

Phenotypic diversity assessment wihin a major ex situ collection of coffees in Madagascar

Aurore Rimlinger, Nathalie Raharimalala, Véronique Letort, Jean-Jacques Rakotomalala, Dominique Crouzillat, Romain Guyot, Perla Hamon, Sylvie Sabatier

► To cite this version:

Aurore Rimlinger, Nathalie Raharimalala, Véronique Letort, Jean-Jacques Rakotomalala, Dominique Crouzillat, et al.. Phenotypic diversity assessment wihin a major ex situ collection of coffees in Madagascar. Annals of Botany, 2020, 126 (5), pp.849-863. 10.1093/aob/mcaa073. hal-03167205

HAL Id: hal-03167205 https://hal.science/hal-03167205v1

Submitted on 16 Mar 2021

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers. L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

1	Original article
2	
3	
4	Phenotypic diversity assessment within a major ex situ collection of coffees in Madagascar
5	
6	Aurore Rimlinger ¹ , Nathalie Raharimalala ² , Véronique Letort ³ , Jean-Jacques
7	Rakotomalala ² , Dominique Crouzillat ⁴ , Romain Guyot ⁵ , Perla Hamon ⁵ , Sylvie Sabatier ¹ *
8	
9	1. CIRAD, UMR AMAP, F-34398 Montpellier, France
10	AMAP Univ Montpellier CIRAD, CNRS, INRAE, IRD, Montpellier
11	2. FOFIFA, BP 1444, Ambatobe, Antanarivo 101, Madagasca
12	3. Laboratoire de Mathématiques et Informatique pour la Complexité et les Systèmes,
13	CentraleSupélec, Université Paris-Saclay, 91190 Gif-sur-Yvette, France,
14	4. Nestlé Centre Tours, BP 49716, F-37097 Tours cedex 2, France
15	5. DIADE, Univ Montpellier IRD CIRAD Montpellier, France
16	
17	Running title: Wild Madagascan coffee variation.
18	corresponding author: Sylvie Sabatier, CIRAD, UMR AMAP, 34398 Montpellier, France
19	mailto:sylvie-annabel.sabatier@cirad.fr
20	Tel: +33 (0)467616585
21	Fax: +33 (0)467644913
22	

1 ABSTRACT

2

3 Background and aims.

Like other clades, the *Coffea* genus is highly diversified on the island of Madagascar. The 66 endemic species have colonized various environments and consequently exhibit a wide diversity of morphological, functional, phenological features and reproductive strategies. The trends of interspecific trait variation, which stems from interactions between genetically defined species and their environment, still needed to be addressed for Malagasy coffee trees.

9 *Methods*.

10 The structure of endemic wild coffees was explored in terms of morphological, phenological, 11 and functional traits. The environmental (natural habitat) effect was assessed on traits in 12 species in distinct natural habitats. Phylogenetic signal (Pagel's λ , Blomberg's K) was used to 13 quantify trait proximities among species according to their phylogenetic relatedness.

14 Key result.

Phylogenetic signal was found to vary greatly across and even within trait categories. The highest values being exhibited by the ratio of internode mass to leaf mass, the length of the maturation phase and the LDMC. By contrast, traits weakly linked to phylogeny were either contrained by environment (leaf size) or under selective pressures.

19 *Conclusions*

This study brings insight into complex patterns of trait variability. The length of the maturation phase, an adaptive trait, shows a strong phylogenetic signal as does the ratio between the stem dry mass and leaf dry mass.

23

24 Keywords: phenology, LMA, LDMC, functional traits, Coffea, Rubiaceae

1 INTRODUCTION

2

Tropical rainforests of Africa and Madagascar harbor huge biodiversity characterized by great 3 species richness and endemicity (Myers, 2000; Yoder and Novak 2006, Vences et al. 2009). 4 In such context, for the genera that experienced radiative speciation, phenotypic divergence 5 can be important while the associated genetic differentiation could remain low resulting in 6 low congruency between genetic and phenotypic diversity, and in the recognition of 7 morphological units as species (Shaffer and Thomson, 2007). For instance, 58 and 47 Coffea 8 species (excluding ex-Psilanthus genus and Baracoffea grouping) respectively from 9 Madagascar and Africa were described (Davis et al. 2006, Couturon et al. 2016), although 10 three and seven species from Madagascar and Africa respectively are not yet formally 11 recognized. 12

For Coffee, clear relationships between species was not permitted by analysis conducted with 13 two ITS plus four plastid sequences (Maurin et al. 2007), nor with a limited number of 14 nuclear microsatellite markers (Razafinarivo et al. 2013). A completely resolved molecular 15 phylogenetic tree was obtained using 28,800 concatenated SNPs obtained from Genotyping-16 By-Sequencing (GBS) methodology (Hamon et al. 2017). The necessity to use GBS for 17 assessment of between-species genetic divergence could be explained by two non-exclusive 18 mechanisms: 1) the absence of strong genetic barrier and therefore the maintenance of gene 19 flow between species even at a low rate (Hey 2006, Nosil 2008, Niemiller et al 2008) and 2) 20 recent speciation coupled with rapid morphological divergence (Janssen et al. 2008). 21 Regarding Madagascar speciation, the general agreement states that "the importance of 22 dispersal to the assembly of the Malagasy flora cannot be denied" (Yoder and Nowak, 2006). 23 The high level of speciation seems to be associated with the existence of different small 24

niches side-by-side. Therefore, the resulting species should be highly differentiated at the
 phenotypic level but not, or less, at the genetic one (Yoder and Nowak, 2006).

3

In addition to environmental selective pressures, traits (i.e. individual heritable features, as
defined by Garnier and Navas 2012) are also shaped by developmental (i.e. structural
limitation on phenotypic variability, as defined by Smith *et al.* 1985), functional and genetic
constraints.

Common evolutionary origin or, at the opposite, evolutionary convergence could be the result 8 of similar trait values for two species, or of correlations between traits. Hence, functionally 9 10 similar species may belong to the same clade or may be phylogenetically distant. Regarding leaf functional traits such LMA, leaf mass per area, and LDMC (ratio dry leaf mass/fresh leaf 11 mass); high LMA values characterize plants with low growth producing large leaves but 12 13 whose longevity is low (Westoby et al 2002); high LDMC values characterize plants whose foliar organs accumulate nutrients and constitute important storage pools with low tissue 14 turnover. Therefore, the study of their relationship permits to test whether there is 15 compensatory effect between these two traits and whether this correlation still exists in case 16 of evolutionary trade off. 17

18 The most recent Coffea molecular phylogeny highlighted independent and parallel diversification in the two landmasses Africa and Madagascar (Hamon et al. 2017) resulting in 19 total endemism in these main regions. More widely, none of the species occurring in West 20 and Central Africa is found in East Africa, in the Western Indian Ocean Islands, nor in Asia 21 (broad sense) and conversely. Another important characteristic concerns the great 22 vulnerability of *Coffea* species, as their distribution is generally restricted to one or a few 23 forests (Davis et al., 2006; http://publish.plantnet-project.org/project/wildcofdb). In such 24 context, forest cutovers and burns, human activities, and natural hazard (cyclones, fires) could 25

dramatically decrease Coffea richness both at the population and species levels. As a 1 consequence, more than 80% of Coffea species are present on the red list of endangered 2 species of the IUCN (from nearly threatened to critically endangered, Davis et al. 2006). Yet, 3 wild Madagascan species constitute highly valuable genetic resources (Andrianasolo et al. 4 2013). A large part of the Malagasy species are grouped together in an ex situ collection. Such 5 collection is especially important for coffees since some of them have already disappeared 6 from their natural habitat (Krishnan et al. 2013). As part of the study, we were able to carry 7 out *in situ* and *ex situ* comparisons of genetic diversity for four species and two populations 8 per species. This study showed a strong genetic diversity in the ex situ collection 9 10 (Andrianasolo et al., 2013). The plants in collection are very valuable for studies on interspecific variability. 11

12

Madagascan Coffea show different growth habits, growing as ligneous shrubs, treelets or 13 trees. They are mainly plants, with only monopodial growth, axillary inflorescences and 14 15 evergreen leaves (66 species at all; Davis et al., 2006, Couturon et al., 2016, http://publish.plantnet-project.org/project/wildcofdb). But some species have a sympodial 16 growth (Davis and Rakotonasolo, 2008). Most Coffea species conform to the Roux's 17 architectural model with rhythmic growth and continuous branching, and lateral flowering on 18 the plagiotropic branches (Hallé et al., 1978). In Coffea species, stem growth occurs phytomer 19 by phytomer, with a phyllochron that varies depending on seasonality (Varossieau, 1940). 20 Another striking example of adaptation lies in their phenological traits. For all species, 21 22 inflorescence and flower development require the dry season to be followed by a an adequate rainfall (Portères, 1946). The number of days from this triggering rain to the opening of the 23 flower bud (anthesis) is genetically determined and depends on the species considered (Le 24 Pierrès, 1995; Noirot et al, 2016). A better knowledge of the reproductive strategies is an 25

important first step for the development of appropriate conservation strategies. The length of
the maturation phase which correspond to the time between the seed emission and the seed
germination is very variable between species according to the plant habitat.

