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Title: From duplication to divergence: single-cell insights into transcriptional and *cis*-regulatory landscapes

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Short title: Expression and CRE dynamics in a paleopolyploid

Abstract

Gene duplication is a major source of evolutionary innovation, enabling the emergence of novel expression patterns and functions. Leveraging single-cell genomics, we investigated the transcriptional and *cis*-regulatory landscapes of duplicated genes in cultivated soybean (*Glycine max*), that has undergone two rounds of whole-genome duplication. Our analysis revealed extensive diversity of transcriptional profiles within and across tissues among duplicated gene pairs. Within-tissue divergence was largely attributable to genetic variation in their associated accessible chromatin regions (ACRs), where *cis*-regulatory elements reside, whereas cross-tissue divergence was more likely shaped by dynamics in ACR chromatin accessibility profiles across tissues. Distinct duplication mechanisms also likely give rise to different types of *cis*-regulatory variants, contributing variably to transcriptional divergence. By comparing ACRs associated with gene sets derived from the two rounds of whole-genome duplications and sharing a common ancestral gene, we found that most ACRs retained one or multiple corresponding duplicated sequences in which mutations gradually accumulated over time, while a subset likely arose *de novo*. Lastly, we traced the evolution of cell-type-specific expression and cell-type-specific ACRs within duplicated gene sets, illustrating a powerful framework for identifying candidate regulatory regions driving cell-type-specific expression. Collectively, our findings highlight the important role of *cis*-regulatory evolution in shaping transcriptional divergence in a spatiotemporal manner, uncovered with the resolution of single-cell genomics.

Introduction

Gene duplication is a crucial driver of evolution, providing the raw materials for new gene functions and expression patterns (Lynch and Conery 2000; Birchler and Yang 2022). It arises through small-scale duplication, such as tandem or proximal duplications, or through whole-genome duplication that replicates entire genomic segments simultaneously (Zhang 2003; Kuzmin et al. 2022). These mechanisms generate duplicated genes with varying evolutionary rates, essentiality (e.g. whether a gene is required for survival or normal growth), and functions (Freeling 2009; Qiao et al. 2019; Shi et al. 2020; Cai and Des Marais 2024; Benoit et al. 2025). In plants, a large proportion of annotated genes have duplicates, mostly derived from whole-genome duplication, consistent with the prevalence of palaeopolyploidy in land plants (Wendel 2000; Blanc and Wolfe 2004; Panchy et al. 2016; Tiley et al. 2016). The retention of these duplicates has been instrumental in shaping plant genomes and contributing to important agricultural traits (Panchy et al. 2016; Salman-Minkov et al. 2016; Benoit et al. 2025).

Retained duplicates may be subject to relaxed selective constraints, with one or both copies sometimes acquiring new functions (neofunctionalization) that contribute to adaptation or partitioning ancestral functions (subfunctionalization). However, functional divergence is not always necessary for their retention and typically unfolds over extended evolutionary timescales (Panchy et al. 2016; Birchler and Yang 2022). Multiple mechanisms have been proposed to account for the dispensability of retained duplicates (Innan and Kondrashov 2010; Panchy et al. 2016; Qiu et al. 2020). Moreover, factors such as selection and genetic drift can also influence gene retention (Panchy et al. 2016; Iohannes and Jackson 2023). On the other hand, this redundancy invariably complicates genotype-phenotype associations and limits the transferability of genetic findings across closely related species (Iohannes and Jackson 2023; Benoit et al. 2025). Despite their evolutionary and functional significance, the dynamics of gene duplication and diversification over short evolutionary timescales remain insufficiently explored (Benoit et al. 2025).

Divergent expression between duplicated genes is a widespread phenomenon and provides crucial insight into their evolution. In Arabidopsis, 70% of duplicated gene pairs

exhibit significant transcriptional differences (Ganko et al. 2007). Similarly,

approximately 50% of soybean duplicated genes, derived from whole-genome

duplication, show transcriptional divergence (Roulin et al. 2013). This divergence is

likely driven by genetic variants within regulatory regions (Wray et al. 2003; Tran et al.

2024), particularly *cis*-regulatory elements that control spatiotemporal expression

patterns (Wittkopp and Kalay 2012; Schmitz et al. 2022). In cotton, divergence in *cis*-

regulatory sequences between its diploid progenitors contributes to transcriptional

divergence in 40% of the duplicated genes (Chaudhary et al. 2009). Similar patterns

have been observed in Arabidopsis (Haberer et al. 2004), soybean (Fang et al. 2023),

strawberry (Fang et al. 2024) and additional cotton studies (Han et al. 2022; Hu et al.

2024). Despite these valuable insights, an underexplored question remains: what forms

of transcriptional divergence and which types of *cis*-regulatory variation are maintained

in duplicated genes?

Soybean (*Glycine max*) having gone through two rounds of whole-genome

duplication, approximately 59 and 13 million years ago (Schmutz et al. 2010; Koenen et

al. 2021; Zhuang et al. 2022), makes it an excellent model for exploring this question.

Gene pairs resulting from both whole-genome and small-scale duplications have been

identified in soybean (Qiao et al. 2019). Previous studies have also explored the

evolutionary fates of duplicated genes in soybean, highlighting divergence in gene

expression and the role of *cis*-regulatory control (Du et al. 2012; Zhao et al. 2017; Fang

et al. 2023). However, these studies primarily assessed transcriptional divergence at the

tissue level, often relying on differential expression as the sole metric (Fang et al. 2023),

which likely oversimplifies "divergence" and overlooks differences at the cellular level.

For instance, even when two duplicated genes exhibit similar overall expression levels

within a given tissue, they may display distinct expression patterns across different cell

types within that tissue. This raises a critical question: do tissue-level and magnitude-

based comparisons adequately capture transcriptional divergence, and to what extent

does genetic variation in *cis*-regulatory regions drive such differences? Duplicated

genes, which often retained copies of their associated regulatory regions, offer a

powerful model for dissecting these regulatory relationships. Revealingly, variation in

these regions could also result in cell-type-specific expression divergence, offering

additional insight into the regulatory basis underlying cellular specificity and informing

potential applications in synthetic biology. The recent availability of single-cell assay for

transposase-accessible chromatin sequencing (scATAC-seq) and single-nucleus RNA

sequencing (snRNA-seq) data of different soybean tissues (Zhang et al. 2024) enables

the investigation of transcriptional and *cis*-regulatory divergence at single-cell resolution

in a spatiotemporal context.

