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

3

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10

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

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

39

40 Key words: coffee tree, fruiting, climate, coffee berry borer, dispersal, Toba Highlands.

41

## 42 1. Introduction

43 The Sumatra archipelago is the main coffee-producing area in Indonesia. Its  
44 geographical diversity makes it possible to grow robusta coffee trees (*Coffea*  
45 *canephora* Pierre var. *robusta*) in the lowlands and Arabian coffee trees (*Coffea*  
46 *arabica* L.) on the high-elevation plateaus, in particular in the province of North  
47 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  
65 the coffee beans to complete its life cycle, the CBB makes them unfit for  
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.

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74 berries, ranging from 32 to 58% (I W. Kerana, unpublished).

75 Face of this concerning sanitary situation, it was considered crucial to develop  
76 an efficient and sustainable strategy to control the pest and curb the infestation to  
77 acceptable levels in order to reduce harvest losses and shorten sorting operations,  
78 which heavily affect post-harvest costs. A pre-requisite to tackle this challenge was  
79 the acquisition of key information on the phenology of the coffee trees in the high-  
80 elevation equatorial climate of the Lake Toba area, and on the impact of this  
81 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.

98

## 99 2. Material and methods

100

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).

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

124

## 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  $6 \times 15 \times 6 = 540$   
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  
151 polyphagous could lead to confusion, but its presence on coffee is occasional  
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.  
157 All ripe berries were harvested after each survey, throughout the two study periods.

158

159 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  
162 Saribu (Simalungun district) at N 2° 49' 8" and N 98° 50' 35", in a single plot of 0.5  
163 ha infested by CBBs. The objective was to assess the *H. hampei*' potential to  
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)  
167 between each axillary node, as well as before the first and after the last node (Fig. 2).  
168 Starting the day the bands were positioned, green, mid-ripe and ripe berries in each  
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*.

180

#### 181 2.4. Data analysis

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

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

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

201 The fruiting dynamics was analysed in Year 1 and Year 2 on branches of the  
202 upper third only (the most productive) of the coffee trees. The variations of the total  
203 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.

218 Statistical analyses were performed using R version 3.6.1 (R core Team, 2019).  
219 The fitting of negative binomial distributions was carried out using the R package vcd  
220 (Meyer *et al.*, 2020). Dunn's test for multiple comparisons was performed using the R  
221 packages FSA (Ogle *et al.*, 2020) and rcompanion (Mangiafico, 2020). The GAMM  
222 models were implemented using the R packages mgcv (Wood, 2017) and itsadug  
223 (Van Rij *et al.*, 2017). Graphs were plotted using the R package ggplot2 (Wickham,  
224 2016).

225

### 226 3. Results

227

#### 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 quite uniformly distributed except in June



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

242

### 243 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.

258

### 259 3.3. Berry production in relation to tree age and branch level

260 Figure 5 shows that in Year 1 the younger coffee trees were significantly more  
261 productive than the older (with a mean of 119 ripe berries on six branches versus 52;  
262 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.

271

272 3.4. General dynamics of *Coffee arabica* var. *Sigarar Utang* production and  
273 berry development in Years 1 and 2

274 In spite of four flowering periods every year contributing to berry production,  
275 both in Year 1 and Year 2 the total quantity of berries present on branches followed a  
276 gradually decreasing trend from March-April to February of the following year (Fig. 6).  
277 The first bloom was thus, quantitatively, the most productive. However, the four  
278 annual blooms resulted in the presence practically all year round of unripe, ripening  
279 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  
287 minor blooms of May and November (Table 1, Fig. 6). These inputs can be perceived  
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.

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

294

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

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

313

<b>Parametric coefficients</b>	<b>Estimate</b>	<b>Std. Error*</b>	<b>z-value</b>	<b>p-value</b>
(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
<b>Smooth terms</b>	<b>Edf*</b>	<b>Ref.df***</b>	<b>Chi.sq</b>	<b>p-value</b>
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%			

314

315 **Table 1.** Results of generalised additive mixed models (GAMM) of berries dynamics.  
 316 They include the effect of position on the branch (base, middle or tip), the effect of  
 317 age of the coffee trees and year of observation, two smooth terms based on the  
 318 number of days (time), with dependence on age and position, and a random effect of  
 319 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

322

### 323 3.6. Spatial and temporal characteristics of *H. hampei* infestations

324

325 3.6.1. Infestations of the different berry stages and berry infestation dynamics  
 326 according to position on branch

327 Over 540 branches monitored, a mean of 15.9% and 19.6% of the large unripe  
 328 berries were infested in Year 1 and Year 2 respectively, and 38.8% and 53.8% of the  
 329 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).

