# Distinct ancient structural polymorphisms control heterodichogamy in walnuts and hickories

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#### 5 Abstract

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The maintenance of stable mating type polymorphisms is a classic example of balancing selection, underlying 6 the nearly ubiquitous 50/50 sex ratio in species with separate sexes. One lesser known but intriguing 7 example of a balanced mating polymorphism in angiosperms is heterodichogamy - polymorphism for opposing 8 directions of dichogamy (temporal separation of male and female function in hermaphrodites) within a 9 flowering season. This mating system is common throughout Juglandaceae, the family that includes globally 10 important and iconic nut and timber crops - walnuts (Juglans), as well as pecan and other hickories (Carya). 11 In both genera, heterodichogamy is controlled by a single dominant allele. We fine-map the locus in each 12 genus, and find two ancient (>50 Mya) structural variants involving different genes that both segregate as 13 genus-wide trans-species polymorphisms. The Juglans locus maps to a ca. 20 kb structural variant adjacent 14 to a probable trehalose phosphate phosphatase (TPPD-1), homologs of which regulate floral development 15 in model systems. TPPD-1 is differentially expressed between morphs in developing male flowers, with 16 increased allele-specific expression of the dominant haplotype copy. Across species, the dominant haplotype 17 contains a tandem array of duplicated sequence motifs, part of which is an inverted copy of the TPPD-1 18 3' UTR. These repeats generate various distinct small RNAs matching sequences within the 3' UTR and 19 further downstream. In contrast to the single-gene Juglans locus, the Carya heterodichogamy locus maps 20 to a ca. 200-450 kb cluster of tightly linked polymorphisms across 20 genes, some of which have known roles 21 in flowering and are differentially expressed between morphs in developing flowers. The dominant haplotype 22 in pecan, which is nearly always heterozygous and appears to rarely recombine, shows markedly reduced 23 genetic diversity and is over twice as long as its recessive counterpart due to accumulation of various types 24 of transposable elements. We did not detect either genetic system in other heterodichogamous genera within 25 Juglandaceae, suggesting that additional genetic systems for heterodichogamy may yet remain undiscovered. 26

Keywords: heterodichogamy, walnut, pecan, Juglandaceae, Juglans, Carya, supergene, trans-species
 polymorphism, balanced polymorphism, T6P, trehalose phosphate phosphatase, flowering time, structural
 variation

### **Introduction**

Flowering plants have evolved a remarkable diversity of sexual heteromorphisms (e.g. dioecy, heterostyly, 31 gynodioecy, and mirror-image flowers) that have long fascinated evolutionary biologists (Darwin 1877; 32 Charlesworth and Charlesworth 1979; Barrett 2010). Such systems present key opportunities to test evolu-33 tionary theories of sexual reproduction and to understand its ecological and genetic consequences. Heterodi-34 chogamy presents an intriguing and relatively under-explored example of a balanced polymorphism in the 35 sexual organization of some angiosperms, in this case not in space but in time. In Darwin's words, heterodi-36 chogamous populations "consist of two bodies of individuals, with their flowers differing in function, though 37 not in structure; for certain individuals mature their pollen before the female flowers on the same plant are 38 ready for fertilisation and are called proterandrous [protandrous]; whilst conversely other individuals, called 39 proterogynous [protogynous], have their stigmas mature before their pollen is ready" (1877). This system 40 generates strong disassortative mating between morphs (Bai et al. 2007), thus classical sex ratio theory 41 predicts a 50/50 ratio of protandrous and protogynous individuals at equilibrium (Gleeson 1982). Although 42 heterodichogamy has likely evolved at least a dozen times in angiosperms (Renner 2001; Endress 2020), to 43 our knowledge the genetic loci controlling the inherited basis of this mating system have not been described 44 at the molecular level in any species. Thus, it is not known whether similar genetic mechanisms control het-45 erodichogamy in different taxa, nor whether the loci involved experience similar evolutionary dynamics as 46 sex chromosomes and other supergeness that underpin other complex mating polymorphisms (Charlesworth 47 2016; Gutiérrez-Valencia et al. 2021). 48 Heterodichogamy is well-known within Juglandaceae (Delpino 1874; Darwin 1876; Pringle 1879; Stuckey 49 1915, Fig. 1A,B), the family that includes two major globally important nut and timber-producing groups 50 of trees - the walnuts (Juglans) and hickories (Carya, includes cultivated pecans). The ancestor of Jug-51 landaceae evolved unisexual, wind-pollinated flowers from an ancestor with bisexual flowers near the Cre-52 taceous-Paleogene boundary (Friis 1983; Sims et al. 1999), and a rich fossil history shows a radiation of 53 Juglandaceae during the Paleocene (Manchester 1987, 1989). In both walnuts and hickories, protogyny is 54 inherited via a dominant Mendelian allele (dominant allele - G, recessive allele - q, Gleeson 1982; Thomp-55 son and Romberg 1985). Other genera phylogenetically closer to Juglans (Cyclocarya, Platycarya) are also 56 known to be heterodichogamous (Fukuhara and Tokumaru 2014; Mao et al. 2019). These observations have 57 suggested a single origin of the alleles controlling heterodichogamy in the common ancestor of these taxa. 58 Here, we identify and characterize the evolutionary history of the genetic loci controlling heterodichogamy 59 in both Juglans and Carya. We find two distinct and substantively different genetic underpinnings for 60 heterodichogamy in these genera, and show that each genetic system is an ancient trans-species balanced 61

62 polymorphism for a structural variant.

### <sup>63</sup> Ancient regulatory divergence controls heterodichogamy across Juglans

In a natural population of Northern California black walnut (J. hindsii), protandrous and protogynous 64 morphs were found to occur in roughly equal proportions (43 vs. 38, P=0.47 under null hypothesis of equal 65 proportions). A genome-wide association study (GWAS) for dichogamy type in this population recovered a 66 single, strong association peak, consistent with the known Mendelian inheritance of heterodichogamy type 67 in Juglans (Fig. 1C, Gleeson 1982). This region is syntenic with the top GWAS hit location for dichogamy 68 type in J. regia (Fig. S1, Bernard et al. 2020) as well as a broad region associated with dichogamy type in 69 J. nigra (Chatwin et al. 2023). The association peak extends roughly 20 kb (hereafter, the G-locus) across 70 a probable trehalose-6-phosphate phosphatase gene (TPPD-1, Fig. 1D, corresponding to LOC108984907 in 71 the Walnut 2.0 assembly). TPPs catalyze the dephosphorylation of trehalose-6-phosphate to trehalose as 72 part of a signaling pathway essential for establishing regular flowering time in Arabidopsis (Wahl et al. 2013) 73 and inflorescence architecture in maize (Satoh-Nagasawa et al. 2006). TPP genes were recently identified as 74 differentially expressed across the transition to flowering in both J. sigillata and J. mandshurica (Lu et al. 75 2020; Li et al. 2022b). In J. regia, TPPD-1 is expressed in a broad range of vegetative and floral tissues (Fig. 76 S2), and we detected full-length transcripts from multiple tissues related to flowering in J. regia homozygotes 77 for both G-locus haplotypes (Table S2). Consistent with the width of the GWAS hit, we observed strong 78 linkage disequilibrium (LD) extending across this region, suggesting locally reduced recombination in the 79 genealogical history of the sample for both J. hindsii and J. regia (Fig. S3). 80



Figure 1: A) A protogynous individual of *J. ailantifolia* with developing fruits and catkins that are shedding pollen. Photo by JSG. B) Protandrous (tan) and protogynous (dark blue) morphs of *J. hindsii* are readily distinguished by catkin size in the first half of the flowering season. C) GWAS of flowering type in 44 individuals of *J. hindsii* from a natural population, against a long-read assembly of the sister species, *J. californica.* D) The GWAS peak occurs across and in the 3' region of *TPPD-1*, a probable trehalose-6-phosphate phosphatase gene (blue rectangle, arrow indicates direction of transcription). Red bar shows the position of a *NDR1/HIN1*-like gene. E) Normalized average read depth in 1 kb windows for 44 *J. hindsii* from a natural population against a genome assembly for *J. californica.* Black bars show positions of identified indels. F) Normalized average read depth in 1 kb windows for 26 *J. regia* individuals in the region syntenic with the *J. hindsii* G-locus. Colored bars and arrows indicate positions of orthologous genes bordering the G-locus.

We identified copy number variation consistent with three >1 kb indeps distinguishing G-locus haplotypes 81 (GJ1 and GJ2 present in the G haplotype; gJ3 in the g haplotype, Figs. 1E, S1). Consistent with the 82 known dominance, all J. hindsii protogynous individuals (G?) appear to be hemizygous for these indels, 83 while protondrous individuals (gg) are homozygous for gJ3. The apparent absence of any homozygotes for 84 the G haplotype in our J. hindsii sample is consistent with disassortative mating at the G-locus in a natural 85 population (P=0.059). Strikingly similar copy number patterns were seen in J. regia (Fig. 1F, S1), with a 86 known homozygote for the protogynous allele ('Sharkey', GG, Gleeson 1982) lending further support for these 87 indels. To look for the presence of this structural variant across Juglans species, we generated whole-genome 88 resequencing data from both morphs from 5 additional Juglans species (Table S1) combined with existing 89 data from known morphs in two additional species (Stevens et al. 2018). Parallel patterns of read depth at 90 the G-locus indicate that the same structural variant segregates in perfect association with dichogamy type 91 across all nine species examined (Fig. 1F, S4). As our species sampling spans the deepest divergence event in 92 the genus (Manchester 1987; Mu et al. 2020), this suggested that the G-locus haplotypes may have diverged 93 in the common ancestor of Juglans. 94 Consistent with the Juglans G-locus being an ancient balanced polymorphism, nucleotide divergence 95

<sup>95</sup> Consistent with the *Jugians* G-locus being an ancient balanced polymorphism, nucleotide divergence <sup>96</sup> between G-locus haplotypes is exceptionally high compared to the genome-wide background (falling in the <sup>97</sup> top 1% of values across the entire aligned chromosome in several species, Fig. 2D), and is comparable to the <sup>98</sup> divergence observed between *Jugians* and *Carya* in the same region (Fig. S6). Applying a molecular clock, <sup>99</sup> we estimated the age of the G-locus haplotypes to be 41-69 Mya (methods). As both fossil and molecular <sup>100</sup> evidence place the most recent common ancestor of *Jugians* in the Eocene (Manchester 1987; Mu *et al.* 2020; <sup>101</sup> Zhou *et al.* 2021), this estimate is consistent with G-locus haplotypes originating in the common ancestor of <sup>102</sup> extant *Jugians*.

