

Improving the quality of African robustas: QTLs for yield- and quality-related traits in *Coffea canephora*

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Abstract *Coffea canephora* breeding requires combining sustainable productivity with improved technological and cup quality characteristics. Beverage quality is a complex and subjective trait, and breeding for this trait is time consuming and depends on knowledge of the genetics of its components. A highly variable *C. canephora* progeny resulting from an intraspecific cross was assessed for 63 traits over 5 years. To identify quantitative trait loci (QTLs) controlling agronomic, technological, and quality-related traits, a genetic map comprising 236 molecular markers was constructed, and composite interval mapping was performed. Beverage quality was evaluated in relation to biochemical and cup tasting traits. QTLs were identified for almost half of the traits evaluated, with effects ranging from

6% to 80% of phenotypic variation. Most of them present a consistent detection over years. The strongest QTLs explained a high percentage of the variation for yield in 2006 (34% to 57%), bean size (25% to 35%), content of chlorogenic acids (22% to 35%), sucrose and trigonelline content (29% to 81%), and acidity and bitterness of coffee beverages (30% to 55%). Regions of the *C. canephora* genome influencing beverage quality were identified. Five QTL zones were co-localized with candidate genes related to the biosynthesis of the analyzed traits: two genes coding for caffeine biosynthesis, one gene implicated in the biosynthesis of chlorogenic acids, and two genes implicated in sugar metabolism. This is one of the first studies on the identification of QTLs combining agronomic and quality

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traits in coffee. The high variability of quality traits within *C. canephora* and the presence of consistent QTLs offer breeders a promising tool to improve coffee cup quality.

Keywords Coffee · QTL · Beverage quality · Yield · Cup tasting · Biochemical traits

Abbreviations

QTL	Quantitative trait loci
MAS	Marker-assisted selection
Y _{200X}	Yield for the year 200X
CY _{200X/Y}	Cumulated yield from year 200X to 200Y
BS	Bean size
PB	Rate of pea berries
CA	Caffeine content
TR	Trigonelline content
SU	Sucrose content
3C	3-Caffeoylquinic acid content (3-CQA)
4C	4-Caffeoylquinic acid content (4-CQA)
5C	5-Caffeoylquinic acid content (5-CQA)
5F	5-Feruloylquinic acid content (5-FQA)
34dC	3,4-Dicaffeoylquinic acid (3,4di-CQA)
35dC	3,5-Dicaffeoylquinic acid (3,5di-CQA)
45dC	4,5-Dicaffeoylquinic acid (4,5di-CQA)
FR	Fragrance
AR	Aroma
BO	Body
FL	Flavor
AC	Acidity
BI	Bitterness
AF	Aftertaste
GL	Global note
LG	Linkage group

Introduction

Two coffee species have worldwide economic importance, namely *Coffea arabica* L. and *Coffea canephora* Pierre known commercially as Arabica and Robusta, respectively (Wintgens 2004). Large variations within and between cultivated species are observed (Anthony et al. 1993, 2001; Gomez et al. 2009; Cubry et al. submitted for publication). Arabica represents approximately 65% of worldwide coffee production and presents higher quality than Robusta due to its lower bitterness and caffeine content and its more appreciated flavor (for a review, see Leroy et al. 2006). To date, quality has not often been considered before the last steps of the breeding process for *C. canephora* (Charrier and Berthaud 1988). Two main genetic and geographic *C. canephora* groups were identified: the Guinean group from western Africa and the Congolese group from central Africa (Berthaud

1986). Further studies also divided the Congolese group into four subgroups (Montagnon et al. 1992; Dussert et al. 1999). A recurrent selection program has been built on *C. canephora* breeding in Côte d'Ivoire since 1984. This recurrent selection breeding is based on the improvement of complementary Guinean and Congolese populations (Leroy et al. 1993).

The main traits commonly taken into account for *C. canephora* coffee quality improvement are as follows: bean size and extractable soluble solids with respect to technological qualities; aroma precursors, such as sugars, caffeine, trigonelline, lipids, and chlorogenic acids, as biochemical traits; and organoleptic traits assessed by cup tasting. Ky et al. (2001a) described the diversity observed in a number of quality traits, including caffeine, trigonelline, chlorogenic acids, and sucrose in Robusta and Arabica coffees. For most compounds, they indicated that the geographical origin of the plants within the genetic groups was the main factor contributing to variability. Regarding cup quality, Moschetto et al. (1996) reported differences between genetic groups related to preference, aroma, acidity, body, and bitterness. Additionally, the same study concluded that Guinean genotypes were on average inferior to Congolese genotypes for preference and aroma. They also indicated good linear correlation coefficients between preference and certain factors, such as acidity and aroma.

Montagnon et al. (1998) observed that the variations in yield and quality traits were independent within *C. canephora*, meaning that quality could be improved without lowering yield. In the same report, the authors showed that narrow sense heritability was high for caffeine content ($h^2=0.80$) and bean weight (0.73), intermediate for chlorogenic acids (0.36), and low for sucrose content (0.11). For cumulative yield over four harvests, narrow sense heritability values were estimated as intermediate with values ranging from 0.3 to 0.4 (Leroy et al. 1994; Montagnon et al. 2003).

Other results for interspecific hybrids suggested a high value (0.71) for the heritability of trigonelline content (Ky et al. 2001b), with a maternal mode of inheritance. For sucrose content, while Montagnon et al. (1998) indicated that this trait could be difficult to improve because h^2 was low, Ky et al. (2000a) found additive transmission among their interspecific hybrids, presenting the possibility of choosing parents for its improvement. Relationships between different chlorogenic acid monomers or dimers were also studied by Ky et al. (1999) using an interspecific cross between *Coffea liberica* and *Coffea pseudozanguebariae*, indicating a linear relationship between caffeoylquinic and dicaffeoylquinic contents. In the same interspecific population, Barre et al. (1998) indicated that caffeine was under polygenic control, with strong genetic effects.

Unraveling the genetic basis of complex traits, such as yield potential and stability and coffee quality, can be

undertaken through the construction of a genetic linkage map followed by quantitative trait loci (QTL) identification.

The first *C. canephora* map was constructed with doubled haploids using restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP) markers (Paillard et al. 1996). Another map has been developed using doubled haploids for the analysis of segregation distortion (Lashermes et al. 2001). Recently, a map has been developed (Lefebvre-Pautigny et al. 2010) from a segregating population of 93 individuals resulting from a cross between heterozygous genotypes, using mainly RFLP, simple sequence repeat (SSR), and expressed sequence tag (EST)–SSR markers. Maps were also developed for interspecific crosses (Akaffou et al. 2003; Coulibaly et al. 2003; Ky et al. 2000b; N'Diaye et al. 2007) to identify QTLs involved in contrasting traits between wild species using mainly AFLP markers.

To date, few QTL studies have been performed on coffee, and no QTL report is available related to quality traits for coffee. QTLs have been identified for the incompatibility S locus (Lashermes et al. 1996), pollen viability restoration (Coulibaly et al. 2003), fructification time (Akaffou et al. 2003), morphological traits (N'Diaye et al. 2007), and for somatic embryogenesis capacity (Priyono et al. 2010). However, the genetic diversity from the Guinean pool has not been explored in these QTL studies, and the main *C. canephora* breeding program is based on reciprocal recurrent selection between the Congolese and Guinean pool (Leroy et al. 1993).

The aims of the present study were: (1) to construct an intraspecific genetic linkage map for *C. canephora* using a pseudo-backcross progeny between Guinean and Congolese genotypes, (2) to identify QTLs for yield and quality-related traits, and (3) to draw conclusions related to yield and quality breeding of *C. canephora*.

