

1 **Trees and their seed networks: the social dynamics of** 2 **urban fruit trees and implications for genetic diversity**

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18 **Abstract**

19 Trees are a traditional component of urban spaces where they provide ecosystem services
20 critical to urban wellbeing. In the Tropics, urban trees' seed origins have rarely been
21 characterized. Yet, understanding the social dynamics linked to tree planting is critical given
22 their influence on the distribution of associated genetic diversity. This study examines
23 elements of these dynamics (seed exchange networks) in an emblematic indigenous fruit tree
24 species from Central Africa, the African plum tree (*Dacryodes edulis*, Burseraceae), within
25 the urban context of Yaoundé. We further evaluate the consequences of these social dynamics
26 on the distribution of the genetic diversity of the species in the city. Urban trees were planted
27 predominantly using seeds sourced from outside the city, resulting in a level of genetic
28 diversity as high in Yaoundé as in a whole region of production of the species. Debating the
29 different drivers that foster the genetic diversity in planted urban trees, the study argued that
30 cities and urban dwellers can unconsciously act as effective guardians of indigenous tree
31 genetic diversity.

32

33 **Introduction**

34 Crop seed exchange networks, shaped by social dynamics, have a deep influence on the
35 organization and breadth of plant diversity in human-managed environments. The decisive
36 effect of social organizations, through bonds of kinship, marriage or friendships, has been
37 shown to influence the flows of crop planting materials [1–3]. In turn, crop species' diversity
38 within rural home gardens is influenced by exchanges of planting material (seeds or clonal
39 material) [4,5]. In urban environments, although the propagation of plants by humans has
40 been described through the lens of their accidental role in propagule dispersal [6,7], there are
41 only few studies mentioning intentional seed circulation patterns for crop species, and
42 notably for perennial crop species such as fruit trees. In South America, it was shown that
43 seeds and seedlings from urban home gardens were acquired at local markets, but also
44 through networks of exchanges involving relatives and neighbours [8,9]. Together with the
45 major contribution of natural dispersion and historical plantings in shaping the plant diversity
46 present in urban home gardens, the ones of local nurseries and social networks were also
47 emphasized in the San Juan area, in Puerto Rico [10]. In Amazonia, the contribution of rural
48 genetic material to urban gardens has also been demonstrated: the major source of exchanged
49 planting material from urban home gardens is through gifts, which come both from
50 communities and households in the city, and from those in rural areas [11]. Conversely, the
51 role of urban centres as sources of planting material has also been exemplified, with rural
52 gardeners purchasing planting material closer to urban centres [12,13]. These different
53 findings highlight the need to understand the extent to which rural-urban bonds may be
54 drivers of crop plant intra- and inter-specific diversity in urban environments.

55 Trees are a traditional component of urban spaces, mostly planted for ornamental
56 purposes or for their shade. The multi-faceted role of urban trees is now well recognized since
57 they provide ecosystem services critical to urban citizen wellbeing: green places for leisure,

58 noise reduction, climate mitigation, air and water purification, energy savings, habitats for
59 biodiversity, and carbon sequestration [14–16]. In tropical regions, urban trees also
60 contribute to diets [17,18]. In Kinshasa, fruit production was cited as the main reason why
61 urban dwellers introduced trees around their home, with trees providing additional services
62 (shade, medicine, cash), such as African plum trees, avocado trees and mango trees, being
63 highly valued [19]. Among the studies that have characterized urban food-tree species
64 diversity and composition within cities in Central Africa [20–24], the origin of planting
65 material is sometimes questioned by separating local (native) and exotic (non-native) trees.
66 But the information on the source of the planting material for local trees is not available. This
67 question matters all the more since the social dynamics of tree planting influence the
68 distribution of tree genetic diversity.

69 Genetic diversity is the raw material for species adaptation to global changes such as
70 new climates, pests or diseases, or pollution. This fundamental species survival mechanism,
71 that has taken millions of years to develop, is critically threatened by anthropogenic
72 disturbances such as overexploitation, deforestation, land-use change, or climate change. On
73 the other hand, humans can play a positive role in the conservation of species' genetic
74 resources. In particular, research shows that through their traditional practices and local
75 ecological knowledge, tropical smallholder farmers actively participate in safeguarding
76 agricultural biodiversity [25–28]. By maintaining many different crops and varieties, farmers
77 retain a range of options for adapting to environmental change and thus promoting resilience
78 in agricultural systems [29,30].

