- 1 Population dynamics of Hypothenemus hampei (Ferrari) according to the phenology
- 2 of Coffea arabica L. in equatorial conditions of North Sumatra
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11 Abstract

12 In the Toba Highlands of North Sumatra (Indonesia), coffee production (Coffea 13 arabica L. var. Sigarar Utang) is an important outcome for smallholders; however, 14 the attack of the coffee berry borer (CBB) Hypothenemus hampei, is an obstacle for 15 the development of coffee cultivation in this area. This pest causes great economic 16 losses produced by the development of its offspring inside the coffee berries, making 17 it difficult to control. This concerning situation has led us to consider the development 18 of a CBB control strategy, but beforehand, it was necessary to acquire key 19 information on the phenology of the coffee tree and its implication on the bioecology 20 of the pest. Thus, two study designs were set up, one comprising six plots with two 21 different age classes and the other corresponding to a single plot dedicated only to 22 the study of short distance dispersal of CBB. Part of this study focused on the 23 phenology of the coffee trees and showed that berry production mainly takes place in 24 the upper parts of the trees and significantly decreases with tree age. Due to the 25 equatorial climate, berries were practically always present. Berries were produced 26 following two major flowering periods and some minor ones distributed over the year, 27 and harvested at regular intervals. Berry distribution on the branches varied over time. 28 Dynamics of infestations by CBB showed that ripe berries were more infested than 29 unripe berries because they had been exposed longer to CBB attacks, that older 30 trees were more exposed than younger trees and that infestation was evenly 31 distributed along branches. In addition, internode pedestrian dispersal of CBBs was 32 shown to occur, but considerably less frequently than airborne dispersal. In 33 conclusion, it appears that in the agro-climatic context of the Toba region, the virtual 34 year-round presence of berries - which fosters CBB infestations and CBB short-35 distance dispersal - is a constraint that must be taken into consideration for designing

future pest management measures. To this end, it will be necessary in particular to evaluate the potential of trapping mainly used in tropical areas and to put into practice the sanitation harvesting applied in other countries.

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40 Key words: coffee tree, fruiting, climate, coffee berry borer, dispersal, Toba Highands.
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42 1. Introduction

The Sumatra archipelago is the main coffee-producing area in Indonesia. Its geographical diversity makes it possible to grow robusta coffee trees (*Coffea canephora* Pierre var. robusta) in the lowlands and Arabian coffee trees (*Coffea arabica* L.) on the high-elevation plateaus, in particular in the province of North Sumatra.

48 In the Simalungun district of North Sumatra, the dominant *C. arabica* variety is 49 Sigarar Utang, mainly cultivated unshaded, around Lake Toba. This coffee, 50 originating from a natural cross between the Tim Tim cultivar and a lineage of the 51 Bourbon variety, belongs to the internationally-famous Mandheling Coffee group 52 (Mawardi, 2008, 2009). The Indonesian Coffee and Cocoa Research Institute (ICCRI) 53 introduced this variety in the 1980s as an alternative to *robusta* cultivation. It is higher 54 yielding than the Sumatra typical variety, which was once grown in the area, but it is 55 described as moderately resistant to leaf rust caused by Hemilea vastatrix Berk. & Br 56 and susceptible to the coffee berry borer (CBB) Hypothenemus hampei (Ferrari) 57 Coleoptera: Curculionidae: Scolytinae), the major coffee pest worldwide (Hulupi & 58 Nugroho, 2013). Since the introduction of *C. arabica* in this district, productivity has 59 remained fairly low, at approximately 50 or 65% only of its full potential (Saragih, 60 2013). According to Saragih (2017), all coffee plantations are grown by smallholders 61 and are said to be poorly managed due to lack of training and to agroecological 62 shortcomings (Dufour *et al.*, 2019). This unfavourable context for high productivity is 63 made even worse by damage caused by the CBB reported by several authors 64 (Mawardi & Wiryadiputra, 2009; Saragih, 2013). Indeed, by digging galleries inside the coffee beans to complete its life cycle, the CBB makes them unfit for 65 66 consumption (Vega et al., 2015). Thus, before being marketed, coffee must be sorted 67 in order to eliminate CBB-damaged beans that are among the defective forms to be 68 discarded.

In Indonesia, CBB was first detected in Java in 1909 (Cramer, 1957) then in Sumatra in 1918 (Corporaal, 1921) before spreading to other islands and colonising all the coffee production areas. More recently, significant attacks by CBB were reported on *C. arabica* in North Sumatra. Monthly data from the district of Simalungun from May 2018 to September 2019 revealed a high percentage of holed berries, ranging from 32 to 58% (I W. Kerana, unpublished).

Face of this concerning sanitary situation, it was considered crucial to develop an efficient and sustainable strategy to control the pest and curb the infestation to acceptable levels in order to reduce harvest losses and shorten sorting operations, which heavily affect post-harvest costs. A pre-requisite to tackle this challenge was the acquisition of key information on the phenology of the coffee trees in the highelevation equatorial climate of the Lake Toba area, and on the impact of this phenology on the bioecology of the CBB.