341

<b>Parametric coefficients</b>	<b>Estimate</b>	<b>Std. Error*</b>	<b>z-value</b>	<b>p-value</b>
(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
<b>Smooth terms</b>	<b>Edf*</b>	<b>Ref.df***</b>	<b>Chi.sq</b>	<b>p-value</b>
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%			

342

343 **Table 2.** Results of generalised additive mixed models (GAMM) of fruit infestation  
 344 dynamics that included the effect of tree age and year of observation, the effect of  
 345 position on branch (base, middle or tip), two smooth terms based on the number of  
 346 days (time), with dependence on age and position, and a coffee tree random effect.

347 \* standard error estimates for all parameter estimates; \*\* edf: estimated degrees of  
 348 freedom for the model terms; \*\*\* reference degrees of freedom used in statistics.

349

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).

362

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

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

390 In contrast to the productive pattern observed in tropical regions of Western  
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.

399 In order to study the production pattern in greater detail, we focused on the  
400 dynamics of berry production and development in relation to the age of the trees and  
401 the position of berries on the branches. Our analyses confirm that young coffee trees  
402 were more productive than older trees (Fig. 7A) and show that at the beginning of the  
403 harvesting season berries were more numerous at the base of the branches, near  
404 the trunk, than at the tip, whereas the situation reversed towards the end of the  
405 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  
432 principle, in particular in the context of the large-scale migrations that motivated the  
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

448 In this study undertaken in a high-elevation equatorial climate setting of the  
449 Lake 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  
465 however is that sanitation harvesting, recommended in many countries and by a  
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

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483

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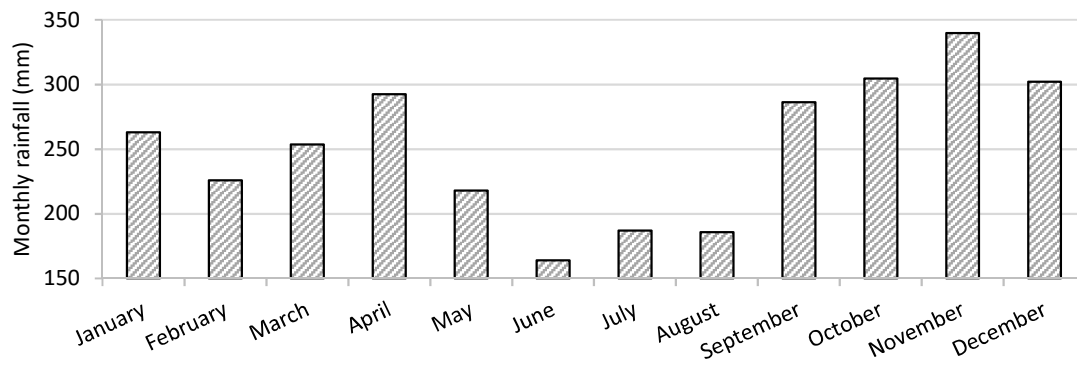
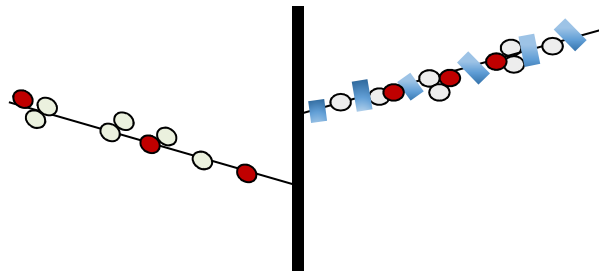