79 There have been very few studies on the social dynamics of urban fruits trees planting
80 and their influence on species genetic diversity. Our study explored how urban intra-specific
81 diversity can be embedded within human social life [31]. We developed a multi-disciplinary
82 framework bringing together ethnological and genetic data to (i) assess the sources used by

83 urban dwellers to plant new trees; and (ii) evaluate the consequences on the urban intra-
84 specific genetic diversity. Our study examined the seed origins and genetic diversity of an
85 urban population of a major indigenous fruit tree species from Central Africa, the African
86 plum tree (*Dacryodes edulis*, (G. Don) H.J. Lam Burseraceae), and underlined its specificity
87 by contrasting it with those of a larger rural population.

88

89 **Materials and Methods**

90 **Species description**

91 *Dacryodes edulis* (G. Don) H.J. Lam (Burseraceae) is a culturally important fruit tree
92 species originating from the Congo Basin. It is mostly cultivated as a fruit and shade tree in
93 coffee-cocoa agroforests [32], and in home gardens (see pictures in S1 Fig). *Dacryodes edulis*
94 is a predominantly outcrossing species [33]. The fruits (African plums) are one-seeded
95 drupes. Fruits present a wide range of sizes, shapes, colours (epicarp, mesocarp) and textures
96 [34,35]. They contain more than 50% lipids, but also proteins, fibre and vitamins [36,37].
97 Their fleshy, buttery pulp is highly popular, and is consumed with roasted maize, plantain,
98 or tubers. African plums are part of the diet of all cultural groups in tropical Cameroon.

99 **Ethnoecology data collection and analysis**

100 To investigate the social dynamics of urban tree planting, we selected the city of
101 Yaoundé (3.9 million inhabitants), the second largest city in Cameroon. The founding of the
102 city dates back to the late 19th century. Along with most of the large sub-Saharan cities, it
103 has quickly expanded and stretches now over more than 300 km². Agricultural activities are
104 carried out both in its urban core and in the surrounding peri-urban areas, ensuring cheap
105 food supplies. Yaoundé's cultural mosaic reflects its urbanization history: because of the
106 destruction and resettlement of neighbourhoods during the colonial era, the city's districts
107 comprise mixed populations coming from different cultural and geographical areas of
108 Cameroon [38,39]. *Dacryodes edulis* trees are present throughout the city, especially on its
109 outskirts where the home gardens are mostly bigger, and in low-income neighbourhoods
110 where home gardens contain more useful plant species [40].

111 We led interviews with tree owners (N=84) in one neighbourhood of Yaoundé, Oyom-
112 Abang, and recorded their cultural origins. This neighbourhood is culturally diverse (different
113 cultural groups are represented, in order of importance in our sampling: Beti, Bassa and
114 Bamileke) and presents a moderate to dense urbanization level, with approximately 105
115 inhabitants per hectare. Despite urbanization, a network of trees and gardens is interspersed
116 among buildings, with many fruit trees present in backyard home gardens. These home
117 gardens are generally small, located around the family compound, and include mixed crops
118 (fruits, vegetables, tubers). The selection of respondents was based on their ownership of one
119 or more *D. edulis* trees. Prior to the interview, tree owners were informed of the research
120 intentions and of their right to participate or decline. At the end of the interview, tree owners
121 were given a form stating that the interview had been conducted in accordance with the
122 principles of free and informed consent, which they could sign if they agreed.

123 For comparison with the urban area, the African plum tree planting practices were also
124 recorded with tree owners (N=47) in a rural area. The rural area is located in the West region,
125 one main production area of *D. edulis* fruits in Cameroon [41], which supplies the major
126 markets of the two biggest cities in Cameroon, Yaoundé and Douala. Different cultural
127 groups are present throughout the region, the most numerous being Bamileke and Bamoun.
128 Cultivators of this region focus on the production of cash crops, especially cocoa and coffee,
129 but integrate many other fruit trees species in their fields.