In this study, we integrated single-cell expression and chromatin accessibility

profiles to examine transcriptional and *cis*-regulatory dynamics of duplicated genes

within and across tissues. This approach provides a more nuanced understanding of

transcriptional divergence and its correlation with *cis*-regulatory sequence variation,

chromatin accessibility and gene duplication mechanisms. Given that *cis*-regulatory

elements are typically co-duplicated with genes during whole genome duplication, we

further examined their evolutionary trajectories and contributions to expression

divergence in gene sets derived from two rounds of whole-genome duplication and

sharing a common ancestral gene. Our analysis revealed that most *cis*-regulatory

elements retained one or multiple corresponding sequences across the duplicated

genes, whereas a subset likely evolved *de novo*. Lastly, we explored the evolution of

cell-type-specific expression within duplicated gene sets and the dynamics of their

associated *cis*-regulatory regions, exemplifying how integrating cell-type-specificity with

regulatory sequence conservation to identify candidate regulatory regions driving cell-

type-specific expression. Overall, our findings underscore the power of single-cell

genomics in revealing the divergence of expression and chromatin accessibility in

duplicated genes, offering key insights into the evolution of *cis*-regulatory regions and

gene duplication.

Results

Distinct within-tissue expression patterns of duplicated gene pairs

uncovered by single-cell genomics

We identified 59,351 duplicated gene pairs in soybean using the DupGen_finder

pipeline (https://github.com/qiao-xin/DupGen_finder), with common bean (*Phaseolus*

vulgaris) as the outgroup. These pairs were classified into five categories: whole-

genome duplication and four small-scale duplication, including tandem duplication

(closely adjacent duplicated genes on the same chromosome), proximal duplication

(duplicated genes located nearby on the same chromosome but separated by up to 10

other genes), transposed duplication (duplicated genes transposed to distant genomic

positions, with the ancestral copy being either intra- or inter-species colinear), and

dispersed duplication (duplicated genes scattered across the genome, neither

neighboring nor colinear)(**Fig. 1A** and **Supplementary Table S1**). Importantly, because

a single gene can experience multiple duplication events through distinct duplication

mechanisms (e.g., a gene originating from whole-genome duplication may later be

tandemly duplicated), we allowed redundancy in our classification, that is, the same

gene may be represented in more than one duplication categories across different gene

pairs. Among all identified gene pairs, whole-genome duplication derived gene pairs

represented the largest proportion (50.3%), followed by dispersed duplication (37.9%)

(**Fig. 1B** and **Supplementary Table S2**). The remaining 12% of duplicated gene pairs

arose from tandem, proximal, and transposed duplications, with transposed duplication

being the most prevalent among them (**Fig. 1B** and **Supplementary Table S2**).

We then integrated the gene pair information with the single-cell expression profiles

from each of the seven tissues - root, hypocotyl, nodule, globular stage seed, heart

stage seed, cotyledon stage seed and early-maturation stage seed to examine the

within-tissue expression dynamics (Zhang et al. 2024). Building on the methods

developed by (Benoit et al. 2025), which measured expression correlation and

differential expression of duplicated gene pairs across tissues, we adapted the

approach to assess gene expression across cell types within tissue. In addition to the

four previously described biologically meaningful expression patterns (Benoit et al. 2025)

– (1) dosage balanced, where duplicates retain similar expression profiles and levels

across cell types within a tissue (**Fig. 1C**); (2) paralogue dominance, where duplicates

share similar expression profiles but exhibit consistent level of differential expression

across cell types (**Fig. 1D**); (3) specialization, where duplicates display distinct

expression profiles, exhibiting skewed differential expression in one or multiple cell

types (**Fig. 1E**); (4) divergence, where duplicates differ in both expression profiles and

levels – we introduced a fifth category (**Fig. 1F**): (5) mono-expression, in which only one

gene in the pair is expressed whereas the other remains inactive in a given tissue (**Fig.**

1G). Additionally, gene pairs in which neither gene is expressed in the examined tissues

are classified as non-expression, whereas those that do not fit any of the above

categories are grouped as "others" (**Fig. 1H**). Notably, specialization and divergence

may represent the outcomes of subfunctionalization or neofunctionalization. Among the

five biologically meaningful expression patterns, the mono-expression category

consistently contains the most gene pairs within each individual tissue (**Fig. 2A** and

Supplementary Table S3). This is followed by dosage balanced, divergence, paralogue

dominance, and specialization patterns, except in the hypocotyl, where divergence gene

pairs outnumber dosage balanced ones, and in the early-maturation stage seed, where

paralogue dominance exceeds divergence (**Fig. 2A** and **Supplementary Table S3**).

When examining the expression patterns of gene pairs grouped by their duplication

mechanisms, we found that those derived from whole-genome duplication and

dispersed duplication exhibited similar patterns, whereas gene pairs from tandem,

proximal, and transposed duplications showed greater similarity to each other (**Fig. 2B,**

Supplementary Fig. S1 and **Table S3**). The unpredictable, seemingly random nature of

dispersed duplications (Ganko et al. 2007; Qiao et al. 2019) may explain why the

expression patterns of gene pairs derived from this mechanism differ from those derived

from other small-scale duplications. Additionally, the mechanisms underlying the

generation of dispersed duplication remain unclear with multiple possibilities proposed

(Katju and Lynch 2003; Ganko et al. 2007). Given this uncertainty, we focused on gene

pairs arising from tandem, proximal, and transposed duplications, collectively referred to

as regional duplications due to their tendency to remain within specific chromosomal

regions, to compare their expression patterns with those of gene pairs derived from

whole-genome duplication. The proportion of expressed gene pairs, where at least one

gene is active in a given tissue, varied by duplication mechanisms. For instance, in early

nodule tissue, about 60% of gene pairs from regional duplications (excluding

transposed duplication) were not expressed, whereas only 37% of gene pairs derived

from whole-genome duplication remained inactive (**Supplementary Table S3**). Among

expressed regional duplicates, most exhibited mono-expression, with only a small

fraction displaying other biologically meaningful expression patterns, such as dosage

balanced, paralogue dominance, specialization, or divergence (**Supplementary Table**

S3). These findings suggest that correlated expression patterns are more likely among

whole-genome duplication derived than regional duplication derived, consistent with

previous report in Arabidopsis, where duplicated genes originating from large-scale

duplications and retained in duplicated segments exhibit more correlated expression

patterns than those arising from small-scale duplications or those not located within

duplicated segments (Casneuf et al. 2006; Qiao et al. 2019). These observations also

support the gene balance hypothesis: whereas whole-genome duplication preserves the

relative dosage of all interacting partners, small-scale duplication is more likely to

disrupt this balance, leading to differential expression outcomes (Ohno 1970; Freeling

2009; Defoort et al. 2019; Kuzmin et al. 2022).

Genetic variation in ACRs and its correlation with within-tissue expression patterns of duplicated gene pairs

Cis-regulatory variants are thought to drive transcriptional divergence in duplicated

gene pairs and contribute to their retention (Iohannes and Jackson 2023); to explore

this, we analyzed Accessible Chromatin Regions (ACRs), where *cis*-regulatory elements

reside, from scATAC-seq data in seven tissues corresponding to the snRNA-seq data

(Zhang et al. 2024). For each gene pair, we associated ACRs with duplicated genes

based on their proximity.