We next examined variation within the *TPPD-1* gene sequence. In a comparison of both haplotypes from three species spanning the earliest divergence events within *Juglans*, we find several genus-wide transspecific polymorphic SNPs within the 3' UTR of *TPPD-1*, but none within coding sequence, indicating recombination over deep timescales and a lack of shared functional coding divergence (Fig. S5B). However, we see numerous coding polymorphisms that are fixed differences between haplotypes within species and that are shared across more closely related species (Fig. S5C), suggesting the intriguing possibility of recruitment and turnover of functional divergence within the *TPPD-1* gene sequence.

We next investigated the three indels between the G and g haplotypes (Fig. 2A). The indels GJ2 and gJ3 are not obvious functional candidates. For example, gJ3 is derived from an insertion of a CACTA-like DNA transposon in g haplotypes of *Juglans*, which lacks evidence of gene expression or strong sequence conservation across species (Fig. S7). Nonetheless, given their conserved presence it seems plausible that these indels have some role in the establishment of dichogamy types.

Turning to the GJ1 indel closer to TPPD-1, using pairwise alignments we found that GJ1 contains a series 115 of  $\sim 1$ kb tandem repeats that are paralogous with sequence in the 3' region of TPPD-1 (Fig. 2A,B). We find 116 no evidence for the inclusion of the repeat in full length TPPD-1 transcripts from a GG J. regia individual. 117 Each repeat, ordered GJ1-1 up to GJ1-12 moving downstream of TPPD-1, consists of three subunits. One 118 subunit (GJ1a) is an inverted  $\sim 250-300$  bp motif homologous with the 3' UTR of TPPD-1. The other two 119 subunits (GJ1b and GJ1c) are non-inverted ~300bp motifs homologous with regions within 1kb downstream 120 of the 3' UTR. These tandem duplicates are present in G haplotypes across multiple species with long read 121 assemblies, varying in number from 8-12 copies (Fig. 2B). Consistent with G-locus haplotypes having arisen 122 in the ancestor of Juglans, a maximum-likelihood phylogeny of concatenated aligned sequence from GJ1 123 repeats and their homologous sequence immediately downstream of the TPPD-1 (Table S3) shows that all 124 G haplotype sequences form a sister clade to all q haplotype sequences (Fig. 2C). Among more closely related 125 species (J. microcarpa and J. californica,  $\sim$ 5-10 Mya species divergence) we found evidence of conservation 126 of specific repeats, with some repeats from the same relative positions in different species clustering together 127 in the phylogeny. On the other hand, for deeper divergences ( $\sim 40-50$  Mya species divergence), evolution 128 of GJ1 repeats is characterized by lineage-specific turnover due to expansion and contraction of the repeat 129 array and/or possible gene conversion. For example, the majority of repeats within J. regia are most closely 130 related to repeats at other positions within the same species, and likewise for J. mandshurica. 131

The developmental basis of heterodichogamy in *J. regia* is driven by a differential between protogynous and protandrous morphs in the extent of both male and female floral primordia differentiation in the growing season prior to flowering (Luza and Polito 1988; Polito and Pinney 1997). Correspondingly, we found that



Figure 2: A) Schematic of the G-locus structural variant in Juglans. Presence/absence of indels are indicated by continuous lines vs. open parentheses. Maroon and blue bars show bordering genes. Black arrow across TPPD-1 indicates direction of transcription. Colored arrows represent subunits of the repeat motif within the GJ1 indel and paralogous sequence outside of the indel. Each repeat motif (numbered 1,2,...) is comprised of subunits a, b, and c. Subunit a, which is homologous with the 3' UTR of TPPD-1, is inverted within the indel. B) Dotplots showing pairwise alignment of alternate haplotypes for three species representing the major clades within the genus. Maroon and blue rectangles indicate the locations of the genus bordering the G-locus as in (A). C) Phylogeny of GJ1 repeats. Sample codes from L-R indicate: haplotype (for Juglans only), abbreviated binomial, optional additional identifier, and repeat number (as in A) (see Table S3 for full taxon list and data sources). Sequences from g haplotypes (gold) and G haplotypes (blue) form two sister clades (\*, 99% bootstrap support) whose most recent common ancestor predates the radiation of Juglans. Daggers and diamonds highlight representative sequences from J. californica and J. regia that show the trans-species polymorphism. D) Average nucleotide divergence in 500 bp windows between alternate G-locus haplotypes for three within-species comparisons. Dotted gray lines indicate the chromosome-wide average, and shaded gray regions indicate 95% quantiles. Maroon and blue bars indicate positions of genes as in (A).

protandrous and protogynous morphs of J. regia differ in the size of male catkin buds by mid-summer (Fig. 135 S9). Given the conserved non-coding G haplotype indels, and the lack of Juglans-wide trans-specific coding 136 polymorphism in TPPD-1, we hypothesized that the developmental differential between dichogamy types 137 may be due to differential regulation of TPPD-1 during early floral development. We reanalyzed RNA-138 seq data collected from male and female flower buds of J. mandshurica, where a TPP gene was one of a 139 number of differentially expressed genes over the course of flowering (Li et al. 2022b). Across two separate 140 J. mandshurica datasets (Qin et al. 2021; Li et al. 2022b), the TPPD-1 ortholog shows increased expression 141 in male buds from samples with protogynous genotypes (Figs. S10, S11). Allelic depth at G-locus SNPs in 142 these data indicated that this is driven by higher allele-specific expression of the G haplotype TPPD-1 (Figs. 143 S10, S11). We found a parallel bias in allele expression in transcriptomic data from multiple tissues of a single 144 individual of J. regia that is heterozygous at the G-locus (Fig. S12) (Dang et al. 2016). To explore possible 145 mechanisms by which variation at the G-locus might regulate TPPD-1 expression, we screened publicly 146 available small RNA sequence libraries from male and female floral buds of a protandrous and protogynous 147 morph in J. mandshurica (Li et al. 2023). We found numerous 18-24 bp small RNAs in protogynous male 148 buds (fewer in female buds and none in a protondrous sample) that map to various repeats within the GJ1149 indel and downstream of the coding region of TPPD-1 (Figs. S13, S14). The most abundant of these small 150 RNAs maps to the GJ1c subunit, at a conserved site among repeats across species, with the small RNA 151 closely matching a G haplotype sequence just downstream of the 3' UTR that is absent from q haplotypes 152 (Fig. S15). A number of the other distinct small RNAs sequences show perfect sequence matching with the 153 3' UTR of TPPD-1; some matching both G-locus alleles, and some that match only G alleles (Fig. S16). 154

Taken together, multiple independent lines of evidence support that the control of dichogamy type in 155 Juglans is governed by TPPD-1 regulatory variation that predates the radiation of the genus: (1) the 156 genus-wide balanced polymorphism of the array of  $(\geq 8)$  3' UTR homologous repeats, (2) the production 157 of small RNAs by this G haplotype repeat unit matching sites within and downstream of the 3' UTR, (3)158 and differences in TPPD-1 expression between the morphs due to higher allele-specific expression of the G 159 haplotype TPPD-1. (4) Finally, the presumed substrate of TPPD-1, T6P, has been found in model systems 160 to play a critical role in regulating the transition to flowering. In Arabidopsis for instance, overexpression 161 of a heterologous TPP delays flowering (Schluepmann et al. 2003), as does knock down of a T6P synthase 162 gene (Wahl et al. 2013). These facts are consistent with the idea that higher expression of TPPD-1 in 163 developing male flowers of protogynous walnuts could be responsible for delayed male flowering. While the 164 mechanistic basis of the expression difference is not clear, we note that some small RNA pathways upregulate 165 gene expression (Li et al. 2006; Shibuya et al. 2009; Fröhlich and Vogel 2009). Further investigation of the 166 functional role of these RNAs is clearly warranted, given an emerging view of the general importance of 167 small RNAs in plant sex-determining systems (Akagi et al. 2014; Müller et al. 2020). 168

Finally, we note that while the divergence of G-locus haplotypes predates the *Juglans* radiation, our phylogeny inference suggests it is more recent than the divergence of *Juglans* with its closest cousins, *Pterocarya* and *Cyclocarya*, and the relationships of non-*Juglans* sequences resemble previously estimated species trees for these taxa (Fig. 2C). Consistent with this, we found no evidence of the G-locus structural variant in resequencing data from multiple individuals from each of *Cyclocarya*, *Pterocarya*, and *Platycarya* (Fig. S8).