130 We obtained information on the location from where the propagation material (seeds,
131 seedlings) originated for 121 *D. edulis* trees in the urban area. In the rural area, this
132 information was recorded, for trees present in home gardens and fields, in two villages,
133 Manjo and Bandounga (94 trees in total). Four different categories of seed origin were
134 distinguished: the seeds could have been taken directly by the farmer from his own
135 field/home garden (category *farmer's own trees*; Table 1); the seeds could have been taken

136 outside of the farmer's own field/home garden but still originate from either the same village
137 (category *same village*) or from a different village (category *different village*); or the seeds
138 could have been bought at the market or in a nursery (category *market or nursery*), meaning
139 that the fruit has travelled through a commercial exchange network and possibly originates
140 from far away. For the urban population, the seeds could come from the village of origin of
141 urban dwellers with a rural background, which was made explicit with the subcategory %
142 *coming from the village of origin* in the category *different village*.

143 Given the high proportion of seeds sown from fruits bought in markets in Yaoundé, the
144 origin of the fruits sold on these markets was traced back through interviews with a total of
145 89 sellers of African plums, in nine markets of Yaoundé (Emana, Etoudi, Marché des fruits,
146 Mendong, Mfoundi, Mokolo, Mvog Mbi, Nkolbisson, Nsam) from July to September 2017.

147 Genetic data collection and analysis

148 To understand the link between urban tree planting behaviours and species genetic
149 diversity characteristics in the city we analysed the level of genetic diversity from the urban
150 population of Oyom-Abang (250 ha) and compared it to that of one rural population
151 stretching over a main production area of *D. edulis* fruits in Cameroon (200,000 ha, Fig 1).
152 In this aim, we sampled 450 trees in Oyom-Abang (164 trees included in the ethnoecological
153 dataset + 286 additional trees sampled only for the genetic characterization) and 399 trees in
154 the rural population (94 trees from the ethnoecological dataset + 305 additional trees), that
155 stretches across the West, Littoral and Centre regions (278, 79 and 42 trees respectively, in a
156 total of fifteen villages).

157 We extracted the DNA of these 849 urban and rural samples following the protocol of
158 Mariac *et al.* [42] (S1 Dataset). The genetic diversity was investigated using twelve nuclear
159 microsatellite markers amplified in two multiplexes following Rimlinger *et al.* [43]. All the

160 individuals were genotyped using an ABI 3500 XL sequencer (Applied Biosystem, Foster
161 City, California, USA) at the CIRAD Genotyping Platform in Montpellier, France.
162 Electropherograms were visualized and scored with the microsatellite plugin in Geneious
163 7.1.3 (<https://www.geneious.com>). For each locus and population, observed and expected
164 heterozygosity (H_O and H_E), inbreeding coefficient (F_{IS}), the effective number of alleles
165 (NAe), the rarefied allelic richness (AR) and null allele frequency (r) were estimated using
166 INEST 2.2 [44] and SPAGeDi [45]. The level of population differentiation (as estimated by
167 the F_{ST} fixation index) and the test of genetic structure (permutation of individuals among all
168 populations) were obtained with SPAGeDi. Levels of diversity between the urban and rural
169 populations were compared with one-way analysis of variance, controlling for the loci effect.
170 The distribution of the genetic diversity between the two populations was further tested using
171 the Bayesian clustering analysis implemented in STRUCTURE [46] with admixture ancestry,
172 correlated allele frequencies and no prior information about population origin. K was set from
173 1 to 10, and each run was replicated 10 times, with a burn-in period of 10,000 followed by
174 40,000 Markov Chain Monte Carlo repetitions.

175 Results

176 From the interviews conducted with tree owners on their private land, the geographic
177 origin of the seeds used for plantation indicated wide differences between the rural and urban
178 tree populations (Table 1).

179 **Table 1. Differences in seed provenance and distance between rural and urban populations of *D. edulis*.**

Population	Seed provenance (frequency) *				Seed distance (km) *	
	N	Farmer's own trees	Same village	Different village (% village of origin)	Market or nursery	All provenances combined
Urban	121	0.04	0.03	0.36 (81%)	0.57	45.4 ± 5.9
Rural	94	0.30	0.46	0.06	0.18	3.7 ± 0.8

180 * the seed provenance and seed distance between the two populations are significantly different (as tested
181 respectively with the Pearson's Chi-squared test and Wilcoxon rank sum test; p-value < 2.2e-16).