To assess genetic variation in ACRs associated with duplicated gene pairs, we

used a BLAST-based approach following the method of (Mendieta et al. 2024). For each

gene pair, the ACR sequence associated with one duplicated gene was used as the

query, whereas the reference was defined as the genomic region spanning from the

upstream to the downstream gene of the corresponding duplicate (**Fig. 3A**). This

approach accounts for the possibility that the ACR linked to the corresponding duplicate

may be positioned between it and either its upstream or downstream gene. Conserved

ACRs were defined based on the BLASTed ratio, calculated as the length of the

BLASTed sequence within the reference region divided by the length of the query ACR.

ACRs with BLASTed ratios greater than 0.1, corresponding to approximately 50 bp in
length, were considered conserved (**Fig. 3B**).
We found that gene pairs exhibiting dosage balanced had the highest percentage
of conserved ACRs, whereas divergence gene pairs had the lowest (**Fig. 3C**,
Supplementary Fig. S2A and **Table S4**). Dosage balanced gene pairs exhibit the most
similar expression profiles and levels (**Fig. 1C**), whereas divergence gene pairs show
great divergence (**Fig. 1F**). We also tested stricter BLASTed ratio thresholds for defining
conserved ACRs (> 0.2, 0.4, 0.6 and 0.8). As expected, the proportion of conserved
ACRs generally decreased with increasing thresholds (**Supplementary Table S4**).
Nevertheless, the trend remained consistent: higher percentage of conserved ACR
correlating with greater expression similarity between duplicated genes
(**Supplementary Table S4**). Based on these observations, we focused subsequent
analyses on conserved ACRs defined using the 0.1 threshold. Further examination of
genetic variation between conserved ACRs and their corresponding BLASTed
sequences, including BLASTed ratio and mismatch rate (calculated as the ratio of
mismatches between the BLASTed sequence and the ACR query to the BLASTed
sequence length), revealed greater ACR sequence divergence in gene pairs with
divergence expression pattern (**Fig. 3D**, **Supplementary Fig. S2B,** and **Table S4**). We
also quantified unBLASTed ACRs, those lacking detectable counterparts in their
associated duplicated genes, potentially resulting from *de novo* emergence or loss of
cis-regulatory sequences. Divergence, "others" and mono-expressed gene pairs had
relatively higher proportions of unBLASTed ACRs, particularly compared to dosage-
balanced gene pairs (**Fig. 3E, Supplementary Fig. S2C and Table S4**).
Another interesting observation is that, when examining the number of ACRs
associated with each gene within a pair, non-expressed and mono-expressed pairs
more frequently exhibited asymmetric ACR association, where only one gene had linked
ACRs whereas the other had none (**Fig. 3F**, **Supplementary Fig. S2D,** and **Table S5**).
In contrast, divergence gene pairs with even higher unBLASTed ratios did not exhibit
this pattern (**Fig. 3F**, **Supplementary Fig. S2D,** and **Table S5**). This suggests that while
ACRs might be conserved at the sequence level, their chromatin accessibility can differ
between duplicates, potentially influencing whether a gene is expressed or not. Together,

these observations highlight a correlation between expression divergence and ACR

dynamics, shaped both by sequence divergence between conserved ACRs and their

corresponding counterparts, and by variation in accessibility despite sequence

conservation.

When further examining genetic variation in ACRs associated with gene pairs

grouped by different duplication mechanisms, distinct patterns emerged

(**Supplementary Fig. S3** and **Table S6**). Tandem-duplicated gene pairs exhibited the

highest proportion of conserved ACRs, the highest BLASTed ratios and the lowest

mismatch rates (**Supplementary Fig. S3**), but this did not correspond to stronger

expression correlation (e.g., dosage-balanced or paralogue dominance) (**Fig. 2B and**

Supplementary Fig. S1). This discrepancy may reflect limitations of our current method,

which tends to map ACRs back to themselves for tandem-duplicated genes (**Fig. 3A**), or

it may result from other factors impacting transcriptional activities, such as positional

effects, DNA folding or competition for transcription factors. In contrast, dispersed- and

transposed- duplicated pairs displayed markedly different ACR genetic variation: low

proportions of conserved ACRs, low BLASTed ratios, relatively high mismatch rates,

and elevated fractions of unBLASTed ACRs (**Supplementary Fig. S3** and **Table S6**).

Proximal-duplicated pairs, by comparison, exhibited variation patterns comparable to

those of whole-genome duplication derived pairs, except with slightly higher BLASTed

ratios (**Supplementary Fig. S3** and **Table S6**). These findings suggest that *cis*-

regulatory elements are possibly more frequently co-duplicated with tandem and

proximal duplicates, as they were with whole-genome duplicates in which *cis*-regulatory

elements were entirely duplicated (Shoemaker et al. 2006), whereas variation in the

presence or absence of duplicated *cis*-regulatory elements appears more common in

transposed and disperse duplicates (Qiao et al. 2019). Collectively, these results

indicate that different duplication mechanisms likely give rise to different types of *cis*-

regulatory variants, thereby shaping transcriptional divergence differently.

Transcriptional and ACR dynamics of duplicated gene pairs across tissues

By assigning each gene pair an expression pattern - non-expressed, "others", mono-expressed, dosage balanced, paralogue dominance, specialization and divergence - across the seven examined tissues, we were able to characterize their cross-tissue transcriptional dynamics. In total, we identified 1,306 distinct expression combination patterns (**Supplementary Table S7)**. Among the top 86 most prevalent patterns, each represented by at least 100 gene pairs, the most common involved gene pairs that were mono-expressed in at least one tissue and non-expressed in the remaining tissues, collectively accounting for over 20% of all gene pairs (**Fig. 4A** and **Supplementary Table S7)**. Gene pairs with consistent mono-expression across all seven tissues also ranked high, representing the third most common pattern (**Fig. 4A** and **Supplementary Table S7**). Notably, in these pairs, the same gene was always consistently expressed across tissues (**Supplementary Fig. S4** and **Table S8**), aligning with previous observations that differential expression within gene pairs tend to occur in the same direction across tissues (Roulin et al. 2013). The second most common pattern was complete non-expression across all tissues, which is unsurprising given the limited number of tissues included in this study (**Fig. 4A** and **Supplementary Table S7**).

