tons), South Korea (3.5%, 4.6 thousand tons), Kenya (2.5%, 3.7 thousand tons), Angola (2.3%) , 3.4 thousand tons), Mexico (1.8%, 2.8 thousand tons), Tanzania (1.8%, 2.8 thousand tons), Brazil (1.8%, 2.5 thousand tons).

In China are produced 6 thousand tons of beeswax per year, and in the Russian Federation its production is estimated at 3 thousand tons. The same amount is produced in Ukraine and Iran. There are about 10 types of beeswax with different colour, geographical and botanical origin and other characteristics. Regardless of its type, one of the main requirements for its quality is the absence of residues of antibiotics and other veterinary preparations, pesticides, heavy metals and other contaminants. The wax is used in many industrial sectors, pharmacy, food industry, agriculture and others. In terms of quantities produced, it is second only to honey. Only wax and honey have substitutes, and similarly to honey, its substitutes are a cheaper alternative in food, cosmetics, pharmacy and others.

Among the main substitutes for beeswax is paraffin, which is a petroleum product. Its price is slightly lower than that of beeswax, and its application is similar - medicine, cosmetics, candles, appliances and more. Of the vegetable waxes, candelabra and carnauba are the most commercialized. In addition to these waxes, there are many others - lanolin (animal), ceresin (mineral) and others.

Beeswax is used in over 40 industries, including medicine (dentistry, dermatology), cosmetics (lip balms and glosses, lotions, eyeliners and shadows, hair products), perfumery, pharmaceuticals, food (glazing agent, protecting the surface of some fruits and preventing water loss), apitherapy, as well as in some arts and crafts.

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 2016
 634
 2.2
 (https://www.bgfermer.bg, 06.03.2018).
 11 x
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 22 x (https://pchelari.com, 03.03.2020).
 4.5 x
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 (royal jelly) e
 1970
 1965 3
 (https://www.bgfermer.bg, 30.11.2017),
 1986 180 (http://www.fao.org, 22.02.2020),
 2004 600
 2012 2 x
 (https://agrozona.bg, 10.01.2017).
 - 84,25
 1945
 50

Official statistics on beeswax production do not cover all beeswax production. Although the traditional data report about 76 thousand tons of annual production, in 2016 the world market traded 634 thousand tons of beeswax worth \$ 2.2 billion (https://www.bgfermer.bg, March 6, 2018).

It is estimated that China has delivered 11 thousand tons of beeswax on the world market worth \$ 60 million, provided that all EU countries produce about 7 thousand tons. There are no official data on the production of wax in individual EU countries, although it imports more than 6 thousand tons of beeswax per year.

In 2003, the international trade in beeswax covered about 22 thousand tons (https://pchelari.com, 03.03.2020). At this volume and price of 4.5 thousand dollars per tonne, the international beeswax market was 0.1 billion dollars per year.

Royal jelly is widely accepted in Japan as a dietary supplement, and is included in frozen desserts, savoury foods, spices and others with registered patents. Social services buy it for children who are in hospitals.

Since 1970, the Ministry of Health and Welfare of Japan has pursued a policy in which royal jelly is established as a "natural food product closely related to human health."

As a result of this policy, its consumption is growing significantly. In 1965 it was 3 tons (https://www.bgfermer.bg, 30.11.2017), in 1986 180 tons (http://www.fao.org, 22.02.2020), in 2004. 600 tons, and in 2012 reached 2 thousand tons (https://agrozona.bg, 10.01.2017). Now the average life expectancy in Japan is the highest in the world - 84.25 years, and in 1945 it was about 50 years.

The largest producer of royal jelly in

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the world is China, which produces over a thousand tons per year and has selected a special breed of bees for its production.

- Other major producers are Asian countries. Its largest consumer is Japan, which consumes about 2/3 of production - over 2 thousand tons per year. Large consumers are the European and North American cosmetics industries, as well as the growing markets for health foods and supplements. Although there is a lack of accurate data on the quantities produced, the demand for royal jelly will continue to grow steadily.

At market quantities of 3 thousand tons and an international price of about 250 dollars/kg. (250 thousand dollars/ton) the global markets for royal jelly will be 0.75 billion dollars/ year.

- Regional markets for other bee products (excluding wax and honey) are very important, as prices on international markets are too often below local production costs and require quality standards that cannot be achieved by small beekeeping farms. In addition, their production in small quantities implies small market niches.

- Another feature is their better absorption by the regional ones, i.e. local consumers, combined with the fact that they are offered in fresh and natural form, given the lower shelf life of most of them.