182 In Yaoundé, 93% of *D. edulis* planted seeds came from beyond the city borders, with
183 half of the seeds used for planting coming from markets, either from Yaoundé markets or
184 from more distant locations known for the quality of their African plums (Makénéné's market
185 for instance, located 200 kms away from Yaoundé). Fruits sold on Yaoundé's markets come
186 from five main areas, located at various distances from the capital, up to 370 km away (S2
187 Fig). The second most important source of seed is provided by rural villages beyond
188 Yaoundé's border (41%). The main cultural groups present in the sampled urban population
189 are Bamiléké, Bassa and Beti (Fig 1), who originate from different regions (respectively
190 western Cameroon, the Littoral and the central region, an area partly covered by this study,
191 see the Methods section).

192 Travelling back to their villages is an opportunity for urbanites to bring back fruits and
193 seeds, and the diversity of geographical origins of the cultural groups settled in the city has
194 led to planting seeds from different locations (Fig 2). In contrast, in the rural population,
195 more than 75% of the trees came from the same village territory. These differences of origins
196 translate into wide-ranging differences (Table 1, Wilcoxon signed rank test, $p < 2.2e-16$,
197 effect size = 0.514) in the average distance travelled by seeds.

198 The level of genetic diversity (rarefied allelic richness) was high and similar (p -value =
199 0.945, Wilcoxon rank sum test) in the urban and in the rural populations despite large
200 differences in the geographical coverage (250 ha for the urban population, 200,000 ha for the
201 rural one) (Table 2). The genetic composition is largely similar between the two populations
202 as shown by (i) the weak but significant genetic differentiation, $F_{ST} = 0.0057$, $p < 2.2e-16$;
203 (ii) the principal component analysis (S3 Fig); (iii) the Bayesian clustering analysis where
204 individuals are attributed to two (weakly differentiated) genetic clusters without relation to
205 their population of origin (S4 Fig).

206 **Table 2. Genetic diversity indices of the rural and urban populations of *D. edulis*.**

	N	H_E	H_O	F_{IS}	NAe	AR
Urban population	450	0.761 ± 0.039	0.629 ± 0.051	0.181 ± 0.047	6.17 ± 1.1	15.7 ± 2.5
Rural population	399	0.768 ± 0.038	0.659 ± 0.045	0.149 ± 0.036	6.40 ± 1.2	16.1 ± 2.3

207 H_E : expected heterozygosity; H_O : observed heterozygosity; F_{IS} : inbreeding coefficient; NAe: effective number
208 of alleles, AR: rarefied allelic richness for $k=300$; values are means \pm SEM.

209

210 **Discussion**

211 Urban contexts embody a complex socio-cultural nexus where food supply to humans is
212 crucial [47]. As shown by this study, similar levels of genetic diversity were observed
213 between the urban and rural tree populations despite large differences in the geographical
214 coverage. The planting practices of urban trees with regards to cultivated fruit trees in the
215 cities can thus generate positive evolutionary dynamics for their diversity. This can be
216 explained by two intertwined processes.

217 First, big cities are at the heart of market flows and social networks. A vast majority of
218 food produced in rural areas reach cities to be sold in marketplaces. If particularly
219 appreciated, the seed from a good fruit is preserved and planted within the family compound,
220 hence safeguarding its genetic material. This process of fruit exchanges through
221 commercialization from production/rural areas to large cities may account for one of the most
222 important drivers of urban dynamics in favour of the genetic diversity of native fruit trees,
223 whereby most genetic resources of a given valuable fruit species are potentially channelled
224 to cities, being ‘attracted’ by consumers’ demand. Diversity in an urban setting tends to be
225 high not only because there is a lot of inflow of plant material from different surrounding
226 regions but also because seeds used for planting harbour a significant proportion of the
227 genetic diversity of their population of origin given the predominantly outcrossing mating
228 system of the species [33].

229 Second, this large exchange matrix of genetic material is further enhanced by what is
230 known as an ‘economy of affection’ matrix [48], which refers to the strong affective links
231 shared within a group of people with the same socio-cultural background. For people who
232 migrated to an urban context, this bond includes a relationship with nature and the crops
233 (from species to varieties) from the rural area of origin. Through gift-giving chains, urban

234 dwellers can also have access to wild plants from rural areas [49]. Urban dwellers thus
235 commonly commented that “the best fruits [were] those cultivated in the village of my
236 family”. This fits with the more general influence of kinship systems on farmers’ seed
237 exchange networks [1,50,51]. As big cities attract people from all over the surrounding
238 localities and from various cultural groups, this may be another important factor that
239 determines a concentration of genetic resources from different rural areas in cities.