82 It is precisely because the variety Sigarar Utang is a local arabica that it was 83 important to study its fruit set and describe how it varies according to the trees' age. 84 In a large proportion of the plantations, the trees are left to develop freely during 85 several years, which results in them gaining substantial height and crown volume. It 86 was also essential to obtain data on the phenology of the cultivar Sigarar Utang, 87 since the local climate conditions influence flowering and fruiting dynamics, and at 88 this moment, they have never been studied. In this particular agro-climatic context, 89 we also studied how the CBBs colonise the berries throughout the annual fruiting 90 cycle, which is an important basis for developing an IPM program. We also studied 91 the dynamics of infestation in relation to the age of the coffee trees, as in the case of 92 a heavy infestation of older coffee trees, possible rejuvenation through pruning 93 operations could bring benefits to IPM (Dufour et al., 2019). Moreover, for a more 94 theoretical purpose, we studied the distribution of CBB attacks in each tree in order 95 to identify possible preferences. In addition, given that flight seemed to be the only 96 means of dispersal documented so far (Roman-Ruiz et al., 2018) we also examined 97 the possibility of walking movement of CBBs between axillary nodes.

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99 2. Material and methods

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101 2.1. Description of the study sites

102 This work was carried out from March 2012 to April 2014 in the highlands of the 103 Simalungun district, near Lake Toba (North Sumatra, Indonesia), at N 2°49' and E 104 98°50'. The six smallholder's plantations of *C. arabica* var. Sigarar Utang coffee 105 selected for the study were located at an elevation of 1,200 m above sea level, close 106 to three villages a few kilometres apart belonging to two different subdistricts 107 (Pematang Sidamanik and Dolok Pardamean). The plantations were on flat ground, 108 homogeneous and fully exposed to sunlight, and the trees were planted at 2 x 2 to 2 109 x 2.5 m densities. There were usually intercrops of red pepper, ginger or maize 110 between rows. Plantation management consisted in applications of compost and 111 chemical fertilisers three times a year for the intercrops and coffee trees. Weeding 112 was carried out manually or chemically two or three times a year in all the plots. The 113 trees were not pruned as in most plantations in the region, no CBB control means 114 was used, and ripe berries were harvested at regular intervals of two to three weeks 115 even in periods of very low production. Harvest was carried out by ourselves on the 116 trees monitored in our study. Mean annual production of green coffee in the area 117 reached 1,139 kg/ha (Saragih, 2012).

Temperature and humidity were measured and recorded at the study site with a Testo 175 data logger at 2-hour intervals. Rainfall data were supplied by the Tea Research and Development Center PTPN IV – Tobasari-Pematang Sidamanik. The average rainfall data from 2000 to 2011 used as a reference were provided by the same Centre (Fig 1), but no such average temperature and relative humidity were available.

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125 2.2. Design for fruiting characteristics of *Coffea arabica* L. var. *Sigarar Utang*126 and observations about *Hypothenemus hampei* (Coleoptera: Curculionidae)
127 infestation

128 The design consisted in six 0.5-1 ha plots of unpruned coffee trees. The first 129 year, it comprised two 4-5-year-old plots and four 6-8-year-old plots, but the following 130 year while the young plots were retained, the oldest were replaced by 5-year-old 131 plots. In each of these plots, 15 coffee trees were selected according to the same 132 sampling design, i.e. 5 coffee trees per row, 10 m apart on 3 rows spaced 20 m apart. 133 On each tree, six productive branches were selected, either young primaries of the 134 top of the tree or young secondaries emerging from older branches. The first year, 135 we selected two opposite branches in the upper third of the tree, two in the middle

136 and two in the lower third. The second year, we focused on the upper third of the 137 trees only, selecting two branches on each of three levels within this upper third. This 138 specific arrangement was designed to select branches bearing a greater number of 139 nodes. Overall, according to this design, we selected a total of 6 x 15 x 6 = 540 140 branches, on which all our observations were carried out during the two years. The 141 periods spanning from March 2012 to February 2013 and from April 2013 to April 142 2014 are referred to as Year 1 and Year 2 respectively.

143 During each survey repeated every 21 days, every branch was visually 144 inspected beginning at its insertion on the trunk and working towards its tip, counting 145 the number of infested and intact berries at each node encountered, one node having 146 at least one berry. Thus, all deeply perforated berries within the perimeter of the 147 apical disc were considered infested by *H. hampei* because this disc is its preferred 148 puncture site because of its rough surface (Gumier-Costa & Faria, 2001). This 149 species is monophagous, morphologically similar to other species of the same genus. 150 however infested with other crops (Vega et al., 2015). Only H. obscurus, usually polyphagous could lead to confusion, but its presence on coffee is occasional 151 152 (Constantino et al., 2011). Berries were classified into two categories: 'large unripe' 153 (green, 5 mm or more in diameter) and 'ripe' (entirely red). Berries under 5 mm in 154 diameter were not counted. The 5 mm size corresponds roughly to the stage at which 155 the berries begin to become palatable to CBBs and suitable for puncturing (Salazar-156 Gutierrez et al., 1993). Mid-ripe berries were included in the 'large unripe' category. All ripe berries were harvested after each survey, throughout the two study periods. 157