Materials and methods

Plant material

Genetic mapping was performed on an intraspecific population of 273 pseudo-backcross individuals of *C. canephora*. This progeny resulted from a cross between an intergroup progeny genotype (Guinean 410×Congolese A03) used as the female and a Guinean genotype used as the male (02183). A trial was set up in 2000 on Divo station at the Centre National de Recherche Agronomique (CNRA) in Republic of Côte d'Ivoire (RCI) (5°46'04.07"N, 5°13'22.09"W, altitude 200 masl). The experimental design was a fully randomized single tree plot. Trees were planted at a high density (2.5×1.5 m, approximately 3,000 plants per hectare). The grandparents 410 and A03 and the parent 02183 were

planted in the same plot as the progeny. Data were collected between 2002 and 2006.

During the trial (2000–2006), the pattern of rainfall was quite normal, with two rainy seasons (May to June and September to November). Eighteen trees from our progeny died during the first dry season; the trees were not irrigated and they were fertilized twice a year with 20 g of 23-10-5 (NPK)+4 Mg. Treatment against weeds was performed six times a year. Coffee leaf rust appeared on the trees, but no treatment was performed for this because this disease had no significant effect on yield.

Cherries from the entire trial were sun-dried. Samples for technological, chemical, and organoleptic analyses were wet processed. After pulping, beans were fermented and then dried without direct sun exposure.

Evaluation of phenotypic traits

We analyzed each trait separately within each year to take into account environmental annual effects. A total of 21 phenotypic traits were recorded for variable number of years, totalling 57 yearly phenotypic traits. Cumulative yields were analyzed for the 2002 to 2003, 2002 to 2004, 2002 to 2005, 2002 to 2006, 2003 to 2006, and 2004 to 2006 harvests. A total of 63 traits were thus evaluated for this trial. These traits can be split into four classes: yield, technological, biochemical, and organoleptic.

Yield traits

Yield was calculated by summing the weights of fresh berries (in grams) harvested during the productive period (from the second fortnight of September until the end of December). Fresh red fruits were harvested by hand each month and weighed immediately for each tree. Observations were recorded from the second until the sixth year after planting (i.e., 2002 to 2006) for 248 trees. It was observed that 25 of the 273 trees never produced any fruit, including the 18 trees that died during the first dry season.

Technological traits

Samples of 250 g with 12% moisture were used to estimate bean size (BS) as the weight of 100 kernels (in grams) and the percentage of round beans, or pea berries (PB, in percentage). Both traits were recorded during 4 years (2003–2006) in samples of 155, 227, 216, and 191 trees, respectively, depending on the availability of fruits.

Biochemical traits

Biochemical traits were analyzed for the 2003 (103 samples) and 2005 (204 samples) harvests. Caffeine,

trigonelline, and chlorogenic acid content were analyzed by reversed-phase high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) with spectrophotometric detection. A 5- μm particle size C18 150 \times 4.6 mm column was used. Mobile phase consisted of a mixture of methanol and an aqueous solution of 5 mM triethylamine and acetic acid (pH 3.0, 30:70 v/v). Elution was performed in isocratic mode at 1 ml min⁻¹. Detection was conducted with a diode array detector. Caffeine and trigonelline were quantified using the peak area (measuring the absorbance at 273 nm for caffeine and 265 nm for trigonelline) by external calibration using standards. Prior to HPLC determination, the powdered assay portion was extracted using an aqueous suspension of MgO at 105°C for 20 min. Quantification of chlorogenic acids was achieved by peak area measurement. Seven chlorogenic acids were measured: three caffeoylquinic acids, 3-CQA (3C), 4-CQA (4C), and 5-CQA (5C); the feruloylquinic acid 5-FQA (5F) and three dicaffeoylquinic acids, 3,4di-CQA (34dC), 3,5di-CQA (35dC), and 4,5di-CQA (45dC). These are the main chlorogenic acids present in *C. canephora* (Ky et al. 2001a).

For chlorogenic acid determinations, the methodology used was reversed-phase HPLC using mobile phases A (2 mM H₃PO₄ in methanol 5% (v/v) pH 2.7) and B (2 mM H₃PO₄ in methanol 5% (v/v) pH 3.9). A gradient program was used for 45 min with different volumes of phases A and B. Chromatograms were recorded at 325 nm. The flow rate was 0.8 ml min⁻¹. Sucrose (SU) was quantified by enzymatic spectrophotometric determination on green coffee, as described by Alcazar et al. (2004).

Organoleptic traits

The liquoring method used was adapted from CIRAD protocol (Ribeyre, personal communication) and performed at NARO facilities (Uganda). Samples were received from the experimental field (CNRA, RCI) and stored until testing. A maximum of four samples per day were roasted to medium roast using a PROBERT roasting machine. Each sample was tested in triplicate using 10 g of roasted beans ground to medium size and 200 ml of controlled nearly boiled water (95°C, pH ~7.0 and dry residues <100 mg) for each replicate. After mixing and prior to analysis, time was allowed for coffee powder to settle and for the temperature to cool down to 50°C. The same panel of five well-trained tasters conducted the whole experiment. A sample score using a six-class scale (from 0=not detected to 5=fully detected) was performed on eight coffee quality descriptors: fragrance, aroma, body, flavor, acidity, bitterness, and aftertaste. A global note was attributed by each taster based on a global preference of the beverage. Organoleptic analyses were carried out on the three last harvests (from 2004 to 2006), with an unequal number of samples (trees)

analyzed each year: 62 trees in 2004, 112 trees in 2005, and 180 trees in 2006.

Data analysis

The mean, standard deviation and variance were calculated for all traits. Histograms were built, and normality was checked using a Shapiro and Wilk test; an appropriate transformation was performed to reach a normal distribution whenever needed.

Genotypic analyses and map construction

DNA extraction

Genomic DNA was extracted from ground leaves following an extraction procedure using MATAB buffer adapted from Risterucci et al. (2000). Purification of the extracts was then performed using an anion exchange resin column (Nucleo-Bond AX 20 from Macherey-Nagel, Düren, Germany).

Molecular markers

A set of 147 genomic microsatellites (SSRs) was mapped. They were identified in enriched libraries (Poncet et al. 2004, 2007; Combes et al. 2000; Baruah et al. 2003; Moncada and Mac Couch 2004). We also mapped 69 SSRs derived from EST sequences, genes or BAC end sequences (Leroy et al. 2005; Lin et al. 2005; Geromel et al. 2006).

Twenty fragments of genes were mapped for sugar, lipid, caffeine, and chlorogenic acid metabolism (Bouchet et al. 2005; Geromel et al. 2006). Fragments of genes related to drought tolerance in coffee were also mapped (Freire et al. 2010). The genes mapped are presented in Table 1.

Genotyping

For the genes to be mapped, primers were defined at different locations within genes in promoters, exons, or 3' or 5' UTR regions. Then, PCR amplification was performed for parents, indicating whether a size polymorphism (insertion/deletion) was present. If a size polymorphism was present, the genes were mapped using the same genotyping method as was used for SSRs.

For each PCR reaction, 5 ng of DNA in 5 μl of water was used as a template and mixed in a final reaction volume of 10 μl with 1 \times buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl, 50 mM KCl, 2 mM MgCl₂, 0.001% glycerol), 200 μM dNTPs, 0.10 μM of reverse primer, 0.08 μM of forward primer tailed with M13 sequence, 0.10 μM of fluorescently labeled M13 primer, and 0.1 U of Taq polymerase. PCR amplifications were performed in an Eppendorf Mastercycler ep 384 (Eppendorf, Westbury, NY, USA). The amplification