240 The way tree planting material is sourced in cities is therefore critical for the current
241 pattern of diversity. The low levels of tree genetic diversity reported in some cities of
242 temperate regions was explained by their reliance on poorly diversified planting material
243 (selected and clonal material) from commercial nurseries [52]. However, there are cases in
244 which urban trees commercially grown in nurseries come from a mixture of different wild
245 provenances, and thus show a higher genetic diversity than the wild populations [53]. The
246 genetic diversity observed in Yaoundé could thus be rooted in the informal seed exchange
247 system, where seeds are loosely selected and planted by urban dwellers.

248 The diversity of *D. edulis* trees planted in gardens is supported through exchange
249 networks that include kin, friends, and outsiders. The strong reliance on local systems of
250 production and exchange, and the maintenance of rural-urban links, fuel germplasm transfers
251 and lead to unintended positive consequences, such as conservation outcomes and urban
252 sustainability [11]. According to traditional conservation perspectives, anthropogenic actions
253 are framed as a major cause of biodiversity erosion [54], or as being deliberately designed to
254 safeguard targeted species and ecosystems [55]. However, there is a third way where the sum
255 of individual actions contributes to biodiversity conservation: when pursuing other goals,
256 here coping with subsistence needs and maintaining socio-cultural cohesion, they may also
257 maintain genetic diversity of useful crop species [56]. A broader analysis replicating the
258 framework of this study for other crops [57] and cities pantropically would show how

259 important this serendipitous "safeguarding" of genetic diversity is. Urban home gardens can
260 actually contain a significant proportion of indigenous species (35-60%) which represent
261 additional candidates to test the importance of urban areas for the conservation of species
262 genetic diversity [58,59].

263 According to the United Nations [60], more than two-thirds of the world will live in
264 urban areas by 2050, having major direct and indirect impacts on biodiversity [61]. It is
265 therefore essential to give to the biodiversity of these anthropogenic landscapes the special
266 attention they deserve [62] as well as to promote the contribution of urban trees to human
267 food supply and other ecosystem services. However, with the anarchic urbanization in the
268 rapidly expanding cities of developing countries, these trees are at risk of being wiped out.
269 There is thus an urgent need to identify the main socioeconomic, cultural and political drivers
270 as well as more effective urban biodiversity conservation instruments which may contribute
271 to conserve and further diversify fruit trees in the city [63–65]. A focus on genetic diversity
272 conservation, promoted by socially desirable measures, can help ensure green, healthy, food
273 provisioning and more resilient cities sheltering crop plant species with a high adaptive
274 potential, in the face of climate change and growing urban populations [66,67].
275 Concomitantly with the conservatories and botanical gardens, parks, orchards and individual
276 backyards, which actively support the goal of conserving biodiversity, it is time to better
277 understand, analyse and promote urban home gardens and green spaces as repositories of tree
278 genetic diversity.

279

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481 **Supporting information**