Figure 1. Average monthly rainfall in the Toba region for the period 2000-2011





- ▮ Glue band traps
- 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

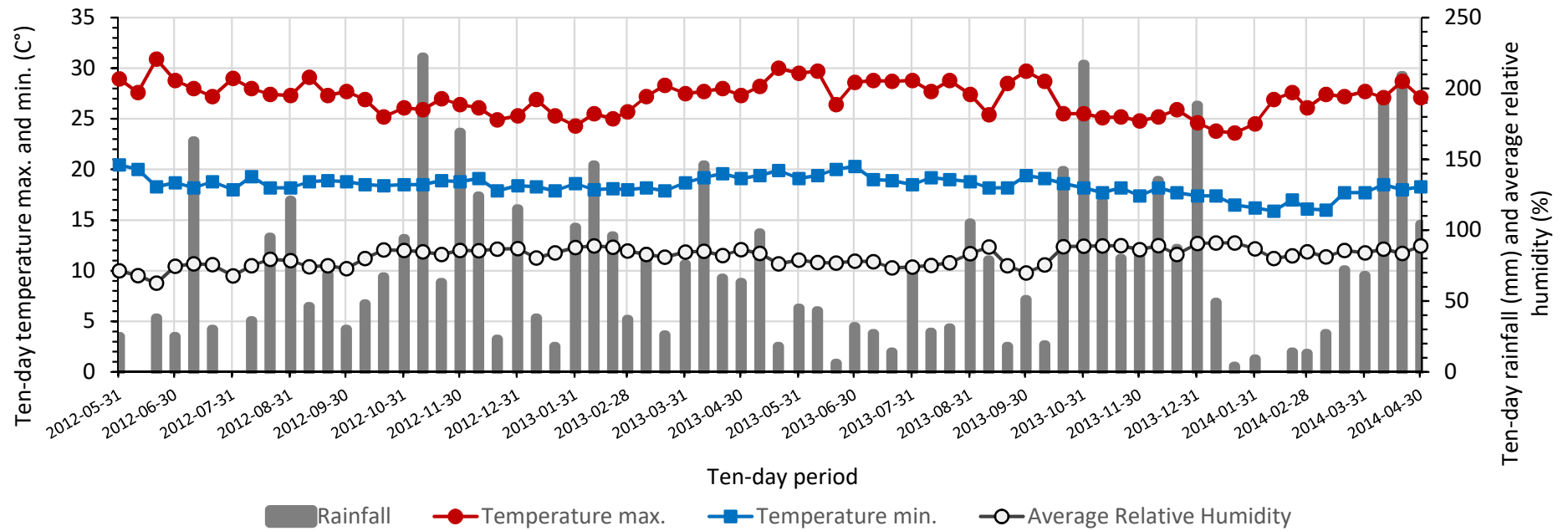