- Not only marketing research is needed, but also marketing strategies to develop their potential and to achieve profitability and competitiveness at the superregional and international level.

- Regional markets have a decisive role in the realization, given the lack of established distribution channels for access to global markets, due to their small quantities and relatively short shelf life. The developed rural tourism, crafts and local industries allow the

- establishment of a special branch of tourism - apiturism, as well as the formation of bee products with high added value.

- In the long run, their demand will grow steadily due to the reduction of sugar consumption and the global role of pollination for biodiversity and food.

Marketing and technologies for production and processing, as well as the discovery of new applications of bee products, outside the category of honey, will be engines for the development of their markets.

National markets

Organizational markets for bee products outside the honey category cover those of wax, pollen, propolis, royal jelly, beebread, larvae, bee stings (carcasses of bees) and poison (apitoxin). Nationally, as well as internationally, the organizational markets for wax, pollen, propolis and royal jelly are traditionally more developed than those of beebread, larvae, plague and apitoxin, which is why there is more data for them. The markets for queen bees and pollination belong to the markets of means of production, and apiturism, which belongs to the consumer markets, is in its infancy. Therefore, from the national markets for bee products outside the category of honey we will analyse the organizational markets for wax, pollen, propolis and royal jelly, and from the markets for means of production - queen bees and pollination.

To produce 1 kg. of beeswax, bees consume about 3.5 kg honey, which is the basis for determining its price (<http://agroplovdiv.bg>, 07.07.2015).

This means that 1 kg. of wax should cost BGN 17.5 / kg, provided that the price of honey on the organizational markets is 5 BGN/ kg, but the most common price on the current national organizational markets is about 10 BGN/ kg. Given this,

- establishment of a special branch of tourism - apiturism, as well as the formation of bee products with high added value.

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(<http://agroplovdiv.bg>, 07.07.2015),

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(<https://www.bgfermer.bg>, 10.05.2018)

150 ,

46%

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(2-4 .)

2018 .

783 348

8%

- its current price is underestimated, and its trend will be upward.

2/3 Considering that the main consumer of beeswax is beekeeping, which consumes 2/3 to 3/4 of it, we can find a strong correlation between the prices of honey and those of beeswax. Therefore, the low prices of honey keep the prices of beeswax, and this has a disincentive effect on its production.

- The annual production of beeswax in Bulgaria at 783 348 pcs families and 0.2 kg minimum yield per family is 156.7 tons. At a price of 10 BGN/ kg the organizational market will be 1.57 million BGN/ year. At an average yield of 0.5 kg from a family (<http://agroplovdiv.bg>, 07.07.2015), the production will be 391.7 tons, and the national organizational market will be 3.9 million BGN/year. At 0.95 kg average yield per family (<https://www.bgfermer.bg>, 10.05.2018) it will be almost twice as large. A significant part of beeswax and other bee products that are not used rationally are lost, i.e. remain untapped as potential. The reasons for this are not only the disincentive prices, but also the use of inappropriate technologies and equipment or the lack of such. In the future, the development of production and processing technologies will dynamism the development of their markets.

- Bee pollen has well-developed national organizational and consumer markets. There is also the production of certified organic pollen, which is sold in foreign markets. Producers of bee pollen are mainly large bee farms with over 150 hives, which in 2018 accounted for 46% of the total 783,348 units.

- Assuming that at least 8% of them produce bee pollen, we will get over 28 thousand beehive. With this number and an average yield of 3 kg per hive (yield is about 2-4 kg per hive), we will have 84

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tons of bee pollen per year. The obtained data show that even in this conservative assessment the produced bee pollen is significantly above the quantities produced 30 years ago from 7-8 tons per year, when Bulgaria was among the world leaders in the production of bee products.

Bee pollen requires the use of specialized equipment for extraction (pollen catchers) and processing (dryers, winches, refrigerators, etc. equipment), which requires additional investment.

The dryer for bee pollen costs over 220 to several thousand levs, the fan over 120 to 500 levs, the pollen catcher costs from 3-4 to over 40 levs. The price of bee pollen on the organizational markets is about 25 levs/kg. Markets is over 1.6 times to over 2 times higher for smaller cuts. With proper storage, the healing properties of bee pollen can be preserved for up to 6 months, and after about 2 years it becomes useless. Mixing pollen with honey in a ratio of 1:1 increases its shelf life to about 5 years.