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2.3. Design for Hypothenemus hampei (Coleoptera: Curculionidae) short-range 160 dispersal study

161 The experimental design was set up in May 2013 near the village of Manik Saribu (Simalungun district) at N 2° 49" 8" and N 98° 50" 35", in a single plot of 0.5 162 ha infested by CBBs. The objective was to assess the H. hampei potential to 163 164 disperse by walking along the branches. We selected six primary, productive, 165 branches on each of ten unpruned coffee trees inside the study plot. On each of 166 these branches, we circled the branch with glue bands (Pelton Glu®, France) between each axillary node, as well as before the first and after the last node (Fig. 2). 167 Starting the day the bands were positioned, green, mid-ripe and ripe berries in each 168 169 node were counted every two weeks over 20 weeks, distinguishing between intact

170 and infested berries and ripe berries were harvested after each survey. The CBBs 171 caught on the glue traps between the nodes were also counted. Females are 172 characterised by their size, which varies from 1.5 to 1.9 mm, about 1/3 larger than 173 the males (Roepke, 1919; Corbett, 1933; Bergamin, 1943; Vega et al., 2015). 174 According to the literature, females are always more abundant than the males but in 175 varying proportions and the males have atrophied wings and never leave the berries 176 (Hargreaves, 1926; Corbett, 1933; Le Pelley, 1968; Damon, 2000; Vega et al., 2015; 177 Mariño et al., 2016). In this trial, the identification of some captured beetles was 178 confirmed in the laboratory (CIRAD/France), in particular with the use of reference 179 specimens of *H. hampei*.

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181 2.4. Data analysis

For the multi-site study, we took into account the position of the axillary nodes on the fruiting branches (fruiting zone) by dividing each branch into three segments subequal length: the segment closest to the trunk (branch base), the central segment, and the end segment (branch tip). Moreover, the coffee trees were divided into two age classes: 5 years and under, and 6 years and above, because differences in plant height, branch size and foliage volume could cause variations in berry production and CBB infestations.

About the phenology of *Coffea arabica* L. var. Sigarar Utang, the distribution of the counted berries per segment of the fruiting zone of each branch was analysed at the beginning of both years of study, soon after the main flowering in February. A negative binomial distribution was fitted to the data for each of the two tree-age classes using chi-squared minimisation and tested with the chi-square goodness-offit test.

The effect of the age of coffee trees, and the combined effect of branch level in the tree and tree age, on the production of ripe berries over the period were assessed with the data of Year 1 using two non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis rank-sum tests. Dunn's test for multiple comparisons was used to compare the levels of the variable combining the three branch levels and the two tree-age classes, with Benjamini-Hochberg's adjustment to control the experiment-wise error rate.

The fruiting dynamics was analysed in Year 1 and Year 2 on branches of the upper third only (the most productive) of the coffee trees. The variations of the total number of berries and of the proportion of infested berries were analysed in the three

204 segments of the fruiting zone of each branch, for each tree and tree-age class. The 205 total number of berries was assumed to vary over time, increasing after flowering and 206 decreasing with each harvest. The proportion of infested berries was assumed to 207 vary according to the available resource (berries) and the development conditions of 208 the CBB population. Thus, the two were expected to have a complex non-linear 209 relationship with time. To model this, we used a generalised additive model with 210 mixed effects (GAMM), which incorporates nonlinear dependence. We used it with a 211 negative binomial distribution for berries and a binomial distribution for the number of 212 infested berries in relation to the number of intact berries. The GAMM models 213 integrated a fixed effect of age, season and position, two smooth terms based on 214 time, and a random effect to take into consideration the correlation between different 215 days on the same coffee tree. The smooth terms used a thin plate spline with 216 dependence on position for one and on age for the other to take into account the 217 general dynamics and the differential due to position and age.

Statistical analyses were performed using R version 3.6.1 (R core Team, 2019). The fitting of negative binomial distributions was carried out using the R package vcd (Meyer *et al.*, 2020). Dunn's test for multiple comparisons was performed using the R packages FSA (Ogle *et al.*, 2020) and rcompanion (Mangiafico, 2020). The GAMM models were implemented using the R packages mgcv (Wood, 2017) and itsadug (Van Rij *et al.*, 2017). Graphs were plotted using the R package ggplot2 (Wickham, 2016).