Table 1 List of genes mapped

Marker	Function	GenBank <i>Coffea</i> ^a	BLAST ^b	Species	E value	Primer F	Primer R
G_4CL_C2	4-Coumarate CoA ligase	–	XP_002267459	<i>Vitis vinifera</i>	9.00E-06	AAATCCAAAAGCGAATTGTG	ACAAGGTCGGGCATGATTAC
G_4CL_C5	4-Coumarate CoA ligase	–	XP_002307770	<i>Populus trichocarpa</i>	1.00E-26	CCGTACAAGCTCGCTCTATG	AGACACGTGGAGACGGGATTC
G_4CL_C6	4-Coumarate CoA ligase	–	XP_002514904	<i>Ricinus communis</i>	1.00E-42	TTGCCCCAGAAATTCACAAC	GGCGGTTTTCATGTTCAATTCT
G_C18332cenar1	No hit	–	No hit	–	–	ATGGTGGACATCCTGGTGAG	GCCAGCAAAGTACATGGAGTG
GC03_CCoAMT_intron1	Caffeoyl-CoA-O-methyltransferase	ABO77959	–	–	–	GCCATAAAAAGCCTTCTGGAA	GGCTCTGGCTCTCTTTGGATA
G_CFS_ID	SAM dependent carboxyl methyltransferase	BAC43760	–	–	–	CATATGAATGGAGGCGAAGG	CAATGTCCCGAACTGTTGAA
G_CWI_SSR01	Cell wall invertase	<i>AM231577</i>	–	–	–	CAATACGGCATGCATTTGAC	TGTTGAACACCGCAATTGACC
G_CWI_SSR05	Cell wall invertase	ABI17893	–	–	–	ATGTGGTGTGATGTGCAGT	GTCACGTGGGATGATGAGAA
GC17_CP26_intron1	Chlorophyll a/b binding protein	–	Q9XF89	<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>	6.00E-23	ACGACGAGCTCGCCAAAGT	GCAGGAAAATTCTTCTGTGTCAGG
G_KO_C1_2	Ent-kaurene oxidase	<i>FJ409844</i>	–	–	–	GCCTCGACCACATCTTTGTT	GGCAGGAGAAACAATTCAAAGC
G_KO_sing2_1	Ent-kaurene oxidase	ACQ99375	–	–	–	CTATGTTGATCGCGTGCAIT	ATGGAGCTCAAAGAAAGCTGGA
GC19_MYB61_5'UTR	R2R3 Myb TF	–	P81393	<i>Antirrhinum majus</i>	1.00E-74	TCAGCCTGTCTGCAATATTG	TGAGCTTCTCACAGCAAGG
G_NMT_A	SAM dependent carboxyl methyltransferase	BAC43756	–	–	–	ACCGCAAACTCGAGAAAAGAA	ATCCCCAAATTCATCACCAA
G_promSUSY_SSR08	Sucrose synthase	<i>AM231581</i>	–	–	–	CGATTTTACACAAGCGTGACA	TCTTTTCTTTTCTTCCGGATTG
G_promSUSY_SSR09	Sucrose synthase	<i>AM231580</i>	–	–	–	CAAAACAAAACAGTACAATTCAAATCC	ATCCCTGCGGAGACCTGACTA
GC32_RBGS_intron1	Ribulose-1,5-bisphosphatecarboxylase	CAD11990	–	–	–	TTACTTCCCTTGCCACCAAC	AAAGTCTCGTTCTTCAAACCTTCCA
GC25_SDD_3'UTR_1	Serine-type endopeptidase	–	O65351	<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>	2.00E-65	CAGCGATACCGGTCACATT	AGAGCCCCGATTGATCTTCT
G_SUSY_SSR12	Sucrose synthase	<i>AM231583</i>	–	–	–	CAAAACAAACAGTACAATTCAAATCC	ACCCCTGTTTTTGTGTTTCCAC
G_SUSY_SSR14	Sucrose synthase	CAI56307	–	–	–	GGATCTTATCGCAATGAACCA	CCAAACAGTGTCTTGTGCTGAA
G_SUSY2_c6_d	Sucrose synthase	CAJ32597	–	–	–	TGGCTGGAGTTTATGGCTTC	CCTTATTATTATGAGGAGCAACC

The name of the markers on the map, their function, the mnemonic number in databases, and the primers used for these markers are indicated

^a *Coffea* spp. sequences. Nucleotide sequence mnemonics are shown in italics and protein sequence mnemonics in bold

^b Best match when performing a BLASTx search in the NCBI nr database (BLASTx 2.2.24)

program consisted of an initial denaturation cycle of 5 min at 94°C, followed by ten cycles of “touch-down” PCR consisting of 45 s at 94°C, 1 min at 60°C to 55°C, decreasing by 0.5°C each cycle, and 1 min at 72°C. The next 20 cycles consisted of 94°C for 45 s, 55°C for 1 min, and 72°C for 1 min, prior to a final elongation step at 72°C for 5 min.

Fluorescently labeled PCR products were analyzed by electrophoresis on a 6.5% polyacrylamide gel using a LI-COR 4300 automated sequencer (LI-COR Biosciences, Lincoln, NE, USA). Gel images were retrieved, and gels were scored manually. Individuals were scored according to the parental segregation types.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed to determine variation in the data and to calculate correlation coefficients. Means over years and coefficients of variation were computed for each trait. These coefficients of variation were calculated considering data throughout harvest years.

Pearson phenotypic correlation coefficients between traits were evaluated, and the significance was tested by a *P* value test. These correlations were calculated for individual annual data for all traits, as well as for mean phenotypic data over years.

Map construction

Due to the high heterozygosity of both parents, a pseudotestcross strategy was used (Grattapaglia and Sederoff 1994). After building independent datasets with segregating markers for each parent, parental maps were constructed using JoinMap 4 software (Van Ooijen 2006) with Kosambi’s mapping function and default parameters. A consensus map was then built for a log-of-odds (LOD) score higher than 4.4 and visualized using Spidermap software (Rami, unpublished).

QTL analysis

A MapQTL 5 software (Van Ooijen 2004) was used for the detection of QTLs on the consensus genetic map for the 63 traits observed, with between 62 and 246 individuals scored for each trait. The data for all 63 traits were used for QTL detection.

Interval mapping was used to detect QTLs. An LOD threshold was experimentally determined for a given trait using the permutation test of MapQTL 5 with 500 iterations. Specific thresholds were determined for the 1% confidence level for each trait in each linkage group (LG). At the genome-wide level, thresholds were determined for 10%, 5%, and 1% confidence levels. In a second step, composite interval

mapping referred as MQM in MapQTL (Multiple QTL models, Jansen and Stam 1994) was used after an automatic cofactor selection allowing the removal of some loci flanking the most important QTLs and then localizing QTLs with smaller effects more precisely. The confidence interval was determined by the LOD-1 method for each QTL.

Allelic effects of the QTLs were estimated as $A_f = [(\mu_{ac} + \mu_{ad}) - (\mu_{bc} + \mu_{bd})]/4$ for female additivity, $A_m = [(\mu_{ac} + \mu_{bc}) - (\mu_{ad} + \mu_{bd})]/4$ for male additivity, and $D = [(\mu_{ac} + \mu_{bd}) - (\mu_{ad} + \mu_{bc})]/4$ for dominance, where μ_{ac} , μ_{ad} , μ_{bc} , and μ_{bd} are the estimated phenotypic means associated with each of the four possible genotypic classes, ac, bc, ad, and bd, derived from a <ab × cd> cross (Segura et al. 2009). The genetic LGs carrying QTLs were presented using MapChart software (Voorrips 2002).

Results

Quantitative trait analysis

A total of 63 quantitative traits were analyzed separately. The mean, SD, min, and max values were calculated for the progeny. Mean values were calculated for three parental genotypes: 410 and A03 as grandparents, and 02183 as the male parent of the progeny.

Yield traits

Individual yields for each of the 248 trees of the progeny were recorded for five consecutive years (2002 to 2006) along with the calculation of cumulative yields. These five harvests constitute the first cycle of production for young trees. After this fifth harvest, trees were cut for a new production cycle. The 2004 to 2006 harvests were the most productive. For further analyses, all yield data were log transformed ($\log(\text{yield in grams} + 1)$) to fit data normality.

Summary data for parents and progeny are presented in Table S1. The trees were planted in 2000; yields increased yearly until 2004 and remained stable from 2004 to 2006, with a slight decrease occurring in 2005 due to alternation in production. Yield presented a high variability, with a coefficient of variation reaching 62.2% (Table 2). This high variability is always observed for yield in coffee, as strong environmental and ontogenic effects are observed for young plants.