Pollen is widely used in apitherapy, cosmetics, food, beekeeping and others. It is used as an immunostimulant, food supplement, for the treatment of allergies and various types of addictions and suppression of the need for drugs, alcohol, cigarettes.

Bee pollen contains a large amount of rutin (vitamin P) - a bioflavonoid, a powerful antioxidant that helps strengthen capillaries and blood vessels, helps with circulatory problems and corrects cholesterol levels.

It has powerful anticoagulant properties and serves to prevent heart attack, stroke and all premature symptoms of old age. Its use leads to an increase in physical and mental abilities.

The bee pollen brought into the

	(Beebread),	hive turns into beebread, which is processed, enriched and canned bee pollen. It can be stored for a long time, as lactic acid fermentation takes place in the compacted and sealed pollen, and lactic acid protects the pollen from spoilage and preserves it.
10	10	Beebread contains 10 essential amino acids, 20 replaceable and about 50 enzymes - biological catalysts that are involved in almost all life processes. It is a super food with high shelf life and high biological activity and value. The main technology for extracting beebread is by destroying the honeycombs. The quantities harvested from one beehive are about 1 kg. per year. The national markets of beebread are mainly consumer and poorly developed with prices around 100-150 BGN/ kg.
20	50	100-150
	50-100	More than 50-100 grams of propolis can be extracted annually from one beehive. Its price on the organizational markets is about 30 - 50 BGN/ kg, and on the consumer markets it is more than twice as high, especially for the smaller cuts. Propolis markets depend on standardization, which can significantly stabilize their development. Propolis extraction requires specialized equipment and processing technologies. The network for extraction of propolis costs about 3-4 BGN / piece, and the so-called diaphragm is priced from 10 to 50 BGN/ piece. Freezer required for cooling, cutting and cleaning from impurities. The shelf life of propolis is up to 7 years. In the form of alcohol tincture with 30% propolis, the shelf life is up to three years, and the aqueous tincture with 50% propolis - up to one year.
	30 - 50	
	3-4	
	10	
	50	
	7	
	30%	
	50%	
		Propolis is increasingly used in medicine, cosmetics, etc., due to its antimicrobial, antifungal, antiviral, anti-inflammatory, antitumor, antitoxic, anti-radiation, immun stimulating and analgesic properties.

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- It is used as a therapeutic agent in some types of herpes, influenza, inflammation of the gums, tongue, mucous membranes of the mouth, throat, tonsils. Propolis contains flavonoids that have a pharmacological and biological effect and strengthen the walls of capillaries. Propolis therapy does not lead to the development of resistance by bacteria, fungi, etc., and its combination with some antibiotics (penicillin, streptomycin, tetracycline) significantly increases their effectiveness.
- For one season from one hive can be extracted 400-600 grams of royal jelly. The production of royal jelly in Bulgaria is relatively low - about 2 tons. Royal jelly is best stored lyophilized, i.e. dried at low temperatures.
- This technology requires a serious investment of several tens of thousands of leva for a dryer, sufficient production volume and secured markets. Royal jelly can be stored at -18^oC for about 1-2 years, as well as by mixing with honey in a ratio of 5: 100 or 5: 150. With honey it can be stored for a long time at room temperature, and another advantage is the realization of a synergistic effect – 2 + 2 = 5. In all variants it is recommended to store cold and dark, as well as faster consumption after thawing or opening.
- Bee venom is a highly specialized product with very few and specific buyers - the pharmaceutical and cosmetic industries, as well as apitherapists who also use live bees. The market volume is relatively small, although there are no comprehensive studies.
- The prices of bee venom in 1990 varied significantly between 100 and 200 dollars per gram of dry venom (<http://www.fao.org>, 22.02.2020), and today they are about 40 BGN/g. The

beehive has anti-inflammatory and analgesic properties, lowers blood cholesterol, helps treat atherosclerosis and much more. It is the heavy artillery of apitherapy. Bee venom can be stored dried or frozen for several months in dark packaging, but should not be stored in the refrigerator for more than a few weeks.

Beeswax markets are predominantly organizational, and consumption in retail markets is negligible. Bee pollen is also available in chain stores, i.e. there is also a very well developed retail market, incl. and in traditional trade and direct sales from beekeeping farms.

Propolis has a specific wholesale market - mainly exhibitions, as well as a retail market - the segment of traditional trade. Royal jelly has a poorly developed organizational market, given the relatively small quantities that are produced, which is why it is sold predominantly in retail markets – Table 1.