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3. Results

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228 3.1. Climate of the Lake Toba area

229 The climate of the area of Lake Toba is among the most typically equatorial 230 climates (*Encyclopædia Universalis*, 2020). According to the Köppen classification 231 system (Peel et al., 2007), this climate corresponds to the "Cfa" class (without dry 232 season and hot summer). The annual amplitude of temperature is very narrow and 233 precipitations are frequent practically all year round (Fig. 3). Given that the elevation 234 is close to 1,200 m above sea level, mean temperature is around 21°C, with a ten-235 day temperature amplitude rarely exceeding 10°C. Relative humidity is usually high 236 at night but the ten-day average is approximately around 80%. Over the study period, 237 we observed that the ten-day rainfall was guite uniformly distributed except in June

and July 2012 and 2013 and in January to February 2014, when precipitations abated. Overall, these variations are in keeping with the pattern of the mean monthly precipitations recorded from 2000 to 2011 (Fig. 1). The total annual rainfall recorded in 2012 and 2013 was respectively 2,533 mm and 2,643 mm.

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3.2. Phenological characteristics of *Coffea arabica*, var. *Sigarar Utang*

244 In the climatic conditions that prevailed locally, four flowering periods were 245 observed annually from 2012 through to 2014 (Fig. 4). During the main major bloom, 246 the statistical distribution of the number of berries per segment of the fruiting zone 247 was overdispersed. Negative binomial distributions could be fitted to the data from 248 both young 4-5-year-old coffee trees and older 6-8 year-old trees in Year 1 (X-249 squared = 87.0, df = 74, p-value = 0.143, and X-squared = 65.9, df = 52, p-value = 250 0.093, respectively), but only to the data from the older coffee trees in Year 2 (X-251 squared = 52.8, df = 64, p-value = 0.841). In Year 1, a large number of the axillary 252 nodes of the fruiting zone (73% and 79% of nodes in younger and older trees 253 respectively) failed to bear berries, but 10% of the nodes in the younger trees and 254 1.75% in the older trees numbered 10 berries or more. In Year 2, these age-related 255 differences were less marked, with respectively 70% and 72% of the axillary nodes of 256 the fruiting zone bearing no fruit, while 8% of nodes in both age groups bore 10 257 berries or more.

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3.3. Berry production in relation to tree age and branch level

Figure 5 shows that in Year 1 the younger coffee trees were significantly more productive than the older (with a mean of 119 ripe berries on six branches *versus* 52; Kruskal-Wallis test, p < 0.001).

263 The Kruskal-Wallis test also detected a significant difference between age-264 classes and branch location in the tree (p < 0.001). Applied after the significant 265 Kruskal-Wallis test, Dunn's multiple comparison test distinguished three classes of 266 ripe berry production (Fig. 5). The more productive locations are the highest (67) and 267 intermediate (50) branches of young coffee trees, followed by, in decreasing order, 268 the higher branches of the older trees (36), the lower branches of young trees (17), 269 and the intermediate (15) and finally lower branches of the older trees (6), these 270 being the least productive of all.

3.4. General dynamics of *Coffee arabica* var. Sigarar Utang production and
berry development in Years 1 and 2

In spite of four flowering periods every year contributing to berry production, both in Year 1 and Year 2 the total quantity of berries present on branches followed a gradually decreasing trend from March-April to February of the following year (Fig. 6). The first bloom was thus, quantitatively, the most productive. However, the four annual blooms resulted in the presence practically all year round of unripe, ripening and completely ripe berries – all palatable and attractive to CBBs.

280 In Year 1 and Year 2 alike, berries from flowers fertilised during the mid-281 February bloom (Table 1) started to reach the 'large unripe' stage in March-April (Fig. 282 6). Taking as reference the production of Year 2, which was greater, the mean 283 number of berries per set of six branches increased from 117 to 126 between April 284 and May due to the duration of the preceding flowering period. Thereafter, from May 285 to December of the same year, the number of berries declined continuously, despite 286 the input of young berries resulting from the second-main bloom of August and the minor blooms of May and November (Table 1, Fig. 6). These inputs can be perceived 287 288 on Fig. 6, in particular on 23 August and 15 November 2013. The number of berries, 289 large unripe and ripe taken together, reached its yearly low on 21 March 2014.

In contrast to what is seen in large unripe berries, the number of ripe berries does not increment with each passing bloom because they are regularly harvested (Fig. 6). At each harvest, their number remains fairly stable. Overall, ripe berries are present all year round but reach their annual low between February and April.

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295 3.5. Production dynamics of *Coffee arabica* berries on high branches according
296 to tree age and node position

297 Term significance in the GAMM confirmed that higher branches are more 298 productive in young trees than in older trees (Table 2). The smooth curve of ripe 299 berries dynamics based on predictions from the model showed that production 300 decreased more slowly over the year in young trees than in older trees (Fig. 7A), with 301 the latter catching up a little on this difference after some 350 days. Regarding the 302 distribution of berries over the three segments of the fruiting zone, their number 303 decreased from branch base to branch tip (Table 2). In the fruiting zone of upper 304 branches, however, the dynamics observed differed depending on the segment, with 305 an inversion of the general pattern in the course of the production period as branch

tips became the more productive segment (Fig. 7B). The smooth curve of the ripe berries dynamics on the branches of all coffee trees, thus showed that production decreased regularly. In the beginning, production was significantly higher close to the trunk than in the middle of the branch, where it was greater than at the tip. The distribution of ripe berries along the branches later evened out in the middle of the period, and reversed before the end (Fig. 7B). The model explained 43% of the deviance (Table 1).