4

Within the past few years, as more phylogenetic data got available, a number of studies have 5 connected phylogenetic analyses with phenotypic, physiological, or phenological traits 6 (Reginato and Michelangi, 2016; Bacon et al., 2016). Several descriptive statistics have been 7 introduced to gauge phylogenetic signal as a quantity that could thus help compare different 8 traits across phylogenies (Pagel 1999; Blomberg et al. 2003). Not all traits behave similarly 9 for closely-related species: while some traits stay stable throughout the phylogeny (Davies et 10 al., 2013), others are highly labile (Cavender-Bares et al., 2009). Owing to shared ancestry, 11 non-independence caused by evolutionary history is expected from species traits. 12 13 Phylogenetic signal measures this tendency for related species (Blomberg and Garland, 2002): the stronger the signal, the larger the influence of the phylogenetic structure on the species 14 15 traits.

16

In this study, the availability of *Coffea* molecular phylogeny and phenotypic data for a large set of Madagascan wild coffees allows us to address the following questions: How is the phenotypic variation distributed among Madagascan wild coffee species and which are their phenotypic relationships? Are there different reproductive strategies? Are there phenotypic traits associated with species evolution, and thus expressing phylogenetic signal?

22

23

24 MATERIALS AND METHODS

1 Plant Material

2 Plant material comes from the ex situ Coffea collection at the Kianjavato Coffee Research Station (KCRS) in Madagascar, (coordinates S 21°22'28", E 47°52'02"). The collection is 3 situated 550 km away from Antananarivo, at altitudes ranging from 50 to 400 m above sea 4 level. The collection is mainly constituted by Madagascan wild Coffea species (Chevalier, 5 1942) excluding the Baracoffea group from the Western coast described by Davis and 6 Rakotonasolo (2008). They are representatives of the five botanical series from the Great 7 Island, which were classified by Charrier (1978) according to floral and leaf traits. These 8 series are named Garcinioides, Millotii complex, Multiflorae, Subterminales and Verae. 9

The coffee trees sampled are adult trees mainly collected between 1960s and 1980s, growing
under natural forest cover. Details on plant material (such as species name, botanical series,
geographic origin, and coordinates) are provided in Table 1.

13

14 *Phenotypic records*

Records were done during years 2010-2011, 2013-2014 on a total of 364 plants from 63 populations corresponding to 36 species. Descriptive (such as, leaf shape and color, domatia position, aperture shape and pubescence) and quantitative traits on the numbers, leaves, fruits, seeds size and phenology (number of days between the triggering rain and blossoming, between flowering and ripening, number of flowers per inflorescence) were recorded. Excepting for leaves, fruits and seeds measurements, the trait records were done on a maximum of ten trees (depending on the availability) per population.

22 Mature leaves measurements were performed on five leaves (picked on the fifth branching

23 from the top) and five trees per population.

24 Measurements for fruits (including 100-seed weight and fruit disc diameter) were done on 20

and 40 seeds and fruits respectively per population. Four additional variables were calculated:

i) the shape index of leaves as the ratio of length to width; ii) the surface index as length x
width; volume indices of iii) fruits and iv) seeds as length x width x thickness. The 28
variables and range of variation are listed in Table S1.

The number of days for maximum seed germination was obtained after sowing between 68
and 120 seeds per harvest in nurseries at Kianjavato. This trait was recorded for 47
populations corresponding to 28 species.

7 Two functional attributes, leaf mass per area (LMA, recorded for 39 populations either 33

species) and leaf dry matter content (LDMC, i.e. the ratio of leaf dry mass to leaf fresh mass) 8 which was recorded for 30 populations either 29 species, were added, as well as two 9 10 physiological attributes: stomata density and stomata length, as measured in Razafinarivo et al. (2012) were recorded for 56 populations either 35 species. The Leaver module was used to 11 extract leaf area with the plugin Toaster (Tree and plant organs and structures analyzer, 12 Borianne, 2012) run in the ImageJ software. The leaf dry mass was obtained after being dried 13 four days in the oven (60°C). For all species, in order to compare even-aged organs, the 14 measurements of size leaf and internode have been made on the more recent metamer at the 15 branch extremity and in full light. These metamer were green and without secondary growth. 16

17

18 Environmental parameters

19 Climatic data were extracted from GPS coordinates of each species (Table 1) and from

20 worldclim information (<u>http://www.worldclim.org</u>). The "habitat class", (Table 1) is obtained

21 from a distribution of the number of dry months of each species original habitat.

Among the 19 available bioclimatic variables, five (Annual Mean Temperature, Max Temperature of Warmest Month, Min Temperature of Coldest Month and Annual Precipitation) were retained for this study. Additional climate data such as Annual Potential evapotranspiration, Climatic Water Deficit and, Number of Dry Months were extracted from

- MadaClim (<u>https://madaclim.cirad.fr/</u>). An Index of Aridity was also calculated as annual
 precipitation minus annual potential evapotranspiration (Table 2).
- 3

4 Statistical analyses

5 Relationships among Madagascan wild coffees

6 Given that the recorded traits are quantitative and qualitative, quantitative traits (at all 14) 7 were transformed into either similar size classes or well distinct range classes depending on the distribution of the trait. For the qualitative trait, each modality became a new trait. 8 Therefore, from the 28 initial variables, a total of 107 new variables were obtained and 9 encoded 1-0 for presence-absence. With the aim to assess the relationships between 10 individuals within populations, populations within species and between species, a Neighbour 11 Joining (NJ) tree based on matrix of Dice's dissimilarities indices and 200 bootstraps was 12 constructed using DARwin v.5 (Perrier and Jacquemoud-Collet, 2006). 13

For quantitative traits (reproductive, vegetative, phenological, physiological and functional leaf traits), we used standardized data to visualize for each trait and each species the deviation to the mean of the values obtained for all the species. The results for each species are ordered following the rooted molecular phylogenetic tree extracted from Hamon et al. (2017).

18

19 Relationships between phenotypic and bioclimatic traits

Three habitat classes of species were defined according to the number of dry months from the original population location: 0-1 dry month for S1, 2-6 dry months for S2 and >6 months for S3. Comparisons were performed on seven traits recorded for all populations investigated (63 populations corresponding to 36 species). For 15 traits, data were obtained for 54 to 61 populations. Six traits were recorded for 30 to 39 populations corresponding to at least 29

species. Mean comparisons between subsets were performed with ANOVA using R (R Core
 Team, 2015).