The inclusion of multiple organs, root, hypocotyl, early nodule and seed, as well as seed sampled across distinct developmental stages, globular, heart, cotyledon, and early-maturation stages, further enabled us to assess the stability of gene pair expression patterns across both spatial and temporal dimensions. To facilitate interpretation, we consolidated expression patterns into four simplified categories: non-expressed, mono-expressed, correlated-expressed (dosage balanced, paralogue dominance, and specialization), and uncorrelated-expressed (divergence and "others") (**Supplementary Table S9**). For each gene pair, we quantified the number of unique shared expression categories observed across organs or stages (**See Methods for details**). More than half of the gene pairs had a single shared expression category across stages (67.3%) and organs (56.9%) (**Fig. 4B**), indicating generally high consistency of expression patterns across tissues. Notably, 47% of gene pairs shared a single category across both stages and organs, although many of these were non- or mono-expressed (**Supplementary Table S9**). Fewer gene pairs shared a single

category and more shared two or three categories across organs than across stages
(**Fig. 4B**), suggesting greater transcriptional dynamics across organs. When examining
expression stability of gene pairs grouped by their duplication mechanisms, these
differences between across stages and across organs remained largely consistent;
however, gene pairs derived from regional duplications exhibited a markedly higher
proportion of only one shared category, compared with those derived from whole-
genome or dispersed duplications (**Supplementary Table S10** and **Fig. S5**).
While gene pairs exhibit varied expression patterns across tissues, the genetic
variants within their associated ACRs are determined by the underlying DNA sequence
and remain unchanged across stages or organs. Consequently, these cross-tissue
dynamics is unlikely to be driven directly by such genetic variants, aside from potential
trans- effects, but rather by whether the same or different ACRs are accessible across
tissues. We quantified this variation using the Jaccard distances, which measure the
overlap of ACR accessibility profiles across stages or organs, with higher values
indicating less shared accessibility (**Supplementary Tables S11-S12**). Surprisingly, the
Jaccard distances showed little correlation with the number of shared expression
categories across either stages or organs (**Fig. 4C**). Nevertheless, the higher Jaccard
distances across organs than across stages (**Fig. 4C**), together with the greater
expression dynamics observed across organs (**Fig. 4B**), suggests that variation in ACR
accessibility profiles across tissues influences expression stability.
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Tracing the evolution of duplicated *cis*-regulatory regions following two
rounds of whole-genome duplication
Soybean is a paleopolyploid species that has experienced two rounds of whole-
genome duplication, theoretically giving rise to four duplicated genes sharing a single
ancestral gene. Although extensive gene loss followed these duplications (Schmutz et al.
2010; Du et al. 2012; Zhao et al. 2017), the retained complete gene sets provide a
valuable framework for investigating the evolution of *cis*-regulatory regions, duplicated
alongside their associated genes (Li and Schmitz 2025), and its impact on gene
expression. We focused on four-gene sets, each derived from a single ancestral gene

shared across all bean-like (papilionoid) legume species, identifying a total of 1,904

gene sets, comprising 7,616 genes (**Supplementary Table S13**). By leveraging

phylogenetic trees of individual gene families across papilionoid species, we classified

gene pairs as originating from either the recent or ancestral whole-genome duplication

(**Supplementary Table S13**). Recently duplicated gene pairs exhibited higher similarity

in protein sequences and expression profiles, compared with ancestrally duplicated

ones (**Supplementary Figs.6-7 and Table S14-S21**). As expected, ACR sequences

associated with recently duplicated genes pairs were also notably more similar than

those associated with ancestrally duplicated pairs (**Supplementary Fig.8 and Table**

S22-28).

Four-gene sets exhibited complex expression patterns, reflecting both the number

of expressed genes and the varied expression correlations among them. To

characterize this expression divergence, gene sets were first categorized by the number

of expressed genes – mono-, dual-, tri-, and quad-expressed, with dual expressed sets

further subdivided into dual-recent (both expressed genes recently duplicated), and

dual-ancestral (both ancestrally duplicated). Quad-expressed sets were the most

frequent across most tissues, except in root, where non-expressed sets predominated

(**Fig. 5A and Supplementary Table S29**). Dual-ancestral sets were consistently the

least frequent, while other categories occurred at intermediate levels (**Fig. 5A and**

Supplementary Table S29). Dual-recent sets always showed a strong skew toward

high coexpression, reflecting their high expression similarity (**Supplementary Fig S9**

and Table S30). In contrast, other multi-expressed sets generally exhibited bimodal

coexpression distributions, indicating either coordinated or divergent expression

patterns, with the direction and magnitude of skew depending on both the number of

expressed gene and the tissue context (**Supplementary Fig. S9 and Table S30**).

To investigate the genetic variation and sequence origin of ACRs associated with

these duplicated gene sets, we BLASTed each ACR associated with a duplicated gene

against the reference regions of the other three duplicated genes within the same set.

Each ACR was then assigned a conservation count, defined as the number of times it

was conserved (BLASTed ratio > 0.1) across the three BLASTs. Based on this metric,

ACRs were classified into three categories: unique ACRs, with no conserved sequences

near any other duplicated genes, (conservation count = 0); two-copy conserved ACRs,

conserved between only two genes, most often the two genes derived from the most

recent duplication (conservation count = 1); and multiple-copy conserved ACRs,

conserved across three or four duplicated genes after two rounds of duplication

(conservation count = 3 or 2, with the latter suggesting possible loss of the ACR in one

duplicate) (**Fig. 5B**).

The proportion of two-copy or multi-copy conserved ACRs was generally similar,

and substantially higher than the proportion of unique ACRs, a pattern consistent across

gene sets with varying expression profiles (**Fig. 5C, Supplementary Fig. S10 and**

Table S31). These findings suggest that most ACRs associated with duplicated gene

sets are conserved regions, likely retained from at least one round of whole-genome

duplication, whereas only a small fraction are unique ACRs, potentially representing *de*

novo regions that evolved at a low rate, although some unique ACRs may also result

from loss in other duplicates. Notably, the relatively high frequence of multi-copy

conserved ACRs was unexpected, given the extensive turnover of regulatory regions

reported across multiple plant species with comparable divergence times (Lu et al.

2019). One possible explanation is that the divergence of non-coding sequences may

be more pronounced across species than within a single-genome; however, this

question requires further exploration in additional species and comparative contexts.

We further calculated the average BLASTed ratio and mismatch rate for two-copy and

multi-copy conserved ACRs. The higher genetic variation observed in multi-copy

compared with two-copy conserved ACRs supports a temporal model of regulatory

sequence divergence, in which ACRs gradually accumulate sequence variation over

time (**Fig. 5C, Supplementary Fig. S11 and Table S31**). Overall, however, there were

no substantial differences in either proportion or genetic variation of these ACRs among

gene sets with different expression patterns (**Fig. 5B - 5C, Supplementary Fig. S11**

and Table S31).