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Parametric coefficients	Esti- mate	Std. Error [*]	z-value	p-value		
(Intercept)	3.2	0.05	70.8	< 0.001		
Position: middle of the branch	-0.33	0.03	-12.4	< 0.001		
Position: tip of the branch	-0.66	0.03	-23.1	< 0.001		
Age: 6-8 years	-0.40	0.03	-12.5	< 0.001		
Year 2	0.77	0.03	25.8	< 0.001		
Smooth terms	Edf [*]	Ref.df***	Chi.sq	p-value		
s(day): age: 4-5 years	2.0	2.0	4.7	0.10		
s(day): age: 6-8 years	1.6	2.1	1.5	0.51		
s(day): position: base of the branch	3.7	4.0	54.1	< 0.001		
s(day): position: middle of the branch	4.3	4.8	15.2	0.006		
s(day): position: tip of the branch	4.1	4.6	13.1	0.03		
Random effect (coffee tree)	78.8	89.0	748.3	< 0.001		
Deviance explained		43%				

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Table 1. Results of generalised additive mixed models (GAMM) of berries dynamics. They include the effect of position on the branch (base, middle or tip), the effect of age of the coffee trees and year of observation, two smooth terms based on the number of days (time), with dependence on age and position, and a random effect of the coffee tree.

320 * standard error estimates for all parameter estimates; ** edf: estimated degrees of

- 321 freedom for the model terms; *** reference degrees of freedom used in statistics
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- 323 3.6. Spatial and temporal characteristics of *H. hampei* infestations
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325 3.6.1. Infestations of the different berry stages and berry infestation dynamics326 according to position on branch

Over 540 branches monitored, a mean of 15.9% and 19.6% of the large unripe berries were infested in Year 1 and Year 2 respectively, and 38.8% and 53.8% of the ripe berries, with ripe berries systematically harvested every three weeks.

330 Term significance in the GAMM confirmed that the proportion of infested berries 331 was generally higher on the old coffee trees monitored in Year 1 (Table 3). The 332 smooth curve of the infestation dynamics based on predictions from the model 333 showed that the infestation rate increased evenly until around day 340 - with a 334 significant age-related difference that narrowed down around day 280 - then declined 335 as the harvest was drawing to a close (Fig. 8A). The proportion of infested berries 336 remained fairly stable whatever the position on the branch (Table 3). The smooth 337 curve of the infested berries dynamics showed that their proportion increased 338 gradually until around day 350 with only slight position-related differences, after 339 which the infestations remained significantly higher closer to the trunk (Fig. 8B). The 340 model explained 48% of the deviance (Table 2).

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Parametric coefficients	Esti- mate	Std. Error [*]	z-value	p-value	
(Intercept)	-1.1	0.06	-19.7	< 0.001	
Position: middle of the branch	-0.22	0.02	-12.8	< 0.001	
Position: tip of the branch	-0.40	0.02	-17.8	< 0.001	
Age: 6-8 years	0.65	0.03	24.9	< 0.001	
Year 2	0.007	0.02	0.3	0.79	
Smooth terms	Edf [*]	Ref.df***	Chi.sq	p-value	
s(day): Age: 4-5 years	2.0	2.0	48.8	< 0.001	
s(day): Age: 6-8 years	3.9	4.0	125.9	< 0.001	
s(day): position: base of the branch	3.7	3.9	55.5	< 0.001	
s(day): position: middle of the branch	4.6	4.9	37.1	< 0.001	
s(day): position: tip of the branch	4.8	5.0	131.2	< 0.001	
Random effect (coffee tree)	87.3	89.0	4218.6	< 0.001	
Deviance explained	48%				

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Table 2. Results of generalised additive mixed models (GAMM) of fruit infestation dynamics that included the effect of tree age and year of observation, the effect of position on branch (base, middle or tip), two smooth terms based on the number of days (time), with dependence on age and position, and a coffee tree random effect. ** standard error estimates for all parameter estimates; ** edf: estimated degrees of freedom for the model terms; *** reference degrees of freedom used in statistics.*

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350 3.6.2. Dispersal of *H. hampei* on branches

351 Twice monthly observations of the glue-traps on either side of the 300 axillary 352 nodes monitored in this study showed that the first female CBBs began to appear in 353 the traps after the first infested berries were recorded (Fig. 9). All trapped CBBs were 354 females. Numbers of trapped CBBs never exceeded 14 individuals per observation 355 date, and dwindled to zero as soon as no infested ripe berry remained. A total of 47 356 female CBBs were trapped. This number must be put into perspective because these 357 captured females were close to nodes that have borne 335 infested ripe berries over 358 a period of four and a half months, which implied the emergence and then flight of 359 hundreds of other females. It should be noted that a single infested berry may 360 harbour several dozen adults and larval stages from the oviposition (Vega et al., 361 2015) and that more than three generations may occur (Baker, 1999).