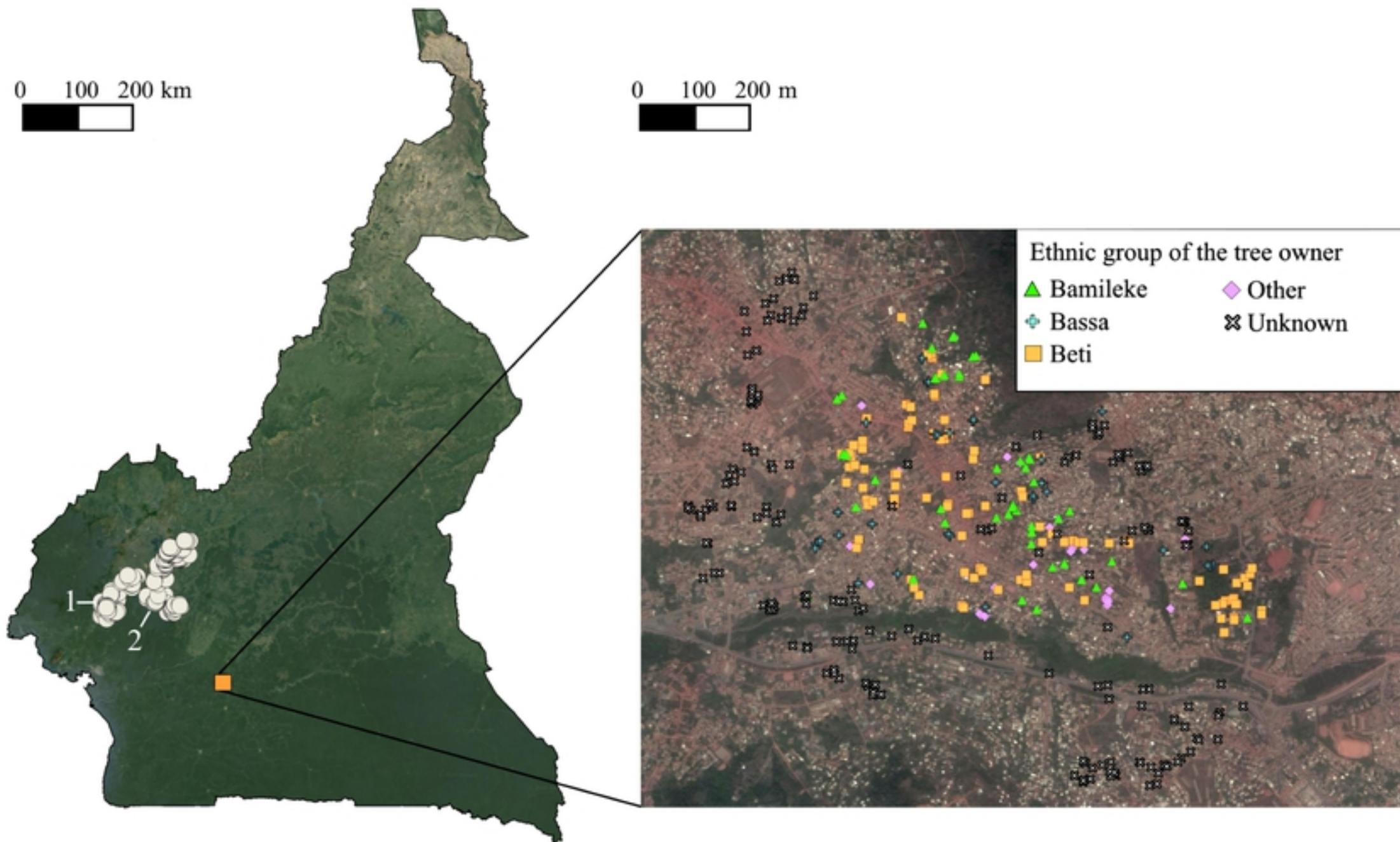
482 **S1 Fig. Pictures of the species.** Mature tree in an agroforest (above left); young tree in an
483 orchard near Koutaba (above right). Roasted African plums and plantains sold in the streets
484 (below left); fruit varietal diversity (below right).

485 **S2 Fig. Provenance of fruits sold in Yaoundé markets.** Provenance of African plums in
486 Yaoundé main markets, accounting for more than 95% of the total volume of sold fruits
487 reported by the sellers (1: Ndé; 2: Mounjo; 3: Nkam; 4: Mbam-et-Inoubou; 5: Lékié; 6:
488 Nyong-et-Kéllé). Dots correspond to the rural trees sampled for the genetic analysis.

489 **S3 Fig. Principal component analysis (PCA) of *Dacryodes edulis* microsatellite diversity**
490 **from the urban and rural populations.** The PCA was performed on the allele frequencies
491 of each individual. Genotypes were clustered to show maximal differentiation along the first
492 and second principal component (PC1 and PC2). Individuals do not cluster according to their
493 urban or rural origin, indicating the absence of population structure.

494 **S4 Fig. Bayesian clustering analysis. S4a:** Changes in K values from the mean log-
495 likelihood probabilities (right axis) and plot of mean likelihood $L(K)$ and variance per K
496 value (left axis) from STRUCTURE runs where inferred clusters (K) ranged from 1 to 10.
497 **S4b:** Output of clustering analysis by STRUCTURE software for two clusters (K=2) of the
498 849 trees, using 14 microsatellite markers, grouped by origin (urban trees; rural trees). Each
499 vertical bar represents one individual and shows its inferred cluster membership; black and
500 gray colors correspond each to one cluster. If both colors are present, the haplotype consists
501 of a mixture of markers assigned to both black and gray clusters. The samples from the urban
502 area and rural area were assigned in different proportions to each cluster. Using an
503 assignment probability threshold of 0.8, 41% and 8% of individuals from the urban
504 population were respectively assign to the black and gray clusters (51% were presenting

505 intermediate genotypes) and 5% and 45% of individuals from the rural population were
506 respectively assign to the black and grey clusters (50% were presenting intermediate
507 genotypes).