### <sup>174</sup> A supergene controls heterodichogamy in *Carya*

While heterodichogamy has been suggested as the ancestral state of Juglandaceae, our results indicate that 175 the Juglans G-locus is specific to walnuts. To identify the basis of the trait in pecan (C. illinoinensis), we 176 generated whole-genome resequencing data from 18 pecan varieties of known dichogamy type and combined 177 these with existing data for 12 additional varieties (Xiao et al. 2021) to perform a GWAS for dichogamy 178 type. We identified a single peak of strong association at a locus on chromosome 4, with many alleles in 179 strong LD (Fig. 3, S17), consistent with previous QTL mapping (Bentley et al. 2019). This pecan G-locus 180 region is not homologous with the Juglans G-locus, implying either convergent origins of heterodichogamy 181 within Juglandaceae, or a single origin followed by turnover in the underlying genetic mechanism. 182

We identified a large segregating structural variant in pecan (445 kb in the primary haplotype-resolved assembly of 'Lakota', Gg diploid genotype) overlapping the location of the GWAS peak that is perfectly associated with dichogamy type (Fig. 3C), and confirmed the genotype of two known protogynous allele



Figure 3: The G-locus in Carya. A) GWAS for dichogamy type in 30 pecan varieties identifies a single peak of strong association on chromosome 4. B) Zoomed in view of the GWAS peak. Boxes underneath plot indicate positions of predicted genes. Red boxes are those that fall within the region of strong association. C) Normalized average read depth in 1 kb windows across the location of the GWAS hit reveals a structural variant segregating in perfect association with dichogamy type. D) Nucleotide divergence between G-locus haplotypes within coding sequence is strongly elevated against the genome-wide background. Dotted line shows the genome-wide average for coding sequence, shaded interval shows 99% quantile. Colored tick marks at bottom show locations where other Carya species are heterozygous for SNPs that are fixed between pecan G-locus haplotypes. Blue -North American, red - East Asian. E) The phylogeny of the G-locus is discordant with the species tree, reflecting trans-species polymorphism. Carya G-locus haplotypes diverged after the split with Juglans and were present in the most recent common ancestor of Carya. F) Gene-level synteny for assemblies of both G-locus haplotypes in pecan and East Asian Carya, and J. regia. G haplotypes are longer than g haplotypes in both major Carya clades due to accumulation of transposable elements. Colored boxes show positions of genes in each assembly, with color indicating the strand (blue - plus, green - minus). Red bands connect orthologous genes that fall within the GWAS peak in pecan; gray bands connect genes outside the region. Individual gene trees that support the trans-species polymorphism are indicated with asterisks along the top. Black bands and daggers indicate two genes that appear to be uniquely shared by North American and East Asian G haplotypes.

homozygotes (GG), 'Mahan' and 'Apache' (Thompson and Romberg 1985; Bentley *et al.* 2019). Coverage patterns indicated the primary assembly of 'Lakota' is of the *G* haplotype. Consistent with this, coverage patterns against the alternate assembly of 'Lakota' and against the reference assembly of 'Pawnee' (protandrous, *gg*) identified both as *g* haplotype assemblies (Fig. S20).

In contrast to the Juglans G-locus, the Carya G-locus contains approximately 20 predicted protein-coding 190 genes (Fig. 3B, red boxes, Table S4). Gene-level syntemy is highly conserved between the Carya G-locus 191 haplotypes (Fig. 3F). Segregating copy number variation is largely localized to intergenic regions, though we 192 see several indels within coding sequence (Fig. S18). Several of these genes have well-characterized homologs 193 involved in flowering (e.g. FIL1, EMS1, SLK2, CEN, see Table S4) with plausible roles in the development 194 of alternate dichogamy types. We found 237 nonsynonymous fixed differences between the pecan haplotypes 195 across these 20 genes, suggesting many potential functional candidates. However, applying the McDonald-196 Kreitman test to each gene, the ratio of nonsynonymous to synonymous substitutions vs. polymorphisms 197 did not identify any signals of adaptive evolution. We note however that two of these genes with annotated 198 functional roles in flowering, EMS1 and FIL1, were previously identified in a small set of highly differentially 199 expressed genes between male catkin buds of protandrous and protogynous cultivars in the season prior to 200 bloom near when a differential in anther development is first established (Rhein et al. 2023). Arabidopsis 201 mutants of EMS1 fail to form pollen tetrads (Zhao et al. 2002), and protogynous pecans have a delayed 202 progression from pollen tetrads to mature pollen as compared to protandrous pecans (Stuckey 1915). FIL1 203 homologs are expressed uniquely or predominantly in stamens (Nacken et al. 1991, Fig. S19) and were found 204 to be a downstream target of the B class MADS-box transcription factor *DEFICIENS* in Antirrhinum 205 (Nacken *et al.* 1991) (the ortholog of Arabidopsis AP3). 206

We found strongly elevated nucleotide divergence between Carya G-locus haplotypes against the genome-207 wide background, suggesting that they could have been maintained as an ancient balanced polymorphism 208 (Fig. 3D). To search for evidence of trans-species polymorphism of the Carya G-locus, we compared the 209 North American pecan to two long-read genome assemblies from species in the East Asian Carya clade (C. 210 sinensis and C. cathayensis, Zhang et al. 2023), spanning the deepest split within the genus (see Fig. 3E 211 for species tree). Patterns of read depth of the pecan whole-genome resequencing reads against these two 212 assemblies suggested that the C. cathayensis and C. sinensis assemblies represent the q and G haplotypes, 213 respectively (Fig. S21). This was further supported by elevated nucleotide divergence between the assemblies 214 in this region (Fig. S22) and shared nonsynonymous coding polymorphisms with pecan haplotypes (Fig. 215 S18). We next constructed a maximum-likelihood consensus phylogeny from concatenated protein-coding 216 sequence from the 20 G-locus genes, and found that it conflicts with the species tree, with C. cathayensis 217 clustering with the pecan q haplotype and C. sinensis clustering with the pecan G haplotype (both 100%) 218 bootstrap support). Finally, we used whole-genome resequencing data from 16 individuals (15 from Huang 219 et al. 2019, 1 from this study) representing 15 different Carya species to examine heterozygosity at the 220 G-locus across the genus. We ascertained in pecan a set of 454 SNPs in coding sequence that were fixed 221 between G-locus haplotypes. We found 8/16 individuals in this sample that are highly heterozygous at these 222 SNPs (25-74%, the other half being 1-5%), consistent with these individuals being heterozygous for the 223 G-locus and with dichogamy types being maintained at 50/50 proportions in species across the entire genus 224 (Figs. S23, S24). We conclude from these multiple lines of evidence that the Carya G-locus haplotypes are 225 at least as old as the divergence between Eastern North American and East Asian clades of Carya, a depth 226 of ~25 Mya (Zhang et al. 2013; Mu et al. 2020; Zhou et al. 2021). 227

If variation at the Carya G-locus controlled dichogamy types in the ancestor of Juglans and Carya, we 228 would expect that nucleotide divergence between the Carya G-locus haplotypes should match nucleotide 229 divergence between pecan and the orthologous sequence in Juglans. Divergence between Carya G-locus 230 haplotypes at four-fold degenerate sites across the core set of Carya G-locus genes that group by haplotype 231 was significantly less than that between either Carya haplotype and J. regia (0.055 vs. 0.067, P < 0.001), 232 implying that the Carya G-locus haplotypes diverged more recently than the Juglans-Carya split. Assuming 233 a molecular clock and a divergence time of 58-72 Mya between Juglans and Carya (Zhang et al. 2013; Mu 234 et al. 2020; Zhou et al. 2021), we estimate the age of the Carya G-locus haplotypes to be 48-59 Mya. 235

The *G* haplotype is rarely found in homozygotes due to strong disassortative mating under heterodichogamy, and it seems to experience little recombination (Fig. S17), so it may experience similar evolutionary forces to non-recombination portions of Y chromosomes (Bachtrog 2013). The pecan *G* haplotype (445 kb) is over twice as large as the *g* haplotype (200 kb), largely due to a difference in transposable element

content within the region of reduced recombination (q: 40%, G: 65%, genome average: 53%, Fig. S25). Part 240 of the transposable element expansion in the G haplotype may be ancient, given parallel coverage patterns 241 and assembly lengths for the East Asian G-locus haplotypes; the C. sinensis G assembly is  $\sim 350$  kb, while 242 the C. cathayensis g assembly is  $\sim 230$  kb. This proliferation of transposable elements within G haplotypes 243 might reflect reduced efficacy of selection on the G haplotype due to its lower effective population size and 244 the enhanced effects of linked selection due to its low recombination rate (Charlesworth and Charlesworth 245 2000). Consistent with G haplotypes having a reduced effective population size and/or stronger linked se-246 lection, we observe a  $\sim 6$  fold reduction in genetic diversity in coding regions for G haplotypes compared to 247 q haplotypes ( $\pi = 0.0111$  vs. 0.0018, P < 0.013). 248

Theory and data suggests that supergenes (e.g. sex chromosomes) may progressively assemble over time. 249 perhaps through the accumulation of morph-antagonistic variation. While broad syntemy of 20 predicted 250 protein-coding genes across Carya G-locus assemblies is conserved as far back as the divergence with oaks 251  $(\sim 90 \text{ Mya}, \text{Larson-Johnson 2016})$  (Fig. S26), we do note several predicted protein-coding genes that differ 252 among Carya G-locus assemblies (Fig. 3F, Table S5). Notably, two of these appear to be derived and 253 shared between North American and East Asian G haplotypes and so warrant further attention (Table S5, 254 methods). While the majority of gene trees across the G-locus support the trans-species polymorphism for 255 the four Carya assemblies, we also note that the three genes at the left border (including EMS1) and the 256 gene at the right border instead support the species phylogeny for these four taxa (Fig. 3F). Furthermore, 257 we do not see clear evidence for trans-species polymorphism within these genes in the East Asian clade (Figs. 258 3D, S24). These observations, and the lower divergence between pecan G-locus halotypes in the three genes 259 at the left border, suggest the boundary of recombination suppression at the G-locus may have changed 260 since the divergence of the North American and East Asian Carya, perhaps after the appearance of genetic 261 variation in neighboring genes with antagonistic fitness effects between the two dichogamy morphs. 262

Genetic systems for heterodichogamy in other genera Our estimate of the age of the Carya G-locus 263 haplotypes suggests that we do not expect to find these haplotypes segregating in other known heterodi-264 chogamous genera within Juglandaceae - Cyclocarya, Platycarya, and likely Pterocarya - which are all more 265 closely related to Juglans than to Carya. Nonetheless, we considered the possibility that a subset of the 266 pecan G-locus variation could be ancestral across heterodichogamous genera, or that there has been conver-267 gent use of the same region. Therefore, we examined heterozygosity at the region syntenic with the Carya 268 G-locus in a sample of 13 Pterocarya, 12 diploid Cyclocarya (including protandrous and protogynous indi-269 viduals, Qu et al. 2023), and 3 Platycarya strobilaceae, but we found no evidence of increased polymorphism 270 in this region comparable to the patterns seen in Carya (Fig. S27). As our analyses also indicate that 271 heterodichogamy in these genera is not controlled by the Juqlans G-locus (Fig. 2C, S8, S28), this suggests 272 the intriguing possibility that additional genetic systems controlling heterodichogamy in other Juglandaceae 273 genera remain undiscovered. 274