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363 4. Discussion

364 In the field, the Sigarar Utang variety, regarded by Hulupi & Nugroho (2013) as 365 highly productive, was characterised by an uneven production at all levels – cluster, 366 branch and tree. A majority of nodes bore no berry at all, while some 8% comprised 367 more than 10. Berry production was significantly higher in young trees of 4-5 years 368 than in older trees of 6-8 years (Fig. 5). In both cases, it was more abundant in the 369 upper sections of the crown than in the lower parts (Fig. 5). According to Coste 370 (1969), branches of the upper storeys are short young primary branches, more 371 abundantly supplied in sap and therefore capable of producing more flowers and 372 fruits. Conversely, the more meager production of the lower, older, branches can be 373 explained by a faltering supply of sap; this situation then degrades into a completely 374 unproductive stage, followed by a progressive drying out. A recent study in the area 375 of Lake Toba showed that pruning these low branches produces a regenerative 376 effect that triggers the development of secondary and tertiary shoots bearing fertile 377 nodes, and stimulates fruiting (Dufour *et al.*, 2019). It can thus be stated that pruning 378 the coffee trees can offset their age-related decline in productivity.

379 Concerning the dynamics of berry production and development, we show that 380 the succession of blooms over the year result in the presence of berries on the 381 branches practically at all times. This flowering and fruiting pattern, already 382 mentioned in Dufour *et al.* (2019), is also observed in certain areas of Colombia

between the 4th and 5th degrees of latitude North at high elevations (Arcilla-Pulgarín *et al.*, 1993). This particular phenology is related to the prevalence of a long period of frequent rains interrupted by a few short dry spells (which, in the Simalungun area, mostly take place in the beginning and middle of the year). Arcilla-Pulgarín and Jamarillo-Robledo (2003) and Ramírez-B *et al.* (2010) showed that in equatorial regions where the photoperiod is under 13 hours, the flowering of coffee trees is narrowly linked to water deficits or to high daily variations of the temperature.

In contrast to the productive pattern observed in tropical regions of Western 390 391 Africa (Borbón-Martínez, 1989), Mexico and Central America (Barrera, 1994), which 392 allows a single annual harvest only, in the Simalungun district, the staggered 393 production combined with the frequent harvest of ripe berries results in the 394 progressive decline of the total number of berries between April-May and February. 395 This was observed in all coffee trees, and in particular in branches heavily loaded 396 with fruits of the upper third of the trees (Fig. 6). It follows that berries can be found 397 on branches over a period of at least ten months out of twelve, thus giving *H. hampei* 398 a constant supply of food and reproduction sites next to its places of emergence.

In order to study the production pattern in greater detail, we focused on the dynamics of berry production and development in relation to the age of the trees and the position of berries on the branches. Our analyses confirm that young coffee trees were more productive than older trees (Fig. 7A) and show that at the beginning of the harvesting season berries were more numerous at the base of the branches, near the trunk, than at the tip, whereas the situation reversed towards the end of the season (Fig. 8b).

406 In this remarkable phenological configuration in which all the development 407 stages of berries co-occur during most of the year, we could observe that the 408 proportion of CBB-infested berries was more than twice as high among ripe berries 409 (mean: 46%) as among unripe berries (mean: 18%). This trend is explained by the 410 fact that ripe berries had been exposed to CBB attacks for longer than unripe berries, 411 and that their potential to attract CBBs was greater (Giordanengo et al., 1993; 412 Mendoza et al., 2000). This difference in attractiveness could be due to the diversity 413 of the volatile organic compounds produced and emitted by ripe berries (Ortiz et al., 414 2004).

415 Regarding the infestation dynamics, our results show that the proportion of 416 perforated berries perceived as infested, as the number of berries was decreasing

417 with each successive harvest (Fig. 8A and B, Fig. 7A). However, this dynamic is 418 probably overestimated if we consider that some perforated berries, described here 419 as infested, may have been abandoned by the colonizing females before they reach 420 the endosperm (Ruiz-Cárdenas & Baker, 2010). We also show that aged coffee trees 421 were always more infested than younger trees, even though this difference narrowed 422 down during the later part of the harvest season, when the number of berries 423 generated by the first major bloom had substantially decreased on aged trees (Fig. 8 424 and Fig. 7). On the other hand, the distribution of infested berries on individual 425 branches remained fairly similar at different levels in the tree throughout the harvest 426 season despite the variations in fruiting dynamics mentioned earlier. The co-427 occurrence of older, infested, berries with younger, intact, berries explains this 428 uniform distribution of infestations. In tropical settings, where coffee trees produce a 429 single large annual crop, colonisation tends to spread gradually, aggregatively, and 430 to become homogeneous when infestation levels are high (Román-Ruiz et al., 2018).