3

4 Analysis of interspecific and intra specific (population) diversity

- 5 We summarized the interspecific and intraspecific (population) trait variation in the table S2 6 (Supplementary material), showing the mean trait values for a set of species. Differences 7 between populations were analyzed by one-way ANOVA and the Tukey test. We also verified 8 the contribution of the population level to the total trait variation by decomposing the variance 9 of each trait using a linear mixed model that took into account the nested structure of the 10 sampling design (package lme4, Bates *et al.*, 2015)..
- 11

12 The phylogenetic signal

The phylogenetic signal allows a better understanding of the evolutionary traits within a 13 group. The phylogeneticPagel's λ (Pagel, 1999) and Blomberg's K indices (Blomberg *et al.*, 14 15 2003) were selected after assessment of their respective performance and shortcomings. Pagel's λ estimated by a maximum-likelihood approach provides the most probable 16 description of the observed trait distribution given Brownian model for trait evolution (BM). 17 18 A value of λ equal to 1 indicates that the trait evolves exactly as suggested from the original topology of phylogeny while a value of λ equal to 0 means an absence of phylogenetic signal. 19 Blomberg's statistic (K) quantifies phylogenetic signal. It is a descriptive statistical parameter 20 to describe the degree of the difference between the F-statistic of simulated data and observed 21 F-statistic distribution by the ratio of the observed mean squared error derived from a 22 23 phylogenetically corrected mean and the expected mean square error obtained from the analysis by considering tree topology and branch length information. A K value inferior to 24 one suggests that the trait evolution was independent of phylogeny (*i.e.* the phylogenetic 25

signal is low). A K value equal to 1 suggests that the trait has evolved at a constant rate during 1 2 species evolution, while K > 1 indicates a higher phylogenetic signal for the considered trait (*i.e.* the trait is more similar for related species than expected by the evolutionary model). The 3 significance of K is obtained from 999 permutations. Phylogenetic signal was only considered 4 significant for a trait when both Pagel's λ and Blomberg's K gave consistent results with the 5 following thresholds for the p-values: $p_{\lambda} < 0.05$ and $p_{K} < 0.1$. Phylogenetic signals were 6 estimated with the function phylosig in package 'phytools' (Revell, 2012) from mean values 7 data per species for 29 to 36 species depending on the trait. 8

9 Statistical tests (normality, independence and homoscedasticity of residuals) for validation of
10 the linear model were performed using package lmtest (Zeileis and Hothorn, 2002).
11 Calculations were performed with the function pgls of the R package 'caper' (Orme *et al.*,
12 2012). Figures drawings are performed within R 3.2.5.

13

14 RESULTS

15 Structuring of wild coffees based on traits

Individual phenotypic relationships showed that globally, intraspecific variation was lower 16 17 than interspecific variation, which can be seen in the table S2 (Supplementary material) with ANOVA results on interspecific variation compared to intraspecific (population) variation. 18 The deviation to the mean was lower for intraspecific variation, and populations were 19 generally pooled into fewer groups than did species. The contribution of intraspecific 20 diversity to the variance of species traits (table S3, Supplementary material) varied between 21 traits, being fairly high (leaf length, number of flowers per inflorescence), moderate (shape 22 23 index, petiole length) or low (length of the maturation phase).

The estimation of dissimilarity indices within populations lower than between species (Figure
 1). As an example, *C. resinosa* individuals were grouped close to each another, even if they
 are exhibiting an important phenotypic variability.

Only two Charrier's series (the Millotii complex and the Garcinioides) appeared very
homogenous but no overall structuring according to the botanical series classification is
obvious. Using standardized data for each trait permitted to discern some trends following
phylogenetic species relationships (Figure 2). The ratio between internode mass and leaf mass
was higher for three species: *C. vohemarensis* and *C. vatovavyensis* (Subterminale serie) and *C. bertrandii* (Multiflorae serie) that are highly branched and bear small leaves.

Another grouping of sister species (Figure 2, in red) was characterized by long petiole and leaves, thick and long internodes, large leaf area, large fruits and seeds (Figure 3A). Similarly, a grouping of northern species (Figure 2, in yellow) was characterized by a long maturation phase and included two species easy to identify from their fruit shape (*C. tsirananae*, Figure 3B) or their leaf shape (*C. heimii*, Figure 3C). The latter species also exhibited the highest value for LMA.

16 *Reproductive traits and strategies*

Madagascan wild coffee trees exhibited a wide range of number of days between the 17 triggering rain and the flowering (from 4 to 13 days). Two series, Garcinioides and Millotii 18 complex, were characterized by a long duration from rainfall to flowering (10-13 days) while 19 the Verae exhibited a short to medium duration (4-7 days). Regarding the three bioclimatic 20 subsets of species S1, S2 and S3, the range of the number of days between the trigger rain and 21 22 blossoming was large for the three subsets going from four to 10 (S2) or 13 (S1) days and, from seven to 12 for S3 (Figure 4A). The Multiflorae appeared as the most diverse series with 23 from short (4 days) to long (10 days) durations (Figure 4B). 24

Maturation phase lengths were also diverse and ranged from 59 to more than 350 days. In 1 2 very humid habitats (0 to 1 dry month) as well as in intermediate habitats (2 to 6 dry months), species ripen in 2 to 6 months. In very dry habitats (>6 dry months), species ripened in 3 contrasted time, either 2-3 months (for the majority), either around one year (Figure 5A). 4 Dates for harvest went around the year from January to December (Figure 5B). Early species 5 6 (all Verae, and majority of Subterminales and Multiflorae) were harvested from January to 7 February. Medium species (mainly Millotii) were harvested from March to May and very late species (all Garcinioides) from mid-November to December. The sequence of harvest was 8 nearly invariable whatever the year. Considering seed germination; generally there was either 9 10 no dormancy or germination after a couple of months.

In humid (S1) and intermediate (S2) habitats, maturation phase and seed germination took 11 place during the hot rainy season with short time between the two physiological steps. 12 13 However, in dry habitats (S3), two behaviors were found. Either species (such as C. boiviniana) had a very short maturation phase followed by seed germination few weeks after, 14 15 either species such as C. tsirananae had a long maturation phase (around one year) followed by immediate seed germination (occurring during the rainy season at year n+1 after the 16 flowering). An overview of the timing of the different reproductive phases considered as 17 18 reproductive strategies is given in Figure 6.

19

20 Environmental effect

Given the distribution of the number of dry months in their natural habitats, three habitat class
of species were defined from the bioclimatic parameters of their natural habitat. The main
features of these habitat class of species are given in Table 2.
Higher the number of dry months, higher the range of the average temperature of the coldest

25 month and higher the annual potential evapotranspiration as a result of warm temperature.

Regarding biological trait, mean comparisons between habitat class for each trait showed significant differences between the three habitat class as described in Table 3 for vegetative traits (leaf length, leaf width and leaf area, two leaves mass and internode diameter perpendicular to leaves, ratio of internode mass/two leaves mass, ratio of internode length/diameter, Ratio Length of internode/internode diameter parallel to leaves), and reproductive traits (number of flowers per inflorescence,maturation phase length, and seed thickness).

8

9 Phylogenetic signal

10 The phylogenetic signal allows a better understanding of the evolutionary traits within a 11 group. Phylogenetical signal was assessed using Pagels' λ and Blomberg's K parameters to 12 describe the degree of the difference between the *F*-statistic of simulated data obtained from 13 999 permutations and observed *F*-statistic distributions.

We found that 9 traits (ratio of internode mass/leaf mass, petiole length, parallel internode diameter, ratio of internode length/diameter, leaf length, the length of the maturation phase, seed shape index, LDMC, stomata length and stomata density) evolved in relation with species evolution (Figure 7).

18

19 DISCUSSION

20 Reproductive strategies and limitation of gene flow

Our study showed that phenology parameters (the number of days for blossoming after the trigger rain and the maturation phase length, see Fig 4 and 5) did not correlate with natural habitat type; similar range of variation was observed in the three types. For coffees, flowering requires two important steps. The first one is the buds inducing that is set up after a dry period. It is climate dependent as was reported in New-Caledonia by Gomez et al. (2016).

Indeed, flowering patterns for the three cultivated Coffea species (C. canephora, C. liberica 1 2 and C. arabica) introduced during the beginning of 19 century followed the timing and sequence of precipitation in the study area. The second step corresponds to the development 3 of the flower buds following a trigger rain (of at least 10 mm, Portères, 1946). It is genetically 4 determined since the average number of days between the trigger rain and the blossoming is 5 fixed for each species and ranged here between 5 and 13 days (Noirot et al., 2016). These 6 7 values remained invariable whatever the growing place as was observed in New-Caledonia for the three introduced species (Gomez et al. 2016). In such conditions, climate changes or 8 new climate growing environment should affect only buds inducing and then, as a 9 10 consequence, the quality of blossoming that depends on the intensity of the trigger rain. Under climatic changes, flowering could be disturbed. Erratic flowerings might open the way for 11 flowering synchronization of usually non-synchronous flowering species and thus favoring 12 unusual gene flow. However, the loss of species integrity involve also cross-species 13 hybridization success and capability to produce fertile progenies. This phenomenon is 14 probably at the origin of the natural cross between two wild species, producing the famous 15 Arabica coffee (Carvalho, 1952; Lashermes et al, 1999). 16

17

Within tropical forests, a broad spectrum of flowering patterns has been found (Sakai 2001), and observed variations in phenology may arise from phenotypic plasticity or from genetically based local adaptations or a combination thereof (e.g., Zalamea et al. 2011; Anderson et al. 2012). Coffee flowering phenology has been characterized as highly dependent on climatic factors such as precipitation (Crisosto et al. 1992), and temperature (Lin 2008), and it is genetically controlled (Le Pierrès 1995). The time between this rain and the flowering date was well conserved, strictly species-dependent and followed a clear sequence in which *C. liberica* flowered first, followed by *C. canephora* and then *C. arabica* both in Africa and New-Caledonia (Gomez et al. 2016).