Figure 3. Climate characteristics of the Toba region from May 2012 to April 2014

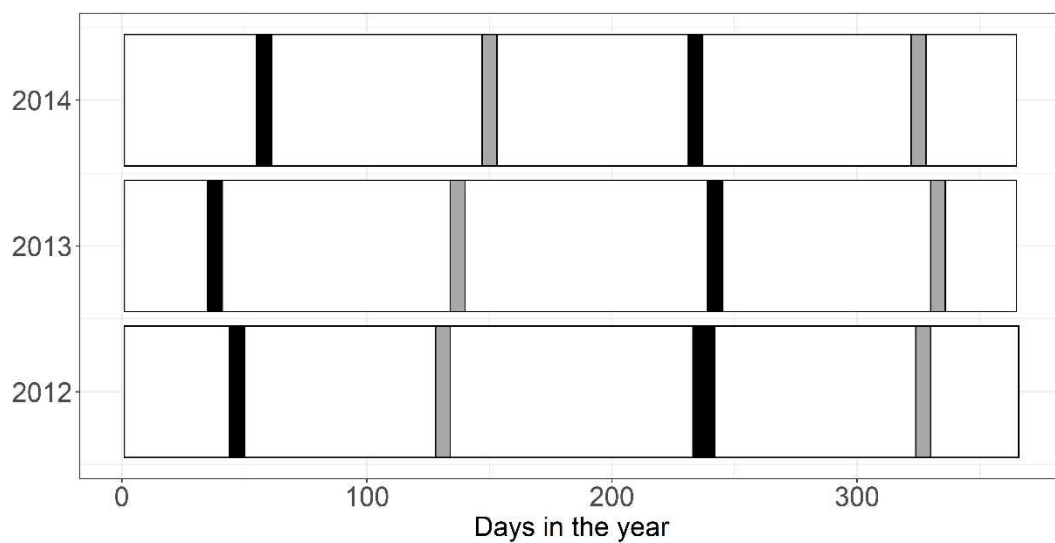
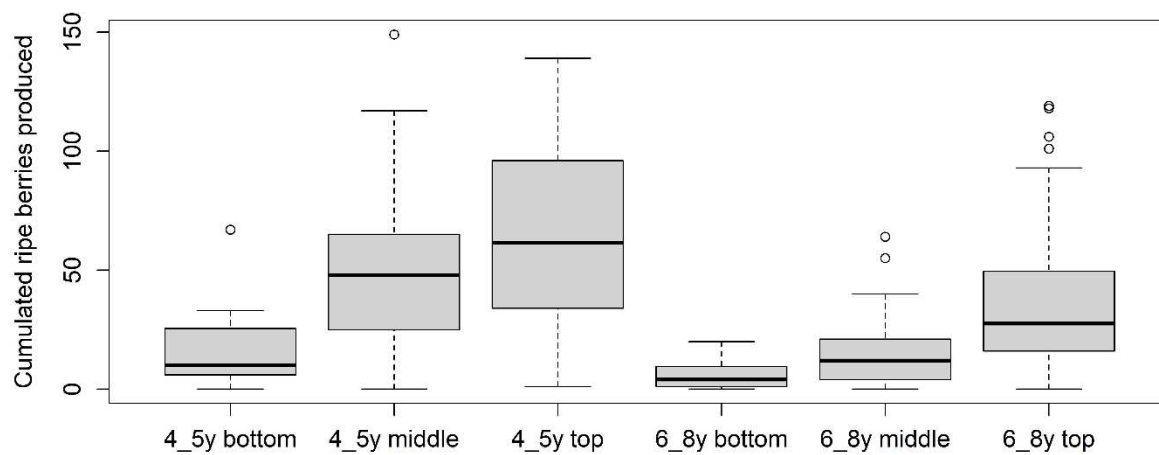
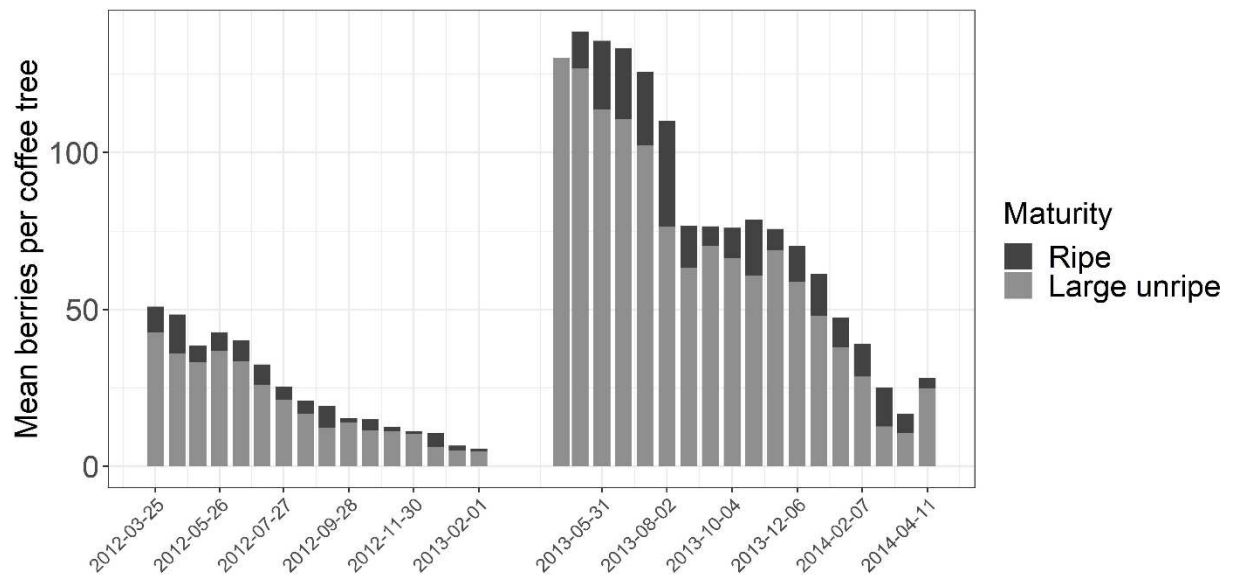