#### 275 Discussion

The genetic mechanisms underlying heterodichogamy appear to be more diverse than previously appreciated. 276 Within Juglandaceae, two distinct ancient structural variants underlie this mating polymorphism in different 277 genera. The identification of these loci opens further opportunities to study the ecology and the molecular 278 and cellular mechanisms of this mating system with potential agricultural benefits in these important crop 279 species. Our data cannot rule out the possibility that these genetic systems originated independently through 280 the convergent evolution of heterodichogamy. However, given the clade-wide presence of heterodichogamy 281 across Juglandaceae, it seems plausible that a heterodichogamous mating system evolved once in the ancestor 282 and that genetic control of dichogamy type has been subject to turnover. Similar dynamics have been 283 discovered in sex determination systems as new data and experiments improve both the phylogenetic scale 284 and resolution of sex-chromosome turnover (Myosho et al. 2012; Jeffries et al. 2018; Hu et al. 2023). As 285 heterodichogamy unites concepts of inbreeding avoidance, sexual interference, and sex-ratio selection, these 286 systems may offer an important complement for testing theories on the evolution of the control and turnover 287 of sexual systems (Sargent et al. 2006; Van Doorn and Kirkpatrick 2007; Kozielska et al. 2010; Blaser et al. 288 2013; Saunders et al. 2018). In summary, the evolution of heterodichogamy within Juglandaceae showcases 289

<sup>290</sup> both dynamic evolution and remarkable stability.

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## <sup>299</sup> Materials and Methods

Phenotyping We phenotyped 81 individuals of a naturally-occuring population of J. hindsii from the 300 UC Davis Putah Creek Riparian Reserve, along a  $\sim 2$  mile creek-side path, in spring of 2022 and 2023. 301 Dichogamy type was ascertained visually based on the relative developmental stages of male and female 302 flowers. To validate our assessment of flowering phenotype we measured the length and width of 1-3 catkins 303 of each tree on the same day and plotted the size distribution of catkins in the sample (Fig. 1A). We similarly 304 obtained dichogamy phenotypes for individuals of J. ailantifolia, J. californica, J. cathayensis, J. cinerea, 305 and J. major from trees at USDA Wolfskill Experimental Orchard in spring 2023. Phenotypes of newly 306 sequenced C. illinoinensis from UC Davis orchards were also scored. Dichogamy phenotypes were available 307 for 26 previously sequenced individuals of J. regia from UC Davis walnut breeding program records (Stevens 308 et al. 2018). Flowering phenotypes for J. microcarpa and J. hindsii trees that were previously sequenced 309 in Stevens et al. (2018) were obtained from the USDA Wolfskill Experimental Orchard database (Chuck 310 Leslie, personal communication). Phenotypes of previously sequenced J. nigra individuals (Stevens et al. 311 2018) were obtained from Chatwin et al. (2023). Phenotypes of previously sequenced varieties of pecan (Xiao 312 et al. 2021) were obtained from Bentlev et al. (2019). Phenotypes of newly sequenced pecan varieties were 313 scored visually in spring of 2023 or otherwise obtained from Bentley et al. (2019) and the USDA database 314 (https://cgru.usda.gov/carya/pecans/). 315

We measured the length of dormant catkin buds in 30 *J. regia* individuals on July 20, 2023. Measurements were made blind with respect to phenotype with the exception of 3 varieties which were known a priori. We took an average measurement of 6-12 of the largest easily accessible catkins using hand calipers. We tested for a difference in length using a linear model with leafing date as a covariate (Fig. S9).

Genomic sequencing and data curation We generated whole-genome resequencing (mean coverage 320  $\sim$ 35x) data for 46 J. hindsii; 2 individuals each from J. ailantifolia, J. californica, J. cathayensis, J. cinerea, 321 J. major: 19 C. illinoinensis: 1 C. ovata: 13 Pterocarya stenoptera: 2 Pterocarya rhoifolia: 1 Pterocarya 322 macroptera; and 2 Platycarya strobilaceae (Table S1). Samples of J. hindsii were a subset of trees pheno-323 typed from the UC Davis Putah Creek Riparian Reserve, CA, plus two additional trees without dichogamy 324 phenotypes from the same population. Other sequenced Juglans trees were from USDA Wolfskill Exper-325 imental Orchard. Samples of *Pterocarya stenoptera* were obtained from Wolfskill and UC Davis campus. 326 Samples of *Carya illinoinensis* were obtained from UC Davis orchards and the original orchard of Linwood 327 Nursery in Turlock, California. Leaf tissue was flash frozen in liquid nitrogen and preserved at -80 degrees 328 Celsius. DNA was extracted using the Qiagen DNeasy Plant Pro Kit. 329 We accessed published whole-gene resequencing data from 87 individuals of J. regia from Ding et al. 330

(2022); Ji et al. (2021), 60 individuals of *J. mandshurica* from (Xu et al. 2021), and 26 *J. regia*, 11 *J. hindsii*, *J. microcarpa*, and 13 *J. nigra* from Stevens et al. (2018). Published resequencing data for *Cyclocarya* and *Platycarya* were obtained from Qu et al. (2023) and Zhang et al. (2019), respectively. We used publicly available long-read genome assemblies of plants within *Fagales* generated by Zhu et al. (2019); Marrano et al. (2020); Fitz-Gibbon et al. (2023); Zhang et al. (2021); Lovell et al. (2021); Zhang et al. (2023); Ding et al. (2023); Ning et al. (2020); Li et al. (2022a); Zhang et al. (2020); Sork et al. (2022); Qu et al. (2023); Cao et al. (2023); Guzman-Torres et al. (2023).

We accessed mRNA transcriptome sequence data from floral tissues of *J. mandshurica* from Qin *et al.* (2021) and Li *et al.* (2022b). We accessed small RNA sequencing libraries from floral buds of a protogynous and protandrous individual of *J. mandschurica* from Li *et al.* (2023).

We accessed whole-genome resequence data for 34 varieties of C. illinoinensis from Xiao et al. (2021). We 341 verified the variety identity for 12 of these samples by comparison of genetic relatedness at overlapping sets 342 of SNPs to reduced representation sequence data from 83 varieties of cultivated pecan from Bentley et al. 343 (2019). The remainder of these samples were not used in the analysis, as several were labelled as varieties 344 that did not match their predicted identity using data from Bentley et al. (2019). We chose the data from 345 Bentley et al. (2019) as the standard as dichogamy type was rigorously documented for the trees in this data 346 set. Whole-genome resequencing for 15 Carya individuals of different species were obtained from Huang 347 et al. (2019). 348

Sequence alignment, variant calling, and coverage analyses We mapped short read sequencing 349 libraries to available long-read reference genomes using bwa 0.7.17 (Li and Durbin 2009) with default param-350 eters. To examine structural differences between G-locus haplotyes, we used BLAST (Altschul et al. 1990) 351 to identify and align syntenic regions containing TPPD-1 orthologs. We used both minimap2 (Li 2018) 352 and Anchorwave (Song et al. 2022) to align entire chromosomes and G-locus regions for variant calling and 353 divergence calculations. In one analysis, we aligned all available genomes to the Walnut 2.0 (q haplotype) 354 (Fig. S7). For divergence calculations, we aligned genomes containing alternate G-locus haplotypes within 355 species for J. regia, J. californica, and J. mandschurica using Anchorwave. As Anchorwave uses a genome 356 annotation in the alignment, we used *liftoff* (Shumate and Salzberg 2021) to port the Walnut 2.0 annotation 357 onto assemblies lacking an annotation. Variant calling was done with bcftools 1.17 (Danecek et al. 2021). 358 Variants were filtered in vcftools 0.1.16 (Danecek et al. 2011). Filters were set at minDP 10 and minGQ 30 359 for most analyses, but were adjusted on a per-analysis basis. We measured read depth in windows across 360 G-loci in Juglans and Carya using samtools depth (Danecek et al. 2021). Read depth was normalized for 361 each individual by the average read depth across a different chromosome which was chosen arbitrarily. 362

We used Salmon (Patro et al. 2017) to align RNA-seq data transcripts to a transcriptome of J. mand-363 shurica and tximport (Soneson et al. 2015) to quantify normalized transcript abundances. We used STAR 364 2.7.6 (Dobin et al. 2013) to align transcripts to the reference genome to measure relative allelic depths at 365 J. mandshurica G-locus SNP positions with fixed differences. SNPs were ascertained from whole-genome 366 resequencing of 60 J. mandshurica, where we phased variants using Beagle 5.4 (Browning et al. 2021) with 367 a dummy SNP at the location of the GJ1 indel. For small RNA sequence data, we first trimmed adapter 368 sequences using skewer (Jiang et al. 2014) and filtered for reads 18-36 bp in length. Reads were aligned to 369 an assembly of the protogynous assembly of J. mandshurica using bowtie 1.3.0 (Langmead et al. 2009). We 370 used two mapping approaches, one which reported only uniquely-mapping reads with one mismatch (-v 1 371 -m 1), and one which reported reads that map to at most 10 locations in the genome with a single mismatch 372 (-v 1 -m 10). 373

**GWAS and linkage disequilibrium** We performed GWAS for dichogamy type separately in 44 individuals of *J. hindsii*, 26 *J. regia* individuals, and 30 *Carya illinoinensis* individuals. GWAS was done in GEMMA 0.98.3 (Zhou and Stephens 2012), which controls for genome-wide relatedness among samples. We calculated genotypic LD as the  $r^2$  value between genotypes at pairs of loci using *vcftools*, filtering sites for a minimum distance of 100 bp or 5 kb.