431 The dispersal of female CBBs by flight was often considered as an intangible principle, in particular in the context of the large-scale migrations that motivated the 432 433 development and implementation of trapping techniques in tropical regions 434 (Gutiérrez-Martínez et al., 1995; Dufour & Frérot, 2008). However, we here 435 demonstrate for the first time that CBBs also disperse by walking. Even though this 436 dispersal is on a small scale, it nonetheless contributes to the progressive infestation 437 of the axillary nodes of a branch (Fig. 9). According to our observations, dispersal by 438 pedestrian locomotion concerns females only (as males spend their entire life cycle 439 inside the infested berry) and occurs in the immediate vicinity of the infested ripe 440 berry from which they emerged. This type of movement, not observed in tropical 441 areas (Román et al., 2018), reinforces the idea that, in the equatorial zone, dispersal 442 would more often concern short distances than in tropical areas (Dufour et al., 2019), 443 at the scale of the individual branch or tree. Future experimental trapping at the scale 444 of the plot will undoubtedly yield new elements for furthering the discussion on 445 dispersal.

446

447 5. Conclusion

In this study undertaken in a high-elevation equatorial climate setting of theLake Toba area in North Sumatra, we presented the phenological characteristics of

450 the *arabica* var. *Sigarar Utang* coffee tree and their relationships with CBB 451 infestations.

452 We showed: (i) how the staggered fruiting covering most of the year allowed the 453 practically uninterrupted development of CBB infestations despite the frequently 454 repeated harvest of ripe berries; (ii) that the older coffee trees were more affected 455 than the younger trees; (iii) and that the horizontal distribution of infestations on 456 individual branches remained fairly stable over time. In the ideal trophic environment 457 that are coffee trees for CBB development, females tend to disperse by flight in 458 search of hosts, but mainly at short range, within the tree where they emerged -459 which would a priori make this pest more difficult to control, in particular through 460 trapping means. Trapping operations target above all females emerging from residual 461 berries fallen on the ground, and only becomes effective in tropical areas at the time 462 of the migration peaks that take place after the harvest, outside the fruiting period 463 (Dufour *et al.*, 2000). The trapping trials we are considering will probably not produce 464 the same result in number of captures, but their efficacy is still unknown. Our opinion however is that sanitation harvesting, recommended in many countries and by a 465 466 number of agronomists advocating non-chemical control (Decazy, 1990; Bustillo-467 Pardey, 2006; Aristizábal et al., 2016) could become a key tool for CBB management 468 because it would primarily concern infested berries still on the trees, during the 469 fruiting period. We would also recommend completing this approach with some 470 pruning of the coffee trees, which would directly facilitate sanitation harvesting 471 interventions (Dufour et al., 2019), and with measures to prevent reinfestation by 472 dispersing female CBBs during post-harvest operations. It will probably be necessary 473 to identify other components of control to design a strategy for integrated CBB 474 management in the region of Lake Toba.

475

476 Acknowledgements

The authors would like to thank Edouard Bault, Mélanie Landthaler, Yuliana Dolok Saribu and Laurent Bossolasco for their assistance in the local organisation of our research activities, and Anya Cokkle-Bétian for translating the manuscript into English. They also wish to express their gratitude to the coffee producers of the Lake Toba area for their unwavering collaboration, as well as to CIRAD and the French Embassy in Indonesia for their financial support.

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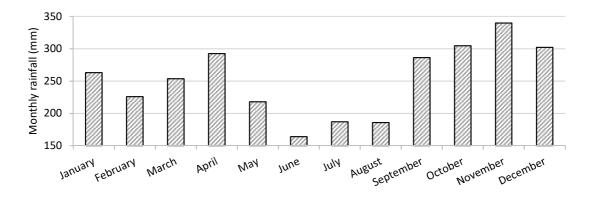
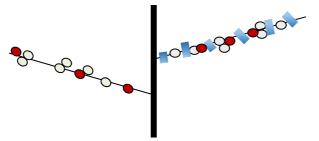


Figure 1. Average monthly rainfall in the Toba region for the period 2000-2011



- Glue band traps
- O Green or mid-ripe berries, intact or infested
- Ripe berries, intact or infested

Figure 2. Experimental design for *H. hampei* short-distance dispersal. Only two branches per coffee tree are represented, with five nodes per branch