Evolution of cell-type-specific expression and cell-type-specific ACRs

Genes with cell-type-specific expression are essential for establishing or maintaining cell identity, with *cis*-regulatory elements determining the cell types, developmental stages and expression levels in which these genes are expressed (Wittkopp and Kalay 2012; Schmitz et al. 2022; Marand et al. 2023). We defined cell type-specific genes as those showing significantly higher expression in a given cell type compared to an equal number of randomly sampled cells from other cell types within the same tissue (Zhang et al. 2024). On average, 8,278 cell-type-specific genes were identified per tissue, with heart stage seed (11,497) having the highest number and early nodule (4,323) the lowest (**Supplementary Table S32**). Across developmental stages, these gene exhibited distinct dynamics: many maintained consistent cell-type-specific expression across stages (**Fig. 6A** - pattern 3), others were restricted to a single stage (**Fig. 6A** - pattern 2), and a smaller subset showed gains or losses of specificity during development (**Fig.** 6A - patterns 43 and 46), or shifts in specificity across stages (**Fig. 6A** - patterns 66 and pattern 102) (**Supplementary Tables S33-S34**).

Placing these genes within the framework of four-gene sets - where duplicates initially shared the same gene body and regulatory regions - allows us to trace the evolutionary trajectories of cell-type-specific expression and potentially uncover the regulatory regions driving these changes. We focused on the four-gene sets in which all four genes were expressed and at least one exhibited cell-type-specific expression, thereby avoiding confounding effects from loss of expression in some duplicates. These duplicated genes were clustered using a binary matrix indicating the presence or absence of significant differential expression across cell types within the respective tissue (**see Methods**) (**Supplementary Figs. S12-S18**). Based on the number of shared clusters within each set and the ratio of genes assigned to each cluster, we inferred distinct evolutionary paths of cell-type-specific expression (**Fig. 6B**) (**Supplementary Table S35**). A few sets were assigned to only a single cluster, suggesting that cell-type specificity likely originated before the first round of whole-genome duplication and was subsequently maintained through both rounds of duplications (**Fig. 6B** ⓘ) (**Supplementary Table S36**). In contrast, most sets had

multiple clusters, reflecting the divergence or emergence of novel expression patterns,

which may have arisen before (**Fig. 6B ▢**) or after the second round of whole genome

duplication (**Fig. 6B ▢**); with some sets exhibiting combinations of these scenarios (**Fig.**

6B ▢, ▢) (**Supplementary Table S36**).

To explore the role of *cis*-regulatory activities in shaping these cell-type-specific

expression dynamics within gene sets, we prioritized the analysis of their associated

cell-type-specific ACRs (ctACRs) (Zhang et al., 2025). Specifically, we focused on

ctACRs with significantly higher chromatin accessibility in the cell types where their

associated duplicated genes were specifically expressed (**See Methods**)

(**Supplementary Table S37**). Overall, conservation patterns of these ctACRs were

broadly similar across gene sets with distinct evolutionary trajectories of cell-type-

specific expression (**Supplementary Fig. S19**). Notably, gene sets forming a single cell-

type-specific expression cluster tended to have a higher proportion of multi-copy

conserved ctACRs compared to two-copy conserved or unique ctACRs

(**Supplementary Fig. S19**). These findings suggest that ctACRs with different

conservation states may play distinct roles in the evolution of cell-type-specific

expression.

Importantly, by integrating cell-type-specificity with regulatory sequence

conservation, we were able to pinpoint candidate ACRs responsible for cell-type-specific

expression. For example, in one four-gene set, a recently duplicated pair displayed

seed-coat epidermis specific expression in the cotyledon-stage seed (**Fig. 6C**, top

panel), whereas the other pair lacked cell-type-specific expression (**Fig. 6C**, bottom

panel). Within this set, we identified three ACRs exhibiting significantly higher chromatin

accessibility in seed-coat epidermis cells (**Supplementary Table S37**). Two of them

also showed elevated chromatin accessibility in seed-coat endothelium and were each

associated with one of the cell-type-specific genes separately (**Fig. 6D**). Additionally,

these two ACRs showed relatively high sequence conservation (**Supplementary Fig.**

S20). Together, these results suggest that the regulatory elements within these two

ctACRs likely arose *de novo* after the first round of whole-genome duplication, were

duplicated during the second duplication, and were ultimately retained, contributing to

cell-type-specific expression in these two genes (**Fig. 6C**. top panel). Although

experimental validation is still needed to confirm their functions, this approach

demonstrates a powerful strategy for identifying regulatory regions that drive cell-type-

specific expression and for advancing our understanding of the evolution of cell-type

specificity. Moreover, the dataset generated here provides a valuable community

resource for investigating specific cell types or duplicated gene sets of interest.

Discussion

Single-cell genomics: a key to understanding transcriptional divergence and genetic variants in chromatin accessibility

The transcriptional divergence of duplicated genes has been extensively studied in

polyploid plants (Du et al. 2012; Roulin et al. 2013; Zhao et al. 2017; Bird et al. 2020;

Wang et al. 2021; Han et al. 2022; Fang et al. 2023; Hu et al. 2024). However, most

previous studies relied on bulk RNA-seq, assessing divergence primarily through

differential expression at the tissue level, with only few extending analyses to the single-

cell scale (Coate et al. 2020). Compared to bulk approaches, single-cell genomics

revealed more nuanced forms of divergence, including shifts in expression across cell

types within a tissue and altered expression patterns across tissues (**Fig. 1 and 2**).

Characterizing both within- and across- tissue expression patterns provides a more

comprehensive view of the spatiotemporal dynamics of gene expression. These multi-

dimensional patterns also allows us to identify different drivers of expression divergence:

genetic variation within ACRs primarily shapes within-tissue divergence, whereas

variation in ACR chromatin accessibility profiles has a greater impact on cross-tissue

divergence. These findings suggest that *cis*-regulatory elements probably act

predominantly at the cellular level, and such patterns can best be captured through

single-cell genomics.

Admittedly, bulk ATAC-seq, which profiles ACRs at the tissue level, remains

powerful for detecting broad genome-wide patterns. In some cases, combining bulk

ATAC-seq with snRNA-seq could identify some candidate regulatory regions underlying

specific transcriptional patterns, for example, conserved ACRs with high BLASTed ratio

and low mismatch rate associated with dosage-balanced gene pairs or unBLASTed

ACRs linked to mono- or non-expressed gene pairs. However, scATAC-seq provides

cellular context for ACRs, which is particularly valuable for dissecting mechanisms of

cell-type-specific expression. When integrated with snRNA-seq, scATAC can help

identify candidate ctACRs responsible for conserved or shifted cell-type-specific

expression among duplicated genes, as exemplified in our duplicated gene sets (**Fig**.

6C and **6D**). Nevertheless, pinpointing the causal regulatory elements within these

ctACRs and understanding how these elements interact remains challenging.