Correlations were estimated for yearly and cumulative yields after log transformation (see supplementary Table S2). All of the yearly and cumulative data were moderately to highly correlated (0.21 to 0.55), except for yield in 2002 and 2006. The cumulative 5-year yield was highly correlated with yearly yields from 2004 to 2006, with correlation coefficients higher than 0.6.

Table 2 Mean and coefficient of variation for all traits, calculated from data throughout the 5 years of the experiment

Type of trait	Trait	Mean	Coefficient of variation in percent
Yield	Y	1.82	62.23
Technological	PB	36.28	34.12
	BS	9.91	19.33
Biochemical	SU	5.27	22.63
	CA	2.56	19.56
	TR	0.84	22.94
	3C	9.62	20.36
	5C	55.06	11.16
	4C	13.62	17.38
	5F	11.48	26.55
	34dC	3.26	36.78
	35dC	3.27	58.19
	45dC	4.39	53.47
Organoleptic	FR	2.03	13.29
	AR	1.97	14.63
	BO	1.98	16.48
	FL	1.85	20.16
	AC	0.13	99.24
	BI	1.33	39.79
	AF	1.72	22.09
	GL	1.86	23.60

CA caffeine, FR fragrance, AR aroma, BO body, FL flavor, AC acidity, BI bitterness, AF aftertaste, GL global note

Technological traits

BS and the rate of PB were measured for harvests from 2003 to 2006. The results for the progeny and for parental genotypes are presented in Table S1. Bean size remained low for the progeny and the rate of pea berries was high, always being higher than 30%. The values observed for the progeny were within the values observed for the parents and grandparents (Table S1). Technological traits exhibited medium coefficients of variation (19% for BS and 34% for PB, Table 2). The phenotypic correlations were highly significant for each trait considering successive years, with values above 0.5 in most cases (Table S2). Significant positive correlations were also observed between PB and BS, except in 2005.

Biochemical traits

Biochemical traits were estimated for the 2003 and 2005 harvests. A high variability was observed every year within the progeny, and values were quite stable from 1 year to another. For all compounds, the values observed for the progeny were included between the values measured for the parents 410 and A03 (Table S1). Some data were modified

to fit normality; for example, data on chlorogenic acids were transformed using the ArcSIN $((x/100)^{0.5})$ formula. The concentration of biochemical compounds in the green beans presented a coefficient of variation ranging from 11.16% (5-CQA) to 58.19% (3,5di-CQA); see Table 2. Phenotypic variability was moderate for caffeine, sucrose, and trigonelline content (19% to 22%). Variability for the different chlorogenic acids was highly variable, with a positive correlation with the compound's mean value. The lowest variability was observed for 5-CQA (11.16%, for a mean of 55.06), and the highest was observed for 3,5di-CQA (58.19%, for a mean of 3.27).

Correlations for biochemical traits are presented in supplementary Table S2. For sucrose, caffeine and 3-CQA, 4-CQA and 5-FQA chlorogenic acid content, a high positive correlation was observed between values in 2003 and 2005. A highly significant positive correlation was observed between 3-CQA and 4-CQA content (0.99 in 2003 and 0.96 in 2005), whereas highly significant negative correlations were observed between these two chlorogenic acids and the other chlorogenic acids, including 5-CQA and 5-FQA.

For the dicaffeoylquinic acids, highly significant positive correlations were observed between the three compounds analyzed in both years of the analysis. Correlations between the contents of all caffeoylquinic acids (except 5-FQA) and the contents of dicaffeoylquinic acids were negative in 2003 (−0.12 to −0.66) and were significantly negative with the three di-CQAs in 2005 (−0.34 to −0.43).

Additionally, no significant correlation was observed between sucrose, caffeine or trigonelline content, and the content of other compounds, except for caffeine content in 2003 and dicaffeoylquinic acid contents in 2005.

Organoleptic traits

Each coffee sample produced from each plant was individually tested for its organoleptic characteristics for three successive years from 2004 to 2006. Small differences were observed for all traits between genotypes and years. The Guinean parents of the progeny (410 and 02183) presented much higher bitterness than the Congolese grandparent A03, but the differences were quite small for acidity. Within the progeny, the bitterness was quite high but decreased over the years. Meanwhile, acidity remained low for all years, with values also decreasing from year to year. The global preference notation given by the judges decreased in 2006, along with decreasing aroma and body (Table S1). The variability of organoleptic traits (Table 2) was generally low to medium (13% to 23%), except for acidity and bitterness, which showed high levels of variability (99% and 40%, respectively) with very low mean values. The high level of variability found for acidity

was due to its very low content for the beans tested, and thus, this trait was very difficult for the tasters to estimate.

Significant correlations between organoleptic traits were observed each year, but not between years, indicating the independence of successive years (Table S2). As expected, acidity was highly positively correlated with the global preference note, with values ranging from 0.49 to 0.60, but it was negatively correlated with bitterness (−0.33 to −0.37).

Phenotypic correlations among all mean trait values over the years were evaluated (Table 3), including cumulative yield over five years. Significant but low positive correlations were observed between cumulative yield (CY_2002/6), bean size (0.21), and sucrose content (0.15). Cumulative yield was also significantly correlated with favorable organoleptic traits, such as acidity, flavor, and the global note (0.19 to 0.29). Technological traits (bean size and rate of pea berries) presented highly significant correlations with 3-CQA (0.15 to 0.17) and with 5-FQA (negative correlations from −0.17 to −0.22). Finally, the correlations between flavor, acidity, and the global note, with respect to organoleptic traits, and sucrose and 5-CQA content, among biochemical traits, were highly and positively significant. A negative correlation was observed between flavor and acidity with trigonelline and 5-FQA content. Bitterness was highly negatively correlated with sucrose (−0.25) and was highly positively correlated with caffeine content (0.20).

LG analysis

A total of 248 markers were initially used for genotyping the population of 248 individuals. Markers or genotypes with more than 10% of missing data were eliminated. Finally, 238 markers were mapped using 184 individual trees. Eleven LGs were constructed, corresponding to the 11 gametic chromosomes of *C. canephora*. The total length of our consensus map was 1,290 cM, with an average distance of 5.5 cM between markers and a maximum distance of 37 cM between markers. The length of the LGs was variable, ranging from 57.8 cM for LG I to 243.3 cM for LG B. Segregation distortion was observed for all markers in LG I, with χ^2 test values found to be highly significant ($p < 0.05$ to 0.0001). The consensus map is presented in Fig. 1. We built both parental maps, but as the map for the male Guinean parent 02183 was sparse, we only used the female map to confirm the position of markers on the consensus map.

Sixteen genes were mapped to nine LGs. These genes were identified in EST libraries in the framework of our collaboration with Brazilian teams from IAPAR and EMBRAPA/CENARGEN (Geromel et al. 2006; Freire et al. 2010). Two genes involved in caffeine metabolism were mapped to LGs A and I. One gene (two markers) related to

lipid metabolism has been mapped to LG J. Four genes involved in the biosynthesis of chlorogenic acids were mapped to LGs B, F, G, and H. For CGA biosynthesis, we mapped one CCoAOMT gene that was previously mapped by Campa et al. (2003) and three 4CL genes. This last enzyme acts at different levels in the CGA metabolic chain pathway (Lepelley et al. 2007; Joët et al. 2009). Five putative candidate genes implicated in drought tolerance were mapped on to the B, C, F, G, and J LGs. Finally, four genes for sucrose metabolism were mapped to LGs A, D, and F (five markers from two sucrose synthase genes, *SUS1* and *SUS2*, and two *CWI* genes encoding cell wall invertases). With respect to previous work on the characterization of a *C. canephora* BAC library using sucrose synthase genes (Leroy et al. 2005), the copy number of these genes were confirmed, with one copy found for *SUS2* and three copies found for *SUS1*.