Phylogenetic analyses and syntemy To construct a phylogeny of GJ1 repeats and their homologs, 379 we extracted the genomic coordinates of individual repeat subunits from pairwise BLAST alignments. We 380 aligned subunits a, b, and c separately using *muscle* (Edgar 2004) and then concatenated alignments. We 381 constructed a maximum-likelihood phylogeny using IQ-Tree (Nguven et al. 2015) and obtained node support 382 values using the program's ultrafast bootstrap approximation algorithm. We constructed a species phylogeny 383 for Carya genome assemblies and J. regia, from concatenated alignments of 12,101 single copy orthologs 384 identified in OrthoFinder (Emms and Kelly 2019). The phylogeny of the Carya G-locus was inferred similarly 385 using just the 20 genes within the G-locus, as well as for each gene individually. We inferred and visualized 386 synteny across the Carya G-locus using MCscan (Tang et al. 2008) which leverages collinearity of orthologs. 387

While G-locus haplotypes show strong conservation of synteny, we note a small number of predicted 388 genes that are not shared between haplotypes (see Fig. 3F). None of these was annotated independently 389 in two assemblies. However, we investigated whether homologous sequence in other assemblies may have 390 been missed by the annotation pipeline. We therefore used BLAST to search for sequence homologous to 391 these uniquely annotated genes in other Carya G-locus assemblies (Table S5). For two genes that were 392 uniquely annotated in the C. sinensis assembly, we found significant BLAST hits within syntenic regions of 393 the 'Lakota' primary assembly (Fig. 3F), but not within G-locus regions of the other assemblies (although 394 we find hits elsewhere in the assemblies). This result suggests that these are ancient duplications, perhaps 395 with conserved function. However, further validation of these predicted genes with gene expression and 396 additional de novo assemblies is needed to fully address the role of gene duplications in the assembly of 397 G-locus haplotypes. 398

Haplotype nucleotide divergence and dating We calculated nucleotide divergence across the region 399 encompassing the Juglans G-locus in 500 bp windows from genome alignments using custom R scripts. We 400 find that the divergence between G-locus haplotypes is comparable to the divergence between Juglans and 401 Carya, indicating deep divergence of Juglans G-locus haplotypes, potentially occurring close in time to the 402 split between Juglans and Carya ( $\sim 70$  Myr). We used a molecular clock approach with substitution rates 403 estimated from nonsynonymous coding regions in Juglans (Ding et al. 2023; Zhu et al. 2019). Here, we used 404 alignments between G-locus haplotypes within three species (J. regia, J. californica, J. mandschurica), and 405 took the average of the maximum divergence value within any 500 bp window on either side of the G-locus 406 indels within 4 kb. We then adjusted this average value of  $D_{XY}$  for multiple hits using the Jukes and 407 Cantor (1969) distance correction. We then calculated the divergence time as  $T = D_{XY}/(2\mu)$ . Using two 408 reported estimates of the substitution rate ( $\mu = 1.5 \times 10^{-9}$  per bp per year (Ding et al. 2023), and  $2.5 \times 10^{-9}$ 409 per bp per year (Zhu et al. 2019)), we obtain estimates of 68.8 Mya and 41.3 Mya, respectively. We note 410 there is considerable uncertainty about the substitution rate for this region. Furthermore, evidence of rare 411 recombination between haplotypes within the TPPD-1 sequence over deep timescales (Fig. S5) suggests that 412 the genealogies of these linked regions in contemporary G-locus haplotypes may differ from the genealogy 413 of the causal variants. Nonetheless, these estimates accord well with the fact that the divergence between 414 Juglans G-locus haplotypes is comparable in magnitude to the divergence between Juglans and Carya in 415 this region (Fig. S6). We also note that it is consistent with trans-specific SNPs across the deepest split 416 within Juglans, the inferred GJ1 phylogeny, and read depth analyses in supporting haplotype divergence in 417 the common ancestor of Juglans. 418

To calculate divergence between pecan G-locus haplotypes, we aligned coding regions from the 'Lakota' 419 and 'Pawnee' primary assemblies and calculated  $D_{XY}$  using pixy. pixy was also used to calculate individual-420 level heterozygosity in other Carya species at pecan G-locus SNPs and SNPs that differentiated the two East 421 Asian Carya G-locus haplotypes, and to calculate heterozygosity for Pterocarya and Cyclocarya individuals 422 across regions syntenic with Juglans and Carya G-loci. We used the R package ape (Paradis and Schliep 423 2019) to calculate divergence at fourfold degenerate sites within aligned coding sequences from the Carya 424 G-locus. To estimate a divergence time, we used the ratio of the  $D_{XY}$  between Carya haplotypes and from 425 the average of both Carya haplotypes to J. regia, adjusting divergence values for multiple hits using Jukes 426 and Cantor (1969). 427

Polymorphism within haplotypes and tests of selection We examined polymorphism within G-428 locus haplotypes in a sample of 113 Juglans regia, containing individuals sampled from across the species 429 range and without reference to dichogamy type (Ding et al. 2022; Ji et al. 2021; Stevens et al. 2018). In 430 this sample, we observed 60 gg, 50 Gg, and 2 GG individuals for the G-locus structural variant. Thus, 431 proportions of protandrous and protogynous individuals are close to 50/50 in this broad sampling (P=0.46 432 under null hypothesis of equal proportions). The proportion of GG genotypes is lower than expected under 433 Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (P=0.036), consistent with disassortative mating at the G-locus or selection 434 against GG genotypes. 435

In *Juglans*, to test for an excess of nonsynonymous fixed differences between G-locus haplotypes relative to polymorphism (or conversely, an excess of nonsynonymous polymorphism), we performed a McDonald-Kreitman test for *TPPD-1* coding sequence (McDonald and Kreitman 1991) in sample of 113 *J. regia* and in a sample of 46 *J. hindsii*. To obtain data partitioned by haplotype, variants were first filtered for a minor

allele count of 2 and then phased haplotypes using Beagle 5.4 (Browning et al. 2021). In order to assign 440 haplotype identities to phased haplotypes, we added a line to the VCF with a dummy SNP representing an 441 individual's genotype for the G-locus structural variant. In J. regia, we discarded one heterozygote which 442 showed an erroneous phase switch between its two haplotypes; aside from this we saw no other evidence 443 of phasing errors TPPD-1 in heterozygotes in either species sample. Furthermore, phasing resulted in two 444 distinct clusters of haplotypes with non-overlapping distributions of the number of variants compared to 445 the reference. We used a custom R script to calculate nonsynonymous and synonymous polymorphism and 446 divergence in the sample, and performed the MK test using Fisher's exact test. We ignored singletons within 447 haplotype groups in determining fixed differences between haplotype groups. 448

In J. regia, we found 9 fixed nonsynonymous variants and 6 fixed synonymous variants in TPPD-1 cod-449 ing sequence. Using a long read alignment between J. regia and an outgroup (pecan) to polarize SNPs, we 450 identified 5 nonsynonymous and 3 synonymous fixed differences derived in the J. regia G lineage, 4 non-451 synonymous and 2 nonsynonymous derived in the q lineage, and one synonymous site with an ambiguous 452 ancestral state. We found limited polymorphism within haplotype groups in TPPD-1 coding sequence: 2 453 nonysnonymous and 1 synonymous in q haplotypes, and 4 nonysnonymous and 1 synonymous in G haplo-454 types. In J. hindsii, we observed 8 nonsynonymous and 5 synonymous fixed differences between haplotypes. 455 We observed a near complete lack of polymorphism within TPPD-1 coding sequence in this population, with 456 only one polymorphism segregating in multiple q haplotype copies, and zero polymorphisms segregating in 457 multiple G haplotype copies. 458

In pecan, we similarly phased SNPs in coding regions across the *Carya* G-locus along with with a dummy 459 SNP placed in the center of the G-locus to represent the structural variant. We saw no evidence of phasing 460 errors by checking for haplotype switching in heterozygotes. Using J. regia as an outgroup to polarize SNPs, 461 we identified 235 G-locus coding SNPs that fixed in G lineage, 118 of these nonsynonymous changes. We 462 identified 215 that fixed in g lineage, 103 of these nonsynonymous changes. Fifteen remaining fixed differences 463 had an ambiguous ancestral state where J. regia showed a different allele than either pecan haplotype. We 464 tested for a difference in  $\frac{dN}{dS}$  values between the G and g lineages using a Chi Squared test, which did not 465 yield a statistically significant result. 466

We used *pixy* to estimate pairwise nucleotide divergence ( $\pi$ ) between the sets of homozygous individuals 467 within coding sequence at the Carya G-locus (qg: 13, GG: 2). The two GG individuals are not known to 468 be close relatives from pecan pedigree records, and they do not show an unusually high kinship coefficient 469 compared to other pairs of individuals in our analysis set. To test for significance, we estimated  $\pi$  for all 470 combinations of two qq individuals, and checked whether in any case the estimated value was equal to or 471 lower than the value observed for GG individuals. We separately estimated Watterson's Theta from phased 472 haplotypes and found an 8.7-fold reduction for G haplotypes compared to q haplotypes ( $\Theta_{W,q} = 0.00106$ , 473  $\Theta_{W,G} = 0.00012$ ). 474

PacBio IsoSeq Tissues were collected from various locations at the University of California in Davis and
the USDA's National Clonal Germplasm Repository in Winters, CA. Collected tissue was wrapped in foil
and immediately immersed in liquid nitrogen in the field to preserve RNA quality. Frozen tissues were
subsequently pulverized in liquid nitrogen in a mortar and pestle for extraction.