Figure

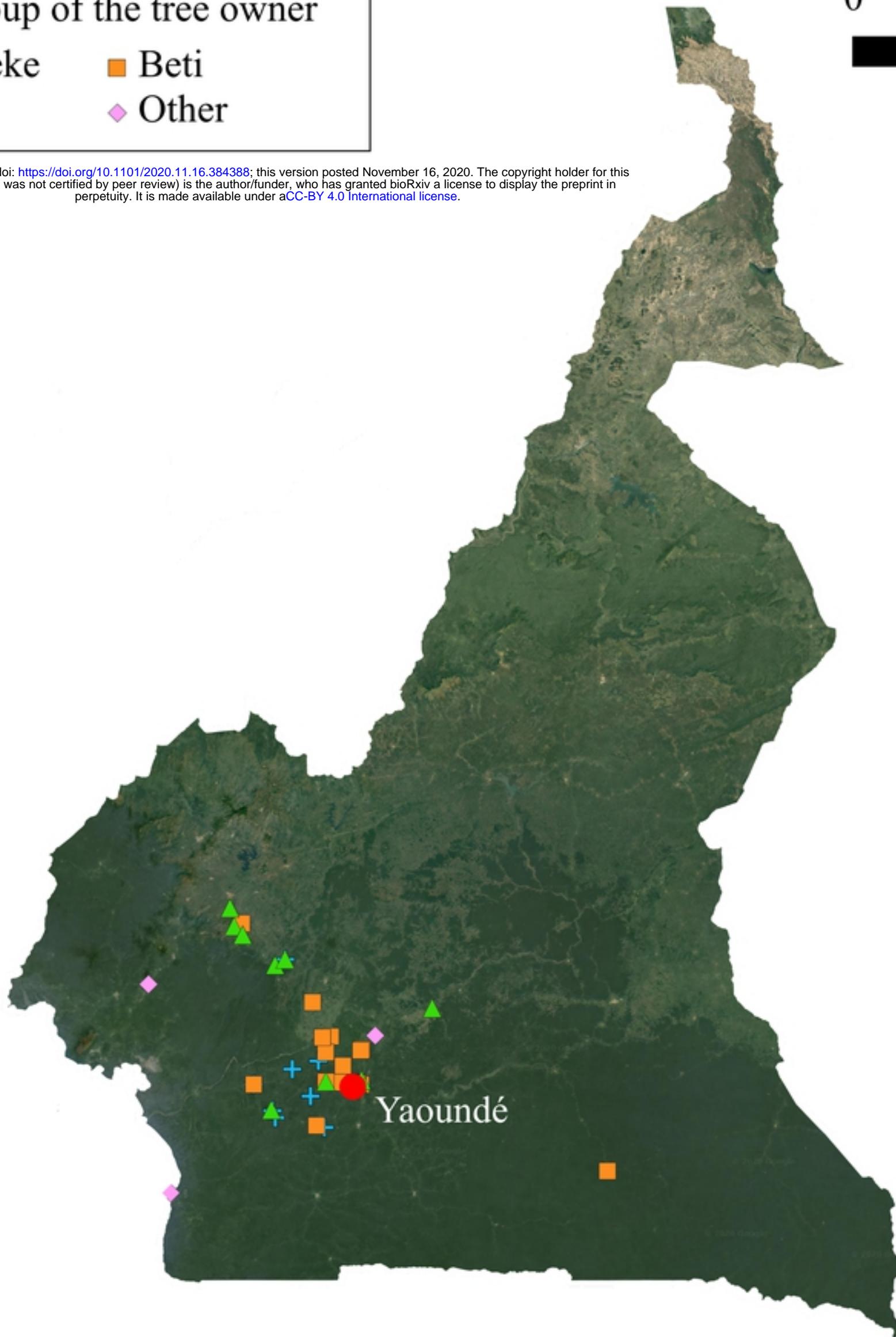
Ethnic group of the tree owner

- ▲ Bamileke
- Beti
- + Bassa
- ◆ Other

0 100 200 km



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Figure