QTL detection

QTL detection was performed from a synthetic map with 209 markers. Markers that were very close to each other were eliminated for QTL detection. Phenotypic data were available for all of the trees, and these trees were integrated in the QTL study independently of their elimination in map construction. The QTL detection was, thus, performed using all of the 248 trees of the progeny. Figure 2 presents the main QTLs identified per LG for all data and Table 4 presents all of the QTLs and their characteristics.

Seven QTLs were identified for yield (Table 4). One main QTL zone was located in LG K for the 2006 yield and the cumulative yield for 3 to 5 years of harvest. Two QTLs that explained 34% to 42% of the phenotypic variations for the 2006 yield were identified in LG I, and one QTL was identified in the D LG for the 2003 yield. Dominance effects were predominant for cumulative yield.

For the rate of pea berries, six QTLs were identified in LGs F, J, and K. A female additive effect was found to be the most important effect for this trait. Eleven QTLs for bean size were found in LGs A, B, D, F, and J, with little consistency throughout the years, and quite surprisingly, dominance effects were the most important for this heritable trait. One QTL in LG A explained 35% of the variation in this trait in 2005, while two QTL zones in LG B explained up to 25% of the trait variation.

Co-localization between agronomic and technological traits was limited to LG F, where a QTL for bean size and the rate of pea berries co-localized. With respect to biochemical traits, 27 QTL zones were implicated in this study (Table 4). Female additive effects were quite important for chlorogenic acids and caffeine. For sucrose and trigonelline content, male additive and dominant effects were also found. QTLs were identified for all traits analyzed. For these

Table 3 Phenotypic correlations among mean values of the traits over the years (Pearson’s correlation test)

	BS	CY_2002/6	FR	AR	BO	FL	AC	BI	AF	GL	SU	CA	TR	3C	5C	4C	5F	34dC	35dC	45dC
PB	0.19**	ns	0.22**	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	0.17**	ns	0.16*	-0.17**	ns	ns	ns
BS		0.21**	ns	0.14*	ns	0.15*	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	0.16*	0.17*	0.15*	ns	ns	-0.22**	ns	0.14*	ns
CY_2002/6			ns	0.19**	0.19**	0.18**	0.18*	0.29**	0.20**	0.15*	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
FR				0.29**	0.18**	ns	ns	ns	0.18*	ns	ns	ns	ns	0.16*	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
AR					0.16*	0.19**	ns	ns	0.15*	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
BO						0.42**	0.29**	ns	0.45**	0.44**	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	0.17*
FL							0.59**	-0.26**	0.53**	0.74**	0.23**	ns	-0.18*	ns	0.26**	ns	-0.15*	ns	ns	ns
AC								-0.19**	0.50**	0.66**	0.30**	ns	-0.24**	ns	0.18*	ns	-0.18**	ns	ns	ns
BI									ns	-0.23**	-0.25**	0.20**	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
AF										0.59**	0.14*	ns	ns	ns	0.18*	ns	-0.16*	ns	ns	ns
GL											0.25**	ns	ns	ns	0.29**	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
SU												ns	ns	-0.15*	0.25**	-0.15*	-0.16*	ns	ns	ns
CA													0.21**	-0.15*	ns	-0.13*	ns	0.15*	0.22**	0.20**
TR														ns	ns	ns	0.26**	ns	ns	ns
3°C															-0.27**	0.96**	-0.39**	-0.36**	-0.43**	-0.43**
5°C																-0.22**	-0.19**	-0.44**	-0.35**	-0.44**
4°C																	-0.41**	-0.41**	-0.47**	-0.47**
5°F																		-0.17*	ns	ns
34dC																			0.82**	0.88**
35dC																				0.78**

ns not significant, FR fragrance, AR aroma, BO body, FL flavor, AC acidity, BI bitterness, AF aftertaste, GL global note

* $P < 0.05$; ** $P < 0.01$; only significant correlations are shown

three traits, no consistency was observed throughout the years, but some QTLs in LGs I and K for trigonelline content explained a large part of the variation of the trait: 81.2% and 41.8% in 2003 and 2005, respectively.

Eight QTLs were identified for 3-CQA and 4-CQA contents in LGs A, B, and I, with a good consistency throughout years. Both QTLs for 4-CQA content in 2003 and 2005 in LG B represented 28.8% and 40.6% of the variation in this trait, respectively (26.7% and 16% for 3-CQA). For 5-FQA, six QTLs were identified in LGs A, B, D, F, and I, with a common QTL found in LG I in 2003 and 2005. The QTLs for this trait in LG F explained up to 35% of its variation in 2003.

In LG A, a unique QTL zone was related to both 4-CQA and 5-FQA content, which are negatively correlated in 2005. In LG B, a large QTL zone included QTLs for 3-CQA, 4-CQA, 5-CQA, and 5-FQA content. In LG D, a small zone included QTLs for 5-FQA and 3,5di-CQA. Another zone in the same LG includes QTLs for trigonelline, 5-FQA, and 4-CQA. In LG I, the QTL zone included QTLs for caffeine (2005), CGA monomers and sucrose in 2005. In LG J, a small zone included QTLs for 3,4 and 3,5di-CQA. In LG K, one QTL zone was identified for caffeine and trigonelline in 2005, and another was found for 5-CQA in 2003.

Six QTLs were identified for organoleptic traits (Table 4). One QTL was identified for the global note in LG H (not presented in Fig. 2). For bitterness (2004), one QTL was identified in LG D. In LG I, we observed a QTL zone for acidity in 2006 and bitterness in 2005 and 2006. This result is consistent with the negative phenotypic correlations observed between these traits. For bitterness, female additive effects were predominant, while for acidity, only a male additive effect was identified.

All of the QTLs found for organoleptic properties explained more than 15% of the trait variability and up to 54.8% for acidity in LG I. The major co-localizations of QTL for traits from different sources of data were as follows:

- In LG B, bean size in 2004 and 2005 with caffeoylquinic acids in 2005
- In LG I, co-localization between bitterness, acidity (in 2006), sucrose content (2005), content of 3-CQA, 4-CQA and 5-FQA (2003 and 2005), caffeine content (2005), and yield (2006) was found.
- In LG J, bean size (2006) with dicaffeoylquinic acids (2005)

Some QTL zones co-localized with genes implicated in different metabolic pathways related to coffee quality. In LG A, a QTL for caffeine content co-localized with a caffeine synthase gene implicated in the last steps of caffeine biosynthesis (Misako and Kouichi 2004). In LG B, a composite QTL zone, including all caffeoylquinic

Fig. 1 Genetic linkage map of *C. canephora* based on SSR markers and genes, constructed with 238 markers and 184 plants with a minimum LOD score of 4.4. Distortion of markers in linkage groups is indicated by stars corresponding to the significance of the χ^2 test (double asterisk, $p=0.05$ to septuple asterisk, $p=0.0001$). Candidate genes are indicated in *bold*

acids and bean size was localized near a 4CL gene implicated in the biosynthesis of chlorogenic acids and near genes encoding two invertase genes (mapped from BAC ends sequences). In LG D, QTLs for bean size (2006) were located in the same zone as a gene encoding a cell wall invertase *CWI* and a copy from a *SUS1* gene mapped from BAC end sequences (Leroy et al. 2005). In LG F, QTLs for bean size and the rate of pea berries were located near a *SUS1* sucrose synthase gene. In LG I, a gene implied in caffeine metabolism, one N-methyltransferase, was found close to QTLs for caffeine (2005), monomer CGAs and sucrose (2005), and acidity and bitterness (2006).