The extraction buffer used was 4M guanidine isothiocyanate, 0.2 M sodium acetate pH 5.0, 2mM EDTA. 479 2.5% (w/v) PVP-40. To this we added 400 uL Lysis buffer to 100 mg tissue and homogenize with pestle for 480 30 seconds, then 600 uL Lysis buffer (1 mL total) was added and vortexed for 20 seconds. From this, 500 481 uL of the homogenate was processed using the RNeasy Plant Mini kit (Qiagen) according to manufacturer's 482 protocol (centrifugations steps were performed at 12,000 rpm for 30 seconds). RNA was eluted with 50 483 uL nuclease-free water at Step 9 in manufacturer's protocol. This was followed by DNase digestions with 484 Turbo DNA-free kit (Invitrogen) according to manufacturer's protocols. Finally, RNA samples were cleaned 485 up using HighPrep RNA Elite beads (MagBio Genomics) according to the manufacturer's 96 well format protocol for 10 uL reaction volume. Final elution was performed with 20 uL of nuclease-free water that was 487 heated at 60C for  $\sim 10$  minutes before adding to sample. 488

For quality control and quantitation, samples were subsequently checked for purity on Nanodrop, quantified on Qubit, and checked on Bioanalyzer.

<sup>491</sup> SMRTbell libraries were constructed and sequenced at the University of California Davis Genome center. <sup>492</sup> Sequencing was performed on the Pacbio Sequel II. Demultiplexing and post processing of sequence data to

create high quality full length non-chimera consensus transcripts (FLNC) was performed using the PacBio
 bioinformatics pipeline (ccs v4.2.0, lima v1.11.0, isoseq v3).

To determine the presence of a transcribed sequence in an IsoSeq library of (full-length non-chimeric) FLNC reads, command line blastn 2.12.0+ was used with default parameters. The sequence for the *TPPD-1* was queried against each individual library separately. Matches with a percent identity greater than or equal to 90 were considered positives.

Transposable Element Annotation We performed de-novo whole genome annotation of transposable elements (TEs) for long-read assemblies of both G-locus haplotypes in *J. regia*, *J. californica*, and *J. mandshurica* using EDTA (Ou *et al.* 2019), and compared coordinates of annotated TEs to the coordinates of the derived gJ3 insertion. EDTA predicted the presence of a CACTA-like DNA transposon at the coordinates of gJ3. We separately identified the presence of terminal inverted repeats near the gJ3 insertion endpoints and evidence of target site duplication.

We also used EDTA to annotate assemblies of 'Pawnee' and 'Lakota' pecan as well as assemblies of *Carya* sinensis and *C. cathayensis*. We computed the proportion of sequence covered by predicted TEs for three categories - (1) within the G-locus (defined by endpoints of genes falling inside the pecan GWAS peak, (2) in 300kb of sequence surrounding the G-locus (150kb on either side), and (3) across the whole genome.

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# 739 Supplementary Material



Figure S1: **A)** GWAS for dichogamy type in 26 *J. regia* individuals. **B)** Zoomed in region of strong association. Here, read mapping and variant calling was done using the Walnut 2.0 genome, an assembly from the 'Chandler' variety, a protandrous tree (gg genotype.) Highly similar results were seen mapping to an independent assembly of a protandrous variety ('Serr', Zhu *et al.* 2019) **C)** Normalized average read depth in 1 kb windows for 26 *J. regia* individuals of known genotype across the Walnut 2.0 assembly (g haplotype). Black bars indicate the position of the (gJ3) indel and gJ1-0 (See Fig. 2 in main text for notation of structural variants). The spike in coverage at gJ1-0 seen for protogynous individuals corresponds to sequencing reads originating from repeats within the GJ1 insertion in the G haplotype.



Figure S2: Gene expression levels of TPPD-1 (LOC108984907) from published short read RNA-seq libraries of J. regia 'Chandler' (gg genotype). Data from (Chakraborty et al. 2016). Y-axis measures Fragments Per Kilobase of transcript per Million mapped reads.



Figure S3: Correlation of diploid genotypes between loci (LD) in the region surrounding the G-locus in two species of Juglans. **Left**) LD in a sample of 46 from a natural population of J. hindsii. Shown for reads mapped to an assembly of the sister species J. californica which was identified as the g haplotype (same assembly as in Fig. S1D, but not Fig. 1E). For this analysis we filtered variants for a minimum minor allele freuqency of 0.1. **Right**) LD in a sample of 113 J. regia (see methods for data sources). Shown for reads mapped to the Walnut 2.0 assembly ('Chandler', gg) Red boxes from bottom left to top right indicate positions of a NDR1/HIN1-like gene, the gJ3 indel, and TPPD-1. See Fig. 2A,B for schematic of indels. Note that sequence from G haplotypes is absent within gJ3, and only g haplotypes contribute to the signal of LD for a pair of sites where one site falls within gJ3. The low levels of LD for pairs of sites where one site is within gJ3 indicates that recombination is not reduced across this region between g haplotypes relative to the genomic background.



Figure S4: Patterns of read depth from multiple species against two pseudohaploid assemblies of J. californica at the region syntenic with the GWAS hit in J. regia reveal the same segregating structural variant across multiple species in association with heterodichogamy flowering type. The gray bar indicates the location of the TPP ortholog in each assembly, and the arrow indicates direction of transcription. Read depth was normalized by the average coverage across an arbitrarily chosen separate chromosome. Protandrous individuals are known genotype hh, while the genotype of protogynous individuals is not known a priori without pedigree information. One homozygote for the protogynous allele is known in J. regia (variety 'Sharkey', Gleeson (1982)). Read depth for the J. nigra 'Hay' variety also indicate it is homozygous for the protogynous allele.



Figure S5: Polymorphism within the *TPPD-1* gene and its 3' region (GJ1-0) in Juglans G-locus haplotypes. **A**) Species phylogeny for J. regia, J. mandschurica, J. microcarpa, J. nigra, and J. californica, adapted from Mu et al. (2020); Zhou et al. (2021). **B**) Polymorphism in G-locus haplotypes for 3 species reprenting the two deepest splits in the Juglans phylogeny (i.e.  $\sim$ 35-50 Myr ago). Numbers along top indicate positions of nucleotides in the Walnut 2.0 reference genome. Singletons are omitted from the sample. Diagonal lines connect SNP genotypes to their locations within the gene model of *TPPD-1*. Below, rectangles indicate exons - gray rectangles represent UTRs, and brown rectangles represent CDS. SNPs that consistently group by haplotype in this sample are localized to the 3' UTR or within *GJ1-0*, but within *TPPD-1* CDS, polymorphisms quickly transition to grouping by species. The black vertical line indicates the border between the 3'UTR and the CDS of the last (sect. Rhysocaryon, ~10 Myr divergence). The phylogenetic relationships between these taxa are not well-resolved. In this case, trans-specific polymorphism extends across the *TPPD-1* coding region.



Figure S6: Nucleotide divergence of *Juglans* G-locus haplotypes in comparison with nucleotide divergence between *Juglans* and *Carya*. Nucleotide divergence is shown for 500 bp windows calculated from genome alignments of both G-locus haplotypes in three *Juglans* species spanning the two deepest divergence events in the genus. Nucleotide divergence between alternate haplotypes is comparable that observed between *Juglans* and *Carya*.



Figure S7: Nucleotide divergence of Juglandaceae genomes across the g haplotype of J. regia 'Chandler', calculated in 500bp windows from whole-genome alignments. Dotted gray lines show the average calculated over the entire aligned chromosome. Shaded gray interval indicates the top 95% quantile.



J. californica G haplotype

Figure S8: Normalized average read depth in 1kb windows for 12 individuals of *Cyclocarya paliurus* (sample contains both protandrous and protogynous individuals, Qu *et al.* 2023), 13 *Pterocarya stenoptera*, and 3 *Platycarya strobilaceae* against an assembly of the *Juglans G* haplotype from *J. californica*. Blue rectangle and arrow indicates the position of *TPPD-1* in the assembly.



Figure S9: Protandrous and protogynous morphs of *J. regia* differ in size of male catkin buds in the season prior to flowering ( $\beta = 2 \text{ mm}$ , P<0.001). We fit a linear model predicting catkin bud length from dichogamy type with leafing date as a covariate. While leafing date was not a significant predictor, we note that the slope estimate is in the expected direction. Notably, the earliest leafing protogynous varieties have catkin buds roughly of similar size to the latest leafing protandrous varieties.



Figure S10: Reanalysis of RNA-seq experiment from Li *et al.* (2022b). The authors generated RNA-seq from male and female inflorescences at three developmental stages: S1 - dormant buds collected in the season prior to flowering; S2 - season of flowering, prior to anthesis; S3 - mature flowers. We measured relative read depth in each sample at SNPs within *TPPD-1* that are fixed between *J. mandshurica* G-locus haplotypes, ascertained from whole-genome resequencing data 31 individuals of this species (Zhang *et al.* 2021). We verified that the difference in allele-specific depth is not a mapping artefact by mapping the reads to assemblies of both haplotypes. Each unique tissue is described to have 3 biological replicates, although relatedness estimates indicate that a subset of samples may represent the same genotype.



Figure S11: Reanalysis of RNA-seq experiment from Qin et al. (2021). The authors generated RNA-seq from male (m) and female (f) flower buds in the season prior to flowering. We measured relative read depth in each sample at SNPs within TPPD-1 that are fixed between J. mandshurica G-locus haplotypes, ascertained from whole-genome resequencing data 60 individuals of this species (36 G, 84 g haplotypes) (Xu et al. 2021). Similar to the data from (Li et al. 2022b), these data indicate that TPPD-1 is relatively highly expressed in male catkin buds, and that this is driven by allele-specific expression of the G haplotype copy of TPPD-1. We verified that this is not a mapping artefact caused by reference bias by mapping the reads to assemblies of both haplotypes. We note the authors described sampling both "male-precursor" and "female-precursor" types, which we take to mean protandrous and protogynous. Two of the male bud samples with high expression are labelled as "female-precursor," while one is labelled "male-precursor." These three samples contain multiple SNP alleles that are fixed in a large sample J. mandshurica G haplotypes, so we infer they are all from protogynous trees. Notably, RNA-seq reads from these samples contain only G variants and no g variants. While one explanation is that these individuals are homozygotes for the G allele, we saw zero GG heterozygotes in whole-genome resequencing of 60 individuals of this species, and relatedness estimates are consistent with these samples representing 3 unique genotypes, so this is extremely unlikely. Moreover, expression of the g copy is low in all samples and completely missing in several in both this dataset and in Fig. S10. Thus, we conclude this pattern reflects a strong bias in allele-specific expression toward the G haplotype copy of TPPD-1 in male catkin buds of protogynous J. mandshurica individuals.