The evolution of *cis*-regulatory elements

The duplication of *cis*-regulatory elements represents a key source of novel

regulatory sequences (McDonald and Reed 2024; Li and Schmitz 2025). Similar to

protein-coding sequences of duplicated genes, which often experience reduced

selective constraints (Kondrashov et al. 2002), duplicated *cis*-regulatory elements may

also undergo relaxed selection, and accumulate mutations through genetic drift,

potentially driving phenotypic novelty. This process is likely more pronounced following

whole-genome duplications than small-scale duplications. Duplicates arising from

whole-genome duplication tend to retain shared *cis*-regulatory elements (Shoemaker et

al. 2006), whereas those from small-scale duplications may not (Arsovski et al. 2015).

Consistent with this, we observed a higher percentage of ACRs that can be BLASTed to

corresponding duplicated regions in whole-genome duplication derived gene pairs

compared to small-scale duplication derived gene pairs, particularly transposed and

dispersed duplicates (**Supplementary Fig. S4**).

On other hand, transposed or dispersed duplicated genes, where the gene body

and likely its associated regulatory elements are translocated to new genomic

environments, may come under the influence of regulatory elements pre-existed in their

new surroundings. Alternatively, *de novo* regulatory elements could arise from

sequences that were previously non-regulatory (Katikaneni and Lowe 2025; Li and

Schmitz 2025). Both processes likely contribute to the greater divergence expression

patterns observed in these duplicates. Together, modifications of duplicated elements

and the *de novo* emergence of regulatory elements increase the diversity of regulatory

sequences Moreover, our observation that most ACRs had its duplicated counterparts

remained in the genome, with only a small subset of ACRs evolving *de novo,* suggest

that retention and modification of existing elements might occur more frequently than *de*

novo emergence.

Nevertheless, the precise genetic mechanisms and *cis*-regulatory activities that

drive distinct expression outcomes – such as paralogue dominance versus

specialization – remain unresolved. Still, other mechanisms, including epigenetic

modifications such as DNA methylation and histone modifications, can also attribute to

expression divergence. On the other hand, the relative contributions of evolutionary

forces, including drift and selection, in shaping variation within existing *cis*-regulatory

elements or in facilitating the emergence of novel ones are not yet fully understood.

Finally, the interplay between the evolution of *cis*-regulatory elements and their

associated protein-coding sequence remains underexplored.

Cell-type-specific expression in the framework of duplicated genes

The four-gene sets involved in cell-type-specific expression used in this study

provide a powerful framework for understanding the evolution of cell-type-specific

expression. The diverse evolutionary trajectories of cell-type-specific expression were

systematically explored and classified (**Fig.** 6B). Practically, this framework also enables

the identification of candidate ACRs underlying cell-type-specific expression, as

exemplified by seed-coat epidermal specific gene sets (**Fig. 6C** and **6D**). Identifying

these regulatory sequences not only advances our understanding of cell identity

formation, but also has potential application in synthetic biology, for instance, in

designing regulatory regions to drive expression in specific cell types.

Furthermore, these dynamics of cell-type-specific expression provide a valuable

perspective for studying subfunctionalization and neofunctionalization, the canonical

outcomes of duplicated genes over long evolutionary time (Ohno 1970; Lynch and

Conery 2000; Birchler and Yang 2022; Kuzmin et al. 2022; Gout et al. 2023). A

persistent challenge has been defining or quantifying these processes, but changes in

gene expression, particularly cell-type-specific changes, can serve as informative

indicator. For example, Tran et al. (2025) demonstrated that reduced expression of one

duplicated BLADE-ON-PETIOLE (BOP) gene in the bract-initiating region of *Capsella*

rubella impaired its ability to regulate floral organ number and suppress bract formation,

representing a step toward subfunctionalization. Building on this concept, our

examination of cell-type-specific expression dynamics in duplicated genes provides a

more quantitative means of evaluating these evolutionary outcomes. Integrating single-

cell genomics with the comparative studies, essential for inferring ancestral expression

patterns, offers a promising path to dissect subfunctionalization and neofunctionalization

in greater detail.

In summary, understanding the evolution of paralogs is crucial, as many crops,

including Solanum, grasses, and legumes, have similarly complex gene families that

undoubtedly influence agriculturally important traits. Gaining insights into the

transcriptional divergence of duplicated genes and the underlying *cis*-regulatory

dynamics can inform strategies for fine-tuning gene dosage, facilitating the engineering

of quantitative variation, and overcoming redundancy barriers in functional studies.

Methods

Duplicated gene pairs and gene sets in soybean

We identified duplicated gene pairs in soybean using the DupGen_finder pipeline

(https://github.com/qiao-xin/DupGen_finder), with common bean (*Phaseolus vulgaris*)

as the outgroup reference. We first performed all-against-all BLASTp within the soybean

genome and all-to-all BLASTp between the soybean and *P.vulgaris* genomes, using the

parameters "--sensitive --max-target-seqs 5 --evalue 1e-10". The resulting BLASTed

results were further filtered to retain only hits with sequence identity > 40% and

coverage >70%. To retain redundancy across duplication modes, we used

DupGen_finder.pl script, which classified duplicated gene pairs into five categories:

whole-genome duplication, tandem duplication, proximal duplication, transposed

duplication and dispersed duplication (**Fig. 1**). Gene pairs located in scaffolds were

excluded from further analyses.

To identify gene sets consisting exclusively of four whole-genome duplication

derived genes - presumably originating from two rounds of whole-genome duplications

in soybean - we used the legume gene family dataset from SoyBase

(https://www.soybase.org/), specifically the file "legume.fam3.VLMQ.sup1A_hsh.tsv",

which contains gene ID information for gene families shared across all papilionoid

legume species and the corresponding phylogenetic trees

("legume.fam3.VLMQ.sup1B_trees") built for each individual family. We first filtered the

dataset to retain only gene families containing exactly four duplicated genes in soybean,

and then further refined by cross-referencing with our previously identified whole-

genome duplication derived gene pairs to ensure all four genes were products of whole-

genome duplication. Finally, we used a customized script to identify the gene pairs

clustered within the same clade of the gene tree, suggesting they likely arose from

recent whole-genome duplication.

Expression dynamics of gene pairs or gene sets

Raw gene counts from seven tissues - root, hypocotyl, nodule, globular stage seed,

heart stage seed, cotyledon stage seed and early maturation stage seed - were

obtained from snRNA-seq (Zhang et al. 2024). Data from each tissue was analyzed

separately. Only genes with two replicates per cell type within the same tissue were

retained for downstream analyses. For each tissue, we calculated the Spearman

correlation between replicates of cell type and excluded cell types with low correlation

(0.75 or blow). To ensure consistency between cell types identified in the snRNA-seq

and scATAC-seq datasets, we focused only on cell types shared by both. Lowly

expressed genes were filtered using "filterByExpr" function, and the remaining gene

counts were normalized using "cpm" function in edgeR (Chen et al. 2025). Genes with

zero expression across all cell types within a tissue were classified as "non-expressed"

and excluded from further analysis. The remaining genes were used to construct

coexpression networks (Benoit et al. 2025) to assess whether duplicated gene pairs

exhibit similar expression profiles across cell types within a tissue.