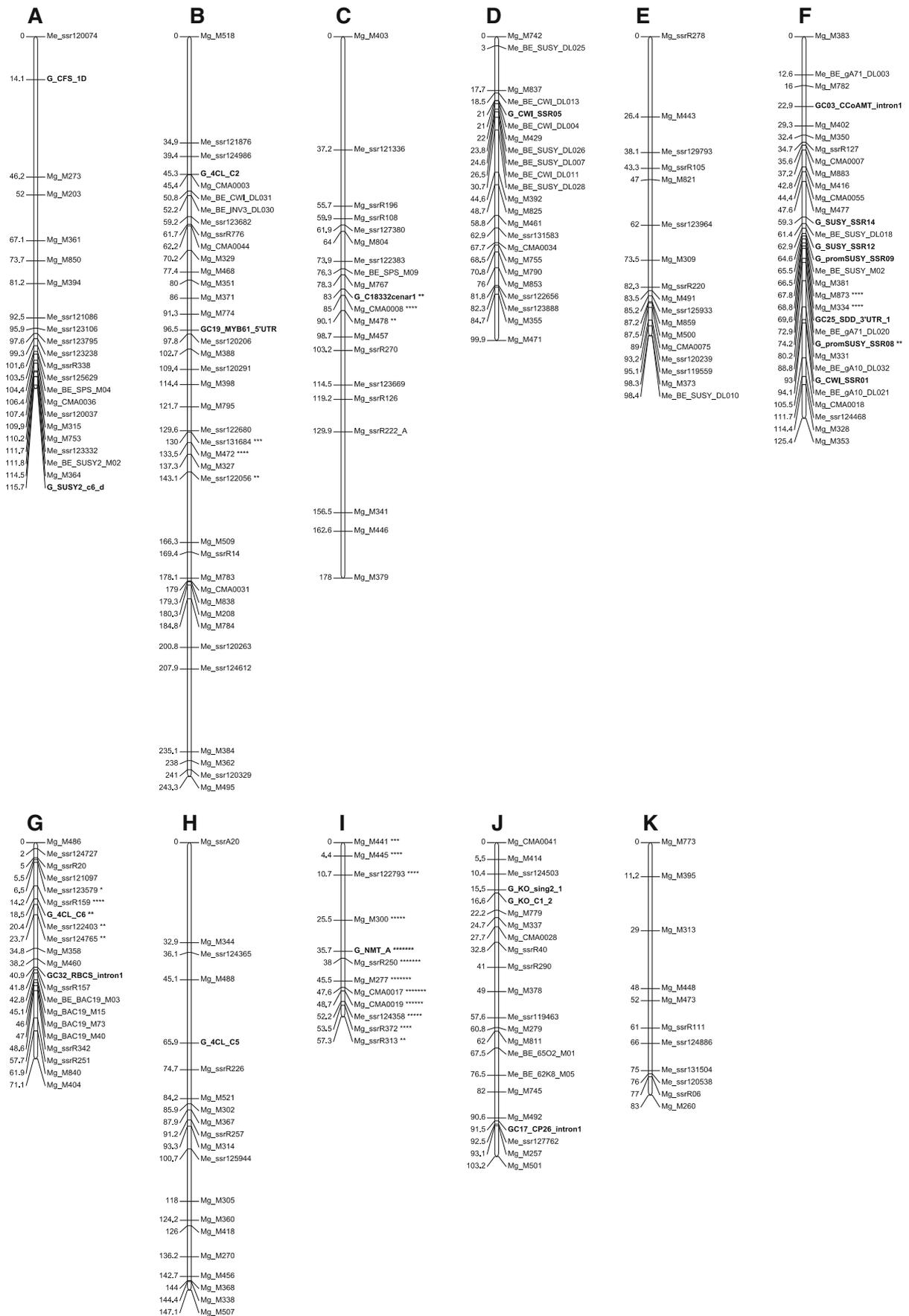
Discussion

Our population of *C. canephora* possesses a large amount of phenotypic variability for yield and for traits related to quality. This outcome was expected for yield. For sucrose and caffeine content, it presents a higher variability than that observed in *C. canephora* accessions by Ky et al. (2001a). As it is known that sucrose content has additive transmission, selection for this trait will be possible. For biochemical traits, a good correlation was observed between the years, which is consistent with the results obtained by Ky et al. (2000a).

CGA biosynthesis in coffee seeds has been analyzed by Joët et al. (2010). These authors defined “control boxes” for CGA biosynthesis and showed relationships between mono- and di-CQA chlorogenic acids and the influence of abiotic factors such as low temperatures. Linear relationships between di-CQA have also been established (Bertrand et al. 2003b). Our results confirm linear relationships between CQA and di-CQA, all di-CQA being derived from 5-CQA (Ky et al. 1999).

The genetic map

As expected for *C. canephora*, a genetic map of 11 linkage groups was produced using 238 markers, with an average of 5.5 cM between markers. As previously reported for intra- and interspecific maps in coffee (Paillard et al. 1996; Lashermes et al. 2001; Ky et al. 2000b), segregation distortion was observed for LG I. The distorted markers have not been discarded during map construction as they have for other species (Venkateswarlu et al. 2006) because



it can be considered that these distortions have a biological basis. As has been noted for other plants (Billote et al. 2005; Lu et al. 2002), the presence of lethal genes or reproduction regulating genes could explain these distortions (Zamir and Tadmor 1986). In *C. canephora*, the self-incompatibility gene *S* should be located in the LG designated LG 9 by Lashermes et al. (1996), and this LG has been then confirmed to be highly distorted (Lashermes et al. 2001), suggesting a link between segregation distortion and the *S* locus. Our LG I corresponds to LG 9 of Lashermes. In our study, if we consider that this simple gametophytic factor is responsible of the distortion observed, estimates of the recombination frequency should not be affected (Lu et al. 2002). In the other LGs, only small clusters of markers presented segregation distortion (Fig. 1).

QTL identification and gene discovery

We were able to identify QTLs for most traits with large effects and consistent detection over the years, especially for yield, technological traits, and chlorogenic acid content, thus indicating ontogenic stability. These QTLs, also referred to as stable QTLs, are important because they can be excellent candidates for MAS work (Kenis et al. 2008). For other traits, such as organoleptic traits and other biochemical compounds related to quality, the consistency over the years is less obvious. LG I is highly distorted, and it could, thus, affect the quality of QTL identification. Recent reports (Xu 2008; Zhang et al. 2010) have noted that distortion can decrease the possibility of QTL detection, but it should not increase the rate of false positives. Zhang et al. (2010) also noted the importance of the population size for avoiding modifications of QTLs due to distortion. Our coffee population of more than 240 trees can be considered as a large population, thus limiting the decrease in the power of QTL detection. However, Xu (2008) suggested that the power of QTL mapping could be artificially increased when a map is sparse, as in our study. In conclusion, the QTLs identified in our distorted LG I should not prevent further investigation on these regions of the genome.

In this study, several zones of interest were identified. One zone in LG K (ranging from 45 to 60 cM) is of great interest for cumulative yield, and the QTL on this LG co-localized with trigonelline content in the 2003 sample. As previously reported for the organoleptic quality of fresh tomato fruits (Causse et al. 2000; Saliba et al. 2001), we identified large clusters of QTLs related to quality in LGs I and B. The main QTL zone for quality in LG I is associated with correlated traits like acidity and bitterness, caffeine and chlorogenic acids. A key gene involved in caffeine biosynthesis is co-localized with these QTLs. It was demonstrated here for the first time that the genetic variability in chemical compounds,

Fig. 2 Main QTL localizations in the linkage groups for the agronomical, technological, biochemical, and organoleptic traits. For each trait, the QTLs are represented by boxes for a confidence interval of $\text{LOD}_{\max} \pm 1$. QTLs were confident at 10% (*normal*), 5% (*italics*), or 1% (*bold*) at the genome-wide level. The names of the QTLs are presented in Table 4

such caffeine and chlorogenic acids, is related to the genetic variability of beverage quality (acidity and bitterness). The establishment of this clear relationship can be considered as the main result of this work. We also observed co-localization between bean size and quality traits in LG B. Finally, we identified a co-localization between a QTL for bean size, a *SUS1* gene and a *CWI* gene coding for the cell wall invertase in LG D. This result is of extreme importance, as several invertase- and sucrose synthase-encoding genes have been mapped along with a QTL related to fruit size in tomatoes (Fridman et al. 2000; Causse et al. 2004). These genes are involved in the control of tomato fruit size (Klann et al. 1996; D'Aoust et al. 1999). In shaded coffee beans, Geromel et al. (2008) also observed higher invertase activity during the latest stages of perisperm development that could be related to the larger size of beans in comparison to those grown under full sun conditions.