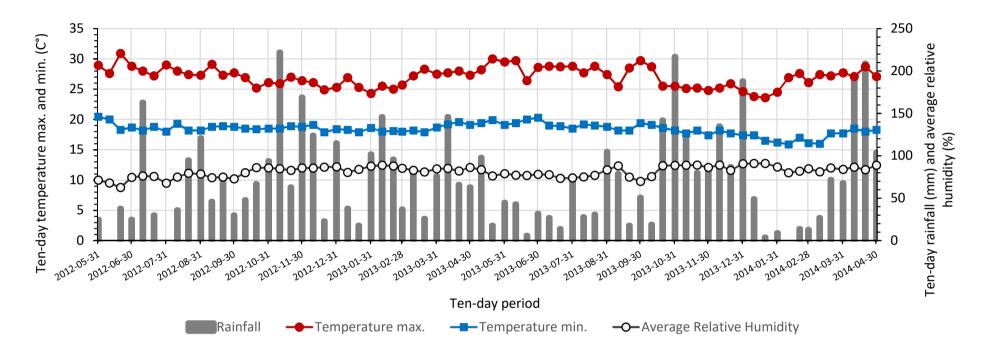


Figure 3. Climate characteristics of the Toba region from May 2012 to April 2014

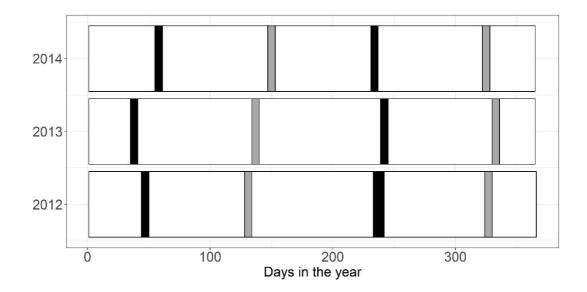


Figure 4. Annual flowering periods of coffee trees in all experimental plots. *Dark* colored bars correspond to major blooms (main and second main) and light colored bars correspond to minor blooms. Small flowering bursts sometimes occur on a few trees outside the periods indicated; they are not included in the figure.

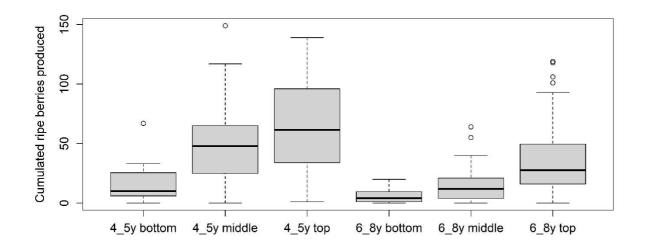


Figure 5. Cumulated ripe berry production of two branches in Year 1 according to the age of the coffee trees and the position of the branches in the tree. The thick line of the boxes-and-whisker plots represents the median. *The upper and lower edges of the boxes represent the upper and lower quartiles. The whiskers represent 1.5 times the interquartile range.*

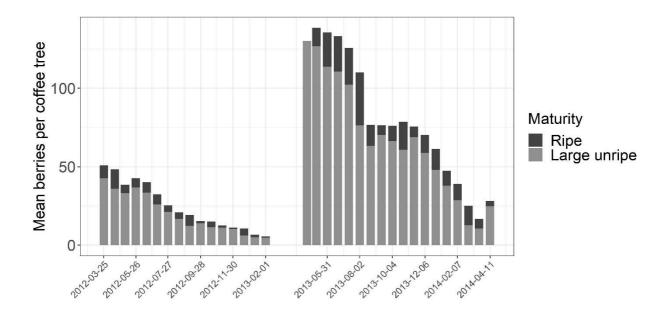


Figure 6. Production dynamics of coffee berries in Years 1 and 2 according to their stage of maturity. *Each rectangle represents the average number of berries per set of six branches at a given date.*

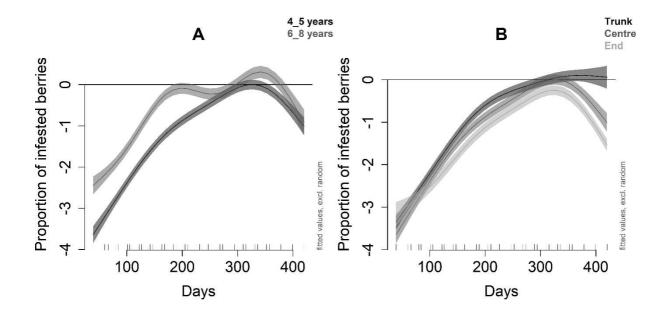


Figure 8. Variation in the proportion of infested berries on coffee trees over the period according to tree age (A) and position on branch (B). Smoothing is based on predictions from a generalised additive mixed model that included the effects of position on branch (base, middle or tip), tree age and year, two smooth terms based on the number of days (time), with dependence on position and age, and a coffee tree random effect.

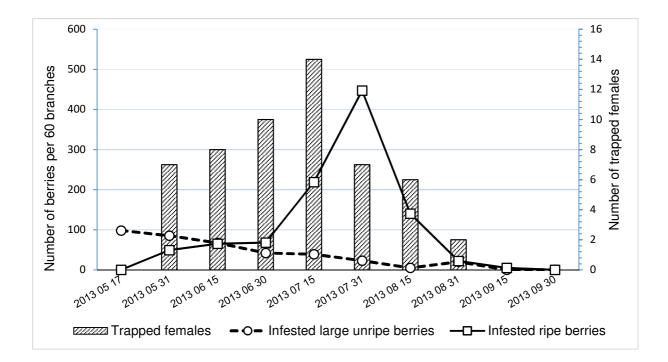


Figure 9. Number of *H. hampei* females trapped next to axillary nodes in relation to the dynamics of infestation of coffee tree branches.