To quantify expression relationships between duplicated genes within the same pair,

we calculated the absolute mean and standard deviation (SD) of log2-transformed fold

change across cell types within the same tissue (Benoit et al. 2025). Following (Benoit

et al. 2025), we classified duplicated gene pairs into six categories based on

coexpression and variation in expression levels, introducing "mono-expression" as an

additional category:

1. Dosage-balanced: coexpression > 0.9, mean $\log_2$ fold change <1, SD $\log_2$ fold

change <1

2. Paralogue dominance: coexpression > 0.9, mean $\log_2$ fold change >= 1, SD $\log_2$

fold change <1

3. Specialized: coexpression > 0.9, mean $\log_2$ fold change >= 1, SD $\log_2$ fold

change >=1

4. Diverged: coexpression < 0.5, mean $\log_2$ fold change >= 1, SD $\log_2$ fold

change >=1

5. Mono-expression: coexpression = NA.

6. Others: expressed gene pairs that did not fall into any of the above categories.

To investigate the dynamics of these expression patterns across tissues—

particularly across developmental stages and different organs—we consolidated them

into four simplified categories: non-expressed, mono-expressed, correlated-expressed

(including dosage balance, paralogue dominance, and specialization), and

uncorrelated-expressed (including divergence and "others"). We then assessed the

number of shared expression categories across seeds collected at four developmental

stages (globular, heart, cotyledon, and early maturation) and across four organs

(hypocotyl, root, early nodule, and heart-stage seed). Non-expression was treated as a

distinct case: it was excluded when evaluating shared expression categories if co-

occurring with any expressed category and was only assigned when a gene pair was

non-expressed across all organs or stages.

To assess transcriptional divergence of four-gene sets, we treated the four genes

as six gene pairs: two representing recently duplicated pairs (each clustered into

separate clades in the phylogenetic trees of the respective gene families) and four

representing ancestrally duplicated pairs (**Supplementary Table S13**). For each gene

pair, we calculated coexpression values, the absolute mean and standard deviation of
log2-transformed fold change, following the same approach used above to examine
expression divergence.
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Identification of cell-type-specific genes in each tissue in cultivated soybean

Cell-type-specific genes were identified using differential expression analysis for
each cell type within its respective tissue (Zhang et al. 2025). Gene counts were
aggregated across nuclei of the same cell type and compared to gene counts of an
equal number of randomly sampled cells from other cell types within the same tissue,
using edgeR (Chen et al. 2025). Genes with a log_2 fold change > 1 and an adjusted p-
value < 0.05 were classified as highly expressed in a given cell type. A gene was
defined as cell-type-specific if it was classified as highly expressed in at least one cell
type within its tissue. To further characterize their dynamics across tissues, we
examined cell-type-specificity across the same cell types - endosperm, seed-coat
endothelium, seed-coat epidermis and seed-coat parenchyma - in seeds sampled at
four different developmental stages (globular, heart, cotyledon and early-maturation).
To investigate the evolution of cell-type-specific expression among gene sets, we
first filtered for gene sets in which four duplicated genes were expressed and at least
one duplicate exhibited cell-type-specific expression. For these genes, we constructed a
binary matrix representing the presence (1) or absence (0) of significant differential
expression across cell types within the respective tissue. Rows with no variation across
cell types (i.e. all 0s) were removed prior to clustering. Pairwise distances between
genes were calculated using the Jaccard distance, defined as 1 minus the ratio of
shared presences to total presences and absences between two genes. Agglomerative
hierarchical clustering was performed using the Ward.D2 linkage method. The optimal
number of clusters was evaluated using the elbow method (within-cluster sum of
squares) and silhouette analyses (average silhouette width) based on hierarchical
clustering with Ward'D2 method. Genes were then assigned to clusters by cutting the
dendrogram at the selected value of k. The resulting clusters observed within the gene
set reflect the potentially varied evolutionary trajectories of cell-type-specific expression.

When all four genes grouped into a single cluster, cell-type-specific expression was

inferred to have evolved prior to the first whole-genome duplication (**Fig. 6B** ⬚). A two-

cluster distribution with a 2:2 ratio indicated evolution prior to the second whole-genome

duplication (**Fig. 6B** ⬚), whereas a 1:3 ratio suggested evolution after the second whole-

genome duplication (**Fig. 6B** ⬚). A three-cluster distribution with a 1:2:1 ratio was

interpreted as a combination of these scenarios (**Fig. 6B** ⬚). Finally, when four clusters

with a 1:1:1:1 ratio were observed, cell-type-specific expression was considered to

reflect a more complex integration of the above evolutionary processes (**Fig. 6B** ⬚).

Genetic variation in ACRs associated with gene pairs or gene sets

ACRs identified in soybean was obtained from (Zhang et al. 2024). The gene

closest to each ACR was defined as the gene-associated ACR, and this association was

determined using bedtools (Quinlan and Hall 2010). BLAST analysis was performed to

examine the sequence divergence of ACRs associated with the two genes within the

same duplication gene pair. The sequence of the ACR associated with one duplicated

gene was used as the query, while the sequence of the two adjacent genes from the

other duplicated gene served as the reference (**Fig. 3A**). These sequences were

isolated using the "getfasta" function in bedtools (Quinlan and Hall 2010). Then

sequence comparisons were performed using BLASTn with the following parameters "-

task blastn-short -evalue 1e-3 -max_target_seqs 4-word_size 7 -gapopen 5 -gapextend

2 -penalty -1 -reward 1 -dust no -outfmt 6" following (Mendieta et al. 2024).

ACRs were classified as conserved if more than 10% (approximately 50 bp) were

BLASTed to the reference region. The mean percentage of conserved ACRs were

calculated for each gene pair by dividing the number of conserved ACRs by the total

number of ACRs associated with that pair and then averaged across gene pairs with the

same expression pattern. The BLASTed ratio was calculated by dividing the length of

the BLASTed sequence in the reference region by the length of the query ACR. The

mismatch rate was calculated as the number of mismatches between the ACR and the

BLASTed sequence, divided by the length of the BLASTed sequence in the reference

region. The percentage of unBLASTed ACRs was calculated by dividing the number of

ACRs could not be BLASTed to the reference region by the total number of ACRs

associated with the gene pair. The average BLASTed ratio, mismatch rate, and

percentage of unBLASTed ACRs across all the ACRs associated with the gene pair

were calculated to represent the level of sequence divergence of ACRs for each gene

pair.