For Madagascan wild coffees, the sequence of flowering is also well-conserved starting in 3 September by C. sp. 'Sambava-Diego' (described in Couturon et al. 2016 and in 4 http://publish.plantnet-project.org/project/wildcofdb) and C. vatovavyensis. This is followed 5 in October by a part of Subterminales, Millotii complex and Multiflorae species, followed in 6 November by the late-flowering species belonging to Millotii complex and Multiflorae, all the 7 Garcinioides and C. boiviniana, C. alleizettii, C. augagneuri, C. ratsimamangae and C. 8 sakarahae (Subterminales) and finishing in December with the very late-flowering C. 9 10 tsirananae (Subterminales).

Flowering patterns in *Coffea* thus appear to have a strong genetic component, causing the 11 flowering times of each species to remain distinct (Akaffou et al. 2014). Partly asynchronous 12 13 responses among species to key environmental factors would thus be expected to act as prezygotic barriers. The lack of a well-marked dry season is considered to influence flower 14 15 bud formation by creating different levels of induction (Crisosto et al. 1992) and favoring multiple flowering events during a season (Allan, E., and J. R. Pannell. 2009). However, we 16 do not know whether adaptive evolution will allow populations to reach new phenotypic 17 18 optima rapidly enough to keep pace with climate change (Anderson et al., 2012).

19

20 Reproductive barriers due to no overlap of flowering is very important for sympatric species.

This is all the more important given that hand-cross fertilizations in coffees were done in Ivory Coast and in Madagascar (Louarn 1992, Charrier 1978). Despite differences in F1 hybrids and F1 fertility rates, the authors concluded that coffees share the same nuclear genome. Therefore, in natural conditions, species integrity in sympatry conditions should be mainly maintained by no flowering overlapping. So, the differences in days between the trigger rain and blossoming are an essential component. However, this physiologic barrier is not absolute. Buds inducing is highly dependent on climate parameters (alternating dry and rainy periods). Reproductive strategies involve mechanisms that favor species integrity (physiologic flow gene barrier), and species survival in climate changes and during new niche colonization.

For species survival, legitimate seed germination must benefit from rains to produce plantlets 6 7 that can skip the dry season without damage. In Africa, short maturation phases are only observed in the lowlands of East Africa while long maturation phase are recorded in West and 8 Central Africa plus high-altitudes of East Africa. In Madagascar, northern species among 9 10 Subterminales have either very short maturation phase either very long maturation phase. This indicates two opposite strategies to avoid the dry season. Three behavior have been observed 11 in Seasonally Dry Tropical Forest: (1) flowering and fruiting exclusively in in the rainy 12 13 season or (2) flowering in the rainy season and fruiting in the dry season or (3) flowering and fruiting in the dry season (Luna-Nieves et al., 2017). The seasonal variation of irradiance 14 influenced seed development times (Zimmerman et al; 2007). 15

16

17 *Climate effect on traits related to plant development.*

Ours results shown that the climatic factors affect leaf size and mass, the diameter of green internodes which is a proxy of the size of meristem (see Table 3). These features decreased with increasing aridity. The size of leaves is an adaptive trait to drought (Westoby et al., 2002; Wright et al., 2017). In dry climate, the leaves are small and thick with a high LMA (Niinemets, 2001).

The leaves of *Coffea* species of humid region have short internodes and large internode diameter and therefore a weak ratio of internode length to diameter. On the contrary, the species of arid region have long internode and small internode diameter and thus a high ratio of internode length-to-diameter. Our results are in line with Corner's rules on the leaf/stem size: the species with a large leaves have a thick stem and large fruits and weak branching while the species with small leaves have a thin stem and small fruits and high branching (Corner, 1949). In wild *Coffea*, our results show that the species with large leaves have large green internode diameter, proxy of the size of apical meristem.

6

A positive relationship was found between the leaf size and the internode diameter. Leaves
intercept light and acquire carbon, while stems transport water with nutrients and
mechanically support the leaves, thus leaf and stem traits are expected to be highly
coordinated biomechanically and physiologically (Westoby et al., 2002).

11

The climatic factors influence the value of ratio between internode mass and leaf mass which are higher for species growing in intermediate and arid regions (see table 3). Thus, these species allocate more to the stem than to the leaves. In arid environment, the species with small leaves are favored because they have a high LMA and thus a better photosynthetic capacity (Westoby et al., 2002). The mechanical cost is the lowest for the species with small leaves (Givnish 1987). The small leaves are dense and thick (Niinemets 2001) with a low transpiration (Westoby et al., 2002).

19

20 Phylogenetic signal

The phylogenetical signal of ratio of internode mass to leaf mass was highly significant (see fig. 7). This ratio illustrates the variability in stem *vs* leaves biomass allocation between species. The phylogenetic signal of the leaf dry matter content (LDMC) is significant. The LMDC is an indicator of the use of plant resources, a trade-off between a rapid assimilation and growth and an efficient conservation of resources within well-protected tissues (Vaieretti et al., 2007). The strong conservatism of LDMC is known (Purschke et al., 2013; Kazakou et
al., 2014; Fort et al., 2015; Poorter et al., 2018). The stomatal length and stomata density have
a significant phylogenetic signal. In the *Coffea* genus, generally, the smaller genome species
have smaller leaves with larger stomata and grows on the dry environment while the larger
genome species from humid habitats have longer leaves with a higher stomata density
(Razafinarivo et al., 2013).

LMA reflects the cost of leaf construction, the light interception and the plant fitness with a
low phylogenetic signal (Flores et al., 2014). LMA is linked to leaf lifespan and to
photosynthetic capacity per mass unit (Am). The species with low LMA have generally fast
growth rate (Flores et al., 2014).

The phylogenetical signal of leaf petiole length, leaf length, leaf area and leaf width was weakly significant. The size of the leaves is mainly controlled by global climatic factors (Wright et al., 2017). The phylogenetical signals of the ratio internode length-to-diameter are weakly significant too. The stem size is species dependent within *Coffea*.

The length of the maturation phase shows a high significant phylogenetic signal. It is well known that the phenology is an adaptive trait (Chuine, 2010). These results highlight the assumption that the phenological sensitivity was a significant predictor of species adaptation to climate change (Cleland et al., 2012).

19

20

21 CONCLUSIONS

For Madagascan wild coffees as for African species, the flowering is influenced by both the climatic conditions (dry period followed by a trigger rain) and genetic parameters at the species level. Phenology parameters (number of days for blossoming after the trigger rain and

maturation phase length) did not correlate with natural habitat type. However, a high 1 2 variability of length of the maturation phase (from 59 to 360 days) with a strong phylogenetic signal is noted. In drier environment, two opposite strategies to avoid the dry season are 3 observed either very short as *C. boiviniana* (59 days) or very long as *C. tsirananae* (360 days) 4 that raise questions on the adaptive meaning of this trait. Reproductive strategies involve 5 6 mechanisms that favor species integrity (reduced gene flow and reduced hybrids growth or 7 fertility) and species survival in climate changes. The climatic factors affect leaf size and mass, the diameter of green internodes, which is a proxy of the size of meristem. The ratio 8 between the stem dry mass and leaf dry mass shows a high phylogenetic signal. To our 9 10 knowledge, there are few studies on such phylogenetic signal.

11

12 ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This work is a part of a collaborative project with the National Center of Applied Research and Rural
Development (FOhibem-pirenena momba ny FIkarohana ampiharina amin'ny Fampandrosoana ny eny
Ambanivohitra: FOFIFA), in Madagascar and two French research institutes (Cirad and IRD,
Montpellier France). We thank the FOFIFA staff at the Kianjavato Coffee Research Station (KCRS),
Madagascar. We thank Yves Caraglio (UMR AMAP) for his critical and valuable comments on the
manuscript.