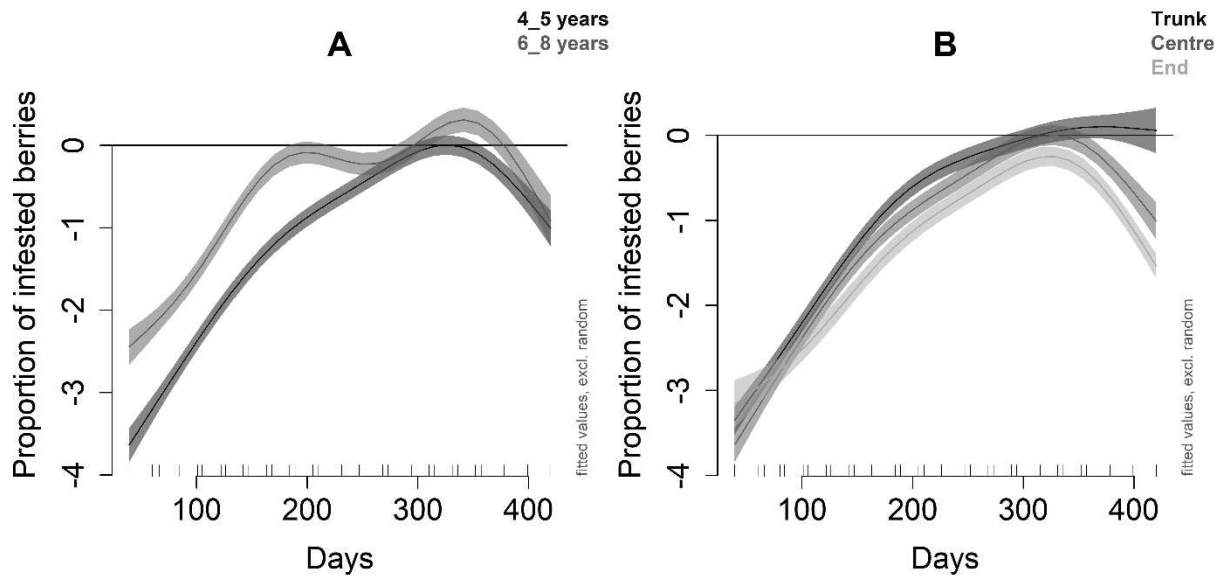
Figure 4. Annual flowering periods of coffee trees in all experimental plots. *Dark colored bars correspond to major blooms (main and second main) and light colored bars correspond to minor blooms. Small flowering bursts sometimes occur on a few trees outside the periods indicated; they are not included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



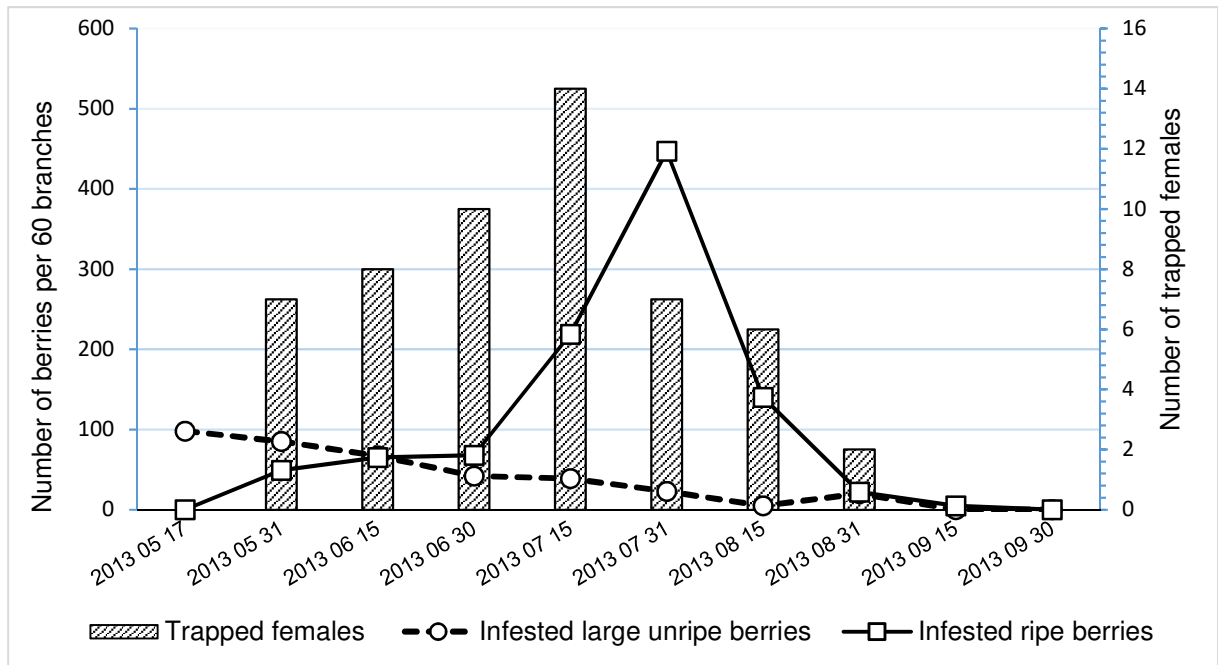
**Figure 5.** Cumulated ripe berry production of two branches in Year 1 according to the age of the coffee trees and the position of the branches in the tree. The thick line of the boxes-and-whisker plots represents the median. *The upper and lower edges of the boxes represent the upper and lower quartiles.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