When measuring ACR sequence divergence across duplicated genes with the

gene sets, we classified the ACRs based on conservation count, defined as the number

of times an ACR was conserved (with a BLASTed ratio > 0.1) across the three BLASTs.

Based on this metric, ACRs were categorized as: unique ACRs, two-copy conserved

ACRs and multi-copy conserved ACRs (**Fig. 5B**). We examined the compositions of

these ACRs for ACRs associated with each gene set. For each gene set, we calculated

the average BLASTed ratio and mismatch rate for two-copy conserved ACRs, and

multiple-copy conserved ACRs associated with each gene set. When comparing the

ACR explaining cell-type-specific expression, we specifically focused on cell-type-

specific ACRs exhibiting higher chromatin accessibility in the cell types where their

associated genes were specifically expressed (Zhang et al. 2024).

Jaccard distance was calculated as 1 minus the ratio of shared presences to total

presences among all ACRs associated with each gene set across developmental stages

(globular, heart, cotyledon, and early-maturation stage seed) or organs (hypocotyl, root,

early nodule, and heart-stage seed), providing a measure of the overlap in ACR

accessibility profiles, where higher values indicate lower overlap (i.e., less shared

accessibility).

All scripts for data processing and analysis are available at the following GitHub

repository: https://github.com/Xianglichina/soybean_duplicated_genes_single_cell.git.

During the preparation of this manuscript, we used ChatGPT to refine code and improve

readability and language. All content was subsequently reviewed and edited by the

authors, who take full responsibility for the final version.

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Author contributions

X.L., X.Z., and R.J.S. designed the study. X.L. and X.Z. analyzed data. X.L. prepared figures. X.L. and R.J.S. wrote the manuscript.

Figure 1. Different duplication mechanisms and distinct within-tissue expression

patterns.

A) Illustration of different gene duplication mechanisms, including whole-genome

duplication (WGD), dispersed duplication (DSD), proximal duplication (PD), tandem

duplication (TD), and transposed duplication (TRD). **B)** Percentages of duplicated gene

pairs derived from different duplication mechanisms. **C-H)** Representative examples of

duplicated gene pairs exhibiting distinct within-tissue expression patterns in early nodule

tissue: (**C**) dosage balanced, (**D**) paralogue dominance, (**E**) specialization, (**F**)

divergence, (**G**) mono-expressed and (**H**) others. In each panel, blue and red dots/lines

represent the two genes within a duplicated pair, with two biological replicates included

for each gene.

Figure 2. Distributions of distinct within-tissue expression patterns of duplicated gene

pairs.

A) Number of duplicated gene pairs classified by distinct expression patterns within a

tissue, including mono-expressed, dosage balanced, paralogue dominance,

specialization, divergence and others (as described in Fig.1), as well as non-expressed

category. **B)** Relationship between gene duplication mechanisms and expression

patterns. The left panel categorizes genes based on duplication mechanisms: whole-

genome duplication (WGD), tandem duplication (TD), proximal duplication (PD),

dispersed duplication (DSD), and transposed duplication (TRD). The right panel

represents gene expression patterns. Flow width indicates the relative frequency of

each transition, highlighting how different duplication mechanisms contribute to within-

tissue expression variation.

Figure 3. Genetic variation within ACRs associated with gene pairs with different within-

tissue expression patterns.

A) Illustration of the query and reference region for a BLAST: an ACR sequence

associated with duplicated gene1 as a query, whereas the genomic region spanning

from the upstream to the downstream gene of duplicated gene2 as a reference region.

B) Number of ACRs BLASTed to the reference region in the cotyledon stage seed.

ACRs with a BLASTed ratio greater than 0.1 are classified as conserved. **C)** Mean

percentage of conserved ACRs (black bars) across gene pairs with different within-

tissue expression patterns in the cotyledon stage seed. **D)** Mean BLASTed ratio of

conserved ACRs across gene pairs with different within-tissue expression patterns in

the cotyledon stage seed. The size of dots represents the mean mismatch rate of

conserved ACRs across gene pairs with different within-tissue expression patterns in

the cotyledon stage seed. The color of dots represents different expression patterns. **E)**

Mean percentage of ACRs without a corresponding sequence in the reference region

(unBLASTed ACRs) across gene pairs with different within-tissue expression patterns in

the cotyledon stage seed. **F)** Number of ACRs associated with each duplicated gene

within gene pairs exhibiting different within-tissue expression patterns in the cotyledon

stage seed. Within each gene pair, the gene associated with a higher number of ACRs

is classified into the large count group, whereas the one with fewer ACRs is classified

into the small count group.

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Figure 4. Across-tissue expression patterns of duplicated gene pairs.

A) Number of duplicated gene pairs classified by combinations of expression patterns

across seven examined tissues. **B)** Pie charts showing the percentages of duplicated

gene pairs with different number of shared expression categories across stages or

across organs. **C)** Jaccard distance, which measures the overlap of ACR chromatin

accessibility profiles across stages or organs, of duplicated gene pairs group by the

number of shared expression categories across stages or across organs.

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Figure 5. Proportions and sequence divergence of ACRs with different conservation

states across gene sets with distinct expression patterns.

A) Number of duplicated gene sets classified by the number of genes expressed,

including, quad-expressed, tri-expressed, dual-recent, dual-ancestral, mono-expressed

and non-expressed. **B)** Classifications of gene sets by the number of genes expressed

and ACRs based on their conservation count: unique ACR, two-copy conserved ACR

and multi-copy conserved ACR. **C)** Proportions of ACRs with different conservation

states associated with gene sets exhibiting different expression patterns in cotyledon

stage seed. **D)** Mean BLASTed ratio of two-copy conserved or multi-copy conserved

ACRs across gene sets with different expression patterns in cotyledon stage seed.

Figure 6. Evolution of cell-type-specific expression.

A) Dynamics of cell-type-specific expression across stages, with ones indicating cell-

type-specific expression in the given cell type and stage and zeros indicating absence

of cell-type-specific expression. **B)** Schematic of initial expression ⬚ in duplicated gene

sets and possible evolutionary trajectories of cell-type-specific expression: ⬚ evolved

before the first round of whole-genome duplication; ⬚ evolved before the second round

of whole genome duplication; ⬚ evolved after the second round of whole-genome

duplication; ⬚ and ⬚ combinations of scenarios. **C)** Gene set in which two recently

duplicated genes show seed coat epidermic-specific expression (top), while the other

two do not (bottom). **D)** The ACRs associated with the duplicated genes exhibiting seed-

coat epidermic specific expression showing higher chromatin accessibility in this cell

type and seed-coat endothelium. Em: Embryo; SC: Seed Coat.

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