19

20 FUNDING INFORMATION

This work was supported by the Agropolis Foundation (grant n° 0902-009) and by funds from the
Botany and Computational Plant Architecture, joint research unit (UMR AMAP) and by funds from
the Diversity, Adaption and Plant Development, joint research unit (UMR DIADE).

24

1 LITERATURE CITED

2

Akaffou DS, I. Konate I, R.S. Sié RS, Poncet V, Zoro Bi IA, Keli J, et al. 2014. Flowering
phenology and yield-related traits in the interspecific cross between Coffea
pseudozanguebariae Bridson and C. canephora Pierre. *Australian Journal of Crop Science*.
8:1272 – 1280.

Allan E and Panell JR. 2009. Rapid divergence in physiological and life-history traits
between northern and southern populations of the British introduced neo-species, Senecio
squalidus. *Oikos* 118: 1053-1061, 2009 doi: 10.1111/j.1600-0706.2009.17135.x,

Anderson JT. Inouye DW. McKinney AM. Colautti RI, and Mitchell-Olds T. 2012.
Phenotypic plasticity and adaptive evolution contribute to advancing flowering phenology in
response to climate change. *Proceeding of the Royale Society*. 279:3843–3852.

13 Andrianasolo D, Davis AP, Razafinarivo NJ, Hamon, S, Rakotomalala, JJ, Sabatier S,

Hamon, P. 2013. High genetic diversity of in situ and ex situ populations of Madagascan
coffee species: further implications for the management of coffee genetic resources. *Genetics and Genomes*, 9: 1295-1312. DOI 10.1007/s11295-013-0638-4

17 Bacon CD, Velásquez-Puentes F, Flórez-Rodríguez A, Balslev H, Galeano G, Bernal R,

18 Antonelli A. 2016. Phylogenetics of Iriarteeae (Arecaceae), cross-Andean disjunctions and

19 convergence of clustered infructescence morphology in Wettinia. Botanical Journal of the

20 *Linnean Society*, **182** (2): 272–286.

Bates D., Mächler M, Bolker B, Walker S. 2015. Fitting Linear Mixed – Effects Models
 Using Lme4. *Journal of Statistical Software* 67.

- 23 Blomberg SP and Garland Jr T. 2002. Tempo and mode in evolution: phylogenetic inertia,
- adaptation and comparative methods. *Journal of Evolutionary Biology*, **15**:899–910.

Blomberg S, Garland Jr T, Ives A. 2003. Testing for phylogenetic signal in comparative
 data: behavioral traits are more labile. *Evolution*, 57: 717–745

Borianne P. 2012. Automated valuation of leaves area for large-scale analysis needing data
coupling or petioles deletion, In Guo, Y., Kang, M. Z., Dumont, Y. (eds), *Plant growth modeling, simulation, visualization and applications*. Shanghai, China, 50-57.

- 6 Carvalho A. 1952. Taxonomia de *Coffea Arabica* L. Cracteres morfologicos dos haploides.
 7 *Bragantia* 12: 201-212.
- 8 Cavender-Bares J, Kozak KH, Fine PVA, Kembel SW. 2009. The merging of community
 9 ecology and phylogenetic biology. *Ecology Letters*, 12:693–715

10 Charrier A. 1978. La structure génétique des caféiers spontanés de la région malgache
 11 (*Mascarocoffea*). Leurs relations avec les caféiers d'origine africaine (*Eucoffea*). PhD Thesis,
 12 Université Paris-Sud Orsay, Paris, France.

13 Chevalier A. 1942. Les caféiers du globe. Caféiers sauvages et cultivés. *Encyclopédie*14 *biologique*. XXII Fas. II: 1-33.

15 Chuine I, 2010. Why does phenology drive species distribution? *Philosophical. Transactions*16 *of Royal Society B* (2010) 365, 3149–3160.

- Cleland EE, Allen JM, Crimmins TM, Dunne JA, Pau S, Travers SE, et al. 2012.
 Phenological tracking enables positive species responses to climate change. *Ecology*93:1765–1771.
- 20 Corner EJH. 1949. The Durian theory or the origin of the modern tree. *Annals of Botany*,
 21 13(52): 367-414.
- 22 Couturon E, Raharimalala NE, Rakotomalala JJ, Hamon S, de Kochko A, Guyot R,

Hamon P. 2016. Caféiers sauvages - Un trésor en péril au cœur des forêts tropicales ! Wild
coffee-trees - A threatened treasure in the heart of tropical forests ! Edition Association
Biodiversité – Ecovalorisation et Caféiers, Montpellier.

4 Crisosto CH, Grantz DA, and Meinzer FC. 1992. Effects of water deficit on flower
5 opening in coffee (Coffea arabica L.). *Tree Physiology*. 10:127–139.

Davis AP, Govaerts R, Bridson DM, Stoffelen P, 2006. An annotated taxonomic conspectus
of the genus *Coffea* (Rubiaceae). *Botanical Journal of the Linnean Society*, 152(4): 465–512.

Bavis AP, Rakotonasolo F. 2008. A taxonomic revision of the baracoffea alliance: nine
remarkable Coffea species from western Madagascar. Botanical Journal of the Linnean
Society 158, 355-390.

11 Davies TJ, Wolkovich EM, Kraft NJB, Salamin N, Allen JM, Ault TR, Betancourt JL,

12 Bolmgren K, Cleland EE, Cook BI, Crimmins TM, Mazer SJ, McCabe GJ, Pau S,

13 **Regetz J, Schwartz MD, Travers SE. 2013**. Phylogenetic conservatism in plant phenology.

14 *Journal of Ecology*, **101**(6): 1520–1530.

Fort F, Jouany C, Cruz P. 2015. Hierarchical traits distances explain grassland Fabaceae
species' ecological niches distances. *Frontiers in Plant Science*, 6: 1-11

Flores O, Garnier E, Wright IJ et al. 2014. An evolutionary perspective on leaf economics:
phylogenetics of leaf mass per area in vascular plants. *Ecology and Evolution*, 4 (14): 27992811.

Garnier E. and Navas ML, 2012. A trait-based approach to comparative functional plant
 ecology: concepts, methods and application for agroecology. A review. *Agronomy Sustainable development*; 32:365-399.

Givnish TJ. 1987. Comparative studies of leaf form assessing the relative roles of selective
 pressures and phylogenetic constraints. *New Phytologist*. 106 (Suppl.): 131-160.

3 Gomez C, Despinoy M, Hamon S, Hamon P, Salmon D, Akaffou SD, Legnate H, de

4 Kochko A, Mangeas M, Poncet V. 2016. Shift in precipitation regime promotes interspecific

5 hybridization of introduced *Coffea* species. *Ecology and Evolution* : **6**(10): 3240–3255

6 Hallé F, Oldeman RAA, Tomlinson PB. 1978. Tropical trees and forests: an architectural

7 analysis. New York: Spring

8 Hamon P, Grover CE, Davis AP et al. 2017. Genotyping-by-sequencing provides the first

9 well-resolved phylogeny for coffee (*Coffea*) and insights into the evolution of caffeine content

10 in its species. *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* **109**: 351-361.

Hey J. 2006. Recent advances in assassing gene flow between diverging populations and
species. *Current Opinion in Genetics and Development*, 16: 592-596.

Janssen T, Bystriakova N, Rakotondrainibe F, Coomes D, Labat JN, Schneider H. 2008.
Neoendemism Madagascan scaly tree ferns results from recent, coincident diversification. *Evolution* 62: 1876-1889.

16 Kazakou E, Violle C, Roumet C, Navas ML, Vile D, Kattge J, Garnier E. 2014. Are

trait-based species rankings consistent across data set and spatial scales? *Journal of vegetation science* 25: 235-247.

19 Krishnan S, Ranker TA, Davis AP, Rakotomalala JJ, 2013. The study of genetic diversity

- 20 patterns of Coffea commersoniana, an endangered coffee species from Madagascar: a model
- 21 for conservation of other littoral forest species. *Tree Genetics & Genomes* **9:179–187.**
- 22 Lashermes P, Combes MC, Robert J, Trouslot P, D'Hont A, Anthony F, Charrier
- 23 A. 1999. Molecular characterisation and origin of the Coffea arabica L. genome. *Molecular*
- 24 and General genetics **261**: 259-266.