Uncovering co-localization of QTLs with mapped candidate genes from various biological pathways and subsequent use of these genes in association mapping will present possibilities for determining the causes of variation of quality in coffee (Henery et al. 2007). We can explain the co-localization between QTLs for organoleptic traits and genes involved in caffeine or CGA biosynthesis based on the fact that both CGA and caffeine are involved in conferring bitterness to the beverage.

Our study is the first to report the identification of QTLs involved in quality traits and yield in coffee. We identified major QTLs for yield and quality-related traits. We confirmed the relationships between some traits and their involvement in determining quality. Investigation of chemical and biochemical traits related to quality presents an alternative approach to improve quality, as few QTLs were discovered for direct beverage quality traits, except for acidity and bitterness. These types of indirect traits, such as caffeine, chlorogenic acid, and sugar content, are important for breeders because they are relatively easy to quantify and because their variability is high, and they presented significant correlations with beverage quality traits. We also mapped genes involved in the biosynthesis of crucial compounds, including caffeine, sugars and chlorogenic acids; they co-localize with QTLs. Our results constitute a first step toward the detection of favorable alleles related to beverage quality in coffee. Finally, we identified several regions of interest that will be the target for future association mapping studies. The regions of the genome connected to yield determination and to quality are different,

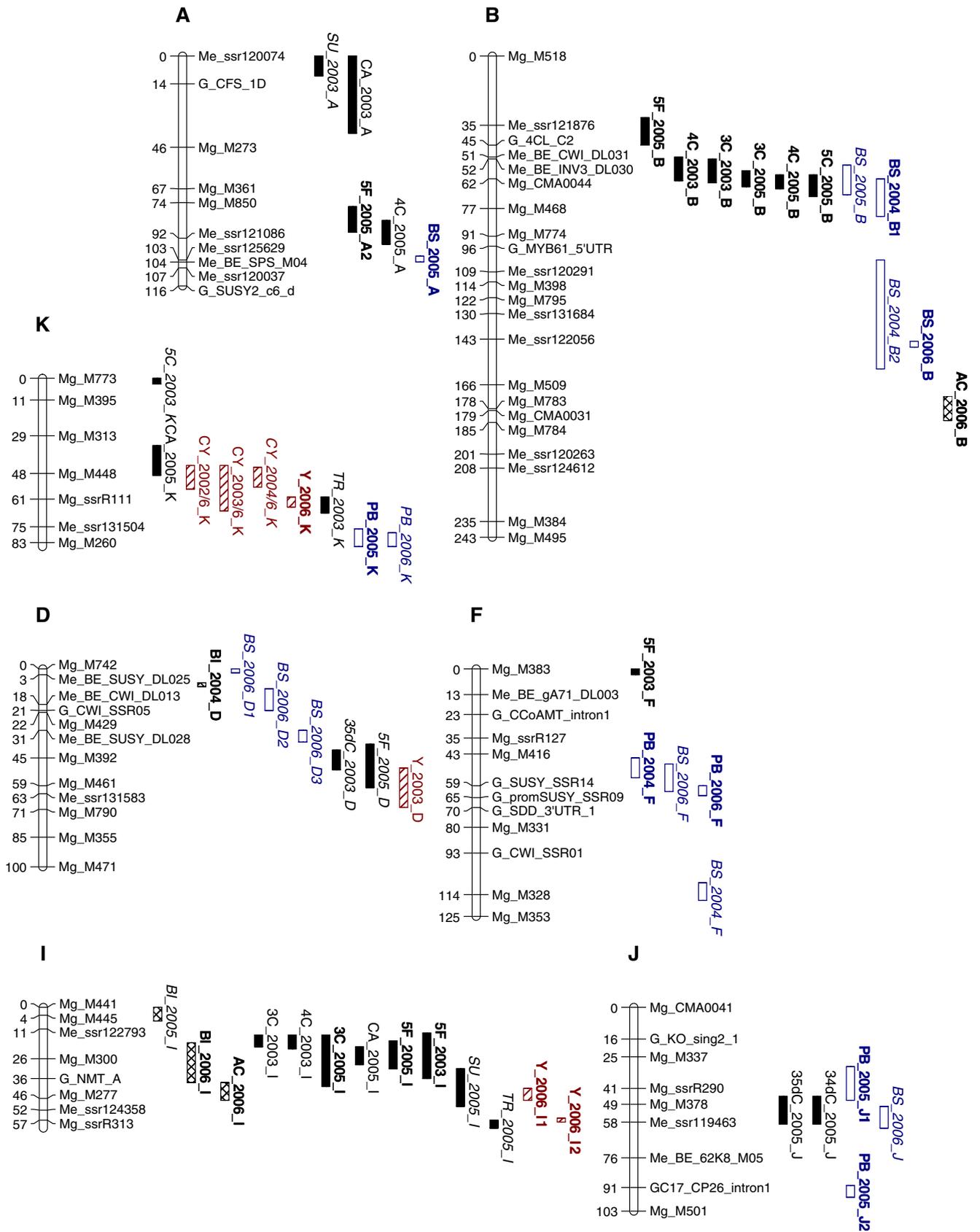


Table 4 List of QTLs identified by MQM for agronomic, technological, biochemical, and organoleptic traits

Traits	LG	QTL name	Cofactors ^a	LOD _{max}	LOD _{max} position ^b	R ² ^c	Af	Am	D
Cumulative yield, 2002–2006	K	CY_2002/6_K	–	3.96	49.2	17.4	0.06	0.06	–0.09
Cumulative yield, 2003–2006	K	CY_2003/6_K	–	4.07	50.2	16.7	0.06	0.06	–0.09
Cumulative yield, 2004–2006	K	CY_2004/6_K	–	3.98	50.2	16.2	0.07	0.07	–0.09
Yield, 2003	D	Y_2003_D	–	4.07	66.1	8.1	0.26	–0.02	–0.18
Yield, 2006	I	Y_2006_I1	G_NMT_A, Me_ssr122793, Mg_M445, Mg_M313	6.33	43.8	34.0	–0.34	–0.41	–0.29
	I	Y_2006_I2	G_NMT_A, Me_ssr122793, Mg_M445, Mg_M313	9.46	57.9	42.4	0.03	0.57	–0.03
	K	Y_2006_K	G_NMT_A, Me_ssr122793, Mg_M445, Mg_M313	9.93	62.4	56.8	0.24	0.25	–0.25
Bean size, 2004	B	BS_2004_B1	Me_ssr120037, Mg_M328	4.64	71.9	10.5	0.38	–0.30	–0.20
	B	<i>BS_2004_B2</i>	Me_ssr120037, Mg_M328	4.48	130.8	8.1	0.42	0.07	0.18
	F	<i>BS_2004_F</i>	Me_ssr120037, Mg_M328	4.26	113.2	7.9	0.24	0.42	0.01
Bean size, 2005	A	BS_2005_A	Me_ssr125629, Me_BE_SPS_M04, Mg_M328, Mg_M521 ^d	16.44	103.7	35.3	–0.63	0.00	0.01
	B	<i>BS_2005_B</i>	Me_ssr125629, Me_BE_SPS_M04, Mg_M328, Mg_M521 ^d	4.24	64.3	6.4	–0.05	–0.25	–0.49
Bean size, 2006	B	BS_2006_B	Mg_M783, Mg_CMA0031, Mg_BAC19_M40 ^d , Me_ssr119463	10.30	145.8	25.3	0.50	–0.01	–0.15
	D	<i>BS_2006_D1</i>	Mg_M783, Mg_CMA0031, Mg_BAC19_M40 ^d , Me_ssr119463	4.27	0	6.1	–0.12	0.00	0.45
	D	<i>BS_2006_D2</i>	Mg_M783, Mg_CMA0031, Mg_BAC19_M40 ^d , Me_ssr119463	4.92	15.3	10.9	–0.09	0.00	0.60
	D	<i>BS_2006_D3</i>	Mg_M783, Mg_CMA0031, Mg_BAC19_M40 ^d , Me_ssr119463	5.12	33.3	14.1	0.04	0.15	0.66
	F	<i>BS_2006_F</i>	Mg_M783, Mg_CMA0031, Mg_BAC19_M40 ^d , Me_ssr119463	4.49	52.8	11.0	–0.33	0.36	–0.37
	J	<i>BS_2006_J</i>	Mg_M783, Mg_CMA0031, Mg_BAC19_M40 ^d , Me_ssr119463	5.00	57	7.2	–0.46	–0.19	–0.01
Pea berry, 2004	F	PB_2004_F	–	6.46	49.8	19.4	–6.05	0.91	–0.18
Pea berry, 2005	J	PB_2005_J1	–	3.89	39.6	11.5	3.45	0.12	1.50
	J	PB_2005_J2	–	3.94	92.8	8.1	3.03	1.23	0.59
	K	PB_2005_K^d	–	4.49	83.3	16.6	–3.71	1.48	–3.12
Pea berry, 2006	F	PB_2006_F	Mg_ssrR127, G_SSR09_promSUSY	5.21	61.5	10.5	–4.33	0.27	1.15
	K	<i>PB_2006_K^d</i>	Mg_ssrR127, G_SSR09_promSUSY	4.76	85.5	13.5	–3.83	2.00	–2.60
34dCQA, 2005	J	34dC_2005_J	–	4.15	53	13.1	0.02	–0.08	–0.40
35dCQA, 2003	D	<i>35dC_2003_D</i>	–	2.52	45.2	10.7	–0.70	–0.20	0.52
35dCQA, 2005	J	35dC_2005_J	–	4.10	52	13.0	0.00	–0.13	–0.43
3CQA, 2003	B	3C_2003_B	–	6.58	57.3	26.7	1.02	–0.04	0.06
	I	3C_2003_I	–	4.02	15.6	21.1	0.83	–0.46	–0.49
3CQA, 2005	B	3C_2005_B	Mg_M774, Mg_M398	9.18	63.3	16.0	0.97	–0.33	–0.06