Figure S12: Reanalysis of RNA-seq data generated by Dang *et al.* (2016). The authors sequenced an RNA library pooled from four different tissues (leaf, bud, male flower, and female flower) from a single individual of *J. regia*. We identified this individual as a heterozygote by the presence of numerous SNPs in the *TPPD-1* coding region that we found to be fixed between G-locus haplotypes in a large sample (113 individuals) of this species. We measured allelic depth at 13 of these SNPs in coding sequence to quantify relative transcript abundances. The difference in read depth is statistically significant (P < 0.01). Shown for reads mapped to an assembly of the *g* haplotype. 11 out of 13 SNPs show the same direction of effect and with similar magnitude. Two SNPs show the opposite trend, both of these are in the last exon where divergence is higher, suggesting this could be an artefact of reference bias.



Figure S13: Reanalysis of a small RNA sequencing experiment from Li *et al.* (2023), where the authors sequenced small RNAs from male and female flower buds of *J. mandshurica.* (A) Small RNAs that map uniquely within the *G* haplotype of *J. mandshurica* with 1 bp mismatch tolerance. (B) Small RNAs that map to at most 10 locations in the genome with 1 bp mismatch tolerance. Colored bars indicate positions of bordering genes (*TPPD-1* shown in blue, *NDR1/HIN1*-like gene in red). Gray bar indicates the location of the *GJ1* indel.



Figure S14: Sequencing depth of small RNAs from male bud tissue of a protogynous *J. mandshurica* individual, colored according to subunit of the GJ1 indel. Repeat zero corresponds to the sequence found in both G-locus haplotypes just downstream of *TPPD-1* coding sequence. Subunit *a* of repeat zero (\*) is the 3' UTR of *TPPD1*. Total coverage shown across three technical replicates for reads that map to at most 10 locations in the genome, allowing for a single base pair mismatch. Data from (Li *et al.* 2023).

g_Jman-0	CACTTCATC	TGGAGAGAGGC TG	A C C A T T A T C A G G T T G C T T T	<b>GCAG</b> AAAA
g_Jsig-0	CACTTCATC	TCGAGAGAGGC TG	A C C A T T A T C A <mark>G G T T G C</mark> T T T	<b>GCAG</b> AAAA
g_Jnig-0	<mark>CACTTCAT</mark> C	T GAGAGAGGC TG	A C C A T T A T C A G G T T G C T T T	<b>GCA<mark>G</mark>AAAA</b>
g_Jreg-0	CACTTCATC	TCGAGAGAGGC TG	A C C A T T A T C A <mark>G G T T G C</mark> T T T	<b>GCAG</b> AAAA
g_Jcal-0	CACTTCATC	T GAGAGAGGC TG	A C C A T T A T C A <mark>G G T T G C</mark> T T T	<b>GCAG</b> AAAA
g_Jhin-0	CACTTCATC	T GAGAGAGGC TG	A C C A T T A T C A <mark>G G T T G C</mark> T T T	<b>GCAG</b> AAAA
g_Jmic-0	CAC TTCA TC	T GAGAGAGGC TG	A C C A T T A T C A <mark>G G T T G C</mark> T T T	<b>GCAG</b> AAAA
g_Jcin-0	<mark>CACTTCATC</mark>	TCGAGAGAGGC TG	ACCATTATCAGGTTGCTTT	<b>GCAG</b> AAAA
G_Jman-0	CACTTCATG	TCAAGAGAGC TTG	TA <mark>G</mark> ACAAACCCC TA T TA T TA CCA T TA TCA <mark>GG</mark> T C <mark>G</mark> C T T T	<b>GCAG</b> AAAA
G_Jreg-0	CGCTTCATC	TCAGGAGAGCTTG	TA <mark>G</mark> AAAAACCCA TA T TA T TA CCA T TA TCA <mark>GG</mark> T T <mark>G</mark> C T T T	<b>G TA G</b> AAAA
G_Jmic-0	TAC TTCA TC	TCGAGAGAGC TTG	TA <mark>G</mark> AAAAACCCA TA TTA TTA CCA TTA TCA <mark>G</mark> A TT <mark>G</mark> C TTT	GCAGAAAA
G_Jcal=0	TAC TTCA TC	TCAAGAGAGCTTG	TA <mark>G</mark> AAAAACCCCTATTATTACCATTATCA <mark>G</mark> ATT <mark>G</mark> CTTT	<b>GCAG</b> AAAA
G_Jman-1	CAC TTCA TC	TCGAGAGAGC TTG	TAGAAAA CCCCTATTACTACCATTGTCAGGTTGCTTT	<b>GC TA</b> AAAA
G_Jman-2	CAC TTTA TC	TCGAGAGAGC TTG	TA <mark>G</mark> AAAAACCCC TA TTA TTA CCA TTA TCA GG TT <mark>G</mark> C TT <mark>G</mark>	<b>GCAG</b> AAAA
G_Jman-3	CAC TTTA TC	TCGAGAGAGC TTG	TAGAAAA TCCATATTATTACCATTATCAGGTTACTTT	ACAGAAAA
G_Jman-4	CACTTTATC	TCGA TAGAGC TTG	TAGAAAAACCCCCTATTATTACCATTATCAGG TTGCTTT	GCAAAAAA
G_Jman-5	CACTTCATC	TCGAGAGAGCTTG	TA <mark>G</mark> AAAAACCCCCTATTATTACCATTATTA <mark>GG</mark> TT <mark>G</mark> CTTT	GCAGAAAA
G_Jman-6	CACTTTATC	TCGAGAGAGCTTG	TAGAAAAACCC TTATTATTACCATTATCAGG TTGC TTT	GCAAAAAA
G_Jman-7	CACTTTATC	TTGAGAGAGCTTG	TAGAAAAACCCATATTATTACCATTATCAGGTTGCTTT	<b>GCAG</b> AAAA
G_Jman-8	CACTTTATC	TCGAGAGAGCTTG	IAGAAAAACCCCCTATTATTACTATTATGAGATTGCTTT	GCAGAAAA
G_Jreg-1	CACGTCATC	T T G A G A G A G C T T G	TAGAAAAACCCCTATTATTGCCATTATCAGTTTGCTTT	GCACAAAA
G_Jreg-2	CACGTCATC	TTAAGAGAGCTTG	TAGAAAAACCCCCTATTATTACCATTTTCAGTTTGCTTT	GCAGAAAA
G_Jreg-3	CATGICATC			GCAAAAAA
G_Jreg-4	CACCTCATC			GCAGAAAA
G_Jreg-5	CACGICATC			GCAGAAAA
G_Jreg-6	CACCTCATC			
G_Jreg-7	CACCTCATCA	TCTCAACACACCTTC		
C_Ireq_9	CACOTCATCA	TCTCCAAACACCTTC		
C_lreg=10	TACGTCATC			
G_lrea_11	CACTTCATC	TCGAGAGAGCTTG		GCAGAAAA
G Irea-12	CACTTCATC	TTGAGAGAGCTTA	TAGAAAAATCCCTATTATTACCATTATTAGGTTGCTTT	GTAGAAAA
G Imic-1	CACTTCATC	TCGAGAGAGCTTG	TAGAAAAACCCCTATTATTACCATTATCAGGTTGCTTT	GCAGAAAA
G Imic-2	CACTTCATC	TCGAGAGAGCTTG	TAGAAAAACCCC TA TTA TTA CCA TTA TCAGG TTGC TTT1	<b>GCAG</b> AAAA
G Imic-3	<b>CACTTCAT</b> C	TCGAGAGAGCTTG	TA <mark>G</mark> AAAAACCCC TCTTATTACCATTATCAGGTTGC TTT	GCAGAAAA
G_Jmic-4	<mark>CACTTCAT</mark> C	T <mark>C G A G A G A G C T T T</mark>	TA <mark>G</mark> AGAAACCCC TA TTA TTA CCA TTA TTA GG TT <mark>G</mark> C TTT	Α <mark>ϹΑ</mark> ΘΑΑΑΑ
G_Jmic-5	CACTTCATC	TCGAGAGAACA TG	TA <mark>G</mark> AAAAACT <mark>CCTATTATTACCAT</mark> AAT <mark>CGGG</mark> TT <mark>G</mark> TTTT	<b>GCAG</b> AAAA
G_Jmic-6	CAC TACA TC	T <mark>GGA T</mark> AG <mark>AGC TTG</mark>	TA <mark>G</mark> AAAA <mark>G</mark> CCCCTATTATTACCATTATCA <mark>G</mark> TTT <mark>G</mark> CTTT	GCAGAAAA
G_Jmic-7	CAC TTCA TC	G TA A G A G A G C T T G	TA <mark>G</mark> AAAAATCTCTATTATTACCATTATCAGGTTGCTTT	<b>GCAG</b> AAAA
G_Jmic-8	CAC TTCA TC	TCGAGAGAGCATG	TA <mark>G</mark> AAAAACACC TA TTA TTA CCA TTA TCA <mark>GG</mark> TT <mark>G</mark> TTT T	<b>GCAG</b> AAAA
G_Jmic-9	CACTTCATC	TCAAGAGAGA	TG	<b>G T A G</b> A A A A
G_Jmic-10	CACATCATC	CCGAGAGAGCTTG	TAGAAAAA TCCC TA TTA TTA C TA TTA TCAAG TTGC TTT	GCAGAAAA
G_Jmic-11		TCGAGAGAGCTTG	TAGAAAAACTCCTATTATTACCATTATCAGGTTGC TTT	GCAAAAAA
G_Jcal-1	CACTTCATC	GAGAGAGAGCTTG	TAGAGAAACCCCCTATTATTACCATTATCAGGTTGCTTT	GCAGAAAA
G_Jcal-2	CACITCATC			GCAGAAAA
U_JCal-3 C_lcal-4	CACTTCATC			
C Ical 5	CACTTCATC	TCCACACACCAT		
C_lcal=5	CACTACATC	TCCATACACCTTC		
$G_{cal}=0$	CACTTCATC	A TAAGAGAGC TTO		
$G_{cal-8}$	CACTTCATC	TCGAGAGAGCATC	TAGAAAAACACCCATTATTACCATTATCAGGTTGCTTT	
G Ical-9	CACTTCATC	TCAAGAGAGA	TA	GTAGAAAA
G lcal-10	CACATCATC	TCGAGAGAGCTTG	TAGAAAAA TCCC TA T TA T TA C TA T TA TCAGG T TGC T T T	GCAGAAAA
G_Jcal-11	CACATCATC	TCGAGAGAGC TTG	TAGAAAAACTCCTATGATTACCATTATCAGG TTGCTTT	GCAGAAAA

Figure S15: An abundant small RNA in male catkin buds of protogynous genotypes of J. mandshurica(sRNA\_C1, 24bp, top) maps to subunit GJ1c of the GJ1 indel (see peak values in Fig. S13). We see conservation of this sequence within GJ1c repeats across species, and the sequence matches a site 800 bp downstream of TPPD-1 3' UTR that is missing in g haplotypes. 3' UTR sequences of g and G haplotypes are shown at top, and GJ1 repeat sequences from G haplotypes of four Juglans species below.