Le Pierres, D. 1995. Etude des hybrides interspecifiques tetraploïdes de premiere generation
 entre Coffea arabica L. et les cafeiers diploïdes. PhD Thesis University Paris XI, Orsay
 (France).

4 Lin BB. 2008. Microclimate effects on flowering success in coffee agroforestry systems.
5 American Eurasian Journal of Agriculture Environnemental Science. 3:148–152.

Louarn, J. 1992. La fertilité des hybrides interspecifiques et les relations genomiques entre
caféiers diploïdes d'origine africaine (Genre Coffea L. sous-genre Coffea). PhD Thesis,
University Montpellier.

9 Luna-Nieves AL, Meave JA, Morellato LPC, Ibarra-Manriquez, 2017. Reproductive
10 phenology of usefull Seasonnally Dry Tropical Forest trees: Guiding patterns for seed
11 collection and plant propagation in nurseries. *Forest Ecology and Management* 393: 52-62

12 Maurin O, Davis AP, Chester M, Mvungi EF, Jaufeerally-Fakim Y, Fay MF. 2007.

Towards a phylogeny for Coffea (Rubiaceae) : identifying wellsupported lineages based on
nuclear and plastid DNA sequences. *Annals of Botany* 100: 1565-1583.

15 Myers N, Mittermeier RA, Mittermeier CG, da Fonseca G.A.B, Kent J. 2000.

16 Biodiversity hotspots for conservation priorities. *Nature*, **403**: 853–858.

17 Niemiller ML, Fitzpatrick BM, Miller BT, 2008. Recent divergence-with-gene-flow in

18 Tennessee cave salamanders (Plethodontidae: Gyrinophilus) inferred from gene genealogies.

19 *Molecular Ecology*, **17**: 2258-2275.

20 Niinemets U, 2001. Globe-scale climatic controls of leaf dry mass per area, density, and

thickness in trees and shrubs. *Ecology*, 82(2): 453-469.

22 Noirot M, Charrier A, Stoffelen P, Anthony F. 2016. Reproductive isolation, gene flow and

23 speciation in the former *Coffea* subgenus: a review. *Trees*, **30**: 597-608.

Nosil P, 2008. Speciation with gene flow could be common. *Molecular Ecology* 17(9): 21032106.

--

Orme D, Freckleton RP, Thomas GH, Petzoldt T, Fritz SA, Isaac NJB, Pearse W. 2012.
 caper: comparative analysis of phylogenetics and evolution in R. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution*, 3:145-151.

4 Pagel M. 1999. Inferring the historical patterns of biological evolution. *Nature*, 401: 877–
5 884.

6 **Perrier X, Jacquemoud-Collet J-P. 2006**. DARwin software <u>http://darwin.cirad.fr</u>

Poorter L, Castilho CV, Schietti J, Oliveira RS, Costa FRC, 2018. Can traits predict
individual growth performance? A test in a hyperdiverse tropical forest. *New Phytologist*219: 109-121.

10 Portères R. 1946. Action de l'eau, après une période sèche, sur le déclenchement de la
11 floraison chez *Coffea arabica* L. *L'Agronomie Tropicale*, 1(3-4): 148-158.

Purschke O, Schmid BC, Sykes MT, Poschlod P, Michalski SG, Durka W, Kühn I,
Winter M and Prentice HC. 2013. Contrasting changes in taxonomic, phylogenetic and
functional diversity during a long-term succession: insights into assembly processes. *Journal*

15 *of Ecology*, **101**: 857-856.

Rakotomalala J-J, Cros E, Clifford MN, Charrier A. 1992. Caffeine and theobromine in
green beans from *Mascarocoffea*. *Phytochemistry* 31(4):1271–2.

Razafinarivo NJ, Rakotomala JJ, Brown SC, de Kochko A, Poncet V, DubreuilTranchant, C, Couturon E, Guyot R, Hamon P, 2012. Geographical gradients in the
genome size variation of coffee trees (*Coffea*) native to Africa and Indian Ocean islands. *Tree genetics & genomes*, 8 (6): 1345-1358.

Reginato M, Michelangeli FA, 2016. Diversity and constraints in the floral morphological
evolution of *Leandra* s.str. (Melastomataceae). *Annals of Botany*, 118(3): 445-458.

- Revell LJ. 2012. phytools: An R package for phylogenetic comparative biology (and other
 things). *Methods in Ecology and Evolution*, 3: 217-223.
- 3 Sakai, S. 2001. Phenological diversity in tropical forests. *Population Ecology*. 43:77–86.

Shaffer HB and Thomson RC, 2007. Delimiting Species in Recent Radiations. *Systematic Biology* 56(6): 896-906.

- Smith JM, Burian R, Kauffman P, Alberch P, Campbell J, Goodwin B, Lande R, Raup
 D, Wolpert L. 1985. Developmental constraints and evolution. *Quarterly Review of Biology*,
 60: 265–287.
- 9 Vaieretti MV, Diaz S, Vile D, Garnier E. 2007. Two measurement methods of leaf dry
 10 matter content produce similar results in a broad range of species. *Annals of Botany*: 99: 95511 958.
- Varossieau WW. 1940. On the development of the stem and the formation of leaves in
 Coffea species. *Annales du Jardin Botanique de Buitenzorg*, 50: 115-198.
- Vences M, Wollenberg KC, Vieites DR, Lees DC. 2009. Madagascar as a model region of
 species diversification. *Trends in Ecology and Evolution*, 24: 456–65
- Westoby M, Falster DS, Moles TA, Vesk PA, Wright IL, 2002; Plant ecological
 strategies : some leading dimension of variation between species. *Annual review of ecology systematic*, 33: 125-159.
- Wright IL, Dong N, Maire V, Prentice IC et al, 2017. Global Climatic drivers of leaf size *Science* 357, 917–921

1	Yoder AD, and Nowak MD, 2006. Has Vicariance or Dispersal Been the Predominant
2	Biogeographic Force in Madagascar? Only Time Will Tell. Annual Review of Ecology,
3	Evolution, and Systematics Vol. 37:405-431.

- 4 Zalamea PC, Munoz F, Stevenson PR, Paine CET, Sarmiento C, Sabatier D, Heuret P.
- 5 2011. Continental-scale patterns of *Cecropia* reproductive phenology: evidence from
 6 herbarium specimens. *Proceedings of the Royal Society*. doi: 10.1098/rspb.2010.2259.
- 7 Zeileis A and Hothorn T. 2002. Diagnostic Checking in Regression Relationships. *R News*,
 8 2(3): 7-10.
- **Zimmerman JK, Wright SJ, Calderon O, Pagan MA Paton S, 2007**. Flowering and
 fruiting phenologies of seasonal and aseasonal neotropical forest: the role of annual changes
 in irradiance. *Journal of tropical Ecology* 23: 231-251.
- 12

TABLES

Table 1. Coffee species examined, with population code, species name, botanical series (from

- 6 Charrier 1978), origin, province, GPS coordinates, habitat class. Habitat class: 1: < 2 dry
 7 months; 2 : from 2 to 6 dry months; 3 : > 6 dry months.