Table 4 (continued)

Traits	LG	QTL name	Cofactors ^a	LOD _{max}	LOD _{max} position ^b	R ² ^c	Af	Am	D
4CQA, 2003	I	3C_2005_I	Mg_M774, Mg_M398	5.31	20.4	6.5	0.47	-0.26	-0.05
	B	4C_2003_B	–	6.10	53.1	28.8	1.18	-0.10	0.32
4CQA, 2005	I	4C_2003_I	–	4.04	15.6	21.6	1.00	-0.55	-0.50
	A	4C_2005_A	Mg_M774	3.96	86.5	8.3	-0.64	0.33	-0.17
5CQA, 2003	B	4C_2005_B	Mg_M774	19.62	64.3	40.6	1.41	-0.25	-0.05
	K	<i>5C_2003_K^d</i>	–	4.31	0	18.5	1.89	0.90	1.45
5CQA, 2005	B	5C_2005_B	–	4.26	65.3	10.6	-1.83	0.86	-0.43
5FQA, 2003	F	5F_2003_F	–	5.21	0	35.3	0.92	0.59	1.36
	I	5F_2003_I	–	5.12	27.8	23.4	-1.47	-0.43	0.04
5FQA, 2005	A	5F_2005_A2	–	5.47	82.5	13.7	0.88	-0.65	-0.35
	B	5F_2005_B	–	5.89	41.1	15.2	-1.10	0.46	-0.11
	D	<i>5F_2005_D</i>	–	4.38	48.2	10.8	-0.66	0.53	-0.49
	I	5F_2005_I	–	7.08	24.8	16.7	-1.26	0.12	-0.27
Caffeine, 2003	A	CA_2003_A	Me_BE_gA71_DL003, Mg_300	3.78	22.9	16.2	-0.18	-0.09	0.11
Caffeine, 2005	C	CA_2005_C^d	Me_ssr121336 ^d , G_NMT_A, Mg_M448	5.08	2	13.2	0.15	0.11	0.01
	I	CA_2005_I	Me_ssr121336 ^d , G_NMT_A, Mg_M448	4.05	22.8	7.4	-0.14	0.07	0.08
	K	CA_2005_K	Me_ssr121336 ^d , G_NMT_A, Mg_M448	3.99	38.2	7.2	-0.10	0.07	-0.07
Sucrose, 2003	A	<i>SU_2003_A</i>	Me_ssr120074	4.42	0	28.8	-0.40	-0.58	0.15
Sucrose, 2005	I	<i>SU_2005_I</i>	–	4.39	40.8	12.9	0.40	0.10	0.02
Trigonelline, 2003	K	<i>TR_2003_K</i>	Mg_M313	11.73	64.4	81.2	0.16	0.15	0.11
Trigonelline, 2005	I	<i>TR_2005_I</i>	Mg_M441	4.07	60.9	41.8	-0.04	0.04	-0.08
Acidity, 2006	B	AC_2006_B	Mg_M300, Me_ssr122793	11.91	173.2	29.8	0.00	-0.05	0.00
	I	AC_2006_I	Mg_M300, Me_ssr122793	8.22	42.8	54.8	0.05	0.04	0.05
Bitterness, 2004	D	BI_2004_D	Mg_M429	5.07	7.7	31.7	0.36	-0.16	-0.03
Bitterness, 2005	I	<i>BI_2005_I</i>	–	4.37	0	16.8	-0.23	-0.06	0.00
Bitterness, 2006	I	BI_2006_I	–	5.24	28.8	15.3	-0.17	-0.02	-0.02
Global, 2005	H	<i>GL_2005_H^d</i>	–	4.03	73.3	18.6	-0.03	0.09	-0.14

The trait, the linkage group where the QTL is located, the QTL name, the markers used as eventual cofactors in the MQM analyzed, the maximum LOD and its position, the percentage of phenotypic variation explained for the trait (R^2), allelic female and male additivity and dominance are indicated. All of these QTLs present a confidence under 1% at the LG level and 10% at the genome-wide (GW) level. QTLs that present a confidence under 5% GW at the genome level are indicated in italics, and for less than 1% confidence, they are shown in bold

MQM multiple QTL mapping, TR trigonelline, LG linkage group, Af female additive effects, Am male additive effects, D dominance effects

^a Cofactors were selected using the “Automatic Cofactor Selection” procedure in MapQTL 4.0 software

^b Position of the LOD maximum expressed in cM on the reference map

^c Percentage of phenotypic variation explained by the QTL

^d Not displayed in Fig. 2

^e As presented in “Materials and methods”

indicating that simultaneous selection can be conducted on both types of traits, as previously suggested by Montagnon et al. (1998). The ongoing work on coffee genome sequencing will allow for more accurately defining the location of genes of interest in relation to the QTLs identified in this study.

Consequences for breeding

The perspectives arising from the results of our study are important in relation with the improvement of the quality of *C. canephora*. This study was based on a “backcross”

progeny between the Congolese and the Guinean groups on which the selection program in Côte d'Ivoire is established. These QTL studies are specific to the pedigree, site, and ontogenic stage of the individuals investigated. Thus, we will have to validate the stability of the QTLs obtained here in other locations and in different progenies, particularly in the offspring of crosses generated between the diversity groups used in the selection scheme. For the offspring of crosses generated within the diversity groups, we will have to perform complementary QTL studies. Association mapping studies within genetic groups or on large coffee collections will also allow precisely determining the zones of the genome and the genes implicated in the establishment of quality. The results presented here and future studies to be implemented in other populations will contribute developing marker-assisted selection for quality improvement, considering the favorable alleles of the markers involved in the QTLs for quality. A marker-assisted selection could be applied directly to our progeny for the selection of varieties presenting good yield and quality.

Finally, our work is of interest for assisting breeders attempting to control the introgression of resistance genes from *C. canephora* to *C. arabica* without lowering quality (Bertrand et al. 2003a).

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