1. Beebread is produced in very small quantities and there is no organizational market. National larvae markets are in their infancy, and there are no larvae and bee venom markets.

1.
Table 1. National organizational markets, outside the category of honey

Bees Products	Beehives Number	Yield kg/ pc.	Total Tons	Prices BGN/ kg	Markets million BGN/ year
Beeswax	783 348	0.2	156.7	10	1.57
Pollen	28 000	3	84	25	2.1
Propolis	385 000	0.05	19.25	50	0.96
Royal jelly	8 400	0.25	2.1	500	1.01
/ Total					5.7

The markets for queen bees are developed, but those for pollination are in

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 10%

their infancy. There are sporadic data on
 pollination prices around 20 BGN/ hive.
 From the availability of statistics from
 2015 to 2019, the number of farms
 declaring that they have an agreement
 with farmers for pollination of agricultural
 crops decreases in terms of the number of
 hives from 7,668 to 2,367 (Ministry of
 Agriculture, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018,
 2019). The reasons for this are that the
 sample does not cover all farms, and they
 avoid reporting it because, on the one
 hand, they do not receive subsidies for it,
 and on the other hand, it forms taxes.
 Given the fact that pollination significantly
 increases yields, we can assume that the
 actual number of hives in this market is
 more than twice as much. The
 introduction of subsidies for this eco-
 system service is also expected, which
 will move the market - Table 2.

The data in Tables 1 and 2 show
 that even with a conservative estimate,
 the national markets for bee products
 outside the honey category exceed BGN
 8.6 million / year. All of them have been
 steadily growing over the last three
 decades, which is why we can forecast
 that they exceed BGN 10 million / year, as
 the consumer markets for pollen,
 beebread, propolis, and royal jelly have
 not been reported. The national honey
 markets exceed BGN 98 million / year. Of
 these, over BGN 54 million/ year are
 organizational markets, after which the
 Bulgarian honey is exported to foreign
 markets, and over BGN 44 million/ year
 are its consumer markets (Lyubenov,
 2019). The comparison of the national
 markets for honey (about 100 million
 BGN/ year) with those of bee products
 outside it (about 10 million BGN/ year)
 shows that the latter are about 10% of
 those of honey.

- The markets for the means of
 production are not consumer, but only
 organizational. The main engine of their
 development is the assessment of the
 ecological, social, food and economic

- effect of bee pollination. This assessment has been steadily and steadily increasing in recent decades, as a result of which they will continue to grow. Other drivers of their development are the greening of the global economy, the development of agricultural industries that are dependent on bee pollination, as well as the entry of green industries in the field of medicine, pharmacy, food and others.
- The development of the markets for means of production (queen bees and bee pollination) is proportional to the development of the beekeeping product markets.

2.

Table 2. Markets of means of production

	() Quantities Number (hives)*	./ . Prices BGN / item	./ . Markets million BGN / year
/ Mother bees	100 000	25	2.5
/ Pollination	20 000*	20	0.4
		/ Total	2.9

- The markets for queen bees and pollination depend on the markets for factors of production - land, labour and capital. Financial markets in beekeeping influence the markets of queen bees and pollination, through financing and subsidies. The shortage of labour in rural areas significantly hinders the development of beekeeping.
- The analysed markets of means of production depend on the development of many other markets of means of production in beekeeping - machinery, equipment, inventory, feed, veterinary drugs, which determine the productivity, profitability and competitiveness of beekeeping and its products. Product markets, on the other hand, are dependent on factor markets and means of production.

The development of each of the

- markets for bee products, factors or means of production stimulates the development of many other markets in beekeeping and related industries.

- Therefore, both the increase in honey production, which leads to an increase in the production of other bee products, and the increase in the production of bee products outside the honey category will further stimulate the development of many markets where bee products are mixed with other products, markets for factors and means of production, markets for medicines and cosmetics, markets for food supplements, etc. The development of the potential of the markets for bee products outside the category of honey will diversify incomes and reduce the strong dependence on honey.

CONCLUSIONS

The availability of solid scientific evidence for the therapeutic and other useful properties of bee products will lead to an increase in their markets and other related markets, in which they participate.

- Marketing strategies and technologies for processing and storage of bee products outside the category of honey are crucial for the development of their market and production potential.

- Additional technological are needed, marketing and etc. investments, other than honey, for the development of other bee products and their markets.

The national markets for bee products outside the category of honey form a turnover of over 10 million BGN per year, which is about 10% compared to those of honey, with conservative estimates of their quantities and prices.

10
10%

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