Α



Figure S16: Several small RNAs found in catkin buds of protogynous genotypes of J. mandshurica match sequence in the 3' UTR of *TPPD-1*. A) A small RNAs that matches both G and g 3' UTR sequences. B) A small RNA that matches only G 3' UTR sequence and overlaps a trans-species SNP polymorphism within the 3' UTR.



Figure S17: (A) Linkage disequilibrium is exceptionally high across the Carya G-locus, consistent with a lack of recombination between G and g haplotypes. Color indicates the strength of Pearson correlation between diploid genotypes at two loci. Red lines indicate the endpoints of genes that fall within the GWAS peak for dichogamy type in pecan. Shown for variant calls against the 'Pawnee' reference. (B) Using only genotypes of individuals homozygous for the recessive haplotype (gg), there is no signal of elevated LD across the same region, indicating recombination reduced recombination between G and g haplotypes but not between g haplotypes.



Figure S18: Conserved indels within coding sequence at the Carya G-locus. Top - candidate gene FIL1 shows a three amino acid indel that is a shared difference between G-locus haplotypes across North American and East Asian clades of Carya. Bottom - F-box protein At4g00755-like shows evidence of a conserved coding indel near the terminus of the polypeptide.



Figure S19: Gene expression levels of the J. regia ortholog of FIL1 in 20 transcriptomic libraries from different tissues. Results from the literature indicate that FIL1-homologs are expressed uniquely or predominantly in stamens Nacken *et al.* (1991). Consistent with this, we detected abundant expression of FIL1 in catkins of J. regia, and no trace of expression in other tissues. Y-axis measures Fragments Per Kilobase of transcript per Million mapped reads.



Figure S20: Normalized average read depth of pecan varieties in 1kb windows across the pecan G-locus for two assemblies of the g haplotype. **Top**) 'Pawnee' is protandrous (gg) so the assembly is known as the g haplotype a priori. **Bottom**) The alternate assembly of 'Lakota' (Gg) shows the same coverage pattern as for 'Pawnee', which is reversed compared to the 'Lakota' primary assembly (see Fig 3C in main text).



Figure S21: Read depth of pecan varieties (*C. illinoinensis*) of against two East Asian *Carya* genome assemblies. Top: Patterns of differential read depth by G-locus genotype indicate that the assembly of *C. sinensis* is of the *G* haplotype. The G-locus region in this assembly is roughly 350kb in length, closer in length to the pecan *G* haplotype than to the pecan *g* haplotype. Vertical indicate the outermost G-locus genes as defined in pecan, and these correspond roughly to the span of differential coverage patterns. Bottom: Differential read depth by G-locus genotype against the *C. cathayensis* assembly indicate it is an assembly of the *g* haplotype. The G-locus region in this assembly is roughly 230kb, closer in length to the *g* haplotype of pecan.



Figure S22: Nucleotide divergence in coding sequence between a genome assembly of *Carya sinensis* and one of *Carya cathayensis*. The elevated nucleotide divergence in the region syntenic with the pecan G-locus is further consistent with these two assemblies representing alternate haplotypes at the G-locus. Dotted horizontal line corresponds to the genome-wide weighted average for coding sequence. Dotted vertical lines indicate the positions of genes orthologous to those at the boundaries of the pecan G-locus. Below, shaded bars represent positions of genes. Red bars indicate orthologous genes contained within the region syntenic to the pecan G-locus.



Figure S23: Individual-level heterozygosity at a set of 454 SNPs in G-locus coding sequence that were ascertained as fixed differences between GG and gg genotypes in pecan. Left) Heterozygosity at these SNPs is very close to 100% for heterozygotes for the G-locus haplotypes, confirming that these vast majority of SNPs are indeed fixed differences. Right) Heterozygosity at the same set of SNPs for 16 individuals representing 15 species of *Carya* spanning the divergence between North American (black) and East Asian (gray) clades. Error bars show 95% confidence intervals for the proportion of heterozygous SNPs. Note two individuals of *C. ovata*, one of which appears to be a heterozygote for the G-locus haplotypes and the other a homozygote. The putative heterozygote in the East Asian clade, *C. kweichowensis*, is heterozygous at a lower proportion of SNPs, which would be explained by many of these SNPs having arisen after the divergence between East Asian and North American clades. Consistent with this, we note that the individual with the highest proportion of heterozygous SNPs is from *C. aquatica*, which is the sister species to *C. illinoinensis*.



Figure S24: Individual-level heterozygosity at SNPs that distinguish the *Carya sinensis* (*G*) and *Carya cathayensis* (*g*) assemblies. Four individuals from Fig. S23 are shown to illustrate trans-species polymorphism in both North American and East Asian clades for G-locus SNPs ascertained from the East Asian *Carya* assemblies. Each point corresponds to a single gene. Below, bars indicate positions of predicted genes. Red bars correspond to genes orthologous to those associated with dichogamy type in pecan (*C. illinoinensis*). **A,B**) Two individuals from the East Asian clade of *Carya*, where (A) of which is evidently a heterozygote for the G-locus haplotypes and (B) is a homozygote (see also Fig. S23). **C,D**) Two individuals of *C. ovata* from the North American clade, where (C) is a heterozygote for G-locus haplotypes and (D) is a homozygote.



Figure S25: Transposable element (TE) content within *Carya* G-locus haplotypes. (Left) Number of TEs by category within the G-locus, in 150kb of flanking sequence on either end of the H-locus, and across the entire genome for two pecan (C. *illinoinensis*) assemblies containing alternate G-locus haplotypes. (Right) TEs within the G-locus for assemblies of haplotype within the East Asian clade. In this case, the assemblies are from different species, so for simplicity we omit showing background TE content outside of the G-locus, but note the relative increase in this region for *C. sinensis* compared to *C. cathayensis* diverges from the genome-wide average pattern.



Figure S26: Gene-level synteny for pecan G-locus haplotypes and *Quercus lobata*. Gray bands connect orthologous genes. Genes are colored by strand (blue - plus, green - minus). Shown for the 20 predicted genes that fall within the pecan GWAS peak for dichogamy type and are present in the annotation of both pecan assemblies.



Figure S27: **Topeft**) Heterozygosity in 1kb windows for pecan varieties of known genotype at the *Carya* G-locus. **Topright**) Heterozygosity in 1kb windows for 12 diploid *Cyclocarya paliurus* individuals across the region syntenic with the *Carya* G-locus. Two of these individuals are of known dichogamy type (Qu *et al.* 2023). **Bottomleft**) Heterozygosity in 1kb windows for 13 diploid *Pterocarya stenoptera* individuals across the region syntenic with the *Carya* G-locus. **Bottomright**) Heterozygosity in 1kb windows for 3 diploid *Platycarya strobilaceae* individuals across the region syntenic with the *Carya* G-locus. Lines are LOESS smoothing curves fit for each individual. Dotted lines show the endpoints of the outermost G-locus orthologous genes in each assembly.



Figure S28: **Topleft**) Heterozygosity in 500bp windows for protandrous and protogynous individuals of Northern California black walnut (*J. hindsii* at the Juglans G-locus. Note the clear separation of heterozygotes from homozygotes. Lines are LOESS smoothing curves fit for each individual. Blue rectangle indicates the location of TPPD-1, red rectangle indicates the location of a NDR1/HIN1-like gene. **Topright**) Heterozygosity in 500bp windows for 12 diploid Cyclocarya paliarus individuals across the region syntenic with the Juglans G-locus. Two of these individuals represent each dichogamy type (Qu et al. 2023). **Bottomleft**) Heterozygosity in 500bp windows for 13 Pterocarya stenoptera individuals across the region syntenic with the Juglans G-locus. Two of these individuals across the region syntenic with the Juglans G-locus. Two of these individuals represent each dichogamy type (Qu et al. 2023). **Bottomleft**) Heterozygosity in 500bp windows for 13 Pterocarya stenoptera individuals across the region syntenic with the Juglans G-locus. Here, we note two individuals appear highly heterozygous to the left hand side of the NDR1/HIN1-like gene, but that individuals also show high heterozygosity in the corresponding region in J. hindsii that is not associated with dichogamy type. We also note that we did not detect G-locus structural variants in P. stenoptera and C. paliarus (Fig. ??), and our phylogeny inference (Fig. 2C) suggests we should not expect to find the Juglans G-locus structural variant segregating in Pterocarya. **Bottomright**) Heterozygosity in 500bp windows for 3 individuals of Platycarya strobilaceae, another heterodichogamous species in Juglandaceae, in the region syntenic with the Juglans G-locus.