ID populat ion	species name	botanical series	Origin/Locality	Province	latitude coordina tes	longitude coordinat es	habitat class
A964	C.dubardii Jum.	Garcinioid es	Anivorano Nord	Antsiran ana (North)	S12°44'	E49°09'	3
A969	C.dubardii Jum.	Garcinioid es	North of Vohemar (Diégo-Suarez)	Antsiran ana (North)	\$13°20'	E49°57'	3
A516	C.heimii J F.Leroy	Garcinioid es	Diégo-Suarez (Sahafary)	Antsiran ana (North)	S12°35'	E49°26'3 0"	3
A40	C. mogenetii Dubard	Garcinioid es	Montagne d'Ambre	Antsiran ana (North)	S49°12'	E12°26'	3
A252	C. tetragona Jum. & H.Perrier	Garcinioid es	Behangony (Est de Maromandia)	Mahajan ga (Northwe st)	S14°13'3 0"	E48°09'	3
A601	C. abbayesii JF.Leroy	Millotii complex	Fort-Dauphin (Isaka- Ivondro)	Toliara (Southea st)	S24°45'1 5"	E46°51'4 5"	2
A572	C. ambodiriane nsis Portères	Millotii complex	reserve Ambodiriana	Toamasi na (East)	S18°27'0 8"	E48°56'3 6"	1
A206	C. dolichophyll a JF.Leroy	Millotii complex	Nosy Varika Vohimanoro), Ambodilafa	Fianarant soa (Southea st)	\$20°29'	E48°10'3 0"	1
A208	C. farafanganen sis J F.Leroy	Millotii complex	Farafangana (Amboangibe)	Fianarant soa (Southea st)	\$22°53'	E47°48'	1
A212	C. millotii J F.Leroy	Millotii complex	Vatovavy	Fianarant soa (Southea st)	S21°24'3 "	E47°56'3 2"	1
A219	C. millotii J F.Leroy	Millotii complex	Ambatovaky	Fianarant soa (Southea st)	S21°22'4 8"	E47°53'0 6"	1

A222	C. millotii J F.Leroy	Millotii complex	Mananjary (Tolongoina)	Fianarant soa (Southea st)	S21°31'	E47°25'	2
A721	C. millotii J F.Leroy	Millotii complex	Ampasinambo (Nosy Varika)	Fianarant soa (Southea st)	S 20° 31' 15"	E 48°01'75 "	1
A575	C. richardii JF.Leroy	Millotii complex	Fenerive-Est (Tampolo)	Toamasi na (East)	S17°17'	E49°25'	1
A817	C. richardii JF.Leroy	Millotii complex	Soanierana Ivongo	Toamasi na (East)	S16°45'	E49°35'	1
A227	C. andrambovat ensis J F.Leroy	Multiflora e	Tolongoina	Toamasi na (East)	S21°46'1 5"	E47°57'0 7"	1
A310	C. andrambovat ensis J F.Leroy	Multiflora e	Vatovavy	Fianarant soa (Southea st)	\$21°24'3 "	E47°56'3 2"	1
A529	C. ankaranensis JF.Leroy ex A.P.Davis & Rakotonas.	Multiflora e	Standoko (Diégo-Suarez)	Antsiran ana (North)	\$12°45'1 3"	E49°08'4 8"	3
A808	C. ankaranensis JF.Leroy ex A.P.Davis & Rakotonas.	Multiflora e	Ankarana (Diégo-Suarez)	Antsiran ana (North)	\$12°50'5 7"	E49°32'3 6"	3
A403	C. arenesiana JF.Leroy	Multiflora e	Moramanga (Ambodivato)	Toamasi na (Centre)	S18°56'	E48°12'	2
A303	C. bertrandii A.Chev.	Multiflora e	Italy (Fort-Dauphin)	Toliara (Southea st)	S25°02′	E46°59′	3
A5	C. bertrandii A.Chev.	Multiflora e	Mahampoana (Fort- Dauphin)	Toliara (Southea st)	S 25°01'	E 46°38'	3
A956	C. costei sp. nov. Ined.	Multiflora e	Route côtière Sambava	Antsiran ana (North)	S13°45'1 3"	E50°0'48' '	2
A570	C. coursiana JF.Leroy	Multiflora e	Tamatave (Betampona RNI n°1)	(North) Toamasi na (East)	\$17°53'	E49°13'	1
A315	C. leroyi A.P.Davis	Multiflora e	Ifanadiana (Ambodiarafia)	Fianarant soa (Southea st)	S21°20'	E47°45'	1

A18	C. mangoroensi s Portères	Multiflora e	Ambatondrazaka	Toamasi na (East)	S19°16'3 "	E48°24'0 9"	1
A401	C. mangoroensi s Portères	Multiflora e	Mangoro (Moramanga)	Toamasi na (East)	S18°55'	E48°14'	2
A402	C. mangoroensi s Portères	Multiflora e	Mangoro (Moramanga)	Toamasi na (East)	S18°56'	E48°13'	2
A321	C. montis- sacri A.P.Davis	Multiflora e	Vatovavy	Fianarant soa (Southea st)	\$21°24'3 5"	E47°56'3 2"	1
A12	C. perrieri Drake ex Jum. & H.Perrier	Multiflora e	Fort-Dauphin (Amboasary-Atsimo	Toliara (Southea st)	\$24°50'	E46°33'5 5"	3
A421	C. perrieri Drake ex Jum. & H.Perrier	Multiflora e	Ihosy	Fianarant soa (Southea st)	\$22°33'0 3"	E46°07'4 0"	3
A730	C. perrieri Drake ex Jum. & H.Perrier	Multiflora e	Tsaratanàna	Mahajan ga (Northwe st)	S16°47'	E47°39'	3
A71	C. resinosa (Hook.f.) Radlk.	Multiflora e	Maroantsetra (Forêt Farakaraina)	Toamasi na	S 15°26'	E 49°44'	1
A8	C. resinosa (Hook.f.) Radlk.	Multiflora e	Nosy Varika	Fianarant soa (Southea st)	S 20°36'26 .6"	E 48°31'56. 5"	1
A827	C. resinosa (Hook.f.) Radlk.	Multiflora e	Fananehana	Toamasi na	S15°53'2 6"	E49°42'1 9"	1
A906	C. resinosa (Hook.f.) Radlk.	Multiflora e	Tanambao	Antsiran ana (North)	S17°43'3 8"	E48°49'5 9"	2
A910	C. resinosa (Hook.f.) Radlk.	Multiflora e	North Soanierana Ivongo	Toamasi na (East)	S16°55'1 7"	E49°35'0 7"	1
A913	C. resinosa (Hook.f.) Radlk.	Multiflora e	Manompana	Toamasi na (East)	S16°40'5 8"	E49°45'1 7"	1
A915	C. resinosa (Hook.f.) Radlk.	Multiflora e	Ivontaka	Toamasi na (East)	S16°18'	E49°49'0 0"	1
A538	C. sahafaryensis JF.Leroy	Multiflora e	Sahafary (Diégo-Suarez)	Antsiran ana (North)	\$12°53'1 8"	E49°22'	3

A978	C. sahafaryensis JF.Leroy	Multiflora e	North of Vohéma	ır	Antsiran ana (North)	S13°17'2 0"	E49°57'	3
A20	C. vianneyi JF.Leroy	Multiflora e	Ampasinambo Varika)	(Nosy	Fianarant soa (Southea st)	\$20°32'5 3"	E48°07'5 0"	1
A946	C. vianneyi JF.Leroy	Multiflora e	Moramanga		Toamasi na (Centre)	S18°56'	E48°15'	2
A966	C. augagneurii Dubard	Subtermin ales	Anivorano Nord		Antsiran ana (North)	S12°43'	E49°10'	3
A973	C. boiviniana (Baill.) Drake	Subtermin ales	Nafokovo Vohémar)	(Nord	Antsiran ana (North)	\$13°22'1 3"	E49°58'1 2"	3
A980	C. boiviniana (Baill.) Drake	Subtermin ales	Vohémar		Antsiran ana (North)	\$13°21'	E49°52'4 8"	3
A535	C. bonnieri Dubard	Subtermin ales	Diego-Suarez d'Ambre)	(Forêt	Antsiran ana (North)	S12°29'3 0"	E49°10'4 0"	3
A974	C. jumellei JF.Leroy	Subtermin ales	Nafakovo Vohémar)	(North	Antsiran ana (North)	\$13°22'1 3"	E49°58'1 2"	3
A957	C. pervilleana (Baill.) Drake	Subtermin ales	Route côtière Sa Diégo Suarez	ambava -	Antsiran ana (North)	S13°49'1 7"	E50°02'0 4"	2
A958	C. pervilleana (Baill.) Drake	Subtermin ales	Route côtière Sa Diégo Suarez	ambava -	Antsiran ana (North)	S13°49'1 7"	E50°02'0 4"	2
A528	C. ratsimamang ae JF.Leroy ex A.P.Davis & Rakotonas.	Subtermin ales	Sandokoto Suarez)	(Diégo-	Antsiran ana (North)	S13°48'3 0"	E49°17'3 9"	2
A967	C. ratsimamang ae JF.Leroy ex A.P.Davis & Rakotonas.	Subtermin ales	Anivorano Nord		Antsiran ana (North)	S12°44'	E49°14'	3
A307	C. sakarahae JF.Leroy	Subtermin ales	Iakora (Ihosy)		Fianarant soa (South)	S23°06'	46°39′E	3
A515	C. tsirananae JF.Leroy	Subtermin ales	Diégo-Suarez d'Ambre)	(Cap	Antsiran ana (North)	S11°58'	E49°16'	3

A308	C. vatovavyensi s JF.Leroy	Subtermin ales	Vatovavy	Fianarant soa (Southea st)	S21°24'	E47°56'	2
A830	C. vatovavyensi s JF.Leroy	Subtermin ales	unknown	unknown	unknow n	unknown	NA
A977	C. vohemarensi s A.P.Davis & Rakotonas.	Subtermin ales	North of Sambava	Antsiran ana (North)	S14°14'	E50°8'30' '	2
A574	C. homollei JF.Leroy	Verae	Réserve Ambodiriana (Tamatave)	Toamasi na (East)	S17°59'1 3''	E49°17'4 8''	1
A213	C.kianjavate nsis J F.Leroy	Verae	Vatovavy	Fianarant soa (Southea st)	S21°24'3 0''	E47°56'3 0"	1
A602	C.kianjavate nsis J F.Leroy	Verae	Fort-Dauphin	Toliara (Southea st)	S 24°45'15 ",	E 46°51'45 "	2
A320	C. lancifolia A.Chev.	Verae	Mananjary (Madiorano/Tolongoina)	Fianarant soa (Southea st)	\$21°31'	E47°29'	1
A405	C. lancifolia A.Chev.	Verae	Tolongoina (Kararaika forest)	Fianarant soa (Southea st)	S22°57'0 2"	E47°22'5 6"	2
A571	C. lancifolia A.Chev.	Verae	Reserve Ambodiriana	Toamasi na (East)	S18°27'0 8"	E48°58'3 6"	1

Table 2: Physical parameters of habitats corresponding to habitat class of species 1 to 3 as
defined by the number of dry months.

Habitat	Number	Annual	Temperature	Temperature	Annual potential	Aridity
class	of dry	precipitation	of the	of the	evapotranspiration	index in
	months	in mm	coldest	warmest	in mm	mm
			month in °C	month in °C		
1	0 - 1	2051 to 3360	11.6 to 10.0	26.3 to 30.0	945 to 1289	1081 to
1	0-1	2051 10 5500	11.0 to 19.9	20.3 10 30.9	745 10 1209	2142
2	2 - 6	1260 to 2265	10.6 to 20.7	23.1 to 30.0	814 to 1370	175 to
2	2-0	1200 to 2203	10.0 to 20.7	23.1 10 30.9	014 10 1370	1111
3	>6	552 to 1829	10.2 to 22.8	28 to 33 1	950 to 1627	-691 to
5	/0	552 10 1629	10.2 to 22.8	20 10 33.1	950 to 1027	379

Table 3. Mean comparison between the three bioclimatic subsets of species defined on the number of dry months in the natural habitat of studied populations/species. Mean for each trait according to the number of dry month in the natural habitat of Coffee populations. Difference in means between subsets was tested with ANOVA. P-values (***<0.001, *<0.05) inferior to 0.05 are considered as evidence of trait divergence. LDMC: leaf</p>

7 dry mass content; LMA: leaf mass per area.

			3	p value
				ANOVA
Leaf length (mm)***	113.05185	76.3	68.15909	0.000185
Leaf width (mm)***	48.34444	35.02857	28.92727	2.16E-05
Leaf area (mm ²)***	6150.185	3156.571	2299.262	0.00012
Two leaves mass (g)**	1.465	0.453	0.5341176	0.00925
Internode diameter perpendicular to leave	s, 3.720833	2.293	2.195625	0.00454
mm)**				
Maturation phase length (days)**	104.6296	105.0714	178.3182	0.00308
Ratio internode mass /2 leaves mass (g)*	0.1275	0.259	0.2175	0.0487
Ratio Length of internode/internod	le			0.039
diameter parallel to leaves*	12.78	24.117	21.7975	0.039
Number of flowers per inflorescence*	4.403704	2.8	3.177273	0.0123
Seed thickness (mm)*	3.885926	4.053077	4.673	0.0422
Leaf shape	2.362	2.17	2.588	0.412
Internode diameter (parallel to leaves, IDI	2.058333	1.587	1.636875	0.123
mm)				0.123
Petiole length	8.12	6.45	6.34	0.151
length internodes (LI, mm)	23.16667	32.1	33.35	0.056
Internode mass (IM,g)	0.2143	0.0878	0.101	0.121
Fruits length (mm)	15.86148	14.69077	15.5035	0.795
Number of days from trigger rain t	 7.648148			0.13
Flowering	7.040140	7.321429	8.475	0.15
Fruits thickness (mm)	12.69296	11.46154	11.442	0.445
Fruit shape index	1.225926	1.169231	1.2535	0.707
Fruit volume index (mm ³)	4836.13	3041.622	2910.932	0.212
Pedicel length (mm)	3.498889	3.811538	4.293	0.108
Disk diameter (mm)	3.391111	3.181667	2.784444	0.3
Seed length (mm)	9.183704	8.683846	10.3285	0.237
Seed width (mm)	5.692593	5.041538	6.57	0.228
Seed volume (mm ³)	295.5733	219.8423	352.434	0.549
100 seed weight (g)	9.677778	8.8175	14.291333	0.138
LMA mean (g/m^2)	175.7083	137.78	202.3235	0.235
LDMC (mg g–1)	357.1	344.4143	382.1583	0.388
Mean stomata density	203.5238	152.2308	171.3182	0.0797
Stomata length (µ)	8.12	8.378923	8.225682	0.845

2 FIGURE CAPTIONS

3

Figure 1: Phenotypic relationships among Madagascan *Coffea* species. NJ tree based on
Dice's dissimilarity indices calculated from 107 variables encoded presence-absence for 364
individuals, 200 bootstraps using DARwin v5 (Perrier and Jacquemoud-Collet, 2006). Only
bootstraps superior to 80% are shown. The botanical series to which each species belongs to
is given in yellow for Garcinioides, red for Millotii complex, blue for Multiflorae, pink for
Subterminales and green for Verae.

10

Figure 2: Phenotypic tendencies. Standardized trait values in columns for each species following their phylogenetic relationships based on Hamon et al. (2017), with large black squares indicating the highest values. The serie Millotii complex is colored in red and the species with higher length maturation phase are in yellow color. The leaf-related and vegetative traits are in red, phenological traits and inflorescence trait are in yellow, fruit and seed traits are in blue, functional leaf trait are in green and stomata traits are in purple.

17

Figure 3: Internodes, fruits and seeds of *C. richardii* (A); Fruit of *C. tsirananae* (B); leaf of *C. heimii* (C).

20

Figure 4: A: Variation of the time between the triggering rain and blossoming according to the
number of dry months, 0-1 for S1 or "Habitat class 1", 2-6 for S2 or "Habitat class 2" and >6
for S3 or "habitat class 3" for each population and B: Dates of blossoming according to the

- 24 botanical series of each population.
- 25

Figure 5: A: Variation of the length of the maturation phase (in days) according to the length
of the dry season (in number of dry months); B: Dates for ripen fruits according to the
botanical series of the populations. GAR for Garcinioides, MIL for Millotii complex, MUL
for Multiflorae, SUB for Subterminales and VER for Veare.

30

Figure 6: Reproductive strategies of Madagascan wild coffee trees. Diagram showing the flowering (blue colors) and fructification period (red colors) and germination period (green color) according to the length of the rainy/dry seasons along the year. The length of the rainy season is indicated by clouds. The number of dry months of dry season is indicated by sunshine.

36

Figure 7: Phylogenetic signal in coffee trees traits using Blomberg's K parameter. Indication of strong phylogenetic effect can be seen for a trait when K is close to 1 (black dashed line) and higher than the lowest threshold value of 0,52 (grey dashed line). Its significance is attested when traits are followed by an asterisk (p-value < 0.05 and consistent with Pagel's λ significant p-value <0.05) or two asterisk when When K value close to 1. The leaf-related and vegetative traits are in red, phenological traits in yellow, fruit and seed traits in blue,

43 functional leaf trait in green and stomata traits in purple.